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Chapter I.

GEOGRAPHY, CLIMATE, AND PEOPLE.

The Republic of Ecuador owes its name to the fact that the equator traverses its territory at a very short distance from its capital and divides the country into two sections north and south of the line. Numerous islands belong to the Republic, some of them being situated either close to the coast or at comparatively short distances, while others, like the Galapagos Archipelago, are 600 miles, if not more, from the continent. The Constitution of Ecuador describes the territory of the Republic as consisting "of the Provinces which formed what was called in olden times the *Presidencia de Quito* and the *Archipelago of Galapagos*."

The limits of this vast territory, which lies between Colombia on the north, Brazil on the east, Peru on the south, and the Pacific Ocean on the west, have never been surveyed, nor even determined. Article 2 of the Constitution contains a provision also that the boundaries shall be established by treaties. The governments of Ecuador and Peru reached an agreement in 1888 by which all questions in regard to their frontier were submitted to the decision of the Queen Regent of Spain. Her Majesty consented to assume the responsibility, but her consent was given upon the express understanding that her Government would not undertake to consider the matter until after two cases of similar character, one between Colombia and Venezuela and the other between Costa Rica and Colombia, also submitted to her for adjustment, were finally disposed of. The case between Colombia and Venezuela was settled by the royal award of March 16, 1891, which

both parties accepted. That between Colombia and Costa Rica is no longer before Her Majesty. Colombia withdrew from the arbitration on the ground that the time allowed by the treaty had expired. The Spanish Government having, under these circumstances, abstained from taking any action on that subject, it was expected that the vexed and long-standing question between Ecuador and Peru would be speedily taken up and settled. But, according to the message of President Flores to the Ecuadorian Congress, June 10, 1892, some obstacles have been raised on the part of the Peruvian Congress, and the arbitration has been suspended.

With Brazil there seems to be no question, because the treaty of 1777 between Spain and Portugal, which were then the owners of the two territories, marked the limits between them with tolerable accuracy. But even if there were questions in regard to this point, they would be of no practical importance—at least at the present time—because the boundary on that side passes through an uninhabited wilderness.

As to the northern limit, which has been for a long time and is still in dispute with Colombia, an effort is being made diplomatically on the part of Ecuador to have it settled by treaty.

It may be said, however, that independent of any changes which may be effected by virtue of the settlements above referred to, the territory of Ecuador lies between $1^{\circ} 56'$ north latitude and $5^{\circ} 30'$ south latitude, and longitudes $69^{\circ} 52'$ and $80^{\circ} 35'$ west of Greenwich. Its greatest length, from north to south, has been calculated to be in the neighborhood of 520 miles, while its greatest width, from east to west, is estimated at 740 miles. The ocean front, owing to its extended curvilinear projection, its indentations, and its sinuosities of all kinds, measures at least 2,000 miles.

The total area of the Republic, never ascertained by actual survey, has been generally believed to be 118,630 square miles. The geographer Villavicencio increases these figures to 127,205,

while Hanemann and other well-known authorities, through planimetric calculations, have concluded to make it 248,580 square miles.

The islands of the Archipelago of Galapagos, which by an act of the Ecuadorian Congress of August 20, 1885, have been made a part, or a dependency, of the Province of Guayas, whose capital is Guayaquil, are, without including several islets and keys of little or no importance, eleven in number. Most of them are situated between the equator and the first parallel south. They were named by the Spaniards, when discovered by them, Las Islas Encantadas, or Enchanted Islands, probably on account of their loneliness. Due attention will be given to them in a separate chapter of this Hand Book.

There is, probably, no country in the world which presents a more varied surface than Ecuador. The great chain of the Andes assumes, as it enters Ecuador, a particular form, which it retains until it leaves the territory. Far from being a labyrinth of mountains, as it is in Colombia, the cordillera crosses Ecuador from NNE. to SSE. in the shape of two almost parallel ranges, which at certain points are connected by transverse ridges, which the people of the country call *nudos*, or knots. Owing to this peculiar arrangement, the Ecuadorian Andes present the appearance of a gigantic ladder, lying flat on the ground, provided with eight rounds, or steps, more or less crooked or straight, and more or less equidistant from each other, which leave between them the vast spaces, or plateaux, where the greatest number of the inhabitants of the Republic have their abode. By the side of the two formidable barriers, which run from north to south, some other chains of mountains, of comparatively lesser importance, arise like buttresses, as if intended to give to the former additional support or strength; and they, as well as their different and more or less numerous subdivisions or branches, slowly descend until they reach the sea on the one side, or disappear in the jungles of the Amazon on the other.

Among the gigantic mountains which constitute this system, perhaps with only one exception the highest group in the world, there are many whose summits are perpetually clad with snow, while others are active volcanoes, of great power and energy, in many instances in constant eruption. Conspicuous among the former, are the Cayambe and the Altar, or Capac-urcu, on the eastern chain, and the celebrated Chimborazo, the Iliniza and the Carhuairazo, on the western slope. Among the volcanoes in full activity, prominently appear Tungurahua, Zara-urcu, Macas or Langay, and Cotopaxi, on the eastern chain, and Pichincha and Cotacachi, on the western.

Says Don Pedro Fermin Cevallos, the author of an admirable book on this Republic :

Nature, which generally in America shows herself majestic and full of beauty and sublimity, seems to have selected Ecuador, the land where the soil is higher and where the sun throws its rays vertically, to better show her power and strength, even by appearing to defy her own laws. Side by side with the most gigantic summits, the deepest hollows and gorges can be seen. Close to perpetual ice and snows, fire, likewise perpetual, is exhibited to the eye; and charming valleys, remarkable for their luxuriant vegetation and verdant freshness, alternate with the most desolate deserts and precipices. Everywhere appears, as if in unseemly confusion, winter mingled with summer; the dry sands of the desert with the green grass of the meadows; the sowing season with the harvest season. At the same time, in the same month, and at comparatively short distances, the vegetation appears in all shades, from the tender green of the spring to the yellow-tinted shades of the fall.*

The great basins of Quito, Ambato, and Cuenca, more particularly the former, although it is the highest, seem to be the abodes of perpetual spring and are the centers of the agriculture of the country. The Quito Valley is at 9,500 feet above the sea, while the Ambato and Cuenca valleys lie, respectively, 8,500 and 7,800 feet above the same level.

Says the Encyclopedia Britannica :

Nowhere in the whole Andean system do the individual mountains attain so

* Resumen de la Historia del Ecuador desde su origen hasta 1845, por Pedro Fermin Cevallos. (Second edition.) Guayaquil, 1886. Vol. 1, pp. 14 and 15.

magnificent a development as in the Ecuadorian section. Around the valley of Quito alone there are twenty noble volcanic summits, presenting a beautiful variety of form; here a perfect, and there a truncated cone; here a jagged and blasted crest, and there again a smooth, snow-covered dome.

The country is crossed in all directions by ninety-one rivers of different size and importance, which form two well-marked systems. One consists of the streams which flow toward the east or the southeast, emptying their waters into the gigantic Amazon, which, while traversing the Ecuadorian territory, is called the Marañón River; and the other is formed by the streams which take their course toward the west or the southwest, and empty into the Pacific Ocean. The principal rivers of the first group are the noble ones called Napo and Putumayo. The volume of water of the Napo is increased by a number of powerful tributaries, among which the Ahuarico, Curaray, Coca, Tigre, Morona, Pastaza, and Santiago deserve special mention. The magnificent Putumayo traverses the Province of Oriente in a generally southeast direction, and runs for a great distance almost parallel to the Colombian frontier, receiving in its course the waters of many affluents. Its junction with the Amazon is not effected until after it has left Ecuadorian soil and has run a great distance through the forests of Brazil.

The rivers of the second group, if not so remarkable for their length and volume of water, deserve, nevertheless, to be mentioned, both on account of their size and their commercial importance. The Mira River, the most northern of all, flows through the Provinces of Imbaura and Esmeraldas, and receives in its course a considerable number of affluents, among them the Nulpe River, which belongs to Colombia. Then comes the Santiago River, which has three principal affluents, named the Bogotá, the Cachabí, and the Caypas, all of them in the northern part of the Republic. More to the south, the Esmeralda River, the largest perhaps of the group, empties into the ocean, after having collected the waters of the Cotopaxi and other tributaries, one of which (the Pedregal

River) is broken by a beautiful cascade, about 220 feet high and two others of lesser height. Still further to the south, are various rivers which form what has been called the Guayaquil system, such as the Daule, the Babahoyo, the Yaguachi, and many others, which, with their respective tributaries, enrich the volume of the Guayas River, as it is called until it empties into the Gulf of Guayaquil.

Many of the rivers above mentioned are navigable by steamers for a great distance inland and are important factors in the commerce of the nation.

Ecuador has a number of lakes, but most of them are small. The San Pablo Lake, at the foot of the mountain Imbabura, is 5 miles in circumference. The Yaguar-cocha, or Lake of Blood, not far from the city of Ibarra, owes its sad name to the fact that thousands of Caranqui Indians were thrown into its waters by the troops of the Inca Huani-Capac. It is 10 miles in circumference and has a depth of about 333 feet. The Cuy-cocha Lake, on the southeast skirt of the Cota-cachi Mountain, lies at about 10,200 feet above the level of the sea, being, therefore, one of the highest lakes in the world, and has a circumference of about 7 miles. The Rimachuma, in the Province of Oriente, which is the largest of all the Ecuadorian lakes, has the Pastaga River for its outlet and measures about 24 miles from its northern to its southern extreme.

The coast of the Republic presents a pronounced curvilinear convex front, with numerous capes and promontories, and deep indentations, the most prominent of which is the gulf of Guayaquil. It is provided with a considerable number of bays and ports, some of which are important commercially as well as geographically. The nearest to the Colombian frontier, is the port of Pailón, also called San Lorenzo Bay, easily accessible to vessels drawing 22 feet of water. Further south, is the port of Esmeraldas, at the mouth of the river of the same name, admitting vessels drawing 16 feet of water. The port of Atacames, celebrated in history for having been the first city with streets and large popu-

lation seen by Pizarro in South America, has a depth of from 16 to 18 feet of water.

The San Francisco Bay has 28 feet of water; the roadstead, called "Pedernales," 30 feet; the bay, called now "Bahia," and in the time of the Spaniards "San Antonio de Caracas," because of its resemblance to La Guayra, the seaport of Caracas, in Venezuela, has 35 feet; the port named Manta, 26 feet, and the Santa Elena Bay, 28 feet. The bay of Guayaquil, the principal gateway of Ecuadorian commerce, has a depth averaging between 18 and 20 feet. In addition to these ports, there are many others of less importance, both on the mainland and in the islands close to it, which are accessible to small craft and are capable of becoming of great value to navigation and commerce.

There are several light-houses along this coast, which render it, as President Flores stated in his message of 1890 to the Ecuadorian Congress, the best lighted on the Pacific side of South America.

Among the islands which are found more or less close to the Ecuadorian coast are some which deserve special mention, for their size, their situation, or their historical antecedents. Others are of scarcely any value at all. There are, among the former, the islands of Morro, Agua Clara, Tumaco, Corrales, Juron, Manglares, Pailón, Limones, Tola, Zapotal, and Cojimies, belonging to the Province of Esmeraldas and opposite its coast; those of Plata, Salango, Ahorcados, El Pelado, opposite the coasts of the Provinces of Manabí and Guayas; the celebrated islands of Puná, where Pizarro first landed, and Santa Clara, also called "del Muerto" (of the dead man), because it looks like a corpse floating in the water, and finally the Mangles Islands and the islands of Escalante, Moquiñaña, Verde, Mondragon, Matorillo, Jambelí, Vongal, Chupadores, and Payana. Besides these islands of the sea, there are innumerable others in the different rivers, both on the eastern and western side of the Andes.

Mr. George Earl Church, who, under the title of "Ecuador in 1881," wrote a book which has had considerable circulation, describes the topography of Ecuador in the following words:*

Geographically and topographically, Ecuador is divided into three great sections by a double line of the Andes, the Pacific coast range, and the inland range. These are from 40 to 60 miles apart, and they run nearly parallel to each other, north-northeast by south-southwest. The inland one is powerfully counterforted on the Amazon side by numerous, immense, and long spurs, between which flow great affluents of the river Amazon. The Pacific coast range throws out short and precipitous spurs towards the river systems of western Ecuador. Between the two Cordilleras, lies a plateau 7,000 feet high upon the border of Colombia, rising gradually to 9,500 feet at Quito, and more or less maintaining that elevation to the vicinity of Peru, where it again descends to 7,000 feet.

On this plateau, are found short and broken ridges, which, however, sometimes almost connect the two ranges from east to west. These ridges cut the grand plateau into eight subdivisions, which are filled with hills, valleys, canyons, gorges, and are more or less scoured by small rivers and violent torrents. This inter-Andean section has a small area of forest lands of stunted growth. The wood is of inferior quality for building purposes, rots quickly, and is gnarled and crooked. Good lumber is almost unknown on the table lands of Ecuador, and is very expensive. Along the eastern chain of the Andes are found eleven principal mountains, and along the western ten, varying in height from 15,000 feet to that of Chimborazo, who lifts his mighty dome 21,220 feet above the sea. There are also seventeen other peaks in the Ecuadorian Andes, ranging from 10,000 to 14,800 feet high. Ten of the above mountains are volcanoes, more or less active. They have written their history in ash, lava, pumice, ruined town, and desolated field over a vast area of country. Cotopaxi and Sangay have alone desolated several thousands of square miles of Ecuador. As one rides through the river gorges, geological sections are exposed, hundreds of feet in thickness of volcanic rock and ash alternating with thin caps of earth, showing what a perfect furnace of nature Ecuador has been. This volcanic area extends from the border of Colombia to the northern part of Loja, which is the Province bordering Peru, and includes much of the Amazon, as well as the Pacific slope of the Andes. The volcanic ash has, however, certain fertilizing qualities, and is soon covered with vegetation, resulting in a productive

* Printed as an executive document of the Senate, by resolution of February 16, 1883. (Ex. Doc. No. 69, Senate, 47th Congress, 2d session.) It was reprinted in the South American Journal, London, 1883.

earth cap. The western or Pacific coast section must have been, at no very remote geological period, an archipelago, the islands of which were the outposts of the Andes, presenting hills and ridges of slate formation rising from 50 to 3,000 feet above the ocean, and having a certain parallelism with the Andean range. The slow uplifting of the coast line, the denudation of the Cordillera, and the decomposition of its porphyritic and dioritic rocks filled the intervals between these islands with a fine, reddish clay earth, resulting generally in such an elevation that the floods of the rainy season do not cover the low lands, except in the valley of the Guayaquil River and its branches, which are for several months of the year flooded. So rapid, however, is this filling-up process that it threatens to destroy the usefulness of Guayaquil as a port for the entrance of deep-draft vessels.

Most of the lands of this western section are forest-covered, of a class and variety of excellent hard woods for building or cabinet purposes. The nearer one approaches the base of the ridge of the Andes the larger and taller the trees become, until, in the gorges of the western spurs, one finds the hothouses of nature, which, steaming under a tropical sun, force into existence a rank and prodigal vegetation, where each plant and tree has to wage desperate war for existence, and where, when some monarch of the forest lifts his crest above his fellows, tons of lianas, mosses, and parasites tug at trunk and branch until the exhausted giant is borne to earth.

The eastern or Amazon section is also completely forest-covered. The dry winds which leave the coast of the African desert become thoroughly saturated in their westward transit of the Atlantic Ocean, and, when they reach the forest-covered valley of the Amazon, begin to pour their waters upon its dense vegetation. As they approach the vicinity of the numerous snow peaks of Ecuador the precipitation of storm shower and mists is apparently endless, and the rank growth among the foothills of the Andes becomes dense and almost impenetrable; so much so that man stands but little chance when he undertakes to do battle with the forces of nature in these equatorial districts.

The most characteristic features of the climate of Ecuador can be gathered easily from the description already made of the physical aspect of its territory. With such high mountains in the center, and a sea coast between the tropics, Ecuador has one region which is tropical, and another where the snow never melts. The peculiar position of her territory allows the days and nights to be equal in duration during the whole year, and permits the solar rays to fall perpendicularly, or almost so, upon it, at all times and seasons. Because of this or other reasons, the snow line is not so low in Ecuador as elsewhere, nor are the rigors of winter so intensely felt in the inhabited cold sections of the country as they are in other places located at the same height and latitude. The snow

line in Ecuador being at a much higher elevation than in Europe, vegetable and animal life are to be found at a correspondingly greater height than in the latter. The Mount of St. Bernard, the highest point of permanent human habitation in Europe, is only 8,377 feet above the level of the sea; while the Tambo de Antisana, inhabited by Ecuadorian shepherds from January to January, is perched at a height of 13,360 feet.

Says the *Encyclopedia Britannica*:

Most of the towns and villages of the central plateaux, from Ibarra to Cuenca, lie between 8,500 and 9,500, while many of the huts of the cattlemen are at a height of from 11,500 to 12,800.

Strange as it may appear at first sight, the temperature at these elevated regions does not correspond to the altitude. The mean temperature at the Antisana Tambo is only 41° F. In speaking of Quito, which is 9,500 feet above the level of the sea, Prof. Orton, of New York, says:

The traveler is charmed in looking at the carpet of perpetual verdancy on which Quito stands. * * * The climate is delightful. * * * It is neither summer, nor spring, nor autumn; but each day of the year offers a singular combination of the three seasons. Neither cholera, nor yellow fever, nor consumption is known there. The mild and healthy temperature which prevails at that capital is something admirable. In short, it may be said that the great plateau of Quito is a kind of paradise.

Señor Cevallos says that at Otavalo, Province of Imbabura, cases of longevity, 100 and 120 years, are frequent, and can be cited as testimony of the salubrity of that section of the country.

On the low lands on the coast the thermometer ranges at times very high, but according to the statements of Señor Cevallos—

The hot scorching air which continually surrounds the inhabitants of other places of the same latitude is never breathed there. The lands of Africa and the East Indies, which occupy on the globe the same geographical position as ours, are scarcely inhabited, owing principally to their parched condition. Those of Ecuador, on the contrary, enjoy a perpetual spring. The equality of days and nights, and the proximity of the snow-capped mountains, together with the abundance of forests, cause the air, which has been heated for twelve hours, to turn cool and pleasant during the other half day, and through this constant alternation, all excesses in the temperature are actually moderated.

According to the Encyclopedia Britannica, the mean temperature at Guayaquil is 83° F.

There are in Ecuador only two seasons. One is called "invierno" (winter), which is the rainy season, beginning in December and ending in May. The other, called "verano" (summer), is the dry season, beginning in June and ending in November. Sometimes the summer is interrupted, generally after the September equinox, by a short period of rains, which is called the "inviernillo de Octubre" (October's little winter). The winter is often interrupted also, after the solstice of December, by a short dry period, which is called "veranillo" (little summer).

Says Geographer Villavicencio:

This regularity of the seasons is only well marked in the canyon between the two main cordilleras, and in the plains between the coast and the declivities of the mountains. In the littoral, during the winter, the horizon is perfectly clear, but from time to time, severe rainstorms burst forth to give fertility to the land. In the summer, the horizon is often cloudy, and fine rain, which the people call "garúa," is unceasingly falling. On the summits of the mountains, and in the highest table-lands and plateaux, there are sometimes in summer heavy hail and snow storms, which render travel difficult and even dangerous. Sometimes, severe frosts, during the same season, kill the tender plants. * * * In the littoral, the wind blows generally from the south during the summer and from the north during the winter. The north wind is generally cold, as it blows across tracts of land covered with snow.

Says Mr. Church, in the work before cited:

The climate in the inter-Andean section is in the north like a constant June month in New England; in the center and around Quito, it is like September and early October; and in the south, bordering upon Peru, again like June. * * * The strongest winds in the Andes are during July and August, and these, at times, are accompanied by storm and hail. The Amazon slope is forever hot and steaming, but with the recompense of refreshing nights. * * * The Pacific coast section is a few degrees hotter in the southwest, around Guayaquil, than it is in the northwest, where the sea breezes temper the atmosphere and make it more endurable; but in no part of the western division does the thermometer ever reach the degree that it sometimes indicates in New York, while in many parts, the climate is very agreeable and causes no suffering whatever from excessive heat. The nights, too, are always cool and refreshing.



Says the American Cyclopaedia:

The climate on the whole is salubrious, particularly that of the valley between the Cordilleras. Intermittent and other fevers are frequent in the coast region, but they are unknown in the highlands, and pulmonary consumption is rarely heard of. Physicians may find it interesting to study how it is, if the fact is so well established as it is claimed, that "tubercular disease of the lungs is completely unknown 8,000 feet above the level of the sea, while it is one of the most frequent of diseases in the coast districts of tropical America." The effects on human organism of the ascension of the loftier summits are very variously described, owing, doubtless, to individual differences of constitution. One thing seems established, that the pugnacious instincts both of men and animals are greatly weakened.

The Indian population, according to Mr. Church, appears to be exempted from many diseases to which the white and mixed races are subject. The Indians, he says, suffer from almost nothing except rheumatism and gastric and intestinal infirmities, with an occasional sporadic case of typhus fever.

The annual death rate at Quito is said to be about 36 per 1,000. But proper drainage and cleanliness might make that city, according to Mr. Church, one of the healthiest in the world.

The inhabitants of Ecuador may be divided into five different classes, as follows: (1) The white natives; (2) the pure negroes; (3) the pure Indians; (4) the mixed races; (5) the foreigners. The white natives of Ecuador, who are almost all of pure Spanish descent, and who, unfortunately, form only about 10 per cent of the whole population, constitute an element as highly respectable, progressive, intelligent, and thoroughly cultivated as can be found anywhere else in Europe or America. They have shown their qualifications and ability as diplomatists, legislators, soldiers, historians, and writers; they have dealt creditably with all branches of science and art, and when the occasion has presented; as it happened in the International American Conference, held at Washington from 1889 to 1890, to make a good show of superiority, as well as of forethought and good judgment, Ecuador has found in this class of its people most worthy representatives. The historian



ECUADOR INDIANS.

Cevallos says that this element is now constantly increasing in number, owing to the influx of Europeans and Americans of the white race who come to the country. He also states that the infusion of this fresh Caucasian blood into the veins of the white natives produces, so far as ethnical considerations are concerned, the most admirable results. According to the calculations of Mr. Church, there were not more than 100,000 white native people in Ecuador in the year 1881.

When Ecuador, on September 27, 1852, finally abolished slavery, only 2,484 negroes were found in that condition of life. At present, as stated by Mr. Church, the negro element in Ecuador is scarcely worth computing, its principal home being found in the localities immediate to the coast, especially in the Provinces of Manabí and Esmeraldas. The pure negro is fast merging into the mixed-race class.

A large part of the inhabitants of Ecuador, probably more than 60 per cent of the total population, consists of Indians more or less converted to Christianity and only partially civilized. Cevallos estimates at 80,000 inhabitants the whole population of the Province of Oriente, of whom he says "70,000 are walking in the paths of idolatry." Of course, there is no way to ascertain, with any approach to accuracy, the strength of the savage tribes which roam through the deserts and forests in the remotest provinces.

Señor Cevallos says :

These Indians are copper colored, with long, straight, and shiny hair, and generally of very scanty beard, or none at all. Their eyes are black and small, their noses well formed, their teeth white and well shaped, their lips rather thick than thin, and their shoulders and chests broad and strongly built. They are commonly short of stature. Their feet are short, but very broad and never shod. * * * Their predominant disposition is phlegmatic, and their character melancholy, self-possessed, and extremely distrustful. They are strong and vigorous in so far as the ability to carry heavy loads on their backs and transport them to far distant places is concerned. They might also be considered indefatigable, if their ability to overcome on foot enormous distances,

rapidly walking through all kinds of routes, climbing up and crossing thick forests, is exclusively taken into account. But for everything else, they are extremely weak and lazy, and form a very inactive factor, almost absolutely negative, in the civilization of the country.

Speaking of these Indians, the report of Mr. Church says:

They are short in stature, broad, and muscular. The women among them are the best workers. They are of that numerous Quichua race which formed the great mass of the population of the Inca Empire, which extended from 3° north of the equator to the northern Provinces of Chile, and the outlying boundary of which I have, in my travels, traced to Santiago del Estero, in the Argentine Republic, and to Santa Cruz de la Sierra, in eastern Bolivia, and 200 miles east of Cuzco, in the valleys of the rivers Purus, Mayu-tata, and Beni, regions now reconquered and occupied by savage Tacana and other tribes. The Aymara race, occupying La Paz, Bolivia, and vicinity, and extending northwest along the lake of Titicaca in fragmentary parts, even to the north of Puno, was a conquered one, transplanted and enveloped by the Quichua, probably to keep his virile and somewhat energetic nature under pacific control. The language is distinctive, although having some similarity to the Quichua, and is very perfect in construction, especially in its verbs, which have less broken roots than those of any known tongue, while it is more forcible and expressive than Quichua. The Ecuadorian Indian has a more genial expression of face than the Quichua and Aymara of Bolivia and Peru. Sad as his countenance is, under the influence of high mountain climate and three centuries of Spanish severity, he smiles more frequently than his mournful Peruvian and Bolivian fellows, who, however, occupy a more arid and somber zone. Like them, he is very fecund, and if care were taken of his offspring would cause the country to rapidly increase in population. His life is frugality itself; his wants few. The cost with him of raising a child to maturity can not much exceed that in the Nile Valley or on the laguna estates of Coahuila, in northern Mexico. His docility is wonderful; his individuality and manliness, if ever he possessed such qualities, have been all ground out of him, and he is apparently devoid of all elements out of which to create a virile nation.

Mr. Church remarks further that none of these 600,000 Indians, save with very rare exceptions, own a particle of real estate.

According to calculations of Mr. Church for 1891, the mixed races of Ecuador formed an aggregate of 300,000 people, who preserve the physical appearance as well as the disposition of their

progenitors in proportion to the ethnical element which prevailed in the mixture. As Señor Cevallos says :

The son of an European mother and an Indian father, who marries a white woman, will raise children much more resembling the white type than the Indian; and *vice versa*, the children of the same man by an Indian woman, will be nearer the Indian in type than the white.

The intermixture of white and Indian forms what, in the language of the country, is called mestizos, and the offspring of mestizos and Indians are the cholos. The crossing of white and negro, and of negro or mulatto and Indian, produces the classes named, respectively, mulattoes, zambos, and zambaigos. The color among these people constitutes a grade of superiority in rank, or at least in self-esteem. "The mestizo," says Señor Cevallos, "offends another man of his class by calling him cholo, and the cholo gets angry if he is called mulatto, or the mulatto himself if he is called zambo." But they all, according to Mr. Church, furnish, as a class, the material from which revolutions and acts of wlessness unfortunately spring.

According to a report of Mr. William B. Sorsby, United States Consul general at Guayaquil, dated September 1, 1890, and published under the title of "Commerce and Products of Ecuador," the Colombians and the Italians represent the greatest portion of the foreign element of the Caucasian race to be found in the Republic. Then come the Germans, who are the foreigners representing the largest amount of invested foreign capital. And then, almost equally divided, the American, the English, and the French. There are also in Ecuador a number of Chinese residents.

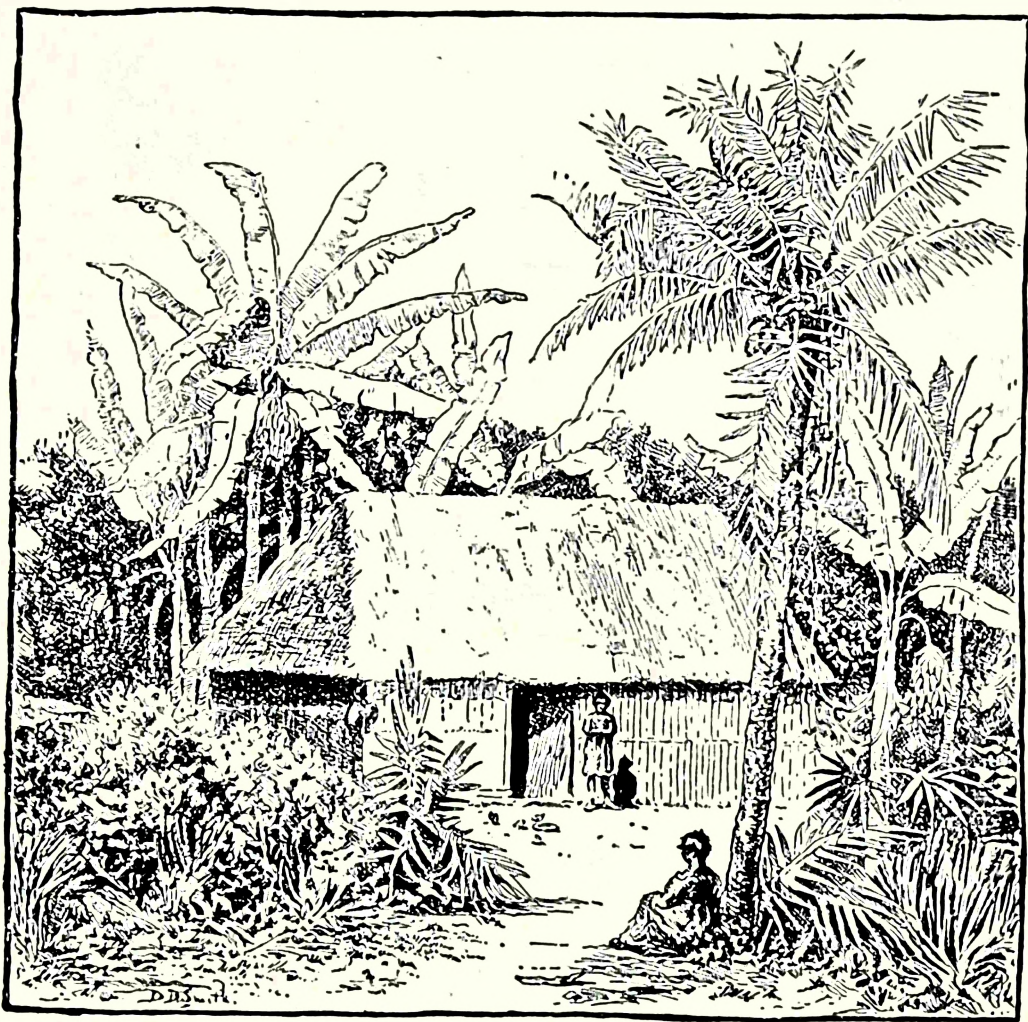
When Ecuador, in 1822, was made a part of the Colombian Confederacy, its population was supposed to be 880,000. In 1826, a census was taken with comparative accuracy, as it appears, and gave a total of 880,700. Several official statements have been made since, the most reliable of which was in 1867, giving the population as 1,075,996. But, as Señor Cevallos says, no one

can say with certainty what is the exact number of the inhabitants of Ecuador. His calculation, based on such official figures as he was able to collect, for 1889, gives a total of 1,271,861, distributed in the different Provinces as follows:

Carchi	36,000	Bolivar.....	43,000
Imbabura.....	67,940	Rios	32,800
Pichincha	205,000	Oro	32,600
Leon	109,600	Guayas.....	98,042
Tunguragua	103,033	Manabí	64,123
Chimborazo	122,200	Esmeraldas.....	14,553
Cañar	64,014	Oriente.....	80,000
Azuay	132,400		
Loja	66,456	Total.....	1,271,861

According to the statements of Mr. Church, amply corroborated in this respect by those of Señor Cevallos, out of this million and a quarter of people there are scarcely 100,000 who can read and write. This number represents, in general, the white people and the highest or most educated classes of the mixed races. The great mass of the Indians and of the offspring of their intermixture with whites and negroes is plunged into the darkest illiteracy.

The impartial student who looks at these figures, which proportionally are not by any means more noticeable in Ecuador than in some other countries south of the Rio Grande, will understand without difficulty the nature of the obstacles which many of the South American Republics have had to overcome and are still engaged in overcoming on their way to progress. He will discover why it is that the Constitution of Ecuador, by vesting the Ecuadorian citizenship in only those Ecuadorians who can read and write (Article 9 of the Constitution), has practically placed the large mass of Indians and mixed races in the condition of wards of the nation; and he will see how, by adhering to education and religious influence, the same Constitution and the patriotic men of the country have resorted to the only means so far known to mitigate barbarism and to turn it into civilization.



ECUADOR PEON'S HOUSE.

Chapter II.

FORM OF GOVERNMENT—FINANCIAL CONDITION—TAXATION—
WEIGHTS AND MEASURES—POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS—EDUCA-
TION.

The Government of Ecuador is popular, representative, and republican in form. Suffrage is universal for citizens. But as, under Article 9 of the Constitution,* citizens of Ecuador are only those of the male sex, who can read and write, and have reached the age of twenty-one years, and are or have been married, the right to vote, although universal in principle, is actually restricted to a very considerable extent. But no impediment exists to prevent the limit of citizenship from becoming enlarged through the natural and legitimate processes of education, or what the Spaniards, in old colonial times, used to call “reducción”—that is, the civilization or conversion of the aboriginal races and their issue into real citizens of the Republic.

The Government is divided in Ecuador, as it is in the United States, into three departments called “powers”—the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial. These powers are coördinate, and each, under Articles 3 and 4 of the Constitution, represents the sovereignty of the nation, within the strict limits of its own sphere of action, which it lawfully can not transgress.

The Legislative Power, which is mentioned first in the Constitution, as it is in the instruments of the same nature in almost all, if not all, the Republics of the world, is vested in a Congress, called El Congreso Nacional, consisting of a Senate (Cámara de Senadores) and a House of Representatives (Cámara de Diputados), which meets every second year at Quito, on the 10th of June.

* The constitution of Ecuador translated into English is given in full as Appendix A, p. 113.

Congress can not be in session more than sixty days; but extraordinary sessions may be called whenever the President of the Republic may deem it advisable. The call, in that case, must express specifically the nature of the business to be transacted and the time during which the extra session shall last. Legislation is reached substantially in the same way and by the same methods as in the legislatures of the different States, or in the Congress of the United States. Bills and resolutions on all subjects may be introduced in either House, by any member of the same, and also by the Executive. The Judiciary can do the same thing in matters concerning the administration of justice.

The Senate consists of two Senators for each Province. They serve for four years, are elected directly by the people, and can be reëlected indefinitely. Citizens by birth or naturalization who have reached the age of thirty-five years are qualified to be Senators. If they are naturalized citizens, the further qualification of residence for four years in the country is required. The House of Representatives consists of one member for each 35,000 inhabitants. But no Province can be left unrepresented, even if it has less than 35,000 inhabitants, in which case, it is entitled to elect one member. If the Province has 15,000, or more, inhabitants unrepresented, it is entitled to an additional member. Both Houses of Congress are required in Ecuador to approve, or disapprove, treaties and conventions, or arrangements made by the representatives of the Republic and any foreign government, and no treaty, convention, or arrangement of that kind can be ratified or exchanged if it has not passed through the same stages as an act of Congress. The Senate has the power to sit as a tribunal in cases of impeachment of public officers, to restore to citizenship Ecuadorians who may have lost their rights, or to remove, upon proof of innocence, a taint resting upon the name and fame of a person unjustly condemned.

The Executive authority is vested in the President of the Re-

public, who is elected directly by the people, and serves for four years. He can not be reëlected until after the lapse of two subsequent presidential terms. The President has the assistance of four Secretaries of State, whose respective Departments are called: (1) Ministerio de lo Interior y Relaciones Exteriores (Department of the Interior and Foreign Relations); (2) Ministerio de Hacienda (Department of the Treasury); (3) Ministerio de Guerra y Marina (Department of War and of the Navy); (4) Ministerio de Negocios Eclesiásticos, Instrucción Pública, Justicia, Beneficencia, Caridad y Estadística (Department of Ecclesiastical Affairs, Public Instruction, Justice, Beneficence, Charity, and Statistics). They are appointed and removed at the will of the President, but no one can be appointed who has not the qualifications required to be a Senator. The Constitution especially sets forth the cases in which the Secretaries of State become responsible together with the President, or individually, for their official action. In all other cases, the President himself is responsible.

Before approving any act of Congress or taking any measure of importance, such as appointing provincial governors, calling Congress in extra session, etc. (Article 105 of the Constitution), the President has to consult with the Council of State (Consejo de Estado), which consists of the Vice-President of the Republic, the four Secretaries of State, the Attorney-General, two Senators, and one member of the House of Representatives, selected by Congress, a Prelate or Minister of the Church, and three private citizens, having the same qualifications as a Senator. The ecclesiastical functionary and the three private citizens are also chosen by Congress. In the event of the death or the disability of the President, the Vice-President of the Republic succeeds to the office. He is elected by the people at the same time, in the same way, and for the same period as the President, and, like the President, is not eligible if he is not an Ecuadorian citizen either by birth or naturalization, who has reached 35 years of age. If a

naturalized citizen, both he and the President are required to have resided four years in the country. In case of death of the Vice-President of the Republic, or inability from any cause to fill the position of acting President, the last President of the Senate succeeds to the office; in case of death or disability of the latter, the office descends to the President of the House of Representatives.

The Executive authority is exercised throughout the whole country as follows: In each Province, by a governor, immediately depending upon the President, and appointed or removed by him at his discretion; in each canton, by a political chief (*jefe político*), depending upon the governor, but also appointed or removed at will by the President; and in each parish, by a lieutenant (*teniente*), who is the subaltern of the political chief, but who is appointed in the same way, or removed, by the President of the Republic.

The judicial power is vested in a Supreme Court, six superior courts or courts of appeal, and a number of inferior courts or courts of first instance, independent of other courts of special jurisdiction which will be named hereafter. The Supreme Court sits at the capital of the Republic, and consists of a Chief Justice and five Associate Justices, all of them appointed by Congress, to serve for six years, but eligible indefinitely. The interests of the law and the Government are defended before this court by a high officer named *Ministro Fiscal*, similar in his functions to the Attorney or Solicitor General of the United States before the Supreme Court of the United States.

The superior courts, which sit respectively at Quito, Riobamba, Cuenca, Loja, Guayaquil, and Portoviejo, consist each of a chief justice and of such number of associate justices as may be established by law. These high judicial functionaries are also elected by Congress.

Justice, in the first instance, is administered in civil cases by courts consisting of only one judge, called *alcaldes municipales*

and jueces parroquiales, the former exercising functions analogous to those of the mayors of certain towns in the United States of America, and the latter being, as the name indicates, judges for the parish. The functionary who performs in the courts of either class the duties of clerk of the court is called escribano.

In criminal cases, justice is administered by courts presided over by one judge learned in the law, for which reason these judges are called "jueces letrados," and by juries (jurados). The clerks of these criminal courts are called secretaries (secretarios).

There is in Ecuador, as in many other countries, a special jurisdiction for commercial matters. Justice in such cases is administered in the first instance by courts presided over by only one judge, called "juez de comercio," or "juez consular de comercio." There are five courts of this class, established at Quito, Riobamba, Cuenca, Guayaquil, and Montecristi. In the second instance, justice in these matters is administered by a court of appeals, which sits at Guayaquil. And there is another court still higher, and the highest of all in commercial law business, which also sits at Guayaquil, and takes cognizance of the cases under writs of error.

For the adjustment and final settlement of the accounts of Government officials, Ecuador has a special court called "tribunal de cuentas" (court or tribunal of accounts), which sits at Quito, and exercises more or less the same powers as the Comptrollers of the Treasury in the United States of America. They examine all public accounts and the vouchers thereof, and pass upon them finally.

FINANCIAL CONDITION.—TAXATION.—WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—
POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS.—EDUCATION.

The financial condition of Ecuador has steadily improved under the benefits of peace and a stable administration. In his message



to the Congress of May 15, 1890, President Flores said with justifiable satisfaction :

For the first time in the history of Ecuador, the Executive Power can inform the Legislative that a loan, amounting to over two millions of sucres per year, has been offered to it, at par, without commissions, or charges of any kind whatever, with interest at ten per cent per annum. * * * The Executive has inscribed at the head of its programme of government the restoration of the public credit, and we are now sailing speedily toward a future which presents to us the most flattering prospects.

The "cuadro de ingresos y egresos en 1890"—statement of receipts and expenditures in 1890—which was published in the "Diario Oficial," at Quito, on the 30th of June, 1892, shows that the total amount of Government receipts during that year amounted to 9,416,349 sucres and 78 cents, and that the expenditures were 8,487,297 sucres and 5 cents, leaving a surplus of 929,052 sucres and 73 cents.

The revenues of Ecuador are derived chiefly from the custom-houses, but there also exists what is called contribución general, or general tax on real estate and on the revenue; the alcabalas, registros, and anotaciones, taxes on the transfers of real property and commercial transactions. There is likewise a tax on spirits distilled in the country, and on tobacco, gunpowder, mangrove bark, and salt, on the proceeds of the sale of revenue, postage, and other stamps, and also of the sale and lease of Government property.

The customs revenue in 1890 amounted to 3,208,288 sucres and 81 cents, while the contribución general yielded only 99,599 sucres and 56 cents. The stamp tax yielded 176,608 sucres and 35 cents. The tax on salt gave 34,057 sucres and 71 cents, that on gunpowder 13,342 sucres and 82 cents, and that on spirits (aguardiente) 127,497 sucres and 64 cents.

The account of the expenditures of Ecuador in 1890 shows the remarkable fact that out of the 9,416,349 sucres and 78 cents, which entered the treasury in the said year, no less than 4,518,131

suces and 77 cents were disbursed in payment of the national debt. A country which spends half of its revenue in paying its debts and conducts its government so economically as to have a surplus of about a million, after having spent nearly half a million in providing for public instruction (452,525 suces), and 239,818 suces and 90 cents in supporting churches, hospitals, and other charitable institutions, deserves no little credit for its honesty and sense of self-respect, and also for its skillful financial management.

The diezmos, or tithes, which were a source of revenue to both church and state, but had some objectionable features, were abolished by decree of November 16, 1889, without resorting to confiscation, after a perfect understanding between the Government and the church.

The foreign debt of Ecuador grew out of several transactions and accounts contemporary with the war of independence of the Spanish colonies of South America. The principal of these was the engagement made by Ecuador in 1834, by treaty with New Granada (now Colombia) and Venezuela, to pay 2½ per cent of the whole debt of the old Republic of Colombia, which, in 1830, was divided into the three separate nations of New Granada, Venezuela, and Ecuador. This debt has been at last reduced to only £750,000 sterling, or \$3,750,000.

All the debts have been converted into a new one for the amount above stated, and new bonds, bearing interest at the rate of 4½ per cent, have replaced the former ones. A sinking fund of one-half per cent per annum for the first five years and of 1 per cent thereafter until the cancellation of the debt, has been created. In order to meet with ease the responsibilities which this agreement imposes, a surcharge of 10 per cent on all import dues was ordered to be made on and after the month of June, 1892. President Flores, who had the honor of negotiating this transaction, which settles the long standing and vexed question of the Ecuadorian debt,

had also the satisfaction of reporting it to the Congress of his country, on the very last day of his administration (June 30, 1892), in the following words:

If, in ending my career as Chief Magistrate of the Republic, I were called upon to make a political testament, I would say to my fellow-citizens, with the reestablishment of public credit, I leave to you an inestimable benefit. Watch over its preservation, and in providing for its maintenance, you will secure for our common country happiness and prosperity.

Unfortunately, however, for Ecuador, its crop of cacao in 1891 was only 157,760 quintals, or less than one-half of the 364,918 quintals of the crop of the previous year. This difference, as deplorable as it was remarkable, rendered the financial situation very difficult, but added to the acknowledgment which is due to the people and the Government for their successful efforts in reestablishing the credit of the nation and giving a vigorous push to its internal development.

The report of the Secretary of the Treasury, submitted to the Ecuadorian Congress on June 10, 1892, states that during the four years elapsed from 1888 to 1891, the Government had expended \$1,584,671.84 in public instruction, \$1,924,794.26 in public works, \$450,220.24 in charitable institutions, and \$304,232.34 in supporting the church.

There are, in Ecuador, three banks authorized to issue notes for circulation, namely: The Banco del Ecuador, established at Guayaquil, with a capital of 2,000,000 sucres; and the Banco Internacional, with a capital of 800,000 sucres; and the Banco de la Unión, at Quito, with a capital of 240,000 sucres. None of them is a Government institution; but all have to present monthly statements of the balance of silver on deposit and notes in circulation. The deposits in the Banco del Ecuador on June 30, 1891, amounted to 1,521,157 sucres, and those in the Banco Internacional to 424,729 sucres. The authorized issue of notes depends on the amount of silver or gold deposited in the vaults of the bank,

and at least one-third of the value of the circulation must be reserved in either metal, to guarantee the payment of the paper.

According to U. S. Consul Beach, the Banco del Ecuador had at that time (1884) so flourishing a business as to allow its stockholders an annual dividend of $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent, which made it, in his opinion, "the most profitable banking in the world." The amount of notes in circulation in 1890 was as follows: Issued by the Banco del Ecuador, 2,132,560 sucres; issued by the Banco Internacional, 860,140 sucres; total, 2,992,700 sucres.

The notes of the Banco de la Unión circulate only in Quito.

Guayaquil has two savings banks, in no way connected with the Government. Consul Beach speaks also of the Banco de Crédito Hipotecario, a private institution, which loaned money on notes, twenty-one years after date, secured by mortgage on real estate, the interest to be paid annually.

The unit of the Ecuadorian money is the sucre, so called in honor of the Great Marshal of Ayacucho, Antonio José Sucre, whose image is stamped on its obverse. It is a silver coin of the size and appearance of the silver dollar of the United States, equivalent in value to about 75 cents in American gold. The sucre is divided into medios sucres, or half sucres, and into décimos (dimes or tenths), and medios decimos (half dimes or twentieths). The gold coins are the doble condor (in imitation of the American double eagle), of the value of \$19.295 in American gold; the medio condor, \$4.823 in American gold; the décimo de condor, \$0.964 in American gold. There are also copper and nickel coins.

Says the historian Cevallos:

In Ecuador, all foreign coins are admitted to circulation, unless among the most ignorant classes of the people, who receive only the national. The coins of Colombia, Chile, Spain, Peru, the North American eagles, the napoleons, etc., are admitted at their respective values. "The Spanish coins, if not mutilated, or perforated, sell sometimes at a premium of $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

The minting of the sucres has been done at Birmingham, Eng-

land and also in Peru and Chile. The amount coined in 1890, at the place named first, represented in British money £77,000.

The French metrical system of weights and measures was adopted by law of December 6, 1856, and ordered to be enforced in the Republic; but its use is still circumscribed to official circles. The people still measure by the vara (yard), pié (foot), pulgada (inch), and línea (the twelfth of an inch); and calculate the distances by leguas (3 miles) and cuerdas (100 yards). The superficial measures are the vara cuadrada (square yard), the estadal (16 square yards), the cuartillo (12 estadals), the celemín (12 cuartillos), the fanegada (12 celemíns), the yugada (50 fanegadas), and the caballería (60 fanegadas).

An aranzada is an area of 20 square estadals.

The Ecuadorian ton, tonelada, is equivalent to 20 quintales, or 2,000 pounds. Two Ecuadorian tons form what is called 1 lastre. The libra (pound) has 16 onzas (ounces), or 2 marcos. The marco has 8 onzas. Onzas are divided into cuartas (fourths) and ochavas (eighths). The ochava has 2 adarmes. The adarme is the weight of 32 grains of barley.

The measures for liquids are the moyo, consisting of 16 cántaros; the cántaro, containing 8 azumbres; the azumbre, 4 cuartillos; and the cuartillos, 13 ounces each.

The measures for solids are the cahiz, consisting of 12 fanegas, and the fanega, which is equivalent to 4.44 cubic feet.

Ecuador is a member of the Universal Postal Union, and has entered into parcel-post conventions with several countries. The money-order system was introduced into the country by way of experiment in 1889, between the cities of Quito, Ambato, Cuenca, Guayaquil, and Azogues. The Secretary of the Treasury, under whose control the branches of post-offices and telegraphs have been placed in Ecuador, says in his report to the Congress of June 10, 1892, that the mail service is now as perfect as possible:

As far as regularity, safety, rapidity, and cheapness are concerned, nothing better can be expected, if the fact is taken into consideration that the mail

is carried on mule back. The service reaches every place in the Republic, and even the remotest and least important town or village enjoys its benefits.

The Government expended in this branch \$92,316.04 in 1890, and \$99,366.65 in 1892.

In 1890, there were in Ecuador about 1,200 miles of telegraph. Now, according to the statement of President Flores in his message of June 10, 1892, the national telegraph lines have been extended in different directions, and 239 additional miles have been built for the Manabi line, and 187 miles have been added to other lines. Telegraphic communication has also been established between Portoviejo and Manta, a distance of about 45 miles.

Ecuador is connected by cable with the rest of the world. The Central and South American Telegraph Company is incorporated under the laws of the United States, and is usually denominated a United States enterprise, though nearly all, if not quite all, of its stock is held by Englishmen, by whom it is managed. The company does a large business at Guayaquil, and its general business is very profitable.

Neither the post-office nor the telegraph is self-supporting. According to President Flores's message of June 10, 1892, the Government expended on both services during 1891 the sum of \$206,334.78. The receipts were only \$59,378.65, so that there was a balance of \$146,956.13 against the Government. Most, if not all, of the telegraph lines, belong to the Government, and are conducted by it. The line from Guayaquil to Manabí was bought by the Government on the 26th of January, 1891, for the sum of \$15,000.

The rapid progress which Ecuador is making in the important matter of public instruction deserves attention. President Flores, in his message to the Ecuadorian Congress of June 10, 1890, stated that, in proportion to the number of its inhabitants, Ecuador was then expending more money for public instruction than any

other nation, although nowhere else were the teachers so poorly paid. In his message of June 10, 1892, the same chief magistrate said that such an impulse had been given to public instruction during the last two years as to cause Ecuador to rank in this respect with the three most advanced South American Republics, before Chile, and following very closely Uruguay and the Argentine Republic. There are now in Ecuador 1,106 primary schools, 248 more than in 1890, with 1,477 teachers and an attendance of 68,274 pupils. "Even in the remote Oriente," says the message, "we have now schools attended by 1,462 pupils, and the Sisters of the Good Shepherd have opened one at Archidona for the education of Indian girls, which counts already 35 pupils." Of these schools 778 are wholly supported by the National Government, 452 for boys and 326 for girls. The remainder are supported either by local municipal funds or by private munificence.

In addition to these establishments where the Ecuadorian youth receive primary instruction, which, under the law in force at the present time, is compulsory as well as gratuitous, there are 21 schools exclusively for girls. In these, they are taught from the rudiments of arithmetic and grammar to the highest branches of science, including astronomy. All these academies are conducted by nuns of different orders, and were attended in 1891 by 4,289 pupils.

In speaking of these institutions, Mr. George Earl Church, says:

The schools under charge of the Sisters of Providence, the congregation of the Sacred Hearts of Jesus and Mary, and those of the Sisters of the Good Pastor all merit no ordinary eulogy. The above orders give themselves to their noble tasks with a devotion and an abnegation worthy of all praise, and with an intelligence and skill that would do honor to any country. On the 29th of July last (1880) I assisted the Minister of Foreign Affairs and Interior in the distribution of prizes among the young ladies of the school of the Sacred Hearts, and in the evening, with the President of the Republic, at the National College of the Jesuits. The former was of exceeding interest. Some eighty young ladies, well dressed, neat, very bright, intelligent, and well-behaved, from all parts of the

country, received prizes for their proficiency in various studies. As the prizes were distributed, I could not help thinking that from this source of female education Ecuador has much to hope, providing the Government and people turn to it their honest and vigorous attention; for, educate the women in Ecuador or elsewhere, and the men will become educated without knowing how it is done, for the former are the mothers.

There are also, for young men only, 19 colleges (*colegios nacionales*) where mathematics, philosophy, literature, history, and natural sciences are taught. They are either supported or assisted by the Government, and were attended in 1891 by 1,810 students.

Then comes the highest branch of public instruction, which, in Ecuador, as Mr. Church says, is conducted by able masters, and at whose head stands the Central University of Quito. This establishment, for whose support the Government contributes \$32,000 per year, has five faculties, as follows: Philosophy and literature, jurisprudence, medicine, physical and natural sciences, and mathematics. It had, in 1891, 31 professors and was attended by 167 students. A branch of this university at Cuenca, and another at Guayaquil, the former with 17 professors and the latter with 12, impart superior instruction to 97 and 40 pupils, respectively. There are also the Seminario Mayor, at Quito, for ecclesiastical education; the Seminary, at Cuenca, where theology and common law and civil law in all its branches are taught; the Seminario Mayor, at Loja, where only theology and common law are studied, and St. Bernard's College, also at Loja, which is almost exclusively a law school. The expense incurred by the Government in the support, whether entire or in part, of the foregoing establishments amounted to \$594,701.70.

There is at Quito a national library, with 12,885 volumes, besides several hundreds of pamphlets, and files of 40 foreign and 120 Ecuadorian newspapers. This library is particularly important from the number of old and rare books which it possesses. It was attended in 1889 by 2,937 readers.

There is also the Escuela de Artes y Oficios (trades school),

with several departments, to wit: Carpentry, 31 pupils; blacksmithing, 15; shoemaking, 23; tailoring, 21, and saddle-making, 8. All the pupils of this establishment are taught, besides the trade chosen by them, reading, writing, arithmetic, elements of sacred history, and the catechism of Christian doctrine. The Government has asked Congress for an appropriation for the establishment of a national school of agriculture.

The laws of Ecuador are all written and codified. There is a civil code, a code of civil procedure, a code of commerce, a penal code, and a code of procedure in criminal cases. The general tenor of the Ecuadorian law is substantially Spanish.

Under Article 13 of the Constitution, the religion of the Republic "is the Roman Catholic Apostolic, to the exclusion of all others." "The political powers," adds the article, "are bound to respect it and to protect its liberty and all its other rights." The relations between the Church and State are settled satisfactorily to both parties by a concordat, whose provisions are working without obstacle and contributing largely to the diffusion of Christianity among the Indian and mixed races and to the civilization of the country in general.

Chapter III.

POLITICAL DIVISIONS—PRINCIPAL CITIES AND TOWNS—THE GALAPAGOS ISLANDS.

The Republic of Ecuador is divided into sixteen Provinces, as follows: Esmeraldas, Manabí, Guayas, El Oro, Los Ríos, Carchi, Imbabura, Pichincha, León, Tunguragua, Chimborazo, Bolívar, Cañar, Azuay, Loja, and Oriente. The first five constitute what is called the maritime or western region; Oriente forms by itself the eastern region; and the other twelve Provinces make up what is called the inter-Andine region.

THE PROVINCE OF ESMERALDAS.

This Province, so called for the abundance of emeralds (*esmeraldas* in the Spanish language) which the Spanish conquerors found in its territory, lies between Colombia on the north, the Province of Imbabura on the east, that of Manabí on the south, and the Pacific Ocean on the west. Its whole territory is situated north of the equator. Most of its inhabitants are negroes, mulattoes, or zombaigos. The historian, Cevallos, relates that in 1623, when Esmeraldas was almost wholly inhabited by the Cayapa Indians, a vessel carrying several hundreds of negro slaves destined for Peru arrived at the small port of Atacames, where the Africans succeeded in overpowering and killing all the whites on board, and taking control of the vessel. They then landed and attacked the town, killed every man, white or Indian, within their reach, and became masters of the country for many miles around.

All the women were spared, and as the negro conquerors were allowed to remain in undisturbed enjoyment of the port and of the lands on which they settled, the multitude of zambaigos and mulattoes which now form the predominant element of the population of the Province came into existence. But there are also a great many Indians, of the race above named, who are the descendants of those who escaped destruction at the massacre, and now live in a state of comparative civilization, engaged in mining and also in agriculture.

The Province abounds in natural resources of all kinds. Its position is privileged. It has a very large ocean front with many ports. Its rivers, which are many, and some of them navigable for a long distance, carry gold in abundance in their sands. Its forests contain the finest timber for furniture and building purposes, and for the construction of vessels; and cotton, cacao, sugar cane, and many other rich agricultural productions are only awaiting enterprising hands to take advantage of their facility and abundance. But the necessity of immigration is badly felt. And if, as stated by the geographer Villavicencio, some plan could be devised to cause a healthy current of industrious immigrants to turn into this province, it might no doubt be made, in a comparatively short time, the richest and most flourishing in the whole Republic. The Esmeraldas tobacco rivals the Cuban, and is easily cultivated along the rivers. This section of the country is now very poor, and apart from the little coastwise trade which is carried on at Atacames and other ports, and of the gold mining which is done to a considerable extent at Cachabí, Santiago, Cayapas, and other places, little or nothing remarkable can be said about it.

The capital of the Province, Esmeraldas City, scarcely deserves to be called a city. Its population does not reach, according to Villavicencio, 800 inhabitants. Its houses are in general poor and small, and the little which it could formerly show in the line of public buildings, such as the governor's house, the city

hall, and other structures, were swept away by fire, not many years ago, and have not been rebuilt. The church, the jail, and a few other buildings, escaped the conflagration. Esmeraldas City is situated at a very short distance from the seashore, on the banks of the river of the same name, and almost exactly at 1° north latitude, and $79^{\circ} 50'$ west longitude from the Greenwich meridian. Its site is advantageous for commerce, as well as picturesque. The Ecuadorian Congress made Esmeraldas City in 1867 a port of entry, and established there a custom-house.

The other cities or towns of the Province, according to their geographical position, beginning nearest to the Colombian frontier, are the following:

(1) San Lorenzo, a small town in the bay or port called Pailón, opposite to the island of Santa Rosa.

(2) La Tola, founded by the Spanish Governor Don Pedro Vicente Maldonado (1741), on the sea, at the mouth of the Santiago River. In former times it was a flourishing town. All the country surrounding this place is full of relics of the time of the Incas, in the shape of pottery, and statuettes, and utensils of all kinds, weapons and jewelry, and also, in large quantities, those large vessels or jars, made of clay, which the aborigines used instead of coffins to bury their dead. Señor Cevallos says that in 1836, in digging a well, one of these urns was found which contained the skeleton of a man. It was noticed that the skull was well preserved and that the teeth had been fastened to each other by means of a piece of gold wire. Whether this was for mere ornament, or is a specimen of the dentistry of the time, it was difficult to ascertain.

(3) Concepción is a picturesque interior town on the banks of the Santiago River, with about 1,000 inhabitants, most of them engaged in mining. Close to it, are the villages of Cachaví, Playa de Oro, and Uimbí, where gold mining is carried on with activity.

(4) Ostiones is a small town on the sea, southwest of La Tola, which owes its name to the abundance and good quality of the oysters—*ostiones*, in Spanish—which are found there.

(5) Rio Verde, also a small port, is at the mouth of the river of the same name.

(6) Cayapas, a town in the interior of the country, is exactly on 1° latitude north, near the villages of Cachaví and Uimbí.

(7) Atacames, a small port, was the first Indian city of importance which Pizarro saw in his voyage of discovery, and is now frequented by vessels engaged in the coastwise trade. It lies at a short distance southwest of Esmeraldas City. The people of Atacames and its district are very skillful in the fabrication of straw hats and hammocks.

(8) San Francisco lies at $0^{\circ} 40'$ north latitude, on the cape of its name.

(9) Muisne, up to a very recent date, formed a part of the Province of Manabí, from which it was detached by resolution of Congress and annexed to Esmeraldas.

The distance from the city of Esmeraldas to Quito is 46 leagues, 22 of which can be traveled by the Esmeraldas River, the grandest of all the Ecuadorian rivers emptying into the Pacific Ocean. In a straight line, the distance between both cities is only 31 leagues.

PROVINCE OF MANABÍ.

This Province is bounded on the north by the Province of Esmeraldas; on the east and south, by Pichincha and Guayas; on the south, by Guayas; and on the west, by the Pacific Ocean. Almost the whole of its territory lies between the equator and $1^{\circ} 40'$ south latitude. The capital is Portoviejo, an old interior city of about 6,000 inhabitants, which is the seat of a diocese and has, besides the governor's house and the city hall, a cathedral, an ecclesiastical seminary, the bishop's home, a national school of high reputation called "The Olmedo College," and some other buildings and institutions of comparative importance.

The great industry of Portoviejo and the surrounding villages and territory consists in the manufacture of straw hats, hammocks, saddles, and all kinds of harness.

Montecristi is a town of about 2,000 inhabitants, situated about the same latitude as Portoviejo, but much more toward the ocean, although it is not a seaport. About 6 miles toward the north of this town, an interesting ancient monument appears, in the form of a kind of platform, upon which about thirty big stone chairs can be seen, placed in almost a perfect circle. The lower part of each chair is a crouching sphinx, on whose back is an ample seat with its two arms. Each chair is a monolith, and, according to Señor Villavicencio, a fine specimen of workmanship. It is supposed that this was a place of council for magnates or princes, even before the conquest of Quito by the Cara nation.

Manta, the most important port of the Province of Manabí, is situated on the seacoast at about 1° south latitude, not far from Montecristi, with which it is connected by an excellent wagon road. It is a port of entry and has a custom-house, a fine lighthouse, and some other buildings of comparative importance. Pearl-fishing was once the most prominent industry both of the port of Manta and of the whole coast around it. But that industry, which the people there still believe to be capable of becoming remunerative, was abandoned almost totally many years ago, not only on account of the insecurity felt there through the frequent incursions and depredations of the pirates who then infested those seas, but also on account of that dreaded and most voracious kind of shark, called in Spanish the manta, which abounds there to such an extent as to have caused its name to be transmitted to the locality.

Jipijapa is an interior town situated a short distance from the southern limits of the Province. It has about 7,000 inhabitants, and, according to Villavicencio, is the best built and the handsomest town of the Province. Jipijapa is the Spanish name of

that fine and most valuable grass out of which the so-called Panama hats are made; and as all the inhabitants of this town and the surrounding districts have been engaged in the manufacture of those hats, the name of the grass has become attached to the place. It is singular, as remarked by Señor Cevallos, that these hats, whose fame is so great in Europe and America as to command such high prices as \$80 and \$100 each, in the places where they are made, are not known except as Panama hats from the market which they do not reach until after having passed at least through three or four different hands.

The little island of La Plata, at a short distance from the coast, at about $1^{\circ} 20'$ south latitude, belongs to this Province.

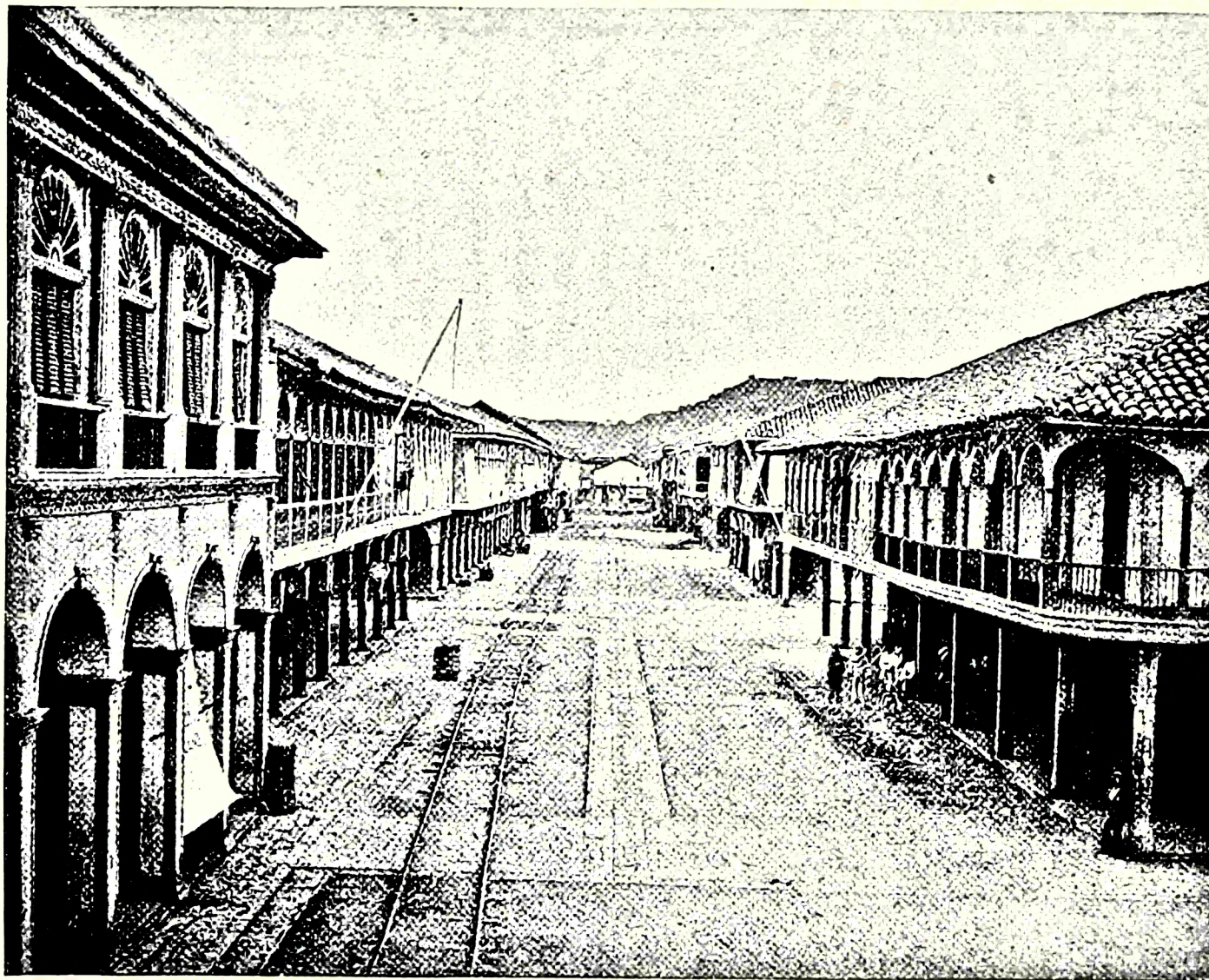
PROVINCE OF GUAYAS.

This Province, the most important of the Republic from a commercial and perhaps a political point of view, is bounded on the north by the Provinces of Manabí and Pichincha; on the east, by the Provinces of Los Ríos, Cañar, and Azuay; and on the south and west, by the gulf of Guayaquil and the Pacific Ocean. Its capital is the city of Guayaquil, which has a population of 30,000 inhabitants, and is the principal port of Ecuador.

Mr. William Eleroy Curtis, in the "Capitals of Spanish America," speaking of this city, says:

Although the westernmost city of South America, Guayaquil has about the same longitude as Washington, and is only two degrees south of the equator. It is 60 miles from the sea, on a river which looks like the Mississippi at New Orleans, and stretches along the low banks for more than 2 miles. One's first impression, if he arrives at night, is that the ship has anchored in front of a South American Paris, so brilliant are the terraces of gas lamps, rising one after the other, as the town slopes up toward the mountains. When morning dawns, the deception is renewed, and one has a picture of Venice before him, with long lines of white buildings, whose curtained balconies look down upon gaily clad men and women floating upon the river in quaint-looking, narrow gondolas, and broad-bosomed rafts. * * *

A narrow-gauge street railway, or tramvia, as they call it, reaches from the



PRINCIPAL STREET IN GUAYAQUIL.

docks a couple of miles to the edge of the city, and upon its cars, the products of the plantations are brought to the docks and loaded by lighters upon outgoing vessels. * * * The street railways only extend to the limits of the city, but a short walk beyond it gives one a glimpse of the rural tropics. At one end of the main street, which runs along the river front, is a fortress-crowned hill, from the summit of which a charming view of the surrounding country can be obtained, but the better plan is to take a carriage and drive out a few miles. The road is rough and dusty, but passes among cocoanut groves and sugar plantations, through forests fairly blazing with wondrous flowers, so scarlet as to make the trees look like living fire; with pineapple plants and banana trees bending under the enormous loads of fruit they carry. The carriage passed along until our senses were almost bewildered by visions none of us had ever seen before. Nowhere can one find a more beautiful scene of tropical vegetation in its full glory, and no artist ever mingled colors that could convey an adequate idea of nature's gorgeousness here.

The most beautiful thing in the tropics is a young palm tree. The old ones, are more graceful than any of our foliage plants, but they all show signs of decay. The young ones, so supple as to bend before the winds, are the ideal of grace and loveliness, as picturesque in repose as they are in motion. The long, spreading leaves, of a vivid green, bend and sway with the breeze, and nod in the sunlight with a beauty which can not be described.

There is considerable business done in Guayaquil, and some of the merchants carry stocks of imported goods valued at half a million dollars, with an annual trade of double that amount.

Since its foundation, in 1535, by one of the lieutenants of Pizarro, Guayaquil has been burned several times and afterwards plundered by pirates. A cable belonging to a New York company connects the city with the outside world, and an interior telegraph line places it also in constant communication with Quito. Guayaquil is lighted by gas, has street cars, ice factories, a cathedral and several churches, some beautiful squares, one of them with an elegant statue of Bolivar, unveiled on July 24, 1889, and commodious public buildings, such as the Governor's house, the City Hall, the Episcopal Palace, the Artillery Barracks, etc. The country around this city is famous, among other things, for its pineapples, which are claimed to be the finest in the world, and for the hats and hammocks which are made there.

In an interesting report, written by Mr. Horatio N. Beach, United States Consul at Guayaquil, on "Ecuadorian Institutions and Enterprises," dated March 1, 1884, mention is made of Guayaquil, as follows:

All the street car lines of Ecuador are in Guayaquil, and have been built by individual enterprise, the first one by citizens of the United States. The city, although having 30,000 population, is so compactly built that all the lines are short. To the present four lines, there is to be added a fifth as soon as material ordered arrives. All the lines start from a central plaza, one passing each way lengthwise of the city, and to rearward, one to a bathing resort and the others to the cemeteries. * * * The cars are made in the United States. They are drawn by mules. The fare is 5 cents, except to the bathing resort, where 20 cents for a round trip is charged, but which includes the use of bathing suit and bath-house. The lines are operated cheaply, and are understood to be highly profitable.

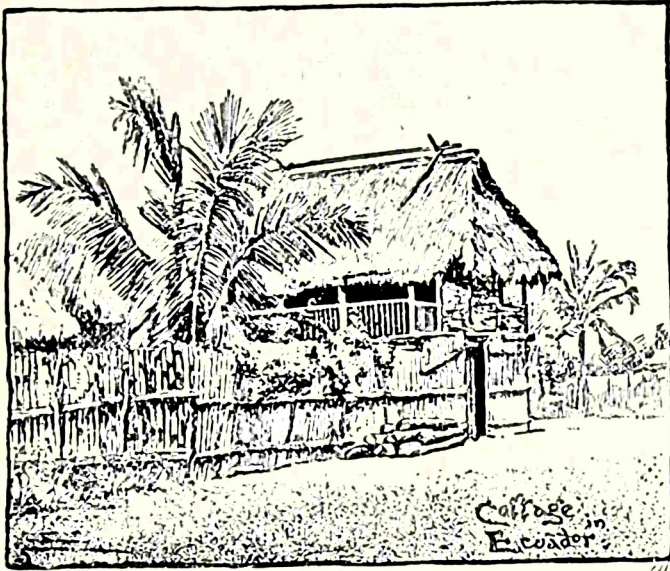
Mr. George Chambers, British Consul at the same port, in his report "On the Trade and Commerce of Ecuador for 1891," refers to several improvements made at Guayaquil, as the completion of a new military hospital, the progress of the city water works, which had then reached Durán, on the east side of the river, the enlargement of the Civil Hospital, which is in charge of the Sisters of Charity, etc. There are, in this Province, several cities and towns of more or less importance, of which the following admit of special mention:

Yaguachi, a few miles from Guayaquil to the northeast, which is the Guayaquil terminal point of the railroad, now reaching Chimbo, intended to connect that port with the capital of the Republic.

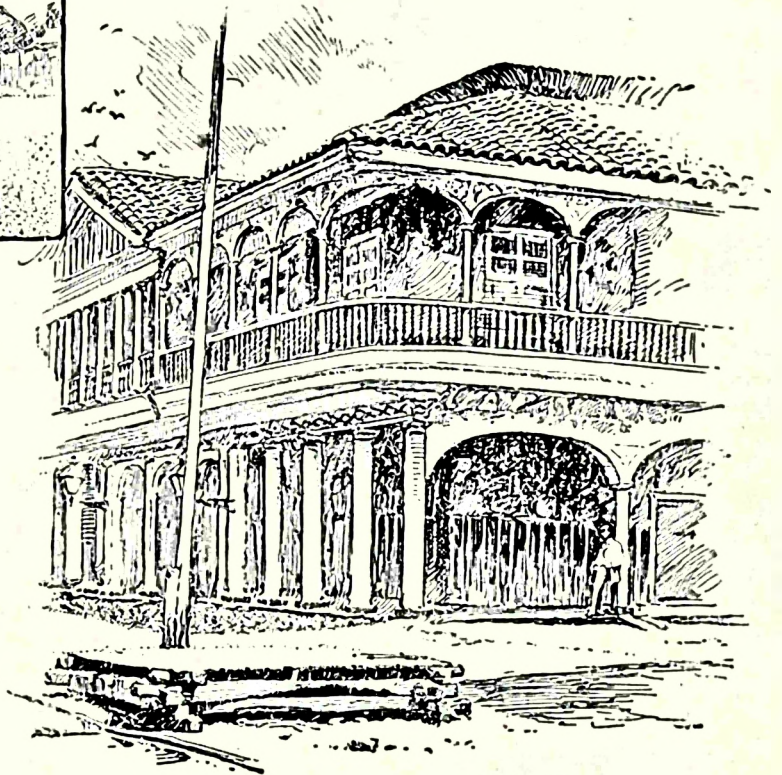
Santa Elena, near the extensive bay of the same name.

Ballenitas, a seaport, from where almost all the salt, either consumed at Ecuador or exported to foreign countries, is obtained.

Ayanque, another port, where pearl fishing was not long ago in fair progress, and where, according to the opinion of the inhabitants of the locality, the same business could now be revived with profit.



COTTAGE IN ECUADOR.



STREET CORNER IN GUAYAQUIL.

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The island of Puná, in the gulf of Guayaquil, 30 miles in length from north to south, and 10 in breadth from east to west, belongs to this Province. The name of this island is intimately connected with the early history of the conquest of the Inca Empire. A village, also called Puná, is its principal settlement.

The Galápagos Archipelago, which will be separately described, was placed, by law of August 20, 1885, under the jurisdiction of the Governor of Guayas.

PROVINCE OF EL ORO.

The "Provincia del Oro," or Province of El Oro, so called for the large quantities of gold (oro) which are gathered in its territory, was, up to 1884, when it was raised to the rank and character of a Province, a portion of the territory of Guayas. As constituted, under the law aforesaid, it consists of a comparatively small region, bounded on the north by the Province of Guayas; on the east, by the Provinces of Azuay and Loja; on the south, by the Province of Lojan and the Republic of Peru; and on the west, by the gulf of Guayaquil. Its capital is Machala, situated about 15 miles from the Pacific coast. It is the center of a quite extensive cacao-producing zone, and enjoys considerable prosperity. The Machala cacao, known to commerce under the name of *cacao de abajo* (cacao from the lower country), in contradistinction of the *cacao de arriba* (cacao of the upper country), enjoys a great reputation and is sold at high prices.

The town of this Province which at present is best known to the world, is called Zuruma, founded in 1549, and the head of a mining district of uncommon wealth. The Zuruma gold mines are now well known in Europe, through the London Mining Company, which has undertaken to work them.

PROVINCE OF LOS RÍOS.

This Province, the fifth and the last of those forming the western region of Ecuador, owes its name to the great number of rivers

which cross its territory, and is of recent creation. It lies between the Provinces of Pichincha and León on the north, Bolívar on the east, and Guayas on the south and west. It has no ocean front, but communicates with the sea by means of the Guayaquil River, which crosses its territory from east to west. Its capital is the city of Babahoyo, also called Bodegas, which, according to Señor Cevallos, presents the appearance of a perpetual fair, held day and night without interruption. It is the center of a vast commerce which finds its way down the river Guayas to Guayaquil and the rest of the world. Puebloviejo and Ventanas are two towns of comparative importance and wealth.

PROVINCE OF CARCHI.

Up to a very recent date, Carchi was merely a canton of the Province of Imbabura, which was known by the name of Tulcan. Now, it is a Province by itself, and obtains its name from the river Carchi, which divides the Republics of Ecuador and Colombia. It occupies the northern extreme of the inter-Andean region of the Republic, and borders on the north upon Colombia, and on all other sides upon the Province of Imbabura, from which it was detached. Its capital is Tulcán, situated at an altitude of 3,019 meters (9,905 feet) above the level of the sea, at about 4° 44' north latitude.

PROVINCE OF IMBABURA.

This Province is bounded on the north by Carchi, on the east by Oriente, on the south by Pichincha, and on the west by Esmeraldas. Señor Cevallos says it is the most fertile and beautiful portion of the inter-Andean region of Ecuador, and that its prosperity would be immensely increased if easy communication could be established between it and the Pacific. The nearest port which can be used for its commerce is Pailón in the Province of Esmeraldas, in the neighborhood of the Colombian boundary. That

port is, however, at a distance of not less than 60 miles. Señor Cevallos says that it is very difficult in those localities to keep the roads in good order, owing to the nature and character of the ground, and to the extreme vigor and rapidity with which the vegetation grows.

The city of Ibarra, with a population of about 13,000 inhabitants, was founded in 1606, in honor of Don Miguel Ibarra, who was then colonial governor. It is the capital of the Province, and the see of a diocese. It has a handsome cathedral, an episcopal palace, which has, among other things, several educational establishments; a public library, founded by Dr. Don Pedro Moncayo, who gave for that purpose over one thousand well selected works, and several public buildings, churches, and hospitals which deserve attention. Ibarra was the birthplace of Viescas, the Ecuadorian poet.

Caranqui, the birthplace of the unfortunate Inca Atahualpa, belongs to this Province.

Next to Ibarra in importance, is the city of Otavalo, with a population of between 5,000 and 6,000 inhabitants, founded in 1534, and situated 8,422 feet above the level of the sea. The women of Otavalo are renowned for their beauty. The city has some cotton and woolen mills, whose fabrics provide an active commerce with the southern Provinces of Colombia.

PROVINCE OF PICHINCHA.

This Province, whose capital is also the capital of the Republic, the historical Quito, extends between the Province of Imbabura on the north, Oriente on the east, León on the south, and Manabí and Esmeraldas on the west. The Pichincha Mountain (whose Indian name means "boiling mountain"), the Cayambe, the Zara-urcu (thundering mountain), not to speak of other volcanoes almost as gigantic, raise their heads upon this soil. The Tambo de Antisana, which is considered to be the highest place

of permanent human habitation in the world, is also in this Province.

Quito, a city of about 65,000 inhabitants, and the seat of the Government of the Republic, situated about 10,233 feet above the level of the sea, excites great interest not only for what it is at present or was after the Spanish conquest, but for having been before the Spaniards came in 1534, the center of the Inca civilization.

The principal public edifices are the cathedral, the Government building (in which are comfortably lodged the two Houses of Congress, the President, and the four executive departments), the post-office and some other offices, the archiepiscopal palace, the palace of justice, the city hall, and many churches and convents. The Plaza Mayor is one of the finest public squares in South America. There are various hospitals, schools of all classes, and a university whose celebrity dates back to the very days of its establishment; a mint, and several libraries, one of which, containing more than 20,000 volumes in 1881, was an old college of the Jesuits.

Cayambe is the chief town of the canton of its name, which was given to both by the gigantic mountain which towers up to heaven in that locality.

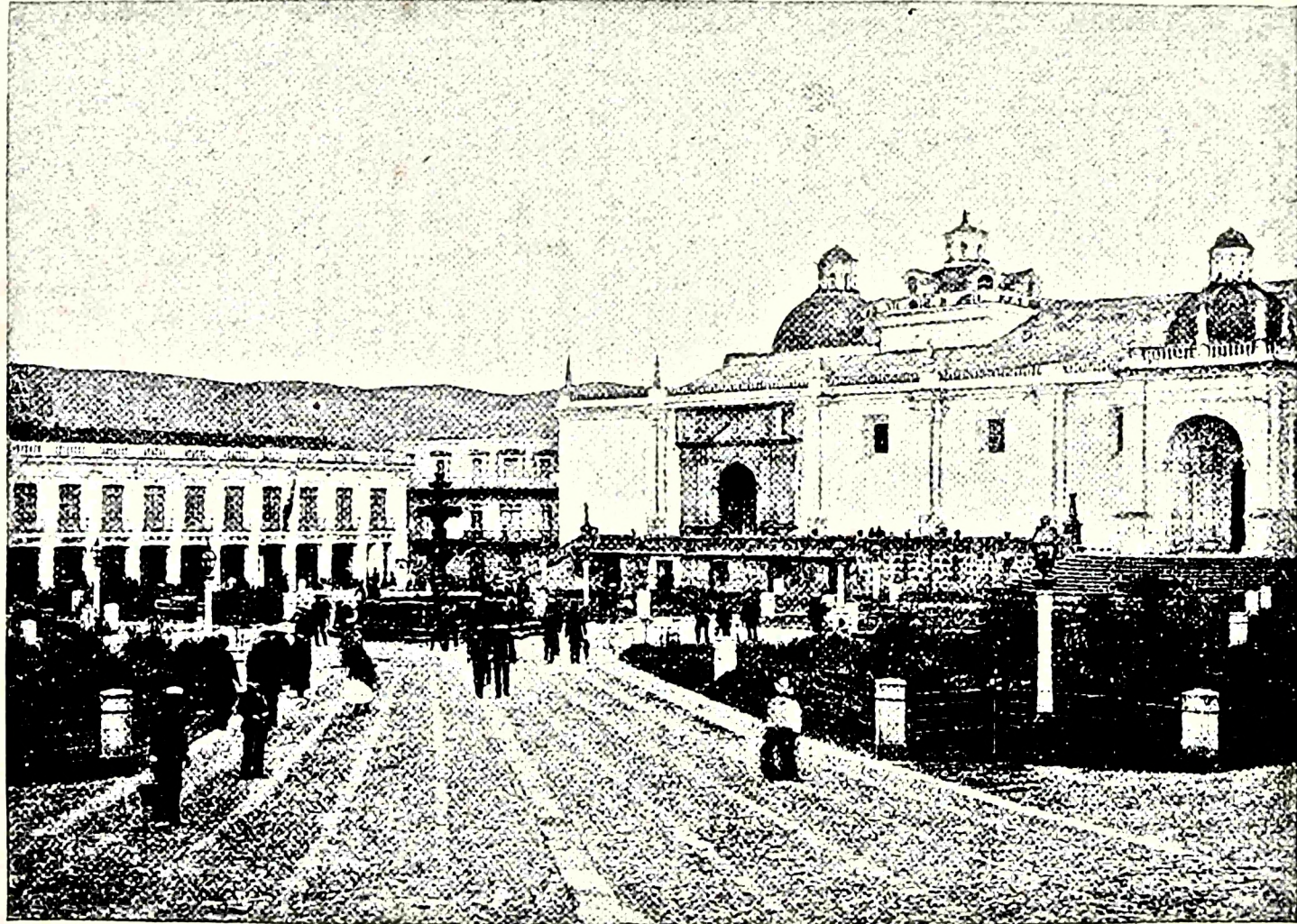
Mejía, so called in honor of the famous orator and statesman, Don José Mejía, who attained such well-deserved prominence in the Spanish Cortes, is also the chief town of the third and last canton of the Province which bears the same name.

THE PROVINCE OF LEÓN.

This Province, which lies immediately to the south of Pichincha, has within its limits, according to Señor Cevallos, the magnificent Cotopaxi. Speaking of this volcano, Mr. W. E. Curtis says:

Cotopaxi is the loftiest of active volcanoes, but it is slumbering now. The only evidence of action is the frequent rumblings, which can be heard for a

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GRAND PLAZA AND CATHEDRAL, QUITO.

hundred miles, and the clouds of smoke by day and the pillar of fire by night which constantly arises from a crater that is more than 3,000 feet beyond the reach of man. Many have attempted to scale it, but the walls are so steep and the snow is so deep that ascent is impossible even with scaling ladders. On the south side of Cotopaxi is a great rock, more than 2,000 feet high, called the "Inca's Head." Tradition says that it was once the summit of the volcano, and fell on the day when Atahualpa was strangled by the Spaniards. Those who have seen Vesuvius can judge of the grandeur of Cotopaxi if they can imagine a volcano 15,000 feet higher shooting forth its fire from a crest covered by 3,000 feet of snow, with a voice that has been heard 600 miles. And one can judge of the grandeur of the road to Quito if he can imagine twenty of the highest mountains in America, three of them active volcanoes, standing along the road from Washington to New York.

Lacunga, or Latacunga, the capital of the Province, is an old city, which ranked among the first previous to the arrival of the Spaniards. It had a royal palace, a temple of the sun, and a monastery of virgin priestesses. In the days of the Spanish rule, it became a rich center of commerce. Its progress has been often obstructed by the eruptions of Cotopaxi and other seismic accidents, but it is still a flourishing center of population. It is the birthplace of many Ecuadorian celebrities, chief among them Dr. Don Vicente León, in whose honor the Province was given its name.

PROVINCE OF TUNGURAGUA.

This Province, so called on account of the Tunguragua Mountain which lies within it, is bounded on the north by Pichincha, on the east by Oriente, on the south by Chimborazo, and on the west by León and Bolívar. It has for its capital the city of Ambato, which, although two or three times destroyed by earthquakes, was subsequently rebuilt, and is now a flourishing city of about 8,000 inhabitants. The Ambato fair is the most renowned and the best attended in the whole Republic. Rain is almost unknown in Ambato or its neighborhood.

PROVINCE OF CHIMBORAZO.

This Province, which owes its name to the Chimborazo Mountain, considered for a long time the highest in the world, and second only to certain summits of the Himalayas, whose contemplation caused Bolívar to write his famous "Delirio," has for its capital the city of Riobamba. Besides Chimborazo, this Province has the two gigantic volcanoes called El Altar, or Capac-urcu, which in the Indian language means "the father of the mountains," and the Sangay, or Macas, which astonish travelers and geologists. Dr. Stubel, a German scientist who visited these localities in 1873, says that El Altar is "the masterpiece of volcanic creation," a designation which seems to be deserved by its beauty, the symmetry of its crater, and the grandeur of its size and proportions.

Riobamba, situated at an altitude of 2,798 meters above the level of the sea (9,180 feet), and at 1° 38' south latitude, has a population of about 12,000 inhabitants, and several educational establishments and churches and institutions which give it much credit. It is the seat of one of the superior courts, or courts of appeal, of the Republic. According to Señor Cevallos, the Riobambans are somewhat given to self-exaltation on account of the high station which many of its children have reached in art and science. Velasco, the historian; Maldonado, the scientist; Orosco, the poet, and a great many other celebrated Ecuadorians were born there.

Guano is the name of another city of this Province in which there are some factories which furnish the best blankets and the best carpets, as well as the best flannel, made in Ecuador. Sulphuric acid is also manufactured there in considerable quantity.

Macas, which the Spaniards called "Sevilla del Oro," was the richest and the most productive of all the cities which they founded in the Kingdom of Quito. Its fame is due to the gold mines

which abound in its neighborhood, and also to the richness of that region in agricultural productions.

PROVINCE OF BOLÍVAR.

This Province, which is very small, and situated between Rios, León, Tunguragua, and Chimborazo, which encircle its territory, has for its capital the old city of Guaranda, whose population now does not exceed 4,000. Its forest wealth is immense, but still undeveloped.

PROVINCE OF CAÑAR.

The capital of the small Province of this name, where some remarkable ruins of the Incan time can yet be seen, is the city of Azogues, which in Spanish means "quicksilver," so called because of the mines which were found there. The name Cañar is due to the fact that its territory belonged originally to the Indian tribe of the Cañaris, about whom the learned Ecuadorian, Dr. Don Federico Gonzalez Suarez, has written an interesting historical study.*

PROVINCE OF AZUAY.

This Province, whose name is a corruption of Ashuai, or Lashuai, a word by which the natives designate one of the "knots," which connect, at that place, the two great Andean chains, is bounded on the north by Cañar, on the east by Oriente, on the south by Loja, and on the west by El Oro. Its capital is Cuenca, which, so far as population is concerned, ranks as the third of all the cities of Ecuador. It is a fine city, with many handsome buildings, public and private, and a beautiful public square, called "la Plaza Mayor," and has, among other institutions, a well conducted orphan asylum and a hospital for inebriates.

* Estudio histórico de los Cañaris, antiguos habitantes de la provincia de Azuay, por el Dr. D. Federico Gonzalez Suarez.

Cuenca has been the birthplace of many distinguished Ecuadorians, among them Marshal Lamar, who was President of Peru, and the artist Zangurima. The historical city of Tomebamba, which occupied so much of the attention of the historians of the Conquest, was an important place, as is shown by the ruins which may still be seen at a short distance from the place where Cuenca was built.

PROVINCE OF LOJA.

The largest and the most southern of the inter-Andean Provinces of Ecuador is the one called Loja, whose capital has the same name. The cinchona of this province is considered the best in the Republic. According to Señor Cevallos, the population of this Province consists: 1st, of a few whites, at Loja and other places; 2d, of a few thousands of domesticated Indians, and 3d, of an infinite number of uncivilized tribes, roaming through the region bathed by the Pastaza, the Napo, and the Coca rivers.

PROVINCE OF ORIENTE.

This Province (Province of the East), so called on account of its geographical position, occupies a territory which is larger than that of all the other Provinces of Ecuador put together. It is also, in all probability, the richest of all, so far as natural productions and resources are concerned. But it may be said that it is a vast desert, where civilization has scarcely penetrated.

THE GALÁPAGOS ISLANDS.

This archipelago, consisting of eleven islands and several islets, all of volcanic formation, as evidenced by the great number of craters found in them, some of which are still active, is situated in the Pacific Ocean, at a considerable distance from the Ecuadorian coast. It is separated from the mainland by waters of such

depth as to dispel the idea that at any time they could have been nearer the mainland, or that their appearance at the surface was not due to some sudden and powerful convulsion which caused them to spring up from the bottom of the sea. All the islands, except three, are situated under the equator, between it and the parallel of $1^{\circ} 30'$ south latitude, and between the meridians $89^{\circ} 10'$ and 92° west of Greenwich. When the Spaniards, in the early part of the sixteenth century, discovered these islands, they found them uninhabited and provided with nothing which might excite their cupidity or invite their attention. On the contrary, a kind of superstitious feeling, not in any manner at variance with the character of the conquerors of the Incan Empire or with the spirit of the time, caused them to avoid that locality. The profound solitude and stillness, broken only now and then by the appearance of gigantic tortoises, caused them to give the islands the first two names by which they have been known in history. Las islas encantadas, "the enchanted islands," was the first appellation, and las islas de los Galapagos, "the islands of the tortoises," was the second. Later on, when revisited, six of them were considered as deserving the honor of a separate name, and the favored ones were called "Mascarín," "Tabaco," "Diablo," "Salud," "San Bernardo," and "Santiago."

These names, owing to a custom which can scarcely find justification, and of which many instances might be cited, were changed unnecessarily by Capt. Cowley, a British sailor who subsequently navigated those waters. Mascarín was called "St. Charles;" Tabaco, "Crossman;" Diablo, "Bindloe;" Salud, "Eures;" San Bernardo, "York;" and Santiago, "Norfolk." But these new names did not have any more vitality than the original, and had soon to be changed into those by which at present they are known to the world.

Now, the islands and islets are called in the order of their superficial area Albemarle, Narborough, Indefatigable, Chatham, and

James. Three smaller ones, which are north of the equator, are named Abington, Bindolese, and Tower; and the rest, Carlos (now Floreana), Barrington, Hood, Duncan, Brattle, Crossmans, and "Isla anónima," or unnamed island. The total area of the group is calculated at 2,250 square miles, of which Albemarle Island alone constitutes one-half. Recently, by recommendation of President Flores, the Ecuadorian Congress has been called to consider the propriety of changing these names again, and giving to them those of distinguished men of the Republic, but no decision has been reached as yet.

No settlement of any importance was ever made upon these undesirable and comparatively remote shores until 1831, when Ecuador had freed itself from the Spanish control. The distinguished Ecuadorian general, Don José Villamil, who, in 1811, had become a prominent figure in Ecuador, and served afterward with great credit in the war of independence against Spain, put himself at the head of a colonization company and obtained from the Ecuadorian Government permission to colonize the islands, under certain stipulated conditions, and started for that destination with his first expedition in the month of October, 1831. Gen. Villamil was appointed governor of the archipelago, subject, however, to the jurisdiction of the governor of Guayaquil. The attention of the company was directed especially to the Carlos Island, whose lands had been granted to it in fee simple. It was then called "Floreana," in honor of Gen. Don Juan José Flores, the first President of Ecuador. Even now, although a movement is on foot to take advantage of the fertility of the soil of the whole archipelago and the facilities which it affords for the cultivation of sugar cane and coffee, Floreana is still the residence of the governor and the most flourishing of all the settlements.

Though the islands are so near the equator, their climate is not intensely hot, as it is tempered by cold currents from the Antarctic

Sea. Very little rain falls there except between November and January.

Says the *Encyclopedia Britannica*:

The greatest interest attaches to the study of all the oceanic islands, for the elucidation of the origin and development of their fauna and flora has an important bearing on the question of the genesis of species. The Galapagos Archipelago possesses, in this respect, a rare advantage from its isolated situation and from the fact that its history has never been interfered with by any aborigines of the human race, and it is only very lately that the operations of man, or of animals introduced by his means, have disturbed, and that to a very limited extent only, the indigenous life. Of the indigenous gigantic tortoises, there are five species at present known, each of which is an inhabitant of a different island, and it is believed that many others have become extinct.

Bull. 64—4

Chapter IV.

AGRICULTURAL RESOURCES.

Owing to its topographical conditions and the peculiarities of its soil and climate, Ecuador is essentially an agricultural country, its productions varying, however, according to the differences of heat and elevation. There are no words to express the richness and magnificence of vegetation in that privileged section of the American continent,* and capital and industry only are needed to make of it an agricultural producer of the greatest importance.

Says the report of Mr. Church:

On the Pacific coast and in the river valleys of both the east and west sections of the country, the soil, when well cultivated, gives generous crops of cacao, sugar cane, cotton, rice, coffee, tobacco, bananas, and other tropical fruits, and along the inter-Andean plateau all the cereals and vegetables incident to a temperate and even cold climate are produced. In some of the valleys, snugly protected among the mountains, and in the Provinces of Imbabura, on the Colombian border, and Loja, on the frontier of Peru, sugar cane is raised abundantly side by side with maize at an elevation of 7,500 feet.

Mr. William B. Sorsby, former United States Consul-General at Guayaquil, in his report heretofore cited on the commerce and products of Ecuador,† refers to this subject in the following words:

The coast * * * produces cacao, coffee, tobacco, bananas, pineapples, cocoanuts, ivory nuts, and sugar, and the lands are held, as a rule, in large tracts. The interior * * * where settled, is, as a rule—except the cattle and sheep haciendas—cut up into small farms, where wheat, barley, rye, Indian corn, pota-

* Dr. Jameson, a professor of the University of Quito, has published, in two volumes, in Latin (*Synopsis Plantarum Aequatoriensium*), a full account of the Ecuadorian plants, chiefly those growing in the vicinity of Quito.

† Reports from the consuls of the United States, No. 122, November, 1890, p. 50.

toes, sugar cane, alfalfa, and fruits of every variety are grown. It is in the interior that the Peruvian bark and india rubber are to be found, and it is in the interior, mainly, where the cattle and sheep are raised.

The fertility of the land astonishes the traveler, even at altitudes where, in Europe, vegetation is scanty or has completely disappeared.

Says Señor Cevallos:

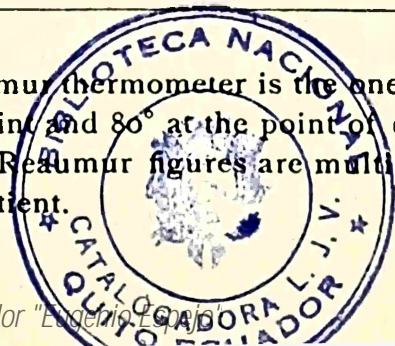
It is evidenced by the verdant mantle with which the soil is clothed perpetually and by the facility for cultivation which almost everywhere seems to be afforded. In the inter-Andean region and in the lowlands on both sides of the mountains, vegetation is so spontaneous and luxuriant as to render the work of man almost unnecessary, unless it is for gathering the fruits of the earth and storing and preserving them. Fertilizers are absolutely unknown and unnecessary, * * * and only at the highest places, near that point in which the snow prevails and where nature seems to have been conquered, some effort is required to make the soil productive.*

The same writer states, with pardonable enthusiasm, that Ecuador can yield whatever is produced by any other country in the world, and says:

Lands which stretch themselves along the seashore, forming a belt of about 12 or 15 leagues* in width, and then gradually ascend to an altitude of 6,530 meters, to again descend into the level of the Amazon plains; lands which, irrespective of their topographical position, or of their relation to the place which the sun occupies at the ecliptic, show all the time, day after day, year after year, and century after century, the very same hours of warm as well as of temperate and cold weather; lands on whose surface, according to the locality, all kinds of atmospheric pressure are experienced, from 16 to 26 inches of the barometer; lands where the Reaumur thermometer ranges from 4° when at lowest point to 28° when at the highest; † lands which, when traveled across, even for a single day, cause us to feel as if transported from the equator to the poles; lands of such a character can not fail to produce all that is contained in the five zones and all that the hand of man and his industry and energy can raise and cultivate; cacao, cotton, rice, sugar cane, tamarinds, tobacco, cinnamon,

*Cevallos. Resumen, etc., Vol. I, p. 18.

†As in most of the Spanish countries, the Reaumur thermometer is the one generally in use in Ecuador. It marks 0 at the freezing point and 80° at the point of ebullition. To reduce Reaumur to Fahrenheit degrees, the Reaumur figures are multiplied by 9 and divided by 4, 32 being then added to the quotient.



coffee, nutmeg; trees of all kinds, growing to a height of 60 meters; palm trees in great variety, vying with each other in height as well as in beauty; aromatic plants of all kinds, valuable balsams and resins, delicious fruits; * * * and then from 1,600 feet above the level of the sea upwards to the top of the cordilleras, * * * first, the cinchona and india-rubber trees, wheat, corn, barley, potatoes, and nutritious roots of various kinds; * * * then the ferns, the lichens, the moss, and the last forms of life, and nothing else but dense fogs and freezing winds blustering around the ice.*

CACAO.

Cacao, of which the Guayaquil product has attained, with reason, so great a reputation, is the chief product of Ecuador, and the year which gives a short crop is disastrous to all branches of commerce. It is raised principally in the provinces of Manabí, Guayas, and Oro, and finds a large market in Spain, Great Britain, Germany, and the neighboring Republics of Peru and Chile.

Cacao plantations are valued, according to Mr. Church's report, in proportion to the number of trees which they contain; the usual product varying from 40 to 60 cents a tree, land and everything else included. An area of 100 yards square can easily contain 1,325 trees, and yield, according to the location and other circumstances, from 500 to 2,000 pounds.

Says Mr. Church:

A fairly well attended plantation will, even when the crop is ordinary, give 12 per cent per annum on the capital invested. It is the safest and the easiest crop to be raised in Ecuador.

The system of planting cacao most in use in Ecuador is from seed and not from shoots or cuttings. The bean is taken fresh from the pod, with the white saccharine pulp on the outside, and so planted in the earth, three beans for each hill, and at 9 feet distance between the plants, preferably under the shade of banana trees, until the plants are well grown. On some farms, young shoots or cuttings have been planted, but the result is never so good and healthy as with the plants raised from seed. The cacao

* Cevallos. *Resúmen, etc.*, Vol. I, p. 16.

districts of Balao and Machala, where there is constant moisture throughout the year, give a much larger crop than the Arriba farms; but this is apparently due rather to the climate than to the soil, as the seeds of the Machala and Balao cacao which have been planted in the Arriba districts do not appear to produce there any more than those of the other kind.*

SUGAR CANE.

Next to cacao, sugar cane must be mentioned as among the sources of wealth of the Republic.

Says Consul-General Sorsby: †

The first attempt to cultivate it for the purpose of producing sugar for the market was in the establishment, in or about 1875, of what was called the San Pablo Hacienda, which was considered to be worth 300,000 sucres. Seven years later, another hacienda, named De Valdes, was also established, and it was followed in more or less rapid succession by four other estates.

The total capital invested in all these estates amounted to \$1,050,000. When Mr. Sorsby wrote (1890) two more haciendas were being established at a cost of about \$400,000, with machinery far superior to that to be found on any other estate. Up to 1889, the production of sugar had been scarcely sufficient to supply the demands of the home consumption; but in 1891, notwithstanding that the rainy season happened to be of longer duration than usual and the sugar crop could not be as large as was expected, the quantity produced was sufficient to supply the home consumption and leave a surplus for export.

Besides the estates above referred to, there are many of less importance in the interior, on which considerable sugar, although of an inferior quality, is produced. As Mr. Sorsby said in November, 1890, "it can not be doubted that at an early date the

* Report of Mr. George Chambers, British Consul at Ecuador, on the trade and commerce of Ecuador for the year 1891.

† Report of Mr. Sorsby on sugar cane and culture in Ecuador. Reports from the consuls of the United States, No. 123, December, 1890, p. 636.

cultivation of the sugar cane and its conversion into sugar will become an industry of vast importance in Ecuador," and, as stated by Mr. Chambers, "Ecuador may henceforth be looked upon as a sugar-exporting country." The soil and the climate of the coast offer unexceptionable and unrivaled facilities and inducements for the production of sugar on a large scale, the cost being almost entirely a question of machinery. Lands adapted to sugar cultivation can be bought at from \$10 to \$25 per acre, and the estimated cost of clearing and planting is about \$30 per acre. It is necessary to replant only once in twenty-five or thirty years. The growth of the cane is rapid and luxuriant, and when ripe, it produces as much sugar as the best cane of Peru, the only drawback being the short time in which the cane is generally allowed, on account of the change of season, to stand on the ground. Very often, a large quantity of unripe cane is brought to the mill, from which necessarily very little sugar can be obtained.

According to Mr. Chambers, a large estate, provided with improved machinery and having a vast area of ground under cultivation in cane, has been lately established on the line of the railroad, between the places named Yaguachi and Chimbo, and about 215 plots of 100 yards square each have been planted with cane on the island of Chatham in the Galapagos Archipelago, which were expected to yield 750 tons of sugar. It appears from a report of the governor of the islands that there were at Chatham not less than 2,500 similar squares of land suitable in every respect for the growth of cane, and that the climatic and other conditions seemed to be extremely favorable. The temperature is mild from May to December (from 66° to 68° F.), and the rains during the period of about six months keep the soil sufficiently but not excessively moist. The people of the island never plant the cane without first thoroughly clearing and plowing the land, for which reason the cost per acre of a plantation is higher than in the Guayaquil district. The product, however, is very much im-

proved by this preparation, and it is said one-third more sugar is obtained. There is a steam sugar mill established on the island.

The Ecuador sugar, when exported, was at first almost exclusively sent to Great Britain. More favorable markets have subsequently been found for it in Central America.

President Flores, in his annual message to the Ecuadorian Congress June 10, 1892, refers to the sugar industry in the following words:

I am convinced of the exceptional advantages of our soil for the cultivation of the sugar cane, especially certain localities on the coast, and I asked the provincial governors for information on the subject, confined chiefly to the area of ground which might be devoted to this cultivation and its possible yield. Only ten Provinces have so far responded. Pichincha, León, Chimborazo, Bolívar, Manatí, and Oriente have not, as yet, been heard from. According to the data received, there are now in the ten Provinces which have reported 7,420' hectares (18,335 acres) of land planted with sugar cane; but an area four times larger might be profitably devoted to the same purpose. The yield of the industry in the said localities varies considerably according to the facilities existing for the manufacture of sugar and rum, or aguardiente; but 20 per cent is the greatest profit. I am sure that this percentage could be increased by foreign immigration and the radical change which would operate in the agricultural methods of the country by the introduction and use of improved machinery; by the reduction of the wages in the provinces along the coast and of the rates of freight and expenses of transportation in those of the interior; by the establishment of banks where capital could be obtained at low rates of interest, and, finally, by resorting to protective measures in favor of sugar and all other product of the sugar cane. In the opinion of competent persons, no other industry offers better opportunity to foreign capital and enterprise than sugar planting.

The cane is planted in Ecuador by putting three pieces each in holes 6 inches deep and 18 by 18 inches square. This is done in February, March, April, and June, and the cane is ready to be cut within ten months. After the first year, the cutting and milling are begun in July and continue up to the latter part of December. The kind of cane preferred is the white Mexican, which is soft. It attains an average height of 9 to 10 feet and a thickness of from

2 to 3 inches, and requires no irrigation. The sugar cane of Peru rarely exceeds 6 feet in height and $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches in thickness, and needs to be irrigated.

The labor on the sugar plantations is almost entirely native, with a few Jamaicans. The cost of production of refined sugar by the methods now in vogue is about \$4 per 100 pounds. Nearly all the machinery, says Consul-General Sorsby, is American. It may be said that there is no waste in the reduction of the cane to sugar, although the high prices obtained and the enormous profits made do not greatly encourage close attention to minimizing the the cost of production.

Molasses is distilled into rum equal to that of Jamaica. The intoxicating beverage called "Anisado de Mayorca," or "Majorca" is obtained by adding to it, in the proper proportions, water and essence of anise.

COFFEE.

Coffee grows in Ecuador in several localities, on both the mainland and the islands, and its production is on the increase. The good prices obtained for this article and the demand in the markets of Chile and various countries of Europe for a superior quality have induced farmers in Ecuador to give more attention to its cultivation and subsequent preparation for export. The result has been that the Guayaquil coffee is now favorably known in Chile, in London, and in Hamburg, and also in New York, and its export is becoming daily of more importance to the country. Coffee was exported from Guayaquil in 1879 to the amount of 650,402 pounds, representing a value of \$104,064. In 1889, the amount exported was 2,550,000 pounds, of the value of \$510,847.65.

The governor of the Galápagos Islands says there are large tracts of land in Chatham Island, apart from those suitable for the cultivation of the sugar cane, which can be used with advantage for the growth of coffee.

COTTON.

Cotton is another valuable product of Ecuadorian soil. The best quality grows at Imbabura. According to Mr. Church, it is of perennial growth and requires irrigation only twice a year. The staple is said to be like the United States "sea island," although a little coarser. The United States cotton seed has been lately introduced in great variety in different localities, but so far, it has not produced better results than the native.

TOBACCO.

Tobacco might be produced on a much larger scale than at present, and with great benefit to the country. In 1889, it was exported to the amount of 678,537 pounds, representing a value of \$100,328. It is grown mostly in the Provinces of Guayaquil, Manabi, and Esmeraldas. In speaking of the tobacco grown in the latter, Mr. Church says that it was the best he had thus far seen, and adds that "with careful cultivation and manufacture it might rival the average grades of Havana. The cigars made at Quito of Esmeraldas tobacco are of medium strength, rich, dark color, clear leaf, smoke with a white, stiff ash, and are of good flavor. The best cost \$20, gold, per thousand, and are equal to the Havana cigar which sells in New York for \$10 or \$12 per hundred. I have no doubt that if attention were turned to it, Ecuador might make tobacco her principal export."

IVORY NUTS.

Ivory nuts, called in the country "tagua," are an important product. They were exported in 1889 to the amount of 31,400,848 pounds, which represented a value of \$529,886.24. These figures, however, are very small in comparison with those of former years, particularly in 1879, in which the value of the export amounted to \$1,730,519, in gold.* The decrease has resulted chiefly from the fact that the foreign demand has much fallen off.

* Church. Ecuador in 1881, p. 13.

PERUVIAN BARK.

An article of great value to the Republic, and abundantly found upon its territory, is the Peruvian bark, called in Spanish quina, or cinchona. Says Mr. Church:

The world owes to the Province of Loja, Ecuador, the first presentation of this valuable febrifuge, under the name of Jesuit's Bark.* It was, however, used long before the time of the Jesuits by the Indians all along the eastern slope of the Ecuadorian, Peruvian, and Bolivian Andes, and especially by the celebrated Indian doctors of the Bolivian Province of Canpolican, whom I have met in Bolivia, hundreds of miles from their home, carrying their bags of roots and herbs, with which they have the reputation of performing wonderful cures. The Quichua Indian name for Peruvian bark is quina-quina, from which the modern name of the medicine is derived. In the Quichua language, when the name of a root or vegetable is repeated, forming a compound word, it indicates a medicinal quality. The Spanish Countess Cinchon, although deserving credit for the introduction of this febrifuge into Europe, scarcely merits for this act the enthusiastic eulogies she has received from her admirers.

Just now, the forests of Ecuador are being stripped of Peruvian bark in the most vandalic way. Every tree is being destroyed and none planted to replace them. The bark is all shipped from Guayaquil.

The laws of Ecuador allow any one to work the forests of the public domain, but a recent Congress conceded to a Colombian company the right to cut Peruvian bark over 100 square leagues of territory, which right they have translated to mean a monopoly of the entire forests of Ecuador. Recent efforts of private individuals to work the quinine forests have been failures. The people complain that the Government extends its protection to the Colombian company, which employs a large force of Colombian bark-gatherers. Certain it is that a continuous stream of Peruvian bark is descending the Andes for Guayaquil. Formerly, much was cut from the Pacific section, but it now goes principally from the southeast slope of the Amazon chain of the Andes.

* The Marchioness of Cinchon, wife of the Viceroy of Peru, having introduced in Europe the Peruvian bark, Linneus, in her honor, gave the name of cinchona to the botanical genus to which these plants belong. The Marchioness, who had been a great sufferer from malarial fevers, was cured by the Jesuits by the use of a decoction made out of this bark. They had learned from the Indians how to use the remedy.

OTHER PRODUCTS.

India rubber is gathered abundantly in the forests of Ecuador. It was exported in 1889 to the value of \$262,207.50. India-rubber plantations have been started in several localities, but principally in the Province of Guayaquil. The tree there does not begin to produce until three years after planting. Bananas, coconuts, sarsaparilla, straw for the so-called Panama hats, pineapples, maize, rice, indigo, and many other useful productions abound in Ecuador. Rice was very successfully cultivated in 1891 in all the vegas, or places along the banks of the rivers. Indigo has been planted in many places, and experts, trained at the Government expense, have been sent into the various Provinces to superintend its cultivation.

Indian corn is grown with facility and abundance. Mr. Church states that there are fields at Imbabura said to have been continuously planted with maize for 200 years without exhausting their producing power.

Mention may be made of other crops, wheat, barley, oats, potatoes, etc., which are raised in the inter-Andean section of the Republic, and which abundantly supply the necessities of the Ecuadorian people.

The rich violet dye known by the name of orchilla, or archilla (*Rocella tinctoria*), is also a product of the country. United States Consul-General Sorsby made it the subject of a special report, addressed to the State Department on February 20, 1892, from which the following is taken:

Orchilla is a dye moss found on the coast of Ecuador, near Guayaquil, and in the Galapagos Islands. It is not cultivated, but grows wild, and can only be had in limited quantities. The moss is gathered by hand from the rocks upon which it grows. It is spread in the sun to dry and cure, and pressed into bales of about 150 to 200 pounds, and is then ready for shipment. The total export, as at present known, could not exceed 2,000 quintals per annum, and the present price is from \$5 to \$6 per quintal in American gold, with an export

duty of \$2.75 per quintal in American gold additional. That costing \$5 is from the coast, and that costing \$6 from the Galapagos Islands, and is thought to be of superior quality. The demand for orchilla at present is very light, but on the first appearance of an increased demand the prices would most probably be much higher than now, unless purchasers and manufacturers were protected by contracts.

The plant which the people of the country name "cabuya," the "agave" of the botanists, is common in most of the provinces of the interior and especially abundant in Tunguragua, where it is used for fencing and other purposes. Señor Cevallos says that perhaps no other plant of Ecuador is more useful. Its leaves are used by the poor country people to roof their houses and to make ropes, which are as durable and strong as those made of leather. Its fiber is employed with great advantage by the bag-maker, the tailor, and the seamstress. Its flower stem, sometimes 6 or 7 meters high, is much used for building and other purposes. Its flowers make a good salad, and the juice, or sap, of the stem is used by the people to sweeten certain dishes, or to make writing ink, or as medicine for certain diseases of animals. Some varieties of this plant furnish good food for cattle and sheep, while others are generally in demand for ornamental purposes. The plant is an excellent fuel and a first-class fertilizer.

Consul Chambers considered the cabuya rope of importance enough to give to it a place in his report for the year 1891. He says:

A factory has been started at Ambato for the manufacture of rope from the cabuya, or agave fiber, and a sample of the sizes produced, also of the fiber used for this purpose, and a piece of rope about 2 feet long accompanies this report. The price at which this is at present sold is 14 sucres, 40 cents, per quintal, or about £2 (\$10) for each 100 pounds. The rope has only just been put on the market, but as the above quotation is about 20 per cent less than English rope can be sold for here, after paying freight, duties, and expenses, it is considered that a fair consumption may be looked for.

TIMBER.

Dyewoods of various classes are found in the forests of Ecuador, and exported, although not to a very large extent. The total exported in 1889 was 135,357 pounds.

A small quantity of timber is shipped from the Pacific coast. Says Mr. Church:

With a little energy and some capital, the amount might be increased so as to make this an important industry. The forests are extensive and full of excellent hard woods, greatly in demand for building purposes in Peru and Chile, which have little available timber land. The Ecuadorian forests of the Pacific are within easy reach of the numerous ports I have mentioned. The first ocean craft ever built upon the west coast of South America was constructed at Guayaquil.

Chapter V.

MINERAL RESOURCES.

Ecuador abounds in mines of gold and other metals. The inter-Andean section, if rich at all in precious metals, is of such peculiar geological construction that undisturbed stratified and sedimentary rocks lie at great depths, thus rendering their exploration extremely difficult or impossible. On the Pacific Slope, however, and in the Province of Oriente, on the side of the Amazon Valley, mining can be carried on with advantage. It is to be regretted that, owing to various circumstances, the industry is still far behind the degree of development which it is capable of attaining.

In the Province of Esmeraldas, in the extreme northwest corner of the Republic, bordering upon Colombia and the Pacific Ocean, the gold mines of Cachabi, Uimbi, and Playa de Oro have acquired celebrity.

Says Señor Cevallos:

Almost everywhere in the territory of Esmeraldas alluvial deposits of gold can be found. Those of the Santiago River were in former times extremely productive, on account of the great number of slaves usually employed in washing gold on its banks. * * * The gold there is very fine; it being generally of $20\frac{1}{2}$, 21, $22\frac{1}{4}$, and even $22\frac{3}{4}$ carats. But that of Playa de Oro and of Uimbi is still finer. The gold at Cachabi is more abundant, and is found in pieces of large size, there being nuggets which weigh 3 and even 4 ounces each.

The Engineering Magazine of New York, of May, 1892, has an article under the title, "The Gold Fields of Ecuador," from

the pen of Mr. Russell F. Lord, an engineer who has been professionally engaged in mining work in the Province of Esmeraldas. In this article, intelligent information is given about the mines of Cachabi, Uimbi, and Playa de Oros. The writer says that in recent surveys of some old Spanish grants on the western Cordilleras, the existence of placer gold to an almost limitless extent, under exceptionally favorable conditions for hydraulic mining, has been discovered. This mining district is about 30 miles from the coast and easily accessible through the Santiago River, which affords facilities for navigation up to within a few miles of the gold deposits. Mr. Lord says that in one of the cuts at Playa de Oro he measured a cubic yard taken from the bed rock ten feet up, and had it washed by natives in their crude way, by running water over it, and although the finer portion of the gold was lost, he obtained 97½ cents in gold. He says also that he took several pans of gravel from the top of the bank, 45 feet above the bed rock, and had it washed by natives, in "bateas," wooden dishes averaging 300 to the cubic yard, and obtained \$1.67 per cubic yard. While speaking of some mining properties on the Cayapas River, about 15 miles from the northern frontier, Mr. Lord refers to an estimate made by Mr. Frank S. Ketchum, a mining engineer who examined that locality, and says that one-fifth of those properties, taking an average of 40 or 45 cents per cubic yard, represents a value of \$159,800,000.

Mr. Ketchum, the engineer named, and Mr. Clarence E. Dougherty, another engineer associated with him, have made reports on the Uimbi and the Cachabi mines. One eighth of the Uimbi property, immediately available, is estimated by them to consist of 43,000,000 cubic yards, yielding at the rate of from 60 to 65 cents per cubic yard.

The Province named Oro, which borders upon Peru and the Pacific Ocean, owes its name to the abundance of gold in one of the three cantons into which it is divided. The privileged can-

ton, Zuruma, whose chief town has the same name, was celebrated in olden times not for the quality or fineness of the gold yielded by its mines, which was in general of somewhat low grade, but for the great number of places in which it was found to be abundant. When Don Jorge Juan and Don Antonio Ulloa made their famous visit, they stated in their report that the Zuruma mines amply "compensate by their abundance for the relative inferior quality of their gold," and that in spite of the expense to be incurred in refining it to 24 carats, the mines prove in the end to be more profitable than many others which yield a finer metal. The working of these mines has been conducted, until very recently, in a manner which failed to secure the results to be reached by more scientific processes, but now a British company, has taken charge of the business, and pushed it, so far, with considerable vigor.

A German scientist, Dr. Wolf, author of a "Report on a Geological Trip through the Province of Loja" (*Relacion de un viaje geognóstico por la provincia de Loja*) refers very favorably to the Zuruma mines, and says that "Zuruma is called to act a very important part in the mining industry." When this report was made public in Ecuador, in 1886, there was in Guayaquil, according to Dr. Don Vicente Paz, "not only enthusiasm, but delirious fever," and although the excitement subsided, great attention is still paid to the subject.

In a report of the British Consul at Guayaquil, dated October 20, 1890, it is said that during the year 1889 the Zuruma Gold Mining Company of London had continued the extraction of gold from the Portobello mine, getting out about 400 ounces per month, and that a proposal had been made to augment the stamping power in order to increase the product. The same report says that the works at the Quebrada mines had been entirely suspended, because the mines had been flooded, and the whole capital of the company exhausted; that the Telephono mines had not been

actively worked either, and that some explorations by English and French syndicates on other mining properties had not so far given any definite returns.

Subsequently, under date of January 31, 1891, the same official said:

The Zuruma Gold Mining Company, of London, has continued the extraction of gold from the Portobello mine, and has exported during the whole year the amount of 4,671 ounces of gold from this mine. The works on same are being extended for the purpose of making further investigations with a view of increasing the stamping power. The works of the Quebrada mines have been renewed during the year. A French syndicate has started work on the Pacayurcu mine, which, a few years since, gave from a pocket vein about 10 tons of exceedingly rich ore that was exported in bulk to England for treatment. It is alleged that the true vein of this mine has been found, and examination is being made prior to the establishment of machinery and mills necessary for working. In the Province of Esmeraldas some explorations are also being made by experts from California as to gold washings on the banks of the river at Cachabi, with a view to working them. A local syndicate has been formed here for developing some silver mines in the Cuenca district.

There is still a third report from Consul Chambers, which covers the whole period of 1891, in which he says:

The Zuruma Gold Mining Company, limited, has continued working on the Portobello mine, and steps are now being taken to increase the hauling and facilities so as to secure a larger product. The gold exported for the year 1891 has been about £6,428 19s. 6d. (about \$32,150) in value; but the latter half of the year has shown a considerable improvement over the first six months.

The Pillzhum silver mines, worked by a native company, with a capital of 60,000 sucres for exploration only, have taken out several lots of silver said to be of assay value, varying from 200 ounces to 350 ounces per ton, the last mineral extracted being the most valuable. The ore extracted has been sent to Freiburg, in Germany, to be treated.

Gold washing has also begun in the districts of Cayapas, Cachavi, and Tukurbi, in Esmeraldas, and two American syndicates have been formed to work the mines of Cayapas and Cachavi.

The city of Azogues, and the canton of the same name, in the Province of Canar, were so called on account of the productive quicksilver mines which made them famous—Azogue being the

Spanish name for quicksilver. Deposits of the same metal are also worked within the city of Loja, the capital of the Province of the same name, in the southernmost portion of the Republic.

Mr. Church, speaking of the valleys of the Amazon district of Ecuador, says that they abound in gold, which is found in the river beds and gravel deposits, now worked, in certain localities, by the Indians, who are content to wash out 20 cents per day from the placers, in wooden pans.

Says the same writer:

Petroleum is found in the Province of the Pacific coast near Santa Elena, but it appears to be a surface product, not yet yielding good returns to the capital which has on several occasions been invested in its exploitation. About 4 leagues east of Quito, good surface indications of petroleum are also found. Southeast of Santa Elena, across the Gulf of Guayaquil, are the excellent producing wells of Tumbez, in Peru, and opposite to them, upon the Ecuadorian side of the Tumbez River, good unworked deposits are said to exist within easy reach of the coast. Many reports of the existence of coal have been made, but thus far, the specimens found have been nothing but a poor and valueless kind of lignite. Salt is another product of the coast which might serve largely for exportation to neighboring States. It is manufactured principally at the salinas of Santa Elena and the Morro, and is distributed over the country for home consumption. It is a Government monopoly, giving an average annual profit of \$175,000, gold. The salinas are extensive, and about 12 miles distant from the town of St. Elena, the most western point of Ecuador, and in the midst of a dry, sandy, dune-covered desert, but a few yards above the sea, from which it has been elevated. Near the base of the sand dunes, holes from 50 to 60 feet long, 20 to 30 wide, and from 3 to 6 deep, are dug. The water filtrates into these from the soil, which is strongly impregnated with salt, and then, in a climate where it rarely rains, the water soon evaporates, leaving on the bottom of the excavation a thick crust of salt, yellow or reddish according to the impurities it may contain. * * * Half of the salt is lost or wasted in the working. And this industry might be made into a splendid business, highly remunerative to the State.

The mining legislation of Ecuador in force up to August, 1892, is rather complicated, owing to the fact that it consists of laws enacted at different times, none of which repealed or abrogated those which preceded it. According to the valuable compilation

published in Guayaquil, in 1886, by Dr. Paz, under the title of "Legislation in Force in Ecuador on the Subject of Mines" (*Legislacion vigente en el Ecuador sobre minas*), the mining laws of Ecuador prior to August, 1892, were:

(1) Titles 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 14, and 15 of the Spanish mining ordinances (*Ordenanzas de mineria*), with the laws and decrees made and enacted both in Spain and in Mexico, in explanation or amendment of their provisions.

(2) The mining regulations (*Reglamento de minas*), promulgated by Simon Bolívar, in Quito, on October 24, 1829, as President of the Republic of Colombia.

(3) The mining code (*Código de mineria*), enacted by the Congress of Ecuador on August 26, 1886, and approved by the President of the Republic on August 28, in the same year.

The provisions of all these laws are almost identical, at least in their principal features, with the others which are in force in the rest of Spanish America.

NEW MINING LAW OF ECUADOR.*

Under date of August 30, 1892, Mr. Haggard, British Minister to Ecuador, reports to his Government that a new law sanctioned in Quito on August 15, reforming the mining laws of Ecuador, had been published in the Official Gazette, No. 27, of August 24, 1892. The principal alterations, as compared with the previously existing laws, are:

The following articles are added to the list of mines subject to be denounced: Sulphur, chromium, rhodium, iridium, tungsten, petroleum, and coal.

Metals and precious stones found isolated on the surface of the soil are to belong to the first finder.

* British Foreign Office Report, Miscellaneous Series, No. 262. Appendix I.

The law concedes the perpetual ownership of the mines to private proprietors, on the condition of paying annually a duty for each concession, whether the mine is worked or not, and this ownership shall only be considered lost and reassumed by the State for failure to comply with this condition and after the proceedings dictated by this code.

Under article 8, any person may denounce and obtain, in accordance with the dispositions of this code, up to twenty concessions, always provided that they are on vacant ground or ground not occupied by other miners, and also that they are contiguous to each other, on the course of the same vein, and without leaving intermediate spaces.

By another article, the annual duty for each concession is fixed at 8 sucres (about 1 pound sterling).

This is to be paid in advance, and can be paid into any of the treasurer's offices throughout the country.

Another article enacts that the mine concession shall terminate only on the failure in payment of the duty for the term fixed by this law, in which case the mine will be put up to auction by the fiscal judge for the purpose of sale to the highest bidder, with the condition that he shall go on paying the respective duty. From the amount of sale price the Treasury will retain the amount due, and the rest, after deducting costs, will be delivered to the prior owner. The latter can suspend the sale of his property by payment of double the value of the duties he owes; but he will not be permitted to make bids or offers on the day of sale, unless he pays a fine equal to the amount he owes, and the costs of the sale.

ART. 18. In the regular beds or veins each concession will be of 600 metres, horizontal length, by 200 metres breadth, provided there be so much land vacant or unoccupied by other miners.

ART. 21. In the gold sands and others to which Art. 4 refers, the concession shall comprise a superficies of 50,000 square metres in the form required by the interested party, but the width shall in no case be less than 50 metres.

ART. 24. An exemption is granted for 25 years, to be counted from the promulgation of this law, from all fiscal or municipal taxes on the transfer of the proprietorship in mines, and from all royalty duties on mines or their product.

For the same period, mining property shall not be charged any other contribution than that of the duty before mentioned, nor shall any fiscal or municipal dues be charged for the importation of machinery, tools, utensils, explosives, for the working of the mines or the elaboration of their products.

Article 25 provides that the actual owners of mines can reconstitute their properties in the form determined by this code without prejudice to any rights acquired by other parties. The payments of concessions of mines obtained before the promulgation of this code are to be in accordance with the measurements stipulated in the present law.

The following is taken from the last annual message of President Flores, sent to the Ecuadorian Congress on the 10th of June, 1892 :

The mining industry has considerably increased. The auriferous region of Esmeraldas has been called El Dorado by the engineers who came from the United States to explore that region. Three companies have been organized in the United States with a capital of thirteen millions to work the mines of Cachavi, Uimbi, and Playa de Oro. All the necessary machinery has been ordered in California, and communication by steam between Esmeraldas and Panama will, as it seems, be established. The essay published in the New York Engineering Magazine, under the title "The gold fields of Ecuador," by Engineer Russell F. Lord, confirms the above-mentioned statements and causes hopes to be entertained which exceed the dreams of imagination. Mr. Lord says in reference to one of the mines: Mr. Frank S. Ketchum, a mining engineer, estimates the value of the sand along the Santiago River, within the limits of that portion of the property which has been examined and is only a fifth of the whole, taking the average rate of 40 or 45 cents per cubic yard, at \$159,800,000. Not less dazzling reports come from Oriente. The Peruvian papers express the opinion that the banks of the Santiago River are ten times richer than California. A most favorable report has been received from Messrs. Tenré and Ancarini in regard to the Zuruma gold mines. Mr. Van Ischot has also reported very favorably on the Pillzhum silver mines of the canton of Azogues. This affords me a further opportunity to reiterate the recommenda-

tions I made in my last message in favor of legislation which may encourage and promote the mining industry.

The Secretary of the Treasury of Ecuador appended to his report to Congress for the year 1892 a schedule of all the mine concessions granted for Zuruma, from which the following is an abstract:

To the Compañía Inglesa (the Zuruma Gold Mining Company of London), the Portovelo, Cunpamba, Tostada, Bomba, Sesmo, Yoscon Blanco, Bomba de Viscaya, and Malalanga—8 mines. To Manuel F. Muñoz and his associates: Nudo, Zoroche, Perarvillo, Fraternidad, Cabo de Hornos, Gobernadora, and Renegada—7 mines. To Joaquin Longsley & Co.: Favorita—1 mine. To Compañía Nacional: La Quebrada—1 mine. To Tito G. Saenz de Tejada y Gonzalez: Cantabria—1 mine. To Compañía Explotadora: Fénix, Caridad, Francesa, Zancudo, Cristina, Mercedes, California, Porvenir, Exploradora, Primavera, Clemencia, América, Borgona, Carmen, Rosario, Santa Lucía, San Antonio, Leonor—18 mines. To Compañía Pacayurco: Pacayurco—1 mine. To Compañía Lozana: Americana, Matilde, Nacional, Telégrafo, Luz, Cimo-docea—6 mines. To Compañía Nacional Joaquin Gonzalez: Conception and others—several mines.

Chapter VI.

MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES.

The manufacturing business of Ecuador is far from the development of which it is capable. According to Señor Cevallos, this is due principally to the lack of good roads, and the consequent difficulties in the transportation of machinery and other articles of great weight or volume. But the Government is devoting its attention to improvement of the means of communication, and it is to be hoped that its efforts will meet with success.

Among the industrial pursuits more or less directly connected with agriculture, which afford occupation for the Ecuadorian people, mention must first be made of the manufacture of butter, cheese, and other dairy products, which, in certain localities, is carried on on a comparatively large scale, and with considerable profit. Then comes the manufacture of sugar, to which reference has been made in a preceding chapter, and which carries with it the distillation of spirits (aguardiente) produced by the fermentation of molasses. The manufacture of chocolate gives employment to many persons. Silk culture and wine making are also engaged in and seem to be on the increase. Señor Cevallos, says that the silk worm became acclimated in Ecuador in 1867, and Ecuadorian silk commanded favorable attention at the Universal Exhibition at Paris. The same writer states that the wine industry is progressing rapidly, especially in the Province of Tungurahua.

Mr. Horatio N. Beach, United States Consul at Guayaquil, in 1884, made a report under the title "Fruit Growing in Ecuador," in which he said that nearly all varieties of grapes can be grown to perfection. The vines are set by digging a hole with a hoe, and are cultivated only by the use of a machete—a long knife. The land costs little or nothing, and the laborer receives 20 cents a day and his board. The vines are grown to stakes. As considerable wine is consumed in the country, the National Congress has passed laws to promote grape culture. The value of the grape crop per acre can be estimated approximately by the value of the wine, the most common bringing \$1.25 per gallon. The yield of grapes will doubtless be as large as elsewhere under similar cultivation. Grapes may be grown in any section of the country.*

Flour is another article of importance, although its production is still limited. When Mr. Church wrote his pamphlet, "Ecuador in 1881," there were in the whole country not more than eight small flour mills of modern construction, all with water power and having a total of thirty-four run of stones, twenty-eight of which are at Quito, and six within a few miles. There are also in the country a number of mills of primitive construction. Flour at the mills of Quito sold then at \$3.60 gold per 100 pounds, but at the town of Ambato, south of Quito, the price was \$4.40 gold per 100 pounds, the difference being due to the difficulties of transportation. Mr. Church says that each run of stones could grind at the rate of 2,500 pounds daily.

It was stated in the same pamphlet that there was a cotton mill at Quito and another at Chillo, 5 leagues to the east, the total capacity of both being 7,000 spindles. All or nearly all the goods made there go to Southern Colombia. Before 1881, many other cotton mills were found in the neighborhood of Mount Cotopaxi, but they were destroyed by an eruption of that volcano.

* Report of February 26, 1884. Reports from the consuls of the United States, No. 41½, June, 1884; page 786.

Mr. Church refers also to a small woolen mill established at Chillo.

Under the title of "Manufacturing in Guayaquil; American Manufactures in Ecuador," Mr. Horatio N. Beach, United States Consul at the port above named, submitted on the 8th of April, 1884, an interesting report,* from which the following is taken:

There are in Guayaquil, the business metropolis of Ecuador, a fair variety of manufactories, but none of a very extensive character; the people relying mainly on the outside world for manufactured supplies. * * * The United States supply all of the sugar-making machinery, all the sawmills, all the planing-mill machinery, nearly all the steam engines, all the carts, all the sewing machines, nearly all the best saddles and harness, all the street cars, some of the furniture, all the store trucks and wheelbarrows, a large share of the axes, many billiard tables, a portion of the musical instruments, etc.

The two leading manufacturing establishments of Guayaquil are combined, steam sawmills, foundries, and machine shops. The two concerns use gang and circular saws, both of which work slowly and indifferently, because of the remarkable springy nature of the wood—a log 12 feet long springing from 2 to 4 inches out of line when a slab is taken off. The two mills turn out about 150,000 feet of lumber per year, which is sold at an average of \$35 per thousand. The foundry and machine shop work is mostly in the line of repairs and is quite extensive. Castings sell at an average of 15 cents a pound. * * * Wages at these establishments range from 70 cents to \$3 a day, United States currency. There is one steam planing, matching, turning, and small sawing establishment, whose entire outfit was obtained in the United States. It does the general work of such an establishment, but mainly for carpenters and builders. There are two ice manufactories, whose machinery was obtained in New York. They daily turn out a total of 3,000 pounds of ice, which is sold at 7 cents per pound.

Mr. Beach speaks of seven manufactories of chocolate and two soda-water bottling establishments, then existing at Guayaquil, and also of the gas works of the city, where they use coal obtained from Great Britain, and continues as follows:

There is but one distillery in the city, and that a small concern. * * * Nearly every large sugar estate has a small distillery. About one hundred men

* Reports of the consuls of the United States, No. 41, May, 1884; pages 474 and 475.

are employed in Guayaquil with whipsaws in transforming hewn timber into boards and planks. The timber is chalk-lined on two sides for the thickness of the lumber desired, and then the sawyers follow the lines, without regard to the spring of the timber. They work by the "cut," and earn from \$1.50 to \$2 a day. The timber of Ecuador is excellently adapted for vessel building, and vessel construction might be made an important industry. The vessels usually built are small craft, of from 5 to 50 tons, to be used without sails on the upper rivers. At long intervals, vessels as large as 100 tons have been built. There are no obstacles to building vessels of several hundred tons burden. The sail cloth sold in market, and tar, pitch, turpentine, etc., used in new work and repairs, are principally supplied from the United States. * * * The printing presses and type are also obtained in the United States. * * * Germany furnishes the paper and most of the ink, a small percentage of the latter being obtained in New York.

The manufacturing industry which, during the time of the Presidencia, says historian Cevallos, was flourishing, is now in decline and restricted, but still profitable. The cheapness of the domestic goods enables them with more or less difficulty to stand competition with the imported ones. Poor people, the laborers, and in general, almost all the inhabitants of warm and damp localities, can afford to dress only in coarse flannel. During the last few years, foreign machinery has been brought to the country and carried to the provinces in the interior, where factories for the manufacture of wool and cotton goods have been established on the same footing and according to the same plans and methods as in Europe and North America.

Under date of July 8, 1885, United States Consul-General Beach made a report on the shoe and leather industries of Ecuador,* from which the following is taken:

All the sole leather used in Ecuador is made in the country, and a small surplus is exported to Peru. The hides cost at the tanneries from \$1 to \$6 each, and the price averages about one-fourth lower in the mountain than in the seaboard provinces. The tanning is chiefly done with the bark of the mangrove tree, of which the lower Provinces have an abundant supply. The

* Reports from the consuls of the United States, No. 59, October, 1885; pages 304 and 305.

quality of the leather is inferior to that tanned abroad. Calf, patent, kid, and goat leather are imported to some extent. Calfskins have been imported in a limited quantity from the United States and have proved fairly satisfactory, but the French leather is considered better prepared and is given the preference. The best means of increasing the trade in American leather will be to make an article that will compete successfully with the French leather. * * *

The factory system for making shoes is not known in Ecuador, though some large shoemaking machinery is used at Quito. * * * Some sewing machines, principally from the United States, are also employed. The shoes in use are made in calf, kid, goat, and patent leathers, and in the styles of congress, bal-moral, button, and low shoes. * * * About one-fourth of all shoes used are imported from the United States and France, but the French styles prevail. The imported shoes are chiefly for women and children. Leather boots and rubber shoes brought from the United States have a small sole, and while the workmanship and quality of boots and shoes imported from the United States are considered superior, the styles are inferior to the French and not so well adapted to the feet. Leather should be shipped in zinc-lined boxes, and the boxes should be strapped with hoop iron. All boxes of shoes should be well strapped, as goods are subject to severe usage in the several necessary handlings.

President Flores, in his message of June 10, 1892, says in regard to certain industries of Ecuador:

At Cashapamba, at the northern entrance to the Ambato territory, Messrs. Seminarios and Brothers have established under the name of La Industria Cabuyera a large factory to work the fiber of the cabuya (agave), which is there so abundant. According to Don Pablo Serra, a Spaniard, who is at the head of this concern, a few leagues of that arid land can be made to yield \$1,000,000.

He also refers to two manufactories of porcelain, recently established, one at Tunguragua, by some gentlemen named Martinez, and the other in the Province of León.

President Flores says further:

Exhibits of all these industries and of many others have been made at our National Exhibition, and they have deserved the commendation of competent persons. It must be left to the respective juries to pass their judgment upon the said exhibits, whose enumeration would not be easy here. I must state, however, that this, our first attempt at holding a National Exhibition, has been crowned with success, and will prove instrumental, to the highest degree, in the promotion of industry and the welfare of the country.

Chapter VII.

TRANSPORTATION FACILITIES—FOREIGN COMMERCE IMMIGRATION—COMMERCIAL OPPORTUNITIES.

One of the standing committees of the International American Conference which assembled at Washington on the 2d of October, 1889, and closed on the 19th of April, 1890, was called "The Committee on Railway Communication," and had for its object the reporting of some plan of promoting trade between the different Republics represented at the conference, by building railroads and increasing telegraphic and postal facilities. The chairman of that committee, in his desire to collect as much information as could be obtained, and as reliable as its official character could render it, on the subject of the railroads of each nation represented at the conference, requested the respective delegates to furnish him with a statement of what had been done in their own countries in respect to this matter. In this way, he was able to gather a valuable collection of individual reports, which facilitated, considerably, the work of the committee, and enabled its members to reach the conclusions submitted to the conference on the 20th of February, 1890, which were approved, after due discussion, on the 26th of the same month.

It was on that occasion that the delegate for Ecuador, Señor José María Plácido Caamaño, in compliance with the request of the chairman of the committee, prepared for him the following report:

My Very Distinguished Friend and Colleague:

In accordance with your request that the various delegates composing the Committee on Railroads furnish some data relative to railroads in their respective countries, I have the honor to give the following:

The construction of railroads in Ecuador began in 1872 under the administration of Mr. García Moreno by commencing the road of Yaguachi, to place the coast Provinces in connection with the capital of the Republic and the Provinces to the east and north of Guayaquil. Various difficulties made this work slow, and during said administration up to 1875, about 70 kilometers, to a point called "Barraganetal," were built. Afterwards, during the administration of Presidents Barrero and Veintimilla, the same line was extended to the vicinity of the Chimbo River that marks the limits of the coast lands and the beginning of the Cordilleras of the Andes. Later on, and under the administration of the undersigned, work was renewed on the line from February, 1884, to June, 1888, by virtue of a contract entered into with Mr. Marcus J. Kelly and by the executive power, and approved by Congress in 1885; according to which, 82 additional kilometers were to be constructed from Chimbo to Sibambe.

The contractor has encountered many obstacles, the principal one being lack of laborers; for Ecuador has only a population of 1,500,000 inhabitants; and as the agricultural industry absorbs most of the workmen, it is difficult to find any considerable number of hands. At the commencement, the contractor associated with him some Guayaquilian capitalists, and with them secured a loan in Europe; but this loan has not proved sufficient, and to-day, they are making arrangements to overcome all obstacles and finish the contract. The road being once finished to Sibambe, and the serious difficulty of passing over the western range of the Cordillera surmounted, the prolongation of the line some 300 kilometers, more or less, to the capital, is very practicable.

A syndicate of European capitalists have made a proposal to the Government, which, among other things, contemplates the finishing of the railroad alluded to, not only to the capital but to Ybarra, an important city situated about 90 miles to the north of Quito.

It is not possible for me to assure you that this proposed plan will be realized; but I know that the President, devotedly interested in the progress of the country, has called an extra session of Congress that will assemble on the 15th of May and will interest itself principally in this matter.

From Sibambe to Quito and thence to Ybarra, this line will encounter less difficulties to construct, because in the Provinces of the interior the climate is healthy and it is easy to obtain workmen. Moreover, wages are very low, and the railroad can take in its line some sections of a wagon road we have, having a length of some 200 kilometers. This wagon road, on account of its width, accommodation, and one hundred and sixteen bridges (among them are true works of art), it can be said, is one of the best roads in the world. There are a number of contractors ready to undertake the construction of a road from Sibambe to Quito, and I have no doubt but that a contract will be made before

the conclusion of the year. This line would open up a wide field for the development of fertile lands, and very rich are those lying between the two ranges of the Cordilleras. This section is the center of a population noted for agricultural pursuits, and comprising such towns as Alausi, Chimbo, Guaranda, Riobamba, Guano, Colta, Ambato, Pelileo, Patate, Pillaro, San Miguel, Satacunga, Machachi, Chillo, Quito, Cotacollas, Pomasqui, Puenbo, Tumbaco, Otavalo, and Ybarra.

There are about 100 kilometers of railroad constructed up to date on this line, the most important of all.

Between Chimbo and Sibambe the greatest difficulty is encountered in constructing the railroad of the south, because there must be passed over a great part of the western chain of the Andes, and the road must climb up to an elevation of 3,000 meters in a distance of about 50 kilometers, for which it has been necessary to attain a grade of 82, crossing over enormous precipices, rocks, and wide rivers. This accounts for the slowness in carrying on such a colossal work that rivals or exceeds, perhaps, the road built on the lands of Oroya in Peru.

In order to comprehend the magnitude of those obstacles, it is sufficient to state that the contract with Mr. Kelly was fixed at \$145,000 per league, and this sum, although seemingly high, does not cover the expenses of construction, according to documents and publications I have among my papers.

On the 9th of April, 1884, the Ecuadorian Congress made a law authorizing the Executive Power to appropriate \$300,000 for the construction of a railroad for Manabi, a Province of the Pacific coast, and in August, 1887, a contract was made with Mr. Ignacia Palao to construct said line, which to-day is being built, with strong subsidies which the Government gives, and a loan obtained from European capitalists. This road commences from the bay of Caraquez, and crosses a region of exuberant fertility, and has but few obstacles along the proposed route. The length of the road will be 400 kilometers, more or less, and connects the rich and industrious Province of Manibi with the capital of the Republic.

The Provinces of Rios, Guayas, and Esmeraldas are washed by a network of large and small rivers, the greater part of them navigable; and their valuable products are carried by a large number of steamers that ascend these rivers to points that seem almost inaccessible. The laws of the country that open up the country and give facilities have served as a stimulus for various companies; and these, due to keen competition, have so lowered the rates on freight and passengers as to come within reach of all, thus giving an accommodating, quick, and cheap service. Notwithstanding this condition of affairs, a contract was awarded to Mr. Joseph Theakston to build railroads in the Province of Rios in

order to give a greater facility of communications, and for the transportation of fruits, among them being that of cacao, which in this Province alone amounts to some millions annually.

In March, 1884, another concession was given to Mr. Antonio Meina to build a railroad between the cities of Machala and Cuenca, which is about 180 kilometers in length. To-day this contract is in the hands of the family of Mr. Juan B. Dávila, whose heirs are endeavoring to arrange amicably the difficulties that had arisen, due to the recent demise of the contractor. This line will pass through Azogues and join the three Provinces of Ora, Cañar, and Azuay. In May of the same year, a concession was also made to Messrs. Muñoz and Wilczynska for the construction of another line between Santa Rosa and Zaruma, districts in the Province of Oro. The length of this road is only 40 kilometers, but it runs through the rich mineral districts of Zuruma, whose ore is of high fineness, and employs the work of a multitude of mining enterprises that are constantly being established with native and foreign capital, under the sanction of most liberal mining laws, that I had the satisfaction to approve in August, 1886.

About the middle of the year 1887, a contract was made with Mr. Marcus J. Kelly to establish a railroad between Duran and Yaguachi. It is about 22 kilometers long. It is finished and in running operation, costing \$650,000.

In the same year, Mr. Francisco Wyte Wiswell made a contract to build a railroad between Ybarra and Pailon, in the Province of Esmeraldas. This road is from 110 to 125 kilometers long; and if it should be built, or better, I should say, when it is built, will give an outlet for the valuable products of the Provinces of Ymbabura and Carchi that are situated on the boundaries of Colombia.

As a counterbalance to the material obstacles that the accidents of the land in Ecuador present for the construction of railroads, we have, on the other hand, the advantages that our forests abound in indestructible woods for railroad ties and other things; that the narrow-gauge system is adopted, and that in our contracts we cede lands of the first quality and large area, and that our laws accord protection and privileges of positive importance.

The present epoch of peace that the country enjoys, the path of progress that its able ruler follows, and the foreign credit which undoubtedly will remain solidified by the legislature, which is going to assemble for that object, leads us to hope with foundation that the public works initiated by the preceding administration will be carried out and new ones inaugurated in accordance with the demands of the present century, in which the prosperity of the people spreads itself on wings of electricity and carries forward its march by means of railroads.

Your obedient servant and friend,

J. M. P. CAAMAÑO.

Hon. Mr. J. F. VELARDE.

Subsequent to this report, and as a result of the action of the Congress of Ecuador, Consul-General Sorsby was enabled to submit to the State Department of the United States a special report on the railroads in Ecuador, dated August 30, 1890,* which reads as follows:

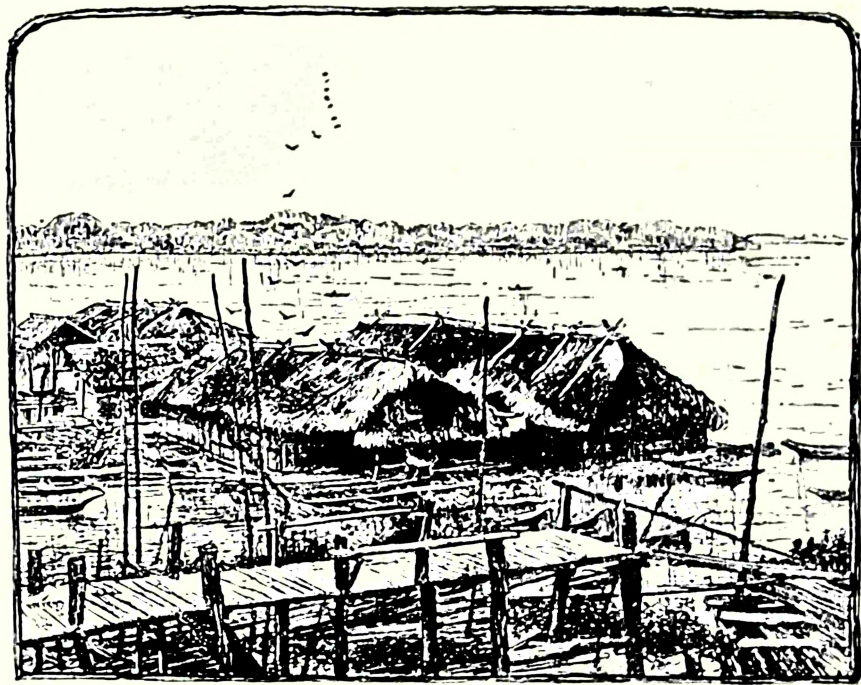
I have to report that the local telegraph announces the passage by the second extraordinary session of the Ecuadorian Congress of two important railroad measures. The first is a grant to the Southern Railway Company to build and operate a line from Guayaquil to Riobamba, in length about 240 kilometers, about 60 kilometers of which are now completely built and in operation. The Government guaranties 7 per cent interest per annum for 33 years on \$10,000,000, the road to be built and equipped within five years, and the entire property to revert to the Government at the expiration of 50 years. Having reached Riobamba, it will have crossed the three ranges of the Andes Mountains lying between Guayaquil and Quito, and its completion to Quito, as is expected, will be a matter of short duration and small cost. The road, when built, will be the "Denver and Rio Grande" of Ecuador, if not of South America, but it will traverse some of the most fertile valleys of the country.

The Central Railway, the second measure, is a line to connect Quito, the capital, with Bahia on the coast.

Bahia is the second port in importance in the Republic. The total distance from Bahia to Quito over the proposed route is 300 kilometers. The work and cost of construction, it is said, will be much lighter and cheaper than that of the Southern. The Government guaranties 6 per cent interest per annum on \$35,000 per kilometer, for 200 kilometers, and 6 per cent interest per annum on \$58,000 per kilometer, for 100 kilometers, for fifty years. The entire property is to revert to the Government at the expiration of seventy-five years. The Central line will pass through a section of country but sparsely populated, near Quito and Bahia; but the soil is said to be wonderfully rich and productive wherever cultivated. This road will cross but one range of mountains, the country for 200 miles from Bahia being level.

In his annual messages to Congress, dated June 10, 1890, and June 10, 1892, President Flores insisted on the necessity of keeping in good condition the wagon roads already in existence in the Republic, and building new ones wherever practicable, as they

* Reports from the consuls of the United States, No. 121, October, 1890; pages 239 and 240.



BALSAS ON THE GUAYAS RIVER.

are, under all circumstances, powerful agents in facilitating trade and transportation, and in assisting the railroads to do their civilizing work.

Ecuador has, as stated, no less than ninety-one rivers, about one-third of which are to some extent navigable, and they afford for a large section of country a reliable and economical means of transportation. Many of them on the western slope of the Andes are utilized for navigation for about 600 miles, but on the eastern slope there are over 3,000 miles on which there is scarcely any navigation. In fact, the eastern slope is so much abandoned to itself that no custom-houses are found in it, and whatever merchandise passes through it, to and from the country, by way of the Amazon and its Ecuadorian tributaries, is not taken into account by the National Government. The western slope system of river navigation centers at Guayaquil. This navigation is carried on by means of small steamboats, chatas, rafts, and canoes. There are employed eighteen steamboats, varying from 25 to 125 tons. The chatas, twenty in number, are boats of a somewhat lighter style, without sails, and carry from 4 to 50 tons. The rafts are an important element in river transportation, and are constructed of both bamboo and balsa. The latter is a species of timber having a floating capacity nearly equal to cork. A log 40 feet long and 15 inches in diameter is estimated to carry 2 tons. Twenty or thirty of these logs lashed together will carry quite a load, as well as the families of the raftsmen. There are sixteen large "balsas"—for thus the rafts are called—engaged in freighting. The bamboo rafts likewise carry considerable loads, and are sold at Guayaquil to be used as roofing boards and lathing in the erection of buildings.

Canoes which carry from 500 to 5,000 pounds are not an insignificant element in the water transportation system. They come fully laden, many of them from the by-ways, with valuable loads, and return with purchased supplies. The facilities of river

navigation are explained by the statement that the tide is rapid both ways, often running 5 miles an hour, and that a raft or boat without any physical propulsion whatever will average with the tide a distance of 48 miles in a day. All the steamboats take advantage of favorable tides.

By this diversified system of river navigation, most of the interior products consumed at Guayaquil or exported are received, and all imports are distributed to the extent of water communication.

In the International American Conference, the delegation from Ecuador, to which the chairmanship of the committee on communications on the Pacific was given, joined earnestly in the recommendation that all the American nations should coöperate for the establishment of one or more lines of first-class American steamships making regular voyages between San Francisco and Valparaiso and the intermediate ports.

IMMIGRATION.

There is a strong feeling in Ecuador in favor both of promoting by all practical means the establishment of a steady and healthy current of immigration into the country, and the construction of a ship canal, either through the Isthmus of Panama or Nicaragua, between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. Both measures are justly considered by them as fruitful sources of trade development and national progress and prosperity.

President Flores, in a recent message to Congress, says that a junta, or board of immigration, which by his order had been established at Guayaquil, had been unable to do anything of importance for lack of money. He said, further, that the country ought to devote its energies to the settlement of its debt. "Let us reëstablish our credit," he said, "let us secure for foreigners the proper guaranties, let us increase our transportation facilities and furnish within the limits of the Republic the means of living comfortably and accumulating wealth, and then, and not till then, we shall have immigration."

The same document states that the number of immigrants received in Ecuador from the Republic of Colombia had been estimated at 40,000. President Flores said further :

Although I am as well acquainted as any man can be with the benefits of immigration, I fully agree with the Council of State in retaining in our statute books and rigidly enforcing the decree which prohibits that of the Chinese.

The financial credit of the country has become settled, and as Europe possesses a surplus population of thousands whose religious sentiments would find sympathy among the people of Ecuador, and to whom a future undoubtedly more prosperous than is afforded in their native lands is promised, it is to be expected that the work of the Guayaquil Board of Immigration will go on steadily and successfully.

Says United States Consul-General Sorsby, in his report on the Commerce and Products of Ecuador, September 1, 1890 :

It can not be doubted that the general condition of the country has improved ; that its outlook has brightened ; and that unless some unforeseen and untoward event checks the advance upon which the country has fairly started, within a very few years, the Republic will be fully abreast of the most progressive of her South American sisters. The late session of the Congress ratified contracts for two important lines of railroads, both of which, starting from different points on the coast, are destined to cross the Andes and link the interior, with its inexhaustible and incalculable resources, with the Pacific coast. In the great valley of, and the territory beyond, the Andes, is a country of vast domain, unsurpassed in salubrity of climate, fertility and variety of soil, and mineral wealth. Railroads and a liberal policy toward immigration could usher in an era of prosperity not dreamed of by the Incas.*

Interoceanic communication, as any one who casts a glance at the map of America will readily perceive, will be of immense benefit to Ecuador. Guayaquil, which is now 14,300 miles from New York by way of Cape Horn, will be no more than 4,688 miles, if the Nicaragua Canal is opened from San Juan del Norte to Brito; and only 2,800 if the canal is cut from Colon to Pan-

* Reports from the consuls of the United States, No. 122, November, 1890 ; pp. 500 and 501.

ama. From Liverpool to Guayaquil at present, via Cape Horn, the distance is 11,321 miles. By way of the Nicaragua Canal it would be no more than 5,890. The distance between Guayaquil and New Orleans, via Cape Horn, which is now 11,683 miles, would be only 2,340 miles if the interoceanic communication were made through Nicaragua. Rates for freight and passengers will be proportionately cheapened, between Ecuador and the rest of the world, as soon as an isthmus canal is opened. British Consul Chambers says that "the sharp competition, the whole year (1891), with steamers by the Straits of Magellan caused a considerable fluctuation in the rates of freight; cocoa having been carried for £2-10s. to £5-5s. per ton." "More than one-third of the cocoa shipments," he says further, "have gone via the Straits of Magellan for France and Amsterdam (Havre option). Outward freights have also been much affected by the same competition, and the Hamburg and Liverpool Straits steamers have been carrying cargo as low as the rates charged by sailing vessels." This competition will no doubt be increased, with corresponding benefit for commerce and the country, when thousands of miles of travel can be saved by causing the whole trade to pass through the canal.

Consul Chambers says that in 1888 an increase in foreign shipping was noticed at Guayaquil, and that this increase was still further augmented during 1891. But he adds that the nominal increase in British steamers was due to the fact that during the course of the disturbances in Chile, some of the steamers of the Chilean South American Steamship Company traded under the British flag, with provisional British registers granted at Callao.

Consul-General Sorsby says that the average freights for 1889 were:

England—Royal Mail: Steam: Fine goods, \$43.75 per 100 cubic feet; common or rough goods, \$34.35 per 100 cubic feet. Other than Royal Mail (irregular): Fine goods, \$36 per 100 cubic feet; common or rough goods, \$25.35 per 100 cubic feet. Sail: \$26.50 per 100 cubic feet.

Germany—Steamer: \$50 per 100 cubic feet. Sail: \$25 per 100 cubic feet.

France—Steamer (Havre): Fine goods, \$37.50 per 100 cubic feet; common or rough goods, \$28.10 per 100 cubic feet. Sail (Bordeaux): general cargo, \$26.50 per 100 cubic feet.

The United States—Steamer (New York): \$75 per 100 cubic feet.

FOREIGN COMMERCE.

While the foreign commerce of Ecuador seems limited in comparison with that of some of the other South American Republics, it is, when considered in proportion to its productive population, quite extensive. Nearly three-fourths of the inhabitants produce no more than is actually needed for their own sustenance, and this condition will continue until means of transportation are afforded to carry the products of the interior to the coast; and the necessary capital and labor have been introduced to develop the marvellous resources of the country. The foreign trade of Ecuador has been reported as high as \$25,000,000 in some years, and it usually varies from fifteen to twenty millions annually, according to the extent and value of the cocoa crop, and is very nearly equally divided between exports and imports.

It is difficult to state, with any approach to accuracy, the amount, either in quantity or value, of the merchandise imported into Ecuador. There are many causes, explained to some extent by the historian, Cevallos, which render the statistics which the Ecuadorian Government can furnish exceedingly incomplete. According to him, the valuation of the imported articles at the Ecuadorian custom-houses is made upon the invoices filed by the importers, which generally give lower figures than the actual price. Señor Cevallos says that the invoices are usually 20 per cent less than the real value of the articles, and, besides this, many articles which are dutiable are nevertheless admitted free and escape the statistician, because imported for the use of some privileged institution or enterprise, as churches, convents, educational establishments, factories of certain kinds, etc.

In his message of June 10, 1892, President Flores gives the imports and exports of the Republic in 1890 and 1891 as follows:

	1890.	1891.
	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
Imports.....	10, 016, 357. 22	7, 241, 095. 40
Exports.....	9, 761, 637. 88	7, 351, 800. 34
Difference.....	254, 719. 36	110, 704. 94

But, he adds that these figures, which are entirely correct, so far as official documents can show, do not give the actual value either of the imports or the exports, and that, according to the Secretary of the Treasury, the true amount of both items would be reached by increasing by 50 per cent the total of the imports, and by 20 per cent that of the exports. Upon this ground, President Flores says that the figures nearest to absolute truth are the following:

	1890.	1891.
	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
Imports.....	15, 024, 535	10, 861, 553
Exports.....	11, 713, 965	8, 822, 160
Difference.....	3, 310, 570	2, 939, 393

Of the exports, France received the largest share, about 34 per cent, which, however, was not intended entirely for that country, but was distributed in Belgium, Holland, and Switzerland; Germany, 15 per cent; the United States, 14 per cent, and Great Britain, 13 per cent. The remainder was distributed among various other countries.

The cacao, or chocolate, which is the chief product, was sent in smaller quantities to Spain, Italy, Austria, Turkey, and other European countries, as well as to Mexico, Central American Republics, Chile, Peru, Argentine Republic, Uruguay, and Colombia.

The larger portion of the coffee product goes to Chile and Peru, and a little to Europe. The United States takes nearly the entire rubber product. The cinchona, or Peruvian bark, is shipped mostly to Great Britain, the United States coming next in order. The hides and goatskins are sent almost exclusively to the United States, and the horns of cattle to Great Britain. Great Britain takes nearly all of the dyewoods, indigo, and raw cotton. The wool goes to Germany. The tobacco and fruits that are exported are sent mostly to Chile and Peru. Germany takes the ivory nuts and the sarsaparilla. The hats, of which a large quantity are manufactured from fiber plants, are sent to all the countries along the coast and many to Cuba, and hammocks made from the same fiber also go to the neighboring Republics.

The imports of Ecuador were in the following proportion: Great Britain, 25 per cent; France, 24 per cent; United States, 20 per cent; Germany, 14 per cent.

The chief articles of import from Great Britain are cotton goods and other clothing; hardware, machinery, tools and cutlery, crockery, drugs, and other manufactured articles. France furnishes silks and other finer classes of fabrics; hats and caps, millinery, gloves, hosiery and underclothing, boots and shoes, perfumery, stationery, jewelry, toys and fancy articles, furniture, clocks and watches, wines and liquors, and similar merchandise. From Germany, come goods similar to those imported from France, and the exports from the empire to Ecuador have increased very largely of late because of the establishment of several new German mercantile houses at Guayaquil and the new line of steamers that is now running from Hamburg to the west coast of South America.

The United States export to Ecuador some provisions, breadstuffs, hardware, principally machetes; kerosene oil, lumber, a few cotton goods, refined sugar, and some other articles.

The following statement shows the value of domestic merchandise exported from the United States to the Republic of Ecuador

during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1887, compared with the exports of similar merchandise for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1891:

Articles.	Fiscal year ending June 30—		Increase (+) Decrease (-).
	1887.	1891.	
	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
Books, maps, engraving, etc	58, 703	14, 866	— 43, 837
Breadstuffs.....	54, 366	159, 109	+ 104, 743
Carriages, horse cars, and cars for steam railroads	25, 251	6, 672	— 18, 579
Chemicals, drugs, dyes, and medicines.....	22, 477	33, 708	+ 11, 231
Cotton, manufactures of.....	254, 097	97, 074	— 157, 023
Flax, hemp jute, and manufactures of.....	27, 177	23, 005	— 4, 172
Iron and steel, and manufactures of.....	166, 023	124, 104	— 41, 919
Leather, and manufactures of.....	19, 585	14, 498	— 5, 087
Oils.....	30, 785	32, 829	+ 2, 044
Provisions, comprising meat and dairy products	228, 813	217, 628	— 11, 185
Wood, and manufactures of.....	28, 918	64, 314	+ 35, 396
All other articles.....	133, 197	114, 931	— 18, 266
Total	1, 049, 392	902, 738	— 146, 654

The exports to Ecuador were not noted separately in the statistics of the United States until 1887. The falling off noticed is due to the partial failure of the cacao crop, which diminished the purchasing power of the people.

According to the reports of the Bureau of Statistics of the Treasury Department of the United States, the exports to Ecuador for the year ending June 30, 1892, were \$810,070, and the imports into the United States from Ecuador were \$809,831, making a total commerce of \$1,619,901. In the year ending June 30, 1893 the figures were;

Exports from United States.....	<i>Dollars.</i> 817, 425
Imports from Ecuador.....	960, 228
Total commerce	1, 777, 653

In 1891, the exports from the United States were \$902,738, and in 1890, \$715,208. In 1891, the exports from Ecuador into the United States were \$836,437, and in 1890, \$535,060, which

shows that there has been a considerable increase in the amount of merchandise imported into the United States from Ecuador.

Señor Cevallos, discussing this subject, says :

It can be safely stated that one-half of our imports come from Great Britain, consisting chiefly of cotton, silk, and woolen goods, furniture, canned provisions, crockery, ales and liquors. Next after Great Britain, as a seller to Ecuador, comes France, which sends to us silk goods, jewelry, wall paper, stationery, laces, porcelain, leather, shoes, canned provisions, wines (clarets and champagnes), liquors, fancy articles of all kinds and books. The commerce with the United States of America comes in the third place and consists chiefly of cotton and woolen goods, salt meats, California flour, tar, pitch, soap, etc. Then comes Spain, which sends us her wines, Majorca brandies, Granada ribbons, comfits, oils, olives, dried fruits, Biscayan iron, writing paper and other articles of less importance. After Spain, comes Germany, which sells us some kinds of cottons, linen and woolen goods, locksmiths' articles, toys and small wares.

There has been a very large increase in the postal service between the United States and Ecuador within recent years. In 1889, the letters and postal cards forwarded from the United States to Ecuador weighed 339,738 grams, while in 1892, they weighed 455,045 grams. The printed matter forwarded in 1889 weighed 4,034,281 grams, while in 1892, it weighed 6,699,750 grams.

The great obstacle to an increase of business between the United States and Ecuador is the heavy freights charged by the steamship company, which has practically a monopoly of transportation on the west coast of South America. As has been shown, merchandise can be sent from Hamburg, Havre, Liverpool, or Genoa to Guayaquil at lower rates by 30 or sometimes 50 per cent than from the United States, and it is always cheaper to ship to Ecuador by way of one of these European ports than direct by way of the Isthmus. In other words, goods can be carried 16,000 miles over two oceans cheaper than it can be carried 2,800 miles direct. This discrimination is claimed to be intentional on the part of European ship-owners who control the traffic and regulate their freight tariffs so as to prevent competition with their home producers.

For these reasons, commerce between the United States and Ecuador is carried on almost exclusively by sailing vessels from San Francisco, or from New York around Cape Horn. The voyage often takes 150 days and sometimes more than two hundred. Meantime, the shipper of the goods is compelled to pay interest upon the money value invested in them and hazardous rates of insurance, while the importer in Ecuador never knows when they will arrive and cannot agree to serve his customers with any regularity. Trade is therefore practically paralyzed. A man cannot do business profitably under such conditions, and the merchants of Ecuador will continue to buy in Europe until the conditions are changed.

There is in Ecuador a market, more or less extensive, for nearly every article that is produced in the United States, and with a proper cultivation of the trade and the establishment of adequate transportation facilities there is no reason why the United States should not command a great bulk of the trade. At present, however, it is confined to two or three commission houses in the city of New York, who load sailing vessels with merchandise which they send on consignment to their agents at Guayaquil, who sell it and use the proceeds to pay for hides and chocolate, which are shipped to the United States.

Mr. George Chambers, British Consul at Guayaquil, in a report to the British Foreign Office on the trade and commerce of Ecuador for the year 1892, says:

The various branches of Ecuadorian agriculture yielded very fair crops indeed during 1892. Taken collectively, they show a decided advance upon 1891, the quality of the produce being, on the whole, much superior, and the aggregate quantity exported fully 70 per cent in excess of that year. By comparison with the four years previous, we find an improvement upon the yearly average of the total exports of about 34 per cent. The products that have exceeded the average are principally cocoa, coffee, and

sugar, the excess being 20 per cent, 34 per cent, and 131 per cent, and compared with the year 1891, this is found to be 53 per cent, 28 per cent, and 116 per cent, respectively. With the exception of the extraordinary crops of 1886 and 1890, there has been an appreciable advance upon all preceding years.

The custom-house receipts not having been published, a reliable statement of the imports to Ecuador can not be furnished. But it would appear that the total value of these has been less than that of the exports. The favorable nature of the exports for 1892 as compared with the year previous—there being an increase in value of 38 per cent—will be apparent upon examination. With the exception of bark, cotton, rubber, tanned hides, and tanning bark, which collectively form a very small item in the export trade of the country, all other products show a notable advance upon former years. It may be mentioned that, for many years past, there has been an accumulative average increase of about 4 per cent per annum.

TARIFF NEGOTIATION.

The tariff of Ecuador may be found at the end of this Handbook as Appendix B, page 136.

The difficulties which prevented the negotiation of a reciprocal commercial arrangement between Ecuador and the United States of America, similar in its character to those entered into with Brazil, Santo Domingo and the Republics of Central America, were explained by President Flores in his message of June 10, 1892, as follows:

In compliance with the McKinley bill, the United States, through their consul-general, Mr. Sorsby, gave us to choose between entering into a reciprocity arrangement or submitting to pay duty on the importation into the United States of those of our domestic products so far admitted free into their ports. To this, we reply that Great Britain, which, by virtue of the privileges of the most favored nation, guaranteed by article 30 of her treaty with Ecuador, had already advanced her claim to share in a reduction of duties which was under

consideration in regard to Colombia, would probably not fail to do the same thing if any new favor were granted to the United States; and that this fact constituted a serious obstacle to the negotiation. The correctness of this apprehension was soon demonstrated, by the note which Mr. Haggard, the British Minister in this country, sent to us on this subject shortly afterwards. We said also to Mr. Sorsby that, in addition to this obstacle, others of great importance were to be found in the arrangements which the Ecuadorian Government had made with the Bank of Ecuador, and with the British creditors, under which the duties on imports are pledged to the payment of what is due to both, and are actually collected or received by the bank itself. But we added that if the said obstacles were removed, a reciprocity treaty might be discussed, limited to some few articles not similar to ours, and useful for our agriculture or mining industry, as, for instance, plows and machinery. Our good-will seems to have been appreciated, and to it undoubtedly it is due that the duties of section 3 of the tariff of the United States have not been imposed upon our products, as they have been, since the 15th of March, upon those of Colombia and Venezuela.

Mr. Chambers, the British Consul at Guayaquil, in his report for the year 1891, said:

An attempt was made by the United States during the year to establish a reciprocal treaty of commerce with Ecuador, and the Government consulted the Guayaquil Chamber of Commerce on this subject. The opinion of this chamber was decidedly adverse to the project, on the grounds that while the exemption of Ecuadorian produce from payment of duties in the United States would be of very slight benefit to this Republic, the decrease or abolition of duties on produce from the States would materially reduce the revenues of the Ecuadorian customs, which is the principal source by which the finances of Ecuador are raised.

President Flores, referring again to this matter, in another portion of his message, said:

Our principal commerce of exportation is with France, Spain, Great Britain, Germany, and the United States. But this order is materially changed in the commerce of importation, in which Great Britain comes first, then France, and then the United States, Germany, and Spain. This inversion in the order of precedence in regard to the United States explains the report of the chamber of commerce against the reciprocity arrangement proposed to us, because as the United States export to Ecuador more than they receive from us, the said arrangement would cause Ecuador to lose about half a million of its revenues, without any equivalent compensation.

The commerce of Ecuador for the years 1889 and 1890 was as follows;

Imports by principal countries.

Countries.	1889.	1890.
	<i>Sucrés.</i>	<i>Sucrés.</i>
United Kingdom	2, 350, 501	2, 671, 566
France	1, 989, 426	2, 464, 064
United States.....	1, 377, 593	1, 607, 461
Germany.....	1, 331, 249	1, 318, 932
Chile	945, 278	365, 101
Peru	740, 331	930, 545
Colombia	423, 680	107, 370
Spain	273, 271	221, 944
China	110, 958	98, 202
Cuba	89, 967	157, 192
Italy	36, 098	45, 888
All other countries.....	13, 104	28, 087
Total	9, 681, 456	10, 016, 352

Exports by principal countries.

France.....	1, 944, 535	2, 280, 218
Spain	1, 671, 830	1, 842, 350
United Kingdom	1, 275, 146	1, 729, 914
Germany	1, 222, 070	1, 403, 891
United States	731, 097	930, 560
Chile	349, 096	459, 230
Colombia	351, 063	334, 255
Peru	173, 075	574, 251
Central America.....	100, 140	130, 171
Mexico	33, 903	24, 818
All other countries.....	58, 255	51, 976
Total	7, 910, 210	9, 761, 634

Exports of domestic merchandise from the countries specified to Ecuador by principal articles.

Countries and articles.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.
From the United States :					
Provisions (meat and dairy products)	<i>Dollars.</i> 228, 813	<i>Dollars.</i> 174, 592	<i>Dollars.</i> 207, 378	<i>Dollars.</i> 211, 463	<i>Dollars.</i> 217, 628
Iron and steel, and manufactures of	166, 032	153, 669	133, 765	116, 313	124, 104
Cotton, manufactures of	254, 097	169, 027	104, 322	48, 767	97, 074
Wheat flour	24, 743	28, 355	63, 578	130, 573	157, 092
Mineral oils, refined	30, 785	12, 213	11, 655	25, 395	32, 829
Chemical, drugs, dyes, etc.	22, 477	33, 298	38, 322	24, 680	33, 708
Fancy articles	11, 182	12, 271	26, 579	11, 055	13, 417
Flax, hemp, and jute, manufactures of	26, 177	13, 419	14, 990	12, 256	23, 005
Leather, and manufactures of	19, 585	21, 141	19, 055	7, 239	14, 498
Jewelry	12, 063	9, 965	19, 106	9, 911	12, 237
All other articles	453, 438	182, 617	216, 958	117, 272	177, 146
Total	1, 049, 392	810, 567	755, 708	714, 924	902, 738
From the United Kingdom :					
Cottons	1, 072, 404	986, 236	715, 511	750, 872	665, 528
Woolens	223, 733	231, 101	179, 306	163, 738	177, 788
Iron, manufactured and unmanufactured	178, 708	239, 772	151, 548	177, 778	150, 998
Hardware and cutlery	51, 157	42, 625	36, 513	15, 967	15, 100
Machinery and mill work	36, 898	44, 300	13, 047	10, 750	41, 531
Apparel and haberdashery	31, 589	34, 780	18, 848	18, 006	12, 590
Linens	27, 943	25, 515	18, 176	33, 146	14, 960
All other articles	220, 185	174, 790	162, 397	238, 644	186, 167
Total	1, 842, 617	1, 779, 299	1, 295, 346	1, 414, 901	1, 264, 662
From France :					
Wine	45, 310	47, 312	83, 095	76, 931
Earthen, china, and glassware	28, 593	19, 348	16, 944	9, 973
Paper, engravings, etc	17, 395	13, 644	24, 060	23, 412
Machinery	46, 879
Tools, and manufactures of metal	24, 192
Perfumery	(*)	(*)	24, 217	21, 259
All other articles	262, 324	204, 626	196, 574	203, 696
Total	353, 622	284, 930	344, 890	406, 342

*None stated.

Imports into the countries specified from Ecuador by principal articles.

Countries and articles.	1887	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.
Into the United States:	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
Cocoa.....	311, 423	530, 634	234, 365	150, 156	272, 156
India rubber and gutta-percha, crude.....	476, 949	327, 477	212, 220	160, 096	267, 117
Coffee.....	55, 757	58, 799	124, 378	81, 863	159, 085
Hides and skins (other than furs).....	277, 969	140, 002	120, 893	136, 498	122, 322
All other articles.....	9, 091	61, 715	3, 149	5, 381	15, 644
Total.....	1, 131, 169	1, 118, 627	695, 005	533, 994	836, 437
Into the United Kingdom:					
Cocoa.....	755, 325	456, 065	139, 284	216, 773	337, 419
Vegetable ivory.....	214, 555	82, 180	70, 973	24, 727	16, 911
Drugs and dyes.....	43, 769	46, 962	40, 562	37, 530	29, 652
Caoutchouc.....	(*)	14, 536	19, 378	1, 908	638
All other articles.....	52, 417	44, 387	82, 284	73, 552	152, 853
Total.....	1, 066, 066	644, 130	352, 481	354, 490	536, 471
Into France:					
Cocoa.....	433, 814	387, 450	278, 615	610, 218
Coffee.....	(*)	63, 318	162, 368	13, 794
Cocoanuts and palmnuts...	54, 113	29, 041	83, 606	20, 381
All other articles.....	127, 708	89, 864	31, 953	7, 641
Total.....	615, 635	569, 673	556, 542	652, 034

* None stated.

From "Accounts Relating to Trade and Navigation" of Great Britain for 1893, it appears that the value of British imports from Ecuador during nine months ended September 30, 1893, was £144,400, against £94,318 and £97,954 for the same period of 1891 and 1892. The exports from Great Britain to Ecuador during nine months ending September 30, 1893, were £227,354 against £199,928 and £171,528 for the same period of 1891 and 1892.

Chapter VIII.

HISTORICAL NOTES.

The history of Ecuador may be divided into three different periods—the first prior to the arrival of the Spaniards in 1526, and the two others comprising, respectively, the three centuries of Spanish rule and the years which have elapsed since the 22d of May, 1822, when the independence of the country and the establishment of the Republic became accomplished facts.

Tradition teaches with more or less obscurity that, in times of great antiquity, the territory which now forms the Republic of Ecuador was divided into several petty and independent kingdoms. One of them, situated on the central inter-Andine region, and named the Kingdom of Quito, from the people who inhabited it (the Quitus), succeeded, little by little, through war and alliances, in extending its limits and becoming the master of its neighbors.

In the latter part of the eighth century of the Christian era, or the beginning of the ninth, an unknown people, who called themselves Caras, made their appearance on large rafts on the Ecuadorian coast, and took possession of that portion of the ocean front which extends from the Cape of San Francisco to the Bay of Charapotó, or from about $0^{\circ} 40'$ north to $0^{\circ} 40'$ south latitude. They settled there and established a regular government, monarchical in form, under the rule of a sovereign whom they called the Scyri, which, in their language, meant "the Lord of all." They worshiped the Sun and the Moon, to both of which they raised temples. They were devoted to astronomy, and skillful

in other sciences and arts, and seemed to be in possession of a degree of civilization higher by far than the Quitus. It was not long before the Caras began to make incursions into the territory of their neighbors, and annex to their own dominions the conquered regions, until, in the latter part of the tenth century, they completed their conquest by taking possession of Quito, which became then, as it is now, the capital of the nation. The Ecuadorian Sesostris, who conducted these conquests, has passed to posterity under the name of Caran.

From that day until 1450, a period of about four and a half centuries, the whole country remained subject to the rule of the Scyries, and in a state of peace and comparatively advanced civilization; but in 1450, under the reign of Hualcopo, the 14th Scyri, that peace was interrupted by an invasion of the armies of Tupac-Yupanqui, the head of the neighboring Empire of Peru.

Tupac-Yupanqui, whose name purports that he was "rich in all kinds of virtues," was the 12th Inca, and one of the greatest of the whole line, at least as a conqueror. This incursion into the Cara Kingdom deprived the latter of a portion of its territory.

Upon the death of Hualcopo, in 1460, his son Cacha, the 15th and the last Scyri, took the reins of government. He proved to be a man of great intelligence and heroic courage, but it was his fate to witness the ruin of his dynasty and the subjection of his country. The Inca Tupac-Yupanqui was dead, but had been succeeded by Huaina Capac, named by his people "the powerful young man," "the great," and "the conqueror;" and the new sovereign undertook to continue the conquests of his father and complete the subjection of his neighbors. The particulars of this war, which in incidents rivals the most exciting and interesting in history, can not properly be given in a work of this nature, and it is sufficient to say that it ended in the capture of Quito, the death of Scyri Cacha on the battle field, and the final conversion of the country into a mere province of the Inca Empire.

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The victorious Huaina Capac, anxious to legalize in some way the results of war and violence and to avoid future troubles, took for his fourth wife the only daughter of the late Scyri. Her name was Pacha, and by her he had two sons, one of whom was the unfortunate Atahualpa. This marriage proved to be insufficient to quell dissatisfaction among the conquered people, who rose in arms in some localities and made a desperate effort to seize the person of the Inca in his own palace; but the terrible punishment which was inflicted on the insurgents,* aided perhaps by events of a more momentous character which soon took place, established the rule of Huaina Capac as firmly as he could desire for the rest of his life. Upon his death, in 1525, and in compliance with the provisions of his will, Huascar, his first born son from his marriage with his sister Rava Oello, was called to succeed him as ruler of the old Inca Empire, whose capital was Cuzco, while Atahualpa, his son by Pacha, the daughter of Scyri Cacha, was given the Kingdom of Quito.

These arrangements soon proved to be unwise, and to a great extent contributed to the success of the Spaniards, who had made their appearance at Tumbez while Huaina Capac was still living. The incidents of the war which soon broke out between the two brothers, and which ended in the defeat and death of Huascar and the consolidation of power in the hands of Atahualpa, are familiar to all who have read Prescott, and need not to be related here.

This revival of glory, both for the Inca and his people, was merely ephemeral. The famous meeting at the public square of Cajamarca, on the 16th of November, 1532, between Atahualpa in all his glory and surrounded by his court and the whole nobility of the Empire, and Francisco Pizarro, who had no more than 170 men, decided the fate of the Empire. Atahualpa was made

*It was on this occasion that the name of Yahuar Cocha (lake of blood) was given to the lake near by, into whose waters the Inca ordered the corpses of, some say 20,000, others 40,000, rebels to be thrown.

prisoner, and about nine months afterwards, was condemned to death and executed as a criminal (August 29, 1533), after having consented to be baptized. The sentence was that he should be burned alive at the stake, but in consideration of the fact that baptism was administered to him, the manner of his execution was changed and he was strangled to death. A little over one year after this tragic event, Sebastian Benalcazar made his solemn entrance in the city of Quito (December 6, 1534), and took possession of it and of the whole Kingdom in the name of the Emperor Charles V. and his successors on the throne of Spain.

The period of Spanish rule in Ecuador begins with the entrance into Quito of Benalcazar, as governor of the Kingdom of Quito. In 1539, he was succeeded in this position by Gonzalo Pizarro, who kept it during the whole time of his rebellion, until he was defeated, condemned to death, and executed in 1548. Sixteen years afterwards, in 1564, the Spanish Crown undertook the reorganization of its dominions in South America, and made out of them the "new Kingdom of Granada" and the "Kingdom of Peru," etc., each of which was placed under the jurisdiction and control of a viceroy. The old Kingdom of Quito was turned into a Presidencia ("La Presidencia de Quito"), under the rule of a chief political magistrate called "presidente," subject in judicial matters to the jurisdiction of the Audiencia, or Supreme Court of Lima, but subject in all others to the authority of the viceroy of New Granada, who resided at Bogotá, then called Santa Fé. The limits of the Presidencia were marked by a law, inserted in the "Recopilación de Indias," or collection of laws enacted for the Indies, and correspond, as has been said elsewhere, with the present limits of the Republic. The first President of Quito was Don Fernando de Santillan, who had been an associate justice in the Supreme Court of Lima.

The history of Ecuador between 1564 and the declaration of independence in the early part of the present century is, perhaps,

more lamentable than that of the other colonies of Spain in the New World. The same misrule and despotism which prevailed everywhere in Spanish America,* were felt at Ecuador with perhaps still greater force. The historian Cevallos devotes a chapter of his interesting work to a description of the political, social, and literary condition of the Presidencia in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.†

“There were,” he says, “neither rights to exercise, nor possibility of aspiring to any share in the Government, nor lessons of government to receive.” The Presidencia was absolutely cut off from communication with the rest of the world. The orders of the King were disobeyed. The peace which sometimes prevailed was the result rather of terror, or lack of power, than of the happiness and satisfaction of the people, “a peace,” as Señor Cevallos says, “which did injury to the dignity of the people.” The people were kept in ignorance and abasement. The church was the only source of light and progress to which the inhabitants could turn their eyes. Printing was unknown until the Jesuits introduced it, the first work printed in the country being a catalogue of the members of their order, bearing date of 1760. It is no wonder, therefore, that when Ecuador, in the present century, upon the establishment in Spain of constitutional forms of government, caused its voice to be heard in the Cortes, through Don José Mejía, the Ecuadorian Mirabeau, as he was aptly called, the denunciations made by him were so strong and vehement.

The last regular President of Quito was Don Juan Ramirez, a general in the Spanish army. He had the ill fortune to excite against himself and his nation, almost from the moment of his arrival, the most hostile feelings. He announced by proclamation, issued soon after he took possession of the office, that he would be inexorable, and that neither rank, nor character, nor any kind of

*Señor Cevallos quotes the words of a viceroy who used to explain his deeds as follows: “God is very high; the King is very far away; I am here the only master.”

†Cevallos: *Resumen de la Historia*, Vol. II, Chapter 8.

distinction should save from death on the scaffold the enemies of the Spanish rule. His words were soon confirmed by his acts. Fortunately for the Ecuadorian people, his authority did not last long. He made his solemn entrance in Quito on the 26th of July, 1817, and on the 24th of May, 1822, the battle of Pichincha* put an end to the Spanish rule, and secured the independence of the country. The necessities of the war had called Ramirez to other fields, and when Sucre, with his gallant army, compelled the Spaniards to surrender, the position of President was occupied by Don Melchor de Aymeric, who signed his name to the terms of the surrender.

Five days after the victory, the solemn declaration was made at Quito, amidst public demonstrations of rejoicing, that the old Kingdom of Quito was and should continue to be in the future an integral part of the Republic of Colombia.

Colombia, as is known, consisted, under its original constitution, of "three great departments, to be named Venezuela, Quito, and Cundinamarca," the latter embracing all the Provinces of what was formerly called New Granada. The capitals of these departments were Caracas, Quito, and Bogotá. A city yet to be built, with the name of Ciudad Bolívar, was to be the capital, or seat of government, of the whole Republic.

Early in the year 1830, Ecuador, following the example of Venezuela, withdrew from the Union and constituted itself "a free and independent State," tendering the supreme civil and military authority to Gen. Don Juan José Flores until a National Congress could meet and properly organize the Government. This Congress met at Riobamba on the 14th of August, 1830, and framed and promulgated the first constitution of the Republic of Ecuador. Gen. Flores, although not an Ecuadorian by birth,† was elected President. His administration was very popular and successful

* The battle of Pichincha was fought on ground situated 11,250 feet above the level of the sea.

† He was born at Puerto Cabello, Venezuela.



until the year 1833, when the opposition became so bitter as to cause Congress to grant him "extraordinary powers to establish on a firm basis the peace of the country." The results of this measure did not correspond at all with its purposes, and the country was involved in all the horrors of civil war. The convention which met at Ambato on the 22d of June, 1835, put an end to these troubles, temporarily at least, by framing a new constitution and electing Gen. Don Vicente Rocafuerte to be President of the Republic.

Under the administration of its second President, which ended on the 31st of January, 1839, the country was in a condition of relative peace and prosperity. The Government made great efforts to promote public instruction, to improve the means of communication, to inspire confidence in the stability of institutions, and to elevate the country as far as was possible with the means it had at its disposal. Señor Cevallos says that—

If the administration of this excellent President was not like that which a writer of novels would have described as the work of his hero, it was, nevertheless, that of a man of pure and noble ambitions, worthy to be the leader of the destinies of his native country and deserving pardon for whatever faults he might have been guilty of through excess of generous impulses.

The third constitutional period of the Republic opened in 1839, with Gen. Flores as President for the second time. The four years which elapsed between his inauguration and the meeting at Quito, on the 15th of January, 1843, of the convention which again changed the constitution of the country into another, which, according to the historian Cevallos, was called by the people the "charter of slavery," formed a period of agitation and troubles, both domestic and foreign, which put to its full test the energy and ability of the President. Under this new constitution, which permitted the Chief Magistrate to be reëlected consecutively, Gen. Flores was inaugurated again as President of Ecuador on the 31st of March, 1843.

A series of revolutionary outbreaks, which began in 1844, cul-

minated at last in an arrangement which was made in June, 1845, under which Gen. Flores resigned his position and bound himself to leave the country, to go to Europe and to stay there at least two years. He was left with all his honors and property; his military rank was recognized; his family and everything connected with him individually were to be respected; his wife was to receive during his absence half of his pay as general, and, in addition to all, he was given the sum of \$20,000 to defray his expenses in Europe. Under this arrangement, Gen. Flores left Guayaquil for Panamá on the 25th of June, 1845.

His successor as President of Ecuador was Don Vicente Ramon Roca, a member of the triumvirate which constituted the Gobierno Provisional, under whose direction the revolution triumphed. "He was," says Cevallos, "the soul of the movement, and a man of great ability and well-proved energy." Between the inauguration of President Roca and the election of Don Gabriel García Moreno and his inauguration in 1861, there was a period of about sixteen years, during which the position of Chief Magistrate of the Republic passed successively through the hands of Don Diego Noboa, Don José María Urbina, and Don Francisco Robles.

President García Moreno undertook at once with great earnestness the development of the resources of the country, both material and moral, by opening roads, promoting commerce, attending to public instruction, and, above all, by preserving peace and public order. He was a great admirer of the United States, and, as appears from the documents published in the collections of Papers Relating to the Foreign Affairs of the United States, contemporary with his administration, he was always ready to extend to the citizens and to the Government of the United States every possible courtesy and proof of good will.

Before the expiration of his constitutional term, August 30, 1864, he was invested with extraordinary powers and acted as

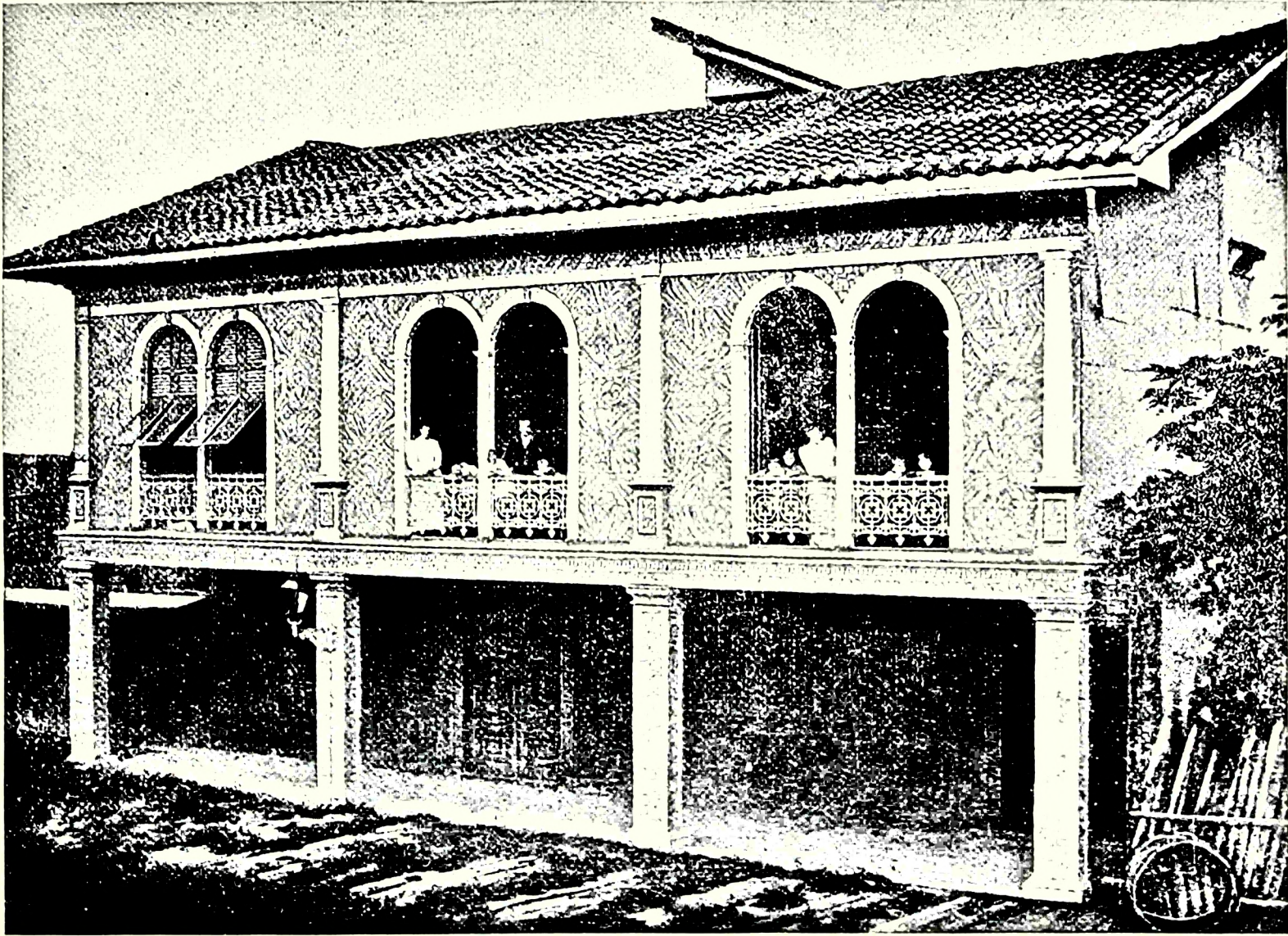
dictator until his successor, Don Geronimo Carrillo, was regularly elected and inaugurated as President in 1865.

President Carrillo, whose administration was in the main inspired by the same motives and principles as that of his predecessor, was succeeded in 1869 by Don Xavier Espinosa; but troubles having arisen, García Moreno again made his appearance, and, first as a dictator and then as a regular constitutional President, remained at the head of the Government until 1875, when he was assassinated.

His successor, Dr. Don Antonio Borrero, a native of Cuenca, became the Chief Magistrate of Ecuador on the 17th of October, 1875. This election was almost unanimous, but although he proved to be a man of ability and good ideas, it was impossible for him to conquer revolution, and he had to yield his place when scarcely a year had elapsed after his election as President.

The victorious leader who then proclaimed himself President, December 25, 1876, was Don Ignacio de Veintimilla, a general in the army; but as the country at large did not approve of his course, he attempted to give strength to his authority by assuming dictatorial powers. This he did in 1878. But at last, the party of order succeeded in overturning him and ejecting him from the country. He fled from Ecuador on July 9, 1883.

Then a period of peace and prosperity began again for Ecuador. Don José María Plácido Caamaño was called to act as President *pro tem* from the 11th of October, 1883, until the proper measures for reconstruction could be taken. On the 17th of February, 1884, he was elected President. His administration, although troubled from time to time by revolutionary outbreaks which he succeeded in subduing, proved beneficial to the country. A pamphlet printed in Guayaquil in 1892, under the title of "Pinceladas acerca de la administración Caamaño y de la administración Flores" (Sketches or Pencilings on the Administrations of Caamano and Flores), contains interesting details, which, unfortunately, can not be given here without unduly extending the present notes. Señor



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Caamaño made subsequently a marked impression as delegate from Ecuador in the International American Conference at Washington.

At the expiration of the term of office of Señor Caamaño, Dr. Don Antonio Flores, a son of Gen. Flores, was elected President. He was inaugurated on the 17th of August, 1888. Señor Flores, in retiring to private life, had the satisfaction of knowing that, during his administration, the country had made advances in the road of progress and had secured the immense benefit of the reestablishment of its credit.

In 1892, he was succeeded by Dr. Don Luis Cordero, a native of Cuenca.

Chapter IX.

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Appendix A.

CONSTITUTION OF THE REPUBLIC OF ECUADOR.*

[Promulgated Feb. 13, 1884. Amended July 25 and Aug. 4, 1887.]

In the name of God, the Author and Legislator of the earth, the National Assembly of Ecuador makes and promulgates the following political Constitution:

TITLE I.—THE NATION AND THE FORM OF ITS GOVERNMENT.

ARTICLE I. The Ecuadorian Nation is composed of all the Ecuadorians united under the dominion of the same laws.

ART. II. The territory of the Republic embraces that of the Provinces which formerly constituted the Presidency of Quito and that of the Archipelago of Galápagos. The limits shall be finally fixed by treaties with the neighboring nations.

ART. III. The sovereignty is vested in the nation, but it is delegated by it to the authorities established by the Constitution.

ART. IV. The Government of Ecuador is popular, elective, representative, alternative, and responsible. It is vested in three powers: the Legislative, the Executive, and the Judicial. Each one of them fulfils the duties and functions allotted to it by the present Constitution, but none shall exceed the limits established by its provisions.

ART. V. The Republic is indivisible, free and independent of all foreign power.

TITLE II.—ECUADORIANS AND ALIENS.

SECTION I.

ART. VI. The following are Ecuadorians:

1. All persons born in the territory of Ecuador of Ecuadorian fathers or mothers.
2. All persons born in Ecuadorian territory of alien fathers, if residing in it.
3. All persons born in a foreign State of Ecuadorian father or mother, who reside in the Republic, and express their desire to be Ecuadorians.

* Translated for the Bureau of the American Republics, March, 1894.

4. All the natives of another State who enjoy the Ecuadorian nationality.

5. All aliens professing sciences, arts, or useful industries, or owning real estate or having capital invested in business, who have resided for one year in the territory of the Republic, have declared their intention to become domiciled in it, and have obtained naturalization papers.

6. Those who have obtained naturalization by act of Congress for services rendered to the Republic.

ART. VII. No Ecuadorian, even if he has acquired another nationality, shall be exempted from the duties imposed upon him by the constitution and the laws as long as he remains domiciled in the Republic. The provisions made on this subject in treaties anterior to this date shall be respected.

ART. VIII. A special law shall define who are domiciled foreigners and their rights and duties.

SECTION II.—CITIZENSHIP.

ART. IX. Every male Ecuadorian who can read and write and is over twenty-one years of age, whether married or single, is a citizen of Ecuador.

ART. X. The Ecuadorian citizenship is lost—

1. By entering the service of a hostile nation.
2. By naturalization in another State.
3. In all other cases established by law.

ART. XI. Ecuadorians who have lost the rights of citizenship may be restored to them by the Senate. But convicts sentenced to a term of imprisonment longer than six months cannot obtain their restoration to citizenship until the full term of their sentence is served.

An Ecuadorian naturalized in another country may recover his native citizenship by returning to Ecuador, renouncing his foreign allegiance, and declaring his intention to reassume his original citizenship.

ART. XII. The rights of citizenship shall be suspended—

1. By judicial order enjoining their exercise.
2. By sentence passed in cases of violations of the law which entail the loss of citizenship.
3. By decree issued against a public functionary.

TITLE III.—THE RELIGION OF THE REPUBLIC.

ART. XIII. The religion of the Republic is the Roman Catholic Apostolic, and all others are excluded. The political powers are bound to respect it, to cause it to be respected, and to protect it in its liberty and all its other rights.

TITLE IV.—GUARANTEES.

ART. XIV.* The penalty of death shall not be imposed for offenses purely political, except when they consist in the forcible alteration of the constitutional order by armed people militarily organized.

Treason to the country, parricide, murder, arson, pillage, and piracy, even if committed under cover of a political purpose, shall never be considered political offenses, nor shall offenses committed by military men while in active service be clothed with that character.

ART. XV. All persons are entitled to be presumed innocent and to retain their good reputation until adjudged guilty in the manner provided by law.

ART. XVI. There are no slaves, nor shall there be any, in the Republic, and all slaves who tread upon Ecuadorian territory shall become free.

ART. XVII. Forced recruiting is forbidden.

ART. XVIII. No person shall be forced to lend services not required by law, and in no case shall tradesmen and laborers be compelled to work unless in fulfillment of a contract.

ART. XIX. There shall be liberty of reunion and association without arms for lawful purposes.

ART. XX. All persons are entitled to exercise the right of petition, to address their requests to all authorities, and to ask for and secure a proper decision on the same; but the petitions shall never be made in the name of the people.

ART. XXI.† No person shall be detained, arrested, or imprisoned except in such cases, in such form, and for such time, as provided by law.

ART. XXII. No person can be excluded from the protection of the laws, or subjected to other jurisdiction than that of his natural judges, or tried by special commissions, or by laws enacted subsequent to the date of his offense, or deprived of the right of defense in any stage of the trial.

ART. XXIII. No husband or wife shall be compelled to testify against the other in a criminal case. No person shall be forced to testify against his relations, whether in the ascending, descending, or collateral line, within the fourth civil degree of blood relationship or the second degree of affinity. No one shall

*This is the text of Article XIV as amended July 25, 1887. The original article reads: "The penalty of death shall not be imposed for political offenses or for common crimes, except murder and parricide, in the cases in which, according to law, both offenses are punished in this way."

†This is the text of Article XXI as amended July 25, 1887. The original article reads: "No person shall be detained, arrested, or imprisoned except in the cases and in the form provided by law."

ever be compelled by oath, or otherwise, to give testimony against himself in any matter which may entail penal responsibility. No person shall be kept in close confinement for over twenty-four hours, or put in irons, or be subjected to any kind of torture.

ART. XXIV.* Whipping, and confiscation of property are forbidden.

ART. XXV. No one shall be deprived of his property except by a judicial decision, or by condemnation for public use in the form prescribed by law and upon previous indemnification.

ART. XXVI. No tax or duty shall be levied except in conformity with the law and by the authority designated by it for that purpose. Taxation shall always be in proportion to the capital or industry of the taxpayer.

ART. XXVII. All persons shall enjoy liberty of industry and the exclusive ownership of his discoveries, inventions, or literary productions in the manner and form prescribed by law.

ART. XXVIII.† All persons shall have the power to express their thoughts freely, either orally or through the press, provided that they respect religion, decency, morals, and private reputation; otherwise they shall incur legal responsibility.

Those who, either orally or through the press, incite rebellion or disturb the constitutional order, shall likewise incur legal responsibility.

ART. XXIX. The residence of all persons whatever is inviolable. No dwelling place shall be entered except for some special reason provided by law and by order of competent authority.

ART. XXX. Suffrage shall be free.

ART. XXXI.‡ Epistolary correspondence shall be inviolable. The intercepting, opening, or searching of letters, papers, or effects belonging to private persons, except in the cases provided by law, is forbidden.

ART. XXXII. All persons are allowed to travel freely in the interior of the Republic, to move from one place to another, to leave the country, whether

* This is the text of Article XXIV as amended July 25, 1887. The original article reads: "Whipping, exile, and confiscation of property are forbidden."

† This is the text of Article XXVIII as amended on July 25, 1887. The original article reads as follows: "All persons shall have the power to express freely their thoughts, either orally or through the press, provided that they respect religion, decency, morals, and private reputation; otherwise they shall incur legal responsibility."

‡ This is the text of Article XXXI as amended July 25, 1887. The original article reads: "Epistolary correspondence shall be inviolable, and will not be admitted in evidence in political trials. The intercepting, opening, or searching of letters, papers, or effects belonging to private persons, except in the cases provided by law, is forbidden."

taking or not taking with them their property, or to return to the same. In case of war, passports shall be required.

ART. XXXIII. Public credit is guaranteed. Therefore, the funds appropriated by law for the payment of the national debt shall not be applied to any other purpose, except in the case provided by No. 9 of Article XCIV.

ART. XXXIV. All persons shall have the power to establish educational institutions, on condition, however, that they comply with the law of public instruction.

Primary instruction is gratuitous and compulsory, but parents shall have the right to select the school which they may deem best. The imparting of this instruction, as well as the teaching of trades, shall be paid out of the public funds.

ART. XXXV. The entailing of property, whether in the form of *mayorazgos* or any other form, is forbidden in Ecuador, in whose territory real estate shall not be allowed to become untransferable.

ART. XXXVI. Only those Ecuadorians who are actually enjoying the rights of citizenship can be public functionaries.

ART. XXXVII. The violation by any public functionaries of any guarantee established by the present Constitution shall render them and their property liable to indemnity for the damages they may have caused; and in cases of crimes or offenses committed when violating the same guarantees, the following provisions shall be observed:

1. Accusation may be formulated against the functionaries with or without the intervention of a lawyer and without the obligation to give bonds.

2. The penalty imposed in these cases shall neither be remitted by pardon nor modified by commutation or reduction, during the constitutional period in which the offense was committed or the following period.

3. No action, whether criminal or civil, arising out of the offenses herein referred to, shall be barred by limitation, except after the expiration of the two periods above named.

TITLE V.—ELECTIONS.

ART. XXXVIII. There shall be, in conformity with the law, popular elections by direct and secret vote. The President and Vice-President of the Republic, the Senators, the Deputies, and all other functionaries designated by the Constitution and the laws, shall be elected in this manner.

ART. XXXIX. All Ecuadorians in the exercise of the rights of citizenship are electors.

ART. XL. The election shall take place on the day appointed by law. The respective authorities shall, on that day, under their strictest responsibility, carry on the electoral law, without waiting for any order from their superiors.

TITLE VI.—THE LEGISLATIVE POWER.

SECTION I.—THE CONGRESS.

ART. XLI. The legislative power shall be vested in the National Congress, consisting of two Chambers, one of Senators and another of Deputies.

ART. XLII.* Congress shall meet every two years, on the 10th of June, in the capital of the Republic, even if it has not been called to convene. It shall be in session for 60 days, and no more. It will meet also in extra session, when called together by the Executive Power, but then, it will sit only for the time and for the purposes expressed in the call.

SECTION II.—THE SENATE.

ART. XLIII. The Senate shall consist of two Senators for each Province.

ART. XLIV. To be a Senator the following qualifications are required :

1. To be an Ecuadorian in the exercise of citizenship.
2. To be 31 years of age.

Ecuadorians by naturalization, under Article VI, Nos. 3, 4, 5, and 6 of this Constitution, require the additional qualification of having resided for four years in the Republic.

ART. XLV. The exclusive powers of the Senate are :

1. To try, upon articles formulated by the Chamber of Deputies, all cases of impeachment of the public functionaries spoken of in Article L of the present Constitution.
2. To restore citizenship to any person who may have lost it for whatever reason, except treason to the benefit of a hostile State or of foreign invaders.
3. To restore, upon proof of innocence, the good name of those unjustly condemned.

ART. XLVI. When the Senate takes cognizance of some charge limited to official acts, its power shall not extend further than to the removal from office of the guilty party, or, at the most, to his disqualification, whether temporary or perpetual, to hold a public position ; but if the case involves an offence requiring some other penalty, the case shall be referred for trial to a competent tribunal.

ART. XLVII. When the charges preferred do not relate to the official conduct of the accused party, the Senate shall limit its action to decide whether there is, or is not sufficient evidence to try the case. If deemed sufficient, the Senate shall place the accused party at the disposal of the proper tribunal.

* This is the text of Article XLII as amended on the 25th of July, 1887. The original article differs only in that it provided that Congress should meet every year.

SECTION III.—THE CHAMBER OF DEPUTIES.

ART. XLVIII. The Chamber of Deputies shall consist of representatives elected by the people of the Provinces. Each Province shall have one Deputy for every 30,000 inhabitants; but if there be a fraction of this unit exceeding 15,000, one more Deputy shall be elected. Every Province, whatever its population may be, shall have at least one Deputy.

ART. XLIX. All Ecuadorians in the exercise of their rights of citizenship can be Deputies.

ART. L. The Chamber of Deputies shall have the following special powers:

1. To formulate articles of impeachment before the Senate against the President of the Republic, the acting Chief Magistrate of the Nation, the Secretaries of State, the Justices of the Supreme Court, and the Councillors of State.

2. To investigate all charges made against the aforesaid officials, and, if considered well founded, to refer them to the Senate.

3. To direct the proper authorities to enforce the responsibility incurred by the public officials who have exceeded their powers or who have failed to comply with their duties.

4. To take the initiative steps in all laws relating to taxation.

SECTION IV.—PROVISIONS APPLICABLE TO BOTH CHAMBERS.

ART. LI. Neither Chamber shall be called to order without the presence of a quorum, consisting of two-thirds of the total number of its members, nor shall it continue in session without an absolute majority being in attendance.

ART. LII. No Senator or Deputy shall, under the penalty of losing his rights of citizenship for two years, withdraw from his post without permission of the respective Chamber.

ART. LIII. The two Chambers shall meet in joint session to declare the result of the election of President and Vice-President of the Republic; to perfect their election; to administer the oath of office to the high functionaries; to accept or reject their resignation; to elect the Councillors of State, the Justices of the Supreme Court, of the Tribunal of Accounts, or of the Superior Courts; to accept or reject the resignation of the same officials; to confirm or reject the nominations made by the Executive for the positions of generals and colonels in the army; and to censure the conduct of the Ministers of State. They shall meet also in joint session whenever one of the Chambers may request it. But the two Chambers shall never meet together to exercise the powers which, under Article LXII, belong to each one separately.

The Minister of State whose official conduct has been censured by Congress shall not be put again at the head of a Department, before the expiration of the sessions of both the present and the next succeeding Congress.

ART. LIV. Both Chambers shall organize by themselves, and shall open or close their sessions on the same day. Both shall hold their meetings in the same city, and neither shall transfer its sittings to another place or adjourn for more than three days without the consent of the other.

ART. LV. Neither the Senators nor the Deputies shall be responsible for their opinions expressed in Congress. They shall enjoy immunity during the time of the sessions and the thirty days preceding or following. They shall not be tried, prosecuted, or arrested until the Chamber to which they belong resolves, by a majority of the members present, to authorize their trial, prosecution, or arrest. If a Senator or a Deputy is caught in the act of committing some criminal offence, he shall be put at the disposal of the respective Chamber, which shall decide, upon examination, whether the trial must or must not take place. If the criminal offence is committed thirty days after the date of adjournment, the court shall proceed freely to the trial of the Senator or Deputy.

ART. LVI.* No Senator or Deputy shall, during the term of his Congressional service, be permitted to accept, even pro tempore, in any way whatever, any position within the free gift of the Executive.

Officials whose appointment by the Executive does not require the action of the Senate can not be elected Senators or Deputies, even if they resigned their offices three months before the election.

Army officers shall be exempted from the disqualification of the first paragraph of the present article in cases of foreign invasion or internal disturbance, but in no other.

ART. LVII. The President and Vice-President of the Republic, the members of the Cabinet, the Councillors of State, and the justices of the tribunals and courts, can not be Senators or Deputies. Nor can any one be elected for either position by a Province in which he is exercising, at that time, or has exercised for three months previous to the election any command, jurisdiction, or authority, whether civil, ecclesiastical, political, or military.

ART. LVIII. The Senators shall serve for four years and can be reelected indefinitely. Half of the Senate, however, shall be renewed every two years, and the names of the Senators of the first election whose seats are to be vacated shall be drawn by lot in the manner and form which the Senate itself may provide.

ART. LVIX. Deputies shall serve for two years and can be reelected indefinitely.

*This is the text of Article LVI as amended July 25, 1887. The original article differs only in that it provided that the disqualification should exist not only during the Congressional term of either the Senator or the Deputy, but one year afterwards.

ART. LX. If on the day of the first meeting of Congress a sufficient number of Senators or Deputies is not present, as required by the present Constitution, or if at any other meeting, either of the Senate or of the Chamber of Deputies, no business can be transacted for want of a quorum, the members present, whatever their number may be, shall have the power to compel the absentees, under the penalties of law, to attend the meetings, and shall also be entitled to sit in their respective Chambers until the quorum, either of the two-thirds or of the simple majority of the members, as the case may be, is obtained.

ART. LXI. The sessions shall be public unless the Chamber holding the same resolves to discuss the matter in secret.

SECTION V.—THE POWERS OF CONGRESS WHEN DIVIDED IN LEGISLATIVE CHAMBERS.

ART. LXII.* Congress shall have power—

1. To reform the Constitution in the manner and form herein provided, and to decide, when needed, the proper construction to be placed upon the language of that instrument. Such explanations or interpretations shall be made by a special act.

2. To make every year, upon examination of the estimates submitted by the Executive, all the appropriations necessary to meet the expenses of the Government.

3. To supervise the proper and legal disbursement of the national revenue.

4. To levy taxes and authorize the Executive to contract loans and pledge the credit of the nation; but these contracts shall not be carried into effect until after their approval by Congress.

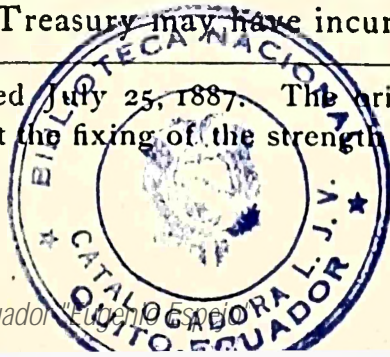
5. To acknowledge the national debt, and to determine the manner and form of payment, both of the interest and the principal. No debt shall be recognized if not contracted under proper authority, or if it arises out of some fact contrary to the laws.

6. To decree the sale of public property, make rules for the management of the same property, or apply it to public uses.

7. To create or abolish those offices whose creation or abolition does not belong, under the Constitution or the laws, to some other authority; to fix or modify the powers of the different officials; to fix the duration of their respective terms of office, and to increase or diminish their compensation.

8. To declare, according to law, and upon examination of the decision which may have been made in that respect by the Tribunal of Accounts, the responsibility, if any, which the Secretary of the Treasury may have incurred.

*This is the text of Article LXII as amended July 25, 1887. The original article differs only in that it provided by section II that the fixing of the strength of the army and navy should be made every year.



9. To grant rewards, honorary and personal, to those who have rendered great services to the country, and to decree public honors to the memory of the deceased.

10. To establish a uniform fineness, weight, value, shape, and name for the national coin; to decide whether foreign coin must or must not be admitted to circulation, and to establish a system of weights and measures.

11. To fix every two years the maximum strength of the army and navy in active service in time of peace, and to provide for the proper renovation of the national force.

12. To declare war if asked to do so by the Executive; to instruct the Executive to negotiate peace; and to approve or disapprove all public treaties and conventions. Without this requisite, no treaty shall be ratified or exchanged.

13. To promote the progress of sciences, arts, undertakings, discoveries, and improvements, and to grant, for a limited time, exclusive privileges or advantages and indemnities.

14. To grant amnesties or pardons of general character, covering offenses which had, or had not, already been the subject of a trial and conviction, if so required by some grave reason of public utility. If Congress is not in session, the Executive shall exercise this power with the advice of the Council of State.

15. To establish the place of residence of the Supreme Powers.

16. To permit the transit of foreign troops through the territory of the Republic, or to refuse such permission, and to allow or disallow foreign men-of-war to remain for more than two months in the ports of the Republic.

17. To create or suppress provinces and cantons, to fix the limits thereof, and to create or suppress ports of entry.

18. To order the construction of roads and canals and cause them to be improved without preventing the local districts from building or improving their own.

19. To declare, in case of physical or mental inability of the President or Vice-President of the Republic, whether an election must or must not be held.

20. To make codes; to enact laws, decrees, and resolutions for the proper administration of the Government; to properly construe their meaning, and to amend, modify, or repeal their provisions.

ART. LXIII. Congress shall have no power to suspend, under cover of a pardon, the course of the judicial proceedings, or to repeal the decrees and orders made by the Judicial Power (except in the cases provided for in No. 14 of the preceding article), or to exercise any of the powers which exclusively belong to the Executive, or to abridge the powers which, under the present Constitution, belong to the local authorities. Congress is also forbidden to order any pay-

ment to be made without the proper legal proof of the indebtedness, to grant any indemnification without previous decision of a court to that effect, or to delegate any of the powers which belong to it under the present Constitution to any of its members, whether one, or more than one, or to any person or corporation.

SECTION VI.—THE MAKING OF LAWS AND LEGISLATIVE DECREES.

ART. LXIV. All laws, decrees, and resolutions of Congress concerning the administration of justice may be introduced in any Chamber by any of its members, or by the Executive, or the Supreme Court.

ART. LXV. If any bill, resolution, or decree has been rejected it can not be re-introduced, unless accompanied by amendments, until the next session; and if it is then admitted it shall be discussed in three different meetings of each Chamber on different days.

ART. LXVI. All bills, decrees, or resolutions approved in the Chamber where they were introduced shall pass immediately to the other Chamber, with a statement of the number of days employed in their discussion; and the other Chamber shall either approve, or reject them, or make such amendments, additions, or modifications thereto as it may deem advisable.

ART. LXVII. If the Chamber in which the bill originated does not concur in the additions or amendments proposed, it shall have the power to send it back to the Chamber and insist revising if it has some new reason for such action, upon its being accepted in its original form. If, in spite of this second presentation, the revising Chamber refuses to strike out the amendments or additions, and these amendments or additions refer to the whole bill, then the measure shall be postponed until the next session of Congress; but if the amendments or additions refer only to certain articles, these articles shall be set aside and the bill will follow its course.

ART. LXVIII. All bills, decrees, or resolutions passed by the two Chambers shall be sent for approval to the Executive power. If the approval is granted the bill shall become a law, and the Executive shall order it to be promulgated and executed; but if the approval is refused the Executive shall return the bill with his objections to the Chamber where it originated within nine days. The bills passed by both Chambers as urgent shall be approved or disapproved by the Executive within three days, but the Executive shall have no power to judge as to the urgency of the measure.

ART. LXIX. If the Chamber should consider the objections of the Executive well founded, and if said objections refer to the whole act, the latter shall fail to become a law, and shall be sent to the archives. It can not be introduced again until the next session of Congress. If the objections of the

Executive consist in the mere suggestion of corrections or amendments, the latter can be discussed and disposed of in one debate.

ART. LXX. If the majority of the members present refuse their assent to the objections made by the Executive to the whole act, the Chamber where the bill originated shall refer it, with the proper explanations, to the other Chamber. If the latter finds that the objections of the Executive are well founded, the bill shall be returned in order that it may be kept in the archives. But if by a majority of its members it finds that the objections of the Executive are not well founded, the bill shall then be sent to the Executive for approval, which, in that case, can not be refused.

ART. LXXI. If the Executive does not return the act, either approved or disapproved, within the period of nine days, or of three in cases of urgency, or if the Executive refuses his approval after all the constitutional requisites have been complied with, the act shall become a law. But if during the periods above provided for Congress adjourns, either temporarily or finally, the act shall then be published in the newspapers, together with the objections thereto, and shall be introduced again during the first three days of the next meeting. If it is not published, together with the objections, within a period of nine days, the act shall become a law.

ART. LXXII. All bills and resolutions left unacted upon, as well as all those rejected or disapproved, shall be published in the newspapers, together with the explanation of the reasons for such course.

ART. LXXIII. The acts and resolutions to be sent to the Executive for approval shall be engrossed in duplicate, shall be signed by the respective presidents and secretaries of each Chamber, and shall be accompanied by a statement of the days on which they were discussed.

ART. LXXIV. If the Executive notes that the provisions of Articles 65, 66, and 67 have not been complied with in regard to some bill, resolution, or decree, the two copies aforesaid shall be returned within three days to the Chamber where the error was committed, in order that, said error having been corrected, the measure may go on through its constitutional stages. But if no error is found, the act shall be either approved or disapproved, and one of the copies, properly endorsed by the Executive, shall be returned to the Chamber where it originated.

ART. LXXV. If the Chamber where the bill originated has adjourned, the periods of time set forth in Article LXXIV shall not be affected by the adjournment.

ART. LXXVI.* The resolutions of Congress directing its sittings to be transferred to some other place, granting or refusing extraordinary powers, causing

*This is the text of Article LXXVI as amended July 25, 1887. The original article had not the words "or for any reform of the Constitution."

elections to be held, accepting resignations and excuses, or providing rules for its interior government, shall not require the intervention of the Executive. Nor shall said intervention be necessary for any act which can be executed by one Chamber, or for any reform of the Constitution.

ART. LXXVII. Congress shall use for enacting its measures the following words: "The Congress of the Republic of Ecuador decrees." The form to be used by the Executive Power shall be the following: "Let it be executed," or "Let it be objected."

ART. LXXVIII. The same rules which have been established for the enactment of the laws shall be followed for their interpretation, modification, or abrogation.

ART. LXXIX. The laws have no binding force except by virtue of their promulgation.

ART. LXXX. The laws shall be promulgated by the Executive power within six days subsequent to their having become such laws; and if the said period is allowed to pass without the promulgation being made by the Executive, the Council of State shall then make the said promulgation, within the following six days, under strictest responsibility.

Both periods may, however, be shortened or prolonged by the law itself, and in this case a special period shall be fixed.

TITLE VII.—THE EXECUTIVE POWER.

SECTION I.—THE CHIEF MAGISTRATE OF THE STATE.

ART. LXXXI. The Executive power is exercised by the President of the Republic of Ecuador. In case of necessity he will be superseded, 1st, by the Vice-President of the Republic; 2nd, by the President of the last Senate; and, 3rd, by the President of the last Chamber of Deputies.

ART. LXXXII. After the election for President and Vice-President, Congress shall count the votes and shall declare elected the candidate who has obtained an absolute, or if not, a relative majority. If the number of votes for two or more candidates, proves to be equal, Congress shall decide by absolute majority and by secret ballot who is to have the office; but the choice has to be made out of those candidates who obtained the greatest equal number of votes in the popular election. If the vote of Congress proves to be equally divided, the decision shall be by lot.

ART. LXXXIII. To be President or Vice-President of the Republic it shall be required to be an Ecuadorian, as defined by clauses first and second of Article VI, to be a citizen, and to be over thirty-five years of age.

ART. LXXXIV. The positions of President and Vice-President of the Republic become vacant by death, removal, accepted resignation, physical or mental disability declared by Congress, and expiration of the term established by the Constitution.

ART. LXXXV. If the position of President or Vice-President of the Republic becomes vacant before the end of the constitutional period, the official in charge of the Executive power shall order, within the period of eight days, a new election; but this election shall be terminated within two months at the latest. The President or Vice-President elected in this way shall serve only during the unexpired term of his predecessor.

If the unexpired term of either the President or Vice-President does not exceed one year, the official acting in their place shall continue in charge until the period expires.

ART. LXXXVI. The President and Vice-President of the Republic shall serve for four years. Neither can be reelected except after the expiration of two periods. During the same interval, it is forbidden for the President to be elected Vice President or vice versa.

ART. LXXXVII. No relative in the second degree of blood relationship or the first degree of affinity of the acting Chief Magistrate shall be elected to succeed him.

ART. LXXXVIII. The President of the Republic or the acting Chief Magistrate shall not be allowed, during his term of office or one year thereafter, to absent himself from Ecuadorian territory without the consent of Congress.

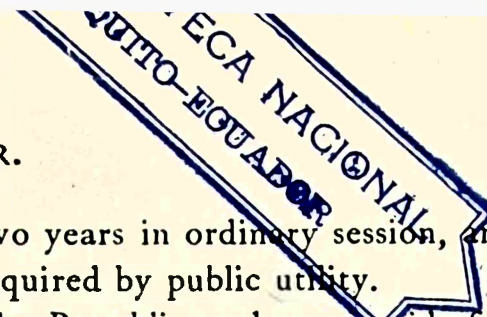
ART. LXXXIX. The President and Vice-President of the Republic, on entering into the execution of their respective offices, shall take before Congress, or if Congress is not in session before the Supreme Court, the following oath: "I, N. N., do swear before God, our Lord, and these Holy Gospels, to faithfully execute the office of President (or Vice-President) of the Republic; to protect the Roman Catholic Apostolic religion; to preserve the integrity and independence of the State; to execute the Constitution and the laws and cause them to be executed. If so I do, may God help and defend me; if not, may He and my country demand it."

SECTION II.—POWERS AND DUTIES OF THE EXECUTIVE.

ART. XC.* The Executive shall have the following powers and duties:

1. To approve the laws and decrees passed by Congress and make the proper rules and regulations for their execution, without undertaking thereby to interpret or alter their provisions.
2. To obey and execute the laws and decrees, and to cause them to be obeyed and executed by all executive agents and other employees.

*This is the text of Article XC as amended July 25, 1887. The original article ordered Congress to be convened *every year*, and contained the following restriction as to the granting of pardons or commutation of sentences: "This power shall never be used in favor of those whose offenses or crimes have been committed by order of the Government, or those who have embezzled the national funds."



3. To call Congress to convene every two years in ordinary session, and in extraordinary session whenever it may be required by public utility.

4. To preserve order in the interior of the Republic and to provide for its exterior safety.

5. To use the armed forces for the defense of the nation and for all other purposes of the public service.

6. To appoint and remove, with the advice of the Council of State, all diplomatic agents, and without said advice the members of the Cabinet, the governors of the Provinces, the political chiefs, the parochial lieutenants, and all other employees whose appointment or removal is not conferred by the Constitution or the laws upon some other authority.

7. To conduct the diplomatic negotiations; to conclude treaties; to ratify the same after their approval by Congress, and to exchange the ratifications thus made.

8. To send to Congress all nominations for the positions of general and colonel in the army.

9. To appoint all other military chiefs and officers.

10. To accept or refuse to accept the resignation of generals, chiefs, and officers of the army and the navy, and to grant, in conformity with the law, certificates of disability.

11. To grant patents of navigation.

12. To declare war when previously decreed by Congress, and to make peace with the approval of the same body.

13. To see that the laws be strictly complied with in everything relating to the management and disbursement of the national revenues.

14. To cause an account of the public revenues to be rendered each year by the Secretary of the Treasury to the respective tribunals, in order that the latter may settle it and transmit it to the Legislative body.

15. To grant patents of inventions as provided in Article XXVII of the present Constitution.

16. To pardon, decrease, or commute, in conformity with the law and with the limitations established by it, penalties and sentences imposed for crimes or offences. To exercise this power it will be required: (1) That a final sentence has been passed; (2) that the judge or tribunal who pronounced said sentence be asked to report on the subject; and (3) that the Council of State be consulted.

ART. XCI. The President, or the acting Chief Magistrate, shall have no power to violate the guarantees established by the present Constitution; to stop the course of judicial proceedings; to abridge in any way the liberty of the courts; to prevent elections from being held or to interfere with them; to dissolve

the Legislative Chambers or to cause them to adjourn; to exercise the executive authority when absent from the capital of the Republic at a distance of more than five kilometers; or to admit foreigners to serve in the army as officers or chiefs, without permission of Congress.

ART. XCII. The President shall be held responsible for treason or for conspiracy against the Republic; for violating the Constitution, interfering with the other powers, or preventing Congress from meeting or deliberating; for refusing to sanction laws and decrees constitutionally passed; for exercising extraordinary faculties without permission of Congress or of the Council of State; for provoking an unjust war, or for preventing any public officer from being paid his salary.

ART. XCIII. On the opening of an ordinary session of Congress, the President of the Republic, or the acting Chief Magistrate, shall report in writing to each Chamber on the political and military state of the nation and on its revenues and resources, and suggest such reforms or improvements as in his judgment must be made in any branch of the administration.

ART. XCIV.* In case of foreign invasion or domestic disturbance, the Executive shall apply to Congress, if then in session, and if not, to the Council of State, in order that, in view of his report and in consideration of the necessity felt, he may be granted the following powers, in full or with restrictions, to wit:

1. To increase the army and navy; to call the national guard into service, and to establish military authority when deemed necessary.
2. To order the collection in advance, for one year and no more, of all the taxes, with a discount at the rate of interest charged by the Government.
3. To contract loans with the advice of the Council of State.
4. To move the national capital when threatened, or when the moving be required by a grave necessity, until the danger or the necessity ceases.
5. To exile or expel, in case of foreign invasion, all those suspected of favoring it, and to take the same action, with the advice of the Council of State, in regard to those suspected of taking part in any conspiracy or internal disturbance.

The place of exile shall be the chief town of a canton or the capital of a Province. It is forbidden to send any person to the territory of Oriente or to the Galapagos Archipelago, or compel the exile to travel by unusual or indirect roads.

*This is the text of Article XCIV as amended July 25, 1887. In the original article, clause No. 5 read: "To exile, in case of international war, those suspected of favoring it, and to take the same action, upon previous advice of the Council of State, in regard to those suspected of taking part in any conspiracy or internal commotion," etc., etc.

At the termination of the extraordinary powers, all exiles shall recover their liberty, and shall have the right to return without a safe conduct.

If the suspected person should ask for a passport to leave the Republic, his petition shall be granted, and the selection of the route shall be left to him; but as soon as the extraordinary powers cease, he shall have the right to return freely.

The provisions of the preceding paragraphs shall not be construed so as to prevent any suspected person from being tried before the courts and punished, if convicted, for offenses committed, unless they have been pardoned.

If the sentence be condemnatory, the period of imprisonment previous to the conviction shall be deducted from the penalty.

6. To arrest all persons suspected of favoring foreign invasion or internal disturbance, or of taking part in the same; but the arrested persons shall be placed at the disposal of the court of competent jurisdiction, together with all the papers relating to the case, within the period of three days.

The Executive may, however, order the exile of the suspected persons during the same three days.

7. To admit into the service of the Republic, in case of foreign war, such foreign auxiliary troops as may be allowed by treaties.

8. To declare any port of the Republic a temporary port of entry.

9. To dispose of the public moneys even when appropriated for other purposes, except when belonging to the school fund, hospitals, quarantine establishments, and charitable institutions.

ART. XCV. The powers granted the Executive under the preceding article shall not extend beyond the time, place, and object indispensable for the re-establishment of the peace or safety of the Republic, and it shall be so stated in the decree of concession. The Executive shall report to Congress at its first meeting, within the first eight days, the use which has been made of these powers.

As soon as the danger ceases, the Council of State shall declare, upon its own responsibility, that the extraordinary powers have terminated.

ART. XCVI.* The Executive may delegate these powers, with the advice of the Council of State, to the governors of Provinces only, but the latter shall have no authority to exile or expel without an order of the Executive.

* This is the text of Article XCVI as amended July 25, 1887. The original article provided that the governors of the Provinces, when acting as delegates of the Chief Magistrate, had power only to exile but not to expel from the country. By a subsequent amendment, made on August 4, 1887, the following explanation of Article XCVI was made: "The provision of Article XCVI of the Constitution, requiring an order of the Executive to authorize the governors of the Provinces to exile or expel from the country any person suspected of favoring foreign invasion or internal disturbance, does not mean an individual order for each case, but merely a general authority given them, with the advice of the Council of State, independent of the general delegation of the extraordinary powers."

The Executive and the authorities entrusted with the enforcement of its orders shall be directly responsible for any excess they may have committed.

The authorities spoken of in the foregoing paragraph shall be responsible also for the enforcement of any order of the Executive in excess of its powers.

SECTION III.—THE MEMBERS OF THE CABINET.

ART. XCVII. The President of the Republic shall be assisted in the exercise of his functions by the Secretaries of State which the law may provide.

ART. XCVIII. To be a Secretary of State the same qualifications are required as to be a Senator.

ART. XCIX. All decrees, orders, or decisions of the Executive shall be signed by the respective Secretaries of State; and if not signed, they shall be null and void and shall not be obeyed by any agent of the Government or by any private person or authority. The appointment or removal of the Secretaries themselves is excepted from this rule.

ART. C. The Secretaries of State shall be held responsible in the cases spoken of in Article XCI and XCII and also in all cases of violation of law, bribery, collusion, and embezzlement of public funds, countersigning decrees or orders of the Executive issued without the advice of the Council of State, when this advice is required by the Constitution and the laws, and delaying the execution of valid decrees or not having been vigilant in their enforcement. An order, either verbal or in writing, from the Executive shall not exempt the Secretaries of State from responsibility.

ART. CI. The Secretaries of State shall transmit to the Legislative Chambers, with the knowledge of the Executive, all the information which may be asked from them in regard to any matter belonging to their respective departments, unless, in the judgment of the Executive, such matter should be kept in reserve. In the latter case the information shall be given in secret session.

ART. CII. The Secretaries of State shall present to Congress, when assembled in ordinary session and during the first six days, a written report on the condition of the business at their respective departments, and may recommend therein whatever they may deem advisable to improve said condition. They may take part, but without vote, in the discussions of the bills introduced in Congress by the Executive, and they shall appear before either Chamber when summoned.

ART. CIII. The Secretary of the Treasury shall submit, furthermore, to Congress, when assembled in ordinary session and during the first twenty days of its being assembled, a schedule of the national revenues and the estimates of revenues and expenditures for the following year.

SECTION IV.—THE COUNCIL OF STATE.

ART. CIV.* In the capital of Ecuador there shall be a Council of State, consisting of the Vice-President of the Republic, the Secretaries of State, the Attorney-General of the Supreme Court, two Senators, one Deputy, an ecclesiastic, and three private citizens with the qualifications necessary to be a Senator. Congress shall elect, at its biennial meeting, the seven Councillors last named, who may be reelected indefinitely. The Council shall be presided over by the Vice-President of the Republic, and in his absence, by the Attorney-General of the Supreme Court, and in the absence of the latter, by such other member of the Council as may be elected by his colleagues.

The Secretaries of State shall have no vote when the matter under discussion is the granting to the Executive of extraordinary powers.

ART. CV. The President of the Republic, or the acting Chief Magistrate, shall consult the Council of State before approving or disapproving the acts of Congress or any other legislative decree, calling Congress to convene in extraordinary session, asking Congress to pass a decree authorizing him to declare war, or appointing the governor of a Province.

The Council of State shall also give its opinion in all cases provided by law, or when the President of the Republic or the acting Chief Magistrate may ask it.

ART. CVI. It belongs to the Council of State—

1. To grant or refuse the Executive, when Congress is not in session, and upon its own responsibility, extraordinary powers, or to withdraw them as soon as the danger has passed.

2. To prepare any bill of complaint to be presented to Congress against the Justices of the Supreme Court.

3. To fill, when Congress is not in session, any vacancy which may have occurred in the Council of State, provided that the vacant place is not the one belonging to the Vice-President of the Republic, the Secretaries of State, or the Attorney-General of the Supreme Court.

4. To exercise all other powers vested in it by the Constitution and the laws.

TITLE VIII.—THE JUDICIAL POWER.

ART. CVII. The Judicial power is vested in one Supreme Court, the superior courts, the jury, and all the other tribunals and courts established by the Constitution and the laws.

ART. CVIII. To be a Justice of the Supreme Court, it is required to be a

*This is the text of Article CIV as amended July 25, 1887. The original article read *annual* instead of *biennial*, in referring to the session of Congress.

citizen in the exercise of the rights of citizenship, over thirty-five years of age, and a lawyer of good standing, having practiced law for not less than eight years.

ART. CIX. To be a justice of a superior court, it is required to be an Ecuadorian in the exercise of the rights of citizenship, over thirty years of age, and a lawyer of good standing, having practiced law for not less than five years.

ART. CX. Congress shall elect, by absolute majority of votes, the Justices of the Supreme Court, of the Tribunal of Accounts, and of the superior courts. If Congress is not in session, the Supreme Court shall take cognizance of the requests for excuse and of the resignations made or tendered by either its own members or the members of the superior courts, and shall elect the officials who must serve in their place. The Tribunal of Accounts has the same power in regard to its members.

ART. CXI. The law shall provide the number of Associate Justices of the Supreme Court, the superior courts, and the Tribunal of Accounts. It shall establish, also, the Province or Provinces over which they shall have jurisdiction and the powers and faculties belonging to them. It shall also provide to the same effect in regard to the courts of the first instance, and fix the manner of appointing the judges and the time during which they shall serve.

ART. CXII. The Justices of the Supreme Court may be present at the discussion of the bills which the court may have introduced in Congress.

ART. CXIII. No case shall be conducted through more than three instances. The tribunals and courts shall always state the reasons of their decisions, unless said decisions pass only upon facts.

ART. CXIV. The Justices and Judges are responsible, in the manner and form provided by law, for their judicial action. They cannot be suspended except upon a judicial decree setting forth the reason for the suspension, nor can they be removed unless by judicial sentence.

ART. CXV. The Justices of the Supreme Court, of the Tribunal of Accounts, and of the superior courts shall serve for six years, and may be reelected indefinitely. They cannot accept any position within the free gift of the Executive, even if they resign their judicial positions. This provision will continue one year after the date of the resignation.

TITLE IX.—THE HOME GOVERNMENT.

ART. CXVI. The territory of the Republic shall be divided into Provinces, cantons, and parishes.

ART. CXVII. In each Province there shall be a governor, who shall be the immediate agent of the Executive power. Each canton shall have a political chief and each parish a lieutenant. The law shall fix their respective powers.

ART. CXVIII. To attend to the interests of each locality there shall be municipal corporations. The law shall provide for the organization of these bodies, and define their functions and their powers in everything concerning the education and instruction of the inhabitants, the police, the material improvements, the local taxation, the manner of collecting and disbursing the local revenues, the improvement of the public establishments, and all other matters within their jurisdiction.

ART. CXIX. No resolution or measure passed by these municipal bodies shall be complied with if in opposition to the Constitution or the laws, and such controversies as may arise on this matter between a municipal corporation and the political authority shall be decided by the Supreme Court.

ART. CXX. The Province of Oriente, the Archipelago of Galapagos, and, in general, all other places which, owing to their distance or their isolation, cannot be governed by the general laws, shall be governed by special laws.

TITLE X.—THE NATIONAL FORCES.

ART. CXXI. For the defence of the Republic and the preservation of order, there shall be a standing army and a national guard.

ART. CXXII. Military jurisdiction and power shall be enforced only against persons purely military in active service.

ART. CXXIII. Neither the President of the Republic nor any other authority shall, without incurring responsibility, appoint or pay a greater number of generals or colonels than that established in an express and individual manner by the National Congress or by a Constitutional Assembly.

ART. CXXIV. Neither the President of the Republic nor any other authority shall, without incurring responsibility, recognize any rank, or pay any other chiefs or officials than those already recognized or ordered to be paid by a Constitutional Government, or to be so recognized or ordered to be paid in the future.

ART. CXXV. Congress shall not grant any rank superior to that of general, nor shall it approve the granting of the rank of general or colonel without first examining the respective merits of the appointee.

ART. CXXVI. No person belonging to the army shall receive salary except when in active service. It is therefore forbidden to place any one on the retired list with pay. But this prohibition shall not apply to those who are already on the said list being over sixty years of age, or having been in active service for twenty years.

ART. CXXVII. The armed force is, by its nature, an obedient and not a deliberative body; but the military authorities are not bound to comply with

any order intended to overthrow the high national powers or issued manifestly in violation of the Constitution.

ART. CXXVIII. No requisition shall be made, nor shall assistance of any kind be asked by any armed body, except upon or from the civil authority, and in the manner provided by law.

ART. CXXIX. The armed force shall be formed by voluntary enlistment, or by contingents furnished by the Provinces, which shall call to arms all those who, according to law, are bound to do military service.

TITLE XI.—GENERAL PROVISIONS.

ART. CXXX. No payment shall be made by the Treasury unless Congress has authorized it by a proper appropriation, nor shall any payment be made in excess of the amount appropriated.

ART. CXXXI. No person or body shall simultaneously exercise political and military or judicial authority.

ART. CXXXII. All officials on taking possession of their places shall take an oath to support and defend the Constitution and to comply with their official duties.

ART. CXXXIII. No person shall receive two salaries out of the National Treasury.

ART. CXXXIV. The salaries established by law for the President and Vice-President of the Republic, for the justices of all tribunals and courts, and for the Deputies, as well as the mileage to which the latter are entitled, cannot be increased or decreased during their own constitutional period, unless the change is to take effect in another period.

ART. CXXXV. Whenever the Republic may happen to be threatened by a foreign war, Ecuadorians shall not be allowed to relinquish their citizenship or accept office in another nation.

TITLE XII.—AMENDMENTS TO THE CONSTITUTION.

ART. CXXXVI. Whenever the Chambers, by absolute majority, may deem it advisable to reform the Constitution, a proposition to that effect shall be introduced in Congress, in order that it be considered after the renovation spoken of in Articles LVII and LVIII has taken place; and if at that time the Chambers, by absolute majority, acting in conformity with the provisions of Section VI of Title VI, should approve the amendment, the latter shall then be made a part of the Constitution.

TITLE XIII.—TRANSIENT PROVISIONS.

ART. CXXXVII. The Constitutional Convention shall have the power, even

after the promulgation of the Constitution, to issue laws, decrees, or resolutions, and to exercise all the other faculties enumerated in Article LXII.

ART. CXXXVIII. The Assembly [Constitutional Convention] shall elect, by secret vote and by absolute majority, the President and Vice-President of the Republic, the members of the Council of State, the Justices of the Supreme Court, of the Tribunal of Accounts, and of the superior courts.

Instead of the two Senators and Deputies mentioned in Article CIV, the Assembly shall elect three of its own members to be Councillors of State.

ART. CXXXIX. The President and Vice President of the Republic elected in the manner and form provided by the foregoing article, shall vacate their offices, respectively, on the 13th of June, 1888, and the 30th of June, 1886; and both officials, as well as the justices of the tribunals and courts and the Senators and Deputies, shall be paid such salaries as may be established by a law to be enacted for that purpose by the National Assembly.

ART. CXL.* The last annual Congress shall meet on the 10th of June, 1888, and the first biennial Congress shall meet on the 10th of June, 1890.

* This is the text of Article CXL as amended July 25, 1887. The original article read as follows: "The first ordinary Congress shall meet on the 10th of June, 1885."

Appendix B.

TARIFF OF ECUADOR.

In Ecuador, customs duties are levied on goods imported and exported. All foreign goods may be imported into the Republic by national or foreign vessels, without distinction of flag. The tariff now in force comprises modifications resulting from Article 87 of the law of September 4, 1890. The import duties are given as translated into English and published by the Bureau of the American Republics, Bulletin No. 25, November, 1891. In addition, are given the export duties, regulations, and explanatory notes as published by the International Customs Tariffs Bureau of Brussels, Bulletin 59.

Import Duties of Ecuador.

DERECHOS DE IMPORTACIÓN EN ECUADOR.

In addition to the rates given below, there are charged extra duties amounting to 30 per cent. on the duties expressed.

Equivalents.

1 Peso = \$ 0.736.

1 Kilo = 2.2046 pounds.

Articles.	Duty per pound in U. S. currency.	Artículos.	Derechos por kilo en moneda ecuatoriana.
	<i>Dollars.</i>		<i>Pesos.</i>
Albums.....	.5007	Albums.....	1.50
Articles not enumerated.....	.0835	Todos los artículos no comprendidos en las diez clases...	.25
Almonds0167	Almendras05
Alum.....	.0167	Alumbre.....	.05
Anchors0067	Anclas.....	.02
Aniseed1669	Anís.....	.50
Annatto.....	.0167	Achiote05
Antimacassars and all other crochets and netted articles.....	.3338	Antimacazares y cualquier otro artículo de red ó al crochet ...	1.00
Axles, of iron, for carts, wagons, and trucks0067	Ejes de hierro para carros, carretas é carretillas02
Bagging for sacks and other purposes.....	.0167	Crudo ó cañamazo para sacos y otros útiles05
Bags, hemp, empty, of every description0167	Sacos de cañamo, vacíos, de toda clase.....	.05
Barley0067	Cebada02
Barometers.....	.0167	Barómetros05
Barrels, pails, pipes, and tuns, empty0167	Barriles, baldes, pipas y toneles, vacíos.....	.05
Beads and bugles, glass.....	.3338	Abalorios y chaquiras.....	1.00
Beer in any kind of vessel.....	.0167	Cerveza en cualquier envase....	.05
Bells, hand and harness.....	.1669	Campanillas y cascabeles.....	.50
Beverages in general.....	.0167	Chicha en general.....	.05

Articles.	Duty per pound in U. S. currency.	Artículos.	Derechos por kilo en moneda ecuatoriana.
	<i>Dollars.</i>		<i>Pesos.</i>
Billiard tables and appliances0334	Billares y accesorios10
Boats and small lighters.....	.0033	Botes y embarcaciones menores.	.01
Bonnets and caps, all sizes.....	.3338	Gorros, gorras y gorritas	L.00
Books, account, and blank registers.....	.0334	Libros de comercio y registros en blanco10
Books and pamphlets, printed0067	Libros y folletos impresos.....	.02
Boots and shoes of fine quality with ornaments3338	Calzado fino con adornos.....	L.00
Bottles, jugs. and demijohns, empty.....	.0033	Botellas, botijas y damajuanas vacías01
Bran.....	.0033	Afrecho.....	.01
Braid and binding tapes1669	Trencillas y reatas.....	.50
Brass, manufactured.....	.0334	Latón manufacturado10
Bricks, common clay0033	Ladrillos de barro ordinarios01
Bronze, manufactured0334	Bronce manufacturado.....	.10
Broom straw0167	Paja para escobas05
Brooms, with or without handles.	.0167	Escobas con mango ó sin él05
Butter0334	Mantequilla.....	.10
Buttons.....	.1669	Botones50
Cables of iron for ships and small craft.....	.0167	Cadenas de hierro para buques y embarcaciones menores.....	.05
Canary seed.....	.0167	Alpiste05
Candles of every description0334	Velas de toda clase para alumbrado.....	.10
Cardboard for book-binding.....	.0167	Cartones para encuadernación de libros.....	.05
Cardboard, ordinary or bituminized and for binding purposes.	.0066	Carton ordinario ó embetunado, y para encuadernación02
Cards, playing, and dice6677	Barajas y dados.....	2.00
Carob pods for fodder.....	.0033	Vainilla de algarrobo para alimento de animales... ..	.01
Carriages, fitted or not, and their detached parts.....	.0167	Carruajes armados ó desarmados y sus piezas sueltas05
Cartridges6677	Capsulas	2.00
Carts and wheelbarrows.....	.0067	Carretas y carretillas.....	.02
Cement, Roman0033	Cemento romano01
Cigar and cigarette holders and snuff-boxes5007	Boquillas para fumadores y tabaqueras.....	L.50
Charcoal.....	.0033	Carbon de madera01
Chicha (drinks of fermented corn or fruits).....	.0167	Chicha en general05
Chinaware or porcelain of fine quality not intended for table service, toilet sets, and other domestic purposes.....	.0167	Loza fina ó porcelana no para servicios de mesa lavatorios y otros utensilios domésticos..	.05
Chuño (kind of fecula prepared in Peru).....	.0167	Chuño.....	.05
Cocoa0167	Coca05
Cocoanuts, fresh or dried, like those from Guayaquil.....	.0033	Cocos, frescos ó secos, como los de Guayaquil.....	.01
Cocoanuts, small, from Chile....	.0167	Coquitos de Chile05
Compasses, mariners'.....	.0167	Brujúlas.....	.05

Articles.	Duty per pound in U. S. currency.	Artículos.	Derechos por kilo en moneda ecuatoriana.
	<i>Dollars.</i>		<i>Pesos.</i>
Copper or bronze, manufactured or in perforated sheets0334	Cobre ó bronce, manufacturado ó en planchas perforadas10
Copper, bronze, or brass in the rough, or sheets not perforated, and waste pieces.0067	Cobre, bronce ó latón en bruto ó en planchas no perforadas y en piezas inutilizadas02
Copy-books, Garnier's system of calligraphy.0067	Cuadernos, sistema Garnier, para la enseñanza de la caligrafía.02
Coral, manufactured or unmanufactured5007	Coral, bruto ó manufacturado.	1.50
Cordage, cotton0334	Jarcia de algodón.10
Cordage of sisal and manila.0167	Jarcia de sisal y manila05
Corkscrews1669	Tirabuzones.50
Corks for bottles0334	Corchos para tapones de botellas.10
Corn0067	Maiz.02
Corsets3338	Corsés.	1.00
Cotton, filament or waste.0167	Hilacha ó escoria de algodón.05
Cotton, raw, with or without seeds.0167	Algodon con pepas ó sin ellas.05
Crockery, common, for table use and toilet sets0067	Loza, ordinaria, como la de servicio y lavatorios02
Crowbars for agricultural purposes0067	Barras para agricultura.02
Crucibles0167	Crisoles05
Cumin seed0167	Cominos05
Demijohns, bottles, and jugs (empty)0033	Damajuanas, botellas y botijas (vacías)01
Dyewoods0067	Palos para tinte02
Dynamite or blasting powder for mines, under legal requirements.0033	Dinamita ó pólvora para minas, observándose las prescripciones legales.01
Earth for casting purposes.0033	Tierras para fundición01
Emery and sand paper0334	Lija en papel.10
Enamel1669	Esmalte.50
Envelopes0334	Sobres para cartas10
Epaulets.5007	Charreteras	1.50
Fancy articles.3338	Objetos de fantasia	1.00
Fans5007	Abanicos	1.50
Feathers for trimming5007	Plumas para adornos	1.50
Felt, tarred for ships' use0334	Felpa embetunada para buques.10
Fireworks1669	Pólvora manufacturada en fuegos artificiales.50
Fish, salted, like that imported from Peru.0067	Pescado salado como él que viene del Perú02
Flour of wheat, maize, or any other grain0167	Harinas de trigo, maiz ó cualquier otro grano05
Flowers, artificial.5007	Flores artificiales	1.50
Fountains of marble or of iron, with their appliances.0033	Pilas de mármol ó de hierro y sus útiles01
Fruits, dried, and other unprepared provisions.0167	Frutas secas y más comestibles no preparadas05
Funeral crowns and other ornaments.6677	Coronas y otros adornos funerarios.	2.00

Articles.	Duty per pound in U. S. currency.	Artículos.	Derechos por kilo en moneda ecuatoriana.
	<i>Dollars.</i>		<i>Pesos.</i>
Furniture of every description, whether put together or in pieces, of whatever material made or upholstered.....	.0334	Muebles de toda clase, armados ó desarmados, cualquiera que sea la materia de que estén contruidos y el forro que los cubre.....	.10
Galloons, gold and silver.....	.5007	Galones.....	1.50
Games not otherwise mentioned..	.5007	Juegos no mencionados expresamente	1.50
Garlic0033	Ajos.....	.01
Gas retorts of clay.....	.0067	Retortas de barro para gas.....	.02
Glass in the rough0033	Vidrio en bruto.....	.01
Glass, in sheets, unsilvered.....	.0167	Vidrios planos, no azogados....	.05
Glassware, common, for table, toilet, and other domestic purposes0167	Cristalería ordinaria para servicios de mesa, lavatorios y otros utensilios domésticos...	.05
Glassware, of fine quality, for table, toilet, and other domestic uses0334	Cristalería fina para servicio de mesa, lavatorios y otros utensilios domésticos10
Globes, geographical and astronomical0067	Globos, geográficos y astronómicos02
Gloves of all kinds3338	Guantes de toda clase.....	1.00
Gold and silver articles and precious stones.....	.6677	Objetos de oro ó plata y piedras preciosas	2.00
Gold and silver leaves.....	.5007	Hojuela	1.50
Gold and silver twist.....	.5007	Brisado	1.50
Grease for machinery0167	Grasas para máquinas.....	.05
Guns, breech-loading3338	Escopetas de retrocarga.....	1.00
Hair or fur, natural or artificial...	.5007	Cabello ó pelo natural ó artificial.	1.50
Hammocks of all kinds.....	.3338	Hamacas de toda clase.....	1.00
Hams0167	Jamones05
Harmoniums0334	Armoniums10
Harness for cart horses.....	.0167	Arneses para carretas.....	.05
Harrows0067	Rastrillos para agricultura.....	.02
Hats.....	.3338	Sombreros	1.00
Hats and bonnets, trimmed, for ladies and children.....	.5007	Sombreros y gorras, adornados, para señoras y niños	1.50
Hay or grass for animals0033	Pasto seco, ó yerba para animales.....	.01
Hides of cattle, dried or fresh, not prepared0033	Cueros secos ó frescos de ganado mayor, no preparados....	.01
Hoes, spades, shovels, and plowshares for agricultural purposes0067	Azadones, lampas, palas y rejas para la agricultura.....	.02
Hoop-iron for barrels.....	.0067	Flejes de hierro para aros de barriles02
Hops0067	Lúpulo02
Houses, wooden or iron, in parts, with all their requisites.....	.0033	Casas de madera ó de hierro, desarmadas ó en piezas, con todas sus útiles.....	.01
Indigo0334	Añil10
Ink, printing.....	.0067	Tinta de imprenta02
Ink, writing.....	.0167	Tinta para escribir.....	.05

Articles.	Duty per pound in U. S. currency.	Artículos.	Derechos por kilo en moneda ecuatoriana.
	<i>Dollars.</i>		<i>Pesos.</i>
Iron, in the rough, plain sheets, bars, corrugated for roofing, and pig-iron for casting purposes.....	.0067	Fierro en bruto, en planchas llanas, varillas ó acañalado para techos y en lingotes para fundición.....	.02
Iron, manufactured.....	.0334	Fierro manufacturado.....	.10
Ivory, manufactured.....	.5007	Marfil manufacturado.....	1.50
Jars and pitchers of earthenware.....	.0167	Tinajas y jarros de barro.....	.05
Jewelry, imitation, of any description.....	.3338	Alajas, falsas, de cualquiera materia.....	1.00
Jugs, bottles, and demijohns (empty).....	.0033	Botijas, botellas y damajuanas (vacías).....	.01
Kerosine of and above 150 degrees.....	.0167	Kerosine de 150 ó mas grados de potencia.....	.05
Lace and trimmings of wool or cotton.....	.3338	Encajes y randas de lana ó hilo.	1.00
Lard or butter.....	.0334	Manteca de puerco ó vaca.....	.10
Lavender.....	.0167	Alhucema.....	.05
Lead, manufactured.....	.0334	Plomo manufacturado.....	.10
Lead, pig.....	.0167	Plomo en bruto.....	.05
Lime.....	.0067	Cal.....	.02
Linseed.....	.0167	Linaza.....	.05
Machetes of all descriptions.....	.0167	Machetes en general.....	.05
Machinery, complete, for agricultural or manufacturing purposes.....	.0033	Máquinas completas para la agricultura ó la industria.....	.01
Maizena, or corn starch.....	.0167	Maicena.....	.05
Marble dust.....	.0067	Polvo de mármol.....	.02
Marble slabs, forming part of furniture.....	.0334	Piedras de mármol que formen parte de muebles.....	.10
Marjoram.....	.0167	Orégano.....	.05
Matches.....	.0334	Fósforos.....	.10
Masks.....	.6677	Máscaras.....	2.00
Matting, Chinese.....	.0334	Petate de la China.....	.10
Meats, salted.....	.0167	Carnes saladas.....	.05
Monuments, or tombstones of over one meter in height.....	.0167	Mausoleos ó piedras de mas de un metro.....	.05
Musical instruments exceeding one meter in height.....	.0334	Instrumentos de música de mas de un metro de alto.....	.10
Music, manuscript, printed or lithographed.....	.0167	Música manuscrita, impresa ó litografiada.....	.05
Mustard.....	.0334	Mostaza.....	.10
Nails, all kinds of metal.....	.0067	Clavos de toda clase de metal...	.02
Niter, not refined.....	.0167	Salitre no refinado.....	.05
Nuts, walnuts, and almonds, and in general all food not enumerated.....	.0334	Avellanas, nueces y almendras, y en general todos los artículos alimenticios no mencionados expresamente.....	.10
Oakum of all kinds.....	.0167	Estopa de toda clase.....	.05
Oil for machinery.....	.0167	Aceite para máquinas.....	.05
Oilcloth for floors.....	.0167	Hule encerado para pisos.....	.05
Oils, linseed, olive, castor, and almond.....	.0334	Aceite, de linaza, de oliva, de castor y de almendras.....	.10

Articles.	Duty per pound in U. S. currency.	Artículos.	Derechos por kilo en moneda ecuatoriana.
	<i>Dollars.</i>		<i>Pesos.</i>
Olives in any kind of vessel.....	.0334	Aceitunas en cualquier envase..	.10
Onions.....	.0033	Cebollas.....	.01
Opium.....	.6677	Opio.....	2.00
Organs, church.....	.0167	Organos para iglesias.....	.05
Ornaments for dresses, shoes, hats, and for distribution at baptisms, etc.....	.3338	Adornos confeccionados para vestidos, calzado, sombreros, medios para bautizo, etc.....	1.00
Paints, in powder, paste, or in any other form.....	.0334	Pintura en polvo, pasta ó cualquier otra clase.....	.10
Paper, all kinds, for printing....	.0067	Papel de toda clase para imprenta.....	.02
Paper, brown, wrapping, for packing goods and sheathing vessels.....	.0067	Papel de estraza para despacho, empaque y forro de buques...	.02
Paper, writing, and other kinds of paper not enumerated.....	.0334	Papel para escribir y otras clases no determinadas.....	.10
Penknives.....	.1669	Cortaplumas.....	.50
Percussion caps.....	.6677	Fulminantes.....	2.00
Perfumery.....	.5007	Perfumeria.....	1.50
Pickles.....	.0334	Encurtido.....	.10
Picks and hammers.....	.0067	Picos y combas.....	.02
Pipes and tubes of iron, lead, clay, and earthenware.....	.0067	Cañerías y tubos de hierro, plomo, barro ó loza.....	.02
Pipes, iron, earthenware, or clay, measuring inside over 12 centimeters diameter.....	.0067	Tubos y cañerías de hierro, loza ó barro, de mas de 12 centímetros de diámetro interior...	.02
Pipes, iron, measuring inside less than 12 centimeters in diameter, provided they form part of machinery.....	.0067	Tubos de hierro de diámetro menor de 12 centímetros, siempre que formen parte de maquinarias.....	.02
Pistols and revolvers.....	.6677	Pistolas y revólvers.....	2.00
Pitch.....	.0067	Brea.....	.02
Pitchers of fine earthenware.....	.0334	Cantarillas finas de barro.....	.10
Plaster of Paris, manufactured..	.0334	Yeso manufacturado.....	.10
Plows.....	.0033	Arados.....	.01
Pocket-books and cigar cases....	.5007	Carteras y cigarreras.....	1.50
Poisonous solutions for curing hides.....	.0167	Aguas envenenadas para cueros.	
Potatoes.....	.0033	Papas.....	.01
Potatoes (sweet).....	.0033	Camotes.....	.01
Powder-flasks.....	.6677	Polvorines.....	2.00
Precious stones.....	.6677	Piedras preciosas.....	2.00
Printing presses and appliances..	.0033	Imprenta y sus útiles.....	.01
Propeller screws.....	.0067	Hélices para buques de vapor...	.02
Pruning hooks or mattocks.....	.0067	Podones ó podaderas.....	.02
Pumps, hand.....	.0067	Bombas mecánicas de mano....	.02
Purses and pocket-books.....	.6677	Bolsas para dinero y portamonedas.....	2.00
Raisins.....	.0167	Pasas.....	.05
Rakes.....	.0067	Rastrillos para agricultura.....	.02
Rapiers, foils, swords, and daggers.....	.6677	Espadas, floretes, sables y puñales.....	2.00

Articles.	Duty per pound in U. S. currency.	Artículos.	Derechos por kilo en moneda ecuatoriana.
	<i>Dollars.</i>		<i>Pesos.</i>
Razors.....	. 1669	Navajas.....	. 50
Rice.....	. 0033	Arroz.....	. 01
Ridge-plates, iron, for roofing...	. 0067	Caballeteras de hierro para tejados.....	. 02
Roman cement.....	. 0033	Cemento Romano.....	. 01
Rope yarn or marline, different sizes.....	. 0334	Piolas, piolones y piollas.....	. 10
Rouge and face powders.....	. 6677	Afeites.....	2. 00
Rubber overshoes and other articles of India rubber.....	. 1669	Zapatones y demás objetos de caucho.....	. 50
Sago.....	. 0167	Sagu.....	. 05
Salt, refined, for table use.....	. 0167	Sal refinada para mesa.....	. 05
Sausages.....	. 1669	Salchichas.....	. 50
Scissors, penknives, and razors..	. 1669	Tijeras, cortaplumas y navajas..	. 50
Shawls, not containing silk.....	. 1669	Pañolones en que no entra seda.	. 50
Sheep and goats' skins, uncured.	. 0167	Cueros de ganado menor no preparados.....	. 05
Shoe pegs.....	. 0334	Estaquillas para calzado.....	. 10
Shoes and boots of every description, except mariners'.....	. 1669	Calzado de toda clase, con excepción del de marinero.....	. 50
Shot.....	. 6677	Municiones.....	2. 00
Silvered or gilt metallic thread...	. 3338	Hilillo.....	1. 00
Slates, for roofing.....	. 0033	Pizarras para tejados.....	. 01
Slates and slate pencils.....	. 0067	Pizarras para escribir y sus lápices.....	. 02
Soap, common.....	. 0167	Jabón ordinario.....	. 05
Soda.....	. 0067	Sal de soda.....	. 02
Soda, caustic.....	. 0067	Soda cáustica.....	. 02
Soda water apparatus.....	. 0167	Aparatus para fabricar agua de soda.....	. 05
Spangles and tinsel.....	. 5007	Lentejuelas y oropel.....	1. 50
Spectacles and lenses of all kinds.	. 3338	Anteojos y lentes de toda clase.	1. 00
Spurs and bridles.....	. 1669	Espuelas y frenos.....	. 50
Starch of every kind.....	. 0167	Almidon de toda clase.....	. 05
Statues of wood, marble, etc., exceeding 1 meter in height.....	. 0167	Estátuas de madera, mármol, etc., de mas de un metro.....	. 05
Staves for casks.....	. 0067	Duelas para toneles.....	. 02
Stearine, not manufactured.....	. 0334	Esterrina en bruto.....	. 10
Steel.....	. 0334	Acero.....	. 10
Steel, unwrought.....	. 0067	Acero en bruto.....	. 02
Stereoscopes and views.....	. 3338	Estereoscopios y las vistas para éstos.....	1. 00
Stones for filtering water.....	. 0067	Piedras para filtrar agua.....	. 02
Stones of every kind not enumerated.....	. 0167	Piedras de toda clase no determinadas.....	. 05
Stoves, iron, cooking.....	. 0167	Cocinas de hierro.....	. 05
Straps and other manufactured articles of saddlery.....	. 1669	Correas y demás objetos manufacturados de guarnicionería..	. 50
Strings for musical instruments..	. 5007	Cuerdas para instrumentos de música.....	1. 50
Sugar.....	. 0167	Azúcar.....	. 05
Sugar refuse.....	. 0167	Chancaca.....	. 05

Articles.	Duty per pound in U. S. currency.	Artículos.	Derechos por kilo en moneda ecuatoriana.
	<i>Dollars.</i>		<i>Pesos.</i>
Sulphur.....	.0334	Azufre.....	.10
Sweet potatoes.....	.0033	Camotes.....	.01
Sirups.....	.0334	Jarabes.....	.10
Tacks, iron.....	.0067	Tachuelas de hierro.....	.02
Tallow, rough.....	.0167	Sebo en rama.....	.05
Tapioca and other farinaceous preparations.....	.0167	Tapioca y otras feculas.....	.05
Tar.....	.0067	Alquitran.....	.02
Textures and articles of crape or lace.....	.3338	Telas y objetos de crespón ó de punto.....	1.00
Textures of all kinds containing silk, silver, gold, or metallic threads in imitation of same...	.3338	Toda clase de tejidos en que entra seda, plata, oro ó hilos metálicos ó imitación de éstos...	1.00
Tiles, clay, for roofing.....	.0033	Tejas de varro para techos.....	.01
Timber, unwrought, in pieces for building purposes, beams and planks, although they may be planed and dovetailed, must pay 1 cent for 2 kilograms.		Maderas sin labrar, en trozos, para construcciones, vigas y tablas, aunque estén acepilladas y machihembradas, pagarán un centavo por cada dos kilógramos.	
Tinware.....	.0334	Hojalata manufacturado.....	.10
Tin, manufactured.....	.0334	Estaño manufacturado.....	.10
Tin, rough or in plain plates.....	.0067	Hojalata en bruto ó planchas llanas.....	.02
Tin, unmanufactured.....	.0067	Estaño en bruto.....	.02
Tobacco, leaf.....	.3338	Tabaco en rama.....	1.00
Tobacco, manufactured.....	.6677	Tabaco manufacturado.....	2.00
Tools, for artisans.....	.0334	Herramientas para artesanos....	.10
Tortoise shell, manufactured....	.5007	Carey manufacturado.....	1.50
Toys and dolls.....	.1669	Juguetes y muñecas.....	.50
Troughs and fonts of marble, iron, or other substance.....	.0167	Pilas de mármol, hierro ú otra materia.....	.05
Trunks.....	.0334	Baulés.....	.10
Turpentine, spirits of.....	.0167	Aguarrás.....	.05
Twine for sewing sacks or sails..	.0334	Hilos para coser sacos ó velas..	.10
Umbrellas and parasols.....	.1669	Paraguas y parasoles.....	.50
Varnish.....	.0334	Barniz.....	.10
Vegetables, fresh, of all kinds, not prepared.....	.0033	Legumbres frescas y menestras de toda clase, no preparadas..	.01
Vermicelli.....	.0167	Fideos.....	.05
Vinegar.....	.0334	Vinagre.....	.10
Wagons and cars.....	.0067	Carros.....	.02
Walking canes.....	.3338	Bastones.....	.02
Walnuts.....	.0167	Nueces.....	.05
Water jugs, of clay, common....	.0167	Cantarillas ordinarias de barro..	.05
Waters, mineral, such as Vichy and others.....	.0167	Aguas minerales, como las de Vichy y otras.....	.05
Waters, poison, for curing hides.	.0167	Aguas envenenadas para cueros.	.05
Wax, in the rough.....	.0334	Cera en bruto.....	.10
Weeding hooks.....	.0067	Escardillas para agricultura....	.02
Wheat.....	.0067	Trigo.....	.02

Articles.	Duty per pound in U. S. currency.	Artículos.	Derechos por kilo en moneda ecuatoriana.
	<i>Dollars.</i>		<i>Pesos.</i>
Wheels and spare parts for machinery used in agriculture and manufacture0067	Ruedas y piezas para las maquinarias de agricultura é industria02
Wheels for carts and trucks0067	Ruedas para carretas y carretillas02
Wines in any kind of vessel.....	.0334	Vinos en cualquier envase.....	.10
Wire, barbed, and staples for inclosures0067	Alambre y grapas para cercas...	.02
Woolen goods, whether woven or not.....	.1669	Todos los articulos de lana tejidos ó sin tejer, sin trama ó con ella.....	.50
Zinc, manufactured or in perforated sheets.....	.0334	Zinc manufacturado ó en planchas perforadas.....	.10
Zinc, unmanufactured or in sheets not perforated.....	.0067	Zinc en bruto ó en planchas no perforadas.....	.02

NOTES.

Clothing, ready-made, such as shirts, chemises, dresses, frock-coats, waistcoats, etc., with the exception of flannel or stockinet undershirts and drawers, and socks and stockings, shall pay an additional tax of 25 per cent. on the duties of their class according to the material of which they are made.

For the distinct purposes specified by the law there will be imposed a surcharge of 20 per cent. on import duties.

For the liquidation of the national foreign debt there will be imposed an additional duty of 10 per cent. on the import taxes.

This surcharge will go into operation six months after the signing of an agreement for the liquidation of the English debt.

In rating articles formed of various materials, the classification will be according to the chief component material, it being understood that the principal component is that which enters more largely into the manufacture of an article and thus determines its nature.

If in the same package there should be found articles belonging to distinct classes, the whole contents shall be rated as of the class paying the highest duty.

If the same package should be found to contain articles not dutiable with those which are, there will be levied upon the entire contents the duty to which the latter are subject.

If the same package should contain prohibited as well as articles not prohibited the whole contents shall be confiscated.

In order that the provisions of this article have effect, there must be shown omission to express in detail on the manifest all the requirements therein prescribed.

Should the contents of a package be entirely different from that described in the manifest and declaration, double duty will be levied thereon.

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FREE LIST.

Articles destined for the promotion of public instruction or for the use of charitable institutions, under authorization of the Government, who shall grant it at the request of the head of the respective department or establishment.

Articles for foreign religious institutions established in the country, and which by virtue of contracts made before the passage of this law enjoy this privilege. It will not be accorded when said contracts are renewed.

Articles imported by the Government for public use or ornamentation.

Articles imported for church service and the Catholic worship, if the order be issued by the Government upon application certified to by the diocesan prelate or his vicar-general, accompanied by the bill of lading and copy of the invoices.

Articles intended for the personal use of foreign diplomatic agents accredited to the Government of Ecuador, provided reciprocity is accorded by the nations they represent.

Bridges, iron, and accessories.

Buoys of iron.

Carbolic acid and chloride of lime.

Coal, and animal charcoal.

Coin, legal, of silver or gold.

Eggs.

Fire-engines and apparatus and all necessary parts.

Fruit, fresh.

Gold-dust and ingots.

Guano.

Hose for fire engines.

Life-preservers.

Lint for wounds.

Live stock.

Luggage of travelers up to 92 kilos for each person, provided that the traveler and baggage arrive in the same vessel. Duty will be collected on the excess. By luggage are meant articles intended for personal use, such as clothing, boots and shoes, bedding, saddlery, arms, and the instruments used in the profession of the traveler, even if they have not been previously used.

Metallic cocoa-dryers.

Peru, natural or manufactured products of, of legal trade and not prohibited by Ecuador, when imported overland. This

LIBRES DE DERECHOS.

Los artículos destinados al fomento de la instrucción pública ó al servicio de casas de caridad, previa órden del Gobierno, que la dictará á pedimento de la autoridad superior del respectivo ramo ó establecimiento.

Los artículos para los institutos religiosos extrangeros establecidos en el país, y que, en virtud de contratos anteriores á esta ley, gocen de esta concesión. No se reiterará ésta cuando se renueven dichos contratos.

Los efectos que vengan por cuenta del Gobierno destinados á un objeto de utilidad ó adornos públicos.

Los artículos que se introduzcan para servicio de las iglesias y del culto católico previa órden del Gobierno, á pedimento autorizado por el respectivo prelado diocesano ó por su vicario general y acompañado del conocimiento y copia de la factura.

Los efectos destinados al uso personal de los ministros públicos ó agentes diplomáticos extrangeros, acreditados ante el Gobierno del Ecuador, siempre que haya reciprocidad de parte de las naciones que representen.

Puentes de hierro y sus útiles.

Boyas de hierro.

Acido fénico y cloruro de calcio.

Carbon de piedra ó animal.

Monedas de ley de plata ú oro.

Huevos de ave.

Bombas y aparatus para apagar incendios; sus útiles y repuestos.

Frutas frescas.

Oro en polvo ó en barras.

Guano.

Mangueras para bombas de incendios.

Salvavidas.

Hilas para curar heridas.

Animales vivos.

Los equipajes de los viajeros hasta el peso de 92 kilogramos por persona, siempre que ésta y aquellos vengan en el mismo buque. Por el exceso se cobrarán derechos. (Entiéndese por equipajes los objetos aplicables al uso personal, como ropa, calzado, cama, montura, armas é instrumentos de la profesión del viajero, aun cuando no hayan comenzado á usar-se.)

Tendales metálicos para secar cacao.

Los productos naturales ó manufacturados del Perú, de lícito comercio y no prohibida introducción en el Ecuador,

FREE LIST—Continued.

exemption shall remain in force so long as Ecuadorian products enjoy the same privilege in Peru. So soon as reciprocity ceases this exemption shall also cease in Ecuador.

Pitch, tar, tackle, copper, canvas, and other articles imported for the building or the repair of vessels, provided an estimate thereof be signed by the captain of the port and approved by the Board of Finance.

Plants, live.

Railway material of all kinds and all the accessories.

Samples of dry goods, small wares of no value, and an odd one of such articles as are sold and used in pairs.

Seeds of every description for sowing.

Silver in mass or bars.

Sulphur for vines.

The executive power is authorized to allow the importation, free of duty, of articles intended by the municipalities for lighting or any other public use, whether the work be executed by contract or by the municipalities themselves.

Timber for making masts and yards.

Trade advertisements.

Vessels, built or in parts.

PROHIBITED ARTICLES.

Carbines, rifles, musketoons, rockets, regulation pistols, and other weapons of warfare.

Counterfeit coin or money not sanctioned by law, copper and nickel coin.

Drinks or potions and food containing poisonous substances or anything injurious to health.

Dynamite and other similar explosives.

Kerosine under 150°.

Machinery or apparatus for coining.

Powder.

Prints, statues, paintings, books, writings, etc., contrary to morality or religion.

Rifle balls, shells, grenades, metallic cartridges for rifles, and other munition of war.

Rum and all liquors made from cane juice.

Salt which has been embargoed during the period of embargo.

LIBRES DE DERECHOS—Continúa.

cuando sean importados por los puertos secos ó de tierra. La exención durará mientras las producciones ecuatorianas gocen de la misma en el Perú. Luego que cese la reciprocidad cesará igualmente esta exención en el Ecuador.

Brea, alquitran, jarcia, cobre, lona y demás artículos que se introduzcan para la construcción ó carena de buques, previo presupuesto visado por el capitán del puerto y aprobado por la junta de hacienda.

Plantas vivas.

Ferro-carriles de toda clase y sus útiles.

Muestras de géneros, artículos pequeños que no tengan valor, y las fracciones de artículos que se venden y usen por pares.

Semillas de toda clase para siembras.

Plata en pasta ó en barras.

Azufre para viñas.

Se autoriza al poder ejecutivo para que permita la importación, libre de derechos, de objetos destinados por las municipalidades para el alumbrado ó cualquier otro uso público, bien sea que los trabajos se ejecuten por empresa ó directamente por aquellas.

Palos para arboladura de buques.

Avisos de fábricas.

Buques armados ó en piezas.

ARTÍCULOS PROHIBIDOS.

Carabinas, fusiles, tercerolas, cohetes, pistolas de munición y demás armas de guerra.

Moneda falsa ó no tolerada por la ley, moneda de cobre y níquel.

Bebidas y artículos alimenticios que contengan sustancias tóxicas ó nocivas á la salud.

Dinamita y demás sustancias explosivas análogas.

Kerosine de menos de 150 grados de potencia.

Máquinas ó aparatos para amonedar.

Pólvora.

Estampas, estatuas, pinturas, libros, escritos, etc., contrarios á la moral ó á la religión.

Balas, bombas, granadas, cartuchos metálicos para fusiles y demás municiones de guerra.

Aguardiente de caña y sus compuestos.

Sal de la sometida al estanco, mientras dure el estancamiento.

PORTS OF THE REPUBLIC.

The ports of the Republic of Ecuador are open to the commerce of all nations.

The ports of Guayaquil, Manta, Caraquez, and Esmeraldas are declared principal ports for commercial operations and competent for the importation of foreign goods and the exportation of national products. Santa Elena, Callo, and Pailon are declared secondary ports, and are open only for exportation.

Inland customs offices shall be established at Loja and Tulcan. These offices shall be intrusted, both for importation and exportation, with the interior traffic of the neighboring Republics.

Guayaquil, Manta, Caraquez, and Esmeraldas shall be the only warehousing ports authorized to effect reembarkments and transshipments.

EXEMPTIONS AS TO ARMS, EXPLOSIVES, ETC.

Only the Government is permitted to introduce, for the needs of the country, ammunition and weapons of war, copper and nickel coins, machinery for coining money, and all the other articles mentioned in Article 52, with the exception of those enumerated in paragraphs 6 and 9.

Whenever powder or dynamite for mining purposes is imported, the interested party shall annex to his request a declaration in duplicate stating the name of the place where he wishes the goods to be conveyed, the marks, numbers, and class of packages, in order that at the foot of the permit granted by the administrator proof of the delivery be appended by the authorities of the mining district.

On the entry the examiner shall state the weight of the packages, and a bond to the satisfaction of the administrator shall be exacted to guarantee the return of the permit within a time proportionate to the distance.

OTHER CUSTOMS RULES AND MODIFICATIONS.

The Executive is authorized to make such modifications compatible with the interests and the treasury of the country to the duties levied on Colombian goods until such time when the free trade which formerly existed between Ecuador and Colombia shall again be established.

In the weight of packages containing fragile articles shall likewise be included the breakage, without giving any right to claims on the part of merchants.

Agricultural and industrial machines shall be comprised in the third class, where they are enumerated, even when imported on different vessels, provided that the consular invoice stipulates that they were shipped complete.

For importations of detached parts of machines which form an integral part thereof or of extra parts, the interested party must, in addition to the consular invoice establishing their quality, accompany his request for a permit with a detailed declaration on ordinary paper. On the entry the examiner shall state the weight of the parts, and a bond, to the satisfaction of the customs, shall be exacted to guarantee the return of the permit within a time proportionate to the distance. The bond shall be entered in the copy of the request, which must be filed in the archives.

When, at the expiration of the time above alluded to, the interested party has not returned the permit viséed by the authority of the place of destination certifying that they have been integrally received, the liquidation shall be effected and double the duties leviabie on such articles as manufactures of iron shall be collected.

The Ecuadorian consuls at the port of shipment or the place of production shall legalize the general manifests and invoices presented to them, in quadruplicate copy, by the shippers. One of these copies shall be remitted to the shipper, another shall be sent to the customs administrator at the place of destination, the third shall be transmitted to the Minister of Finance, and the last shall be preserved in the archives of the consulate.

In default of an Ecuadorian Consul, the legalization shall be made by a consul of a friendly nation ; in default of such consular agents, by the local authority.

Consuls, under pain of dismissal, shall not legalize manifests and invoices destined for ports not open to commerce.

For the legalization of invoices the consuls shall collect the following fees, according to the amount of the invoices: 1 sucre for invoices amounting to \$200, inclusive; 2 sucres from \$200 to \$500, inclusive; 4 sucres from \$500 to \$1,000, inclusive; 50 centavos, in addition to the 4 sucres collected on the first \$1,000, for every additional \$1,000 of the invoice.

For manifests the consuls shall collect a fee of 1 centavo of a sucre for every ton burden.

Customs administrators can not remit to any other authority, or to any other fiscal employé, the quota to which, according to the regulations relating to the matter, those participating are entitled. Particular collectors can not give another destination to the funds they receive than that prescribed by the statutes and regulations, conformably to the repartition established, even in cases where other laws have destined the funds to another purpose.

Customs administrators or particular collectors who violate the dispositions of the preceding paragraph shall be personally responsible, without prejudice to the penalties to be incurred according to the common law.

The Executive is authorized to lease the collection of fiscal duties on the importation of goods at the land customs offices at Loja and Tulcan.

The adjudication of the customs post at Tulcan shall be effected at Quito with the formalities prescribed by the law relative to finance, and before the Board of Finance.

FORMALITIES FOR THE CLEARANCE OF IMPORTED GOODS.

Every importer of foreign goods shall, within a peremptory period of six working days after the arrival of the vessel, furnish a detailed manifest, in triplicate copy, stating the packages, with their marks, numbers, contents, and value.

The importer neglecting this formality shall, according to the importance of the manifest, be subject to a penalty of from \$10 to \$100, pronounced by the administrator.

The customs administrator must, however, grant an equitable delay when the importer or consignee declares under oath that he has not received the invoice.

The importer can in all cases avoid the penalty by abandoning the goods.

The detailed manifests must be accompanied by the bills of lading establishing the

ownership of the cargo, or, in default of these documents, by the visa of the consignee of the vessel.

The consular invoices addressed by consuls to the customs administrator at the port of destination must be the same as those annexed to the detailed manifest. When, owing to whatever circumstances, the consular invoices have not been received by the customs, the administrator shall exact from the importer the copy which he should have received and annex it to the register kept for this purpose, but he will, nevertheless, request from the consul the lost invoice or a legalized copy thereof.

Should the importer not have received the invoice, the administrator shall exact a bond equal to double the duties to guaranty the presentation of this document within a period of ninety days for vessels arriving from Europe or North America and of sixty days for those proceeding from South America. At the expiration of this period the bond shall be forfeited to the Treasury.

Should the interested party desire to clear the goods during this period, he shall be authorized to do so, provided that the duties be paid and the bond above mentioned given to guaranty the payment of double the duties in case the invoice is not furnished within the time stipulated. Consequently, when the consul does not send the invoice within the time stipulated, the amount of the bond is collected, as above prescribed, for the benefit of the Treasury.

The lost invoice may also be replaced by a legalized copy furnished by the Minister of Finance.

Goods cleared without consular invoices must be examined by two examiners, who must sign the request.

One copy of the detailed manifest shall be annexed to the register in which the bills of lading shall be entered, another copy shall be remitted to the warehouse keeper, and the third to the controller.

The interested party can only demand the clearance of all or part of the packages after having presented a detailed manifest of the same.

The contents of a package must be cleared at one time and never in fractions.

The requests for clearance must be in quintuplicate copy. On the first copy the administrator will give the order for clearance, the examiner shall enter therein the nature and weight of the goods, including the package, and the controller shall enter the amount of duties in such manner that this document shall serve as a voucher for the entry in the ledger of customs receipts.

Two of the five copies must be presented with a guarantee, and one of these two shall be preserved in the archives.

On the second copy of the request the examiner shall inscribe the nature of the goods, the weight of the packages, and file the same in the archives; on the third, the controller shall state the weight and nature of the goods and the amount of duties, and file the same in the archives; on the fourth, destined for the archives of the warehouse keeper, must be inscribed in the margin, legibly and indelibly, the packages which the examiner has received for examination and weighing.

This copy the examiner must sign and state the date of clearance, and the interested party must inscribe thereon his receipts for the goods delivered to him by the warehouse keeper.

On the fifth copy the amount of duties shall be copied and delivered to the merchant for his examination and for the payment of the duties within six days, conformably to

paragraph 3 of Article 34. The merchant should, when he has effected the payment preserve this document, as the customs receipt is inscribed thereon.

Errors of figures resulting from weighing or the calculation of duty must be corrected immediately. Should this not be done, the amount of these errors shall be collected at any time, with an annual interest of 9 per cent, either in favor or to the prejudice of the merchant. The controller shall collect the amount due the Treasury as soon as the errors are detected, and the sums so collected shall be entered in the receipts.

Samples, small orders or commissions, new articles intended for a personal use, whoever be the owner or consignee, with the exception of foreign diplomatic agents, shall not be exempt from duty.

Sales effected on board of vessels shall not exempt the goods from the payment of duty nor from the clearance formalities.

For the transfer of goods or packages to order, the purchaser or indorser shall be subject to the same obligation, formalities, and penalties as the principal importer.

1. Transfers of goods may be effected for the entire or part of a manifest.
2. It is not necessary, in cases of transfers, that the request be signed by the principal importer and the purchaser or indorser; the signature of the latter is sufficient.
3. These transfers can be effected even after the detailed manifest has been presented.
4. Goods not imported to order can likewise be transferred, but in such case the request must be signed both by the seller and purchaser or indorser, who will be subject to the same obligations, formalities, and penalties as the former.

When, at the moment of remitting the packages, it be ascertained that articles are missing or have been damaged, mention of this fact shall be made in the receipts, and notice shall be given to the administrator and controller in order to begin proceedings against the transgressors.

The sixth day after having received the notice of the amount of customs duty to be paid, the merchant must remit this amount to the administrator or collector if he does not wish to be exposed to coercitive measures.

A guaranty can not be accepted from an employé for the responsibility of this employer, nor from a company giving bond for a company or firm in which it is interested, and, reciprocally, the bond of a company for one of its members.

Debtors in arrear in the payment of duties can make no request for clearance until they have paid their debts, without prejudice to the interest of 9 per cent per annum up to the date of final payment.

After the withdrawal of the packages from the custom-house no claim for damage or missing goods shall be admitted.

The complaints of merchants relating to the classification of goods which, in their opinion, are not in conformity with the tariff, shall be determined by the customs administrator, verbally and summarily, after taking the opinion of the examiners.

The decisions which the customs administrator is competent to give may be amended or cancelled by the jury of customs when the fact seems indisputable and in conformance to good faith.

The jury shall meet at least once every week.

The treasurer shall fix the days of meeting and convok the other members.

The decisions of the customs administrators relative to administrative and not penal affairs can only be made executory by the Executive.



EXPORT DUTIES.

The export duties shall be levied per 100 kilos, gross weight, in accordance with the following tariff:

	Dollars.		Dollars.
Cocoa	0.64	Caoutchouc	5.00
Coffee64	Mangrove bark64
Hides64	Tobacco	2.00
Orchilla64	Corozo nuts10
Straw for hats (<i>toquilla</i>)	12.00	Sarsaparilla64
Straw for hammocks (<i>mocora</i>)	5.00	Sole leather	1.00

PORT DUES.

Every sailing vessel entering ports of the Republic shall pay a due of 5 centavos of a sucre per ton burden for every light or light-house established at the port of entrance of such vessel.

This due shall be one-half for steam vessels.

No vessels exceeding 30 tons burden can enter or leave the Guayaquil River without a pilot, and, in case of contravention of this rule, the vessel will, nevertheless, be subject to pilot dues as far as the Puna Island.

The pilot dues shall be levied according to the draft of the vessels, to wit: From Santa Clara to Guayaquil, \$2.50 per foot; from Puna to Guayaquil, \$2.50 per foot. This due is the same for entry and clearance. National men-of-war are exempt from this duty, and pilots are required to render them service gratuitously.

Captains of ports shall receive as an emolument \$4.80 for every national or foreign vessel proceeding from a foreign port, and \$1.80 for every crew roll. All vessels of 30 tons burden or less and national ships carrying on the coasting trade of the Republic are exempt from this due.

WAREHOUSE CHARGES.

On all goods imported into the Republic, even those belonging to the first class, the following warehouse charges shall be collected by the customs:

	Centavos.
Packages of large dimensions, such as pipes, large jars, baskets, hampers (<i>jabas</i>), and other similar large recipients	10
Bales, cases, barrels, one-third and quarter skeps with porcelain, of ordinary size	5
For 46 kilos. of lead, iron, steel and other metals; cases containing liqueur and candles; conical jars (<i>piscos</i>), etc.	3
Packages of small dimensions, such as cases with raisins, with soap, small jars, etc.	1

These charges shall be collected monthly, and every month begun shall, for the collection, be considered as an entire month.

On the clearance or reshipment of packages the charges for the entire time of storage shall be collected.

Two years after the storage of a package in the customs warehouse the interested party shall be obliged to reship the same or request its clearance.

At the expiration of two years the administrator shall, after notifying the storer, authorize the sale of the goods at public auction, conformably to law, and from the proceeds of the sale the customs shall retain the duties due. The balance, if any, shall be remitted to the interested party.

Should the proceeds of the sale of the goods at public auction, in compliance with the preceding article, not be sufficient to pay the customs duties, the merchant shall only be required to pay the warehouse charges.

During the time mentioned in Article 153 a merchant may abandon to the customs the goods which he does not desire to import. He will notify the administrator to this effect, who will immediately cause the goods to be sold at public auction, with the legal formalities, but the interested party must pay the warehouse charges.

Goods which must be cleared on the wharf shall only pay, as warehouse charges, the part of the amount collected by the Wharf Company in virtue of clause 12 of its charter. This charge shall be collected directly by the said company.

Combustible or inflammable products shall immediately be cleared on their arrival in the ports; for goods subject to decomposition or deterioration three months shall be allowed. The following are considered as inflammable goods:

Oil in wooden recipients.	Sulphur.	Kerosene.
Acids.	Pitch.	Paraffin.
Florida waters.	Dynamite.	Petroleum.
Brandy in casks or jars.	Ether.	Powder.
Turpentine.	Matches.	Pyroxilin.
Camphor.	Fireworks.	Saltpeter.
Alcohol.	Percussion caps.	
Tar.	Gasoline.	

The following are considered as goods subject to decomposition or deterioration:

Olives in barrels.	Chocolate.	Nuts.
Garlic.	Manioc (<i>chuño</i>).	Fruits, dried in the oven (<i>orejones</i>).
Lavender.	Vermicelli.	Potatoes.
Almonds in sacks.	Fruits, dried.	Raisins.
Starch.	Dried fruits in wooden recipients.	Fish, salted, according to the recipient.
Aniseed.	Biscuits in wooden recipients.	Cheese.
Canary seed.	Flour.	Saltpeter, unrefined.
Sugar in sacks.	Eggs.	Tallow, not rendered.
Sweet potatoes.	Hams.	Tamarinds.
Cloves.	Vegetables, fresh.	Carob beans.
Comestibles, not prepared.	Linseed.	Wine, in casks.
Cumin seed.	Lard or butter.	
Preserves.	Pulse and cereals.	
Hides, green.		
Sugar refuse (<i>chancaca</i>).		

WHARFAGE DUES.

The contract relative to the working of the wharf at Guayaquil, with the dues stipulated therein, shall remain in force.

All vessels shall be required to discharge their cargoes on the wharf. Vessels having a complete cargo of coal, wood, pipes and conducts, machinery, or of other similar

goods, the discharge on the wharf of which would be expensive or prejudicial, may, however, discharge at the place most convenient for the interested party, provided that previous permission be obtained from the customs and an arrangement be concluded with the Wharf Company.

When, owing to their state or construction, vessels can not effect their discharge on the wharf, the Wharf Company or the customs shall be obliged to convey the packages on the wharf or on land by means of lighters at the vessel's expense; in contrary cases neither the vessels nor the packages shall be subject to the dues mentioned in the preceding article.

For the conveyance of packages from the wharf into the customs warehouse the charges stipulated in the tariff at present in force at Guayaquil shall be collected.

Damage and loss happening after the packages have been deposited on the wharf shall be borne by the Treasury, with right of recovery from the contractors intrusted with the conveyance of goods into the customs warehouse.

The Executive is authorized to conclude all arrangements with the Wharf Company which collects part of the warehouse charges. It must make a report on the subject at the following session of the Legislature.

TARIFF OF WHARFAGE DUES.

Every vessel or craft shall pay per ton and per day:

	Dollars.		Dollars.
Up to 10 tons burden.....	2.00	From 101 to 150 tons burden.....	10.00
From 11 to 30 tons burden.....	5.00	From 151 to 200 tons burden.....	12.00
From 31 to 60 tons burden.....	6.00	From 201 to 300 tons burden.....	16.00
From 61 to 100 tons burden.....	8.00	From 301 to 400 tons burden.....	18.00

Every vessel or ship of 401 tons burden and more shall pay \$6 additional per 100 tons in excess.

The Wharf Company shall, for discharging, collect the following dues:

	Dollars.		Dollars.
Kegs (<i>anclotes</i>) of 9 gallons.....	.0325	Demijohns.....	.0125
Barrels of flour or meat, of about 18 gallons.....	.05	Skeps with earthenware or glass ware.....	.25
Jars, empty (quadruple due when filled).....	.03	Half-skeps with earthenware or glassware.....	.1250
Small jars of all kinds.....	.01	Quarter and eighth of skeps with earthenware or glassware.....	.0625
Cases of liqueurs, raisins, and al- monds.....	.01	Barrels of liquids, not exceeding 60 gallons.....	.1250
Cases of soap.....	.0025	Barrels containing glassware.....	.1250
Cases of furniture or pianos.....	.25	Barrels containing iron wares, quin- tal.....	.03
Cases or packages of dry goods or tissues, up to 5 cubic feet.....	.05	Sacks, whatever be their contents, quintals.....	.04
Cases or packages, up to 8 cubic feet.	.0625	Seroons, with hats, indigo, or any other article.....	.25
Cases or packages, up to 12 cubic feet.....	.1250		
Small tubs of all kinds (<i>cuñetes</i>)....	.01		
Iron, lead, or tin, crude.. quintal..	.03		

For the conveyance of goods from the wharf into the customs warehouse the contractors must conform exactly to clause 6 of their charter, which reads as follows :

“No modification can be made to the tariff at present in force in the customs-house at Guayaquil for the conveyance of goods from the wharf to the warehouse, and no charges shall be collected by the contractors other than those already established in commerce ; these charges must be maintained during the entire period of the privilege and can, under no pretext, be modified by the parties.”

The contractors shall be responsible for lost and damaged goods from the time of receiving them to the moment of their entry into the customs warehouse.

NATIONALIZATION DUES.

National vessels or vessels for which nationalization is requested shall pay the following dues :

For a tonnage of from—	Dollars.
10 to 20 tons	1. 00
21 to 50 tons	2. 00
51 to 100 tons	4. 00
101 to 200 tons	8. 00
201 to 300 tons	12. 00
301 tons and above	16. 00

Ships of small tonnage shall be subject to no nationalization dues, and the necessary documents shall be delivered to them gratuitously on legal stamped paper.

Nationalization documents for vessels of 10 tons and above shall be issued by the Executive and viséed by the Minister for Foreign Affairs, and those of smaller craft by the governor of the Province, and they shall be viséed by his secretary.

GENERAL REGULATIONS.

Nationalization documents for vessels shall be valid for two years. In case the vessel should be sold, this document shall likewise be valid up to the expiration of two years.

Owners and brokers of lighters, barges, and other craft of small tonnage proceeding from Tumbes, Sechura, and other ports of the northern coast of Peru, shall not be required to furnish a manifest and invoices, provided that they do not transport manufactured goods.

The Executive decree of March 27, 1886, which forms part of the present customs law, in so far as not in contradiction with its prescriptions, is hereby approved.

To facilitate customs operations, and in case of doubt as to the interpretation of customs formalities, the Executive, after taking the advice of the Council of State, is authorized to decide thereon.

All anterior laws relative to the matters mentioned in the present law are repealed.

The Executive shall publish a new edition of the customs laws, with all the modifications and changes necessary in numbering the articles. The import and export tariffs will be published separately, with a special numbering, and with translations in the English, French, German, and Italian languages.

TEMPORARY REGULATIONS.

Merchants who have not presented in due time the detailed manifests shall not incur the penalty mentioned in Article 65 of the former customs law.

The penalties already paid by merchants shall be refunded to them by means of a discount of 20 per cent on the amount of every payment which in future they effect in the custom-house.

Two models of apparatus and machinery, imported into the Republic to be exhibited as advantageous for national agriculture or industry, shall be exempt from customs duty during one year.

The inland customs office at Santa Rosa, established by legislative decree of August 18, 1885, is abolished.

NEW TARIFF LAW VETOED.

A reformation of the custom-house law and tariff was passed through the 1892 Congress, but was vetoed by the President.* Its principal features were: Free introduction of plows, agricultural machinery, and pumps; increase of duties on wood from $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 centavo per kilo; decrease of duties on beer from 5 centavos to 2 centavos; on shot, from 2 sucres to 5 centavos per kilo; on Cologne and Florida waters (scents), from 1 sucre 50 centavos to 5 centavos per kilo; and the withdrawal of the 25 per cent surcharge on all manufactured clothing, in addition to the duties on the materials of which they are made.

This law also opened to export commerce the ports of Manglar, Alto, Machalilla, and Salango.

* British Foreign Office Report, 1892. Annual Series. No. 1135.

Appendix C.

IMMIGRATION AND LAND LAWS OF ECUADOR.

A report submitted on the 10th of June, 1890, to the National Congress of Ecuador, by the Secretary of the Treasury of that Republic, contains the information that large tracts of land of great fertility belonging to the Government, situated in various parts of the country, are absolutely valueless because no person has come as yet to settle on them and develop their productive capacities. The report states that, although under the law of December 7, 1875, the Government was authorized to sell the public lands, and about 5,000 hectares were actually sold to private individuals and companies, most of the lands so sold were situated in the neighborhood of cities and other centers of population already flourishing, and in localities where agricultural work had been already done. The great bulk of the public lands of Ecuador, comprising zones of immense extent and of wonderful fertility and agricultural wealth, can not be reached without penetrating the interior of the country. These lands, which lie on both the western and the eastern sides of the Andes, are covered with forests abounding in valuable timber of all descriptions, and offer great opportunities for labor and enterprise.

“No one comes,” says the Secretary of the Treasury, “to take advantage of these treasures. No one asks for them. No colonists come to these lands; and while in the large cities we are starving, the east and the west, which invite all to enjoy enormous wealth and abundance, are entirely ignored.”

President Flores, in his message to the Ecuadorian Congress, June 10, 1890, refers to the problem of foreign immigration in the following words:

“In regard to foreign immigration, I must say that it must be preceded by the establishment of the public credit on good substantial foundations, and by good systems of communications and public instruction. I appointed a board at Guayaquil, whose duty it was to attend to and promote this important branch of the public welfare, but that board has been unable to do anything for want of means. Can we ever expect to have any immigration at all without expending annually the sums of money which many South American nations—not to say anything of others on the north—carefully devote to that purpose? Can we do less than those nations, much more favored than ours as

far as climate and facilities of transportation are concerned, especially Chile, Uruguay, and above all, the Argentine Republic, which in this respect must serve as a model to all the other Republics of Spanish America? The problem of foreign immigration, which I have practically studied for many years in the United States, and in regard to which I see that many of our fellow-citizens entertain many illusions, depends for its solution upon high salaries, good climate, ample facilities of communication, abundance of means to make a living and accumulate wealth; all of this to be aided by bureaus of information in Europe, the payment of the passages, and the advantages given to the immigrants, who, as, for instance, in Canada and the Argentine Republic, are lodged and boarded for a certain time at the expense of the nation in hotels kept by the Government, and afterwards provided with lucrative labor. If we lack all these elements, which form the base upon which all plans of immigration must rest, how can we expect to compete with the nations which possess them, and which expend large sums of money every year to enlarge and improve them?

"See how much the other American Republics expend for the purpose of attracting foreign immigration to their territory, whether through the instrumentality of private companies and the State governments, as in the United States, or through the action of the National Government. The Argentine Republic, after having established immigration bureaus in the principal European centers, made arrangements with her National Bank and became responsible up to \$1,000,000 for the payment of passages in advance. In 1889, Uruguay applied a portion of a loan of \$20,000,000 to promote immigration, and entered into contracts for the settlement on its territory of 2,000 or 3,000 Italian families, and 1,000 from Viscaya. In the very same year Brazil voted for identical purposes \$5,000,000. Are we in such a condition as to be able to expend money for immigration purposes? And even if our budget would allow us to do so, would that expense be justified in view of the condition of our roads and of the fact that we have no work to give to the immigrants? That which happened with the Jamaicans brought from the Isthmus for the works of the Southern Railroad, and the rapid dispersion of the 10,000 laborers who had worked there on the canal, are facts sufficient in themselves to answer the question.

"Let us reestablish our credit; let us offer guaranties to all foreigners; let us afford facilities to come to our country and to travel within its limits; let us furnish comfort and means of prosperity; and then, and then only, we shall have immigration. In the meantime it is simply a loss of time to occupy ourselves with this matter.

"The immigrants now settled in Ecuador coming from Colombia are calculated to be 40,000. They are the only ones whom we can have for the moment, and we must treat them as brothers, and remember that in the dawn of the Ecuadorian nationality our country wanted no other name than that of 'Ecuador in Colombia.' Seven years ago, in testimony of that fraternity, I dedicated to conservative Colombians, before their triumph, my work on the Great Marshal of Ayacucho.

"Hatred to foreigners is a sentiment felt only among people little advanced in civilization and is antagonistic to Christian charity. There is not only honor but also advantage in treating the foreigners well. The United States are a good example of this truth, because, thanks to foreign immigration, they have succeeded in little more than one century in increasing their population from 3,000,000 to 65,000,000. That increase will continue, I am persuaded, at the rate of 1,000,000 per year. Owing to this fact,

they can compete in civilization and progress with the most advanced nations of the Old World.

"Although as fully aware as the most and the best informed on the subject, of all the advantages of immigration, I will abide, in full agreement with the Council of State, by the decree which forbade Chinese immigration. The reasons on which this prohibition is based are set forth in a separate message."

LAW OF DECEMBER 7, 1875, ON THE SALE OF PUBLIC LANDS.

ARTICLE 1. Authority is hereby given to the Executive power to sell all the lands which, according to Article 579 of the Civil Code, belong to the State, such sales to be made, however, subject to the provisions of the present law.

ART. 2. The Executive shall also have power to sell, after condemnation, under Article 25 of the Constitution, such lands granted by the Government to private parties as are now, or may be found hereafter, uncultivated; provided that ten years have elapsed since the concession, and that during that period a railroad, or a road of another kind, giving value and importance to the said lands, has been built by the Government, or at its expense, without affecting, however, the condition of the lands.

Nothing in this provision shall be construed as being applicable to lands difficult of cultivation, as the Cordillera desert, the prairies, or the swamps near the coast.

ART. 3. Preference shall be given in the sale of public lands to those purchasers actually engaged in the cultivation, whether wholly or partially, of the same, and to the owners of the neighboring tracts of land, if they do not own more than 200 hectares.

If the tract of land under cultivation does not exceed 20 hectares the Executive shall make gratuitously the conveyance thereof to the party who keeps it in that condition, provided that the said tenant habitually resides upon it.

ART. 4. No sales or concessions of public lands shall be made without a previous survey and demarkation of the limits of the tracts or lots sold, which shall never exceed 200 hectares. If between the area thus fixed and some natural limit, as for instance a river, a lake, etc., some vacant space should be found, less than one hundred hectares in extent, it shall be annexed to the adjacent lot.

All sales, if any, heretofore made, without previous survey, or upon an incorrect one, shall be held valid in so far as the amount of land which, according to the standard of prices established by previous laws or fixed at public auction at any time subsequent to the first disposition thereof, has been paid for. But this provision is applicable only to these sales of public lands made after the date on which the law of October 13, 1821, was put into force in the territory of Ecuador.

ART. 5. The Government shall appoint the engineer or surveyor to whom the survey of the public lands is to be intrusted; and the said engineer or surveyor shall divide the lots and mark the limits of each one by planting trees, or otherwise, and draw the proper map.

All the expenses incurred in this operation shall be paid by the Government; but each purchaser shall be bound to pay, over and above the price of his lot, a sum equivalent to 10 per cent on the amount of the price, which shall be applied to cover said expenses.

ART. 6. The price to be paid for each acre of ground, of whatever class, situated at an altitude higher than 2,000 meters above the level of the sea shall be 20 cents. If the

lands are at an altitude varying from 1,000 to 2,000 meters, the price shall be 30 cents; but if they are situated at any height less than 1,000 meters, the price shall be 40 cents per hectare.

Such tracts of land as are comprised in the two last-mentioned classes and prove to be stony shall represent only one-half their real area, so that, for the purpose of making one lot, 2 hectares shall be held to be 1.

The parties interested in the purchase of these lands shall submit sealed proposals to the governor of the locality, who shall forward them to the Secretary of the Treasury fifteen days after the publication by his order of the proper notices or advertisements. The Secretary of the Treasury shall make the adjudication or concession in favor of the highest bidder, provided that the price offered by him be not lower than the one established by law.

The deed of sale shall not be executed until after the purchaser has paid into the Treasury the price of the land and 10 per cent additional to cover the expenses of the survey. This payment shall be made within fifteen days from the date of the adjudication or concession.

As soon as the payment is made the Secretary of the Treasury shall cause the deed to be executed before the proper notary public, and shall then deliver it to the purchaser, who shall have to pay no fees or charges of any kind. The certificate of payment of the price into the Treasury shall be fully inserted in the deed.

Sales shall become, *ipso jure*, void—(1) if the purchaser does not pay the price of the land within the period stated in one of the foregoing paragraphs; (2) if the purchaser does not put at least one-fifth of the lot under cultivation within ten years after the date of the deed. In the latter case the price paid by the purchaser shall be forfeited for the benefit of the nation.

ART. 7. The lots shall be sold alternately, so as to always allow one lot to stand vacant and subject to future disposition between those sold.

One-fifth part of the lands so reserved shall be set apart to defray the expenses of public instruction, those of the municipal service in any new towns to be erected in the localities in which they are situated, and all others incurred in consequence of the establishment of inns, the employment of watchmen or policemen to do service on the roads, and the support of religious and charitable institutions.

The intermediate lots shall not be sold until at least a fifth part of the area of each adjacent lot is under cultivation.

ART. 8. The Bureau of Statistics shall keep and preserve the maps made by order of the Government preliminary to the sale of any tract of public land. An index or registry of the sales made shall be also kept at that Bureau, and the proper reference thereto shall be made on each map.

ART. 9. Whenever the lands to be disposed of under the provisions of this law are covered by forests dividing Provinces, cantons, or parishes from each other, the determination of the limits of each territorial division shall belong to the Council of State. The Council of State shall give preference, whenever practicable, to natural limits.

ART. 10. The Government shall make grants, of no more than 100 hectares, for the establishment of colonies; but no deed of ownership shall be given until the tract of land is under actual cultivation, and has been so for five years at least.

ART. 11. In order to secure the preservation of peace and order on the public roads to be opened across the forests as stated in the foregoing articles, to keep the same in

good repair, and to protect the mail service, a police service shall be organized by the Government with sufficient force to allow posts or stations to be kept at the distance of from 6 to 15 miles from each other. Each post or station shall consist of a house, built at the expense of the Government, and a lot of 100 hectares capable of cultivation. It shall be provided with all the necessary agricultural implements, and with tools, material, and everything necessary to keep the section of road to which the station belongs in good condition of repair.

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Appendix D.

PATENT LAWS OF ECUADOR.

The Congress of the Republic of Ecuador consider that it is important to regulate the mode and form of grant of patents of invention in order to avoid their being transformed into a species of monopoly and to facilitate the acquisition of them if useful to science, art, and industry. It is decreed—

ARTICLE I. The law assures to every inventor the full and entire enjoyment of his own invention, provided that it be not contrary to the laws or good morals.

ART. 2. The following shall be considered as inventions: The means or methods which may be discovered for the improvement of any manufacture or industry.

ART. 3. The following shall not be considered as inventions: Those which consist in theoretical modifications or objects of pure ornament.

ART. 4. The State shall have power to buy for public use the secret of any invention useful to industry.

ART. 5. To assure the author of an invention or of an improvement the enjoyment of his exclusive property, a patent is to be conceded to him of which the duration shall not be less than ten (10) years or more than fifteen (15).

ART. 6. It is unlawful to grant patents to inventors of secret remedies. They ought to publish the compositions of these under the reserve of a just indemnity.

ART. 7. The introducers of machines or of new methods of manufacture or industry unknown heretofore in the Republic, will have the right of obtaining exclusive patents, which will be conceded upon the following scale:

ART. 8. If the establishment of the machine or industry imported requires a capital or an advance of 25,000 pesos, the patent will be granted for three years; if this capital be raised to 50,000 pesos, it will be granted for six years; and if the same capital amounts to 100,000 pesos or more, it will be granted for ten years.

ART. 9. The patent conceded to introducers of machines or of novel methods of manufacture or of industry already known and employed abroad will only effect for the locality where the machine will be worked or the territory necessary for its exploitation.

MANNER OF OBTAINING PATENTS OF INVENTION, IMPROVEMENT, OR IMPORTATION.

ART. 10. The applicant for a patent in any one of these classes must present to the Executive an application, in which he will explain what the invention or improvement consists in, reserving to himself the secret of the method of the substances or of the ingredients of which he makes use or of the instrument which he employs. This

application must be accompanied by a specimen of the article, of the metal worked, or of the improved invention.

ART. 11. When an application is made for a patent of importation the interested party will add to his application drawings or models of the machine which he proposes to establish or a detailed specification describing the principles, methods, and processes of the industry which he desires to establish in the territory of the Republic as well as the product which he proposes to manufacture.

ART. 12. The Government will then name a commission of three competent persons to judge of the matter and examine the process or secret constituting the invention, improvement, or importation.

ART. 13. This commission will be always presided over by the political chief of the canton where the patent is to be worked; and if the patent be taken for the entire Republic, by the chief of the canton where the application shall be presented and by two members of the municipal council, who will proceed to the examination of the matter set forth in the preceding article.

ART. 14. The two members of the municipal council and the three members of the commission named by the Government will take before the same political chief an oath not to reveal the secret of the invention or improvement and to conscientiously perform their mission.

ART. 15. The commission and the two members of the municipal council will then discuss (the interested party not being present) the advice which they ought to present, taking care to set forth all the divergences of opinion which may occur between themselves.

ART. 16. The advice or report mentioned in the preceding article will be remitted under sealed cover with "communication réservée" to the Minister of the Interior. In the same envelope will be inclosed the description of the manufacture, machine or other details which constitute the invention, the improvement, or importation.

ART. 17. Within a maximum period of three months after the receipt of the report of the commission charged to examine the invention, improvement, or importation of the new industry, the Executive power will remit to Congress the papers furnished by the applicant, as well as the report cited above.

The Congress, after examination, will concede or refuse the patent. In the first case it will return the papers presented by the Executive power, and the latter will send the patent upon stamped paper of the 10th class, and cause to be registered at the Ministry of the Interior the application or specification spoken of in Article 11.

ART. 18. In order to avoid the abuse which owners of patents can make of their patents, the Government will declare upon the same that it does not guaranty either the reality, the merit, or the utility of the invention, improvement, or importation, and that the interested party will work the same at his own risk and peril.

ART. 19. The owner of a patent who shall desire to make changes in his invention or in his original application before obtaining his patent or before the expiration of the term of his patent, must make a declaration in writing, accompanied by the description of his new methods in the form and fashion prescribed in Article 10, in order to obtain a corresponding alteration in his patent, of which the duration shall not in the meantime be prorogued.

THE RIGHTS OF OWNERS OF PATENTS.

ART. 20. The owner of a patent shall enjoy exclusively the benefit of an invention, improvement, or importation made the object of his patent.

ART. 21. He shall have the right of forming establishments in all parts of the Republic, if his invention is taken for the whole extent of it, or all of the localities to which he shall be limited, or to authorize parties to employ his methods, as well as to dispose of his right as personal property.

ART. 22. The owner of a patent shall not be able to assign it in whole or in part, except by a notarial act, under pain of losing all rights to his patent.

ART. 23. In case of an interference or doubt between the authors of two applications, the priority of application for a patent shall be decided by the certificate of the Under Secretary of State for the Interior, who shall inscribe the date and hour of the presentation of the respective applications.

ON THE DURATION OF PATENTS.

ART. 24. The duration of patents of invention, improvement, or importation shall commence to run from the date of the decree of their grant.

ART. 25. The letters patent once accorded by the Government shall be registered in a special book at the Ministry of the Interior. At the same Ministry shall remain also filed until the expiration of the term of the patent the original application, the specification, and other papers spoken of in Article 10.

ART. 26. The grant of patents shall be communicated officially by the Minister of the Interior to the governors of the cantons and published in the Official Journal. It shall also be transcribed in the collections of laws and decrees.

CONCERNING THE RIGHTS OF THE NATION AT THE EXPIRATION OF THE TERM OF THE PATENT.

ART. 27. When the term of duration of a patent has expired the invention, the improvement, or the importation of the new industrial process for which such patent has been granted will become public property.

ART. 28. At the expiration of a patent the specification and other documents mentioned in Article 10 will be published and deposited in the public library of the capital of the Republic.

ART. 29. When a patent shall be declared void from any of the causes mentioned in the law, it shall likewise be published and deposited in the public library with the object mentioned in Article 27.

ART. 30. The Government will print the specifications and drawings required for the understanding of the process when it shall become public property, and will forward a sufficient number of copies to the governors of Provinces.

CONCERNING GUARANTIES FOR THE PATENT AGAINST FRAUD.

ART. 31. The patentee, if he can show sufficient cause, may, by provisional mandate, require the sequestration of machinery, instruments, or products used or manufactured in infringement of his rights; observing with regard thereto the provisions of the law as in force.

ART. 32. The proprietor of such goods shall, if proved guilty of fraud, be condemned to the confiscation of the goods seized for the benefit of the patentee, and also to the payment to the latter of damages and interest in proportion to the importance of the fraud.

ART. 33. If the offense be not proved the (patentee) plaintiff shall pay the defendant for the damages caused by the seizure, and further a fine equal to that which would have been imposed on the defendant if he had been convicted of fraud.

ART. 34. If the patentee be disturbed in the exercise of his exclusive rights he may bring any persons so disturbing him before the ordinary tribunals by which the penalties provided by the preceding articles may be imposed. But if he shall raise any discussion as to the validity of the patent, judgment must be given by the administration in the person of the Minister of the Interior.

ART. 35. In case of dispute between two patentees with regard to two exactly similar inventions, the patent first granted shall be considered valid.

ART. 36. The second patentee shall in this case be considered as improver of the invention.

CONCERNING GUARANTIES FOR THE NATION AGAINST ABUSES BY THE PATENTEES.

ART. 37. Shall be declared void all patents granted for an invention, improvement, or importation which the tribunals shall condemn as contrary to the laws of the State, to public safety, or to police regulations. The patentee will in this case forfeit all claim to an indemnity.

ART. 38. The patents shall also be declared to have lapsed in the following cases: (1) If the inventor be proved to have concealed in his specification the true method of working his invention; (2) if the inventor be proved to have used secret processes which have not been detailed in his specification nor in the declaration which, by Article 19, he is allowed to make to modify the same; (3) if the inventor, or one pretending to be such, be proved to have obtained a patent for an invention which has already been described and published through the press in the Republic or elsewhere; (4) if the patentee has allowed a year and a day to pass from the date of granting the patent without having worked his invention and without having justified himself in view of the circumstances as allowed by the laws; (5) if the inventor or the licensee of his rights, on any grounds, shall violate the obligations attached to the use of his patent.

ART. 39. In all cases where the patent shall go void or lapse, from any cause, the provision of Article 27 will be applied.

ART. 40. Every patentee must undertake to submit to the laws of the country on all occasions with regard to his patent, and must expressly reject all complaint or diplomatic intervention.

ART. 41. All patentees who have patents already in the Republic are subject, as regards the conditions involving the lapse of such patent, to the provisions of this present law.

PROTECTION OF TRADE-MARKS.

As there is no special law for the registration of trade-marks, they are protected under the general head of "privileges."* For this privilege to be effective, it is necessary that the trade-mark should be registered in the court at Quito. It should be sent in duplicate and attested by the signature of the owners. The plan for any manufacturer to pursue to carry out this registration would be to send a power of attorney, properly "viséd" by an Ecuadorian consular officer in the United States, to the patent agent in Quito.

Infringement of the rights thus registered is punishable by a heavy fine, part of which goes to the informer and part to the patent agent who prosecutes.

* British Foreign Office Report, 1893. Annual Series. No. 1146.

Appendix E.

COMMERCIAL DIRECTORY OF ECUADOR.

AMBATO.

Importers and exporters.

- Barona Hermanos, general merchandise.
- Chacón Hermanos, druggists.
- Costales, Vicente A., general merchandise.
- Puyal, Ramón, general merchandise.
- Sevilla, Aquilino, general merchandise.

BABAHOYO.

Merchants, cotton and woolen stuffs.

- Barrera, Benigno.
- Barrola, Francisco.
- Espinosa & Barreto.
- Flores, María.
- Guerrero, José.
- Guzmán & Co., Paulino.
- Lama, Antonio.
- Verdereti, Ramón.

Provision merchants.

- Acevedo, Catalina.
- Avendaño, Pedro.
- Bueñano, M.
- Camacho, Adelaida.
- Cardona, José B.
- Castillo, Fidel.
- Cornejo & Co.
- Escandón, Amador R.
- Fileur, Pablo.
- Iturralde, Aurora.
- Orozeo, J.
- Torres, Dolores.
- Vega, Nicolas.

BABAHOYO—Continued.

Provision merchants—Continued.

- Villaus, Belisario.
- Vivas, Julio.

Woven goods.

- Barzola, Francisco.
- Barreto & Espinosa.
- Guerrero, J.
- Marino, Manuel.
- Saona, Antonio.
- Vasquez, César A.
- Verdesoto, Ramón.

BAHIA DE CARAQUEZ.

Importers and exporters.

- Ceperat, Juan.
- Constantini, Z.
- Goddard, E. I.
- Gostalle, Josefa V. de.
- Polit, Juan.
- Santos & Co.
- Santos, Alejandro.
- Santos, Elio A.
- Seperak, I.
- Uscocovich, G.
- Villacis, G.

BALLENITA.

Merchant.

- Millett, Alberto.

CALZETA.

Merchants,

- Alarcón, J. J.
- Albán, Florencio.
- Villavicencio, G. L.



CANOA.*Importers and exporters.*

Lozano, F.
Santos, J. A.

CHONE.*Importers and exporters.*

Bowen, Oliva.
Constantini, Zéfiro.
Hidalgo, Jacinto.
Hidalgo, Miguel.
Olea, José.
Santos, Elio A.
Uscocovich, G.
Villavicencio, S.

CUENCA.*Bank.*

Sucursal del Banco del Ecuador.

Merchants.

Aguilar, Antonio.
Aguilar, Vicente.
Diaz, Dolores.
Diaz, Vicente.
Izquierdo, Eloy.
Jonroe, Juan.
Ochoa, Ignacio.
Ordonez Bros.
Regalado, Andrés.
Valencia, J. F.

Quinquina, sulphur.

Flores & Carlo, L.
Vivar, Victor.

ESMERALDAS.*Cigar manufacturers.*

Aba, José.
Figuro, José.
Figura, José.
Molina, N.
Molina, Vicente.

Merchants.

Arroyo, Teodomiro.
Bueno, Elías.
Calderón, Antonio.

ESMERALDAS—Continued.*Merchants—Continued.*

Conchas, Julio.
Díaz, Téofilo.
Guerra, Facundo.
Guerrero, M.
Guerrero, Mariano.
Gunes, Pedro.
Martínez, Ramón.
Meneses, Juana.
Palacios, Miguel M.
Piloro, Antonio.
Portes, Adriano.

Merchants, importers and exporters.

Calderón, Manuel A.
Canduti, David.
Gastelu, M.
Gomez, Pedro G.
Lopez, José.
Manaño, Rogelio.
Prias & Co.
Quintero, Ladislao.
Quiteria, Miguel A.
Racines, Firso.
Solari, Benito.
Triarte, Telesforo.
Trujillo, Placencio.
Villasis, Ramón.
YamijSELLI, Ant.
Zuñiga, Rosalia.

GUAYAQUIL.*Banks and bankers.*

Banco de Crédito Hipotecario.
Banco del Ecuador.
Banco Internacional.
Banco Territorial.
London Bank of Mexico and South
America, Limited.
Coronel, Francisco J.
Lopez, Daniel.
Reinberg, Martin & Ca.
Seminario Hnos.
Stagg, L. C.

GUAYAQUIL—Continued.

Commission merchants.

Alvarado y Befarano.
 Arroyo, Manuel M.
 Bravo Hnos.
 Caamaño y Roblés.
 Calderón, Benigno S.
 Carbó, Pedro Mariño.
 Castillo & Ca.
 Castro, Velázquez y Ca.
 Coronel, Francisco J.
 Franco, Juan de D.
 Gálvez, Francisco J.
 León, Ricardo,
 Lopez, Daniel.
 Pavia, Eduardo.
 Pazmiño Hnos.
 Peña, Velarmino.
 Ponce, Luis M.
 Reinberg, Martin & Ca.
 Requena, Enrique.
 Reyna, Leonardo.
 Serrano, Leandor & Ca.
 Seminario Hnos.
 Stagg, L. C.
 Suarez, Manuel M.
 Tarry, Eduardo.
 Tolá, Agustin.
 Villavicencio, J. F.
 Zevallos Hnos.

Exporters.

Arroyo, Manuel M.
 Avilés, Thomas F.
 Bruno, Rigoberto Sanchez.
 Caamaño & Roblés.
 Coronel, J.
 Hijos de Luzarraga.
 Kaiser, Oldenburg & Ca.
 Madrid, Fernandez.
 Maro, Oneteria & Ca.
 Reinberg, Martin & Ca.
 Reyre Hnos.
 Roca & Henriques.
 Saenz, Mountjoy & Pavia.
 Urgelles, J. M.
 Zevallos Hnos.

GUAYAQUIL—Continued.

Importers of Chinese goods.

Almacén de Té y Sedería.
 Con San Cui & Ca.
 Ni Sing & Ca.
 On Chong & Ca.
 On Long & Ca.
 San Lee & Ca.
 San Long & Ca.
 Sin Ni Wo & Ca.
 Sun Chong Wo & Ca.
 Vo San Long.
 Woon & Ca.
 Wo Sing & Ca.

Importers of general merchandise.

Abadie Hnos.
 Arroyo, Manuel María.
 Bunge & Co.
 Chambers, Geo.
 Duran & Levrey.
 Goldschmidt, Alfredo.
 Grosberger.
 Guillamet, José.
 Henriques, E. H., successor of.
 Hurtado, M. G.
 Jones, R. B., & Ca.
 Koppel, Karl, & Ca.
 Kruger & Ca.
 Lopez, Daniel.
 Mejía, Manuel & Ca.
 Marin y Ollague.
 Murillo, G. E.
 Norero, N., & Ca.
 Orrantio, M.
 Osa, Novertó & Ca.
 Pena, Oscar.
 Reinberg, Martin & Ca.
 Rhode, E., & Ca.
 Saenz, Montjoy & Pavia.
 Seminario Hnos.
 Stagg, L. C.
 Vignola & Costa.
 Ycaza, Francisco J.
 Zevallos Hermanos.

Importers of groceries.

Alarcón, Francisco.
 Barretta, Gerónimo.

GUAYAQUIL—Continued.

Importers of groceries—Continued.

Biggio, Luis.
 Bottaro, Juan.
 Calvo, Carreras.
 Campodónica, César.
 Campodónica, Miguel.
 Canepa, Manuel.
 Carbo, Manuel José.
 Castagneto & Ca.
 Castillo & Ca.
 Chinga, Toribia.
 Cussianovich, José.
 Duppiere, Roberto.
 Forsa & Podestá.
 Frugone, Pio G.
 Game, F. M.
 Guzmán, Gumercindo.
 Inzua, Ramón.
 Juanola & Ca.
 Kruger & Ca.
 Madinyá & Ca.
 Mearfá & Ca.
 Mórtola, Juan.
 Mortula, Fortunato.
 Murillo y Vargas Machuca.
 Mejía & Ca.
 Parodi, Agustini.
 Parodi Hnos.
 Parodi, Luis.
 Plaza, Almiro.
 Puig, Verdequez, Jaime.
 Puig, Verdequez, T.
 Ribera, Joaquín.
 Rodríguez & Ca.
 Sanchez, Carlos M.
 Segala, Lértora.
 Sercovich, Jorge.
 Sonino, José.
 Tramontana, Lucas.

Importers of hardware.

Alvarado y Bejo.
 Chevasco & Ca.
 Duran & Ca.
 Garrier, Maurice.
 Gamez, J. Prio, successor of.

GUAYAQUIL—Continued.

Importers of hardware—Continued.

Icaza, Francisco J.
 Icaza, Oldenburg & Ca.
 Kaiser, Guillermo.
 Kruger & Ca.
 Medida, Damián J.

Importers of linen goods and haberdashery.

Aguirre, Pedro A.
 Azevado y Wagner.
 Baluarte, Manuel.
 Bianchi, José.
 Cabazes Hnos.
 Castellano, Domingo.
 Cucalón, Roberto.
 Drouet, Obdulio.
 Flores, Vicente, y Hnos.
 Gainsborg, S. H.
 Grimaldo, Antonio.
 Grosberger, S. C.
 Hurtado, Miguel.
 Icaza.
 Kaiser, Guillermo.
 Madinyá & Ca.
 Mateus, Manuel A.
 Nobva y Macias, Tfno.
 Raimond, C.
 Renella, Antonio.
 Roggiero e Hijo, Enrique.
 Saona, Armando.
 Sanchez, Vergara & Ca.
 Terán Hnos.
 Zevallos, Francisco A.

Importers, miscellaneous.

Banqueriso, Feo Juan, office furniture.
 Barcoto & Ca., drugs.
 Botica Comercio, drugs.
 Bunge & Ca., dry goods.
 Carbo, Manuel José, glass and earthen ware.
 Cevallos, Francisco, dry goods.
 Chevasco & Ca., naval supplies.
 Druet, Obdulio, dry goods.
 Empresa de Carros Urbanos, street railway supplies.

GUAYAQUIL—Continued.

Importers, miscellaneous—Continued.

Guayaquil Lager Beer Brewing Association, brewers' supplies.
 Heredia & Ca., drugs.
 "Ingenio Valdez," successor of, importer of machinery and exporter of sugar.
 Janer, Pedro, drugs.
 Koppel, Karl & Ca., dry goods.
 Larreta, Juan A., undertakers' supplies.
 Lopez, Lescano, Carlos, drugs.
 Martiz, E. C., sole leather.
 Maulme Hermanos, jewelry.
 Morla Hermanos, importers of machinery and exporters of sugar.
 Moscoso & Ca., stationery.
 Norero & Ca., dry goods.
 Offner, Alberto, jewelry.
 Papaseit, R., & Ca., stationery.
 Pavía, Eduardo.
 Payeze & Ca., drugs.
 Poppe, Federico, hats.
 Puig (Jaime) y Mir, importers of machinery and exporters of sugar.
 Rasch, Augusto, & Ca., drugs.
 Rigail, Aquiles, ready-made clothing.
 Tyler, E. A., lamps and lamp goods.
 Vinelli y Pérsico, jewelry.
 Ycaza, Eduardo, dry goods.
 Ycaza, Francisco, dry goods.
 Zanatta, Luis, ready-made clothing.

IOSAGUA.

Merchant.

Velasquez, Francisco.

JIPLJAPA.

Importers and exporters.

Andrade, Camilo.
 Campuzano, A. H.
 Gonzales, José Joaquín.
 Lopez, Daniel.
 Lopez Hermanos.
 Lourido, C.
 San Lucas, M., & Co.
 Villacreses, Sebastián.
 Zuluago, Juan D.

LA COCA.

Merchant.

Morán, Javier.

MACHALILLA.

Merchants.

Albán, Alfredo.
 Vallejo, P.

MANTA.

Commission merchants.

Delgado, Ricardo, & Ca.
 Miranda, J. F.
 Moreira, Pedro A.
 Paz, J. E.
 Rodriguez, Córdova & Ca.
 Rodriguez, F.
 Ruperti, Emilio.

Importer and exporter, general merchandise.

Ruperti, Emilio.

Merchants.

Azua, J.
 Bermúdez, J. Ma.
 Chavez, M. J.
 Chavez, Nicolás.
 Delgado, J. R.
 Freyre, Augusto.
 Gallo, Juan.
 Loo, J. J.
 Lopez, J. F.
 Moreira, Micanor.

MONTE CRISTI.

Importer and exporter, general merchandise.

Azua, Juan.

Merchants.

Acevedo, J. D.
 Arcentales, Ezequiel.
 Arcentales, M. J.
 Anchundía, Manuel S.
 Anchundía, Pedro.
 Anchundía, Ramón.
 Ceballos, Fernando.
 Cedeño, Pedro.
 Chaves, Nicolas.
 Chavez, Juan & Ca.
 Delgado, J. F.

MONTE CRISTI—Continued.*Merchants—Continued.*

Delgado, Manuel María.
Delgado, Maximino.
Reyes, J. C.
Robles, Manuel.

PORTOVIEJO.*Importers and exporters.*

Chiriboga, Hector.
Loor, J. J.
Sabando, Daniel.

Merchants.

Aguilera, B. R.
Avila, J. H.
Bowen, Oliver.
Mora, Virgilio.
Saavedra, Angel.
Sabando, Zenon.
Santana, Celso.
Segovia, Antonio.
Robles, Manuel.
Veles, I. S.
Yepes, Enrique.

QUITO.*Banks.*

Banco de la Unión.
International Bank.

Importers.

Alonia, Antonio, exporter hides.
Baca, Ignacio, y Hermanos, dry goods.
Calvo, Ramón, hardware, groceries,
wines.
Carbo, Esteban, hardware, groceries,
wines.
Espinosa & Ca., stationery supplies.
Freyle, N., dry goods.
Gachet, Augusto, general merchandise.
German, M., & Ca., general hardware.
German, R., hardware.
Gouin, Luis, dry goods.
Heredia, Ignacio, general merchandise.
Hermann, A., brewer.
Herrera, Manuel.
Koppel, Karl & Ca., dry goods.
Laffite, Lucien, dry goods,

QUITO—Continued.*Importers—Continued.*

Larrea, Manuel Jijon, manufacturer of
woolen cloth.
Madrid, Carlos, hardware, groceries,
wines.
Mora, Miguel, dry goods.
Moscoso, Mateo, dry goods.
Narvaez, José, hardware, groceries,
wines.
Ordoñez, Salvador, y Hermanos, man-
ufacturers of cotton cloth.
Ortiz, Vidal, dry goods.
Patino, R., dry goods.
Pazmino, L. R., dry goods.
Proano, Ignacio, dry goods.
Puente, Wenceslao, general merchan-
dise.
Salvador Hermanos, general merchan-
dise.
Schibbye, Alejandro, drugs.
Silva & Paredes, fancy goods.
Stahlschmidt & Kistormacher, drugs.
Urrutia, Julio, general merchandise.
Vascones, José, tailors' goods.

RIO CHICO.*Importers and exporters.*

Alcivar V., Miguel.
Josa, Juan.

ROCAFUERTE.*Merchants.*

Arcentales, Fco. J.
Cedeño, J. J.
Cedeño, J. R.
Loor, Ricardo.

SANTA ANA.*Merchants.*

Ceteño, Pedro A.
Mendoza, J. A.
Pico, María Antonio.
Reyes, I, E.

SANTA ELENA.*Merchants.*

Panchana, Liborio, general merchan-
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Peña, Leopold, exporter.
Velez, Manuel, exporter.

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