

REPORT

ON

THE ISLAND OF PORTO RICO;

ITS

POPULATION, CIVIL GOVERNMENT, COMMERCE,
INDUSTRIES, PRODUCTIONS, ROADS,
TARIFF, AND CURRENCY,

WITH RECOMMENDATIONS,

BY

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RESPECTFULLY SUBMITTED TO

HON. WILLIAM McKINLEY,

PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

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EXPLANATION OF WORDS AND TERMS USED IN THIS REPORT.

<i>Abogado.</i> Counselor.	<i>Delito.</i> Crime.
<i>Aguacate.</i> Alligator pear.	<i>Derechos reales.</i> Royal dues.
<i>Alcaide.</i> Warden of prison.	<i>Diputación provincial.</i> Insular administrative body.
<i>Alcalde.</i> Mayor.	<i>Doble peseta.</i> Silver 40-centavo piece.
<i>Alguacil.</i> Constable.	<i>El Compite.</i> Name given persecution by Guardia Civil.
<i>Area.</i> 119.6 square yards.	<i>Escribano.</i> Court clerk.
<i>Audiencia Criminal.</i> Criminal court.	<i>Espediente.</i> The documents of a case.
<i>Audiencia Territorial.</i> Supreme court.	<i>Falta.</i> Minor offense.
<i>Ayuntamiento.</i> Municipality.	<i>Ferrocarril.</i> Railroad.
<i>Barrio.</i> Division of municipality, ward.	<i>Finca.</i> Farm, estate.
<i>Beneficencia.</i> Charity.	<i>Fiscal.</i> Prosecuting attorney.
<i>Blanco.</i> White.	<i>Fomento.</i> Improvement; department of the interior.
<i>Bocoy.</i> Hoghead, holding 1,400 to 1,800 pounds.	<i>Fresa.</i> A kind of strawberry.
<i>Bagazo.</i> Stalks of pressed cane.	<i>Frutos Menores.</i> Small crops; bananas and vegetables.
<i>Boriquén.</i> Carib name of the island.	<i>Gastos.</i> Expenses.
<i>Cabotage.</i> Coastwise trade.	<i>Gratificación.</i> Bonus in excess of salary.
<i>Cacao.</i> Chocolate beans.	<i>Gremio.</i> Trade union; class of taxpayers.
<i>Calle.</i> Street.	<i>Guardia Civil.</i> A special police force.
<i>Camino vecinal.</i> District road.	<i>Guinco.</i> A small banana.
<i>Candelaria.</i> Feast of Candlemas.	<i>Guira.</i> A small gourd used as instrument of music.
<i>Carcel.</i> Prison, jail.	<i>Hectarea.</i> 2.47 acres.
<i>Carretera.</i> State road, cart road.	<i>Huesera.</i> Receptacle for bones of disinterred bodies.
<i>Casa consistorial.</i> City hall.	<i>Ingresos.</i> Income.
<i>Cédula personal.</i> Passport.	<i>Jamaica Tren.</i> A primitive process of sugar making.
<i>Centarea.</i> 1,550 square inches.	<i>Jibaro.</i> A mountain peasant, or ignorant countryman.
<i>Centavo.</i> A copper coin; the hundredth part of a peso.	<i>Juez de 1ª Instancia é Instrucción.</i> District judge.
<i>Central.</i> Sugar mill grinding for a district.	<i>Juez, municipal.</i> Municipal judge.
<i>China.</i> A sweet orange.	<i>Junta.</i> Board of council.
<i>Ciudad.</i> City.	<i>Ley.</i> Law.
<i>Coche.</i> Coach.	<i>Morenos</i> (brown). Blacks or negroes.
<i>Comercio.</i> Commerce.	<i>Naranja.</i> A bitter orange.
<i>Comisario.</i> Head of a barrio or ward.	<i>Notario.</i> Notary.
<i>Comunicaciones.</i> Communications, postal and telegraphic.	
<i>Concejales.</i> Aldermen or councilmen.	
<i>Consumo.</i> A special tax on articles of food, drink, and fuel.	
<i>Contribuyentes.</i> Taxpayers.	
<i>Querda.</i> .99 of an acre.	

<i>Palillos.</i> Instrument of torture in the form of pegs.	<i>Presidio.</i> Penitentiary.
<i>Pardos (gray).</i> Mulattoes.	<i>Presupuesto.</i> Estimate: applied to budgets.
<i>Patente.</i> Tax on opening shops for business.	<i>Procurador.</i> Attorney.
<i>Pecuaría.</i> Pertaining to cattle.	<i>Pueblo.</i> Town, city.
<i>Peones.</i> Peasants or field laborers.	<i>Quintal.</i> One hundred weight.
<i>Peseta.</i> Silver piece of 20 centavos.	<i>Real.</i> A fictitious coin of 12½ centavos.
<i>Peso.</i> Unit of currency, one hundred centavos; three-fifths of American dollar.	<i>Registrador.</i> Registrar of property.
<i>Pie.</i> One-third of a vara, or 10.945 inches.	<i>Síndico.</i> Counsel for municipalities and supervisor of accounts.
<i>Plátano.</i> Plantain.	<i>Sueldo.</i> Salary.
<i>Plaza.</i> Public square.	<i>Sumario.</i> Summary, or court brief.
<i>Población de derecho.</i> Legal population.	<i>Teniente alcalde.</i> Vice-mayor.
<i>Población de hecho.</i> Actual population.	<i>Transcintes.</i> Temporary residents.
	<i>Vales.</i> Tickets given laborers instead of money.
	<i>Vara.</i> Unit of cloth measure, 32.835 inches.
	<i>Vecino.</i> Neighbor, citizen.

REPORT ON PORTO RICO.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT,
OFFICE SPECIAL COMMISSIONER FOR THE
UNITED STATES TO PORTO RICO,
October 6, 1899.

To the PRESIDENT.

SIR: Under appointment by you to investigate the civil, industrial, financial, and social conditions of Porto Rico and make report, with recommendations, I have twice visited the island, under instructions from the Treasury Department, to which I was assigned for immediate supervision.

WORK OF THE COMMISSIONER.

The commissioner sailed in the U. S. transport *Manitoba* October 10, and landed at Ponce October 15. Two days later he crossed the island, by coach, over the famous military road to San Juan, the capital, where several weeks were spent in an inquiry into the customs and currency questions and the system of civil government. Returning to the United States November 15, the commissioner made preliminary reports on these subjects, and sailed for Porto Rico a second time on the 31st of December. Meantime the offices of the commission in San Juan were kept open, and much information, statistical, industrial, and social, was gathered by the secretary, Mr. Charles E. Buell, and the interpreter, Mr. Alfred Solomon. Early in January a tour of the municipal districts of the island was begun and the testimony of representatives of all classes of the population was taken. As the commissioner had been instructed to make his inquiry broad enough to embrace all subjects concerning the present condition and future welfare of the people, all interested persons were invited to attend the hearings, all who offered information were heard, and numerous statements of individuals and firms, in the nature of memorials, complaints, and recommendations, were received. The tour embraced the chief cities and districts of the island: Bayamon, Vega Baja, Arecibo, Camuy, Quebradillas, and Isabela, in the north; Aguadilla, Mayaguez, San German, and Cabo Rojo, in the west; Yauco, Ponce, Guayama, and Arroyo, in the south, and Maunabo, Yabucoa, Humacao, and Fajardo, in the east. The interior towns of Utuado, Coamo, Aibonito, Cayey, and Caguas, and Isabela II, on the island of Vieques, were visited, and representatives received from other places.

The commissioner had a cordial welcome everywhere. Insular and municipal officials, judges, lawyers, doctors, bankers, merchants, planters, manufacturers, artisans, field laborers, inhabitants of the

poor quarters in cities—persons of all classes and colors, leaders of the political parties, natives, Spaniards, Germans, and other foreign residents—willingly gave testimony, or secured documents, or obtained information, often at no little pains, and endeavored by every means to make the investigation a successful one. Statements embodying needed facts, making suggestions, or asking immediate relief from oppressive conditions were prepared in various parts of the island and submitted to the commissioner by deputation or by mail.

CHARACTER OF THE ISLAND.

The United States is to be congratulated on the acquisition of Porto Rico. It is a beautiful island, well worthy the admiration of its new possessors, accustomed to the most varied and picturesque scenery in their own wide domain. All its shores are approachable, and whether seen from the Caribbean Sea, on the south, or from the Atlantic Ocean, on the east, west, and north, it presents an attractive appearance. Its mountains, which refuse to arrange themselves in natural chains or ranges, rise with charming irregularity, covering nearly the whole interior of the island, and are visible for long distances at sea. Mount Yunque, in the northeast, is the highest peak, reaching a height, according to the General Official Guide of Porto Rico, of nearly 5,000 feet. The mountains are generally well covered with verdure, natural or cultivated; even the very peaks are gardens of the husbandmen, or beautiful wooded areas, or rich pasture lands. These mountains serve to condense into clouds the vapor which rises from the sea, and these give frequent and refreshing showers. Scores of rivers and hundreds of smaller streams carry the accumulations of these rains by winding ways through the valleys to the sea, furnishing abundance of clear, cool water for the various uses of mankind, including power for mills, dynamos, and other machinery. Along the shores, forming a belt of varying width around the island, are rich alluvial plains. The soil has not been exhausted by centuries of cultivation, and this luxuriant sea border is ornamented with cocoa and royal palms and other tropical vegetation. The countless valleys and extended slopes are also devoted to cane, coffee, tobacco, and various other crops of vegetables and fruits. The cultivable area is large, including practically all the island except the arid sides of some of the mountains facing the southern coast. The portion under actual cultivation is but a small fraction of the whole.

The superficial area of Porto Rico has not been scientifically ascertained. The estimates are various, ranging from 3,150 to 3,860 square miles, the last being the figures given by the Official Guide. These estimates include, of course, Vieques, Mona, and Culebra, and nearly a score of smaller islands, as well as Porto Rico itself. The greatest length of the island is about 115 miles; the greatest width, about 36, according to the best maps. There are no charts of the coast, the scientific survey begun some years ago, under Spanish auspices, never having been completed, or if completed the results were not made known. There are numerous roadsteads and harbors, the best harbors being those of San Juan, Jobos, and Guanica, which are landlocked. The chief rivers are the Loiza, the Arecibo, the Plata, the Manati, and the Bayamon, emptying on the north, the Culebrinas, the Añasco, and the Guanajibo, emptying on the west coast. There are many other rivers and streams that reach the sea at short distances apart around the entire island.

THE CLIMATE.

The climate is tropical, but not torrid. Though the heat is continuous, it is not extreme. The thermometer rarely rises to 100°. The highest monthly average on record in nine years in San Juan was 86° (in June, 1878). The hottest day in that period gave a temperature of 100.8°, but there was only one such day. The temperature is equable, and rises or falls through a very limited range. The highest point reached by the thermometer in San Juan in the period from November, 1898, to July, 1899, inclusive, was 91°, in the month of June. This was for one day only, and on no other day of that month did the temperature exceed 86°. The lowest range in the same period was 66°. The winter season extends from October or November to March, inclusive. No really oppressive weather was seen in the capital during those months in 1898-99. Showers came frequently, but were of short duration and were mostly at night. Every day the unfailing trade winds blow from the east or southeast, making the air delightfully fresh. The nights are cool and comfortable. The summer season is marked by a slight increase in the average temperature, much more rain, and a great deal of humidity. The continuity of the heat and the unfavorable conditions for evaporation and perspiration make the climate somewhat enervating. San Juan has an elevation of only about 100 feet. In the mountains the higher elevations diminish the amount of heat, and Aibonito, Cayey, and Utuado are considered as remarkably cool cities.

Occasionally the island is visited by a disastrous hurricane. The first record of one of these tropical terrors was in July, 1515. They come at irregular intervals and with varying degrees of force. The most violent storm the island ever knew, according to history, was in August, 1772, when houses were demolished, trees uprooted, plantations flooded, and many people killed. In September, 1806, there was another visitation of less destructiveness, and still another in September, 1819. The latter was followed by a famine. The hurricane of October, 1867, was very severe. In August, 1886, the south coast was ravaged and the coffee plantations in the southwest suffered severely. The last furious storm occurred August 8, 1899, and was terribly destructive, particularly on the eastern and southern coasts and in the interior. Humacao was well-nigh destroyed; Yabucoa, in the beautiful valley of the same name south of Humacao, was a heap of ruins, and but little was left of the old town and port of Arroyo. The damages at Ponce and at the port of Ponce, on the south, were extremely heavy. The streets were swept by a flood and many houses were torn from their foundations. The crops of coffee and cane were quite generally destroyed in the east, in the south, and in the interior, and orange and other fruit trees were uprooted or stripped by the violence of the wind. Arecibo, on the north coast, directly across the island from Ponce, also suffered great injuries. Between 2,000 and 3,000 persons lost their lives, and the destruction of live stock was very great. The fall of rain was enormous, amounting to 11.20 inches at Juana Díaz, north of Ponce, in twenty-four hours.

PREVALENT DISEASES.

Though enervating, the climate is salubrious. The death rate is moderate. Yellow fever is not indigenous. Smallpox becomes epidemic sometimes, but under General Henry's administration an extra-

ordinary plan was conceived and executed for the vaccination of the entire population of the island with vaccine produced from native cattle. The prevailing diseases are consumption and malarial fevers. With improved sanitation in the cities, already begun under United States military auspices, the health bill of Porto Rico will compare favorably with that of countries in the temperate zone. The general disregard, hitherto, of the primary principles of sanitation makes it a matter of wonder that the scourges of Porto Rico have been so few. There was an outbreak of cholera in 1855, chiefly among the colored population, and it was estimated that 30,000 or more died of it.

A reference to the table of the causes of death in San Juan in the year 1898 shows, that of 1,151 deaths, 143 were from some form of consumption, 25 from pneumonia, 44 from congestion of the lungs, and 49 from bronchitis—a total of 361, or about 31 per cent from these causes. Of 76 deaths from fever 28 were attributed to malarial, 11 to pernicious, 20 to typhoid, 11 to typhus, 2 to yellow, and 4 to other fevers. Consumption attacks with great severity the mixed and black races. Only one-fourth, or 36, of those who died from this disease were whites; 62 were of the mixed and 45 of the black class. As the whites constitute about 64 per cent of the population, the mortality among the 36 per cent of colored people appears remarkably high. Bowel troubles, such as dysentery and diarrhœa, are quite general. There were 83 deaths from these causes, of which 55 were of white, 13 of mixed, and 15 of black persons, showing that the whites are specially subject to these diseases. The statistics are not sufficiently comprehensive to show the full effect of lack of proper food; but it appears that in 50 or more cases anæmia was a chief or collateral cause of death. Dr. A. Stahl, in a pamphlet giving comparative statistics of the death rate in seven rural municipalities, covering two years, shows that the months having fewest deaths are February, March, April, May, and June. Of 1,348 who died in those places in one year 543 were below the age of 20, and 146 were 60 and upward, 28 having passed the age of 80 and 6 that of 90. There is little which bears on the question of longevity, except the census of 1860, which shows, in a population of 583,308, that 2,442 were over 80 years of age and that of these 73 had passed the century mark.

THE POPULATION.

The population, according to the census of December 31, 1897, for a full copy of which I am indebted to the late secretary of state, the Hon. Luis Muñoz Rivera, numbers 890,820, or, including the Spanish military and naval forces then quartered on the island and the penal population, 899,203. In 1887 the figures were 802,439, including soldiers, sailors, and prisoners, showing an increase in the ten years of 96,704, or a little more than 12 per cent. In the previous decade—1877–1887—the increase was 70,784, or between 9 and 10 per cent. The growth of the population in the last ten years can not, it would seem, be regarded as unsatisfactory. As to sexes, males are slightly in excess of females—448,619 to 442,201. This excess would be considerably increased by the addition of the Spanish military and naval forces and of the penal population. The excess would not be specially remarkable in a colony were it not that in 1887 the sexes were not only more equal in number, but there was a slight excess—523—in favor of the females. This is explainable on racial grounds. The white males exceeded the white females in 1887 by nearly 6,000, but females

of the mixed and colored classes exceeded the males of the same classes sufficiently to make up the difference.

A more remarkable fact appears concerning the races from a comparison of the two censuses, namely, that the colored classes are decreasing. The census distinguishes blancos (whites), pardos (gray), and morenos (brown). In 1887 there were 323,632 pardos and morenos; in 1897, only 317,724, showing a decrease of 5,908. Every preceding census of which details can be had shows an increase. Between 1775 and 1834 there was an increase of 89,458 free colored persons and 35,246 slaves; from 1834 to 1846 the increase was 49,392 free colored and 9,398 slaves; from 1846 to 1860, 65,224 free colored, with a decrease of 9,480 slaves; from 1860 to 1877 (slaves were freed in 1873), an increase of 82,617 free colored persons. This large increase for seventeen years is now followed by a decrease. For the cause of the decline no explanation is at hand. It is worthy of note that the decrease appears in all departments of the island excepting San Juan and Arecibo. The colored population seems to be fairly prosperous and contented. The occupations generally are open to them, and in San Juan they are the artisans, carpenters, masons, painters, etc. Of whites there are, exclusive of Spanish soldiers and sailors and the penal population, 573,096, or upward of 64 per cent; of mixed, 241,895, or more than 27 per cent; and of blacks, 75,829, or less than 9 per cent.

There are two distinct census tables, those of the hecho, or actual, and those of the derecho, or legal, population. The former (890,820) is made up of residents present and transeuntes, or transient visitors. The latter consists of resident and ausentes, or absent, citizens of Porto Rico and Spain, excluding the transeuntes. Included in the derecho population were 7,932 Spaniards and 127 foreigners, who were absent when the census was taken. It is somewhat surprising to find that 886,442 of the the actual population are classed as Spaniards, and only 4,324 as foreigners. This is a small number to include all the citizens of the United States and other countries of America and the rest of the world living in Porto Rico at the close of 1897.

The most populous of the eight departments of the island are those of San Juan and Arecibo, on the north, 295,724; Ponce and Guayama, on the south, come next with 290,961; Aguadilla and Mayaguez, on the west; third, with 221,557, and Humacao and Vieques, on the east, fourth, with 83,578. Drawing a line through the center of the island, as near as may be from east to west, it is found that 475,856 are north and 414,964 south of the line. West of a line drawn north and south, through the center, there is a considerable preponderance, the number being west 521,055 to 369,765 east. The gains in the last ten years have been chiefly in the west. Of the 84,109 increase for the whole island, 64,562 was in the west and 19,547 in the east.

HISTORY OF THE ISLAND.

The island of Porto Rico, which forms part of the Archipelago of the Antilles, situated between 18° 30' and 17° 55' north latitude and, including the smaller islands, 68° and 65° 10' west from Greenwich, was discovered by Columbus on his second voyage. The expedition which left the port of Cadiz on the 25th of September, 1493, called at the island of Santo Domingo the 3d of November, and on the 16th, in the afternoon, sighted Cape Malapascua, in southeastern Porto Rico. On the 17th his fleet coasted around the south of the island; on the 18th they doubled the Morillos of Cabo Rojo and ascended the west

coast; and on the 19th cast anchor off Aguada, the northernmost bay on that coast. The admiral landed and planted the symbol of the Christian religion on the shore, and, raising anchors, left on the 22d for Santo Domingo. The supposed place of landing, south of Aguadilla, is marked by a monument of granite, erected by the people in 1893, in commemoration of the fourth centenary of the event. The monument is in the form of a cross and bears the inscription, "1493, 19 de Noviembre, 1893."

This colonizing expedition had on board Don Juan Ponce de Leon, who, later, was the captain who subjugated the island. He was a son of Santervas de Campos, and first saw service in Santo Domingo, in the district of Higüey, under the orders of Capt. Diego de Valasquez, the conqueror of Cuba.

Commander Ovando, who was governor of Santo Domingo in 1508, gave permission to Ponce de Leon to make a journey of discovery to the neighboring island of San Juan. He embarked from the port of Salvaleón, in Santo Domingo, in a caravel, with a handful of followers and a few Indian guides, about the end of 1508. On the way he called at the island of Mona, then thickly populated by Indians, traversed the south of the island, making friends with the chiefs (caciques), and brought his ship to anchor finally in Sardinera roadstead, about 24 miles west from the capital. From this point Ponce de Leon and his followers moved on to the bay of San Juan, where he embarked for Santo Domingo to report his discoveries.

The natives called the island Boriquén. (Some say Borinquén, some Borinquen, the last being the accepted popular term among the islanders. Scholars incline, however, to Boriquén as the true Indian name.) Columbus christened it San Juan de Bautista (St. John the Baptist). Capt. Ponce de Leon initiated the conquest with some 300 followers, laying the foundations of the first town on the spot known as Pueblo Viejo (Old Town), on the shores of the bay fronting the capital. This town was called Caparra, the name given to it by Commander Ovando. It was afterwards named the city of Porto Rico and was transferred to the present site in 1521 by royal order, on the recommendation of the St. Geronimo order of monks. In the course of time the island has taken the name of the city, Porto Rico, and the city that of the island, San Juan. Ponce de Leon took up his residence in Caparra and sent one of his lieutenants, Cristobal de Sotomayor, to the south, where the latter founded a village in the port of Guanica, which, owing to the unhealthiness of the site and the plague of mosquitoes, did not prosper, and was transferred to the port of Aguada, contiguous to the village of the cacique Aymamon.

They began to work the mines. The natives, whose number was about 100,000 in the whole island—although there are historians who compute their number much higher—soon began to show open opposition to the conquerors, who forced them to wash the auriferous sands, to burn lime, and other laborious work. The cacique Urayoan ordered the young Spaniard Salcedo to be drowned in the river Añasco in order to prove to his people that the Spaniards were not immortal. The cacique Guarionex set fire to the village which Sotomayor had founded in Aguada. Lieut. Don Cristobal de Sotomayor himself was killed by the cacique Guayabana, and the struggle extended in all directions, forcing the Spaniards to leave the west of the island and retire to Caparra under the command of Captain Salazar.

Ponce de Leon sent notice of the rebellion of the natives to Santo Domingo, then called La Española, and prepared himself for the defense. He soon, however, took the offensive, beating the Indians in

every battle and terminating the rebellion with the death of the principal cacique, Guayabana, who was killed by the arquebus of a soldier. The Indians then submitted humbly to their conquerors, who enslaved some 5,500 of them, and thus terminated the period of conquest, initiating the period of colonization.

The colonization was turbulent. The Emperor, Charles V, conceded the right of governing the island to Don Diego Columbus, and Ponce de Leon had to turn the command over to Juan Ceron and Miguel Diaz, two of Viceroy Columbus's lieutenants. They arrived from Santo Domingo with some of their adherents, founded the original town of San German at the estuary of the River Añasco, and started a reign of intrigue and quarreling among the colonists.

The natives, who were obliged to work on the lands of the Spaniards, among whom they had been divided into gangs called *encomiendas*, in order to teach them the doctrines of the Catholic religion, little by little began to decrease. The conquerors began by appropriating their handsomest women as spoils of war, and then subjected them to a hard and cruel slavery. Many of them emigrated to the neighboring islands, not a few committed suicide, while small-pox wrought devastation among their reduced numbers.

On the 20th of April, 1543, after consulting the Council of the Indies, the king ordered the Indians of Porto Rico to be freed. The bishop of San Juan, on the 20th of March, 1544, informed the king that "Indians, young and old, natives of the island, who had been granted such signal mercy, numbered 60," and according to Bartolomé de las Casas, when the Spaniards first arrived at Boriquén, "it was as full of people as a hive, and as beautiful and fertile as a garden."

The working of the alluvial gold mines, calculating from the \$669,160 paid to the Spanish crown as a tithe of one-fifth, must have produced about \$3,000,000, although owing to the concealment of the findings from the fiscal agents the quantity may easily have been greater. The colonization of the island received a setback by the emigration to Mexico and Peru. In 1595 the English, under Drake and John of Aquinos, assaulted the capital with a fleet of twenty-four ships. The Spanish fleet was stationed in the bay and the English were prevented from taking the city, the general, John de Aquines, losing his life in the action. In 1597 the Earl of Cumberland captured it, but had to abandon it owing to an epidemic of dysentery which decimated his troops. In 1625 the city was attacked by the Dutch with seventeen war ships. They captured the port and the whole city, but could not take the Morro, and had to reembark with the loss of their general, Boudoino Henrico. In 1702 the English attacked Arecibo; in 1703, Loiza; in 1743, the coast of Ponce; and in 1797 the capital, but in each instance were repulsed.

These frequent attacks made the fortification of the capital necessary. The first fortress built was Santa Catalina, begun in 1533 and finished in 1538. Casa Blanca, the oldest building in the city, was begun in 1525; the Morro in 1584; San Geronimo and Cañuelo in 1608; the city walls in 1631, and San Cristobal in 1766.

The population of the island increased little by little. The natives were replaced by African blacks. In 1765 the island had 29,846 inhabitants; besides 5,037 slaves. The end of last century showed 138,758. According to the last census (1897), there were 899,203 inhabitants.

The first sugar mill was built by Santaolaya, in 1848, near the capital, and was called Santa Ana. In 1897 there were 25,090 hectares under cane, and the island exported 63,413 tons of sugar. The gen-

eral aspect of Porto Rican civilization at the beginning of the present century was that of a Catholic colony following a patriarchal life. There was but little commerce, owing to the fact that exporting was only permitted to certain ports of the Peninsula, notably Malaga. Owing to smuggling the treasury could not pay its way, and Mexico had to send annually about \$100,000 to cover the deficit of the island. There were no public schools.

In 1815 a royal order, styled "act of grace," allowed foreigners to establish themselves in the island, and many came in from the French and English Antilles, bringing their capital and their slaves. The Venezuelan and Dominican emigrants, flying from the wars in their countries, came in search of peace to Porto Rico and helped to swell the population. This marked the overthrow of the prohibitive system, which had prevailed since the discovery of the island. In 1778 a concession allowed Catholic workmen to come in, but the royal decree of 1815 opened the doors, though certain restrictions adopted in 1816 somewhat modified the liberality of the decree. One of these restrictions required foreigners who had not acquired domicile, under the rules, to quit the island in three months or suffer the penalties prescribed for disobedience. The "golden" age of Porto Rico began with the date of the order, and the population not only increased, but agriculture and commerce were greatly developed. The slavery of blacks, which had begun before the disappearance of the slavery of the Indians, was abolished on the 22d of March, 1873, by order of the republican Government of Spain, giving freedom to 34,000 persons.

The history of the island since the beginning of this century is notable only by reason of the formation of a distinct type of Porto Rican Spaniard, as opposed to the Peninsula Spaniard, in which the latter has received all the favors at the hands of the home government, while the former has been almost entirely excluded from participation in the administration of the island. A long list of governor-generals contains but few names which are mentioned by Porto Ricans with affection.

The attitude of Porto Rico toward Spain has been one of obedience and endurance, if not of love and devotion. There have been no important uprisings since the aboriginal inhabitants made their final stand early in the sixteenth century and were defeated and enslaved. Some Colombians in 1825, inspired by the desire to free Porto Rico as they had freed their own country under the leadership of Simon Bolivar, landed at Aguadilla and captured some of the defenses, but were beaten off by the Spaniards and gave up their enterprise. Then was Porto Rico's opportunity, but she did not welcome it, perhaps did not see it until it was too late.

In September, 1868, when the revolution broke out in Cuba, an attempt not very well planned and but weakly supported was made to throw off the Spanish yoke in Porto Rico. There was an outbreak at Lares, where a force of 700 or 800 insurgents took the field and won a few unimportant victories, being finally routed, it is said, by less than a dozen militiamen. Many escaped and some were taken and ordered to be shot, but before the order could be executed the Queen at Madrid had been deposed and political prisoners were released. An insignificant insurrection was begun in Yauco in 1897 which was soon put down; the prisoners taken were made conspicuous objects of the Crown's clemency.

There was more or less of persecution by the Spanish authorities for the last ten or twelve years of the Spanish domination. The civil

guard arrested many persons on suspicion of being members of an alleged secret society, believed to have disloyal ends in view. In the first years of that period, when Romualdo Palacio was Governor-General, the persecution was particularly severe, being known as *el componte*, a word borrowed from the negroes of Cuba. Persons were arrested, generally at midnight, and tortured. The instrument most used was called the *palillos* (sticks or pegs). The smaller ends of three of these pegs, 6 or 7 inches long, were tied close together. The pegs were inserted, close to the string, between the fingers of the victim, and the loose ends were pressed together, giving the most exquisite pain, and crushing the bones. Some were killed by other instruments of torture. These methods of promoting loyalty were continued until 1896, when a more liberal and humane policy was adopted for effect, it is said, on public opinion in the United States.

THE CIVIL GOVERNMENT.

The civil government of the island was the Governor-General, and the Governor-General was the civil government. All power was lodged in his hands and he was accountable only to Madrid. He was at once the executive, the legislative, and the judicial head. As Captain-General, he had chief command of the military forces, and made such disposition of them as he chose; as Governor-General, he conducted civil affairs, whether insular or municipal, according to his own pleasure.

To quote from Señor Muñoz Rivera, late secretary of the government, whose statement is given elsewhere, "the Governor-General was absolute master of the destinies of the country." He was "surrounded by a number of influential persons to whom he granted favors and on whom he depended to keep up the appearance of a system of representation which was at bottom completely false." "The budget of the country was voted by the Spanish Chambers." Municipalities had no power to control their own affairs. They had to submit all their acts to the Governor-General for approval, and he "appointed all municipal employees, naming arbitrarily every employee down to porters and janitors." He "directed finances through a manager who was his subordinate, who had under his order the chiefs of all the other departments." If, as occasionally happened, he was a wise and good man, seeking the welfare of the people rather than his own personal enrichment or the advancement of his political friends, there was less cause for complaint from the people, who were completely ignored. As the position was one of great power and of large opportunities for pecuniary profit, it not infrequently went to those who were prepared to exploit it in their own interests.

The establishment of the *diputacion provincial* was the first step in decentralization. This is a feature borrowed from the provinces of Spain. In Porto Rico it consisted of twelve persons elected by the people, one each from the twelve judicial districts. It met twice a year, a permanent committee of five transacting its current business. The members were unsalaried. It had oversight of the department of fomento, including public works, roads, the lottery, schools, prisons, etc., also of municipal budgets. Its income was derived from territorial taxes and taxes on commerce and industry, of which it received 50 per cent; from special duties collected at the custom-houses and from earnings of raffles and lotteries. It controlled the expenditure of upward of 1,200,000 pesos per year. It was abolished by the United States military government.

The system of autonomy, which was proclaimed November 25, 1897, was never fully installed. The war intervened, and the provincial legislature, which was its most important feature, was dissolved when Sampson's fleet appeared, and the Governor-General conducted the government practically on the old plan, except that the ministry, as provided by the autonomistic law, was retained, as follows: Secretary of government or of state, secretary of the treasury, secretary of the fomento or interior, including public works, public instruction, public lands, mines, etc., agriculture and commerce, and secretary of justice and worship. The last three secretaries were subordinate to the secretary of government, through whom all orders from the Governor-General and all communications to or from him must pass. The autonomist law allowed the secretaries or ministers to be members of one or the other of the two legislative chambers. The Governor-General with his council constituted the executive power. No act of his was valid unless approved by one of the secretaries, and the secretaries could issue no order which he had not countersigned. He had the power to convoke or dissolve the chambers, to refer objectionable bills to Madrid for approval or disapproval, and to appoint or remove the secretaries. All matters of a diplomatic character were in his hands exclusively and, constituted by the Pope patronato real, he was the head of the church in the island and practical director of ecclesiastical affairs. The legislature consisted of two chambers, the council and the house of representatives. The council was composed of fourteen members, eight of whom were elected, and six appointed by the Crown; the house of representatives of one representative for each 25,000 inhabitants, elected by the people. The liberality of this law is further indicated by the fact that it gave the right of suffrage to all males of 25 years of age and over. The two chambers were empowered to legislate on all insular questions, such as the estimates, which must be adopted by the Cortes at Madrid, public instruction, public works, sanitation, charities, etc. It will be seen that the reforms granted by this autonomistic decree were large in the letter, taking powers which the Governor-General had exercised unquestioned and giving them to the people, who had never been allowed to participate in the government of their own country. Whether it would have proved liberal in practical operation is not so certain. The Government invariably discriminated against Porto Ricans in favor of Spaniards, and it is also to be remembered that Spanish laws as written and Spanish laws as administered are not always identical.

GOVERNMENT FINANCES.

The finances of the Government, managed by the hacienda or treasury department, were so conducted that no provincial debt was created. Sufficient amounts for the various purposes were included in the estimates, which were sent to Madrid for approval, and those amounts were collected and disbursed. The finances of the cities were conducted on a similar plan, the provincial deputation exercising so careful a vigilance that such debts as appeared were due to failure to pay the province's quota of revenue. In only a few instances were towns or cities allowed to raise money by large bonded loans. Sometimes a considerable surplus was accumulated in the provincial treasury, from which the Government at Madrid borrowed on several occasions. The presupuestos or estimates consisted of two parts, gastos or expenses and ingresos or income. There were two distinct budgets; one by the

provincial deputation, the other by the treasury department, with two independent treasuries, whose operations are combined in the figures which follow.

The sources of revenue were classified under five heads, namely: (1) taxes and imposts; (2) custom-houses; (3) monopolies; (4) state property; (5) incidentals. Under the first head were territorial taxes, levied on urban and rural estates; taxes on industry and commerce, levied on manufactures and on the income of merchants, doctors, lawyers, etc.; royal dues and dues on transfers of property; mining imposts, cedulas personales or passports; a 10 per cent tax on the business of railroads, and the consumo tax on petroleum. Under the second head were customs duties, fines, and confiscations, warehouse dues, 10 per cent transitory tax, and special duties on loading and unloading of freight and the embarkation and disembarkation of passengers. Under the third head were the monopoly revenues, such as ecclesiastical bulls, stamped papers for instruments of indebtedness and other legal purposes, postage stamps, forms for payments to the State, for receipts and accounts, drafts, insurance policies, bank and company shares, drafts for the use of the press and custom-house stamps and documents. In the fourth division, which was insignificant, were included rents and sales of public lands, tax on quarries, mines, etc. The fifth division, incidentals, embraced various small items. The estimates for the financial year (July 1, 1897–June 30, 1898), including those of the provincial deputation, amounted to 5,157,200 pesos. Of this total \$3,377,500 was expected from the custom-houses; \$1,051,200 from territorial taxes; \$312,200 from stamped paper, postage stamps, etc.; \$9,300 from state property; \$309,700 from the lottery, and \$96,900 from all other sources.

The estimates of revenues, compared with those of expenditures, indicated a surplus of over 400,000 pesos. The expenditures were divided as follows: General obligations, \$498,502, all of which went to Madrid, for expenses of the colonial ministry, losses on exchange, auditing of accounts, etc., for payments to returned soldiers and marines, and for pensions, civil and military, pensions, etc., amounting to \$362,700; worship and justice, \$423,819, of which \$197,945 was for the support of the clergy; war, \$1,252,378; navy, \$222,668; treasury, \$260,800; fomento or interior, \$2,095,876. In the last sum were included all the expenditures in connection with the postal and telegraph business, the lottery, light-houses, schools and asylums, public works, the civil guard, which cost \$351,633, and the corps of vigilance and security, which cost \$92,293. According to the budgets for 1897–98, it would appear that the cost of the postal and telegraph service was \$295,452 and the income only \$123,000; at least, this is the only amount which is credited to the service in the estimates of income. The cost of the lottery, of which there were eighteen drawings annually of 30,000 tickets each, was \$23,180. It yielded \$309,700, leaving a net income to the State of \$276,520, according to the budgets, which indicate no other expenses.

MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT.

The island is divided into districts, taking the name of the chief town or city in which is the seat of the government for the whole district. There are at present about seventy of these districts, some of which are as large as counties in the United States. Utnado, in the interior of the island, is 19 miles long by 10½ broad in its greatest dimensions,

having an area, perhaps, of 145 square miles. Arecibo, the second largest district, lying on the coast, directly north of Utuado, has an area of somewhat less than 120 square miles, extending 12 miles along the coast, east and west, and about 10 miles north and south. Some districts are very small, notably that of San Juan, in which the capital is situated, which is less than 7 miles long and $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles wide in its greatest extent. Besides the city or principal town, these districts embrace other towns or villages, but for the most part the population in the rural portions is widely scattered. The tendency to concentrate in villages, manifested in countries like the United States, seems to have been discouraged in Porto Rico. In many sections the houses are few and far between. Even on large plantations there are few families living, ordinarily. The peons or field laborers often walk long distances to and from their daily labor. Many families live in comparative isolation, and the majority of the population would probably, strange as it may seem, be found outside the seats of municipal government.

In the large district of Bayamon, lying next to that of San Juan on the west, reporting in 1887 a population of 15,169, only 2,200 were in the town of Bayamon. The rest were in the rural barrios, of which there were 18 besides Cataño. In the district of Aibonito, on the line of the military road, only 1,430 out of a population of over 7,000 reside in the pueblo, or town; the rest are in the 8 rural barrios, 2 of which return over 1,000 each. Humacao, on the east coast, has two-thirds of its population outside the city proper, in its 12 rural barrios. In the same section, the district of Fajardo, which now includes the former district of Ceiba and part of that of Luquillo, embraces a population of 17,616, of which Fajardo itself has 3,865. The most populous municipal district in the island is Ponce, which has a population of 48,198. Fully two-thirds of this is in the rural barrios. The distance of these 23 barrios from the city varies from 1 to 13 kilometers. (Five kilometers make 3 miles.) Utuado, lying in the center of the western half of the island, is a typical rural district. It is second to Ponce in the number of its inhabitants, 41,056. This population is so widely distributed that, according to the General Official Guide of Porto Rico, the city itself, in 1887, had less than 2,500 inhabitants, 3 of the most distant barrios having each a larger number. The ratio of the population of the city, in that year, to the total of the district, was as 1 to 13. Some of the barrios were more than 10 miles distant from the seat of the municipal government. Mayaguez, on the west coast, with which Hormigueros has been united, is the third municipal district in the island in point of population, having a total of 37,662, of which probably two-thirds will be found in the numerous rural barrios.

All the barrios of a municipal district are under the jurisdiction of the mayor and council of the chief city or town. Municipal regulations and supervision are coextensive with the boundaries of the district. Where the districts are small and the settlements near, administration is not difficult, perhaps; but in the larger districts, with considerable villages and towns outside the seat of municipal government, and a large scattered population, the exercise of municipal functions can not be easy. Each barrio has an *alcalde de barrio*, or *comisario*, who represents the *alcalde*, or mayor, with the powers of a police justice.

The mayor and council, constituting the *ayuntamiento*, are subject to the *ley municipal*, or municipal law, which prescribes their duties.

These are more particularly described in the *Manual del Secretario de Ayuntamiento*, a volume of nearly 900 pages. Under the old system the mayor or *alcalde* was nominated by the Governor-General. The councilors, whose number is determined by the population, are elected by vote of the people. Towns of 801 to 1,000 inhabitants are entitled to one *alcalde*, one *teniente*, or *vice-alcalde*, six *regidores*, or councilmen, making a body of seven, besides the *alcalde* who presides, with increase for every thousand of inhabitants; towns of 9,001 to 10,000 to one *alcalde*, three *tenientes*, and thirteen councilmen, or sixteen in all; towns of 18,001 to 20,000, one *alcalde*, five *tenientes*, and sixteen councilmen, or twenty-one in all. One of the *tenientes* takes the *alcalde's* place in his absence. The councilmen are not elected by *barrios*. Practically the administration is in the hands of those elected by the city or town proper. There may be representatives from other parts of the district, but often there are not. Thus the thirty members of the Ponce council are elected by the city, although, as already shown, less than half of the population is within the city limits. Thus the majority of the people have no direct representation in the government of the district. The mayor of Ponce, in answer to questions by the commissioner, said; "All members of the council are from the city. If they lived in the country they would never come to the meetings." The distances and the condition of the roads would make it impracticable for country members to come to the weekly sessions. If there were representatives for each *barrio*, the member for Guaraguao would have to come 13 kilometers, or about 8 miles; the member for Tibes 12 kilometers, the one for Anón 11, for Maragües 9½, for Real 9, and so on. On being reminded that many of the ordinances and appropriations of the council had no reference to rural needs, and farmers were being taxed for electric lights, street improvements, fire department, etc., from which they get no benefit, he said: "You are quite right in that. We make the countrymen pay for what they don't enjoy. That is one of the things we could arrange on an equitable basis if we had municipal autonomy." He stated that in addition to the *ayuntamiento* Ponce has, in common with other cities, a municipal *junta*, or board of thirty members, from all parts of the district. This board unites with the council in an assembly to consider matters concerning the whole district. One of its duties is to pass upon the budget. It has power to increase or decrease any item, but not to remove items or insert new ones.

The powers of the mayor and council were quite limited. Under the régime in existence at the time of the American occupation, the power of the Governor-General was paramount. He appointed all the municipal employees, according to Señor Luis Muñoz Rivera, and named the *alcaldes*, although the municipal law of Spain provides that they may be elected by the council, if the Governor-General does not wish to appoint. The mayor and council formed the annual budget and supplementary budget, setting forth the necessary expenditures and the expected revenues. Both had to be sent to the insular government for approval, and for every undertaking necessary to the health or order of the municipality the consent of the Governor-General or *secretario de gobernación* was a prerequisite. The police force could not be enlarged, temporarily even, without such authority. The mayor and council, in addition to ordinary municipal duties, were expected to keep the parish churches and the cemeteries, hospitals, and jails in proper condition, to unite with other *ayuntamientos* in

the support of the departmental prisons, and to exercise control over the public schools, under supervision from the capital.

The income of municipalities was derived from the consumo tax on articles "de comer, beber y arder" (food, drink, and fuel), coming into the city; from the tax on territorial, industrial, and commercial wealth (being $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of the valuation by the State), and from fines, leases, licenses, rents, etc. The income of San Juan for 1897-98 was estimated at \$598,484. Of this sum, \$127,119 was expected from the city's $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of on incomes, \$167,786 from the consumo tax, \$252,000 from a loan, and the rest from fines, rents, licenses, special taxes on business, appropriations from the State and from other municipalities for the support of the provincial and departmental prisons. The income from licenses was for construction of buildings, scaffolds, sidewalks, for street vending, for billiard tables, cock fighting, prostitution, and even street begging. Special charges were made for graves and niches for interment in the cemetery. Its expenses were as follows: For municipal administration, \$24,417; police, \$91,145; public instruction, \$27,660; beneficencia, \$28,972; public works, \$6,550; public correction, \$26,351; payments on debt and for various purposes, \$120,635; new public works, \$249,163.

The income of the municipality of Ponce was estimated at \$287,759 for the same period, 1897-98. Of this, \$89,564 was to come from the usual percentage of direct taxes on income, \$28,399 from licenses and special taxes, \$21,871 from rents, and the rest from various sources. Of the expenditures, \$33,200 was to be devoted to the administration, \$52,383 to police, \$34,033 to public instruction, \$33,748 to beneficencia, \$29,410 to public works, \$39,064 to public correction, \$51,921 to various obligations, such as payment of debt, subventions, and the like, new public works, \$13,000. This budget showed an increase over that of the previous year. The fire department cost the modest sum of \$3,799, including, of course, no salaries.

The provincial and municipal systems embraced all there was of civil administration in the island. It was a highly centralized form of government. All the officers, provincial and municipal, received their positions, with few exceptions, from the Governor-General, and were removable by him. There were elections for councilmen, for members of the provincial deputation, and for senators and deputies to the Cortes in Madrid. The legal voters elected half the senators, the other half being nominated by the Crown. That was all the participation the people had in their own government. Moreover, most of the important offices under the insular government were filled by Spaniards. The large list of civil pensioners in Spain tends to bear out the statement, often repeated by natives, that favorites were sent from Madrid to Porto Rico for a short service that they might be put on this list, and live comfortably the rest of their days in Spain.

SYSTEM OF TAXATION.

Customs duties were levied both on imports and exports. There was also a special tax on the loading and unloading of freight, the embarkation and disembarkation of passengers, and transitory dues of 10 per cent on duties on imports. The revenues from these sources, as has already appeared, constituted by far the largest item of the receipts of the insular treasury.

There was a system of direct taxation, resting on the basis of income, and not on valuation. The territorial tax, yielding \$410,000 to the

insular treasury, affected urban and suburban property; the industrial and commercial, yielding \$240,000 to the insular treasury, included all kinds of manufactures and industries, all branches of the mercantile and banking business, and all occupations.

The industrial and commercial tax was divided according to the population of cities and towns, classified according to character of business, and graded according to amount of business. There were six divisions on the basis of population. San Juan, Ponce, and Mayaguez constituted the first division; towns with custom-houses of the first class the second; towns with more than 12,000 inhabitants the third; the other three divisions being graded down from 12,000 to 4,000 and less. Then there were five classes of tariff. The first, with eight grades, included merchants, wholesale and retail; the second, importers and exporters, money lenders, transportation, salaries of officials of banks, railroads, and other companies; the third, the manufacture of sugar, rum, machinery, chemicals, chocolate, ice, etc.; the fourth, the professions and occupations, and the fifth, patents or new shops, factories, etc., which had to pay a special installation tax. Merchants in the first class of the first tariff would pay 130 pesos in San Juan, Ponce, or Mayaguez; 104 in Aguadilla, Humacao, etc.; 72 in Adjuntas, Bayamon, etc.; 52 in Coamo, Camuy, etc.; 39 in Aibonito, Barranquitas, etc.; and 31 in Dorado, Santa Isabela, etc. Merchants, wholesale or wholesale and retail dealers in various lines of wares, on commission or on their own account, paid according to the first grade; retail shops, hotels, and restaurants, according to the second; pharmacies, shoe, provision, and other retail stores were in the third; stationery shops in the fourth, wholesale and retail tobacco shops in the fifth, cafés for the sale of soda waters, etc., in the sixth, boarding houses in the seventh, and shops for the sale of native flowers and plants in the eighth.

The second tariff embraced salaries, wages, commissions, and the like. Governors or directors of banks, railroad companies, etc., paid 5 per cent of their wages or salaries, contractors 6 per cent of the amount of their contracts, banks 10 per cent of their profits; importers and exporters, receiving and remitting, buying and selling, shipping and conducting banking operations, paid \$700 in cities of the first division. Provincial and municipal officers were not required to pay tax on their salaries. But no kind of business seems to have escaped the sharp eye of the State experts. Public baths, balls and concerts, periodicals, including daily papers, laundries, funeral agencies, gymnasiums, livery stables, all kinds of industries, even the manufacture of artificial feet were taxed. Blacksmiths paid, according to the town in which their business was conducted, from 12 to 3 pesos; architects from 36 to 6; dentists and pharmacists the same; physicians and surgeons, 48 to 12; nurses and midwives, 18 to 5; veterinarians, 15 to 5; barbers, 8 to 2; lawyers, registers of property, and notaries, 48 to 16; while carpenters, cabinetmakers, bookbinders, florists, tailors, milliners or dressmakers, professors of music, languages, painters, etc., paid according to their class and grade. Among the exceptions may be noted washwomen, barbers without shops, clerks in commercial houses, and similar classes. Day laborers were assessed on the basis of one-third the value of half a year's wages.

According to the law, some classes of business and occupations are agreeable and some are not. A particular class is called a gremio. The lawyers, for example, would form one, the doctors another, the merchants another, and so on. The custom was for the State to

announce the amount it needed, and those composing the various gremios would meet, each gremio by itself, and apportion the amount among its members on the basis of the tariff.

The territorial tax was levied on the income of real estate, both urban and rural. It yielded nearly twice as much as the tax on commerce and industry. The valuation was made in each municipal district by a commission of three, with three subcommissioners for each class of wealth, the three subcommissioners representing, respectively, the largest, the medium, and the smallest class of taxpayers. These commissioners were appointed at a joint meeting of the councilmen, with three times as many taxpayers, elected in equal parts by the three classes of taxpayers. In valuing the income of a farm the commissioners would fix a certain price for the respective products. Sugar, for example, was estimated at \$3 a quintal, and 75 per cent was deducted for expenses; coffee, at \$12, and \$8 was allowed for expenses. On urban property 25 per cent discount was allowed; on pasture lands 10 per cent.

All taxes were payable quarterly. The amount assessed for the benefit of the State was 5 per cent, both on urban and suburban property. The rate for the municipality varied according to its needs, but was generally 7 or $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The complaint was quite general that those who had much property, and ought to have paid large sums, escaped with small payments. Methods of evasion not unknown in other countries seem to have been practiced in Porto Rico, including bribery of officials. A German resident of an interior district told the commissioner how he got his annual tax reduced by bribery, learning the trick from older residents. It is charged that Spaniards were favored by the State at the expense of the natives. Mr. Andres Crosas, a merchant of many years' standing in San Juan, but an American citizen, informed the commissioner that a Spaniard who rented a farm had agreed to pay the tax on it, which, while he had it, was only \$80 a year. The farm afterwards came into Crosas's possession, and the tax was raised from \$80 to \$400. As to the tax on commerce, he said that formerly he paid \$700 a year to the State as an importer of the first class, and \$1,050 to the municipality, making \$1,750 a year. He then had himself placed in the second class and paid \$421 to the State, refusing the municipality's demand for its $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

From this brief review of the systems of taxation it will be seen that if the laws had been faithfully administered no person and no article or form of property could have escaped his or its share of the public burden. The direct taxes would seem to have been extremely onerous. The earnings of merchants, manufacturers, and other producers were subject to a tax of $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent or more, according to the financial exigencies of the treasuries, provincial and municipal. For example, if a merchant's income were valued at \$10,000 a year, he would pay in direct taxes \$1,250. He would also pay for his cedula or personal passport, the amount of which was graduated, according to personal means, from 12 cents up to \$25 or more. He would pay direct taxes on his residence and furniture and on his horses and other live stock, if not used for labor. If he were just starting in business, he would pay a patente or tax for the privilege. And yet the general testimony, as will appear elsewhere in this report, was to the effect that taxation was not really oppressive, or would not have been, if it had been impartially assessed and collected. But the fact that it was so heavy doubtless had an influence in inducing peo-

ple to conceal their property as much as possible and undervalue their annual income. Articles of common use, such as rice, flour, corn, charcoal, wines, etc., not only paid heavy import duties, but were subject, together with fresh beef, milk, and sugar produced in the island, to a *consumo* tax at the gates of the municipalities. For example, flour, which had paid a duty of \$4 at the custom-house per 100 kilos, paid at the city gates \$2.50 *consumo* tax, or a total of \$6.50, which was at the rate of about \$3 a hundredweight; rice, the common article of diet, paid \$2.70 import duty and \$1 *consumo* tax; fresh beef paid a *consumo* tax of \$5 a hundred kilos, or 220 pounds. This was in addition to the head tax paid the city by the slaughterer.

THE CODES AND COURTS.

There are three Spanish codes, the penal, in three books, with twenty-five titles and eighty-four chapters; the civil, in four books, with forty-two titles and one hundred and twenty-six chapters and nine appendixes, and the commercial, in four books, with twenty-seven titles. The graver crimes of murder and homicide are set forth in the penal code with very great brevity. The chapters on parricide, murder, and homicide are extremely brief. Parricide is considered the gravest crime and is punishable by sentences ranging from "*cadena perpetua*" (a term usually of thirty years) to death. Murder, when committed under any of the following circumstances, (1) by treachery, (2) for money or promise of reward, (3) by means of drowning, fire, or poison, (4) with premeditation aforethought, (5) in a passion, with deliberation and inhumanity, involves penalties ranging from "*cadena temporal*" (twelve to twenty years) to death. Slaves or freedmen committing this crime incurred the penalty for parricide. It will be observed that treachery is placed first in the list of aggravating circumstances. The Spanish law is especially severe in punishing abuse of confidence or betrayal on the part of slaves or domestic servants. For example, a servant who steals \$25 from his employer could be sentenced, according to Señor Casalduc, a judge of first instance, in Utuado, to six years imprisonment. The crime is considered aggravated by the element of treachery. Homicide is punishable by terms of imprisonment; infanticide with the penalties of parricide. Distinctions are made between *delitos*, or crimes, and *faltas*, or faults. The difference was thus illustrated by Señor Fulladosa, judge of first instance, in Humacao. If a peon, passing through a field of sugar cane, cuts a stalk of cane and sucks it, that is a *falta*. If, after having eaten one stalk, he cuts others and takes them away, he would be guilty, not of a *falta*, but of the *delito* of larceny. The former would be punished by thirty days imprisonment; the latter by a heavier penalty. The reason given for the distinction was this: In the first case the man takes a single cane on the spur of the moment and from a sense of immediate need; in the second the element of immediate need is absent, and he appropriates the property of another for his future use. The penal is the briefest of the codes.

The civil code is characterized by great attention to minute details, as is also the commercial code. Marriage, ownership and disposition of property, laws of inheritance, nature of contracts, etc., are treated in the civil code, and everything pertaining to mercantile life in the commercial code, which gives in the fullest detail, the law of mercantile firms or companies, mercantile contracts and the like. There is

a system of legal registration, under the courts, for all kinds of mercantile documents, and the code prescribes the manner in which a merchant's books must be kept in order that they may have the force of testimony in law suits.

Besides these three codes are the *Ley Hipotecaria*, or mortgage law; the *Ley y Reglamento del Notariado*, or notarial law and regulations; a compilation of legislation affecting education; *Legislacion de Primera Ensanza de Puerto Rico*—a book of a thousand pages; the *Ley de Enjuiciamiento Civil*, and the *Ley de Enjuiciamiento Penal*—relating to legal procedure; *Leyes Organicas del Poder Judicial*—defining the powers of judges, making a considerable body of official legal literature, which is supplemented by manuals for the various classes of officials.

The codes and laws are regarded by the lawyers and judges of Porto Rico as, on the whole, equitable, suitable, and effective. They concede that reforms of a minor character are needed under certain heads, but insist that the systems are admirably drawn and are among the best in use among the Latin peoples. It is in the organization of the courts and in the methods of judicial procedure that occasion is most generally found for considerable amendments and changes.

The judicial system of Porto Rico was a very simple one. There were three criminal courts of the same grade, the *audiencia territorial* (criminal chamber) at San Juan, the *audiencia criminal* of Ponce, and the *audiencia criminal* of Mayaguez. These three courts disposed of all the graver criminal cases. Appeals were taken direct to the supreme court at Madrid. The *audiencia criminal* consisted of a president, two justices, with a justice suplente, or supplementary, a fiscal and an assistant fiscal, a secretary, and the usual court officers. For the trial of high officials a special court was provided, consisting of the president, two justices of the *audiencia territorial*, and two members, doctors of the law, of the provincial deputation.

The *audiencia territorial* was constituted as follows: A president, a president of the hall of justice, five justices, a fiscal and assistant fiscals, a secretary, fifteen secretaries of the hall of justice, etc. Appeals in civil cases were taken from the courts of the various judicial districts to the *audiencia territorial*, and thence to the supreme court of Spain.

The island was divided into eleven judicial districts. In each of these was a judge of first instance and instruction, that of San Juan having two. He had power to hear and determine civil suits, there being an appeal from his decisions to the *audiencia territorial*. His function in criminal cases was restricted to investigation. He summoned and examined witnesses privately, and made a brief for the *audiencia criminal*. He had to prepare a summary of all the testimony, and indicate for what crime the offender should be tried or why he should be acquitted. If the *audiencia* considered the case incomplete, or as requiring emendations, it was returned for completion or correction.

In every municipal district there was a municipal judge, who had jurisdiction in civil cases involving \$200, or less, and in cases of violations of municipal ordinances. He could impose fines up to \$45, and imprisonment up to thirty days. Appeals from his decisions were to the judge of first instance. When a crime was committed, it was his duty to prepare the case and submit it to the judge of first instance within three days.

Municipal judges had no salary. Judges of first instance received from \$2,000 to \$3,000 a year; judges of the audiencias, \$3,000; and the two presidents in San Juan, \$5,000 and \$5,500, respectively.

The attitude of the Spanish law toward accused persons differs from that which characterizes Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence. Under our law they are regarded as innocent until proved guilty; under the Spanish law, according to Judge Fulladosa, they are regarded as guilty until proved innocent. The denuncia on which arrest is usually based may be made by a private person or by the fiscal. The order of arrest does not state the charge. After arrest the accused is questioned privately by the judge, and is held incomunicado in the first stage of the inquisitorial proceedings, no one being allowed to see him or talk with him for two or three days. He is not permitted to be present while the judge examines the witnesses, also in privacy, only one witness being present at a time. Asked by the commissioner why the accused is not informed of the charge against him when he is arrested, the judge of first instance at Humacao replied: "Because he might prepare himself for a defense beforehand; he might put himself in communication with persons for that purpose; they are very clever here." After he learns what he is accused of he may name a lawyer, but the lawyer has no control over the secret proceedings. No witness is allowed to disclose and no newspaper to print any of the testimony. The case when completed is passed on to the audiencia for trial. The summary is examined by the court, which certifies that it has been properly drawn; the fiscal then examines it and passes it to the counsel for the defense. On the trial the presiding judge asks each witness the usual questions as to his age, birthplace, etc., and then allows the prosecution and the defense to examine.

The witnesses for the prosecution are first called, then those for the defense. The testimony before the court may be the very opposite of that given in the preliminary proceedings; but this contradiction does not involve perjury. That only is regarded as conclusive evidence which is given on the trial. This is a comparatively recent provision of law, the reason for which is said to be, that people were so much in terror of the civil guard that they would give false testimony before the judge of first instance to conciliate the guard, which seems to have haled men to prison on the barest suspicion. The commissioner attended one session of the audiencia criminal at Mayaguez, when five men were on trial for burning an estate in Rincon and shooting the wife of the proprietor. Two lawyers sat with the three judges, all wearing black gowns, with white lace at the wrists. Little latitude seemed to be allowed to the counsel for the defense, the president calling them to order frequently, by ringing a small bell, and ruling out their questions, though no objection was raised by the fiscal. The testimony of the wife of the proprietor was contradictory of that of her husband on minor points. He said there was no light in the house when the attack was made; she said there was; he said the accused were in front of a group of trees when they shot; she said they were behind the trees. The president himself got brief explanations from the two witnesses, and refused to allow the counsel for the defense to go into the matter at all. The court exercised larger powers than is customary in the United States, asking many questions itself and limiting the functions both of the prosecution and the defense. The case was concluded with the written arguments of the lawyers on both sides.

There is a strong demand for reforms in the courts. Señor Aguayo, an able and upright judge of first instance, in a statement to the commissioner, urged that all secrecy in the preliminary investigation be removed. He points out as the greatest evil of the system that the secrecy "produces in the public conscience a sort of terror," and, as a rule, "witnesses have to be made to testify by force." He insists that publicity would insure general cooperation; those having knowledge of the case would come forward to testify; that it would be "a guaranty against the venality of judges," and that the defendant could produce all the proof on his side. He would have the jury system which is in use in Spain introduced immediately. The time occupied in making the *sumario*, ordinarily a month or more, was well-nigh wasted, since it was not conclusive, even in cases where the summary showed that conviction was improbable. It must, in any event, go up to the *audiencia* to be tried or dismissed. Abuses, the commissioner was told, were numerous. The delays are long and vexatious. After the *sumario*, consisting of from 500 to 1,000 sheets, is in the hands of the court, it may be six months or more before the trial begins. Sometimes the prisoner is set at liberty before his case comes on, his innocence having been demonstrated to the satisfaction of the judge of first instance; nevertheless, the court may proceed with the case. Men with malicious intent have, it was said, abundant opportunity to secure the imprisonment of innocent persons for a month or more, and yet escape prosecution for making false charges.

The prosecution of minor offenses was made difficult by the distances the complainant often had to go, the horrible condition of the roads, and the time and expenses involved. A case in illustration was given the commissioner by a German farmer living at Gobo, having his farm partly in the municipal district of Utuado and partly in that of Arecibo. A man with whom he had had trouble stole his horse. He pursued him and got the horse. He immediately made complaint before the *comisario* of the district, and next day went before the judge of first instance in Arecibo. He proved his ownership of the horse and received him in *deposito*. Then it was discovered that the crime was really committed in the district of Utuado, and he had to go to that place, almost as far as to Arecibo. There he was told that the trial would take place at Mayaguez six or seven months later. He would have to go to Mayaguez with his witnesses, consuming two days each way, besides the time occupied in the trial. The law provides for the expenses of witnesses, but it is claimed that it is so difficult to collect them that the claims are often sold at a considerable discount. The horse was valued at \$25. The German had already lost two days, expected to lose a week more at the trial, and to pay \$50 in expenses. Under such circumstances crimes would, in many instances, go unreported and unpunished.

THE NOTARIAL AND REGISTRATION SYSTEMS.

The drawing of deeds, wills, and all kinds of legal contracts and documents was in the hands of notaries, whose number was limited, so that new members could not be admitted to the college until vacancies occurred. There were twenty-five for the island, two each in the three larger cities, and one each in cities of less importance. They were admitted, on competitive examination, by the Crown, and paid, it is said, large fees for their exclusive privileges. They not only drew deeds and wills, but were the depositaries for such documents, giving a bond of security for damages from the loss of important papers. The

dean of the college, Mr. Guerra, informed the commissioner that he had paid \$17,000 for the privilege, which is transferable.

Registries of property are established, as a rule, in those places entitled to notaries, the work of the one being complementary to that of the other. The system of registration comprises deeds, mortgages, wills, and all forms of ownership and transfer of property. The law requires a registrar to inquire as to the validity of titles which he inscribes, and holds him responsible for their legality. The registrar charges fees according to an elaborate scale fixed by law. He was allowed to charge for inscription, which included only certain parts of documents, for passing on the validity of the title, and for searching the records. Formerly registrars might charge for correcting defects in documents offered for inscription, and abuses grew out of the practice. The system appears to be a good one, although the charges are complained of as excessive. An increase in the number of registrars, so as to have one in every municipal district, is very desirable. Much property remains unregistered, owing partly to the heavy expenses involved and partly to the feeling of security in possession. Litigation over titles, deeds, wills, etc., is, it is stated, not very extensive. The expenses of transfers were very great. In the first place, they were subject to the royal dues; second, to the notarial charges, which were very heavy; third, to the fees of registration, amounting sometimes to \$12 for property worth \$300; and, fourth, to the cost of the stamped paper, on which all the documents had to be written. According to the mayor of Guayama, the tax on transfers was "so onerous that the island is full of deeds which have been held in hopes of better times, and have not yet paid this tax, thus making the titles inoperative." The stamped paper cost from 15 cents up to \$25, according to the value of the contract or obligation. Its use was obligatory in all documents of a legal character, even by judges in the preparation of a *sumario*.

Mortgages, which may be referred to in this connection, were governed by the hypothecary law, which sought the security of the lender rather than the convenience of the borrower. There are two methods of foreclosure, one called the executive; the other is a special procedure. Most of the actions are taken under the latter, and are of a summary nature. The debtor has no power to intervene, and his estate may be sold at auction thirty days after proceedings are begun in the court. Many cases of hardship under the law were reported to the commissioner, in which owners of plantations were about to lose their property for a fraction of its estimated value. In accordance with his earnest representations, Governor-General Henry issued an order, prepared by him, suspending the law of foreclosure as respects farm property and machinery for one year from January 19, 1899. The law needs to be reformed in the interest of debtors against conscienceless creditors, so as to give sufficient opportunity to the former to save their property from sacrifice. The mortgages recorded in the various districts amount to a total of nearly \$28,000,000, indicating that borrowing is extensive. The largest mortgage indebtedness exists in the registration districts of San Juan, Ponce, Mayaguez, and San German.

THE CHURCH AND CHURCH PROPERTY.

The Catholic was the state religion, and at the time of the American occupation there were but two churches of any other faith in Porto Rico. There was a Protestant church in Ponce and another at Isabel II, in the island of Vieques, both under the auspices of the

Church of England. The latter had been established nineteen years. The Governor-General, under appointment by the Pope, was patronato real, or civil head of the church. The bishop, with his staff, and all the clergy were borne on the provincial pay roll, and received their salaries through the custom-houses of the various districts. For salaries alone \$167,340 was appropriated in the budget of 1897-98, including \$42,400 for the cathedral in San Juan, out of which the bishop and his staff were paid. For expenses, apart from salaries, the sum of \$26,270 was provided. For other purposes, including salaries of ecclesiastical judges and military chaplains, subventions to religious schools, and Sisters of Charity in the hospitals and asylums, about \$41,000 was set apart, making in all about \$235,000 for the church and various religious purposes. The bishop formerly received a salary of \$18,000 or \$20,000 a year, but this amount was gradually reduced to \$9,000. The dean of the chapter was paid \$3,000; canons, \$2,000; parochial priests, according to their class, from \$1,500 down to \$600 a year. Formerly the church was supported by tithes and first fruits, and monthly sums from the ayuntamientos. The royal decree of 1858 abolished tithes and first fruits, forbade fees for the sacraments, and provided for the church in the budget. The capitular vicar informed the commissioner that there had probably been some abuses in the charging of fees by the clergy for baptisms, marriages, and burials, but he did not believe they were extensive. A priest, who announced that he was about to leave the church, stated that the fees collected averaged about as follows: Marriage, simple service, \$10; more elaborate service, \$16; burial, simple service, \$14; more elaborate service, \$22; masses, \$1. Several persons told the commissioner that they had paid \$16 for their marriage service. After American occupation, the priests having no support whatever, charged, in some instances, whatever they could get. One American paid a fee of \$65. The clergy were almost entirely Spaniards. Very few natives were in the priesthood. Reared and educated in Spain, they did not, for the most part, command the sympathy of the municipal officers, who were chiefly Porto Ricans, and as there was more or less friction between Porto Ricans and Spaniards, and the priests were paid by the Government and were understood to be in entire sympathy with it, they did not really come into close touch with many of the natives in their parishes. At the close of the war a number of the priests, including the bishop, went back to Spain.

There are no monasteries in Porto Rico. Formerly the Dominicans and Franciscans were established there, but the Government confiscated their property in 1837-38, using part of it for public purposes, selling a part and renting a part. The chapels attached were, however, not disturbed. Such orders as are now represented are engaged in educational, hospital, and charitable work.

The churches, which are invariably situated on the chief plazas of the cities and towns, vary in value and size, according to the population surrounding them. They are usually among the best buildings, though some are old and need repairs. None of them would be called magnificent. Evidently no great amount of private wealth has been bestowed for their adornment and furnishing. The assumption that the church in Porto Rico is rolling in wealth has nothing to support it. The secretary of the bishopric, Señor Caneja, lectoral canon, informed the commissioner that the church has no other property except the churches and parish houses; that by will or gift it is in the

receipt of censos or annual payments for specific purposes, such as masses, sermons, or other memorial celebrations. These censos are fixed charges, which must be paid by the holder of the property upon which they are a claim. When state support was suddenly withdrawn the church had no resources. The capitular vicar stated that its condition was lamentable. The people had not been accustomed to the American system of voluntary contributions; most of them were too poor to take upon themselves additional burdens, and the priests had to depend upon the fees they could get and upon their own resources, which in some instances were ample.

The moment that Spanish domination ended the question of the ownership of the churches was raised. None of these properties were registered. The church, under the law, could not register them, and few or no papers or records of gift or conveyance appear to be in existence. The capitular vicar said to the commissioner: "The church has no title in the sense of documents; but it has always been an understood thing that these properties belong to the church." In so far as lands or other gifts were made, the donors, he added, "did not bother about giving written titles." The municipality, or the state, generally, gave the ground and in most cases the municipality built the church. The commissioner inquired thoroughly into this matter in all the municipalities he visited. In some cases the surplus in the treasury was used for this purpose; in other cases special provision was made in the municipal budget, and in a number of instances a kind of apportionment was made among the ratepayers by the ayuntamiento. Almost without exception the alcaldes and councilmen, questioned by the commissioner, asserted municipal ownership of the church property. In Arroyo the church, according to the vice alcalde, was built by popular subscription and turned over to the state; in Yabucoa the title is not vested in the municipality, says the alcalde, but in the state; in Aibonito the town gave \$15,000, the state \$12,000, and the balance (\$7,000) was raised by subscription; in Humacao the church cost \$45,000; it was built by the people and taken over by the state; in Ponce the church property is claimed by the alcalde as belonging exclusively to the municipality, which caused it to be registered after American occupation. The fine, large church in Guayama was built in 1873, from the annual surplus of the municipal budget and from returns for old taxes; in San German, which has, it is said, the oldest church in the island, it was conceded that the property belongs to the church; in Cayey the church was built by public funds and the parish house was bought by municipal money; in Coamo the land was given by the town and the church built by taxation; in Caguas the church was built by municipal funds.

This brief summary of important testimony, given before the commissioner, indicates how the churches were generally built. Some of the ayuntamientos seemed quite firm in the purpose to hold the churches as municipal property, but were willing to sell or to rent. In other cases the proposal to transfer the title to the church was apparently welcomed. There is little question that public funds built in whole or in part nearly all the churches. The considerations which seem to me to control the question are these: (1) The churches were built for Catholic worship, and for no other, by Catholic communities; (2) they were consecrated by the rites of the Catholic Church; (3) they have been regularly used for Catholic services, and for no other purpose, since consecration; (4) their use for this purpose received

the acquiescence of state, municipality, and people; (5) according to the law, edifices for public worship, no matter by whom built, passed under control of the church when consecrated; (6) the law did not allow such property to be registered by the church; (7) no records or deeds of gift were usually made of donations or transfers of property for church uses; (8) under the law of registration, twenty years' undisputed and continued possession gives valid title.

On the other hand, municipalities claim the ownership of most of the churches, on the ground that they were built in whole or in part by municipal funds raised by taxation; that the payment of such taxes was obligatory, and that it was not permitted to loyal citizens to protest against them. Church and state were one, the bishop occupying, in the council of administration and similar provincial organizations, the place next to the governor-general. In one instance, already referred to, church property was registered without protest as municipal property, but this was since American occupation. It was not the custom to register municipal property, though there was no law prohibiting it. Perhaps this was due to the heavy registration fees. The fees for registering six pieces of property in Ponce were as follows: Catholic cemetery in the playa, \$379; the Catholic church, \$598; the Tricoche hospital, \$156; the civil hospital, \$81; and the Protestant cemetery, \$13. On appeal to General Henry he relieved the municipality of the charges and the property was registered free. The churches have been kept in repair by the municipalities. It is admitted that consecration gave the church use or control of the edifices, but it is denied that it gave also ownership. The churches in Yabucoa and Arroyo, according to the alcaldes of those districts, belong not to the municipality but to the state. If this be so the question might be raised whether these churches and any others in the same category do not, under the Treaty of Paris, "belong to the public domain and as such to the Crown of Spain," and have therefore been ceded by the treaty to the United States. But this cession was made subject to "the rights of provinces, municipalities, public and private establishments, ecclesiastical or civic bodies," etc. The churches spoken of as belonging to the state were perhaps property of the province and not of the Crown. In so far as titles may be legally established by ecclesiastical bodies, or on the part of the Province of Porto Rico, or by the several municipalities, the United States is evidently bound by the treaty to grant possession. Neither the municipalities nor the province could be coerced to a surrender of such churches as may legally be held by them. But if the will of the Porto Ricans were permitted to have effect with their official representatives, the churches, as a matter of simple justice, would be passed over to the control, possession, and use of the Roman Catholic Church. The commissioner found that everywhere the majority thought that the churches ought to be for Catholic worship, but ought to be held by the people and not by the priests. Some alcaldes and councilmen and others, including men who were said not to be good Catholics, insisted that the municipalities should have some return for what they had expended, either by sale or by annual rental. If the right of municipalities to control them is established, it is conceivable that in some cases they might be sold or rented to representatives of other faiths for public worship of a different order and thus give cause of offense to Catholics.

The ends of justice could probably be most surely and promptly reached by creating a special court or commission to investigate the

whole matter, with power to determine each case brought before it, and give legal title, possession, and use to the rightful owners.

The people seem to be entirely in accord with the American principle of separation of church and state, and complete religious liberty. The capitular vicar urged that gratuities from the state treasury to the clergy be granted, as a temporary measure, until the church could organize a system of self-support, but the commissioner found no second in the island to this proposal. In every municipality he visited he was told that appropriations for the repairs of the churches had been discontinued. Other forms of worship have been introduced in San Juan, Ponce, Arceibo, Rio Piedras, and other places without demonstrations of hostility. This is no small tribute to the liberality of a people who have in all the past been accustomed to one form of religion to the exclusion of others.

THE CEMETERIES.

In this connection the question of control of the cemeteries has been raised. It is not disputed that these cemeteries were bought and built by municipal funds. But they were consecrated by the priests as burial grounds for Catholics, and while the secular owners have rented and sold graves and niches, issued through municipal judges permits for burial, and kept the grounds in condition, the priest was allowed to exercise the right to indicate who were entitled to ecclesiastical burial. Those not Catholics were buried in unconsecrated ground, generally a small plot outside the walls. After American occupation one or two ayuntamientos took action in favor of the secularization of the cemeteries, but the military government has not conceded that right. On the contrary, General Henry issued an order confirming to the priests the right of prohibiting the interment of non-Catholics in consecrated ground, and at the same time requiring the municipal authorities, from the proceeds of rentals and fees which they collect, to pay for the maintenance of the cemeteries.

Ecclesiastical control is claimed, not on the ground of ownership, but on that of immemorial usage. Priests have always been allowed to consecrate the ground and to say who should be buried in it, and the church insists that it gained a right by consecration and continued control which can not properly be taken from it. The question raised is a delicate one. It is not the same exactly as that concerning church property. The church existed for all who chose to attend its services and accept its offices; but persons could refuse to worship in it or to patronize it. Not so the cemetery. Those who die must be buried, and the right to sepulture in a cemetery owned by all the people can not be denied, it is argued, without substantial injustice. The issue might be met by having plots for non-Catholics. Where such plots already exist they are generally outside the walls and are not kept in proper condition. As new cemeteries are established they will probably be on a secular basis, with a provision allowing the graves of Catholics or Catholic portions to be consecrated. Municipalities should be required to provide ground for non-Catholic burials, sufficient, eligible, and in no way inferior. The custom of disinterment of bodies entitled only to temporary sepulture, if not dangerous to general health, is shocking to those not familiar with European usage, and should be discontinued. The order of General Henry to that effect is not fully carried out for want of room in the cemeteries.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

The system of public schools was antiquated, and few improvements seem to have been made. In practice it was decidedly inferior and insufficient. Most attention was given, naturally, to urban schools, and these were inadequate in almost every respect. Less attention was given to schools in the rural districts, where the difficulties were greatest. Something was done for the boys, but little for the girls. Indeed, the first rural school for girls is said to have been established no longer ago than 1889. The general administration of public schools was under the direction of the provincial deputation. At the close of the Spanish domination it constituted a bureau of the department of fomento or interior. The expenses of this administration were included in the provincial budget. The pay of the teachers, the rent of buildings, and the expense of supplies devolved on the municipalities. In every municipality there was a school board, of which the mayor was chairman, charged with immediate supervision. It was ordinarily composed of the most intelligent men available, but is said to have been negligent usually in the discharge of its duties. The finances of the cities were so often made difficult by the heavy prior claims of the state on taxpayers that the appropriations to the schools frequently suffered. The schools were domiciled in rented rooms, generally unfitted for the purpose. Only half a dozen occupied public buildings. Space, light, ventilation, furniture, appliances, and supplies were never adequate, the surroundings were unsuitable, and the conditions unsanitary. The school age was from 5 to 18. Children of well-to-do parents usually entered at 5; those of the poorer classes not until 8. The scholars were generally clothed, but there were some exceptions among the smaller ones. Very poor parents, seen by the commissioner, excused their neglect to school their children by saying they could not give them decent clothes. The school population of the island, as reported by Secretary Carbonell, on the 1st of November, 1898, was 125,695. Of these 27,938 had attended school and 93,757 had not. Returns in March, 1899, showed that the total of registered scholars was 26,588, including private schools, and the average attendance 18,979. According to this, a little more than one-fifth of the school population were registered and the average attendance was upward of one-seventh. Of the registered scholars 17,521 were boys and 9,007 were girls, the boys outnumbering the girls nearly two to one. The masters or teachers were required to show the teacher's title in order to obtain employment. Some were prepared in the two normal schools or in the secondary institute in San Juan; many came from Spain. As a rule, they were a faithful, poorly paid class of public servants. Women taught the girls' schools in all cases, the sexes being rigidly kept apart. Teachers were allowed to collect fees from parents able to pay. This, it is said, led to more or less partiality for the pay scholars. Supplies were furnished to those who could not buy them. Schools were held every day but Sunday the year round, excepting feast days and holidays, with morning and afternoon sessions of about three hours each. In summer the afternoon session was shortened or omitted.

The schools were supposed to be divided into elementary, of first and second grades, and superior. Of the latter there were only seven. The system of instruction was generally superficial and not solid, and theoretical rather than practical. The commissioner visited and

examined many schools, as described elsewhere in this report. He found the children wonderfully bright and quick. They answered the questions of the teachers promptly and confidently, but hesitated and stumbled when asked the simplest questions in geography, arithmetic, and other studies, indicating that more attention had been given to the making of brilliant than competent scholars. There were few general institutions. A conciliar seminary was established for the priesthood; the Provincial Institute, recently suppressed, carried scholars to the ordinary freshman or sophomore year; the College of the Esculapian Fathers, the College of the Mothers of the Heart of Jesus, the College of San Ildefonso, the School of Arts and Industries, and a private academy of drawing constituted, with the normal schools, all the general educational institutions.

The first great need of this system of education is suitable, sanitary public buildings; second, a more efficient corps of teachers; third, more schools, particularly in the rural districts; fourth, larger provincial appropriations, until the municipalities are in a condition to support their own schools; fifth, reorganization of the studies and better text-books; sixth, effective provincial supervision, such as the military government has provided, under which great improvements have been made; seventh, better normal schools.

The last census does not give returns for literacy and illiteracy except in certain districts. There are no later figures than those of the census of 1860, when the population was 583,181. Of this number 51,250 were literate and 531,931 illiterate. Over 90 per cent were unable to read. The estimates of present conditions vary; some say that 15, others 18 or 20 per cent, of the population are literates. Of the population of Ponce, numbering, according to the census of 1897, between 48,000 and 49,000, 14,394 can read or read and write. This is over 29 per cent, showing a gain since 1887, when the percentage was 24. The population of that district was as follows: Ponceños, 37,203; from other districts of the island and Cuba, 8,493; from the Peninsula, 2,283; from other foreign countries, 1,021. The floating population was remarkably small, being only 342. The greatest amount of illiteracy is, of course, in the rural districts, where the population is hard to reach with school facilities.

PUBLIC CHARITIES AND PRISONS.

The public charities of Porto Rico are few, poorly supported, and poorly organized, as a rule. The municipalities make appropriations for beneficencia, including town doctors, hospitals, aid for the sick poor who can not get to the hospital, and occasionally for a house for infirm poor. Every district has a hospital, generally insufficiently equipped and not well kept, but there are few orphanages and scarcely any provision for the insane, outside of San Juan, where an insane asylum is maintained by provincial funds. There is an excellent asylum for children in San Juan under the care of the Sisters of Charity, and one or two small orphanages.

There is need of more generous provisions for orphans. Mothers of illegitimate children very rarely abandon them, but when these unfortunate women die, the children are often cast on the street, and live like animals. The people are very kind and helpful to those in distress. It is the custom when a child is left without natural protectors for the relatives or neighbors to provide for it. One will give

shelter, another food, another clothing, another education, thus dividing the burden. Among the poorest of the poor the commissioner found a system of mutual helpfulness. When a poor woman falls sick and her income stops, neighboring women care for her out of their own slender resources. The poor commonly have a strong prejudice against the hospitals, and will not go to them unless helpless. They say those who go in sick come out dead. They differ in their statements about the town doctors. Many said they would not visit the sick poor without pay; others that they would. Dr. Stahl, of Bayamon, says that scarcely one in a hundred of the poor who die has the attendance of a physician. The Tricoche Hospital in Ponce, established by a private benefaction, is one of the best in the island. It is kept clean and in good order by the Sisters of Charity.

The prisons, of which there is one in each judicial district, with a penitentiary, so called, for the whole island, in San Juan, besides ordinary jails, are almost without exception worthy of condemnation. They are generally crowded, damp, pervaded by foul smells, dangerous to health, according to native physicians. With the exception of separation of sexes, no division whatever is attempted. Young and old, the first offender and the old criminal are herded together, the man accused and awaiting trial with those serving long sentences. The care of the penitentiary at San Juan was undertaken by the insular government. The cost of maintaining the district prisons is borne by the municipalities within the district. Many of the prisoners in the penitentiary were kept in chains. General Henry abolished this form of punishment, and put the district prisons under the care of the province. Much has been done under the military government to remedy abuses and improve the sanitary conditions, but the whole system needs to be reorganized according to modern penological methods.

Crime, particularly of the graver kinds, is not excessive. The disorders which followed the overthrow of Spanish dominion were of a serious character; but they did not spring out of a spirit of lawlessness so much as out of a spirit of revenge. The native who had been oppressed by Spanish employers used the opportunity to pay off a long score of personal injuries and insults. The attacks by those bands were not indiscriminate, and usually the motive was to destroy, not to appropriate property, to wound or kill the master himself or his agent, and not the family. They were soon ended, and not a few of the guilty ones are serving sentences. Those familiar with the conditions before American occupation say that the wonder is that the outrages were not far worse. The prevailing crimes are those of homicide, and appropriation of property in the various forms of theft, larceny, and robbery. Burglary is almost entirely unknown. The summary for the provincial penitentiary shows that there were 4 serving sentence for murder, 113 for homicide, 168 for theft or robbery, 2 for forgery, 5 for swindling, 6 for arson, 6 for violation, and 1 for abduction. Ten were under 20 years of age. Of 69 in the departmental prison at Ponce, 20 were under sentence for theft or robbery, 27 for wounding, 5 for swindling, and 5 for homicide. Of the prisoners 30 were white and 39 colored. Of the 308 prisoners in the penitentiary 131 were white and 177 colored, showing that the colored classes, forming about 36 per cent of the population, are responsible for considerably more than their share of crimes. The entire penal population, according to the census of 1897, was 1,101, or 1 in 817 of the entire population. The proportion in the United States is consid-

erably greater, being 1 in 766. In 1862, when Porto Rico had 600,000 population and Cuba 1,200,000, the latter had 1 homicide to every 7,100 inhabitants, the former 1 to every 75,000; Cuba 1 assault to every 1,799 inhabitants, Porto Rico 1 to every 5,120; Cuba 1 robbery to every 7,453 inhabitants, Porto Rico 1 to every 15,789; Cuba 1 theft to every 753 inhabitants, Porto Rico 1 to every 2,112.

SOCIAL CONDITIONS.

The statistics of births in 1897, elsewhere given, show that about 52 per cent were of legitimate and 48 per cent of illegitimate children. The births are by no means, owing to a defective law, fully reported; but complete returns would not probably make the showing better. Half or more of the children born are illegitimate, and it follows that a large proportion of parents are living in conjugal relations without marriage. This does not mean that the people are immoral or that the sexes are promiscuous in their relations. The social evil is said to be quite extensive; but marriage is not shunned, with rare exceptions, for immoral purposes. Various reasons are given for neglecting the sacrament or ceremony. By some it is ascribed to a want of education, by others to the desire to be free from the obligations which marriage imposes, but by most informants to obstacles which the poor could not surmount. Two forms of marriage were provided by law, the civil and the ecclesiastical. The code declared the latter to be the only form for Catholics, and the former for non-Catholics. Certain conditions were prescribed for both, such as consent of parents and advice of grandparents, certificates of age, proclamation of the bans, etc. The priest required, in addition, confession and communion. If marriage took place at the church in the morning, it was without cost, according to the testimony of priests. If it took place in the evening, as was the custom of the well-to-do classes, a fee was expected. At most of the hearings held by the commissioner, persons insisted that these fees were too heavy for poor people, who preferred to live together unwedded than to meet all the conditions of ecclesiastical marriage. It was the general testimony that these persons live together as faithfully as those under marriage vows, and are rarely untrue to each other. Many who were questioned by the commissioner in the poor quarters of Arecibo, Yauco, and other cities, said they would like to marry for the sake of legitimatizing their children, but could not pay the expenses. Under the prevailing interpretation of the law, they could not go to the municipal judge for civil marriage without abjuring the Catholic faith. Moreover, the expenses of this form were considerable.

There was another difficulty. In the smaller communities nearly every family was related to every other family, and often persons desiring to marry were related to each other within the degrees prohibited by both church and state. Ecclesiastical dispensations were difficult to get. The commissioner, at the request of General Henry, in consultation with the secretary of state and the secretary of justice, drew an order which opened the way to civil marriage for all, removing delays and obstacles and making it free. The immediate effect was an increase in judicial marriages. It is desirable that this chapter of the code should be entirely recast in accordance with American principles, and the onerous provision requiring the mother to present herself and her child for registry, within forty days after its birth, under penalty, though she may live in a distant part of the district

and be unable to travel, should be substituted by a more reasonable and effective system. The deaths were considerably in excess of the births, according to the municipal returns for 1897. Births are concealed or unreported for reasons already indicated. There are no recent statistics of longevity. According to the census of 1860, of 583,308 inhabitants, 18,273 were above 60 years of age, and 73 above a hundred.

CHARACTER OF THE PEOPLE.

The Porto Ricans are a kindly, hospitable, polite people, very sociable, and always ready to do Americans a friendly service. If a stranger in their streets asks the way to any particular point the obliging native will often go with him instead of simply directing him, and refuse any reward. Courteous to everybody, they seem glad to be able to grant a favor. They are cheerful in disposition, uniformly kind to one another, and manifest as parents great love for their children. Cases of brutal treatment of the little ones are rare. Street brawls and disorders occur occasionally, but respect for law and order is very strong, and the people are lovers of peace. Although they have always been accustomed to the presence of soldiers, they appear to be grieved that they are kept under a military government. To the commissioner they said again and again, "We want a civil government as soon as possible. Let the military régime be shortened. What have we done that we should be placed under military law? We have done nothing worthy of punishment." They spoke favorably of the character of the military government, its honesty, efficiency, and devotion to insular interests, but were impatient to have their civil status fixed. According to Señor Manuel Fernández Juncos, one of the leaders of the autonomist party, the chief fault of the Porto Rican is "lack of will force," and he urges that education should be so directed as to counteract this weakness.

Naturally inclined to social intercourse, the conditions tend to restriction in the indulgence of their inclination. In cities there are social calls, balls and receptions, and occasional performances, musical or theatrical, in the public theater, but outside of the cities few amusements are possible. Visiting is difficult, owing to bad roads, and family reunions, even, are not common, particularly among the poorer classes. They are fond of music, especially of string instruments, but are not a reading people. Books and periodicals are seldom seen on their tables. Games and outdoor diversions are not general, among either young or old, men or women. Balls and dances are perhaps the most popular and universal diversion. In the winter season the feast known as candelaria is celebrated, and much is made of the carnival just before Lent. During the former, which was observed in January, when the commissioner was in Mayaguez, many people came into the city from the rural districts and participated in the processions, balls, etc. It was a time also for games of chance. The market place and drinking houses were occupied with tables for all kinds of gambling, which is a passion with the people. Boys and girls, men and women, who had saved up their centavos and small silver coins for this purpose, crowded around the tables afternoon and evening and took their chances. Although this was contrary to law, the municipal authorities said the custom was dear to the people, and they thought the play was usually not serious, but a harmless pastime. In the carnival the good will and good nature of the people are manifested. They open on Sunday with the *papelita*, small paper disks,

which are showered upon the passers-by in the streets, balconies being decorated with paper ribbons of bright colors. Then the maskers, of both sexes, appear in public and there are several days of fun and frolic, those thus disguised parading the streets with horns and other musical instruments in couples and in crowds.

A large class of the men are devoted to cockfights. Every considerable town has its cockpit, to which an entrance fee is charged. A special breed of cocks is reared for fighting. The exhibition is usually given Sunday afternoon, and betting is one of the most prominent features of it. In one town visited by the commissioner the municipal judge was the proprietor of the pit. No moral objection seems to have suggested itself to anybody, in proof of which it was said that priests sometimes attended the exhibition. The admission fees to cockfights are often much larger than those to theatrical performances. Bullfights have never been popular in Porto Rico. Gambling is said to be the prevailing vice of the people. The field laborer often loses a large part of his weekly wages, the commissioner was told, in games of chance, and a few instances were related of loss of valuable estates in high play.

The marriage customs are similar to those of Spain, though somewhat relaxed. Men only join funeral processions. Among the poor, the coffin is carried through the streets on the shoulders of friends, followed by male relatives. At the grave the body is usually taken out of the coffin, which is only hired for the occasion.

The newspapers are not numerous. There are several large and influential Spanish dailies published in San Juan and Ponce. They give insular news, letters from abroad, and occasionally brief cable dispatches. They generally represent one or the other of the political parties. The oldest newspaper was established sixty years ago. It was very conservative under the Spanish régime, opposing autonomy, and stating that it preferred cholera and yellow fever to the proposed reforms. The editor of the oldest daily journal told the commissioner that there was no liberty of the press till after American occupation; that the life of a newspaper man was one of "constant martyrdom." He was frequently arrested, and had whole editions of his paper confiscated, and during the war many columns of matter were ruled out. When he undertook to publish extracts from "Christian Doctrine," in place of the deleted matter, the military censor forbade it, because people might infer that important news had been suppressed. In November last there were twenty-seven or twenty-eight newspapers published in the island, in the towns of San Juan, Ponce, Mayaguez, Humacao, Arecibo, San German, and Utuado. In the majority of cases they are said to be short-lived. There was a limited demand for foreign magazines and periodicals. Small libraries exist in San Juan, Ponce, and a few other cities. Among these is the Municipal Library, established in San Juan in 1880, and the library of the Athenæum, founded the same year. The former has 7,000, the latter 5,000 volumes.

POLITICAL PARTIES.

The political organizations of Porto Rico corresponded, naturally, to those of Spain. The General Official Guide of 1896 has a list of four political parties, as follows: The Unconditional Spanish, the Liberal, the Autonomist, and the Progressive Left of the Unconditional Spanish. After the war but two remained, the Liberal and

those Autonomists who would not acquiesce in the Sagasta plan for Porto Rico, generally called Radicals. In March last the Radicals reorganized as the Republican party of Porto Rico, with a declaration of principles, calling for the retirement of the provincial currency, protection of the island's industries, and free trade with the United States. The platform of the Liberal party which was organized October 1, 1899, as the Federal party, declares in favor of "a firm and resolute tendency towards absolute identity with the United States," the early establishment of a territorial form of government, the extension of suffrage to all resident citizens, free commerce between Porto Rico and the rest of the Union, greater freedom for banking institutions, municipal autonomy and American methods in popular education. Its leader, Señor Luis Muñoz Rivera, was secretary of government or state under the autonomistic régime and had a very large following. Party feeling was strong, though for months after American occupation no principle, apparently, was at issue. The differences grew partly out of the history of the struggle for autonomy, including the first election under it, and partly out of the fact that one party was in and the other out of office.

ROADS, RAILROADS, AND COMMUNICATION.

There can be no civilization without means of communication and transportation. Porto Rico had a cheap and fairly effective telegraph and postal system, both under Government direction, but its roads, with few exceptions, were bad, and its railroads incomplete and not altogether satisfactory. There exists on paper a plan for a railroad system all the way around the island, but the gaps are much longer than the lines. From San Juan, the French line, so far as completed, extends along the northern shore westward to Camuy, a distance of 62 miles; then there is a break from Camuy to Aguadilla of 25 miles; the line begins again at Aguadilla and goes on to Hormigueros, 34 miles; from Hormigueros to Yauco is another break of 21 miles; the third part runs from Yauco to Ponce, 22 miles, making a total for the French company of 118 miles, with breaks of 46 miles, in the route from San Juan to Ponce—164 miles.

From Ponce eastward around to San Juan, about 140 miles, the railroad is yet unbuilt, excepting about 14 miles, by the French company, from San Juan to Carolina. There are three other short lines of railroad, one extending from Catano, opposite San Juan, to Bayamon, 4.35 miles; another from San Juan to Rio Piedras, 7 miles, and another from Anasco, on the west coast, to Alto Sano, 11 miles, with an extension in view to Lares. The total for all lines is 154 miles. The railroads are all narrow gauge. The French lines and the line to Bayamon are 39.37 inches, the line to Rio Piedras 30 inches, and the Anasco line only 23½ inches. The speed of passenger trains on the French road is about 15 miles an hour on the San Juan-Camuy branch and less on the Aguadilla-Mayaguez branch, or ordinary trolley time in this country. On the Aguadilla-Mayaguez branch it is about 12 miles. There are three classes of passenger fares. For first-class tickets from San Juan to Camuy the rate is \$4.95; second-class, \$3.85; third-class, \$2.75, being about 8 centavos a mile for the first, 6 for the second, and 4½ for the third. The cost of first-class passage from San Juan to Yauco, including coach hire, is about \$30, using mail coaches; when the roads are bad, or by private coaches, it may be \$40 or \$50. By coach over the military road between San Juan and Ponce, 78

miles, the rate is \$30, for one or two passengers. The freight charges are based on distances, amounts, and speed of trains. The rate between San Juan and Camuy (62 miles) on a hundredweight is \$3, fast time. By slower trains the prices are arranged in four classes, ranging from \$7 per ton up to \$15 between Camuy and San Juan. There are also special tariffs, in which the following are included: Sugar, muscovado or refined, from Camuy to San Juan, \$4.95 for each 1,000 kilograms, or ton, the minimum price being for 6,000 kilograms; that is, on any amount less than 6,000 kilograms the price would be six times \$4.95, or \$29.70. Coffee pays at the same rate. The freight on flour, oats, rice, or corn between the same points is at the rate of \$7 a ton, the minimum price being \$35. Oranges, lemons, coconuts, plantains, potatoes, etc., pay at the rate of \$2.56 per 1,000 kilograms from Barceloneta to San Juan, 40 miles. According to statements made to the commissioner at Yauco, freight rates seem to be about equal to those by cart when the roads are in ordinary condition. Both freight and passenger charges are too high in comparison with prices in general, and both a quicker and cheaper railroad service is desirable. If the resources of the island are to be developed, improved railroad facilities are indispensable. The insular government agreed to insure a net income of 8 per cent to the French company. On behalf of the latter it is claimed that lower rates would increase the annual deficit to be made up by the province, which was about \$150,000 in 1898; but lower rates and more rapid service would doubtless secure more business and therefore a larger income.

The importance of having a line of railroad around the island can hardly be overestimated. Nothing has been done recently to complete the project undertaken by the French company, except that the roadbed has been extended some little distance beyond Hormigueros toward Yauco. If the belt line were completed it would be possible to market much of the agricultural produce which can not now be shipped, or shipped promptly, by reason of bad roads and high cartage rates. Quick and cheap rail communication between the various points and ports on the entire coast of Porto Rico must be provided at an early day if the resources of the island are to be properly developed.

Whether short lines to the interior are necessary, there may be two opinions; they are quite practicable, for there are many rivers which open the way through the mountains. Electric roads could be built, equipped, and operated more cheaply, and would, doubtless, be sufficient, except where heavy grades are necessary.

The roads of the island are, in part, maintained by the insular and in part by the municipal governments. The carreteras, or highways, are under the control of the bureau of public works, department of the interior. Those which connect the towns of two or more municipal districts are in this class. The military road, so called, between San Juan and Ponce, crossing eight municipal districts, 133 kilometers in length, is the finest in the island. It is a smooth, macadamized road, divided into sections, with a house in each for the roadmaster. It cost, on the average, \$15,000 per mile to construct, and requires \$15,000 or more annually to keep it in condition. There are good, substantial bridges, except in the Ponce district. A branch road from Cayey to Guayama is of the same excellent character. In the same category are a few other short roads, notably the one from Aguadilla through Moca to San Sebastian, and that from the Playa of Ponce to Adjuntas. The rest of the carreteras, or highways, may

be classified according to degrees of badness. The very important one connecting the terminus of the railroad at Camuy with that at Aguadilla is extremely rough most of the distance, with alternate soft places. It is a wonder that the coaches, usually of the phaeton class, are able to endure the strain. The horses, small but willing, are driven with no mercy. Some of the carreteras are nothing more than trails; for example, that between Yabucoa and Maunabo. An American ambulance was got over it once, and the feat is spoken of as miraculous. When rain falls abundantly the roads of the plains and valleys, and, in fact, all which have not a rock foundation or are not macadamized, are extremely bad. They become so soft that teams are sometimes actually drowned in mud. Where this danger is not imminent the roads are rough beyond the power of description. At Utuado the commissioner was warned not to undertake to go to Lares without first making his will. Mud holes and hillocks occur in each track in such confused succession that while the fore wheel on one side is ascending, that on the other is descending, with the conditions reversed for the hind wheels.

The caminos vecinales, or vicinage roads, are supposed to be kept in order by the various municipalities. Few are even in fair condition. The larger cities give this matter more attention. Ponce spent in 1897 \$13,000 on its streets and \$7,200 on its roads; for 1899 the appropriations for roads and bridges was \$3,230; in the district of Humacao the amount is \$2,000, not sufficient, the mayor said, to keep the three roads in repairs; in Aibonito, nothing. In the important district of Yauco the vicinage roads are so bad in some places that coffee is brought down on the backs of mules over mere trails.

The demand for good roads was more general than any other presented to the commissioner. A memorial from Arroyo stated that "without roads the riches of the island can not be developed." Another, from the municipal council of Utuado, said: "Real roads do not exist from the interior to the coast; only tracks, dangerous even to travelers, are available, preventing the development of the country and sapping its life every day;" a delegation from Ponce represented that "means of transportation to and from the interior of the island are to-day in about the same primitive state as when Porto Rico was discovered," and that its "immense natural resources can not be developed" unless attention be given to this matter. In response to the universal request for better roads, the military government has expended large sums of money, under its own direction, in road building, but it will require years of ordinary effort to secure a proper system for the island.

This subject is of the greatest importance. It is fundamental to the well-being and progress of Porto Rico. It affects all human interests—social, educational, industrial, commercial, political. Good roads increase travel and social visitation; make school facilities available; lessen the cost of marketing industrial and agricultural products; cheapen the price of the necessities of life; make commercial transactions easier; facilitate the functions of government, and render possible a quick and effective postal system. Bad roads are the enemies of civilization. They destroy carriages and wagons and ruin horses and oxen; they make the cost of transportation so great that products are wasted, production is curtailed, and profits eaten up.

At Humacao the commissioner was informed that the shipments from that port might easily be 20,000 or 25,000 tons a year, instead of 9,000, indicating an annual loss of 11,000 to 16,000 tons. The cost of

transporting a hogshead of sugar, 1,600 to 1,800 pounds, from San Lorenzo to San Juan is \$6. If the road to Humacao were passable it could be taken to that port for \$2, a loss evidently of \$4 a hogshead. The cost of transportation from Juncos to Humacao is so great that the margin of profit is very small. Planters in Utuado declare that it costs as much to get coffee from that district to the shipping port as from the port to Liverpool. In the wet season it costs an extra 25 cents a quintal to send coffee from Utuado to Ponce. At Gobo, on the border of the districts of Arecibo and Utuado, the commissioner's party overtook an ox team loaded with merchandise that had been already two days and a night on the way to Utuado. The planters and merchants in Humacao, when questioned as to why they did not raise more rice, pineapples, oranges, and cocoanuts, stated that it was because of lack of facilities of transportation.

At most of the ports the arrangements for shipping and unloading goods are of a primitive character. There is no wharf even for small boats. Passengers must wade or be carried on the shoulders of the boatmen. The loading of a hogshead of sugar is a serious matter. A large flatboat, used as a lighter, is brought as near shore as possible and turned upon its side. The hogshead is then rolled in and the boat is righted. Port improvements are almost as necessary as good roads. More coastwise vessels are needed for the island commerce, and some of the port charges need to be reduced. At Humacao the pilot fee for each vessel was said to be \$28, which is very burdensome, particularly when only a few goods are landed.

COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY.

The policy which has governed in Porto Rico hitherto seems to have been to put all its energy into the production of sugar, coffee, tobacco, and cattle, and import most of its food supply. Its crops, under a system of cultivation not the most advantageous, have been so large that it could pay its heavy bills for foreign goods, meet enormous interest charges on its working capital, and have generally a profit left. The movement of commerce at the custom-houses was indicated by detailed statistics, published under official auspices. For the calendar year 1897 the importations amounted in value to \$17,858,063, native money, of which \$7,152,016, or a little more than 40 per cent, came from Spain; \$3,749,815, or upward of 20 per cent, from the United States; \$1,755,755, a little less than 10 per cent, from England; \$1,445,600 from English possessions; \$1,314,603 from Germany; and the rest from many other countries, including \$913,069 from India and \$692,780 from Cuba. The importations from English possessions consisted chiefly of fish from Canada. From Cuba came manufactured tobacco and chocolate; from Spain, hats and shoes, rice, wines, olive oil, soap, furniture, and cotton goods; from the United States, coal, kerosene oil, boards, pork and lard, and flour; from Germany, rice, beer, cheese, and building materials; from England, coal, corrugated iron for roofs, cotton goods, machinery, and cheese; from India, Belgium, and Denmark, rice; and from South America, jerked beef. Bacalao (codfish) and rice are the chief articles of common diet. The importation of rice was enormous—35,451,874 kilos, or 77,994,122 pounds—far exceeding in weight any other single article, not even excepting coal. In value it exceeded by a million pesos any other imported article. Of codfish, 11,244,245 kilos, valued at \$1,461,752, was imported; of flour, 13,852,030 kilos, valued at \$969,642; of pork

and lard, 4,649,784 kilos, valued at \$1,309,935. Including rice, flour, fish, pork and lard, vegetables and canned produce, cheese, olive oil, and common wines, the food importations reached a value of nearly \$8,000,000, or well-nigh 45 per cent of the entire list of foreign articles.

The exports—\$18,574,678—were in 1897 heavier than the imports, the balance in favor of the island being \$716,615, or, deducting the articles reexported, \$494,478. Coffee leads the list of exports in value. The quantity exported was 23,504,999 kilos, valued at \$12,222,599, which was less by 3,157,195 kilos and \$1,641,741 than in 1896. Next to coffee, constituting nearly two-thirds of the volume of exports, came sugar—57,648,851 kilos, or 126,827,472 pounds (63,413 tons), valued at \$4,007,999, an increase both in quantity and value over the crop of 1896. The value of the tobacco exported was \$1,194,318; of molasses, \$403,520, and of hides, \$71,852.

The coffee found market chiefly in Spain, France, Cuba, Germany, and Italy, very small amounts going to other European countries and the United States. The bulk of the tobacco crop went to Cuba to be manufactured. The United States, Spain, and Denmark took nearly all the centrifugal sugar; the United States and Spain most of the muscovado sugar, and the United States three-fourths of the molasses. Hides went chiefly to Spain, France, and Germany; rum to Spain and Africa; cocoanuts to the United States and Cuba; oranges to the United States; the chocolate bean to Spain; cattle, of which the export value was \$221,720, to Cuba and other West India islands; salt to the Dutch islands. Small quantities of vegetables, minor fruits, chickens, eggs, etc., are also exported.

The imports were carried in 1,135 vessels—809 steam and 326 sailing. Of the total number 210 were from Spain, 168 from the United States, 179 from the English possessions, 144 from Cuba, and 137 from England.

The commerce of Porto Rico was controlled almost entirely by Spanish and European houses. Comparatively few Porto Ricans were engaged in either the banking or the mercantile branch. The leading retail merchants were also Spaniards and had Spanish clerks. The majority of the planters or farmers were Porto Ricans, and the industries were mostly in their hands. Of the industries, apart from those belonging to the culture of the soil, which will be described under "Agriculture," there is little to be said. They are few in number and small in extent. Salt is produced, notably at Cabo Rojo, by evaporation; hats, both common and fine, are made in the same section, chiefly by women; there are a few factories of chocolate, soap, carriages, shoes, soup paste, matches, ice, tinware, and trunks for domestic consumption. The manufacture of tobacco has assumed important proportions since the tariff was established on the raw material in Cuba and on the finished article in Porto Rico. All the cigarettes and most of the cigars used in the island are now made there. Rum is made in considerable quantities from the residuum of the sugar mills, and some of it is turned into bay rum, artificial brandies, and other liquors. There are sugar mills on many of the estates, very few of the most approved pattern, and centrifugal and muscovado sugars and molasses are produced. The central system needs to be introduced for the sake of economy. Many mills are in ruins and vast sums of money have been wasted in multiplying poor plants. In the beautiful valley of San German, from almost any point, one can see twelve or thirteen chimneys, the mills of most of which were long

since past grinding. The triple-effect system is found only in a very few mills, and these are owned almost entirely by Englishmen and other foreigners. The old method of pressing out the juice between wooden cylinders turned by oxen, with open boiling pans, in which the boiling liquor is skimmed by immense paddles and dipped by hand from one vat to another, is still used in many places. The waste from this process, known as the Jamaica train system, is very large, and it is difficult to see how any margin of profit is left to the producer. Coffee is prepared in primitive mortars and also by large modern mills, which strip off the inner husk, polish the berry, and color it for the European markets. The sorting and much of the cleaning also are done by hand, women and girls being employed at prices extremely low. There is excellent clay in the island from which bricks are made and also rude earthen jugs and roof tiles. The sea is well stocked with numerous varieties of fish, but comparatively few persons are engaged in catching and selling them, perhaps because of the difficulty of transporting them in a fresh state. They spoil utterly in a few hours. Oil was refined at Cataño in a small refinery which the late hurricane destroyed.

Many industries are possible which have not yet been undertaken, or undertaken in a small and ineffective way. The materials for the manufacture of soap and candles are abundant, and these articles command good prices. The cattle industry being large, and good tan bark from the mangle tree right at hand, tanneries might be established to cure hides which are now exported. There are numerous vegetable fibers, from which sacking, used in large quantities for sugar and coffee bags, could be made; also cordage, baskets, hammocks, sleeping mats, door mats, now made in small quantities, and a variety of useful articles. The yucca, from which a small quantity of starch is made, is easily raised, and the mayor of Fajardo says it yields a profit of \$20 an acre.

The commissioner questioned the people of Humacao, Yauco, and other cities as to the materials for possible industries, and they gave long lists of them. The lack of capital was given as the reason why they have not been established. Perhaps initiative and technical knowledge are also wanting. It is of the utmost importance to the future of Porto Rico that its industries should be increased. Whenever coffee, sugar, and tobacco crops are destroyed by hurricanes, which visit the island three or four times a century, or bring small returns on account of low prices, the masses are in danger of starvation; not quick, direct starvation, which is hardly possible in a land where natural fruits are so abundant, but starvation of the slow kind, which gradually saps the strength, weakens the will power, and prepares the way for disease. The cry of labor is for more work, particularly in the cities. The starting of new industries is an economical necessity, and it should be the policy of the United States to encourage it. The prosperity of the island must be built on this basis. When labor is respected and well employed, the masses become larger consumers, and all classes of business are benefited. Spain never encouraged the Porto Ricans to establish any industry in the island which would unfavorably affect those of the Peninsula. For this reason its resources have never been developed, have never really enjoyed a golden age, and the mother country had a restricted where it might have had an extensive market; for if the masses had been able to secure constant employment they would have bought Spain's fabrics to clothe themselves, and consumed quantities of articles that

they have been compelled to do without. In the United States a poor man carries an umbrella when it rains; in Porto Rico he protects himself with a banana leaf. Give the latter the means and he will buy other things than codfish, rice, and a few garments of cheap cotton goods.

AGRICULTURE.

This is the chief, almost the only, source of industrial wealth in Porto Rico. Most of the lands—even the mountains—are susceptible to cultivation or use for pasturage. One may see on the military road near Cayey a tobacco field covering the whole side of a mountain from the base to the summit. The proportion of land under actual cultivation is difficult to determine. It is not known certainly how much there is, as the area of the island has not been definitely ascertained, nor the surface occupied by water and by sites of cities and towns. The returns of the provincial board of taxation made in 1896 for rural estates may, however, be taken as a basis for an estimate. Those returns indicated that 294,978 acres were devoted to cane, coffee, tobacco, and other crops. Taking 3,860 square miles, equal to 2,460,400 acres, as representing the area of Porto Rico, it would follow that a little less than one-eighth of the entire surface was under cultivation in 1896. Of pasture lands there were 1,116,262 acres and of forests and other similar areas 657,631, making a total for rural property of 2,068,860 acres. This would only leave 391,534 acres for city and town sites, streams and lakes, roads, etc. The common estimate of Porto Ricans is that only one-tenth of the cultivable lands are in actual cultivation at any one time. Partial returns of the bureau of agriculture at San Juan for 1899 show that in forty-five municipal districts eighty-one of two hundred and eighty-nine sugar-cane plantations are not in cultivation. The acreage devoted to the several crops, particularly to sugar cane and tobacco, varies from year to year. The tax returns indicate 60,953 rural estates and 50,753 owners.

The lands are usually classified under four heads: Vegas de primera clase are alluvial lands, particularly valuable for sugar cane and cattle raising; sobre vegas, higher lands, also alluvial, but not so rich as those of the first class; mountain lands, often requiring fertilizers, good for coffee, cattle, and small fruits; and, lastly, mountain tops, usually covered with forests. Along the coasts are sandy soils, good for little except cocoa palms, and tracts subject to the action of the tides, which could be redeemed by banks or dikes. The soils of the plains and valleys are generally very rich. They have borne crops for generations without the application of fertilizers, and seem to be well-nigh inexhaustible. There is a variety of soils—humiferous, consisting of organic matter; argillaceous, or clayey; siliceous, or sandy, and calcareous, or containing limestone. As classified for purposes of taxation, the alluvial soils of plains and valleys are considered most valuable; those of highlands, containing loam, with sand, clay, or lime, fall into the second class; lands producing inferior pasture, into the third, and rocky areas, which grow nothing but bushes, into the fourth.

The crops most generally raised are, in the order of areas occupied, according to the agricultural census of 1896, coffee, 121,176 acres; cane, 60,884; tobacco, 4,222. Besides these are frutos menores, or minor products, including vegetables and bananas, to the raising of which 92,576 acres were devoted, and other crops, including oranges,

cocoanuts, and fruits in general, covering 16,115 acres. The lower alluvial lands of the coast plains and the valleys of the interior are well suited to cane; the elevated plains and the mountain valleys to coffee. Tobacco grows well in strong soils of the valleys and mountain sides. Cane, coffee, and tobacco are grown in every municipal district save Vieques, which produces no coffee.

Coffee can not be raised without shade, as in Brazil. The coffee bushes need five years for full development, under the shade of banana or guava, or other trees. Bananas give both shade and fruit the first year; guavas and other trees in about five years. The coffee plant begins to bear full crops at the end of seven years, and continues in bearing condition to 25 and even 50 years of age. Coffee farms are exempted from taxes for the first five years. The amount produced varies from 1 or $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 or more quintals per cuerda, a cuerda being a little less than an acre. The cost of production, including planting, picking, hulling, drying, sacking, and carrying to market, is estimated at about \$10 per quintal. As the price was only \$13 to \$15 this year, there was little margin of profit; but this price was unusually low. The average size of the coffee plantations in the neighborhood of Aibonito was said to be from 80 to 100 cuerdas. The grades of coffee produced are among the finest, and Porto Rican coffee brings excellent prices in European markets, for which it has to be polished and slightly colored.

The cane fields are found on the plains lying next to the coast line of the island and in some of the interior valleys. There are two systems of culture, one called the petty, by which planting is done in February or March and the crop is cut a year later; in the other, called the larger method, the planting is done in October and the entire cutting follows fifteen months later. Many of the lands are said to need fertilizing, much having been taken from them and little or nothing given back. The smaller farmers, having but little land, plant it so continuously that it fails to produce satisfactory results. On the larger plantations the process of alternation of crops can be carried out to some extent. Sugar plantations range in size from a few acres up to 700, 800, and even 1,000. The tendency in recent years has been to increase the size and diminish the number of plantations. The planters go back to the days of slavery, which was abolished in 1873, as the golden days of the sugar industry. Then they got \$5 and \$6, where they scarcely get \$3 now, and the expenses of production were then much smaller. Formerly they had sufficient capital to work their estates and did not need to borrow much; now they depend largely on borrowed capital, for which they pay from 9 to 16 or even 18 per cent per annum. The fall in prices in the world's markets has, of course, been due to increased production in other lands, in which the beet has become the rival of the cane. While cane producers elsewhere have improved their methods of culture and manufacture, those of Porto Rico have changed but little. According to native experts, the production is only from 2 to 4 hog-heads of 1,400 to 1,800 pounds each, when it might be 5 or 6 hog-heads. They use seed from the same stock year after year. A disease, affecting almost the whole of the stock, attacks it, and the propriety of changing the seed frequently had not even occurred to some of the growers. The *changa* (grillo-talpa), a cricket, commits great ravages among the young plants, and Spanish experts have failed to find a remedy. To almost all questions relating to improved methods

the planters gave the uniform answer that capital was required, and they had no capital. For example, the examination of the planters of one of the rich valleys proceeded substantially as follows:

- Q. What is the present state of the sugar industry?—A. Deplorable.
 Q. Due to what cause?—A. Poverty of owners and of soil.
 Q. Why not use fertilizers?—A. We have no capital.
 Q. Why do you not use phosphates from your mountains?—A. Because we lack the means to mine them.
 Q. Why are you so poor?—A. Because, not having sufficient capital, we have to borrow at exorbitant rates of interest.
 Q. Why do not the planters unite for mutual improvement and defense and the study of methods?—A. Because we have no money.
 Q. You have many poor mills and few good ones. Why do you not introduce the central system as an economical measure?—A. Because we have no capital.
 Q. If your cane suffers from disease, why not try new seed?—A. We would, but we have no money.

Certainly the condition of the sugar industry is deplorable, and the lack of capital is evident and affects all branches of agriculture. There is a combination of causes. First, decrease in prices, with no corresponding decrease in expenses of production and transportation; second, waste in method of manufacture; third, heavy interest rates; fourth, onerous direct taxes, amounting to 12½ per cent, or more, of net profits; fifth, high customs duties on machinery and heavy tax on the right of importation; sixth, withdrawal of capital by Spaniards returning to the Peninsula with the Spanish troops. This last cause alone, considering the small amount of currency in circulation, would have serious results. While in other countries falling prices have been met by increased economy in production and manufacture, in Porto Rico planters seemed to be caught in a web of difficulties from which extrication was not possible. It is evident that, apart from the question of increased capital, at reasonable interest, to work their plantations, which they unite in urging as the first great need, and free access to the markets of the United States as the second, they must give more attention to methods of cultivating and manufacturing their crops, and agricultural experiment stations will be of great value.

The third crop in value is tobacco. This was formerly a paying industry. The chief difficulty in growing it seems to be due to the *changa*. To protect the young plant from this insect, it is wrapped in the maney leaf. This, it is said, affects its growth and its flavor. Formerly, most of the tobacco was shipped to Cuba, where it was manufactured. The tariff has shut it out of that market, and much of it is being manufactured at home. But there is no market except the home market ready for the manufactured article. The processes of cultivating and drying need, evidently, to be improved. Experts claim that the Porto Rican cigars have a green taste.

The other vegetable crops are usually called *frutos menores*. They consist of rice, corn—which is very highly esteemed as food, particularly by the colored people—potatoes, yams, bananas, squashes, tomatoes, and other garden produce. As seen in the markets, most of these articles are greatly inferior in size. Potatoes and tomatoes are scarcely larger than marbles; eggplants, cabbages, and pumpkins than goose eggs. The explanation generally given is that attention is absorbed by the chief crops, and the lesser ones are expected to produce themselves, with little or no cultivation. The prices are generally good. In the market at Ponce, in March, 1899, small native cabbages were selling at 10 and 12 centavos, while large imported cabbages brought 60 centavos a head. The appearance of the vegeta-

ble stands suggests that long use of seed of the same stock and lack of suitable culture have resulted in degeneration. It would seem that potatoes and onions equal to those of Bermuda might be produced and sent to markets in the United States in the winter or early spring, when the demand for those articles makes the prices remunerative. The commissioner was told that rice of fair quality is grown without great labor. As this is preeminently the food of the poor, the natural suggestion is that more of it should be raised for home consumption. Annotto, which yields a coloring material, is cultivated quite generally; and yucca, out of which starch is manufactured, is, it is claimed, a profitable crop. The soil and climate seem to be well suited to the cacao, from the beans of which chocolate is made, and the production could be easily increased if there were better facilities for getting it to market.

The fruits are such as are common to tropical countries. The orange, the culture of which is almost entirely neglected, is the finest fruit the island produces. It is large, juicy, very sweet, and has an exquisite flavor. The tree is seen almost everywhere, but yields the best results in the mountainous districts. It is very prolific, and in January, February, and March it is at its best, and the prices are remarkably cheap. They could be purchased in some districts at 10 centavos (about 6 cents) a hundred, and an American is said to have purchased a shipload at \$2 a thousand. Few have been shipped to the United States, owing, it is said, partly to lack of certainty of transportation and partly to the cost of freightage. Coconuts are produced abundantly, particularly on the sandy shores, where little else will grow. Bananas grow everywhere in great variety and quantity, and form an important article of food for the poor. They require little attention and are very prolific. The small and delicious guineo is also grown. Unfortunately, it is too delicate to ship to other countries. Among other fruits which are valued by all classes are limes, a large and sweet kind of lemon, aguacates, or alligator pears, used for salad and spread on bread instead of butter; nispolas, very sweet and juicy; corazones, sweet and mushy; fresas, a small wild berry resembling the strawberry, with the flavor of the raspberry; pineapples of a delicious quality; guayaba, of which excellent jelly is made; grosella, fruit of a tree, used for a dulce, or preserve; mangoes, tamarinds, and breadfruit. Grapes are also grown. At Fajardo the commissioner was informed that an excellent quality of Malaga grapes was raised there, and that three crops a year were gathered.

The most obvious suggestion to those who study the soils and crops and agricultural methods of the island is the necessity of improved culture of all products, and increased attention to vegetables and fruits. Porto Rico can and ought to raise more rice, potatoes, and similar articles for its own consumption, if not for export. Its oranges and pineapples, already very fine, can doubtless be developed by culture to such a state of excellence as to compel recognition in the world's markets. But any material increase in native products for exportation can hardly be expected until better and cheaper facilities of inland transportation are secured. How the question of roads affects production is illustrated by the following questions and answers. Mr. Roig is a merchant, and owner of a sugar mill at Humacao:

THE COMMISSIONER. What crops are raised here in addition to sugar?

MR. ROIG. Corn, beans, yucca, a very few potatoes, some cabbage and other vegetables. We have a few oranges, also a few lemons, but only enough for our own use. Oranges are produced here easily.

The COMMISSIONER. Why don't you raise larger quantities of oranges?
Mr. ROIG. Because no one has thought of doing so. I think there is more money in planting cane.

The COMMISSIONER. Do you raise rice?

Mr. ROIG. Very little. It flourishes, but it comes cheaper from outside?

The COMMISSIONER. Is it any trouble to raise it?

Mr. ROIG. No.

The COMMISSIONER. Why, then, do you import it?

Mr. ROIG. All the rice here is raised by the poor people.

The COMMISSIONER. Do you raise many bananas?

Mr. ROIG. Only for home consumption.

The COMMISSIONER. Why don't you raise them for export?

Mr. ROIG. I am unable to say.

The COMMISSIONER. I think I can tell you why. Your roads are so bad you can not get them to market. What other crops are raised?

Mr. ROIG. Coconuts.

The COMMISSIONER. Do you raise many for export?

Mr. ROIG. Yes.

The COMMISSIONER. You have plenty of land on which you could grow more for export, have you not?

Mr. ROIG. Yes; we come to what we said before.

The COMMISSIONER. Do you raise pineapples?

Mr. ROIG. Yes.

The COMMISSIONER. Do they require much labor?

Mr. ROIG. No.

The COMMISSIONER. You don't export any?

Mr. ROIG. No; or at least very few.

Perishable products need quick as well as cheap transportation, and it is obvious that opportunities for sale may be lost by delay, and that regular service by carriers is a matter of importance.

The raising of cattle is an important and lucrative industry. The pasture is generally abundant and of good quality, and the expense account is small. The breed is of African stock crossed with European, and the cattle are large and heavy and well suited for the meat market and for working purposes. The cows are generally poor milkers, the maximum quantity being 8 or 10 quarts a day for each cow. Doubtless the fact that they are only milked once a day accounts in part for the small quantity. The quality of the milk is poor. The oxen are extensively used for plowing and carting, the race of horses having so degenerated, although originally of the famous Andalusian strain, that they are chiefly of use for the carriage and the saddle. A pair of oxen ready for work will bring \$100, being worth more than a pair of ordinary ponies. Besides supplying the domestic meat market, many cattle are shipped to other West Indian islands, chiefly Cuba. The number of head in the island in 1896 was upward of 300,000. The chief cattle districts are on the north side. The retail prices of beef vary from 28 to 40 or 42 centavos a kilo, or 2.2 pounds.

CONDITION OF THE LABORING CLASSES.

Those who depend upon daily wages for support constitute the great majority of the people. The sources of employment are not numerous. The raising, harvesting, and grinding of cane require many more hands than the care and cure of coffee or tobacco; but even on sugar estates the work is not continuous. Some are kept the year round; others only during the busiest season. The daily wages of the common field laborer range generally from 35 to 50 cents, native money. A few of the more skilled get from 60 to 75 cents a day in the mills. Young boys and the few women employed receive about 25 or 30 cents a day. Women are rarely seen at work in the fields. Sometimes they

assist at the mill in putting cane in the carrier which takes it to the cylinders. Men are paid by the day to work in the tobacco fields; but coffee pickers and sorters are hired, not by the day, but at so much by measure. Women and girls are found in coffee houses doing the sorting, and also in tobacco factories. In the poor quarters at Arecibo the women who worked at coffee sorting stated that they made from 12 to 18 cents a day, never more than 24 cents. They received 6 cents a kettle. Ten kettles make a quintal, or a hundred pounds, and they could not do half a quintal a day. Laborers in the cane field usually go to work early in the morning, at 7 o'clock or before, and work steadily until 3 in the afternoon, when they quit for the day. On one estate visited by the commissioner they were served once during the forenoon with bread, presumably by the planter. In the mills the day is from sunrise to sunset.

The house of the laborer is very small and very poor. In the rural districts it is built usually of thatch of the palm, leaves of the sugar cane, or other vegetable fibers. It is placed on four posts, standing from 1 to 3 feet from the ground. The floor is very uneven and far from tight. It has generally three rooms, sometimes only two. These rooms are usually about 6 by 7 or 8 by 10 feet in size. Fortunately, no sash is needed for the windows in that mild climate. Almost no furniture is visible. A kettle serves as a sort of portable range. In this, with a little charcoal or splinters of wood, whatever cooking is necessary is done. Sometimes a scissors bedstead, without mattresses or pillows, and with little covering, is seen; sometimes a sack or two suspended from the roof does duty as a hammock. These houses are often occupied by families of five or more, who dispose themselves for sleep in the different corners of the room, often on palm branches. For chairs, a box or two must do as substitutes; and as for tables, it is not every man that can afford one.

In the poor quarters of the cities the houses are often made of pieces of old boxes or short boards which have served some other purpose. In Arecibo houses of this class are ranged in rows or groups on very narrow streets or alleys. Several of these houses the commissioner was allowed to examine. In one the husband and wife were seated on the floor eating their noon meal from a dish and a little naked child was in the back room crying. There was no chair or table, only a little wooden stool. Nothing else was visible, except the small charcoal stove already described. This house, the roof of which was full of holes, brought \$2 a month rental to its owner. The woman was white, the man black. Other houses in this settlement were of the same description; some a little larger; some better kept and with more furniture; others a little less comfortable, perhaps. At one of the larger houses, preparations were being made for the usual Sunday night dance. Two men were practicing the music on a home made guitar, accompanied by a guira, a native instrument made of a gourd, over whose regularly lined surface a short, slender iron rod was scraped back and forth. Extreme poverty and squalor were in evidence, but there was no sign of vice and unhappiness. Living in this neighborhood of kind-hearted, polite, and sociable people were a woman, said to be over a hundred years old, evidently having Carib blood, and a helpless woman who had been a beggar. Both were cared for by those who esteemed themselves better off. The sick, in these small, crowded, dirty quarters, are not allowed to suffer for a bit of bread, or fish, or a little soup. The poor quarters of

Yauco are on the hillside. The houses were a little better, perhaps, than those in Arecibo. There were no sanitary arrangements of any kind, and the water used had to be brought from the river, distant a mile or more. Now and then a case of thrift will appear where, under similar conditions as those of the majority a family will have better food and better furniture and cleaner clothes than their neighbors, and sometimes own the house they live in. All are industrious, as a rule, and the only complaint they make is that they can not get work enough.

The food of the poor varies in quantity and quality, according to their means. In the house of an intelligent laborer at Yauco the table was standing when the commissioner visited it. On it were small plates of rice and codfish. It was then 5 o'clock in the afternoon, and the family of five were taking their first meal that day, and said they were thankful for even the small portion they had. A woman who had been deserted by her husband was supporting four children. She paid \$1.25 a month rent, and earned about 25 cents a day picking coffee. Few of the laboring classes are robust. They are small and thin and are decidedly anemic. More nourishing food may be said to be the universal need, and a less destructive drink than the native rum. Porto Ricans are not as a rule intemperate. Those who can afford it drink wine or beer with their meals in moderation; but the tariff and consume tax on common wines put them beyond the reach of the poor. The fiery rum does them no little physical injury. A good supply of pure water is almost everywhere wanting. It would be a boon alike to the well-to-do and the poor. The old stone filters in use are quite inadequate purifiers.

The ordinary household utensils, not numerous, consist of a square tin case in which oil was imported, with a bar of wood across the top nailed to the sides to serve as a handle; a fire kettle, like a plumber's; cucharas and cucharitas, large and small spoons, and cups and ladles made of the gourd; washtubs fashioned from the sheath of the royal palm, the ends being drawn together; mills for coffee and corn, circular flat stones, and mortars hollowed out of trunks of trees, with the machete to serve as ax, hatchet, and knife, and fingers as a substitute for forks.

The rule of the planters appears to have been to pay their laborers in money once a week. To this rule, however, there were exceptions. Sometimes they paid in vales or tickets, redeemable at the store of the proprietors. There were many complaints from workingmen that what they got at these stores was poor in quality and high in price. The law required that the wages be paid in money, but the employee had no means of enforcing it. Workingmen showed these vales to the commissioner and besought his intervention. On inquiry it appeared that some of those who paid in this way could not command the cash at all seasons of the year, and gave their employees the choice of quitting work or taking them.

The field laborer is usually illiterate and is bringing up his children as he himself was raised, entirely without schooling. This is due in part to the lack of school accommodations in rural districts, partly to the want of suitable clothing, and in some measure to the failure of parents to appreciate the importance of education. The clothing of the poor is of the cheapest description and is very meager. The young children go entirely naked. Those who have two changes of clothing, usually thin cotton goods, consider themselves fortunate. As to shoes,

few wear them at all. A committee of business men in Ponce made a careful calculation of the number of shoes required annually for the people of the island. Their estimate was as follows: Fifty thousand wear four pairs a year; 50,000 wear three pairs a year; 50,000 wear two pairs a year; 50,000 wear one pair a year. According to this, 150,000 of the 900,000 inhabitants wear shoes regularly, and 50,000 irregularly, leaving 700,000 as belonging to the barefoot class.

The artisans are better educated, have better food, and wear better clothes. As their work is chiefly in the cities, it is a necessity for them to be suitably dressed. At the invitation of the commissioner, the artisans of San Juan, who are organized into a dozen or more gremios or unions, came to his headquarters one evening and were examined. There were eleven of them, representing painters, tinsmiths, silver-smiths, bookbinders, cigar makers, printers, masons, carpenters, bakers, shoemakers, and boatmen. Nine of the eleven were colored men, who seem to monopolize the trades, at least in the capital. All except one wrote his name and occupation in the stenographer's notebook. They were neatly dressed, well-appearing, intelligent men. Each spoke of his own trade. It appeared that their freedom of meeting had been restricted, and that they had not been allowed to concert strikes. The substance of their complaints was that their yearly income is too small to allow them to live comfortably and educate their children. In most cases their earnings were from \$1 to \$1.25 or \$1.50 a day of ten or eleven hours. They complained of lack of work; that boys of 15 years or less are allowed to undertake toil too hard for them, breaking down their physical constitution, and that their trades were generally overcrowded. Skilled workmen in other cities were worse off. Coopers, tailors, and others on the average get employment for only four to six months a year. In Arecibo the commissioner was informed that many of the artisans were kept away from the hearing because they had no hats or shoes to wear. The carpenters and masons suffer because there is little building even in the cities; the bakers, because there are so many of them; the tailors and shoemakers, because so many cheap clothes and shoes are imported; the printers, because there is so little demand for newspapers. The masons of Arecibo, numbering thirty-six, prepared a circular in January, 1899, asking those able to do so to build houses on the numerous vacant lots in that city in order to give masons and carpenters work, but naturally their appeal was without effect. Some of the masons make less than 75 cents a day. One of them in response to an inquiry said the conditions had been bad ever since he could remember.

It is evident that the condition of the laboring classes can not be greatly improved unless agriculture becomes prosperous and minor industries are developed. This means practically a revolution in the methods of raising and marketing crops, and it can not be accomplished without the influx of new capital. How this shall be attracted is one of the problems for those interested in the regeneration of Porto Rico. It is manifest that the great object to be gained is the raising of the working classes to a higher level of intelligence, of efficiency as laborers, of power and influence as citizens, and of comfort and enjoyment as social creatures. Give them remunerative work, and all the rest is possible. They will then, as has already been said under another heading, want better houses, better furniture, better food and clothing, and this in turn will give increased employment to masons and carpenters and to producers of foodstuffs and the vari-

ous fabrics. The great wheel would turn all the lesser wheels. Laborers are good consumers when their labor is sufficiently paid, and there can be no real prosperity in which they do not share.

THE TARIFF.

The commissioner had the honor of making, in December last, a preliminary report on this subject, which will be found in another part of this report. Upon the basis of it, the Hon. Robert P. Porter, special commissioner for the United States to Cuba and Porto Rico, revised the schedules with the aim of levying, on the average, a rate of about 15 per cent ad valorem. The change in the value of the native money in United States currency, which took effect at about the same time, was taken into consideration. Previously the rate of \$2 Porto Rican to \$1 American had prevailed at the custom-houses; the new order made \$1.66 $\frac{2}{3}$ Porto Rican receivable for \$1 American in customs dues. As Mr. Porter points out, this alone made a "reduction of 16 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent in the amount of revenue paid in pesos." The effect of the new tariff was to give considerable relief to the people, particularly in the price of foodstuffs and the cheaper grades of cotton goods, and in machinery. All export duties were abolished. A special report of its operation was made by the commissioner to the Secretary of the Treasury from San Juan in February, 1899, from which it appears that at minor points changes are desired. The new tariff proves, so far, to be a good revenue producer. The receipts for imports in the first six months of 1899, including less than five months under the present tariff, amount to \$697,902. For the same period in 1896 they were \$705,033; in 1895, \$606,065; in 1894, \$484,987. There are no returns for 1898. The total amount collected in the year 1897, according to the official *Estadística General del Comercio Exterior de la Provincia de Puerto Rico*, expressed in United States money, was \$1,489,172; the export duties for the same year were \$144,844. It is not possible with the data available to make an accurate comparison between the old tariff and the new as to net results. Attention is called to the statistics of manufacture of tobacco and manufacture and sale of liquors, gathered with a view to taxation for internal revenue.

THE CURRENCY AND BANKING.

The commissioner's views on the currency were also presented in a preliminary report. The action of the President in fixing the value of the peso in United States money was as just a solution of the problem as could have been reached. It only remains to complete the process by retiring the native currency when it can be done without injury to the interests of the island, and allowing the money of the United States to be the circulating medium of the island. The depreciated silver of the Spanish régime is a source of confusion in commercial transactions. Silver dollars and half dollars—American—of practically the same weight and fineness pass for dollars and half dollars, while the peso and 40-centavo piece are received at a little more than 60 cents and 24 cents, respectively. The time for the change will come when cabotage, or free commerce, is established between ports of Porto Rico and those of the United States. The people desire a monetary system which will harmonize with those of other countries.

The currency in circulation is so limited in amount and the banking facilities so meager that borrowing has been attended with difficulties

and great expense. There is only one bank of issue—the Spanish Bank of Porto Rico, in San Juan—which had in circulation usually from \$2,500,000 to \$3,000,000 of paper money. These notes were accepted in some parts of the island, but they were not a legal tender, and did not circulate extensively outside of San Juan. The Territorial and Agricultural Bank, in San Juan, was founded in 1894 on the model of the Credit Foncier of France. Its nominal capital is \$2,400,000, of which only one-fourth has been realized by the sale of shares. Its principal business is to make loans on long terms on first mortgages on real estate, for which it issues hypothecary bonds. These issues have not exceeded \$1,000,000. There were two savings banks (*caja de ahorra*), one in Ponce and one in Mayaguez. Their *cedulas* (so large that they had to be folded) obtained some circulation. They were taken as a convenience instead of silver.

There is great need of a banking system for Porto Rico which shall allow of the establishment of banks in the chief cities and towns of the island. The Spanish banking law permits the free establishment of note-issuing banks, provided they are supervised by a governor appointed by the Government, the limit of circulating notes being fixed at three times the amount of the paid-up capital. Our national banks could not meet the urgent demand of the agriculturists for long-time loans on mortgages on real estate, but they would be of incalculable benefit to the merchants and business men. They could issue notes and thus increase the circulating medium; they could lend on collaterals for short terms; they would bring banking facilities into every considerable community, and business transactions would be largely by check instead of by shipments of silver. The conditions of the agriculturists are peculiar, and they unite in saying that loans for periods of from twenty to thirty or forty years are absolutely necessary. The Agricultural Bank met their needs in so far as it had ability; but its scale of business was far too limited, and but few could get accommodations from it. They suggest the establishment of similar banks in other cities, or, failing in that, a large increase in the capital of the existing bank, the guarantee of its securities by the Government, and their recognition in the stock markets of the United States.

CHANGES UNDER THE MILITARY GOVERNMENT.

The government of the island, its various civil institutions, its codes and its courts, the systems of taxation, etc., have been modified in very important particulars since the American occupation began, October 18, 1898. It will be useful, perhaps, to indicate the more important changes. Under Gen. John R. Brooke orders were issued declaring—

(1) That the political relations of Porto Rico with Spain were at an end; that provincial and municipal laws were in force in so far as not incompatible with the changed conditions, and that they would be enforced substantially as they were before.

(2) Abolishing the use of all stamped paper and stamps of every kind for documents, public and private.

(3) Exempting all conveyances and contracts from the payment of royal dues.

(4) Discontinuing the *diputacion provincial*, and distributing its duties among the secretaries or ministers.

(5) Directing that appeals should not be sent to the supreme court in Madrid, but should be heard by the superior court at San Juan.

(6) Abolishing the subdelegation of pharmacy, which gave degrees to pharmacists.

(7) Making the fisheries free to all.

Appropriations for the support of the church ceased with American occupation, and the Government lottery was discontinued.

Under the military government of Gen. Guy V. Henry, orders were issued—

(1) Appointing military commissions to try cases of arson and murder which had accumulated in the civil courts.

(2) Closing public offices on Sunday, as far as possible.

(3) Suspending the municipal tax on fresh beef for use of the Army.

(4) Making Christmas and New Years holidays.

(5) Forbidding grants or concessions of public or corporate rights or franchises without the approval of the commanding general and the Secretary of War.

(6) Abolishing the municipal consumo tax on articles of food, fuel, and drink, and providing for additional assessments on the sale of liquors and tobacco.

(7) Separating the collection of customs duties from that of direct taxes.

(8) Establishing a new system of land taxation, by which agricultural lands should be taxed according to the several classes instituted, from 1 peso down to 25 centavos per cuerda, and levying 50 per cent additional on lands whose owners reside abroad.

(9) Providing for the free vaccination of the people of the island.

(10) Prohibiting the exhumation of bodies in the cemeteries, recognizing the right of priests to control burials in consecrated grounds, and requiring municipalities to keep cemeteries in repair.

(11) Reducing notarial fees from \$1.88 to \$1, from \$4.50 to \$1, from \$11 to \$1, and from \$1 to 50 cents, according to class of document and canceling others.

(12) Reorganizing the cabinet, so as to make all the secretaries directly responsible to the governor-general.

(13) Suspending the foreclosure of mortgages on agricultural property and machinery for one year.

(14) Appointing February 22 a holiday.

(15) Prohibiting the sale of liquor to children under 14 years of age.

(16) Modifying the civil marriage law.

(17) Declaring that eight hours shall constitute a day's work.

(18) Creating an insular police.

Under the military government of Gen. George W. Davis orders were issued—

(1) Modifying the order of General Henry concerning hours of labor, so as to allow agreements between employer and employee for longer or shorter hours.

(2) Naming May 30 as a holiday.

(3) Allowing the writ of habeas corpus to be issued.

(4) Constituting a board of prison control and pardon.

(5) Continuing the observance as a holiday of June 24.

(6) Creating a provisional court on the basis of circuit and district courts of the United States for the hearing of cases not falling within the jurisdiction of local insular courts.

(7) Creating a superior board of health for the island.

(8) Reorganizing the bureau of public instruction and the system of education.

(9) Relieving the judiciary from all control by the department of justice, discontinuing the office of secretary of justice, and appointing a solicitor-general.

(10) Abolishing the sale at auction of the privilege of slaughter of cattle, and making it free.

(11) Reorganizing the judicial system of the island, with a supreme court in San Juan and district courts in San Juan, Ponce, Mayaguez, Arceibo, and Humacao, and with modifications of civil and criminal procedure.

(12) Discontinuing the departments of state, treasury, and interior, and creating bureaus of state and municipal affairs, of internal revenue, and of agriculture, to be placed under the direction of a civil secretary, responsible to the governor-general, and continuing the bureaus of education and public works, with an insular board of nine members to advise the governor-general on matters of public interest referred to them.

The reductions in the budget of expenditures have been extensive. That of 1898-99, adopted in June, 1898, amounted to \$1,781,920, native money. The appropriations for "general obligations," which went to Madrid, \$198,502; for the clergy, \$197,945; for the army, \$1,252,378; for the navy, \$222,668, making a total of \$2,171,493, ceased to be obligations, leaving \$2,610,428 for the fiscal year. A new budget was adopted for the calendar year 1899, which still further reduces expenditures, calling only for \$1,462,276. This budget, if carried out, would have involved a reduction from the proposed budget of 1898-99 of \$3,319,644; but a new budget was formed, as already stated, for 1899-1900, which appears to call for an increase over this very moderate sum.

The revenues were reduced by the abolition of stamped paper, personal passports, export duties, royal dues on conveyances, the lottery system, and other sources of income, amounting, all told, to less probably than a million of pesos.

WHAT PORTO RICO EXPECTS FROM THE UNITED STATES.

All classes of natives of the island welcomed the American Army, American occupation, and American methods, and accepted without hesitation the Stars and Stripes in place of the red and yellow bars. They had not been disloyal to the old flag; but it had come to represent to them, particularly during the present century, in which a class feeling developed between the insular and the peninsular Spaniard, partiality and oppression. In the short war, some of the natives occupying official positions made demonstrations of loyalty to the Crown of Spain, as was perfectly natural, but they were among the first to submit to American rule when the protocol promised cession of the island to the United States. On the other hand, as the commissioner is informed, a Porto Rican who had hoped and prayed for American intervention for fifty years enrolled himself as a Spanish citizen some months after the war was concluded, and his hopes had been realized. Porto Ricans generally complained that the former Government discriminated in favor of the Spaniard, who, in the distribution of the offices, was preferred to the native, and who, aided by the powerful influence of the authorities, prospered in business as banker, merchant, manufacturer, or agriculturist. They also insist that the internal improvement of the island was neglected; that agriculture bore

more than its share of the burden of taxation; that the assessments were very inequitable and unequal; that education was not fostered, and that in general the welfare of the people was not the first concern of their rulers.

They expect under American sovereignty that the wrongs of centuries will be righted; that they will have an honest and efficient government; the largest measure of liberty as citizens of the great Republic under the Constitution; home rule as provided by the Territorial system; free access to the markets of the United States and no customs duties on goods coming from our ports; a school system modeled after that of the United States; the adoption of the English language in due time and the general adaptation to the island of all those institutions which have contributed to the prosperity, progress, and happiness of the American people.

The largest and most representative gathering, since American occupation, was held in San Juan, October 30, 1898, without distinction of party or class with the object of consultation and formulation of a programme for the future. In brief, the propositions of the congress as submitted to the commissioner for presentation to the President of the United States were these: Immediate termination of military and inauguration of civil government; establishment of the Territorial system, with laws common to other Territories of the Union; a legislature in two branches; suffrage for all male citizens of 21 years of age or over, the right to be surrendered at the end of the first two years by those who do not then know how to read and write; judicial reform; introduction of the jury system; autonomy for municipal governments; taxation on the basis of valuation; free and reciprocal commerce with the ports of the United States; aid for agriculture; obligatory and universal education; trade schools; savings banks.

This programme of reforms seems to have very general support, although there is a difference of opinion on certain points. Many Porto Ricans urged the commissioner to represent them as desiring that the military régime be made as short as possible, not because the military governors were in any way objectionable or their rule oppressive, but because the civil status of the island should be fixed with no unnecessary delay. There was no other opinion except among foreign subjects, many of whom thought that the people were not yet ready for self-government, and that the firm hand of military power would be needed for probably two years.

CAPACITY FOR SELF-GOVERNMENT.

The question of capacity for self-government lies at the threshold of the whole subject. It may be said, without fear of contradiction, that Porto Ricans have had little opportunity to show their capacity, and such experience as they may have gained in the government of cities and in minor official positions was under a system not the most suitable for developing efficient, independent, impartial, and honest public servants. They, themselves, see this clearly and admit it. They condemn unsparingly the old methods, and say that they want to begin the era of their new relations with better institutions, under sounder and juster principles, and with improved methods. Their anxiety to learn fully equals their willingness to accept the American plan of government. This is not so new to them as many have supposed. Some of them have been educated in American institutions, not a few of them know our language, and while they might not be

able to pass a thorough examination in American civil government their aspirations for the past half century have been toward the United States as a deliverer, and when their allegiance to the Peninsula was broken they knew pretty well what the rights and privileges of American citizenship were. They are quick in intellectual apprehension, and have little trouble, either the old or the young, in learning to read when there is an object to be gained in doing so.

If the desire to assume the burdens of local self-government may be taken as indicating some degree of capacity for self-government, the people of Porto Rico certainly have the desire. They may be poor, but they are proud and sensitive, and would be bitterly disappointed if they found that they had been delivered from an oppressive yoke to be put under a tutelage which proclaimed their inferiority. Apart from such qualifications as general education and experience constitute, the commissioner has no hesitation in affirming that the people have good claims to be considered capable of self-government. Education and experience, although too high a value can hardly be set upon them, do not necessarily make good citizens. Men may be well educated and yet be bad morally. Moral conduct is the first and most indispensable qualification for good citizenship. The ignorant and the vicious are often spoken of as though always in one class. In some measure they are; but so are the intelligent and the vicious. Education is not the invariable line which separates good citizens from bad, but active moral sense.

The unswerving loyalty of Porto Rico to the Crown of Spain, as demonstrated by the truth of history, is no small claim to the confidence and trust of the United States. The people were obedient under circumstances which provoked revolt after revolt in other Spanish colonies. The habit of obedience is strong among them.

Their respect for law is another notable characteristic. They are not turbulent or violent. Riots are almost unknown in the island; so is organized resistance to law; brigandage flourished only for a brief period after the war and its object was revenge rather than rapine.

They are not a criminal people. The more violent crimes are by no means common. Burglary is almost unknown. There are many cases of homicide, but the number in proportion to population is not as large as in the United States. Thievery is the most common crime, and petty cases make up a large part of this list of offenses. The people as a whole are a moral, law-abiding class, mild in disposition, easy to govern, and possess the possibilities of developing a high type of citizenship. The fact that so many of them enter into marital relations without the sanction of state or church is, of course, a serious reflection upon their social morality. Half or more of their children are illegitimate. From this stigma they can not escape. But too much to their discredit may be easily inferred from this scandalous state of affairs. Their apparent defiance of social, civil, and ecclesiastical law is not due to immoral purpose, but to conditions of long standing, against which they have deemed it useless to struggle. It is the general testimony that persons living together without the obligations of marriage are as a rule faithful to each other, and care for their offspring with true parental love and devotion.

They are industrious, and are not disposed to shirk the burdens which fall, often with crushing force, upon the laboring class. Their idleness is usually an enforced idleness. No doubt the ambition of many needs to be stimulated, for their lot has been so hopeless of an improvement that the desire for more conveniences and comforts may

have been well-nigh lost. They seem to have few customs or prejudices which would prevent them from becoming good American citizens.

The question remains whether, in view of the high rate of illiteracy which exists among them, and of their lack of training in the responsibilities of citizenship, it would be safe to intrust them with the power of self-government. The commissioner has no hesitation in answering this question in the affirmative. Who shall declare what is the requisite measure of capacity for self-government? It may be put so high as to rule out all the Central and South American nations and some of the nations of Europe which have demonstrated practically their capacity for self-government. Tribes living in a very primitive state of civilization show capacity to maintain order, to protect their common interests, and defend themselves against enemies, and to hold individuals accountable to a more or less crude and imperfect system of law. Some measure of such capacity is common to the human race, better developed among some peoples than among others, but characteristic of all. Porto Ricans are surely better prepared than were the people of Mexico, or of the colonies in Central and South America, which have one after another emancipated themselves from foreign domination and entered upon the duties and privileges of self-government. Revolutions marked their earlier history with violence and bloodshed, because they were a warlike people; but out of it has come increased capacity and steady advance toward settled peace, with prosperity. The Porto Ricans will make mistakes, but they will not foment revolutions or insurrections. They will learn the art of governing the only possible way—by having its responsibilities laid upon them—and they will fit themselves for the discharge of their obligations by establishing at once a system of free schools that will give every boy and girl a chance to remove the reproach of illiteracy. The father who wishes his son to learn to swim does not row him all day upon the lake, but puts him into the water and the child's fear of drowning will stimulate to those exercises which lead to the art of swimming. Let Porto Rico have local self-government after the pattern of our Territories and she will gain by her blunders, just as cities and States in our own glorious Republic are constantly learning.

It should be remembered that Porto Rico is not asking for independent self-government. The people are far from desiring separation from the United States. This simplifies the problem and reduces the risk; for what they might not be able to do if left entirely to their own resources, they may easily accomplish under the strong protecting hand of the Government of the United States. The system will be given them by Congress, their chief executive and a few other officials will be Americans, and with a strong central insular government, to which they are accustomed and against which they will not protest, they may be started on their new career under favorable auspices.

AS TO CHANGE OF LANGUAGE AND CUSTOMS.

The commissioner is convinced by what he saw, heard, and learned in Porto Rico by contact with all classes, that while many changes and modifications are desired and are absolutely essential to the future welfare of the island, the existing institutions and laws, usages, and customs should not be revolutionized or severely reformed. The customs and usages and language of a people are not like old vestments, which may be laid aside at command, but become a part of their

life, and are very dear to them. They will learn our customs and usages, in so far as they are better than their own, as they learn our language. A native lady, a grandmother, said to the commissioner: "Sir, I am glad the Americans have come. We must learn the English language. I shall not learn it; my son will not learn it; we are too old; but my grandchildren will learn it, the children of the island will learn it in the free schools which our new metropolis will cause to be established." The attachment to the language has long and strong roots. It will not do and it is not necessary to take any harsh measures to sever it. Said one of the leading native scholars and lawyers, an ardent American and a very progressive man: "I love the Spanish language. I lisped it in my mother's arms; I whispered its soft words to her who became my wife; I think in it, and in it are all the beautiful prose and poetry known to me." Both Spanish and English may be used side by side for years to come.

The codes, civil, commercial, and penal, need to be amended, but not abrogated or superseded; the courts to be reorganized, not revolutionized; judicial procedure and administration to be reformed, not created anew; the system of property registration has some points of advantage over our own, and it does not need to be recast, provided the abuses are remedied; municipal government requires development, and the civil divisions of the island should be arranged upon another plan. The commissioner is convinced that an adaptation of the village, town, and county system of the United States is necessary to efficient internal government in Porto Rico. Some of the municipal districts are as large as counties. The population of the municipal seat is often but a small fraction of that of the whole district, yet its streets, plazas, lights, police, fire department, public charity, etc., are maintained at the expense of the majority in the rural portions who do not enjoy these conveniences. Township and village organizations would relieve rural taxpayers, and, what is of even greater importance, encourage concentration of population, which is now so scattered that it is extremely difficult, if not impossible, to provide school and other necessary facilities for thousands of people. The county system would secure equality of assessment as between different towns and villages, make effective school and road superintendence possible, and provide natural divisions for courts, registration of property, etc. Attention is called to Dr. Tomas Vasquez's plea for concentration of peones in villages as the only method of improving their condition, socially, morally, and intellectually. Even this reform, however, should not be forced upon the people. They should be allowed to introduce it in their own time.

FREE COMMERCE BETWEEN PORTO RICO AND THE UNITED STATES.

In recommending that Porto Rico be given a form of government modeled after that of our Territories, the commissioner does not forget that the fixing of the status of the island, as that of our older Spanish Territories of Arizona and New Mexico, involves the abolition of customs duties between our ports and those of our new possession. Indeed, that is one of the reasons why Territorial government should be given. The question of statehood is not now in issue. The power that grants Territorial rights can grant or refuse statehood, and may be trusted not to make undue haste, seeing that Territories organized from thirty-six to fifty years ago have not yet had their pleas for admission to the Union favorably acted upon. Free access to our

markets is a matter of far more moment to Porto Rico than the possibility of statehood.

Without asking the consent or advice of the people of the island, we separated it from its relations to the Peninsula, and took it under our own control. By that action we caused the markets of Spain to be closed to its products, except upon terms to which the commerce of all foreign nations must submit in Spanish ports. It sold in Spain; it bought in Spain. Since American occupation, it finds itself without a single free market either of sale or purchase. Customs duties bar it from Spanish ports and from the ports of the United States with equal rigor. It pays the same rates at its ports for what it buys in the United States as for what it buys in Spain and other foreign countries. The embarrassment of unusually low prices for its products is increased by the rates it has to pay to find either its old or new customers. The sister island of Cuba, which used to buy coffee and cattle of it, and manufactured its tobacco, is now foreign territory.

Under these circumstances she turns to the United States and begs that reciprocal relations of mother and daughter may be established and that in our markets she may buy and sell as freely as Arizona or New Mexico or Alaska. It is difficult to see how this prayer can be denied or disregarded. There is but one reason for doing either, and that is, Porto Rican sugar and tobacco will come into competition with the sugar and tobacco of the United States. We must, it is said, protect our farmers. True; but is not Porto Rico ours as really as Arizona, and are not Porto Rican farmers our farmers? And if they have advantage in the markets of the United States, shall not the merchants and manufacturers of the United States have compensating advantage in a new market for their wares and manufactures in Porto Rico? The Porto Rican sugar crop is small compared with that of the United States. According to the statistics of the Treasury Department, our sugar production, including cane, sorghum, and beet, amounted in 1896 to more than 383,000 tons; while the island's total export the same year was a little over 61,000 tons. The comparative production of the two countries is as 6 to 1 in favor of the Union. This does not prove that the free admission of Porto Rican sugar would not affect our sugar market, but it does not indicate that it would unsettle it. Of Porto Rico's export of sugar in 1896, 35,512 tons, or somewhat less than three-fifths, came to the United States, paying duty, of course.

The exports of tobacco from Porto Rico in 1896 amounted to 2,215,245 pounds, which was the bulk of the crop, as a comparatively small proportion was manufactured in the island. The tobacco production of the United States, as estimated by the Department of Agriculture, was, in 1896, 403,000,000 pounds, in round numbers. The amount of the Porto Rican export is hardly an appreciable quantity compared with the crop of the United States. It is as 1 to 182. The value of the former was less than 423,000 pesos, or, valuing the peso at \$1.66 $\frac{2}{3}$ to \$1 American, less than \$255,000 American. Our imports of tobacco leaf in 1895 amounted to \$14,745,720.

Practically, so far as the sugar and tobacco producers of the United States are concerned, leaving the revenues to the Government out of sight, the admission of these Porto Rican products free would mean adding about 61,000 to our 690,666 acres devoted to cane and sorghum, according to the census of 1890, and 4,222 to our 695,301 acres of tobacco. In the first case the increase would be less than one-tenth;

in the second, less than one one hundred sixty-fifth, or hardly a healthy annual development.

No doubt the opening of the Government reservations now constituting the Territory of Oklahoma resulted in a considerable increase of the agricultural productions of the United States, but no one thought of raising objection to the settlement of the new lands, because it was recognized as a natural and satisfactory development of the national domain. The difference between Oklahoma and Porto Rico is chiefly geographical. The former provided for an overflow of population from surrounding States, the latter will furnish a field for American capital and American enterprise, if not for overflow of population. It is American and must and will be Americanized.

THE RIGHT OF SUFFRAGE.

The United States may surely venture to show a trust in Porto Rico equal to that of Spain. It has been seriously proposed that no provision be made for giving the franchise to the people of that island. Is the new sovereignty to be less liberal than the old? Are rights long enjoyed to be taken away? Is less to be granted than under the autonomist decree; less than under the electoral law of 1890? The question of giving the right of suffrage to a horde of ignorant men may be a serious one under certain conditions. Educational and property qualifications may be considered requisite by those who are distrustful of the masses, but republics are founded on trust of the body of the people, learned and unlearned. Moreover, it is possible to be intelligent and at the same time illiterate, as princes and kings of bygone centuries, and many excellent citizens of the United States, have demonstrated. The Spanish electoral law of 1890 gave the right of suffrage to all Spaniards over 25 years of age—"universal suffrage," as it was termed. The provision was as follows:

All male Spaniards over 25 years of age who are in the full enjoyment of their civil rights and are residents of a municipality in which they have resided at least two years, are electors in the islands of Cuba and Porto Rico.

This paragraph occurs both in the electoral law of 1890 and in the adaptation of that law for the autonomist system, for which it was not changed, except that the restriction of the right to taxpayers in Porto Rico was removed. Those who were specially excepted by the law were noncommissioned officers and privates in the army and navy, those serving sentence for crime, bankrupts and insolvents who have not paid their debts, taxpayers in arrears for taxes, and persons living on charity—who were not allowed to vote. The voting privilege extended to municipal councilmen, to members of the provincial deputation, and to deputies to the Cortes. Senators were elected by corporations and the larger taxpayers.

If it should be thought wise to modify the Spanish electoral law so as to restrict the suffrage, the exclusion of all the illiterate would leave the right to vote as a monopoly of the few. If the illiterate who have a certain amount of property were included, the number of voters would be increased somewhat, but would still be a minority. What Spain thought it wise and safe to concede the United States ought not to deny, except, possibly, as a stimulus to education. With this in view, it might be deemed wise to grant suffrage to all males of 21 years or over (instead of 25 as in the Spanish law), with the proviso that those who do not learn to read in the next ten years shall be deprived of the right. The term suggested by the native

congress is two years; but it is manifest that this does not give sufficient opportunity to meet the condition. With no schools and no teachers, how is the peasant to learn to read? If he is to be denied the right of a freeman on the ground of inability to read, it would be fairer to provide him first with the facilities and opportunity to learn to read, and then if he fails, after a reasonable time, to improve them, impose the penalty of deprivation of the franchise.

Any propositions for restrictions, however, will be in the nature of a curtailment of popular rights conceded by the Spanish law. No such restrictions were proposed in any of the acts granting Territorial government to New Mexico, Arizona, and other Territories. Neither educational nor property qualifications were required. As to illiteracy, New Mexico has been a Territory nearly fifty years, and yet of its population above the age of 10 years more than 44 per cent, according to the census of 1890, are illiterate. The illiterates of Porto Rico, estimated on this basis, would constitute between 75 and 80 per cent.

What the effect of manhood suffrage will be under our Territorial system it is, of course, impossible to predict. Intelligent Porto Ricans are by no means unanimous in favor of it. They recognize dangers in the free exercise by ignorant men of the right of participation in government. But the Territorial system, while granting self-government, retains for the legislative and executive branches of the Federal Government large powers of control. By a provision in the act creating the Territory of New Mexico "all laws passed by the legislative assembly and governor shall be submitted to the Congress of the United States, and if disapproved shall be null and of no effect." This reservation might be made with respect to Porto Rico. It is also desirable that a measure of control over municipal administration should be secured to the provincial government. It would not be wise, in granting municipal autonomy, to leave the cities without provincial supervision. In an excess of zeal for municipal improvement the mayor and council might contract ruinous debts, mortgage the revenues beyond the safety line, and lay enormous burdens on the shoulders of the people. The Spanish system of administration, whatever faults may be charged against it, kept the cities out of debt very generally. Its motto seems to have been, "Pay as you go, and contract no obligations beyond the possibilities of the revenues." Bonded debts were few, and were in every instance authorized by the provincial government. As the secretary of state, under the Spanish system, had superintendence of municipal administration, it would be wise to place a reasonable measure of control in his hands under the Territorial plan.

DEPARTMENTS AND SALARIES.

As the executive power of the Governor-General of Porto Rico was exercised through four regular departments, as the people are familiar with that division of duties, and as the volume of business to be transacted is large, the commissioner suggests that similar departments be provided for in the legislation by Congress, as follows: State, treasury, and interior departments, with an attorney-general as legal adviser of the government, and also to have supervision over the fiscals or district attorneys. The treasury would be charged with receiving and paying out provincial funds, and also with disbursing, perhaps, so much of the receipts from customs and internal revenue as may be required to pay the salaries which may be made a charge upon the

United States Treasury. The interior department should be charged with control over public works, public instruction, agriculture, commerce, and industry, etc.

In fixing the salaries of governor-general, heads of departments, and justices, some regard must be had to what custom requires of these officials, in the maintenance of dignity of position and in liberal social entertainment. The Governor-General received a salary of \$20,000, under Spanish domination, with liberal appropriations for expenses at the palace, visitation of the cities of the island, etc. The secretaries received \$6,000 each, the judges of the supreme court from \$3,500 to \$4,500, the judges of the criminal courts \$3,500 and \$3,750, and the district judges, \$1,700 to \$2,250. This was in Porto Rican money. With the exception of the pay of the Governor-General, the salaries were not excessive. The extravagance in the salary accounts of former budgets was not in the amounts of individual salaries, but in the multiplication of official positions. The government clerks were in general very poorly paid, receiving from \$300, in the fifth class, to \$700 in the first class. There were a great many useless positions, as the ex-secretary of justice, Señor Herminio Diaz, has pointed out elsewhere. In American money the salaries of the secretaries would be about \$3,600, and those of the judges of the supreme court from \$2,100 to \$2,700. Rents and living are high in San Juan, compared with other parts of the island. A salary of \$3,600 American, is not too much for the secretaries, nor \$2,500 to \$3,000 too much for judges of the supreme court. That of the Governor-General might be reduced from \$12,000, American, to \$8,000, with reasonable allowances for clerical help and maintenance of the palace.

The commissioner calls attention to the testimony taken in Porto Rico at public hearings in alcaldias or city halls, to the statements, memorials, and resolutions presented to him, to the statistics of the census of 1897, of the finances, commerce, crops, births, deaths, and marriages, and much other information given in the appendix to this report, and begs to conclude with the following recommendations:

RECOMMENDATIONS.

(1) That the Constitution and laws of the United States be extended to Porto Rico; that all citizens of that province who do not, under the terms of the treaty of Paris, announce their intention to maintain their allegiance to Spain be declared citizens of the United States, and that all male citizens above the age of 21 years residents of said province at the time of American occupation shall be entitled to vote at the first election.

(2) That a Territorial form of government, similar to that established in Oklahoma, be provided for Porto Rico, with an executive department consisting of a governor-general, an assistant governor-general who shall serve as secretary of state, a secretary of treasury, a secretary of interior, and an attorney-general, all to be nominated by the President and to hold office for a term of four years; a legislative branch, consisting of the governor-general, and a senate and assembly to be elected by the people—the senate to consist of 14 members, 2 to be chosen in each of the seven departments of administration, known as San Juan, Arecibo, Aguadilla, Mayaguez, Ponce, Guayama, and Humacao; the assembly to consist of members apportioned to the population on the basis of 1 member to every 25,000 inhabitants; a judicial department, embracing a supreme court, district courts, and municipal

courts, or justices of the peace, the supreme court to consist of a chief justice and 4 associate justices, and the district courts, of which there shall be eleven, as provided under the former government, of 3 judges each.

(3) That the legislative power shall extend to all rightful subjects of legislation consistent with the Constitution of the United States, including regulations for the exercise of the elective franchise and the division of the province into municipal, administrative, judicial, and legislative districts.

(4) That no bill passed by the legislative branch shall become a law if the governor-general refuse to sign it, except by a two-thirds vote of each house.

(5) That the legal voters of the island be permitted to elect a Delegate to Congress.

(6) That the penal, civil, and commercial codes be continued in force, in so far as they are consistent with the Constitution of the United States, until a commission, to be appointed by the President, shall consider, revise, and amend them, and Congress shall have approved such revision.

(7) That a commission of five persons, three of whom shall be natives of the island and two of the United States, shall be appointed by the President to revise and, if necessary, recast the codes.

(8) That provision be made for trial of criminal cases before juries; also, of certain classes of civil suits.

(9) That the Federal banking laws and the laws relating to patents for inventions and designs and the registration of trade-marks, prints, and copyrights be extended to Porto Rico.

(10) That provision be made for the appointment of a commission of three persons who shall constitute a court of claims to sit in Porto Rico and hear and adjudicate all claims to property, ecclesiastical and secular, arising under the terms of the treaty of Paris.

(11) That the mortgage law be so amended as to permit edifices constructed and used for public worship to be inscribed by registradores (registrars), the same as any other property, on presentation of proofs of title.

(12) That congregations using church edifices for public worship shall not be disturbed in the use thereof until the question of legal title thereto is settled.

(13) That for the period of five years after the installation of the new civil government the receipts of the custom-houses and internal-revenue office in the island, after the expenses of collection and the salaries of the governor-general and other Territorial officers and other expenses made payable from it have been met, shall be appropriated as a school fund for said Territory, to be used in providing suitable buildings and apparatus for the schools of the island.

(14) That the establishment of counties, upon the American plan, with cities, towns, villages, and townships as subordinate divisions, be referred to the governor-general and legislature of Porto Rico, to be provided for at such time and in such manner as they may deem best.

(15) That the people of the several municipal districts be allowed to continue to elect their councilmen; that the right to elect the alcalde, or mayor, be conceded to them, and that the revision of the system of municipal government be intrusted to the governor-general and legislature of Porto Rico.

(16) That municipalities which own and maintain public cemeteries be required to provide burial places for all persons, with no discrimination for or against any in respect to suitability or eligibility of burial places or in the care of the grounds, and that the general practice of exhumation of bodies be forbidden, so that perpetual graves shall be provided for all.

(17) That the amendments respecting civil marriage adopted by the military government be continued in force until the civil code is revised.

(18) That in view of the disastrous hurricane of August 8, 1899, which brought ruin upon the agricultural interests of the island, the law of foreclosure of mortgages on agricultural property and machinery be further suspended until January 1, 1901.

(19) That the codes, the laws of the Territorial legislature, and official acts of the governor-general shall be published both in Spanish and in English; that the courts shall be provided with interpreters of the English language, and that all papers in cases of appeal to the Supreme Court of the United States shall be in English.

(20) That provision be made for the retirement of the silver coins of Porto Rico, known as the peso, the 40, 20, 10, and 5 centavo pieces, and the copper centavo and 2-centavo coins, and their recoinage in the mints of the United States as United States coins.

(21) That the governor-general and legislature of Porto Rico be required to make provision for universal and obligatory education in a system of free public schools, in which the English language shall be taught.

(22) That the lottery be prohibited; also the issuing of licenses by municipalities permitting begging and prostitution.

(23) That a survey be made of the coast of Porto Rico; also of the harbors and roadsteads, with a view to their improvement.

(24) That an agricultural experiment station be established in Porto Rico, and the publications of the Department of Agriculture be made available to the planters in their own language; also, that the Territory share in the Department's distribution of seeds.

Respectfully submitted.

HENRY K. CARROLL,
Commissioner.

APPENDIX.

TESTIMONY, STATEMENTS, AND STATISTICS, INCLUDING STENOGRAPHIC REPORTS OF HEARINGS HELD IN PORTO RICO BY THE COMMISSIONER, STATEMENTS AND PETITIONS PRESENTED TO HIM, AND STATISTICAL TABLES GATHERED FROM OFFICIAL SOURCES.

By HENRY K. CARROLL, *Commissioner*.

AGRICULTURE—SOILS, CROPS, METHODS, RESOURCES.

CANE AND SUGAR.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 31, 1898.*

RICARDO NADAL, of Mayaguez, interpreter to General Henry:

Mr. NADAL. I was first a civil engineer and then later started a firm in New York under the name of Nadal & Cuebas, which was known at Mayaguez as Nadal & Co. I later came to Porto Rico, and eventually went into the sugar business, and that is the business our firm has now, our plantation being near Mayaguez and known as the Alta Gracia.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you manufacture your own sugar?

Mr. NADAL. Yes; everything. We also buy cane from the neighboring country, which we grind in our mill. The cane is brought there, and we pay 6 per cent on the weight of the cane, according to the market prices of muscovado sugar. In reference to the matter of sugar refinery, the only one in Porto Rico was owned by my family in Mayaguez, where they have now a tannery building on the same property. We kept the refinery going from 1858 to 1867, when work was stopped because we found that it did not pay to refine sugar here, and we could not export it to the United States owing to the duty on refined sugar there. The machinery was, therefore, sold out, and the buildings also. We don't own it now—not even the land.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you produce refined sugar at all?

Mr. NADAL. We produce what is called centrifugal sugar. We send to the United States what are known as first, second, and third centrifugals, and the residuum, after passing through the last operation, goes into the still to be manufactured into rum. In order to make refined sugar these centrifugals are afterwards converted into a kind of molasses, called "molasse." This process takes place in the United States and they use the centrifugal sugar of this island.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the brown sugar used here at the hotel produced here in that state?

Mr. NADAL. Yes. What you have at the hotel is a centrifugal sugar of the kind probably called first, and it is manufactured generally in the central factories, as they are called, by the Jamaica method; that is, by the open kettle method. Most of this sugar is sent to Spain and not to the United States on account of the difference in the duties.

Dr. CARROLL. If that grade of sugar were sent to the United States what duty would you have to pay on it?

Mr. NADAL. We pay duty according to its polarization. It is rated from 75 degrees up to 88 degrees, and we pay a certain proportion a pound. The sugar used in the hotel is about 96 degrees; beyond 88 degrees the rate of duty increases in a rapid ratio.

Dr. CARROLL. How large is your plantation?

Mr. NADAL. We have about 700 acres of land. We now produce about 3,000 bags. Our plantation, however, is mostly ruined. We have a plantation only in name, and if we were to pay what we owe on it we would have nothing—indeed, we would be even in debt.

Dr. CARROLL. How many months are required for a crop?

Mr. NADAL. The sugar cane requires from twelve to fourteen months before it can be cut. We have a petty culture and a larger culture. In petty culture the land is sowed in February or March and cut in February of the following year, and in the larger culture we sow in October, and within about fifteen months later we cut the cane. That gives a better product. After the first crop we get what is called the ratoon, which may give a second crop the following year, according to the fertility of the soil, and we have had crops repeated for as many as twenty years. The difficulty here has been that we have been extracting from the soil all the time and not giving to it; that is, we do not utilize manure to any great extent. The soil is very rich. You can find land here where the humus is 16 inches in depth. On our plantation the production never went below 65 hundredweight of sugar.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you have modern machinery here for sugar manufacturing?

Mr. NADAL. There are only about two factories in the island.

Dr. CARROLL. What does a modern plant cost?

Mr. NADAL. A modern plant with all the latest appliances would produce something like 35,000 bags, and would cost about \$400,000 of our currency.

Dr. CARROLL. How many pounds to the bag?

Mr. NADAL. Generally they weigh 100 kilograms. I am not positive, however, about that.

Dr. CARROLL. About how many sugar plantations are there in the island?

Mr. NADAL. I do not know. Some of our people engaged in the sugar business here use oxen, just as they did three hundred years ago. Of late the plantations have been getting into the hands of a few planters. The large planters have gradually been absorbing the smaller ones.

Dr. CARROLL. With modern apparatus much more sugar could be produced?

Mr. NADAL. If we had here in the island the diffusion battery system we could produce five times as much sugar as we produce to-day.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the land generally all in use?

Mr. NADAL. Much of our land is going to waste; that is, they are using it for grazing purposes. We call that abandoning the land, although it is a paying business in some districts. In Mayaguez, however, the cattle business does not pay, because it is too wet there. In other parts of the island, however, it is a paying business, and the ranch owners are better off than the sugar planters. They had smaller taxes because the government did not seem to understand the money they were making in the business.

Dr. CARROLL. Where do the cattle come from?

Mr. NADAL. I think from Africa. We lost a good deal of money on cattle. I had some Jersey heifers brought here, but we did not succeed with the business and gave it up.

Dr. CARROLL. Do the cows give much milk?

Mr. NADAL. Well, a good cow would give 10 quarts of milk a day, whereas a good cow in the United States will give as high as 16 quarts. In the country they give more than they do elsewhere because the matter of having to milk the cow early in the morning in order to have the milk in the city at an early hour causes the amount to drop off.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there a consumption tax on milk taken into the city?

Mr. NADAL. No. Referring again to the sugar industry here—this has been the determining point in favor of annexation to the United States. That is the certainty in the minds of Porto Ricans that their sugar would not have to pay any duty on going into the United States, knowing that such a duty would amount to a bounty on their product, and this view of the matter has done much to arouse interest in Porto Rico in favor of annexation. The same thing may be said of all other articles of production which are imported into the United States. The planters are perfectly aware of the advantages to be obtained by improving their apparatus, the introduction of modern appliances, etc., but they had not the means to do this. There have been no banking houses of sufficient means in the island to supply the funds, and besides the agricultural class thus far has been practically squeezed to death by the business community. Central factories are those where all modern appliances are introduced—like vacuum pans, double and triple effect, etc. The Jamaica system consists of the open-kettle system of evaporating juice instead of evaporating with the double and triple effect apparatus as we do in the central factories. Both processes are used here, but mostly the Jamaica train is used. We started with the oxen mills, then later we had the Jamaica train, and finally the central factories, which have the most modern appliances that we are able to introduce. In the central factories besides grinding the cane that is produced on the property belonging to the plantation, they grind also whatever amount of cane neighbors are willing to sell. The staple product of the island of Porto Rico to-day is coffee, as sugar used to be the most important article of export ten years ago. The export is something like 500,000 quintals (100 pounds) every year. The greater part of this goes to Europe—to such ports as Havre, Bremen, and Hamburg, and ports in Spain, and the balance mostly to the island of Cuba—very little of it ever going to the United States on account of the better prices ruling in the other markets, the quality of the Porto Rico coffee not being known in the markets of the United States. The quality of our coffee is equal to the best Costa Rica and Savanilla coffee. Some of the planters have already modern machinery—mounted drying apparatus—so as not to be obliged to dry the berry in the sun; and the residences of the planters

are good buildings of brick, where they live comfortably. The laborers on the large plantations live in small frame houses, which are allotted to them by families, and out of crop time they generally are allowed to have a small piece of land which they cultivate for their own account in small country produce, like bananas, beans, corn, sweet potatoes, yams, etc. We grow here also rice. One of the great drawbacks to the further development of the coffee industry is the lack of proper facilities for transportation from the interior into the seaport towns, such roads as there are being almost impassable during the rainy season. Coffee is mostly carried into the seaport towns on mule back, or in carts, when it is possible to do so. The greatest coffee-growing district in the island is the southwest section, including Adjuntas, Utuado, Yauco, Lares, Maricao, San Sebastian, Las Marias, Mayaguez, Aguadilla, and Arecibo. The principal ports of export of coffee are Arecibo, San Juan, Aguadilla, Mayaguez, and Ponce.

THE CHARACTER OF THE SOILS.

SAN JUAN, P. R., November 2, 1898.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

Mr. FRANCISCO T. SABAT, deputy collector of customs at San Juan:

Dr. CARROLL. Will you please state the character and condition of the soils of the island of Porto Rico.

Mr. SABAT. In my opinion, based upon the experience I have had, the soil can be classed into four kinds: The soil of the coast, called here, technically, *vegas de primera clase*, or alluvial soils, which produce the best food for cattle, and on which are situated the best sugar estates. Then come soils called *sobre vega*, which are situated at a little higher elevation than the coast lands, on the foothills, and are also used for cattle raising and sugar cane, but are not of such good quality, possessing less alluvial soil. Then we have the mountain lands, which contain coffee plantations, some grazing ground for cattle, and produce small fruits. These lands could be made more productive by fertilizers, but in some districts they are of very poor quality. Lastly, there are the lands of the mountain tops, which are covered with timber useful for building and decorative purposes, but are entirely uncultivated. I should add that on the coast there is much land in the form of jungles which could be reclaimed from the sea, that is to say, they are subject to the action of the tides, being covered and uncovered with the flow and ebb. These lands, when once removed from the action of the sea, will become very valuable agricultural lands. There are also sandy and clayey soils which produce nothing but cocoa palms, and are useless for other purposes.

Dr. CARROLL. To whom do the lands belong which you say could be reclaimed—to private parties or to the government?

Mr. SABAT. Some belong to the government under an old law which grants the government so many yards inland from the tidal line, and others belong to individuals who have acquired them from the government.

Dr. CARROLL. What crops besides those of sugar, coffee, and tobacco are raised here?

Mr. SABAT. Rice, but not sufficient for export nor sufficient for consumption, nor of a quality that can compete with Hamburg rice;

cocoanuts, which are exported chiefly to England just as they are taken from the palms; corn, which has been produced this year in considerable quantities and has been exported to Cuba; oranges, and all kinds of tropical fruits, such as nisperos (a tropical plum), pineapples, aguacates, guavas, etc.; malagueta, from which bay rum is made; the castor-oil plant; pease, beans, plantains, bananas, patchoulis, and many other kinds of vegetables and fruits. Cotton also can be grown.

CROPS AND MARKETS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

ARECIBO, P. R., *January 14, 1899.*

Mr. ANTONIO FIGAROS, representing the firm of Rosas & Co., one of the largest mercantile houses of Porto Rico:

Dr. CARROLL. What is your line of business?

Mr. FIGAROS. We are general merchants.

Dr. CARROLL. We are here to investigate everything concerning the well being of the island, and would be glad to receive any information of that kind that you can give.

Mr. FIGAROS. I will confine myself to matters in the business line, because we are foreigners now in the island. What I wish for is the abolition of all export duties.

Dr. CARROLL. That has already been done.

Mr. FIGAROS. Will there be a new impost placed on tobacco?

Dr. CARROLL. Probably an internal-revenue tax.

Mr. FIGAROS. On manufactured tobacco?

Dr. CARROLL. Probably on the production of the leaf tobacco also, as in the United States.

Mr. FIGAROS. You have to take into account the fact that the prime value is very small.

Dr. CARROLL. I would like to have a full representation on this point, because I have been asked by the Secretary of the Treasury to get information.

Mr. FIGAROS. It would not be advisable to put any tax on the production of the article. It would be proper to do so on the manufacture and consumption of it. The greater part of the tobacco produced in Porto Rico is of the ordinary class, called bolichi. The greater part of it is inferior to the grade of tobacco called "fillers." It is exported to Spain and Germany, and does not bring in to the agriculturists more than 4 or 5 pesos a hundred weight at the point of delivery, on a basis of 50 per cent premium of exchange. If Porto Rico were to produce another class of tobacco the amount produced would be much smaller. This class of tobacco, which has a good market in Spain and Germany, can be grown readily all around the coast. It is a tobacco which does not burn well. As the tobacco industry in Spain is a Government monopoly, they can force the public to accept any class of tobacco they want to, but the purchasers of the monopoly want to get the cheapest kind of tobacco they can. This monopoly is farmed out there.

Dr. CARROLL. In the United States an internal-revenue tax is levied on the manufacture of tobacco, and then the retail dealers have to

pay a certain sum per year. Do you think that system could be introduced here?

Mr. FIGAROS. Yes; but it is important to have the export free. The question you raise, though, ought to be carefully considered, because of its importance to many poor families who are employed in the tobacco industry.

Dr. CARROLL. There are a good many small planters?

Mr. FIGAROS. Yes; because anybody can plant a small patch of ground with tobacco, but coffee and sugar require larger estates. When the exchange of the money system is put into force here, duty should be taken off of sugar in the United States. If the gold basis is introduced and the duty is not removed Porto Rico will be ruined. I think there should be a cutting down in the duty of at least 75 per cent, if it can not be taken off altogether. It costs, in native money, something like \$2.40 a hundredweight to make sugar, and there is a constant outgo of money during the time it is being produced and up to the time it is sold. Another difficulty here now is the tendency of the peons to demand better wages. I think it would be a sufficient concession to them if they were paid in gold what they are now paid in silver.

A PLANTER. Whatever we pay in silver we would have to pay in gold after the exchange of the currency. We had gold currency here in 1868, and we had to pay our laborers then 50 cents gold just as we now pay them 50 cents silver.

Mr. FIGAROS. In addition to sugar, I wish to make some remarks on other crops. Coffee, I know, is admitted free into the United States, but I consider it important for the coffee industry that the United States, which to-day has an influence over the Cuban government, should see if it can not procure for Porto Rican coffee a preference in the Cuban market, or rather an advantageous tariff. Porto Rico has lost two important markets—the Spanish and the Cuban.

Dr. CARROLL. Why do you say that it has lost the Spanish market?

Mr. FIGAROS. We had an advantage in the Spanish tariff.

Dr. CARROLL. But you had to pay a duty on your coffee as well as on your sugar. Has the duty been increased?

Mr. FIGAROS. It has been increased considerably. Since the American occupation, the products of Porto Rico have been and will be considered as foreign when imported into Spain.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you know what the rate is?

Mr. FIGAROS. One hundred and seventy pesetas for every 100 kilograms of coffee is the present rate; that is to say, 82 more than is charged on coffee from nations which have favorable treaties.

Dr. CARROLL. Perhaps we shall be able after the treaty of peace is ratified to arrange a reciprocity treaty. What did you pay formerly in Spain?

Mr. FIGAROS. Sixty-six pesetas. We have only one market now, the European market, for our best grade. We have no market for our lower grades. The best grades comprise about 80 per cent of the production, because coffee is well prepared here. We make three kinds, and they all go to Europe and are readily sold.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you get good prices?

Mr. FIGAROS. There is no market in the United States. They do not know Porto Rican coffee there. Drinkers of coffee in the United States do not see the natural coffee. Grocers and dealers make them drink whatever they like.

Dr. CARROLL. No; the majority of people buy the coffee in the bean and grind it themselves.

Mr. FIGAROS. But not most coffee drinkers.

Dr. CARROLL. Of course very much coffee is ground and put up in packages by the dealers, but only the poorer people buy that.

Mr. FIGAROS. I understand the best drinkers use Mocha and Java mixed.

Dr. CARROLL. I drink a coffee called Java and Mocha mixed in the proportion of two and one, and I pay from 32 to 34 cents a pound for it in the bean, roasted.

Mr. FIGAROS. But it has lost already a large amount of weight.

Mr. ALFRED SOLOMON (interpreter). They do not drink Porto Rican coffee in the United States because it is too strong.

Dr. CARROLL. They grind coffee coarser in the United States than they do here.

Mr. SOLOMON. The dealers in the United States would have made a market for Porto Rican coffee if the Porto Ricans had not insisted on coloring it. I had that from the lips of a coffee dealer.

Mr. FIGAROS. We have here one of the largest plants in Porto Rico. We polish 300 quintals per day, and it is a beautiful operation. We make a thorough classification of it, and the coffee is not tinted. It is polished.

Mr. SOLOMON. The people of the United States want their coffee without any foreign substance whatever, and in polishing it, do you not use some coloring matter?

Mr. FIGAROS. Yes, but it is only a gram of this indigo for every quintal.

Mr. SOLOMON. The amount does not matter. The people there do not want coffee with any foreign matter in it. I went to a coffee broker in New York and asked why he could not sell Porto Rican coffee there. He said because the Porto Ricans will not send it here as we want it; that it would be possible to sell it to the French and Austrians if the indigo were left out.

Mr. FIGAROS. The outer shell is polished and all the bad beans taken out and classified.

Dr. CARROLL. How do you prepare your best grade which you send to Russia and France?

Mr. FIGAROS. We polish it. The price of the best coffee now in Porto Rico is about 15 pesos; the last year it was 25 pesos for raw coffee. The coffee planters are a little behind in their debts and are pretty badly off.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there anything else you wish to speak of?

Mr. FIGAROS. About the exchange of money. I would recommend a rate of 50 per cent premium on gold, the same as a bank at Ponce and the merchants of Mayaguez. That should be the meeting point between agriculture and commerce on the money question. If they make the rate lower than that, it will be very hard. For some time we have not seen such a rate, but taking a five years' basis you will find that the average premium is about 50 per cent.

Mr. ADOLF BAHR. I wish to say something about our need here of agricultural experts. We have not any here, and it is very important that Porto Rico should have them.

Dr. CARROLL. For what purpose?

Mr. BAHR. To advise the agriculturists in their cultivation of the various soils here; to tell them the nature of the soils and what crops they are best adapted for. Those are things we do not know here;

we go ahead blindly, without any scientific knowledge, in agricultural matters.

Dr. CARROLL. That is not a government matter, is it?

Mr. BAHR. No; but I think such engineers or experts would find work here.

CONDITIONS IN THE VALLEY OF SAN GERMAN.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN GERMAN, P. R., *January 26, 1899.*

DON JOAQUIN CERVERA and Mr. SANTIAGO MARI.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the present state of the sugar industry?

Mr. CERVERA. Deplorable.

Dr. CARROLL. What has brought it to that condition?

Mr. CERVERA. Many reasons. It is a very complex question, which embraces many aspects. In the first place, poverty on the part of the owners—want of ready money; in the second place, the impoverishment of the soil, which does not produce as it used to, this impoverishment being due to the want of irrigation and a lack of fertilizers.

Dr. CARROLL. This is not true, I believe, of all portions of the island in which cane is produced.

Mr. CERVERA. Nearly all the island is the same in this respect.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it not possible to use fertilizers more extensively?

Mr. CERVERA. It would be if we had money with which to buy them.

Dr. CARROLL. Have not the sugar men been making money in the last ten years?

Mr. CERVERA. They have not even covered their expenditures, for which reason the agricultural industry is in a state of complete ruin. Formerly planters were opulent; to-day they are poor.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that due to the decrease in price or to the gradual decrease of the crop?

Mr. CERVERA. Owing to several causes—the land does not produce so much, prices are lower uniformly, and the planters have to pay for the labor, whereas formerly they had slave labor.

Dr. CARROLL. Has there been any increase of expense owing to high interest on borrowed money?

Mr. CERVERA. Yes; that is another cause. That is the chief reason of the ruin of the agriculturist.

Dr. CARROLL. I understand that the interest on money is from 9 to 18 and even 24 per cent. What was it formerly?

Mr. CERVERA. There was hardly any need of borrowing money in the old days, as the estates paid well and gave sufficient returns for their cultivation without the planters having to borrow money. Formerly, not having to pay for labor, the soil being virgin and the prices being high, the business used to be lucrative. We used to obtain \$5 or \$6 a quintal, but to-day we hardly obtain \$3.

Dr. CARROLL. What rate of wages do you have to pay?

Mr. CERVERA. One-half a dollar, provincial money, for the ordinary laborers; the skilled laborers obtain higher wages.

Dr. CARROLL. What methods are pursued in the culture of cane? Is it the same throughout the island?

Mr. CERVERA. With very slight differences the method is uniform all throughout the island.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they give the land a rest after raising cane on it?

Mr. CERVERA. Those owning large properties are able to do so; those owning small properties have to reap the crop every year.

Dr. CARROLL. In that case can they not give the land rest by alternating crops?

Mr. CERVERA. They do that. They have to do so.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it not be a good thing to have fewer mills and adopt the central system of Cuba?

Mr. CERVERA. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Have the sugar planters ever formed an association or society for the promotion of their mutual interests?

Mr. CERVERA. There was an attempt at it, but it has never succeeded.

Dr. CARROLL. It would seem to me to be very necessary, if sugar industry is in a bad condition at present, that such a society should be formed with a view to investigating and ascertaining, for example, whether another kind of cane could not be introduced—another kind that has not the disease that I understand attacks most of the cane—and whether new processes of culture could not be adopted with advantage; as to whether central establishments might be put up, how many there should be, and the introduction of new and improved machinery; with the object also of determining whether the acreage given to cane should be increased or diminished in any given year, based on the condition of the sugar crop in other countries; with the object also of helping one another in getting loans at a lower rate of interest, and perhaps in finding better and more remunerative markets.

Mr. CERVERA. Although we feel the spirit of cooperation it has never given any result in this country.

Dr. CARROLL. Can it not, in your judgment, under present conditions be made a success?

Mr. CERVERA. If we had money it could. That is what we need. We can not undertake anything because we have not any money.

Dr. CARROLL. But when many come together, some having no money, some having little money, and some having more, it is possible to do a great many things in concert which could not be undertaken individually.

Mr. CERVERA. It is not possible. Fifty or one hundred people would get together, and they could not get enough money together to form their society.

Dr. CARROLL. They might begin such a society without very much money and gradually go from one thing to another until they had formed a society which should take under its superintendence the entire production of cane in the island.

Mr. CERVERA. That could be done in a country where the spirit of association is more general. Out of one hundred planters here perhaps only six or eight would come in.

Dr. CARROLL. In the United States the competition is so sharp that association is literally compelled by the condition of things. The self-interest of individual producers compels association. It may be the sugar industry of Porto Rico has not arrived at a sufficiently desperate situation to force it to act.

Mr. CERVERA. In former attempts at cooperation, whether due to bad management or not, these organizations have always failed, and

to-day persons are not willing to enter into such arrangements, fearing, perhaps, that the results would be the same. Perhaps, inasmuch as the want of success in former attempts at cooperation has been due to bad administration, a man of intelligence taking hold of the thing and administering it to-day might meet with different results.

Dr. CARROLL. There is one important point in which it seems to me that such an organization might be of advantage to all sugar owners, and that is in the influence that might be brought to bear in behalf of the sugar owners to mitigate circumstances which they feel bear with undue weight upon them; in other words, to make representations with more force to the municipal and insular governments than could be made by one man.

Mr. CERVERA. I think with you in that matter. I wish you to understand that the country is in an agonizing condition and we want immediate assistance.

Dr. CARROLL. I understood, when I made a visit to Utuado, that unless something were done to prevent the foreclosure of mortgages the country would be ruined. Therefore I changed the course of my visit and went back to San Juan and besought General Henry to suspend foreclosure of mortgages for a year, and he did me the honor to request me to draw the order. I only state this to show that the interest of the agricultural industry, which is the paramount industry of the island, is on the heart of those who are in power.

Mr. SANTIAGO MARI. That has helped us to a certain extent, but it has caused the suspension of credit. The coffee crop has been only half what it ought to be. The price has fallen to a very low figure, and we have no possible way of getting advances to attend to next year's crop.

Dr. CARROLL. There are certain things the Government can do and certain things the Government can not do. The recent action was taken on the understanding that the debtors required a little longer time in which to seek for money in other channels, and especially to seek for money at lower rates of interest, and to prevent the sale of their property at a time when it was realized that it would not bring more than 25 per cent of its value. Now, the Government can do this: It can protect the large class of its people who, in the stress of the results of war, are likely to lose their property; but the Government can not supply the capital; the Government itself can not lend the money; it can only mitigate the conditions, and possibly bring about conditions under which the debtor can borrow money at lower rates of interest, but it can not give him money.

Mr. MARI. As none of the bankers at present will lend money, and there is no assurance of any new banks coming here, credit will be stopped altogether.

Dr. CARROLL. One difficulty about your borrowing money is the impending change of money system. As soon as the change comes the money that has been put in chests will come out, so that those who have good credit can borrow money, because there will be money to lend. One of the largest capitalists in the island told me yesterday that there was money in the island, but that it was in the chests of the island waiting for the exchange rate to be fixed. Now that the rate has been fixed, and now that the Government has taken this action in favor of the debtor, the debtor ought, as far as he can, pay his debts.

Mr. MARI. The debtor with bad faith can sell his estate to-day and cheat his creditor.

Dr. CARROLL. It is still subject to the mortgage.

Mr. MARI. We have three classes of persons here: Those who pay their debts from pride, those who pay their debts from honest motives, and those who pay their debts from fear of the law. Most of them pay from fear of the law.

Dr. CARROLL. That is a bad name to give the debtors of the island.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. Mr. Mari is a Frenchman. He is not a Porto Rican.

Dr. CARROLL (to Mr. Mari). How do you expect to get your money, if that is the case?

Mr. MARI. Only those will get credit who have something to offer as a guaranty. As long as this order is not what I understand it to be, I have nothing further to say about it. Coffee is, next to sugar, the most important crop of the island, especially because so many poor raise it. We have to wait five years to get a crop, and if it is worth nothing, then there is a great loss.

Dr. CARROLL. It seems to me that an organization such as I suggested for the sugar planters would be good. Such an association could find out the needs of the market in the United States and seek to introduce that kind of coffee.

Mr. CERVERA. At least coffee can go in free, and we poor sugar planters are out in the cold.

Mr. MARI. What will save the country is plenty of money on long terms and cheap rates of interest.

Dr. CARROLL. In order to be able to borrow money on a low rate of interest, the people must cause confidence to be established by showing their willingness to pay. It is not true that borrowing money depends absolutely upon the security, because any security may fail, but the person is always a factor.

Mr. MARI. If we have good laws, good faith makes no difference.

Dr. CARROLL. That may be, but if a large number do not pay, capital will not come. That is the first thing to establish. You must have the people of the United States believe that the majority of the people here who want to borrow money pay what they borrow, and pay it if it be their whole fortune.

Mr. MARI. As soon as money comes in, a man who has an estate worth \$10,000 and borrows \$5,000 on it naturally becomes a good payer; but if he finds anybody foolish enough to lend him \$10,000, the lender makes him a dishonest man.

Dr. CARROLL. The principle of honesty is something from within and not something from without, and such a man would be dishonest anyway.

Mr. MARI. Countries in which there are poverty and misery are never honest.

Dr. CARROLL. That is an entirely cynical view. That takes the view that people are not honest unless force makes them such. I have seen much of the world, and that is not my observation of it. But this is not matter bearing on my investigation. I don't want to take away from Porto Rico the idea that the people here are only honest from force of circumstances.

THE SUGAR CROP IN AGUADILLA.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

AGUADILLA, P. R., *January 26, 1899.*

FRANCISCO ESTEBES, sugar planter:

Mr. ESTEBES. In the months of November and December, when the north winds blow, the seas beat up very heavily. The land around this part of the island is used land, and does not produce good crops. The average crop is 3 hogsheads of 15 quintals to each cuerda. Some of the planters use fertilizers, generally phosphates and fish manure brought in from Boston.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there not a great deal of the phosphate in the mountains that could be gotten out and made available?

Mr. ESTEBES. There are many phosphate deposits here, but not one of them is being worked.

PLANTERS AND THE MONEY QUESTION.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

FAJARDO, P. R., *January 31, 1899.*

Mr. GEORGE BIRD, ex-consul of the United States at Fajardo:

Mr. BIRD. The planters are almost ruined in this locality. I can speak for them, because they have been urging their needs upon me.

Their situation is very critical on account of the low price of sugar. These planters who own great properties, some valued at \$200,000, can not get together \$200. The doors of the banking institutions are practically closed, and some of the planters have been refused small amounts of money on properties of large value, with first-class mortgage receipts, at 8 per cent interest. Those are actual cases.

Dr. CARROLL. One difficulty has been that, pending the settlement of the money question, people have hoarded money; but with the monetary question settled I think money will be easier to obtain, so that the situation will be relieved somewhat in that respect.

Mr. BIRD. Has the money question been solved?

Dr. CARROLL. It has been so announced. The rate of exchange has been fixed. The details of the system have not come from the United States yet.

Mr. BIRD. The planters regard the situation as so difficult that if it is prolonged for a year they don't think they will be able to get out of it. Some of them are just beginning to plant their crops, and are having difficulty in paying their taxes and their laborers.

Dr. CARROLL. I think in a short time money will be easier and more plentiful, because people don't want to keep it in their chests when they can get 9 or 10 per cent for it.

Mr. BIRD. I understood you to tell me that the President can do nothing for the sugar interests, and that the present Congress will not be able to take the matter up.

Dr. CARROLL. Yes.

Mr. BIRD. We had a kind of a bounty which was given us directly by the exchange. Now, if our money is turned into gold, I don't think we can even grind our cane. We can not sell sugar at less than \$3, and that is all we get now.

Dr. VEVE. Our present need is money.

Dr. CARROLL. The Government can not deal out money to the planters. It is willing to do all it can to relieve the situation.

Dr. VEVE. We will have to pay our laborers the same as before. The reduced rates will not benefit the people. The merchant will get it all.

Dr. CARROLL. You can not make me believe that. He may get more than his share, but he is bound to reduce prices.

THE PRODUCTS OF VIEQUES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

ISLAND OF VIEQUES, P. R., *January 31, 1899.*

Mr. LEOPOLDO VENEGAS JACOME. The principal source of wealth of this island is sugar, and the sugar interests are anxious to obtain a free market in the United States. If that can not be granted, they want at least a bonus, which, so far as they are concerned, would accomplish the same end. The present money system is an indirect bonus on sugar, but once the change is decreed the complete ruin of this island will follow, unless we get some sort of relief.

Dr. CARROLL. Don't you think the laboring men would accept an amount in gold corresponding to what they now receive in silver?

Mr. JACOME. I don't think we would have much difficulty with the people. I believe it would be possible to harmonize the interests of the employer with those of the peon.

Dr. CARROLL. Would not that solve your difficulty, then?

Mr. JACOME. The price of sugar to-day in the United States, added to the duty which it pays there, does not allow sugar planters even to cover their expenses.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you raise anything here besides sugar?

Mr. JACOME. Cattle.

Dr. CARROLL. No tobacco?

Mr. JACOME. No, and no coffee. We might raise coffee on a small scale, but sugar and cattle are the only industries.

Mr. L. F. WOLFE. We had an offer here from the house of Bartron Brothers, who are now established in Santa Cruz. They came here and stated that they were perfectly willing to put up a central factory, but that all depended upon the free entry of sugar; they could not do so otherwise. Our sister colony of the Danish Government had also large amount of duty to pay on sugar in home ports, but they have taken it off, and the island is going to prosper.

Dr. CARROLL. How much sugar do you produce here?

Mr. WOLFE. We produce now from 30,000 to 40,000 bags, and the island can easily yield 100,000 more. We have three centrifugal machines here. This proposition that was made by Bartron was based on the fact that many here would be able to raise sugar if there was a central factory who are unable to do so to-day, because they can not afford to put up the necessary machinery.

Dr. CARROLL. There are too many poor mills also on the main island.

A PLANTER. We have four central mills now, but one is not running.

Dr. CARLOS GASPAS. One of the most urgent needs of the island for the benefit of agriculture, which is the basis of its wealth, is the creation of agricultural experiment stations and experimental culture

fields. A wide diffusion of agricultural knowledge is necessary for the country, because without it the country can not flourish under any circumstances. Under the law of the United States I understand that each State and Territory is entitled to \$15,000 for this object from the Federal Treasury. This place is neither a State nor a Territory at present, but the sum being so small, I don't see why it could not be donated immediately for so worthy an object.

Dr. CARROLL. Has any attempt been made to have an association of planters here?

Dr. GASPAR. One did exist, but it went to pieces little by little, as everything else did under Spanish domination.

Dr. CARROLL. Perhaps publications of the Agricultural Department, if translated into Spanish and circulated here, would be of great value.

Dr. GASPAR. Such books would supply the theoretical part and the professors of agricultural schools would illustrate the practical part, showing the people how to make use of what they learn from the books. It will be necessary to give the people ocular demonstration.

Mr. MOURAILLE. There is a tax now of \$20 per man brought here for laboring purposes, and I think that could be taken off. I import one hundred or more. If I had not done so I could not have harvested my crops.

Dr. CARROLL. Where do such laborers come from?

Mr. MOURAILLE. From the Windward Islands and about there.

Dr. CARROLL. I understand much complaint has been made in Porto Rico about the importation of laborers.

Mr. MOURAILLE. Yes; I have heard of it.

Dr. CARROLL. How much do you pay per day?

Mr. MOURAILLE. From 60 to 75 cents.

Mr. WOLFE. Living here is very high.

The MAYOR. We could have brought in Porto Rican laborers, but this gentleman (Mr. Mouraille) has always fought against Porto Rican laborers and would never employ them.

Dr. GASPAR. Will sugar be granted free entry this year?

Dr. CARROLL. No.

Mr. GASPAR. With the gold standard and without free trade it will be very hard.

Dr. CARROLL. That is what all the sugar planters say, but it is a situation that can not be helped.

Dr. GASPAR. The rate of exchange is what has held the planters.

Dr. CARROLL. But on the other hand there were many who said that if the money question were not settled business would stop. It has injured the sugar planters—I understand that—but it is not possible to admit sugar free into the United States until Congress can take the matter up.

SOILS AND CROPS IN HUMACAO.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

HUMACAO, P. R., February 1, 1899.

Mr. MIGUEL ARGUESO, a planter; Mr. ANTONIO ROIG, merchant and owner of a sugar mill; Mr. JOAQUIN MASFERRER, mayor of Humacao, and others:

Dr. CARROLL. Will you state the general character of the soil in this district?

MR. ROIG. It is a sandy soil, generally speaking, though we have some meadows.

DR. CARROLL. Is there much humus in the soil?

MR. ROIG. Not a great deal.

DR. CARROLL. Then it is a poor soil generally?

MR. ROIG. Yes; I think so.

DR. CARROLL. Is it sandy on the plains and on the mountains, or is there a difference between the soil of the plains and that of the mountains? There must be a great deal of humus in the valleys.

MR. ROIG. There is more humus in the valleys, and there is a kind of clay in the mountains.

DR. CARROLL. This soil of the mountains is specially adapted to what crops?

MR. ROIG. The lower parts are good for cane—say, halfway up—and above that, good for grass. They don't plant any coffee here.

DR. CARROLL. What crops do they raise here in a small way, in addition to the sugar?

MR. ROIG. They raise some corn, some beans, yucca, very few potatoes, some cabbage, and other vegetables. We have a few oranges; also a few lemons, but only enough for our own use. Oranges are produced here easily.

DR. CARROLL. Why don't you raise larger quantities of oranges?

MR. ROIG. Because no one has thought of doing so. I think there is more money in planting cane.

DR. CARROLL. Do you raise rice here?

MR. ROIG. Very little; it flourishes, but it comes cheaper from outside.

DR. CARROLL. Is it any trouble to raise it?

MR. ROIG. No.

DR. CARROLL. Why, then, do you import it? You have to pay cash for what you import.

MR. ROIG. All the rice here is raised by the poor people.

DR. CARROLL. Do they raise all they need?

MR. ROIG. No; we have to import it.

DR. CARROLL. Do you raise many bananas?

MR. ROIG. Only for home consumption.

DR. CARROLL. Why don't you raise them for export?

MR. ROIG. I am unable to say.

DR. CARROLL. I think I can tell why. Your roads are so bad you can not get them into market. San Juan has few good oranges. If you could get your oranges into San Juan you would get a good market there. What other crops are raised?

MR. ROIG. Cocoanuts.

DR. CARROLL. They cost nothing to raise?

MR. ROIG. Yes; they do cost something. We have to pay, in the first place, 25 cents for the plant. Then care must be taken of the plant or the cattle will come and eat it.

DR. CARROLL. But after it is a tree it takes care of itself, does it not?

MR. ROIG. No; the leaves have to be washed and the dead leaves cut away.

DR. CARROLL. Do you raise many cocoanuts for export?

MR. ROIG. Yes.

DR. CARROLL. You have plenty of land on which you could grow more for export, have you not?

MR. ROIG. Yes; we come to what we said before.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there anything else you raise here?

Mr. ROIG. We raise annatto. That is a dye stuff.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you ever put fertilizers on land for the raising of cane?

Mr. ROIG. Yes; sometimes a Porto Rican fertilizer, and sometimes one that comes from Boston. The native fertilizer comes from Cabo Rojo.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you raise pineapples?

Mr. ROIG. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there much labor required in the raising of a crop?

Mr. ROIG. No.

Dr. CARROLL. You don't export any?

Mr. ROIG. No; or at least very few.

Mr. ARGUESO. Mayaguez exports more.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you raise many cattle?

Mr. ROIG. Yes, and it is a paying business; there is money in it. There is always a demand for oxen.

Dr. CARROLL. Why is that?

Mr. ROIG. Because in other West Indian islands they come to buy their cattle here.

Dr. CARROLL. Don't you sell a great many here in the island?

Mr. ROIG. Yes; we even supply Ponce and Mayaguez.

Dr. CARROLL. If your roads were in good condition you would not need so many oxen, would you?

Mr. ROIG. No; and a yoke of oxen would last longer on good roads.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any industries here in the way of hat making, for instance, or tobacco manufacturing, or anything of that kind?

Mr. ROIG. A few cigars are made here, but very few. We raise very little tobacco.

Dr. CARROLL. Don't you think it would be better to have a larger variety of crops, so that when sugar is low you would have something to fall back on? It is considered bad policy in the United States to put all your money into one crop.

Mr. ROIG. We have an insect here that eats plants, such as beans and tobacco.

Dr. CARROLL. You can exterminate that. We have an insect in the United States that preys upon potatoes and tomatoes, and they have experimented and have found the best means of destroying it.

Mr. ROIG. The insects here even eat the new canes, so that sometimes they have to plant the cane twice.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you use the manure that your oxen and cattle make?

Mr. ROIG. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you use the ashes from your furnace?

Mr. ROIG. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. In one large mill on the other side of the island they had a large pile of ashes, and I asked what they did with it. I was told they threw it on the dump. The proprietor did not know that it was good for manure.

Mr. MASFERRER. I want to rectify an assertion of Mr. Roig concerning the character of the soils in this district. Mr. Roig considers them to be sandy; I consider them to be silicate-clay soils. Sandy soil is found chiefly on the coast; as soon as you get inland the silicate-clay prevails.

Dr. CARROLL. A sandy soil will allow rain water to pass off; silicate-clay soils will hold the water. Is the soil inland damp?

Mr. MASFERRER. The soils are not completely siliceous. They only hold enough water for the purpose of growing vegetation, but they don't hold the water altogether. The soil is not spongy. There are marshy lands to-day which, if they were drained, would be cultivable lands of excellent quality.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it be difficult to drain them?

Mr. MASFERRER. No; it would be a simple matter. We could drain them into the river. That is where all should be drained, as we are below the level of the sea.

Dr. CARROLL. Are they used now as pasture lands?

Mr. MASFERRER. They can only be used in a prolonged dry season.

Dr. CARROLL. Don't they produce grass in the wet season?

Mr. MASFERRER. They produce grass, but there are many leeches in it, and they attack and damage the cattle.

Dr. CARROLL. What are the mountain soils?

Mr. MASFERRER. Siliceous clay soils.

Dr. CARROLL. Are they adapted to crops?

Mr. MASFERRER. Yes; to small crops. There are some also that will produce cane.

Dr. CARROLL. Do planters here observe rotation of crops—that is, put the land into other crops, or let it lie fallow?

Mr. MASFERRER. They use an infamous system of agriculture here. They sow the cane, cut the cane, plow the land, sow the cane, cut the cane, year after year, and give the land no rest whatever. The planter calculates the product of his crop by the cuerda—so many barrels of sugar to the cuerda—without taking into consideration that a less number of cuerdas, well attended to, give better results than a larger number, badly attended to.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any exceptions to that rule in this district?

Mr. MASFERRER. The plan I speak of is general. Planters know nothing of agriculture. For instance, when they use manure, they don't know what they are using it for, and sometimes do the land more harm than good.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it not be well for the Agricultural Department to send down books in Spanish, explaining the best methods of raising cane and how to conserve the soil?

Mr. MASFERRER. They would be very useful, as scientific knowledge with regard to lands here is absolutely wanting.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they use the same seed year after year without trying to get plants from other countries to improve the character of the cane?

Mr. MASFERRER. They don't try to improve the cane. They use the same seed year after year, and it is usually bad seed.

Dr. CARROLL. I should think it would be necessary, in order to avoid certain diseases which are apt to come to cane which is used from one stock year after year, that the stock should be changed.

Mr. MASFERRER. There is one thing you must take into consideration: The planter, for want of money, can not plant what and how he likes; he must plant what and how he can.

Dr. CARROLL. The alcalde of Mayaguez showed me a number of canes in which there was evidence of a certain disease, which appeared almost as though a worm had gone through the length of the cane. I asked him to what cause he attributed it, and he could not tell. I sug-

gested to him that it might be due to the fact that one stock of cane had been used many years and had deteriorated, and that it might be well to get another stock of cane. He thought such a change might be well.

Mr. MASFERRER. It appears to me to be the only possible remedy, whenever they have a diseased plant, to remove it and to use fresh stock; but it is not the custom here to do such things.

Dr. CARROLL. General Henry told me that he had cabled to the Department of Agriculture to furnish him with a quantity of seeds for use among the people of the island; not of cane, but of vegetables. What class of seeds, in your judgment, would be most useful to the planters in this district?

Mr. MASFERRER. There is a certain difficulty to be taken into account. Nobody cares to give attention to these small crops, because they don't give the same commensurate profit as tobacco, coffee, or sugar, owing to the bad state of the roads.

Dr. CARROLL. But they could get enough for home consumption by dedicating a very small amount of land to the cultivation of these crops.

Mr. MASFERRER. Those persons who give their attention to small crops do it only as a secondary matter, and leave the growth of these crops entirely to the favor of nature—that is, if the wind is favorable and the rain comes at the right time, well and good; but they don't give them any attention.

Dr. CARROLL. My visits to the various market places of the island confirm me in that opinion. Tomatoes, such as are offered here, would not be accepted in the United States at any price. They raise very large and luscious tomatoes there, and it is the same with all other vegetables. It seems to me that with the soil here you could take the place of the Bermudas, and supply the New York market, which is the best market in the world, with these vegetables. It is well known that these small crops are very remunerative. If you have a variety in your crops, you will have larger returns and more certain returns. Bermuda potatoes sometimes bring \$2 a bushel in New York, when there is an insufficient supply there, and, at times, even more.

Mr. MASFERRER. Potatoes can not be grown here well because of that insect which has been referred to. It attacks the potato at all of its stages. I once sowed 30 quintals and was able to harvest only 4.

Dr. CARROLL. In the United States we have a potato beetle which is a dangerous insect and multiplies with great rapidity, but they found finally something to kill it—something that it liked—and they fed that to it. We have in connection with our Department of Agriculture, in Washington, an experiment division in which questions of insectology are studied, and the Department publishes from time to time the best specifics for killing certain insects and getting rid of these pests.

Mr. MASFERRER. They established a similar station here once. It cost the province immense sums of money, but gave no results.

Dr. CARROLL. If you will send specimens of these insects to the Department of Agriculture, with a statement of the damage they do here, I am sure you will receive directions how to exterminate them.

Mr. MASFERRER. That would be a very good idea.

Dr. CARROLL. If you choose to do that, I will be glad to forward them to the Secretary of Agriculture with such representations as you may wish to make. Tell me when it appears, what crops it attacks

and how it attacks them, and give me some specimens of it, and I will ask the Secretary of Agriculture to take the matter up.

Mr. MASFERRER. This insect was brought in from Peru in some guano.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you any laws for the inspection of imports, to prevent the bringing in of such insects?

Mr. MASFERRER. No.

ENEMIES OF THE SUGAR CANE.

YABUCOA, P. R., *February 2, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. I have come here chiefly to get information and not to impart information; therefore I would like to ask a few questions about agriculture here. I understand that your chief crop is sugar; that you also raise some tobacco.

A PLANTER. Yes. Cattle raising is also a profitable industry.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the sugar cane you raise affected with any disease?

A PLANTER. The cane suffers most from the ravages of an insect which attacks it; so much so that sometimes we have to sow three and four times. The result is that the cane first sowed comes to maturity before that which is sowed later, and, as we have to cut it all together, some of the cane is lacking in saccharine matter.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you endeavored to introduce new varieties of cane?

A PLANTER. We have written and spoken about it, but it ended there. However, this would not affect the insect.

Dr. CARROLL. But cane that is continued year after year deteriorates, and it would, perhaps, be well if you could get a fresh stock of seed occasionally.

A PLANTER. We want agricultural experts here. The fertilizers they sell us are worthless, because, for want of scientific knowledge, we are unable to judge of them.

Dr. CARROLL. I promised the people of Humacao, with reference to this insect that is making great ravages in the cane there and elsewhere, that if they would furnish me with specimens of it, I would send it to Washington and ask the Department of Agriculture to prescribe some specific by which they could kill it off and get rid of the pest.

NOTE.—Dr. Carroll then referred to the publications of the Agricultural Department, and stated that, if it was the wish of planters in the island, he would ask the Department to furnish them copies, in Spanish, of some of its publications.

Dr. CARROLL. It seems to me very important that the planters of Porto Rico, in the various localities, should associate themselves together for the study of their industry, for the mutual protection of their interests, and for the advancement of the cause which they have at heart.

A PLANTER. There was a society formed for that purpose some time ago, with its headquarters in San Juan, and with agents in every town, but, under the old government, apathy and indifference seemed to hold sway, so that nothing came of the movement. Perhaps with the change of nationality, the people may change in this respect. Everybody understands the necessity of association, without having it demonstrated.

FARMING IN ARROYO.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

ARROYO, P. R., *February 3, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. What crops do you raise?

Mr. GAUTIER, planter. Only cane. I have a plantation in P'atillo, another in Maunabo, and one here in the district of Arroyo.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the character of the soil in this valley?

Mr. GAUTIER. I don't know much about that; I should say between a siliceous and a sandy soil.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it a naturally rich soil?

Mr. GAUTIER. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you have to apply fertilizers?

Mr. GAUTIER. The cultivation of cane was abandoned for some years, and we are just taking it up again. We have never used fertilizers up to the present, but we think we will have to do so.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the crop now a smaller and less important one than it used to be?

Mr. GAUTIER. About the same; but there is far less cane sown to-day than formerly.

Dr. CARROLL. If it produces the same quantity as before, why do you propose to use fertilizers?

Mr. GAUTIER. Because the land tires with each successive crop.

Dr. CARROLL. Do the planters practice rotation of crops?

Mr. GAUTIER. No, they plant cane only.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it not understood that the raising of one crop continually on the same land, year after year, will impoverish the land of elements that that crop requires, while leaving other elements in large quantity?

Mr. GAUTIER. They let the ground rest, and then sow it after the lapse of a year. No farmer has under cultivation at one time the whole of his estate.

Dr. CARROLL. It is an axiom among the farmers in the United States that by rotation of crops—the sowing of different kinds of crops—the soil is rested.

A PLANTER. That can not be done here; we have too much money invested in machinery for sugar making. You must also consider that sugar not only gives one crop, but several successive crops.

Dr. CARROLL. I do not mean that you should abandon sugar, but have other crops growing simultaneously with it. When we let land lie fallow, it runs to grass, and that rests it. We put cattle on it, and that fertilizes. What is the average production of sugar per cuerda?

Mr. GAUTIER. About 28 quintals, on an average. In some years, when there is a drought, there is hardly any production.

Dr. CARROLL. What other crops is the soil specially suited for?

Mr. GAUTIER. Platanos, corn, pineapples, yucca, annatto, achiote—all small crops. Almost anything will grow on the lowlands of Arroyo.

Dr. CARROLL. Will rice grow here?

Mr. GAUTIER. That is not raised here.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you raise tobacco?

Mr. GAUTIER. Yes; but it is not a profitable crop, on account of the drought.

Dr. CARROLL. I understand you are considering the question of irrigation for this portion of the island.

Mr. GAUTIER. Yes, we are.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you sufficient supply of water for irrigation?

Mr. GAUTIER. That is the question now occupying the attention of the engineers; they propose to bring the water from Patillo.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that higher ground?

Mr. GAUTIER. The town of Patillo is not, but the place from which they expect to bring the water is.

Dr. CARROLL. Does Maunabo get all the rain it needs, as Yabucoa does?

Mr. GAUTIER. Maunabo used to have plenty of water, but it is also beginning to suffer from drought. A drought was never known there in former years.

Dr. CARROLL. Would the publications of the Agricultural Department in Spanish with reference to the raising of various crops that you have here be of any great value to planters? The Department is constantly issuing publications giving results of experiments for the purpose of disseminating agricultural information. Would treatises on the culture of cane and tobacco be of value?

Mr. VERGES. They should be; I hardly hope that they will be.

Dr. CARROLL. Of course I would not ask them to send their publications here unless the planters desired them and would make use of them. There are many things that the Department does in our country. It studies, for example, insectology and prescribes remedies both as regards insects and diseases which attack crops. It has scientific men who make a study of those things. These results will be valuable to the Porto Rican farmers, if they desire them.

Mr. VERGES. I think it would be very desirable to have them. There are many diseases in the cane to-day that we know nothing about. There is not a man here who can classify lands. I once sent samples of soil to Mayaguez to be classified, and they said they were all the same, although I knew that they were entirely different. So I don't think there are people here who know how to analyze lands, and naturally an agricultural station here would be a very good thing for the island. A matter of great interest to Porto Rico is the studying of the different kinds of cane and their diseases.

Dr. CARROLL. That has all been studied in the United States, because we have extensive cane plantations there. Mr. Mayor, are there any industries here, in either a large way or small way—any manufactures?

Mr. VIRELLA, vice-alcalde. We have a cooper shop, but we import our staves from Portland, Me. We make bay rum for export in small quantities. We get the malagueta leaves here in the mountains.

Dr. CARROLL. Is cacao raised here?

Mr. VIRELLA. Yes, but in very small quantities. It is an industry which could be developed.

Dr. CARROLL. It grows in the mountains, does it not?

Mr. VIRELLA. Yes.

A PLANTER. But it requires moist land.

Dr. CARROLL. Does it pay to raise it?

Mr. VIRELLA. The people here have never devoted themselves to it.

Dr. CARROLL. Your chocolate makers have been in the habit of importing from Venezuela?

Mr. VIRELLA. Yes; the three great industries here are those of cane, coffee, and cattle.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any centrals here?

Mr. VIRELLA. No.

Dr. CARROLL. How many mills are there?

Mr. VIRELLA. Only one.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any centrals in other districts in this part of the island?

Mr. VIRELLA. No; from here to Ponce you will not find any. In Ponce you will find one or two.

Dr. CARROLL. Would not the planters save a good deal of money if, instead of having mills of inferior quality, they were to join together and have a good one?

Mr. VIRELLA. Yes; it would be a great saving of time and expense.

Dr. CARROLL. I have found all over the island old-fashioned machinery—wooden cylinders, for example—and they lose one-third of the value of the cane.

Mr. VIRELLA. There is very little spirit of union here.

Dr. CARROLL. It seems to me if you formed an association of planters you could create such a spirit, and it would be much better. You would be able, then, to use a united influence to accomplish things necessary to your industry.

SUGAR CANE AND IRRIGATION.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

GUAYAMA, P. R., *February 3, 1899.*

City Hall, evening session:

Dr. CARROLL. I would like to ask some planter a few questions. What crops are raised in the municipal district of Guayama?

Mr. BIRD. Coffee, cane, tobacco, and small crops, such as bananas and beans.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the most important crop here?

Mr. BIRD. Sugar; after that, coffee; after that, tobacco. Cattle raising is also an important industry here. I am speaking also for Salinas.

Dr. CARROLL. What are the principal small crops?

Mr. BIRD. Plantains, sweet potatoes, corn, a small quantity of rice, beans, and malanga (a species of farinaceous root). The last two are the most important of the small crops.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the character of the soils here?

Mr. BIRD. They are very good. We can raise more sugar to the acre here than can be raised in any other part of the island; but, owing to the want of rain, crops are sometimes lost.

Dr. CARROLL. What quantity of sugar can you raise here per acre?

Mr. BIRD. With all the drawbacks caused by the want of rain, we can not count on more than 2 hogsheads; whereas, if we could count on steady rains, we could produce 6 hogsheads.

Dr. CARROLL. Has anything been done for the project of securing irrigation for these lands?

Mr. BIRD. Yes; General Stone was here and got property owners to vest in him the right to represent them to secure irrigation, but we have heard nothing further about it.

Dr. CARROLL. This matter of irrigation has been studied for many years in the United States, because we have a large arid portion in the western part of the United States; and we have much literature on the subject, which I think I could obtain for you in the Spanish language.

Mr. BIRD. Anything that improves our minds in any direction must be useful; we don't lose anything by reading.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any special disease to which your cane is subject? Is it subject to the ravages of any particular insect?

Mr. BIRD. Whatever they may say in other parts of the island, what we suffer from most here is the lack of water. As soon as we have a period of drought, cane on my estate begins to suffer.

Dr. CARROLL. They showed me, in the western portion of the island, cane that was suffering from a certain kind of disease. In Yabucoa they showed me cane that had been injured by the changa.

Mr. BIRD. This insect does eat the tender roots of the cane, but there is a remedy for that. If they would sow the seed on the surface of the land instead of underneath the land, the trouble would be avoided, because this insect only attacks the plant underneath. I have a friend who adopted that system of sowing, and he is never troubled by the changa. The changa also attacks tobacco when the plant is small, and to prevent this they transplant it in a wrapping of maguey so that the changa can not attack the roots. The manager of the Carmen estate told me that he had gotten rid of them almost entirely by introducing the mongoose, and I think it must be that they are being exterminated in the island in that way, because on my own estate I had many of them formerly, but now they do not bother it at all.

Dr. CARROLL. It is a good remedy if the mongoose itself, in turn, does not become a plague.

Mr. BIRD. It eats chicken and eggs, but on the other hand it kills the rats. Before I brought it here I used to pay \$8 and \$10 a week in killing rats, and now the mongoose does it for me.

Dr. CARROLL. How many sugar mills are there in this section; that is, in this district and that of Salinas?

Mr. BIRD. There are eleven altogether, nine in Guayama and two in Salinas. My cane is in Patillas, but I am competent to speak of it here, as I live in Guayama. If you go to Juana Diaz it would be well for you to look at a large estate there where in spite of arid lands you will see what fine cane it produces.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the mills here provided with modern machinery?

Mr. BIRD. None at all. There is no vacuum machinery here.

THE AGRICULTURAL RESOURCES OF YAUCO.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

YAUCO, P. R., *March 6, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. I desire to take up the subject of agriculture, and I think we ought to begin with Mr. Mejia. I would like him to make a statement of the conditions and need of agriculture, endeavoring to give me statements in a concrete form. I want the facts rather than the philosophy of the situation, having special reference to the agricultural condition of Yauco.

Mr. FRANCIS MEJIA. The agriculture of this district is very much damaged by drought, and a thorny question arises with regard to want of work for the laborers. The estates are abandoning work, and their employees will find themselves without employment. For that reason we ask that sums of money should be spent in the construction of roads

to give these laborers work. The small proprietor is in a worse position than any other because he has no money to work his own farm, nor can he leave his farm and go to seek work elsewhere. With reference to the order issued by the secretary of finance, imposing a tax of \$1.50 to 25 cents on the various classes of land, some proprietors will find themselves in a bad position, because their lands are not of equal value. I understand that a proper appraisalment ought and will be made of their value. As you already know, agriculture is the source of wealth of the whole island, and especially of the district of Yauco, and all these gentlemen here are agriculturists, and they can tell you how things are in the various barrios in which they live.

Dr. CARROLL. Why is it that so many of the peons will be out of work shortly? Is it that the planters have determined not to plant as much as they did last year?

Mr. MEJIA. Because credit has been suspended, and no one advances money for the working of the estates.

Dr. CARROLL. This is due, I suppose, to the great scarcity of money in circulation.

Mr. MEJIA. That is one of the reasons. Another, that so many estate owners having suffered from drought have not been able to meet their obligations, and, consequently, as merchants have not been able to collect for outstanding debts they are not in a position to continue advances.

Dr. CARROLL. Has not this district raised as much coffee and sugar as before?

Mr. MEJIA. Yes, but the prices have fallen considerably and no one is buying coffee to-day.

Dr. CARROLL. Are you getting no returns at all for your crops of sugar and coffee? Now is the time you ought to be getting returns from them.

Mr. MEJIA. No; nobody is buying coffee.

Mr. DARIO FRANCESCHI. I have not sold any sugar so far.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the difficulty? Is there no market for it?

Mr. FRANCESCHI. The prices are very low, and nobody is offering anything for sugar at all.

Dr. CARROLL. What prices did you get a year ago for sugar?

Mr. FRANCESCHI. An average of \$4; this year \$3 a quintal. This was for muscovado. Coffee has fallen \$8 and \$10 a quintal. Last year we got on the average 25 pesos a quintal, and this year only 15.

Dr. CARROLL. According to estimates made by coffee planters of Cayey and Caguas, there seems to be a margin on coffee at 14 and 15 pesos; not much, but some profit for the planter.

Mr. TORRES. That may be so in Cayey, because they do not cultivate there so much coffee as we do here.

Dr. CARROLL. They said in Cayey that it costs from \$8 to \$9 to get coffee ready for market. What does it cost here?

Mr. TORRES. In this district, calculating the interest sunk on the estate in machinery, I have paid about 15 pesos per quintal.

Dr. CARROLL. Leaving out the interest and counting only the cost of cultivating, picking, etc., what does it cost?

Mr. TORRES. From 10 to 12 pesos, depending on the particular plantation.

Mr. MEJIA. I think the calculation that Mr. Torres makes is a correct one. It must be taken into account that Yauco lands have to be manured and Cayey lands do not have to be.

Mr. ANTONIO RODRIGUEZ. Lands close together differ very greatly,

and it is absolutely impossible to make uniform calculations. Some land produces more than others, and the abundance of the crop brings the average up or down.

Dr. CARROLL. It seems to me that you planters ought to endeavor to have your coffee introduced into the United States, studying the kinds of coffee desired there and catering to the taste of the people.

Mr. RODRIGUEZ. We are considering that matter now. Up to the present Yauco coffee has been in great demand, but at present our warehouses are full and our creditors are trying to buy the coffee at the actual cost to us.

Mr. TORRES. Another circumstance which makes coffee cost a great deal of money is that the best estates are 5 miles from here, and it costs a dollar and a quarter to bring a quintal of coffee here, and very much to take provisions to the estates.

Dr. CARROLL. If you had a port at Guanica would you be able to ship your coffee to better advantage?

Mr. TORRES. Yes; we have to-day to sell our coffee to merchants in Ponce, who try to obtain it for as little as possible. If we had a port at Guanica we would be able to save the profit made by the middlemen.

Mr. RODRIGUEZ. One of the chief causes of our trouble is that the wholesale merchants are afraid to let their capital out, by reason of disorders that have taken place in the island. They have restricted credit absolutely, and do not trust even their best customers. Men like myself, who are merchants and agriculturists, who stand in an intermediary position and deal directly with the small agriculturists, have not been able to collect what is owing to them, and consequently can not go on advancing money out of their own pockets, because they can not themselves get credit from the wholesale merchants.

Dr. CARROLL. Then all credit has stopped?

Mr. SANTIAGO VIVALDI. Even the *alto comercio* has no credit in Europe.

Mr. RODRIGUEZ. This year a coffee crop is earning no profit whatever, because we have had to buy our provisions at such high prices.

Dr. CARROLL. Cane is raised here by irrigation chiefly, I understand?

Mr. FRANCHESCHI. In some parts without irrigation it does not give results.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you have to pay very much for the water?

Mr. FRANCHESCHI. At the present time we are not able to irrigate our lands because the river has no water in it.

Dr. CARROLL. When the river has water what does it cost you per cuerda to irrigate?

Mr. FRANCHESCHI. We pay the laborer who attends to the ditching 25 cents per cuerda. The water costs us nothing.

Dr. CARROLL. How long do you keep that up?

Mr. FRANCHESCHI. Every week we have to let the water in.

Dr. CARROLL. How long does the dry season continue?

Mr. FRANCHESCHI. That varies. Sometimes we have no drought, and some years we have a drought of six or eight months.

Dr. CARROLL. You ought to have been spared the drought this year considering the various other visitations you have had. When you have plenty of rain you raise very fine cane, do you not?

Mr. FRANCHESCHI. Yes, very fine.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any margin in sugar this year, at \$3?

Mr. FRANCHESCHI. Last year we sold our sugar at about \$5, which left us some profit. This year we will lose, as has been the case, with the exception of last year, for several years past. We count on no

other salvation than the free introduction of our sugar into the United States market, and while that is being obtained the only thing that can save us will be the establishment of banks here letting us have money at low rates of interest.

Dr. CARROLL. It will be a somewhat difficult matter to bring in capital, because capital in the United States is conservative like capital in Europe and other countries, and the fact that you are in distress down here would make capital hesitate to come here for investment.

Mr. TORRES. The one thing is the cause of the other. The mere fact of not having capital is the reason of our bad position. If we had been able to get capital in time we would not be at the mercy of speculators.

Dr. CARROLL. But under the order of General Henry none of you who have mortgages on your lands will have to pay more than 12 per cent.

Mr. TORRES. The order of General Henry was made with the best of intentions, but it is one of the reasons credit has been paralyzed here, because those who have faithfully paid their interest are suffering on account of those who have not.

Dr. CARROLL. As to those who have not paid their interest the order provides that mortgages may be foreclosed. The order is only for the benefit of those who keep the interest paid.

Mr. TORRES. The order would have been splendid if capital had flowed behind it.

Dr. CARROLL. Suppose the order had not been issued at all; what then? Would it have been better?

Mr. TORRES. If the order had not been issued a great many estate owners would have lost their estates, but credit would not have been paralyzed and those who keep up with their obligations would have credit.

Dr. CARROLL. If it is bad, perhaps General Henry would be willing to recall the order.

NOTE.—To this suggestion there was prompt dissent.

Mr. ROIG. Credits were paralyzed here before the order was issued.

Mr. RODRIGUEZ. I think the reason that banks do not come and establish here is because they do not know the status of Porto Rico, and that is one reason why the territorial question should be settled as soon as possible. In regard to Porto Rico paying its expenses, I would mention that once we had a surplus of a million and a half, and sometimes more than that.

Dr. CARROLL. You have contributed to the war in Cuba?

Mr. RODRIGUEZ. Yes; Porto Rico has always been paying, but has never received anything, owing to the burnings and lawlessness in every part of the island. Some capital has been reduced to ashes, and those who can get their money in are doing so and are not likely to let out money when they know they are liable to suffer the same result.

Dr. CARROLL. What other kinds of crops are raised here besides coffee and cane?

Mr. VIVALDI. The tobacco crop here is important.

Dr. CARROLL. Does tobacco pay well?

Mr. VIVALDI. Yes, it does, and it is one of the most important industries, because it gives employment to a great many people.

Dr. CARROLL. Are you raising this year more or less than last year?

Mr. VIVALDI. A great deal less, because no one is advancing any money to enable the small planters to sow.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you sold all of last year's crop?

Mr. VIVALDI. No; the greater part of it is still in the island.

Dr. CARROLL. How are the prices now as compared with those of last year?

Mr. VIVALDI. This year they are very low; in the northern part of the island they sold tobacco as low as \$2 a quintal, and after sending it to Germany have had to send money behind it to pay expenses. I have tobacco, and I would not dare to send it to the United States, because I don't know what prices I would get for it.

Dr. CARROLL. You don't send any tobacco to Cuba now?

Mr. VIVALDI. No.

Mr. TORRES. That is one of the chief reasons tobacco has fallen in price.

Dr. CARROLL. On the other hand you don't import from there cigarettes and cigars. That is a benefit.

Mr. VIVALDI. There is not sufficient consumption for the tobacco raised in the island.

Dr. CARROLL. But it is a good thing to have your own market.

Mr. VIVALDI. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you tried to see whether you could get your tobacco into the United States?

Mr. VIVALDI. No; nobody has. I have spoken to export merchants here, and they have always told me that it was impossible to send any there. We want free entry, so as to get our tobacco into the States.

Dr. CARROLL. The only criticism that I have heard of Porto Rican cigars is that the tobacco is too green.

Mr. VIVALDI. I have cigars three years old. If they are not dry now they never will be.

Dr. CARROLL. What other crops are there?

Mr. MEJIA. Small crops, such as corn, for local use. The principal crops are coffee and tobacco.

Dr. CARROLL. I would like to know what the small crops consist of.

Mr. MEJIA. Beans, corn, rice, plantains, potatoes, but very few.

Dr. CARROLL. Is any attention paid to the cultivation of these small crops?

Mr. VIVALDI. Very little.

Mr. MEJIA. We produce sufficient for local consumption. We can not produce large quantities, because of the drought.

Dr. CARROLL. Can you not use irrigation for these small crops the same as you do for cane?

Mr. VIVALDI. Yes; but there is not sufficient water.

Dr. CARROLL. What kinds of fruit are grown?

Mr. MEJIA. Oranges, pineapples, bitter oranges, cacao, mangoes, nisperos, small bananas, aguacates (alligator pears), mamey, and guavas. We could raise more if we had good roads. We raise, also, pepinos (cucumbers). I have a great many oranges on my estate, but the cost of freighting them down to the wharf would be more than I could get for them.

Dr. CARROLL. The chinas (sweet oranges) are as good as any raised in the United States, and if you could get them to New York you would have a market for all of them.

Mr. VIVALDI. Many are sent from Mayaguez to New York; also pineapples are sent from there. Only those that are produced near the coast, however, are exported. The others would not stand the expense of the rough roads. The great bulk of the orange crop is in the mountains.

Dr. CARROLL. If the oranges were known in the United States you could sell your entire crop there at good prices.

Mr. MEJIA. I spent \$350 in bringing fruits from the United States, and trying to acclimate them here, but they all died.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you tried to introduce your oranges in the United States?

Mr. MEJIA. No; there is no road by which I can get them down.

Dr. CARROLL. Does it cost very much to raise pineapples? Are they raised without much labor and expense?

Mr. MEJIA. No; it does not cost much, and a great quantity are produced in San German, but then here they cost a great deal, because of the expense of bringing them in. They sell here in Yauco at from 10 to 20 cents each.

THE CROPS AND THE DRY SEASON.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

COAMO, P. R., *February 6, 1899.*

Mr. FRANCISCO FERNANDEZ, coffee planter, and others:

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any planters here who can give me some idea about the soil of this district and what crops are raised, and the advantages and disadvantages that are experienced by planters in raising their crops and getting them to market?

Mr. FERNANDEZ. The principal crop of this district is coffee.

Dr. CARROLL. What other crops are raised?

Mr. FERNANDEZ. Tobacco, a small amount of cane, and small fruits and vegetables. We also have cattle.

Dr. CARROLL. What are the fruits that are raised here?

Mr. FERNANDEZ. Oranges, pineapples, mangoes, guanavinos, mamey, nisperos, guavas, and others.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there many pineapples raised?

Mr. FERNANDEZ. None of these are raised; they all grow wild. They are a beautiful fruit, but they are left to rot in the fields. This might become the most important crop of the district.

Dr. CARROLL. Why are they not cultivated?

Mr. FERNANDEZ. For the want of local markets, and the difficulty of getting them to distant markets.

Dr. CARROLL. You have a good road here, both to Ponce and to San Juan, at all times of the year.

Mr. FERNANDEZ. The difficulty is to get them from the center to this road.

Dr. CARROLL. Where are they grown?

Mr. FERNANDEZ. In the mountain lands, 600 meters above the sea level. To bring them down from there would cost more than they are worth.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you tried bringing them down on ponies?

Mr. FERNANDEZ. Yes.

Colonel SANTIAGO. Pineapples grow splendidly everywhere, and better with irrigation; but here in the country there is no demand for them, and they don't export them owing to the difficulties they have passed through of having communication.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there no demand for them in San Juan and Ponce?

Mr. FERNANDEZ. They are too far away. It is too expensive to get them there.

Colonel SANTIAGO. We have never sown them; that is, we have never gone into the business regularly.

A PLANTER. The amount of the duty on coffee is more than the value of the coffee itself in the ports of the United States.

Dr. CARROLL. No; it has been free for many years.

A PLANTER. We want tobacco also to be free.

Dr. CARROLL. That is another question. You will have to wait until Porto Rico becomes a Territory of the United States.

A PLANTER. If at the ports of the United States you could charge a duty on coffee coming from other countries, it would be a benefit to Porto Rico.

Dr. CARROLL. You must remember that the merchants of the United States who export to Porto Rico pay the same duties as the merchants of Spain or any other country. While that state of things continues you must expect to pay duties on things that go into the United States. It would be hardly fair to charge a duty on seven-eighths of the coffee the people of the United States consume to benefit Porto Rico when we have no free market here. How many months of dry weather do you have?

A PLANTER. The dry season continues six months. We have rain from August to December and in the month of May.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there no possibility of irrigating any of the lands?

A PLANTER. With very little outlay we could bring the river Barranquitas here and use it for irrigation purposes.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you ever had a competent engineer to examine into the matter?

A PLANTER. We don't need an engineer for that; anybody can see at a glance that we can get water from the north shore down here. The greater part of the water running through Barranquitas could be brought here.

Dr. CARROLL. Still, you would not want to undertake any extensive irrigation works without having the opinion of a competent engineer and plans by a competent engineer?

A PLANTER. The country is too poor to attend to irrigation works itself, but in Guayama they paid \$25,000 to some English engineers to study the subject. These engineers have left and the people have nothing to show for their money.

Dr. CARROLL. Have they no plans to show for it?

A PLANTER. I consider it lost until capital comes here to attend to it. They have the plans, though.

Dr. CARROLL. Does coffee suffer any from the dry season?

A PLANTER. Not on the high lands, but it suffers on the low lands. Coffee sown at a lower altitude than 500 meters suffers from the dry season, but above that altitude it does not.

Dr. CARROLL. Why does it not suffer above that altitude?

A PLANTER. On account of the dew above that altitude, the air is much more humid. Coffee is sown on the lowlands, but in some dry seasons it dies altogether.

COFFEE RAISING.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

AIBONITO, P. R., *February 6, 1899.*

Mr. MANUEL CABALLER, mayor of Aibonito, Mr. JOSÉ E. SANTIAGO, coffee planter; also Mr. TOMAS SIFONTE and Mr. THEODORE GONZALES, coffee planters.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any manufactures of any kind in Aibonito?

Mr. CABALLER. None whatever, so far as I know.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any planters here who can tell me about agriculture in the district of Aibonito?

Mr. SANTIAGO. I am a coffee planter and can probably give you the information you want.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the chief crop of this district?

Mr. SANTIAGO. Coffee.

Dr. CARROLL. What other crops are raised?

Mr. SANTIAGO. The next most important crop is tobacco, besides which there are small crops not worth taking into consideration.

Dr. CARROLL. What about oranges, bananas, cocoanuts, and fruits?

Mr. SANTIAGO. They don't cultivate them.

Dr. CARROLL. Would they grow here well, if cultivated?

Mr. SANTIAGO. Yes, they would; but I don't think to any great extent.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the weather too cold for them?

Mr. SANTIAGO. The climate is good for fruit.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there much dry weather?

Mr. SANTIAGO. Droughts have occurred, but they are not usual. The ground, however, is worn-out and is naturally poor.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you use fertilizers on it?

Mr. SANTIAGO. Up to the present, no.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the ordinary crop of coffee per cuerda?

Mr. SANTIAGO. From 2 to 3 quintals on the best lands. There are some lands which don't give more than 1½. Coffee is not a productive crop here, and there are heavy expenses connected with it.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the coffee you grow of the ordinary class?

Mr. SANTIAGO. No; it is very fine coffee. In the exposition at Paris I got a prize for the coffee I exhibited. What we are in need of is machinery to work it better.

Dr. CARROLL. What does it cost to have the coffee picked, per cuerda?

Mr. SANTIAGO. It costs \$6 per cuerda.

Dr. CARROLL. What are the other expenses of getting coffee ready for market?

Mr. SANTIAGO. We have to pass it through the machinery. We have to dry it; in fact, a long process has to be gone through.

Dr. CARROLL. I want to get at the expense of it.

Mr. SANTIAGO. We don't prepare it for exportation.

Dr. CARROLL. Well, what does it cost for drying it?

Mr. SANTIAGO. It costs about 50 cents a quintal for hulling and drying.

Dr. CARROLL. Where do you send it?

Mr. SANTIAGO. To Ponce.

Dr. CARROLL. What does it cost to get it to Ponce from here?

Mr. SANTIAGO. It costs 30 or 40 cents, according to whether the carts are plentiful or not.

Dr. CARROLL. What do you get for it at Ponce?

Mr. SANTIAGO. This year from 14 to 15 pesos a quintal.

Mr. SIFONTE appeared before the commissioner and was questioned as follows:

Dr. CARROLL. What is the general character of the soil in this district? Is it washed and quite thin on the top of the mountain?

Mr. SIFONTE. The land is not regular at all. In some parts the soil is deep, and in other parts it is thin. You will find it in veins of varying quantity.

Dr. CARROLL. If a man wanted to plant a coffee farm how would he proceed, having an open field to begin with?

Mr. SIFONTE. First he would clean the ground and then plant shade trees.

Dr. CARROLL. How do you clean the ground?

Mr. SIFONTE. By cutting off the surface with a machete.

Dr. CARROLL. What kind of trees do you plant for shade?

Mr. SIFONTE. Plantains and guava.

Dr. CARROLL. How long does it take to get those trees ready to furnish the proper amount of shade?

Mr. SIFONTE. The guava trees require five years, but the other tree gives a shade at the end of a year, and meanwhile gives fruit.

Dr. CARROLL. And when do they plant the coffee trees?

Mr. SIFONTE. In October.

Dr. CARROLL. At the end of the first or second year, or immediately after planting the shade trees?

Mr. SIFONTE. A year afterwards.

Dr. CARROLL. How long is it before the coffee trees begin to bear?

Mr. SIFONTE. Five years.

Dr. CARROLL. When do your trees bear their best crops?

Mr. SIFONTE. When they are 7 years old.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they then decrease in the amount they yield?

Mr. SIFONTE. Our climate sustains the coffee tree in full bearing for many years; even up to fifty years.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you pay any taxes on land that is newly planted in coffee trees?

Mr. SIFONTE. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the law allow you five years in which to get your plantation ready for bearing before imposing a tax?

Mr. SIFONTE. No; two years only have been allowed.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you agree with the gentleman who has just testified as to the cost of picking the coffee, of hulling it, and getting it to Ponce to market?

Mr. SIFONTE. I am of the same opinion; and I would say that our coffee, put down in the market, costs us \$10 per quintal, everything counted, including the planting, the cleaning, the picking, the conditioning, the sacking, and the carrying to market.

Dr. CARROLL. Then the margin of profit for the planter is not very much, if he only gets 14 or 15 pesos per quintal?

Mr. SIFONTE. This year, at present prices, our coffee costs us almost as much as we get for it.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there many merchants here who buy coffee from you?

Mr. SIFONTE. There are, on a small scale.

Mr. THEODORE GONZALES was then questioned by the commissioner, as follows:

Dr. CARROLL. What is the average size of a coffee farm, in cuerdas, in this neighborhood?

Mr. GONZALES. From 80 to 100 cuerdas.

Dr. CARROLL. You have heard the questions asked these other gentlemen. Do you agree with them in their answers?

Mr. GONZALES. Yes.

NEED OF FERTILIZERS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

CAGUAS, P. R., *February 27, 1899.*

Mr. VICENTE MUNOZ, ex-mayor of Caguas:

Dr. CARROLL. You are a planter?

Mr. MUÑOZ. Yes; but not of cane.

Dr. CARROLL. What do you plant?

Mr. MUÑOZ. Tobacco, coffee, a small amount of plantains, and small fruits in general.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the general character of the soil in this valley; is it rich?

Mr. MUÑOZ. Within a small radius it is fairly good, but the rest of it is not of much value. Everything is grown, but everything grows very sickly.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the cause of that; haven't you rain enough here?

Mr. MUÑOZ. It is owing to the want of technical knowledge of how to use the soil, to the want of money, and to the rude methods we have always employed.

Dr. CARROLL. What crops are best produced here by this soil—coffee and tobacco?

Mr. MUÑOZ. In one part cane, in another coffee, in another small district tobacco, and in still another forage.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there many cattle raised here?

Mr. MUÑOZ. Very few.

Dr. CARROLL. Do the planters ever use fertilizers on the soil?

Mr. MUÑOZ. No; for want of money.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the island not produce fertilizers?

Mr. MUÑOZ. On the island proper there is none, but the island of Mona produces fertilizer. Owing to the cost of getting it here the price is prohibitive. The agriculturist is in a worse position than the laborer here, because at the end of the day or week the laborer gets his pay, but the agriculturist gets no pay, and if he does not get some one to help him out he is in a bad way.

Dr. CARROLL. You are in a better position than the agriculturists of some other districts, because you have good roads and communication with Ponce and San Juan.

Mr. MUÑOZ. It is of small account to have good veins if you have no blood to course through them. We need cash and credit very much here. Owing to the late happenings in the island, men who sustained the agriculturists by credit have retired their credits altogether.

Dr. CARROLL. Isn't it a fact that agriculturists have to pay too high a rate of interest to allow of much profit on their crops?

Mr. MUÑOZ. Agriculturists here, unless they have a most extraordinary crop, can never pay what they owe, and each year they get deeper and deeper into debt, and after eight or ten years they have to give up their estates and become workmen themselves.

Dr. CARROLL. Did the order of General Henry, suspending executions on agricultural property, afford any relief here?

Mr. MUÑOZ. Those who were hopelessly in debt were benefited, but those who had not got to that condition were not greatly benefited. The order preventing the collection of the consumption tax appeared at first a very beneficent one, but it was really quite the other thing. We are buying bread and meat at the same prices we were before, and instead of the people of the city, who consume the bread and meat, paying the tax the extra taxation has been put on us.

Dr. CARROLL. It has been put on the liquor dealers?

Mr. MUÑOZ. The agriculturists pay it indirectly.

Dr. CARROLL. The tariff has relieved the agriculturist somewhat?

Mr. MUÑOZ. The price of food stuffs has not come down here.

Dr. CARROLL. What do you pay for bread?

Mr. MUÑOZ. Six cents in town; I pay 7 cents in the country.

Dr. CARROLL. How much was it before?

Mr. MUÑOZ. It was 8 cents for a pound, light; now they sell a full pound for 6 cents.

Dr. CARROLL. It was 8 cents in San Juan, and now it is 4 cents.

Mr. MUÑOZ. But the agricultural laborers do not eat either bread or meat.

COFFEE AND TOBACCO.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

CAYEY, P. R., *February 28, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. What are the chief crops raised here?

Mayor MUÑOZ. Coffee and tobacco.

Dr. CARROLL. Some corn?

Mayor MUÑOZ. A small quantity, only, for local consumption.

Dr. CARROLL. Is any cane raised here?

Mayor MUÑOZ. There was only one sugar grower here and he gave it up.

Dr. CARROLL. Does not cane grow well here?

Mayor MUÑOZ. Yes; it is very fine land for cane.

Dr. CARROLL. Then is it more profitable to raise coffee and tobacco?

Mayor MUÑOZ. Naturally; cane requires a great deal more capital than coffee and tobacco.

Dr. CARROLL. What kind of soil is found here?

Mr. M. PLANELLAS, president of agricultural society. The northern and eastern parts of the district are clayey. There is also humus soil, and under that there is a layer of pyrites. In another part of the district there is volcanic soil; that is found especially in the southern part. We harvest 30,000 quintals of coffee here and 5,000 quintals of tobacco. Less has been sown this year than last.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the number of workmen, approximately, on coffee and tobacco estates?

Mr. PLANELLAS. I estimate that about 4,000 people are given work in the country districts of this municipality. The minimum salary is 37 cents and the maximum 50 cents a day. Most of the agriculturists

pay in cash, and any peon of good character can live on the estate and have a house built for him by the owner.

Dr. CARROLL. There is an agricultural society here. What is its object?

Mr. PLANELLAS. The society was formed last year, with a view of trying to obtain annexation and get into a position to take advantage of the benefits of it. This is the first society that has ever been formed; this is absolutely the first step that has been taken. One of the points which our programme includes is the betterment of the peon class. One object of the society has been to prepare the ground for the introduction of our coffee into the United States. We are thinking of sending an agent there to work the field and get a market, but we have been laboring under the idea that coffee paid a duty there. The danger of the situation is that if the agriculturist does not soon find a market for his produce he will have to shut down, and that will throw many out of work.

Dr. CARROLL. What is your port for the shipment of coffee?

Mr. PLANELLAS. San Juan, principally.

Dr. CARROLL. What does it cost to get your coffee there?

Mr. PLANELLAS. Forty cents a quintal.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it nearer to San Juan than to Ponce?

Mr. PLANELLAS. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Do the planters sell the coffee here or in San Juan?

Mr. PLANELLAS. They sell it here.

Dr. CARROLL. How much do you get for it here?

Mr. PLANELLAS. Ten pesos per quintal for current classes.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that with the shell on it?

Mr. PLANELLAS. No; all prepared.

Dr. CARROLL. How much for the fine?

Mr. PLANELLAS. Fourteen pesos.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there much margin for the producer?

Mr. PLANELLAS. Very little; at 10 pesos it hardly covers the expense of production. Last year coffee brought as high as 35 pesos a quintal.

Dr. CARROLL. Is 14 pesos now the highest?

Mr. PLANELLAS. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Why should there be such a shrinkage for the best coffee? As I understand they never send the best coffee to the United States or to Cuba or Spain, but to Germany and France.

Mr. PLANELLAS. We send the best coffee to Spain and France. France consumes only a little, however; the chief part was consumed in Spain. The reason we sent most of it to Spain was that the exchange on Spain gave us a larger return.

Dr. CARROLL. They raise coffee in Cuba, do they not?

Mr. PLANELLAS. Very little.

Dr. CARROLL. Then, if they raise only a little, they must import coffee.

Mayor MUÑOZ. The Brazilian coffee, which is much cheaper, will be brought in, as the poor people use it. Our inferior coffees are better than the Brazilian first-class coffee.

Dr. CARROLL. Can you not produce them as cheaply as they produce them in Brazil?

Mr. PLANELLAS. No; in Brazil they don't have to use shade trees; they can plant them out in the open, and here the expense of raising coffee is in the protection of the coffee.

Dr. CARROLL. The freights are cheaper from here to Cuba than from Brazil to Cuba, are they not?

MR. PLANELLAS. Somewhat cheaper, but that would not make up for it. Fifty years ago, when coffee paid no taxes, when municipalities hardly existed, and we had slave labor, we could compete with Brazil, but to-day we can not compete with Brazil, which has cheaper labor.

DR. CARROLL. What does it cost to get coffee ready for market.

A PLANTER PRESENT. From 8 to 9 pesos per quintal.

ANOTHER PLANTER. The most important point to the agriculturist has not been mentioned; that is, that the agriculturists have no money and no bank. They have to obtain their money through merchants who exact payment in crops; these crops are subject to fluctuation, according to the demand from outside, which causes fluctuations in San Juan. So that really the agriculturist is at the mercy of the merchants, and until he gets better facilities for getting money it will always be so.

DR. CARROLL. Under the present laws the agriculturist may be an exporter.

A PLANTER. We can not do it because we haven't commercial relations with Europe and the United States. We wouldn't know how to proceed, and have to deal with the merchants anyway. The very richest of the agriculturists have seen themselves on the brink of ruin. They have had no outlet for their crops, and could get no money to attend to the working of their estates. Without exception, they are in a very difficult position.

DR. CARROLL. If you think the merchants are charging you too much, you should form an association and have an agent and find your own markets. What one man can not do a great many men can do.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. As the agriculturist nearly always owes the merchant he has to meet the debts with coffee. The fault is with the merchants of the capital. The merchants here can not offer a higher price than they are authorized to offer by the merchants there.

MAYOR MUÑOZ. I think the real reason for the condition of affairs which exists at present is the transitory state through which we are passing. It is not a question of merchants or prices, but of an upset condition of affairs. When we find our new markets we will settle down upon a satisfactory basis. We want your assistance and that of the United States to the end that Porto Rican coffee shall be protected as a national product against Brazilian and others.

DR. CARROLL. That is, you want the United States to impose a duty on coffee from other countries?

A PLANTER. In any form.

DR. CARROLL. By bounty? That ought to come out of your own treasury.

MAYOR MUÑOZ. I think a duty ought to be imposed on other coffee.

DR. CARROLL. Would that be fair to the 70,000,000 consumers in the United States? It seems to me that one trouble with the planters here is that you go too much on the credit basis and not enough on the cash basis; in other words, you pay out what would be your profits in interest, which, I understand, runs as high as 18 per cent, and it would seem to me better to pass through a starvation period, if necessary, for a year or two in order to get on the cash basis.

A PLANTER. I think that as soon as American capitalists come in to take the place of Spanish capital that has been withdrawn the country will get on a better footing.

DR. CARROLL. The more money you borrow the worse you are off.

A PLANTER. No, it will give the agriculturists breathing time in which to wait for better prices.

Dr. CARROLL. Suppose the better prices you wait for do not come? What then?

A PLANTER. We would have money at lower interest than we now pay, and, at least, would have the benefit of the time for waiting.

Dr. CARROLL. What inducement have you to offer to capitalists to lend money at a less rate of interest than you have been paying? You say that the prices are so low that you can not make expenses.

A PLANTER. We would give our property as a guaranty.

IRRIGATION.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

PONCE, P. R., *March 3, 1899.*

Mr. ROBERT GRAHAM:

Mr. GRAHAM. I have been here thirty-eight years. My business is engineering, and I know the island pretty well. There are very considerable openings here for capital from outside. There are large claims lying uncultivated which could be made very valuable by bringing water to them. There is no difficulty in bringing the water to them, except the difficulty of the money necessary to do it. General Stone went into this question of irrigation very closely. He traveled all over the district and we traveled a great deal together. He was delighted with the whole thing, and he was quite certain he was going to do big things; that firms in the United States would go in for it right off, and I have been surprised to find that he has been disappointed altogether. His disappointment, however, is no reason why we should not try to secure irrigation here.

Dr. CARROLL. I had a talk at Guayama at the alcaldia. There were a number of planters there, also at Arroyo. They have plans at Arroyo, but no plans at Guayama with respect to irrigation. It seems to me important in order to bring this question properly before capitalists in the United States that there should be plans, with estimates, so that the people can judge somewhat with regard to it.

Mr. GRAHAM. That is so, and the plans have been all worked out in first-class style and copies of them remain in the office of the department of public works in San Juan. Estimates also have been made and copies have been supplied to different people. It is not easy to supply copies, except of superficial plans, but the matter has been brought so plainly before a number of people that it seems surprising that it has not been taken up. A little more than a year ago the scheme was nearly taken up by a London syndicate of capitalists. The American war came on and they said, "We will wait and see what will happen." After the war they were ready to come. I told them they were too late. I had been speaking with General Stone, and naturally considered that Americans would go into it and give us Englishmen no chance, and I wrote to that effect. An enterprise of this sort requires capitalists to send out capable men to look into it and finally get the concession good for the whole ground, make their own plans, and make such calculations as modern ideas and experience may suggest.

Dr. CARROLL. You have a system of irrigation in this district?

Mr. GRAHAM. Yes; we have irrigation in the Ponce district and it is a pretty complete system. We take the water from various rivers.

Dr. CARROLL. Does that water ever fail in rivers?

Mr. GRAHAM. Yes; when we have long spells of dry weather it gets scarce; but the districts of Guayama, Arroyo, and Salinas have no irrigation at all to speak of. The matter has been worked out and looked into by different engineers and all have found it perfectly feasible, and there could be no doubt about the success of it, because landed proprietors are willing to bind themselves in advance to pay so much per acre for the use of the water.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the system that you have here?

Mr. GRAHAM. It is just gravitation. They take the water high up in the river, dam it slightly, build brick conduits, and bring the water to the estates.

Dr. CARROLL. How is it distributed on the estates?

Mr. GRAHAM. By a main ditch which runs along the high part of the field and smaller ditches or furrows so arranged that the water runs along the furrows. The furrows are from 3 to 4 feet from each other. The cane is planted in a hill and the water runs over the roots of the cane.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that system costly?

Mr. GRAHAM. The first cost is considerable, but after it is once established the system is not a costly one.

Dr. CARROLL. For a field of 100 cuerdas, say, what would it cost the owner per annum?

Mr. GRAHAM. You would have to keep two men constantly employed and that would cost about 60 cents a day, gold.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the water pumped from the river?

Mr. GRAHAM. No. They take the water up higher than their own property. For Guayama and Salinas the water would be taken up in the hills and a reservoir made. The original scheme would cost \$700,000, but the water that has to be brought down would give 1,600 horsepower for electric lighting. That would light all the lights around the coast here.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it turn all the sugar mills?

Mr. GRAHAM. No, but it would haul all the cane. The mills require heavy power; but they will have plenty of power for their purposes. The electric-light scheme was not included in the original irrigation scheme. It is only lately that this scheme has been thought of at all. Connected with this scheme is the central factory.

Dr. CARROLL. That would be a matter of economy also for the planters, because their present system is a costly one.

Mr. GRAHAM. They are losing when they are grinding just one-third of the whole crop. It is equivalent to one-half of what they make.

Dr. CARROLL. Yes; that is evident to a passer-by.

Mr. GRAHAM. The bankers have gone into a little speculation in this district. They bought a thousand acres the other day and are going to put up a factory.

Dr. CARROLL. Where is that?

Mr. GRAHAM. Between Guayama and Salinas.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they expect to irrigate it?

Mr. GRAHAM. Yes, and I think they are expecting that one day the general irrigation scheme will be introduced.

Dr. CARROLL. Has it always been as dry in these southern districts as it is now?

Mr. GRAHAM. Not quite. Twenty-five or thirty years ago we did not suffer so much from dry weather.

Dr. CARROLL. The mountains have been denuded, I suppose?

Mr. GRAHAM. Yes, and the cutting down of the timber has done a great deal of harm.

Dr. CARROLL. Can not that be remedied by planting forests?

Mr. GRAHAM. Very slowly, because the land is the property of private owners and they would not plant lands from which they would derive no benefit.

Dr. CARROLL. That would be of benefit to the whole district, and possibly you would have a natural supply of moisture.

Mr. GRAHAM. We may have rains in April, but we may not get them in that month.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you plenty of rain in the summer?

Mr. GRAHAM. No, not plenty. We may get showers from now on to July, sometimes later, but we can not count on the weather from January to September. Sometimes we get rain in that period and sometimes we don't. The estates that don't have irrigation can not make anything in this sort of weather.

AVERAGE CROPS OF SUGAR AND COFFEE.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

PLAINFIELD, N. J., May 26, 1899.

Señor LUCAS AMADEO, a coffee planter of Utuado, P. R.:

Dr. CARROLL. I should like to ask a few questions as to coffee and sugar. I have been unable to get the average production per acre or cuerda of coffee and sugar.

Señor AMADEO. The production of sugar there varies according to the location of the plantation and according to the method of cultivation. Along the coast there are some places where the ground, being well watered, will produce from $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 hogsheads per cuerda.

Dr. CARROLL. From 1,400 to 1,800 pounds per hogshead?

Señor AMADEO. Yes. The average production will fall as low as 2 hogsheads in other localities, where the ground, perhaps, is not as good and the methods of culture are not adequate.

Dr. CARROLL. Much depends, I suppose, also on the character of the mills.

Señor AMADEO. I believe that with modern mills and modern methods the production on good lands would be from 5 to 6 hogsheads per cuerda. On the plantation of my father I have, even with the crude method of oxen, obtained sometimes 5 hogsheads per cuerda.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think the average for the land under cultivation is 2 hogsheads per cuerda?

Señor AMADEO. That is about the most they will give, taking into consideration the manner in which it is cultivated now; it must be borne in mind that present methods of culture in the island are inadequate to produce what the same farms might yield if rightly cultivated.

Dr. CARROLL. What would probably be the value of the residue or juice or molasses to the hogshead left over after the sugar has been

made? I want to get at the value of a cuerda in cane, made up into sugar, molasses, and rum.

Señor AMADEO. Calculating that the cuerda will give 2 hogsheads of sugar, it will then give 30 per cent molasses and 10 per cent rum; the sugar represents 60 per cent.

Dr. CARROLL. Do the 2 hogsheads include the molasses and rum?

Señor AMADEO. No.

Dr. CARROLL. I ask these questions because Judge Curtis, of the colonial commission, made a statement to the effect that the sugar growers of Porto Rico were not so nearly bad off as they made out. He said they could easily make \$120 gold per acre.

Señor AMADEO. I don't see where Mr. Curtis gets his authority from upon which to base that statement, because you must take into account the cost of production.

Dr. CARROLL. Would a cuerda produce \$120 worth without regard to the cost?

Señor AMADEO. No.

Dr. CARROLL. I don't see how it is possible.

Señor AMADEO. As long as the production per cuerda is 2½ hogsheads or less there is no profit. The profit really commences when the production is from 3 hogsheads up. The plantations spend a great deal of money. I know of plantations near Ponce which produce 800 hogsheads and spend from \$35,000 to \$40,000 a year in the production of the crop.

Dr. CARROLL. Now, with regard to the ordinary production of coffee per acre, I think you have stated to me that the most liberal estimate is from 35 to 40 quintals an acre.

Señor AMADEO. The amount you mention was produced under exceptional conditions on one of my pieces of land, and I have other pieces which sometimes produce about the same; but taking a general average, and taking into consideration that the cultivation is so poorly undertaken there in that respect, we get about 4 quintals per cuerda. There have been years in which the production has exceeded 6 quintals on an average. Last year the production was poor.

Dr. CARROLL. That includes all classes?

Señor AMADEO. In years like the present you might calculate, perhaps, 4 quintals upon all the grounds, but in past years it has been lower than that.

Dr. CARROLL. What are the classes or grades produced? What are they called?

Señor AMADEO. It is divided into about three grades. The first and the best is produced on the large plantations, where they have their own mills and where they undertake the whole operation.

Dr. CARROLL. What is that called—caracolillo?

Señor AMADEO. It is called haciendo coffee. Caracolillo coffee is picked out from that. They are the round beans.

Dr. CARROLL. Yes, and I understand they grow on the higher branches.

Señor AMADEO. No; it grows indiscriminately.

Dr. CARROLL. It consists of one berry in the cáscara?

Señor AMADEO. Yes. The second grade is that produced by the different commission merchants that buy up the different crops and take them into the city and sort them; and the third grade is that produced on small properties, where they dry their coffee crudely, and where the whole process, in fact, is crude.

Dr. CARROLL. What classes are polished for the European markets?

Señor AMADEO. The first two grades.

Dr. CARROLL. What will you do now with your third-class coffee? You used to send much of it to Cuba.

Señor AMADEO. We don't know where to send it; it is at its lowest price there.

Dr. CARROLL. It really makes good coffee, does it not? The beans are irregular and broken, but I understand it makes good coffee.

Señor AMADEO. It is only a question of looks. Very often the coffee that is dried in its own bean, as is done in the case of the third-class coffee, tastes even better than the other grades.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it better than the cheap grade produced in Brazil, called Rio?

Señor AMADEO. Yes, much better.

THE NEEDS OF AGRICULTURE.

[Memorial of Mayaguez planters submitted to the Commissioner.]

We, the undersigned property holders and agriculturists in the department of Mayaguez, being desirous of cooperating as far as our scanty forces allow for the welfare of this island, beg to state: That the coffee growers of Mayaguez, Las Marias, and Maricao some years ago began their work anew, arising out of the prostration to which the industry had been for some time subjected. At this date the plantations are in very good condition, owing to the fertility of the soil and the careful work which has been bestowed on them; but as the merchants of Mayaguez have absolutely cut off credits, the only source on which we count for the development of agriculture, the day may arrive (and it is not far off) when the coffee industry may die for lack of funds with which to attend to its needs. As the poor classes live on the work given by the agriculturist, if that work be suspended they will be reduced to the utmost misery. For a year this condition has been threatening, and cases of starvation have already occurred, and will occur frequently, for want of work. To save the situation, a sad one for both owner and workman, to combat the tyranny of the speculator and usurer, to place the coffee industry on a footing of progress, to free the laborer from his condition of anemia, and enable him to earn enough to buy food with the wages of his honest labor, and to lift the agriculturist from the penury which overwhelms him, and enable him to meet his obligations and his social duties, there is urgent need—

First. That the money question be settled, giving the peso a value of 50 cents.

Second. That agricultural banks be established by American corporations to loan money at low rates and for long terms on mortgages.

Third. That full freedom be given for Americans, our fellow-countrymen, to establish themselves so as to introduce competition and put an end to Spanish and German monopoly, which, owing to lack of competition, sells its merchandise dear, and scourges agriculture by the low prices paid for produce. The merchants are interested only in sending their capital to their respective countries, leaving our country bare, greatly to our prejudice.

Fourth. That lawyers, notaries, and court clerks' fees be limited to rates made generally known by a published tariff.

Sixth. That every citizen be allowed to conduct his own litigation without obligatory recourse to procurators, as these, together with "shysters," whose only idea is to draw the agriculturists into litigation with or without reason, cause great prejudice to agriculturists.

Sixth. That agricultural tools and machinery be exempted from all duties.

Seventh. That the so-called "cuota imponible" be annulled for a number of years, owing to the onerous state of present conditions.

Eighth. That the ayuntamiento of this city, together with General Henry, work for the annexation to the district of the neighboring ones of Maricao and Las Marias, as those districts impose heavy taxation to meet the salaries of their unnecessary employees, to the exclusion of important work, such as roads and education; and that preference be given to these branches so completely neglected.

Knowing your good wishes and the good wishes of the President of the great Republic, we await with faith and enthusiasm the speedy change of the situation to one of prosperity for Porto Rico, which, once the traces of the fatal Spanish domination are wiped out, will be, like Kentucky, the American paradise and the garden of America.

Julio P. Beauchamp, Marcelino Beauchamp, Alades Beauchamp, Adolfo Fenellas, Francisco Linares, M. Rodriguez Perez, Manuel Frabal, Juan N. Aran, Tomas Perez, Antonio Rivera, Juan Rivera, Sandalio Rivera, Julio Vincenty, Pr. Victor M. Rivera, Adolfo Gonzales, Jose G. Rivera, Jose Ignacio Rivera, Juan de Mata Rivera, Maximino Lacour, G. Torrella, Pablo Beauchamp, Ernesto Surra, Pedro Paoli, Jose G. Rivera, Gregorio Castillo, Francisco Cepaller, Jose Luis Ortiz Rentes, Joaquin Vincenty, Amego de P. Tandredo Hernandez, A. Ortiz, Alcedes Beauchamp, Arturo Torrella, Carlos M. Beauchamp, Domingo Rivera, Jose A. Rivera, Ciprian Rivera, A. Lucgo de Julio Tratar, Juan Torrella, Amego de D. Teodosio, Agapito Journet, Venancio Gonzalez, Francisco Aran, Zine Lapetegin, V. Forestier, Ricardo Rivera, Julio C. Rivera, Luis Esteve.

DEPREDACTIONS OF THE CHANGA.

Eustaquio Milland, resident of Yabucoa, property owner and town councillor, respectfully states that no study is more worthy of consideration than that of the method of extirpating the pest called changa, the cause of ruin to our crops and decay of agriculture in this district.

Agriculturists are interested in (taking advantage of) your visit, placing under the scalpel of a scientific commission of the savior Republic the insect known as *Grillo talpa* (mole cricket) and finding a means of extirpating it, all steps taken by the experts named by the Spanish Government having failed. It is quite impossible for the agriculturist to sustain the struggle caused by this enemy of labor, who to evade persecution burrows under the ground down to one-half meter depth and makes its nest, producing its young by thousands and feeding on the first shoots until the plantation succumbs to its attacks.

The mamey leaf used because of its toughness and bitter flavor to

wrap around the young tobacco shoot, to protect it from the ravages of the pest, prevents the full growth of the plant and affects its quality, thus defeating its object. It also attacks cane, rice, garden stuff, and everything green.

NOTE.—The field laborers of this district earn 50 cents Porto Rican daily, and are paid in provisions from the store of the estate, at prices much above those charged at retail in the towns. Can nothing be done for these unfortunates?

THREE NEEDS.

STATEMENT OF SEÑOR J. COLON.

We are in need of roads. The want of them makes it difficult at times for even carts to move. Our port, which does not allow the entrance of ships of large draft, could easily be deepened, as its bottom is chalky. Our countrymen, who are peasants, should be grouped in villages, so that efforts for their education shall not be without result. The cultivation of our fields is made difficult by the lack of modern implements and an insect called "changa," which destroys the greater part of the sowing. Up to the present time we have not been able to find any method of destroying this troublesome animal.

ENLARGEMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

PATILLAS, P. R., *March, 1899.*

Señor JOSÉ AMADEO, M. D.:

The economic future of our fertile island will depend on a greater extension being given to the cultivation of cane, coffee, and cacao in the mountain zone, where there is still a great quantity of land fit for these crops. Tobacco will also play a part as one of the most valuable products, as already in both London and other places in Europe cigars made at Comerio, Cayey, Juana Diaz, Patillas, and other districts of the island have been well received. In the whole of the granite region, from the famous district of Mamey toward the east until arriving at Manabo and Yabucoa, magnificent meadows, uplands, and crests are found which produce this plant in fine quality. It constitutes a branch of no despicable value, as time will show.

It is also important to increase the cultivation of minor crops, such as rice, corn, beans, plantains, sweet potatoes, and other tubers, which will serve our growing poorer classes as cheap and abundant food, and will free us from the ruinous importation of cereals and other articles from foreign lands, thus saving money for the increase of our own wealth. To arrive at this result it is necessary to stimulate the small producer in every possible way, among these by equitable taxation. Legislation will help powerfully toward agricultural progress. The extinction of feudal laws favorable to concentration gave rise to the spread of agriculture in Europe. In China, where property is well divided and intense cultivation is practiced as in no other part, nobody can neglect his piece of land, but has to produce something. Above all, the rights of proprietors are the rights of society in general.

The arbitrary destruction of forests has converted much of our land into waste, and fuel and building wood are already scarce. It is indispensable that forests should be planted with indigenous trees and suitable ones brought from other climates. This would increase wealth and modify the temperature of hot zones to the benefit of public health in general. The cocoanut alone, which grows so easily on our coasts, offers a hope. By the lands of the maritime zone and the small islands lying around, Porto Rico should be covered by this beautiful and generous tree. Jamaica and Cuba export yearly millions of dollars' worth of cocoanuts, bananas, pines, oranges, lemons, tomatoes, and other fruits, which we can also produce in abundance.

The cultivation of flowers, particularly of the orchid family, of which there are many indigenous and exotic examples, attended to with care, would be a remunerative industry. By increasing yearly the area of our coffee plantations, the fruit of which has acquired fame as one of the finest in the world, by the production on our mountain sides of cacao, equal in quality to any of the South American, as can be seen by visiting any of the magnificent plantations existing in this district, there would be no reason why this country should perish if a friendly hand were held out to help it.

Few regions of the globe in this latitude and of the same area produce so many kinds of valuable fruits, without counting the numerous alimentary substances, as does Porto Rico.

THE VARIOUS CROPS.

GUAYAMA, P. R., *January —, 1899.*

STATEMENT OF MAYOR CELESTINO DOMINGUEZ.

The agriculture of this country consists of the planting of sugar, which is still done in the manner observed by our grandfathers, science not yet having taken a hand in the work. Unscientific and irrational systems are still in vogue, and the work is intrusted to overseers, who have no further knowledge than that acquired by many years of practice.

Coffee, to-day the principal crop of the island, worth perhaps about 10,000,000 pesos per annum, also suffers from the lack of scientific cultivation. Our coffee is reputed to be the best in the world. The principal coffee districts are Yauco, Mayaguez, Las Marias, Maricao, Lares, and Utuado. The ports of export are San Juan, Ponce, and Mayaguez. Most of it goes to Cuba, Germany, and France. Free coasting trade will create a great demand for it in the States, as the Americans, who are used to Brazilian coffee, do not know ours, and consequently can not appreciate its fine qualities.

Cacao.—There are a few plantations of this tree in the island. The quality is excellent, of second class, like Guayaquil cacao. It can be grown anywhere in Porto Rico, and its extension would be beneficial.

Tobacco—Is produced in large quantities and of excellent quality, being equal to Cuban leaf. The principal producing districts are Comerio, Cayey, San Lorenzo, Caguas, and Patillas. About 3,000,000 pesos is the annual value of the crop.

Minor crops.—Plantains of several kinds, flumes, corn, yauticas, rice, beans, gandules, etc., are grown all over, and form the principal foods of our peasants (*jibaros*).

Other products.—Building and cabinet woods, in great variety and of excellent qualities, form a source of wealth.

Roads.—There is a central road, starting from Ponce and passing through Aibonito, Coamo, Cayey, Caguas, and Rio Piedras, leading to the capital. It is 134 kilometers long. Another, from Guayama, 88 kilometers long, joins the central road at Cayey. Both are well built and are not inferior to roads in any country. There are also several roads around the coast, which, for want of attention, become impassable in the rainy season. As to roads in the interior, they are few and bad.

For cane the lands are prepared by plowing with the primitive system of oxen; then the land is banked up, leaving furrows between. When the planting season arrives, usually March and April, the seeds are placed in the furrows and covered by the earth removed beforehand. This operation is called minor cultivation, and there is another, called major cultivation, practiced in the months of September and October, the cane not being ready for grinding until about twelve to eighteen months after planting. The irregularity of the rains in this district do not allow of a fixed time for harvesting, we having had droughts lasting as long as twenty months. The farmers live with their eyes turned skyward, to find out if they are to be favored by rains. Their position, always one of uncertainty, is at times a desperate one. A plan of irrigation was made in 1865 by an English engineer, Mr. Whelben, the cost of which was to be about 1,000,000 pesos, and which was never fostered by the Spanish Government. If the American Government would protect the project and push it to completion it would be the salvation of this part of the island, which would become prosperous and flourishing, giving far larger returns of sugar and benefiting the inhabitants.

Coffee is a mountain plant, sown on high lands. It requires moisture and shade for its proper growth. The old routine and primitive methods are still in vogue. The land is cleared of weeds, and in holes of about the depth of a hand the seeds are sown. As this plan requires some months for the coffee to appear, it is rarely used, being substituted by that of transplantation from nurseries, in which the plant has grown to about one-half yard in height. The plants are placed in the ground at distances of three yards from each other. I have seen large trees bearing fruit thus transplanted. The first crop is given at the fourth year. It is always weakly and scarce.

The planting of tobacco is a delicate operation and is usually performed on the lands skirting the rivers. It can, however, be grown anywhere. The land needs little preparation—a turning over and weeding superficially—and then transplantation from the seed nurseries. The seed is usually sown in August, the transplanting being done in November, December, and January.

Technical sugar schools.—Porto Rico, during the year 1897, has exported 57,643,851 kilograms of sugar, including muscovado and centrifugal. Calculating the consumption in the island itself to be the tenth part of that exported, we have a total production of 65,413,736 kilograms during the year. For the manufacture of such an important quantity of sugar there is not in the whole island an individual who can claim the title of a chemical expert. Owing to the want of a technical school in Porto Rico, those who devote themselves to the preparation of this product have no further knowledge of the matter than that acquired by routine, and for this reason, and owing also to the fact that they have not the slightest scientific knowledge, they do

not obtain all the results which the sugar industry should give, as they allow a large portion of the saccharine matter to go to waste.

According to the memorandum issued by the assessors at the beginning of last year in the island, 25,090 hectares of cane (a hectare being equal to 2.471 acres) are under cultivation. The districts which produce the most are the following, in the order given:

	Hectares.		Hectares.
Ponce.....	2,818	Yabucoa	922
Juana Diaz	1,718	Maunabo	762
Vieques	1,898	Yauco	681
Arecibo	1,391	Humacao	658
San German	1,093	Patillas	648
Fajardo.....	973	Cabo Rojo	621

This gives a total of 13,483 hectares (33,316 acres), which represent more than 53 per cent of the total cultivation of sugar cane in the island.

In 1888, according to statistics of well-known veracity, there were at work in the island:

Estates with steam vacuum sugar machinery	20
Estates with ordinary machines worked by steam	140
Estates with ordinary machines worked by oxen	286

In 1898 the proportion was altered in the following manner:

Estates with steam vacuum sugar machinery	50
Estates with ordinary machines worked by steam	190
Estates with ordinary machines worked by oxen	100

It is an absolute necessity that there should be established here such a school as already mentioned on the same principles as those conducted in the United States.

AGRICULTURAL DECADENCE.

STATEMENT OF AÑOR P. SANTISTEBAN Y CHARIVARI, SPANISH MERCHANT.

SAN JUAN, P. R., October 28, 1898.

Agriculture.—Calls for special study on the part of the Government in order to better its condition.

In spite of the fact that the country has paid 17,000,000 pesos for the liberation of the slaves, who were almost exclusively the property of the agriculturists, and the fact that the island—and principally commerce—has been kept down since 1879 by the circulation first of Mexican silver and later of colonial silver—in spite of this unfortunate condition of affairs generally, agricultural products have usually obtained high prices in the world's markets. But agriculture to-day is perhaps poorer than in the year 1879, and commerce is obliged to advance money to it to carry it on and to prevent its disappearance altogether.

It is difficult to explain the different causes which could have produced this agricultural decadence, but I think it can be attributed to a great extent to the lack of an economic system among the agriculturists themselves. They have become accustomed to routine. They lack necessary implements for good and cheap cultivation; they do not make use of the necessary fertilizers for worn-out lands; they have no system of irrigation to replace the want of rainfall, and they

do not employ measures for reclaiming productive lands which are under water. In general, our agriculturists are not possessed even of the rudiments of horticulture and have not even the good sense to choose the best seeds for planting.

THE NEEDS OF AGRICULTURE.

STATEMENT BY SEÑOR LUIS CENAL.

FAJARDO, P. R., *November 6, 1898.*

We lack entirely the mechanical improvements necessary to enable the industrial branch of sugar producing to prepare the sugar in the form required by the market consuming it. Our machinery can only produce raw and muscovado sugar, and it is well known that the article in this state does not enjoy a staple value sufficient to encourage its production. This district is rich and extensive, lending itself favorably to the establishment of central mills with a margin of profit, and thus dividing the industry into its two natural parts—the agricultural and manufacturing—and giving hope to the agriculturists and mutual benefit to state, province, and locality. In this district there are twenty-six sugar-cane estates, of which fourteen are idle owing to the financial crisis we are passing through. Besides these, there are a large number of properties fit for this class of crop, which could be converted into an important and profitable nucleus of the industry.

The abandoned cane estates are run to pasture, but as this is not making proper use of the lands, it can be calculated that 75 per cent of the district is, properly speaking, unproductive.

We have to sell our crude sugars to local commission agents, whose expenses and commissions greatly reduce the value of the article.

I think that the district could support two central mills of the first order, which would divide the production among them.

There is also a lack of capital in the district, which fact should receive due attention, as well as the cultivation of minor crops, for which excellent land exists and which have not been taken into account in speaking of the special fitness of the district for sugar cultivation.

The installation of the two mills would make the district a flourishing one both agriculturally and commercially, as we possess one of the best ports of the island.

Owing to the connection between commerce and agriculture, the former can be said to be decaying also.

Speaking of the general needs of the island, that of treaties is of great importance, taking into consideration that one day the opening of the Panama Canal will make this port of great maritime importance commercially.

As regards manufacturing there is great opportunity for the establishment of fibrous textile, paper, beer, and chemical factories, and of the working of the numerous minerals that the country produces.

As regards roads, without in any way deprecating the construction of a belt line of railroad, there is great need of cart roads over which our produce could pass from the interior to the principal markets of the island without the expense of transport being greater than the profits, as at present is the case.

THE SMALL FARMER.

STATEMENT OF MAYOR EUSTAQUIO TORRES.

GUAYANILLA, P. R., November 7, 1898.

Agriculture, which has been languishing and is impoverished, is overwhelmed by enormous tributes, wanting facilities afforded by an agricultural bank, and fighting an unequal fight with the merchants, owing to the fact that the difficulties of the money system closes to it foreign and national markets.

From this cause originates the general depression of the country, especially of the laboring class. This class do not earn enough to buy food, and their ranks are being swelled enormously by small proprietors who, wanting in means to till their small farms, are obliged to sell them. This is the reason why public wealth is concentrating in the hands of a few capitalists in each town; and also why so many uncultivated lands are seen, their owners, owing to their great extent, not being able to give them attention.

Solve as soon as possible the money question; protect, instead of limiting, the free establishment of banks; open free markets for the export of our agricultural products, and it will soon be seen how our agriculturists will prosper and flourish.

AGRICULTURAL RESOURCES.

[Extract from report of José C. Barbosa, M. D., as commissioner for the Philadelphia exposition.]

My principal efforts have been directed toward obtaining the greatest possible variety of samples of coffee and tobacco, and we shall therefore be able to present 300 of the first and 200 of the latter, notwithstanding that the period is but little favorable for the obtaining of samples of coffee, owing to the time of harvesting of the last crop being passed and the new crop not being ready until about the same date that the exposition will be inaugurated.

In spite of this, my efforts being seconded by the good will of the agriculturists, we shall be able to present a large variety of samples of coffee of superior quality. The same holds good with regard to tobacco, of which, a greater part being in store, owing to the complete paralyzation of its sale, we have been able to obtain the very best and finest selected samples.

The sugar industry has been suffering for a long time in Porto Rico owing to low sale prices. The want of capital has been the cause of the generally imperfect development which the good quality of the soil should have led us to expect. This has brought with it the discouragement of those persons making a business of this industry and has caused a great number of sugar plantations to be abandoned and the land used for other classes of products.

Nevertheless, the ninety samples which will be presented are sufficient to show the immense advantages which could be obtained by the introduction of machinery, the investment of capital in this direction, and of the necessary protection for the complete development of this industry, thus opening a future for sugar growers in Porto Rico.

We shall have sixty samples of different classes of textile materials. These form a branch of wealth which to-day is not exploited, owing to

want of capital. Textile materials are found here in great quantities and varieties, but abandoned and uncultivated and without use for this reason. It is advisable to show them in the exposition in order to allow manufacturers in the United States to appreciate the advantages which they could obtain by a cultivation of these rare materials, and their use in factories, which would give labor to many, would cheapen the cost of living, and would bring us foreign capital by the establishment of manufacturing centers which contribute so largely to the wealth and prosperity of a country.

The superior quality of our *achiote*, which grows wild, can be greatly improved. I have thought it convenient to call the attention of farmers to the importance of this product, which obtains the price of 12 pesos a hundredweight, and can be collected almost without any expense. A number of samples will be presented in the exposition, so that its quality shall be known and a good market for it be opened up.

Our rice, as will be seen by the samples shown, is of fine quality, and competes advantageously with the imported article. This product, of which there is an enormous consumption in the country (the importation of which extended in the years 1897-98 to 8,662,682 kilograms—value, 606,387 pesos), can be here grown in sufficient quantities for home consumption, with immense advantage to the country and to those who wish to undertake the cultivation of the article.

The samples of our corn are of better quality than the imported. This article gives three crops a year and requires only a small amount of capital for its cultivation. The precarious condition of our farmers has caused its cultivation to be almost abandoned.

I have taken care to collect samples of beans, chick peas, Mexican beans, *gandules*, etc.—articles which, without special cultivation, can compete with those of the better class which are imported into our markets, and which have the advantage of being easy to raise in the poorest class of land and of giving two or three crops a year.

I have asked for several samples of cotton, which once constituted one of the principal sources of wealth of our country. My object was to allow its fine qualities to become known, so that its cultivation and exploitation could again be undertaken.

I have obtained forty-two samples of the different classes of starch produced in the island by the crude and primitive processes yet employed. Such is the richness of the plants that even with these methods a large quantity of starch is obtained, and it can compete in every way with similar classes manufactured in foreign countries.

The *tabonuco* is a resinous gum which, if worked properly, will give a large quantity of *trementine* and *camphor*. Of the *hedionda* seed (substitute for *chicory*), 1,117 kilograms were exported to Cuba in the year of 1897. We show a number of samples of this in order to open up a market for them.

I have insisted on the advantage to be obtained from the cultivation of the *malagueta* (used for *bay rum*), which is already well known outside of the country, and the essence of which is quoted at a high price in the New York market. We have obtained a large number of the samples of the article.

Several collections of the woods of the country, both for cabinet and building purposes, have been obtained, and they compare favorably in quality, beauty, and variety with those of many other countries, and are abundant in our forests. Up to the present their usefulness has been simply meager, owing to the want of commu-

nication between the larger towns and the excessive expense of transportation which bad roads necessitate. Once known, they will become appreciated immediately, and their working will be made easy by the opening of proper roads.

The mineral wealth of Porto Rico is duly represented by the ten collections which will be shown in the exposition. The several classes of mineral which they contain and the constant demand for mining rights are the best proof that a rich subsoil exists and that granite, coal, iron, copper, silver, gold, etc., form a source of immense wealth unknown until to-day, and which at no very distant day will exercise considerable influence in the future of our island.

A great many samples of articles which can be used in new industries have been forthcoming. These have not been used up to the present time, not owing to want of knowledge of their utility and advantage of cultivating them, but purely for want of capital. In a country like ours, where up to a short time ago the rate of interest was from 18 per cent per annum upward, and through whose custom-houses a half of the circulating medium passes in a year, it was impossible to set on foot any industry even when the prime material was on hand in abundance.

We should, therefore, make known the few manufacturing industries which we possess, such as that of matches, distilleries, hat weaving, dyeing, soap making, etc., in order to show that willingness has been there and industry has not been wanting, and at the same time to stimulate the introduction of capital in the form of banks, societies, companies, etc., which, when they see the material which we have on hand and the thriftiness of our people, will find a stimulus and guaranty for the undertaking of new enterprises, bringing the one factor which is necessary for our prosperity, namely, capital.

We have nothing to desire in the direction of a fertile country and an honest and laborious population.

Returns for farms and cattle in forty-five municipal districts.

[Prepared for Henry K. Carroll, commissioner, by bureau of agriculture of Porto Rico, July, 1899.]

Municipal districts.	Sugar-cane estates.		Coffee estates with or without machinery.	Tobacco plantations (hectares ¹).	Small-crop farms (hectares ¹).	Cattle farms.	Number of head of cattle.
	In cultivation.	Not in cultivation.					
Guayama	11	9			446	3	1,200
Quebradillas	2	1	35	102	620	46	500
Juana Diaz	9	1	13	90	756	14	5,300
Santa Isabel	4	1	6	189	231	20	3,109
Humacao	8	5	1	150	600	7	17,000
Lajas	7		14	41	200	20	6,000
Vega Alta	2		39	145	1,606		1,257
Dorado	3	1	4	846	3,340	23	4,133
Vega Baja	2	5		78			3,000
Yanco	8	1	104	99	2,043	5	1,050
Arroyo	1	6	5	17	300	5	800
Guayanilla	6	1	81	100	2,000	26	4,500
Morovis	1	1	32	10	200	15	1,910
Juncos	5		3	176	650	35	3,180
Gurabo	3		35	95	710	7	2,854
Utua	4	4	378	70	1,500	3	2,000
Aguada	9	1	117		54		1,745
Yabucoa	6	1	3	200	2,190	20	5,413
Añasco	11	8	43		500		
Aibonito			148	600	1,800		1,000
Loiza	1	7	30		1,389	7	3,200

Returns for farms and cattle in forty-five municipal districts—Continued.

Municipal districts.	Sugar-cane estates.		Coffee estates with or without machinery.	Tobacco plantations (hectares ¹).	Small-crop farms (hectares ¹).	Cattle farms.	Number of head of cattle.
	In cultivation.	Not in cultivation.					
Patillas	4		37	105	1,934	2	
Cayey			69	300	2,000	17	2,300
Lares			545		2,247		
San German	14	2	75			20	2,500
Rio Grande	4		27		577	24	5,832
Piedras	3			79	786	18	12,180
Maunabo	4		4	68	1,202		
Sabana Grande	1	4	29	391	4,779	11	1,140
Ciales		1	110	50	380	2	1,200
Penuelas	2	2	42	185	3,389	9	6,468
Rincon	5				2,000		700
Arecibo	9	8	32	830	1,370	12	8,960
Las Marias			598	18	628		800
Fajardo	14	6	7	137	1,215	18	7,495
Coamo	2			80	466	128	15,000
Caguas	4		233	232	352	4	12,128
Manati	5	3	6	365	686	4	3,330
Barceloneta	3		56	813	243	14	5,400
Tor Alta	2	1		128	600	1	2,700
Naguabo	5	1	2	82	334	9	14,000
Bayamon	6	2	10	89	1,064	40	14,000
Camuy	3		31	102	418	8	8,287
Agua Buenas			70	77	740		631
Ponce	16	2	112	220	5,815	3	4,000
Total	209	80	3,177	7,369	54,074	600	199,973

¹Hectare: 2.471 acres.

NOTE BY THE DIRECTOR OF AGRICULTURE.—The data given in these tables concerning the principal crops and cattle breeding in the forty-five towns noted, if not thorough and accurate, notwithstanding the efforts of the agricultural bureau to make them so, are as near the truth as possible.

Until now this class of statistical data has been asked for only for the purpose of burdening the public wealth with new imposts. For this reason it has been almost a traditional custom to conceal the truth from fear of imposts.

The data from the twenty-seven towns which are not embraced in this table are excluded because they are not well authenticated.

As to the number of sugar lands, not under cultivation, it must be borne in mind that the bureau has not given attention to the multitude of *Jamacia* trains and small estates which exist only in good times, but only to sugar mills of large and superior character, and to extensive and fertile lands.

In relation to farms which are being worked, excepting those which produce centrifugal sugar, the rest which produce muscavados, the price of which in the markets is very low, only have under cultivation a very small area in comparison with the number of hectares which they possess, a circumstance which aroused the enthusiasm for the cultivation of coffee, triplicating the production in less than ten years.

Rural lands, classified by cultivation, as declared by their owners for assessment.

[Published by the provincial board of assessment for 1896.]

FIRST DISTRICT.

Municipal district.	Number of own-ers.	Number of farms or estates.	Cane.	Coffee.	Tobacco.	Minor crops.	Cultivated pastures.	Natural pastures.	Mountains, forests, etc.	Total.	Value.	Income.
			<i>Cuerdas.</i> ¹	<i>Cuerdas.</i> ¹	<i>Cuerdas.</i> ¹	<i>Cuerdas.</i> ¹	<i>Cuerdas.</i> ¹	<i>Cuerdas.</i> ¹	<i>Cuerdas.</i> ¹	<i>Cuerdas.</i> ¹	<i>Pesos.</i>	<i>Pesos.</i>
San Juan.	245	365	0.50	351.72	2.80	37.32	325.35	1,691.00	2,611.11	69,378.21	10,480.99	
Bayamon.	1,562	1,394	503.25	96.87	3.00	673.10	340.38	16,159.38	39,063.59	733,961.27	64,235.45	
Carolina.	1,065	923	538.25	306.87	3.00	873.00	78.75	5,649.87	28,039.01	454,061.27	50,941.49	
Porcello.	214	292	288.50	136.75		168.25	73.00	5,914.00	13,805.00	224,020.00	22,785.90	
Narajungo.	455	451	1.75	300.75	48.25	1,048.01	34.00	6,783.25	17,051.75	217,562.00	47,847.75	
Loiza.	479	555	1,114.00	300.88		865.75	621.75	21,068.65	32,131.75	331,200.10	41,160.23	
Rio-grande.	418	452	244.00	423.14	1.00	497.75	91.13	16,087.71	11,301.85	280,154.12	32,552.55	
Rio-piedras.	588	1,015	490.00	189.75		774.62	29.09	22,321.00	25,524.45	374,500.98	40,106.98	
Tos-alta.	582	380	135.99	75.77	6.75	389.22	91.43	2,157.15	15,187.90	100,703.63	11,338.48	
Tos-laja.	255	275	649.12	78.75		154.45	14.12	4,991.10	4,027.41	386,964.52	64,734.48	
Trujillo Alto.	333	366	58.00	18.49	2.25	398.63	65.50	11,259.86	12,655.87	94,848.75	8,068.13	
Yaguajay.	617	728	607.15	302.48	131.75	746.76	91.94	20,957.29	35,212.50	446,961.66	44,760.01	
Aguaes Buenas.	400	472		1,319.38	3.00	619.10	112.25	10,030.15	30,018.08	310,108.40	41,628.10	
Cajay.	670	778	9.00	3,748.53	63.00	1,603.55	106.75	16,493.16	10,838.31	737,731.50	87,973.50	
Cidra.	438	500	3.25	998.00	37.50	1,771.75	131.25	16,488.75	31,942.93	299,061.50	33,736.23	
Guarabo.	404	976	723.75	320.63	84.00	859.90	20.45	12,447.85	17,605.53	279,220.75	25,201.00	
Hato Grande.	508	1,063	462.12	823.88	2.50	851.37	1.00	23,916.60	12,672.22	210,577.15	23,550.98	
Junco.	468	329	758.62	74.00	119.25	620.61	3.50	2,942.15	16,336.30	183,743.65	23,891.91	
Comerio.	391	378	15.00	1,061.75	142.50	520.61	1.00	2,942.15	16,336.30	183,743.65	23,891.91	
Total.	9,381	11,453	6,590.85	10,645.77	634.00	32,412.73	2,868.38	121,185.77	428,673.81	6,034,947.41	689,708.68	

SECOND DISTRICT.

Arecibo.	1,594	2,068	8,408.93	1,395.80	513.25	2,070.98	221.63	23,572.87	37,060.58	74,804.04	1,185,374.85	152,814.93
Camuy.	319	319	420.25	835.50	431.75	1,219.00	9.75	13,125.25	10,482.00	348,206.50	31,081.76	
Pueblo.	628	732	173.65	540.12	151.75	831.50	321.13	16,314.11	8,691.55	27,048.70	35,930.52	
Quebradillas.	516	701	125.43	475.10	286.50	863.25	45.82	10,055.64	1,222.58	19,157.86	25,354.50	
Ututo.	1,317	1,943	358.40	15,053.63	36.00	5,875.79	1,265.42	30,812.59	48,343.22	101,792.50	3,022,062.50	
Manati.	499	538	1,077.12	367.09	50.40	745.20	161.75	7,062.75	16,436.80	26,301.70	596,216.88	95,310.75
Barceloneta.	490	419	374.37	949.62	14.25	646.51	625.88	6,134.00	10,071.81	19,550.94	50,869.25	
Ciales.	633	715	57.00	3,925.50	7.50	1,995.25	157.50	6,069.32	27,450.32	30,039.94	91,759.00	
Sarros.	738	840	4.50	3,365.90	6.00	3,098.00	157.25	12,737.25	23,841.25	63,707.00	91,759.00	
Corozal.	304	1,395	81.25	860.70	7.00	1,473.63	17.00	16,637.17	43,437.25	27,247.00	68,731.25	
Yorco.	588	987	113.25	1,463.34	8.00	1,012.53	12.01	14,697.74	7,506.12	24,008.11	489,738.50	60,701.00
Vega-alta.	422	581	181.25	146.63	1.00	404.88	32.73	5,132.10	13,655.79	17,584.94	26,867.87	
Vega-baja.	459	596	1,142.00	115.63	82.00	678.70	179.75	12,582.08	13,655.79	506,467.94	47,897.27	
Total.	9,490	12,501	8,715.80	30,162.22	1,663.15	20,932.94	3,475.62	180,666.77	222,131.24	467,862.74	10,352,172.60	1,031,689.15

¹ Cuerdas—a little less than an acre.

Yauco.....	1,701	2,091	1,089.00	4,452.54	222.02	5,593.74	517.25	32,549.62	18,011.07	482,490.64	1,707,742.50	170,194.80
Total.....	9,300	11,721	16,028.37	33,461.32	879.87	36,796.29	4,074.52	227,571.80	132,012.46	452,659.79	13,789,103.14	1,413,644.06

SIXTH DISTRICT.

Guayama.....	516	642	2,361.00	1,283.37	35.00	742.50	105.73	16,014.90	18,756.60	40,132.10	1,028,565.18	75,942.82
Arroyo.....	240	319	78.00	244.00	6.01	331.50	19.82	6,226.88	3,053.79	9,620.69	214,311.20	15,410.62
Maunabo.....	347	454	1,967.31	78.19	61.25	282.50	96.00	3,052.75	6,850.62	12,857.63	219,416.25	57,497.79
Patillas.....	357	1,020	1,590.46	1,031.48	32.69	781.61	1,063.14	8,105.18	17,327.52	23,917.04	432,077.50	60,638.35
Total.....	1,994	2,444	5,756.77	2,640.64	135.35	2,118.11	1,269.69	31,923.71	45,967.53	92,467.40	1,925,190.13	215,825.64

SEVENTH DISTRICT.

Humacao.....	814	803	1,614.00	20.01	37.13	497.69	86.00	21,791.92	2,250.15	28,415.81	497,355.40	30,271.81
Piedras.....	873	979	319.25	197.89	9.76	634.63	110.71	16,393.95	2,382.71	20,010.20	105,516.78	15,015.24
Yabucoa.....	845	1,021	2,290.63	197.50	20.25	917.72	140.00	16,635.52	14,387.87	34,559.40	690,737.06	51,753.36
Padaró.....	431	547	2,795.83	579.63	7.75	214.50	66.25	14,137.45	3,585.00	20,690.41	390,131.39	29,894.19
Ceiba.....	316	347	939.09	62.00	7.25	223.74	71.75	9,414.97	3,907.00	14,045.71	223,942.75	17,219.39
Loquillo.....	551	822	977.75	1,559.73	1.25	394.85	495.88	14,110.81	8,121.96	25,540.38	371,776.27	25,592.70
Naguabo.....	480	530	452.50	180.38	1.60	474.38	37.50	18,198.62	6,793.02	26,141.50	327,807.01	32,535.75
Total.....	4,280	4,889	8,938.96	2,497.14	77.88	3,441.92	918.09	110,683.24	41,405.31	167,962.54	2,623,196.77	202,072.56

VIEQUES.

Vieques.....	150	187	3,426.50	592,276.55	51,373.55
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SUMMARY.

First district.....	9,981	11,453	6,396.85	10,656.77	634.00	12,412.73	2,958.38	271,224.31	121,135.77	425,678.51	6,034,307.41	699,708.68
Second district.....	9,690	12,301	8,715.80	30,162.22	1,099.15	20,892.94	3,475.63	130,026.77	222,121.24	467,265.50	1,323,172.50	1,071,089.15
Third district.....	5,776	7,307	2,733.72	12,791.84	373.15	9,613.73	1,639.17	128,408.65	31,122.14	159,530.79	1,815,349.31	245,138.51
Fourth district.....	9,833	10,441	9,833.56	31,017.24	495.25	17,975.01	2,051.01	157,609.89	30,271.17	237,023.79	9,982,914.21	1,090,035.39
Fifth district.....	9,389	11,721	16,028.37	32,594.52	879.87	26,738.20	4,074.52	227,571.80	132,012.46	459,059.79	13,789,103.14	1,443,634.06
Sixth district.....	1,994	2,444	5,756.77	2,640.64	135.35	2,118.11	1,269.69	34,923.71	45,967.53	92,467.40	1,925,190.13	215,825.64
Seventh district.....	4,280	4,889	8,938.96	2,497.14	77.88	3,441.92	918.09	110,683.24	41,405.31	167,962.54	2,623,196.77	202,072.56
Vieques.....	150	187	3,426.50	592,276.55	51,373.55
Total.....	50,753	60,963	61,558.43	122,339.76	4,264.07	83,511.08	16,277.28	1,127,087.56	664,273.37	2,089,331.49	49,094,590.12	5,079,737.54

Live stock in 1896—Returns to the provincial board of assessment.

Departments.	Horses.	Mulos.	Asses.	Cattle.	Sheep.	Goats.	Swine.	Total head.
San Juan.....	11,861	254	66	86,535	324	775	3,531	106,846
Arecibo.....	13,202	694	108	49,595	72	423	2,620	66,714
Aguadilla.....	5,216	551	102	19,578	12	191	733	26,883
Mayaguez.....	8,624	748	175	39,531	504	1,667	2,121	53,800
Ponce.....	16,488	2,143	211	46,879	346	1,585	2,201	69,833
Arroyo.....	3,780	73	29	12,779	97	448	795	17,999
Humacao.....	5,441	4	25	40,777	217	473	1,287	48,224
Vieques.....	1,156		1	7,938	53	217	125	9,493
Total.....	65,751	4,467	717	303,812	2,055	5,779	13,411	395,782

Intended uses of the live stock.

	Agricultu- ral work.	Reproduc- tion.	Consump- tion.	In harness and trans- portation.	Motive power for machinery.
Horses.....	19,826	28,739		17,259	133
Mules.....	2,107	793		1,563	84
Asses.....	255	352		110	
Cattle.....	85,281	170,979	52,077	13,941	1,334
Sheep.....		1,407	648		
Goats.....		4,051	1,728		
Swine.....		7,455	5,956		
Total.....	87,269	213,778	60,409	32,837	1,501

Acreage of various products in 1892.

	Acres.
Minor crops.....	88,678
Coffee.....	33,626
Tobacco.....	4,761
Sugar.....	55,882
Cotton.....	1,344

PRODUCTS IN THE PERIOD 1828-1864.

The production of sugar had risen to 18,782,675 pounds in 1828 and there was a steady increase for the next twenty years. In 1848 101,298,754 pounds were produced, the highest point down to 1864 being reached in 1861, when 131,035,471 pounds were reported.

The coffee crop of 1828 was 11,160,950 pounds, rising in 1830 to 16,911,925 pounds, with a marked decrease between 1835 and 1840 to 5,277,250 pounds in 1836. There was a steady increase between 1850 and 1864.

Of cotton 479,150 pounds were produced in 1828; in 1837 it reached 5,003,779 pounds, falling in 1859 to 47,251 pounds.

The tobacco crop in 1828 was 2,406,100 pounds. In 1862 it rose to 8,950,725 pounds; the lowest point in the period was reached in 1837, when 2,104,215 pounds were produced.

Products in 1776.

Estates.....	5,815
Sugar ¹	pounds.. 273,725
Cotton.....	do. 111,875
Coffee.....	do. 1,126,325
Rice.....	do. 2,009,650
Corn.....	do. 1,550,600
Tobacco.....	do. 702,050

¹ Not including molasses.

Live stock in 1776.

Cattle.....	78,884
Mules.....	13,614
Horses.....	4,334
Sheep.....	952
Goats.....	31,758

INDUSTRIES.*INDUSTRIES KILLED BY SPANISH TARIFF.**[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]**SAN JUAN, P. R., October 29, 1890.*

Dr. CARBONELL, secretary of the interior. There is absolutely no industrial life here in the sense of manufacture. The only thing which my department has to do in connection with that branch is to register trade-marks, patents, and copyrights which come from other parts of the world.

Dr. CARROLL. There is no inventive genius, then, among this people?

Dr. CARBONELL. The Government has discouraged always the institution of any industries here, so as to preserve to the merchants in Spain the monopoly of sending their goods here. For example, it has never been possible to put up a flour-milling establishment here because the Spanish Government placed on wheat in the grain the same rate of duty as was placed on the ground flour, for the purpose of allowing merchants in Spain to take wheat from the United States, grind it in Spain, and then send it to Porto Rico. Also the industry of making soup paste was killed in the same way. They put on such an exorbitant duty that they were unable here to compete with the Spaniards in Spain.

Dr. CARROLL. We understand that Spanish monopoly is now at an end.

Dr. CARBONELL. Unfortunately, it has not terminated yet, because the same laws are in force now as formerly. If the United States had only allowed this to become part of the Union with respect to the tariff—that is, without custom-house duties on articles coming from the United States—it would have done an immense amount of good to the country.

Dr. CARROLL. The duties imposed on goods from Spain are the same as those from the United States, so that Spain has no longer the advantage which she formerly had over other countries.

Dr. CARBONELL. I consider that goods manufactured in the United States should come in free, and goods from Porto Rico should go to the United States free. Goods that went from here to Spain paid a prohibitive duty, but those which came from Spain here paid 10 per cent ad valorem. Coffee in Spain paid \$12 a hundredweight.

Dr. CARROLL. They do not seem to like Porto Rico coffee in Spain.

Dr. CARBONELL. That can not be so, because one of their songs says the best coffee in the world is the coffee of Porto Rico.

Dr. CARROLL. They seem to have preferred to roast the people of Porto Rico instead of their coffee. What is the commerce over which this department has control?

Dr. CARBONELL. None, in spite of the name of the portfolio.

SUGAR MILLS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 1, 1898.*

Dr. CARROLL. Is the sugar industry flourishing?

Mr. ANTONIO ROIG. It is now, but not as regards muscovado sugar, because each planter has \$20,000 or \$30,000 invested in machinery, which is unnecessary. We will have to establish central factories, and all the other plantations sell their cane to these factories. We can then afford to have better mills and all the latest improvements.

Dr. CARROLL. What do you consider the best points at which they should be established.

Mr. ROIG. There should be two in each of the departments.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there no modern sugar-making plants in the island?

Mr. ROIG. Yes; I have one; there is also the Progreso at Carolina; Mr. Finley has one; Mr. Huisi one, called La Esperanza, in Arecibo. There is one in Aguadilla, owned by Mr. Amell; one in Anasco, owned by Mr. Pagan; another in Mayaguez, owned by Blas Nadal; two in Ponce, one of them owned by Mr. Gallard, and two in Yabucoa. The capacity of these mills is from 10,000 to about 20,000 bags. I am the owner of sugar machinery, but do not raise the cane. I buy the cane from the neighboring planters. I sell the sugar here and in the United States. I think if some American people come here and go into that business either alone or with natives it would be good for the island.

VARIOUS INDUSTRIES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 2, 1898.*

Mr. FRANCISCO T. SABAT, deputy collector of customs at San Juan:

Dr. CARROLL. What kind of wood is used in making charcoal?

Mr. SABAT. Very fine woods in immense quantities. It is not possible to name them. There are large tracts of timber on the mountain tops. This country sent to the World's Fair at Chicago a piece of work containing 240 different woods, all produced in the island.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any fishing industries?

Mr. SABAT. The fishing industry, as an industry, does not exist, but the poor people of the coast towns are accustomed to earning their living by fishing, usually with nets, sometimes with hooks, and bring their catch to the cities to sell. There is absolutely no organization in the industry. Each man is an independent fisherman, and brings his fish independently to market. So abundant are the fish on this coast that I have frequently seen a surplus of fish thrown into the sea for want of purchasers, the market having been glutted.

Dr. CARROLL. Are cattle raised in large numbers on the island?

Mr. SABAT. Yes; cattle are raised in large quantities, and this industry forms the second source of agricultural income in the island of Porto Rico. It is the second source of wealth next to sugar. What I mean is that after the agricultural products of sugar, coffee, and tobacco, the cattle-raising industry is the most important. We sell cattle to the Virgin Islands, St. Thomas, and other English and French

islands of the West Indies, more than half a million dollars' worth every year.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they have any means of preserving the meat after it is killed?

Mr. SABAT. It is exported alive. There are no cold storages in the island. Sometimes families salt meat for their own consumption.

Dr. CARROLL. What kinds of meat are consumed here?

Mr. SABAT. Beef, pork, goat meat; also sheep are raised, but not many.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any canning factories on the island.

Mr. SABAT. In Mayaguez and the capital the industry exists on a very small scale, pineapples being the principal fruit canned.

THINGS MADE IN MAYAGUEZ.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

MAYAGUEZ, P. R., *January 23, 1899.*

Mr. BADRENA, ex-United States consul at Mayaguez:

Dr. CARROLL. Are you familiar with the industries of Mayaguez?

Mr. BADRENA. Yes. The best and most important is that of matches made by M. Grau & Sons. It is not a large factory, but is sufficient to supply Mayaguez and other cities, even San Juan. The material from which they are made is all imported from Germany. They have not machinery to make the sticks here. In San Juan they make the whole match. I do not know how many men are employed here. Then there is the chocolate mill here. The chocolate is made from native cacao, raised in this part of the island, and it is the best on the island. We used to send the cacao from here to San Juan to the factory there. There are two chocolate factories here, but both of them are small. They sell the chocolate here from 16 cents to \$1 a pound.

Dr. CARROLL. We would consider that high in the United States. We get the best in the United States for 40 cents. But there is some cacao imported here from Venezuela, is there not?

Mr. BADRENA. No; unless some one wants it especially and pays for it.

Dr. CARROLL. Well, in San Juan when I asked why they charged so much, they said because they had to pay such heavy duties.

Mr. BADRENA. Yes; but it is seldom imported. Our cacao is as good as that of Caracas. Then we have distilleries for the making of rum, bay rum, and wines.

Dr. CARROLL. What would the distillers here think of having the United States revenue system introduced?

Mr. BADRENA. They will feel badly about it; and the same thing may be said of tobacco.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it not be better to make rum higher and wines cheaper?

Mr. BADRENA. I think wines should be introduced without paying any duties.

Dr. CARROLL. We propose to admit them at 3 cents instead of 30.

Mr. BADRENA. The people here all drink wine. They never get drunk on it. I have tasted California wines, and they are as good as French clarets, and they can be brought here very cheaply. I believe they can compete with Spanish wines. That depends on the quality.

Dr. CARROLL. I have statistics as to the production of the distilleries—as to the number of gallons they produce, and so forth. Is there much tobacco manufactured here?

Mr. BADRENA. There are many private shops for the making of cigars and cigarettes—not in large quantities, but very good. The cigarettes are made here by Esteva Hermanos. Before the war we used to have Cuban cigarettes, but now they are shut out and this factory was started. Confidence will be restored upon the settlement of the tariff and the money question, and American capital will come here without the intervention of the Government.

THE CATTLE INDUSTRY.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN GERMAN, P. R., *January 26, 1899.*

Mr. LOPEZ, a cattle dealer:

Dr. CARROLL. Have you anything to say about your business—that of cattle raising?

Mr. LOPEZ. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Shall I consider, then, that everything is going well with you; that all debts are being paid and business is good?

Mr. LOPEZ. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. How many cattle have you?

Mr. LOPEZ. Six or seven hundred.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you keep them for laboring purposes or for beef?

Mr. LOPEZ. For both purposes.

Dr. CARROLL. How much does an ordinary yoke of oxen bring, generally?

Mr. LOPEZ. One hundred dollars.

Dr. CARROLL. Are they then ready for work?

Mr. LOPEZ. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. What is a pair of ponies worth?

Mr. LOPEZ. That varies a good deal. Good saddle horses are worth up to \$400. Good working horses are worth about \$80.

Dr. CARROLL. Then a pair of oxen is worth a little more than a pair of horses?

Mr. LOPEZ. Yes, if the horses are ordinary ones.

Dr. CARROLL. How much milk a day does a good cow give when the pasture is good?

Mr. LOPEZ. The maximum quantity can be taken as from 8 to 10 liters. [A liter is a little over a quart.]

Dr. CARROLL. Are the cows milked twice a day?

Mr. LOPEZ. Only once.

Dr. CARROLL. In the United States they always milk good cows at least twice a day.

Mr. LOPEZ. They give more, then.

Dr. CARROLL. They consider that the oftener they milk them there the more milk they get in the aggregate.

Mr. LOPEZ. Here they have to bring up the calf on its mother's milk. They can not feed it satisfactorily as they do in the United States.

Dr. CARROLL. In what time do you wean one here?

Mr. LOPEZ. A year.

Dr. CARROLL. They very seldom allow a calf to remain with its mother more than from three to six months, and never allow it to have all the milk at any time.

Mr. LOPEZ. Here they give them nearly all.

Dr. CARROLL. The quality of the milk is not especially rich in cream here.

Mr. LOPEZ. There is very little cream, owing to the poor quality of the pasture.

Dr. CARROLL. You have magnificent cattle here, larger than almost any breed I have seen in the United States; but they don't compare with them in milk-giving capacity. Where did you get the breed from?

Mr. LOPEZ. It is a cross between the cattle of the country and African cattle.

Dr. CARROLL. Why is it that you do not have better pasture? Is it on account of the drought or the pooriness of the land, or for what reason?

Mr. LOPEZ. For lack of water, especially in the southern parts of the island. Big herds are raised in these districts, and months pass sometimes without rain.

Dr. CARROLL. In what months does the drought occur?

Mr. LOPEZ. Generally from March to August.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any water in the rivers here, which could be saved in the rainy season, so that you might have irrigation of your lands?

Mr. LOPEZ. We have no rivers; only springs to give our cattle water.

Dr. CARROLL. Then there is no way in which the supply of water could be gotten here in the rainy season for the purpose of irrigation?

Mr. LOPEZ. Some years ago there was a trial made to sink an artesian well, but it gave no result, and since then everybody has been conducting experiments on his own grounds and endeavoring to get results.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the average rainfall per annum?

Mr. LOPEZ. They have never made those calculations here.

Dr. CARROLL. But you do have an immense rainfall here during eight months of the year.

Mr. LOPEZ. Yes; very much rain.

Dr. CARROLL. If you knew exactly how much, it might be possible to arrange a reservoir to save water for the period of drought.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. We have never had rain-measuring instruments here; but in the lowlands, where water comes down in torrents, pools form which last for months, sometimes preventing traffic.

Dr. CARROLL. Then if you had a reservoir situated in the proper place, with streams leading to it, you might store up water to serve in the dry season?

Mr. LOPEZ. The topography of the country would prevent that. We could only catch water to irrigate the lowlands, but the better lands are situated high up.

Dr. CARROLL. Most of the land is low, is it not?

Mr. LOPEZ. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Is not your important land the land of the valley?

Mr. LOPEZ. We have very fine lands on the mountain, also, which would be worth a great deal if we could water them.

Dr. CARROLL. If you can not water all of them I should think it would be well if you could water the lands of the valley.

Mr. LOPEZ. It would be a very costly plan. It has never been tried.

Dr. CARROLL. The first thing necessary would be to have a competent engineer look over the land and see whether it would be possible to have a reservoir or not.

Mr. LOPEZ. That would require the cooperation of all the land owners.

INDUSTRIES IN CABO ROJO.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

CABO ROJO, P. R., *January 27, 1899.*

Mr. PEDRO COLBERG (a druggist). I desire to ask permission to correct some mistakes in the statements made by Mr. Ortis. I have heard it said that we have no industries here. I wish to say that this city has more industries probably than any other city in the island. There is the straw-hat industry, which is almost exclusively confined to Cabo Rojo. The whole island is supplied from here, and we only need a little money to bring it up to a very important place.

Dr. CARROLL. Where do you get the material?

Mr. PAGAN. We have it here. We could make sufficient, not only to supply the whole country, but even for export. Moreover, we have the salt industry here, and the richest salt deposit in the island. I am one of the owners of it. We have just asked General Henry to get the duty in the United States reduced. We have just sent 30,000 quintals of salt to Boston, but made no profit on it, owing to the duty we had to pay. We have sufficient salt to supply Porto Rico, Cuba, and perhaps a part of the United States. The present production, with the old-fashioned methods of obtaining the salt, is from 300,000 to 400,000 quintals a year.

Dr. CARROLL. In what form does the salt occur?

Mr. PAGAN. It is artificial salt. We have big flats into which we pump sea water and allow it to crystallize by action of the air. At present we produce about half a million bushels, but we can raise that production to 3,000,000 bushels a year.

Dr. CARROLL. I understand that your principal difficulty is that your vessels have to clear from Mayaguez; that your port is not now open as it used to be.

Mr. PAGAN. In the name of the town I ask that the port be declared an open port. The port of Cabo Rojo is one of the best protected harbors of the island. It is the best port on the western coast of the island.

Dr. CARROLL. Would there be any shipment from it, in addition to salt, if it were opened?

Mr. PAGAN. We would have big shipments of sugar, cattle, corn, and other products. This town has been completely isolated. The railroad system, instead of touching at this place, has cut off this town and left it without communication of any sort with the rest of the island.

Dr. CARROLL. How far is it from here to the port?

Mr. PAGAN. From 2 to 3 kilometers.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the salt marshes very close?

Mr. PAGAN. By sea they are very near, by land they are farther.

Dr. CARROLL. How many bushels of salt have you shipped this year?

Mr. PAGAN. Between 4,000 and 5,000 bushels, in spite of the war.

Dr. CARROLL. Was that less than the year before?

Mr. PAGAN. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you ship salt here on coastwise vessels for various ports of the island?

Mr. PAGAN. We ship on these little schooners going around the island because we can get cheap rates; but to the United States we ship on large schooners.

Dr. CARROLL. For coastwise trade your vessels are not required to clear from Mayaguez, are they?

Mr. PAGAN. Yes; even in that case.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you asked General Henry by petition to make Cabo Rojo a port of entry?

Mr. PAGAN. We asked General Brooke.

Dr. CARROLL. What did he say?

Mr. PAGAN. He made no reply.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the city of Mayaguez oppose having Cabo Rojo made a port of entry?

Mr. PAGAN. Some years ago there was a big fire in Mayaguez and the people of Cabo Rojo loaned their port to Mayaguez. As soon as Mayaguez itself built up by means of this port the people there influenced the government by use of large sums of money to declare this port closed again.

Dr. CARROLL. If General Henry should agree to declare Cabo Rojo a port of entry, would the municipality or would private citizens agree to see that no loss was caused to the government on account of the expense.

Mr. PAGAN. We don't wish the port to be used as a custom-house. All we want is to have a collector here, and we will attend to that.

Dr. CARROLL. That is a very important point, because ports of entry sometimes do not pay expenses, and if you will assure the government that it will pay expenses it may go a long way toward inducing General Henry to open the port.

Mr. PAGAN. Do I understand you correctly that if the entries into Cabo Rojo shall not be sufficient to pay the expense of the collectorship that the people of Cabo Rojo will agree to pay the balance?

Dr. CARROLL. Yes.

Mr. PAGAN. All of us here would be pleased to undertake that responsibility.

Dr. CARROLL. Returning to the hat industry; can you inform me as to the number of hats made here a year?

Mr. PAGAN. At the very least from 50,000 to 60,000 hats annually.

Dr. CARROLL. Is not that number too large?

Mr. PAGAN. No; I don't refer to the best hats, but to all classes.

Mr. ORTIZ. The poor people make them in their houses.

Dr. CARROLL. Are they made usually by the women and children?

Mr. PAGAN. Yes; the poor women make them; not the men.

Dr. CARROLL. How much can the women make in a day at it?

Mr. PAGAN. One of the finest hats sells for \$48 a dozen, and each hat takes a woman a month to make. They sell cheap hats in quantities for 6 or 7 cents apiece.

There is also a cane industry and brick works here.

BRICKS AND EARTHENWARE.

(Hearing before the United States Commissioner.)

CAYEY, P. R., *February 28, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. What industries have you in Cayey?

Mayor MUÑOZ. Only the tobacco industry and the bakery; they are the main industries.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you any other industries on a smaller scale which might be developed?

Mayor MUÑOZ. Yes; earthenware pots are made here.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you the clay here for them?

Mayor MUÑOZ. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the industry an extensive one.

Mayor MUÑOZ. No; it is very small.

Dr. CARROLL. You only make for your own use?

Mayor MUÑOZ. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. How many men are employed in that industry?

Mayor MUÑOZ. I think only about three men.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they make only plain earthenware?

Mayor MUÑOZ. Really, only bricks.

Dr. CARROLL. Where are these earthen pots made?

Mayor MUÑOZ. In Santurce.

THE MANUFACTURE OF SOUP PASTES.

(Hearing before the United States Commissioner.)

PONCE, P. R., *March 3, 1899.*

Mr. ALFRED CASALS:

Mr. CASALS. I find that the new tariff does not protect manufacturers as much as the old tariff did. There are many articles necessary in manufacturing that were treated much better under the old than the new schedules. As a basis I will tell you that a great many young men who are not able to go into agricultural enterprises would go into manufacturing on a small scale, and this would put an end to the plague of office seeking that exists at present. Now, as regards the tariff and its effects upon my own business, which is the making of soup pastes, I don't know whether you are aware of the fact or not, but the manufacture of soup pastes was carried on almost exclusively in Latin countries, being an article of general consumption among people of the Latin race. About 100,000 boxes are used every year in the island, and Spain had an enormous market here for her soup pastes, she being among the first manufacturers of it in the world. Spanish flour was good for making soup paste. American flour is much better adapted for the purpose, because it is richer in gluten. For that reason Spain imposed a tax of \$4 on American flour, while her soup paste came into the island without paying any duty whatever. Consequently the manufacture of pastes here was impossible. The Spanish pastes, which at the beginning of the invasion were paying \$2.75 per 100 kilos, under the new tariff pay a low ad valorem duty, which is preventing competition by the native manufacturers.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the ad valorem equivalent to in specific duty?

Mr. CASALS. That is just where the disadvantage comes in. They declare to their consul the value of the invoice, but in trading with

Spain you can be sure that they never declare over half or quarter of the value of the goods. The pastes have different values, according to the quality of the material used, and the American consul in Spain can not be an expert on that question and must take the values declared to him. The average price for the poor qualities of paste would be \$5 for 100 pounds. Even if they had declared their paste at its price, they would have to pay only about 80 cents on 100 pounds, because the new tariff calls for 15 per cent ad valorem, so that even when truly stated there is a difference between the duty under the old tariff and the duty under the new represented by the difference between \$2.75 and 80 cents. The result of this will be that the industries of the country will be again under the influence of Spanish control. There are two factories in Ponce. Between the two they can make sufficient for the consumption of the whole island. These factories give employment to hundreds of families, and many of the employees are women. If these duties are not modified slightly we will have to discontinue.

Dr. CARROLL. But you have a great advantage in the reduction of flour from \$4 to \$1.

Mr. CASALS. The reduction of the duty gives us about \$1.25 on one hundredweight of paste, whereas the difference in duty on imported pastes gives Spain \$1.95 on one hundredweight of the paste, or a difference of 70 cents on one hundredweight.

Dr. CARROLL. What other materials enter into composition of these pastes?

Mr. CASALS. Only flour and box shooks. Formerly we paid 2 pesos a cubic meter on the shooks, but to-day we pay 16 cents per \$100.

Dr. CARROLL. How do those charges compare?

Mr. CASALS. The present charge works out to about \$2.60 per cubic meter. It depends, however, on the quality of the wood, greener wood weighing more; but it always costs us more than it did before. Consequently our industry, which was exploited always by the Spaniards, is even now in the worst condition.

Dr. CARROLL. Do all the imported soup pastes come from Spain?

Mr. CASALS. Seven-eighths of the soup pastes come from there, the other eighth being divided between Italy and the United States.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the present price per box in the stores?

Mr. CASALS. Eight pesos and a half per 100 pounds.

Dr. CARROLL. What did you sell it for before?

Mr. CASALS. Seven pesos and a half, with competition from Spain. During the last four years our factory has lost more than \$4,000.

Dr. CARROLL. What does the imported paste sell for?

Mr. CASALS. The imported pastes sell about 50 cents less, because of an inferior quality.

Dr. CARROLL. Does it take the market away because it is less in price, notwithstanding that it is inferior in quality?

Mr. CASALS. Yes. At price for price we could command the market, though some of the houses in San Juan try hard to hold the market for the Spanish pastes out of racial sympathy.

Dr. CARROLL. How much ought the tariff to be raised on the Spanish soup paste?

Mr. CASALS. To what it was before, \$2.75. Take away the ad valorem duty, because they always act in bad faith.

Dr. CARROLL. If it were put at \$1, American money, would it give results?

Mr. CASALS. I think that at \$1.50 we would be able to get along. Other foreign pastes do not affect competition.

Dr. CARROLL. If the tariff were raised to what it was before, or to \$1.50 American, then at what price would you sell your soup paste?

Mr. CASALS. We would reduce it immediately a peso per 100 pounds and hold the market. It forms an important part of the food used by the poor people of the island, who buy it in small quantities.

Dr. CARROLL. As regards the undervaluation, it is easily met by your compelling them to prove the value at the custom-house.

Mr. CASALS. That is a good suggestion, but it would be much better if the ad valorem duty were changed to a specific one. It would not give any chance for fraudulent declarations.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any other industries here suffering from the new tariff?

Mr. CASALS. I think that leather is too high and that shoemakers are suffering.

Dr. CARROLL. That duty was to protect the tanners.

Mr. CASALS. As there are none here, no protection is needed.

Dr. CARROLL. There is representation in regard to it in the two documents I have referred to.

Mr. CASALS. Only as to sole leather. The country is destined to have shoe manufacturers here, but the establishment of shoe factories depends on cheapening the price of raw materials.

POSSIBLE INDUSTRIES IN YAUCO.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

YAUCO, P. R., March 6, 1899.

Mr. CIANCHINI, Mr. VIVALDI, and others:

Dr. CARROLL. What industries, Mr. Mayor, are carried on in this district?

Mr. CIANCHINI. Absolutely none.

Dr. CARROLL. Not even on a small scale?

Mr. CIANCHINI. There are shoemakers and hatmakers who work by hand, but that is all. The hats come from Cabo Rojo, not here.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you make any brick in this district?

Mr. CIANCHINI. Yes, but by hand.

Dr. CARROLL. Any tiles?

Mr. CIANCHINI. No. Lime is burned here.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they get the limestone from the mountains?

Mr. CIANCHINI. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that lime ever used on the land in the way of fertilizer?

Mr. CIANCHINI. There is an artificial fertilizer manufactured in Mayaguez in which they use the lime.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it not be possible to develop some industry here that would be of benefit to the town and townspeople by giving employment, and thus help along the prosperity of the municipality?

NOTE.—There was a general response in the affirmative.

Mr. CIANCHINI. That is absolutely necessary, and one of the first things to be attended to. We have a great deal of raw material in the country which could be used for manufacturing to the benefit of everybody.

Dr. CARROLL. What kinds of industries could be established here?

Mr. CIANCHINI. The manufacture of paper.

Dr. CARROLL. Out of what materials?

Mr. CIANCHINI. The bark of several trees, the plantain leaf, corn-stalks, and rags, which are at present put to no use.

A GENTLEMAN. The husk of the cocoanut?

Mr. VIVALDI. No; the husks of the cocoanut are already exported to the United States for manufacture into fiber, which, in turn, is woven into mats.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any other substance for the manufacture of paper?

Mr. VIVALDI. There are several, including those which have been referred to.

Mr. CIANCHINI. Another industry which could be developed is that of rope. This industry would have plenty of raw materials.

Dr. CARROLL. What are the raw materials?

Mr. CIANCHINI. Maguey.

Dr. CARROLL. Does that make good, strong rope?

Mr. CIANCHINI. Yes; it is as good as hemp.

Dr. CARROLL. I saw some rope made of that material, but it was evidently made by hand.

Mr. CIANCHINI. Everything is made by hand, as we have no machinery.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there much maguey?

Mr. CIANCHINI. There is plenty of it, and more could be sown on the poor lands, which are serviceable for that purpose. We could make big plantations of maguey on lands which could be used for nothing else. It grows without cultivation.

Dr. CARROLL. What other materials have you for rope making?

Mr. CIANCHINI. The pine leaves, and, in fact, there are a number of trees here with fibrous materials in them, such as cadillo, guasima, malva, jagua, and many others.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there much demand for rope?

Mr. CIANCHINI. More than we make. We import it from the States.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you clay fit for making pottery?

Mr. CIANCHINI. We have clay suitable both for earthenware and rough pottery.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there not pottery or earthenware made in the island?

Mr. CIANCHINI. Yes; it is made at Ponce.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that a large factory?

Mr. CIANCHINI. No. Now and then they bring a little to sell here in the market place. It is not good work.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any basket making here?

Mr. CIANCHINI. Yes; but only in private houses. They are used in picking coffee.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it not be well to have here a basket factory?

Mr. CIANCHINI. I think so.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you import baskets?

Mr. CIANCHINI. A few of a good class, for family use.

Dr. CARROLL. It seems to me that there ought to be a great demand here for baskets; you hardly seem to have anything to carry your provisions or articles in.

A GENTLEMAN. There is a species of basket which the horses carry, which is made here, and the bakers all have baskets. All of these are made in the island.

Dr. CARROLL. I went to the market yesterday and got some oranges, and could not find a basket or anything else to carry them away in.

Mr. CIANCHINI. They only make enough for August and September for the coffee crops, and for personal use.

Dr. CARROLL. You must have materials here from which you could make coarse sacking, and you use a great deal of sacking here.

A GENTLEMAN. Maguey only.

Dr. CARROLL. What other industries could be started here with materials which you have in abundance?

Mr. CIANCHINI. Soap making. We have all the prime materials for that industry, except two articles—turpentine and caustic soda.

Dr. CARROLL. There is a soap factory in Ponce which claims to be doing a poor business.

Mr. VIVALDI. That is because it makes such bad soap.

Dr. CARROLL. They say that you import a worse soap from Spain, but are used to it, and will not use other kinds.

Mr. VIVALDI. The laundries would not use the soap made in the country, because it contains too much caustic soda and hurts the hands. Before Rocamora soap was used they used French soap, but gave that up because they found the Rocamora soap better.

Dr. CARROLL. In Ponce they said the tariff ought to be increased on foreign soaps to protect the domestic soap.

Mr. MEJIA. The prime material used for soap costs the manufacturers here more than it does over there, and consequently the domestic manufacturers are at a disadvantage. I think if the old tariff were reimposed the manufacturers in this country could raise their prices to any figure they wanted.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think the present tariff should be increased? (There was a unanimous response in the negative.)

A GENTLEMAN. I don't think it would be right to tax all the people for the sake of a few struggling manufacturers. I know the soap factory at Ponce, and it is a very small affair. It can not manufacture enough for the supply of the island. If the tariff were increased they could raise their prices as high as they wished.

Dr. CARROLL. But they say they will have to stop manufacturing unless the tariff is raised a little.

A GENTLEMAN. It would be an unfortunate thing for them, but it would not affect the island generally. We prefer the foreign soaps to-day because they are sold at a less price.

Mr. TORRES. I think, in order to assist the establishment of new industries, that duties on crude materials should be decreased.

A GENTLEMAN. If the duty were taken off of caustic soda, for example, other people than the soap makers would be benefited, because it is not used exclusively in soap making, and it is not produced here.

Dr. CARROLL. The history of industries in the United States shows that if you want to establish a new industry, you have to protect it, and in order to protect it you have to levy a duty upon the same article coming from other countries, which may temporarily raise the price of that article. But it is considered so important to add new industries that the people very cheerfully bear that additional burden, which, as I have said, is only temporary, in order that they may have a new source of employment and a new source of wealth. And it is for the people of Porto Rico to consider whether they want industries established in this island in that way.

Mr. VIVALDI. That is what we want most.

A NATIVE DRUGGIST. I think if the soap industry—taking that industry as a concrete example—could be established in proportion to the requirements of the country, it would be very well; but as things are at present it would be protecting a small industry that could not supply the needs of the island, and they would say we will take advantage of the limited supply by raising the price.

Dr. CARROLL. If you have most of the materials that are needed to make soap here, and need to import only two—turpentine and caustic soda—soap could be produced cheaply here, and it would soon be found that it could be done at a profit. That would draw capital into the industry, and there would perhaps be a dozen factories in different parts of the island, and experience would teach soap makers how to make good soap and make it cheaply. A dozen factories competing for the markets of the island would bring the price down even with or below the price of imported soap.

(This statement of the commissioner was greeted by applause, everyone present at the hearing seeming to participate in it.)

Mr. TORRES. Turning again to the soap industry, I think the proper thing to do would be to charge manufactured soap coming into the island with the amount representing the loss to the Government, by the removal of duties from the raw materials imported for use by the domestic manufacturers, so that the Government should not be the loser by the change.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any other industries you could establish here?

A GENTLEMAN. Yes; candle making.

Dr. CARROLL. Where would you get the tallow?

A GENTLEMAN. There is plenty of tallow and plenty of wax in the country.

Dr. CARROLL. What becomes of the tallow?

A GENTLEMAN. Most of it is exported.

Dr. CARROLL. Candles are very high here; you ought to be able to start a factory in the island.

Mr. VIVALDI. There is no doubt of it. We pay very high for candles.

Dr. CARROLL. You could start such a factory in a small way.

A GENTLEMAN. It has not been done, because nobody has thought of it because of the lack of initiative here. There is no manufacturing here because there is no spirit of cooperation.

Dr. CARROLL. This industry of candle making you can begin on a small scale and almost without capital. In the United States every housewife used to make her own candles. All you need is the tallow and the wick. I understand you have plenty of tallow, and the wick can be imported at a very small rate.

Mr. CIANCHINI. We have cotton here also, and could make our own wicks.

Dr. CARROLL. Then you can import candle molds, made of tin, that are extremely cheap.

A GENTLEMAN. I think, in order to stimulate the establishment of small industries, duty should be abolished on all raw materials.

Dr. CARROLL. What you call raw materials may be the product of some other laborer in the island, and ought, therefore, to have protection. For example, suppose you ask that leather shall be brought in free. There are producers of hides here and tanners, and you would break up their industry.

Mr. VIVALDI. They haven't exported hides here in large quantities. The curing of hides is another industry that could be taken up.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you the bark here for tanning?

Mr. VIVALDI. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. What bark do they use?

Mr. VIVALDI. Mangle. We export a great deal of it to Venezuela and Santo Domingo.

Dr. CARROLL. Why don't you start tanneries of your own?

Mr. VIVALDI. There is one in Ponce, but they only make sole leather. There is, however, more mangle than we could possibly use.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it not be well to bring in a few expert tanners to show you how to produce fine grades of leather, so you could produce your own leather? That would be better than to have leather introduced free.

The DRUGGIST. We export a great deal of leather from here. We export a far greater quantity than we use in the island.

Dr. CARROLL. I have opened this question, gentlemen, because it seems to me extremely important for the future of the island that you should diversify your industries. If you desire prosperity, and prosperity in a large measure, you must establish new industries, because in establishing new industries you give employment to poor people, and as you give employment to the poor people, they get a larger income and become larger consumers; they wear more clothes, and wear more shoes, and Porto Rico will be one of your best markets. That is what we find in the United States; as the condition of the poor is improved, we have more demand for manufactured articles, and for fruits and vegetables which are produced by the farmer.

A GENTLEMAN. That has a bearing on what we were talking about before. The people are naturally moral, but with the small amount they earn, they can not be decent. An indecent state of living is produced here for want of means of living decently. The poor people have no money for marriage, for example.

Mr. TORRES. The shoes produced here are of better quality than the imported ones, but they can not compete with them in price, owing chiefly to the fact that shoes are made here by hand by poor people. We think we can add to the manufacture of shoes and leather also, and work the two in partnership, so to speak, so that we will not have to import any shoes at all. The principal reason why factories have not been started is that there are no capitalists of importance, and those capitalists who have money are certain to obtain from 12 to 18 per cent, and, therefore, keep to the beaten track in which they know their interest is sure, rather than venture into other enterprises. As soon as money comes in here and is loaned out at 6 and 7 per cent, new industries will be started, because capital will have to seek new fields.

SOAP MAKING.

STATEMENT OF SEÑOR MANUEL HEDILLA.

PONCE, P. R., *March 2, 1899.*

During the Spanish domination no soap factory could live, owing to the great advantages given to a large factory established in Barcelona, named Rocamora. Even American soap, although of better quality, could not be sold in this island. Rocamora's soap could be sold at a

very low price, as it was made from oil residues and white earth and was freighted here as ballast, paying a minimum of freight. It was imported here in quantities of 2,500 boxes monthly, which, at \$7, made \$17,500.

When the American Government took possession, all the local manufacturers thought that the hour had arrived for them to be able to compete, especially as coevally with the invasion there was a great demand for our soaps, and for the lots of American soaps as they arrived; but we find ourselves in the same position as before, with no sales, and American soaps equally so. This is owing to the new tariff, which only imposes a duty of 50 cents on Rocamora's soap. It should at least charge as much as was formerly collected—\$1.50 a box; and I must tell you that the new tariff, far from helping us, prejudices us greatly.

You will thus see that if the Rocamora product is not obliged to pay a duty of \$1.50, and caustic soda and rosin allowed free entry into Porto Rico, no soap factory can live here, and not a pound of the American article will find a sale.

FACTORIES IN PORTO RICO.

STATEMENT OF MAYOR CELESTINO DOMINGUEZ.

GUAYAMA, P. R., January, 1899.

The island produces about 60,000 tons of sugar, of which the larger part goes to the United States for refining. Our system of preparation is still the primitive one, except in a few cases, such as Yabucoa, Ponce, Mayaguez, Anasco, Vega Baja, and Loiza, where there are central mills. The other estates use old-fashioned machinery which does not extract all the juice, which I understand should be 15 per cent. The island, with its extensive plains of Arecibo, Mayaguez, Guayama, and Yabucoa, could, with effective machinery, produce three times the quantity now given, and would doubtless thus become happy and prosperous.

There are here an infinity of small industries, infirm, some for want of a field for extension, some for want of protection, some for lack of raw material, which has to be imported, and others for want of a market less limited than the island offers. They are:

Soap factories, which import caustic soda and the larger part of the fatty materials. This does not allow them to compete with foreign manufacturers.

Chocolate factories in Ponce, San Juan, and Mayaguez, which, in spite of suffering from foreign competition, can be built up, as all the raw material is produced in the island.

Bay-rum factories in Vieques, Cabo Rojo, Patillas, and Guayama. This is an exquisite product extracted from the malagueta plant (*Eugenia pimenta*), well known in the United States, and used for the toilet, bath, and in barber shops. This is the only country in the world producing this plant. Owing to prohibitive customs rates its importation into the United States is very limited. An open market would raise the industry to a flourishing position. The writer is the owner of the best plant in the island for this industry, but is able to run it only three months in the year, as there are no buyers for a larger quantity.

Castor-oil factories.—One in San Juan, one in Cayey, and one in Guayama, property of the writer; also the oldest and best in the country. The seed from which the oil is extracted is grown all over the country. The industry can grow to be an important one.

Shoe factories.—There are none working on a large scale, but small establishments are located in every town in the island. Our shoemakers have nothing to learn from those of other parts of the world. In elegance, solidity, and finish they compete with the French and Spanish goods. This industry labors under the disadvantage of high-priced raw materials, and, therefore, can not extend and grow.

Tanneries.—I know of only one maker of sole leather in Mayaguez.

Cheese factories, as such, do not exist, but all over the island, especially in those parts where cattle are abundant, Cabo Rojo, Salinas, Arecibo, Santa Isabel, Guayama, Yauco, excellent cheeses are made, but they are not manufactured with a view to keeping, and do not keep long. They can be much improved in the manufacturing.

Preserved fruits.—We know of one only, in Mayaguez, which prepares the native fruits in cans. The quantity produced does not suffice for export.

Alcohol, rum, and liquors.—As rum and aguardiente are by-products of sugar, most of the cane estates make them. Besides this, there are stills established in several towns which turn out an excellent quality. There are also in San Juan, Ponce, Mayaguez, Guayama, Patillas, and other towns factories of gin, aniseed, and other liquors of various qualities. This branch of industry has a great future in Porto Rico, as a large quantity of excellent rum can be produced.

Aerated waters.—There are three in the island—San Juan, Mayaguez, and Ponce. They produce but a limited quantity, which is consumed in the same towns and their immediate limits.

Iron and brass foundries and machine shops.—I understand that there is one in San Juan and another in Ponce, but they can only make simple machines and pieces requiring small skill. This industry can be made a prosperous one.

Sawmills.—One in Ponce and one in Mayaguez; not very flourishing.

Pottery.—No real factories. In Santurce, San Lorenzo, Yabucoa, and other towns pitchers, jugs, and pots, and other similar articles are made. The raw material is excellent and plentiful.

Petroleum refinery.—One in Cataño, which is said to bring the oil in already refined, and only has to change the lid of the cases—a monopoly, fortunately abolished now, which only served to enrich a commercial house in San Juan, to the prejudice of the whole country.

Cigar factories.—This industry is certain to assume large proportions, as large quantities of the leaf are produced and the quality can compete with the best Cuban. There are two large factories in Cayey, one the "Bella Rosita," the other of Rucabado Brothers. The product of M. Lopez's establishment—the first named—is the standard of excellence in Porto Rico and enjoys a good reputation in Europe. There are also important factories in Ponce, San Juan, and Mayaguez, and in many other towns of the island.

Cigarette factories.—There are only two in the country, one called the Colectiva, and another in Ponce, the Internacional. Their product is excellent and competes with the Cuban.

Starch factories.—Are really none, but an excellent quality is made in many parts of the island.

Ice factories.—Several in the island, two in San Juan, one in Mayaguez, and three in Ponce. The product is consumed in these towns and immediate limits.

Limekilns.—The prime article is so abundant that lime is made in many places.

Fertilizers.—One in Mayaguez only, besides natural fertilizers on the Mona Island, in the Mona Passage.

Hat manufacturers.—One in Ponce only, who uses Italian straw and also makes felt hats.

Cocoanut oil.—No manufactories of this article. There is abundance of crude material, and a small amount is made in Cabo Rojo.

Coffee-polishing mills.—Both Ponce and Mayaguez, as well as many estate owners, have them.

FEW INDUSTRIES IN THE ISLAND.

STATEMENT OF SEÑOR DE GAZTAMIDE.

YAUCO, P. R., *November 20, 1898.*

Industries in this country are very rare and poor. They should be nurtured, giving free entry to all classes of machinery and certain articles not produced in the island, constituting the crude material for manufactories. The tariff in this respect requires conscientious study, so as to facilitate the establishment of factories to-day nonexistent, while not going to the extreme of an exaggerated protection.

Commerce is suffering the consequences of a decadent agriculture, high exchange, and heavy taxation. Its salvation lies in the modification of the tariffs and the increase in the number of banks, to break down the monopoly enjoyed by the Spanish Bank in this direction.

Agriculture is in decadence, thanks to the dearth of articles of prime necessity, the want of capital, and the high rates of interest. The situation would be somewhat ameliorated by the establishment of coasting trade (cabotaje) with the metropolis and the change of currency with a discount of 33 centavos per peso, debts to be liquidated in equal proportion. Besides this, it is necessary to help the establishment of agricultural banks which would lend money at low rates and for long periods, seeing that the only establishment of this nature can not, by a long way, fill the needs of the island.

HOW TO HELP MANUFACTURERS.

STATEMENT OF SEÑOR ANTONIO SANCHEZ RUIZ.

AGUADA, P. R., *November 12, 1898.*

I am of opinion that the free importation should be allowed of all machinery necessary for the manufacture of the crude materials produced in this country, including medicinal plants so necessary to the wants of the climate. This would in great measure remove the difficulties under which manufacturers labor, and would tend to the aggrandizement of this piece of American soil by the positive advantages given to our manufactures in foreign markets.

It is clear that the growth of manufactures would greatly increase commercial prosperity, but it is very necessary that food stuffs be subject to small imposts only. This would be of great advantage to our indigent classes, victims to-day of the high price of food and their scanty means of procuring them. In compensation, the loss occasioned by this reduction could be made up by the heavier taxation of articles of luxury, necessarily paid by the wealthy classes.

NASCENT INDUSTRIES.

STATEMENT OF MAYOR EUSTAQUIO TORRES.

GUAYANILLA, P. R., *November 7, 1898.*

Industries are in the most lamentable condition. The enormous duties levied on the importation of machinery, tools, etc., necessary for the use of the most simple manufactures, with the view of protecting peninsular industries, smothered at birth all initiative, and killed the germ of progress in this important branch. It is necessary, therefore, to harmonize insular interests with the legitimate interests of the metropolis, facilitating as much as possible the growth of nascent industries and of those which under a frank and free protection might be begun.

CAPITAL NEEDED.

STATEMENT OF SEÑOR P. SANTISTEBAN Y CHARIVARI, SPANISH MERCHANT.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 28, 1898.*

The manufacturing industry of the island is extremely insignificant, being reduced to the manufacture of cigars, cigarettes, macaroni, chocolate, ice, matches, and the distillation of rum. These industries are lacking altogether in vigor, and can only be strengthened by the introduction of capital necessary to enable them to compete with foreign countries. It is possible to manufacture here paper, beer, canned goods (meat and fish as well as fruits), cordage, textile fabrics from vegetable fibers, which could be harvested at a small cost, and among which can be named the maguey; also cabinet works which could use the excellent woods growing on the mountains of this island, and there could also be established to advantage smelting works to reduce our excellent ores, such as manganese, iron, copper, lead, etc.

LIQUORS AND TOBACCO.

PRELIMINARY REPORT OF THE COMMISSIONER.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *January 11, 1899.*

The SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY,
Washington, D. C.

SIR: I have the honor to present herewith returns which I have gathered with reference to the manufacture and sale of liquors and tobacco in the island of Porto Rico. Late in November a circular letter in Spanish was sent to the alcaldes of each of the seventy-one municipal districts, including the island of Vieques. The questions asked had reference to the number of distilleries, the annual product thereof, the number of bay rum distilleries, with their annual product, the number of wholesale liquor dealers, the number of retail liquor dealers, the number of manufacturers of cigars, and the number of manufacturers of cigarettes. After no little difficulty, I am able to present substantially complete returns from all these districts and for the various items, estimates taking the places of returns in only six instances, namely, the annual product of the two native rum distilleries in Mocha, the product of the bay rum distillery in Rio Piedras,

the product of the two bay rum distilleries in Vieques, and the number of retail liquor dealers in Toa Baja, Vega Alta, and Vega Baja. Although I have made diligent use of the mails and also of the telegraph, I have failed to secure returns in these few cases. I believe the statistics may be taken as quite trustworthy. They are from the official head of the municipal district in each case, and the returns from which the inclosed statement is compiled bear the stamp of the *alcaldia* or the signature of the *alcalde* himself. At present there are but sixty-nine municipal districts, there having been a consolidation in two or three cases.

It should be understood that the distilleries of alcoholics are nearly all appendages of sugar estates, and the product is therefore a by-product. The molasses which is obtained from the cane, after the sugar has been almost entirely extracted, is the raw material for the making of this rum, which is manufactured very cheaply and consumed in large quantities by the natives. The process of distilling does not go on constantly, but begins after the sugar-making season is over and while another crop of cane is coming to maturity. When the price of sugar is low the product of rum is likely to be increased, and vice versa.

A considerable quantity of artificial wines is made in the island with the native rum as the base. Raisins are steeped in it, and the product, which is flavored by certain chemicals, is bottled and sold as a cheap wine, the duties on good wines forbidding the general use of the imported article. Not only wines, but cordials, such as peppermint, aniseed, vermouth, absinthe, gin, and other varieties which are used as after-dinner beverages, are produced. Brandy is also made here from pure alcohol with burnt sugar and other ingredients. It is stated to be quite a general practice among retail liquor dealers to prepare their own liquors, in many cases using ingredients which are regarded as destructive to health.

It will be observed that there are 198 distilleries of alcoholics in Porto Rico. The municipality which has the largest number is Cabo Rojo, which is in the southwestern part of the island, near Mayaguez, but the largest output is from the 7 distilleries of Arceibo, which yield annually 294,000 gallons. The total number of gallons produced is 1,615,075. As there is no special motive for concealing the product of the distilleries, it is not believed that there is any illicit distilling.

The number of bay rum distilleries is 28, with an annual output of 15,143 gallons. Bay rum is produced from the alcohol which is made from the native rum, in which leaves of the malagueta tree are steeped.

The number of wholesale liquor dealers is 246, and of retail liquor dealers 2,445. There are no data with regard to the amount of sales, either of the wholesale or the retail dealers. It is possible, however, to arrive at approximate figures concerning the consumption of liquors in the island by reference to the official report of the commerce of the island for 1897, which gives both the imports and the exports. It appears from that report that the imports for 1897 of spirituous liquors, wines, beer, etc., amounted to 1,386,249 gallons, which, together with the total products of the 198 distilleries in the island, viz, 1,615,075 gallons, makes a total of 3,001,324 gallons. But there was sent out of the country by exportation and reexportation 103,521 gallons, leaving a net total of 2,897,803 gallons as representing the probable consumption of a year. How much of the native rum produced by the distilleries is used for mechanical, chemical, and other purposes it is impossible to state.

Of course the alcohol which goes into the manufacture of artificial wines and of bay rum is produced from the native rum. It is not improbable that the real total is somewhat larger than that indicated, from the fact that retail dealers, according to common report, are in the habit of increasing their stock by artificial means. The rum produced at the distilleries is of sufficiently high proof to allow of being considerably reduced by retail dealers in selling it as a beverage. Of the total imports in 1897, 50,129 gallons were of spirituous liquors; 1,186,971 gallons of wines, and 149,149 gallons of beer and cider. Of the exports, 84,654 gallons were of aguardiente de caña, or native rum, produced from sugar cane. The first cost of the production of native rum is estimated to be about 30 cents a gallon. This includes the value of the material and cost of distillation, together with insurance, cartage, etc. I am informed that the plantation price is from 40 to 45 centavos per gallon. The wholesale price quoted in the San Juan papers is from 50 to 55 centavos per gallon.

No excise taxes have been levied by the insular government. Stills belonging to sugar estates have been considered as part of the sugar machinery and have paid nothing unless they bought materials and did distilling for other parties. Distilleries separate from sugar estates pay so much per 100 litros capacity of the boiler or receptacle of the raw material in which the boiling is done. The rate is \$6 per year for each 100 litros capacity. For common stills the rate is \$2 per year, and for the manufacture of aniseed or other liquors on a small scale, \$3 a year. This tax is levied for the benefit of the insular government.

Retail dealers of liquors pay no special tax unless their business is confined entirely to the sale of liquors. Almost every grocery store sells liquors and tobacco, and such stores pay an annual tariff according to the class of cities in which they are situated. In San Juan, Ponce, and Mayaguez they pay \$40 a year. In the next grade of cities, \$33; in cities of 12,000 population or more, \$26; in cities of from 8,000 to 12,000, \$20; from 4,000 to 8,000, \$16; less than 4,000, \$11. If cigars are manufactured in connection with the store an additional tax is charged.

Wholesale liquor dealers pay a tax graded in a similar way from \$130 down to \$31. Cafés and restaurants pay rates graded from \$81 down to \$20, and clubs where liquor is sold, 50 per cent of these rates.

By virtue of an order issued by General Guy V. Henry, military commander of the island, under date of December 30, 1898, modifying the consumption tax as levied by municipalities on bread, beef, mutton, and pork, a special tax is now allowed to be levied on the sale of liquors and tobacco, as follows:

For every liquor or tobacco store or stand:

In towns of from 5,000 to 10,000 population	\$50.00
In towns of from 10,000 to 15,000 population	60.00
In towns of from 15,000 to 20,000 population	70.00
In towns of more than 20,000 population	80.00

These rates are for the sale of liquors and tobacco, and are additional to the rates levied on the business of groceries and restaurants. Municipalities may ask larger amounts on licenses issued to wholesale dealers in liquors and tobacco.

There are no breweries in the island, but about twenty brewing companies have agencies here for the sale of their products. All but one are United States firms. The exception is a Copenhagen, Denmark, company.

There is, naturally, a difference of opinion on the question of levying an internal-revenue tax on the production of liquors. One agricultural proprietor says a tax on the output of the cane distilleries would not only ruin the business, but seriously affect the sugar producers, who depend upon the rum they make, in many instances, to put a balance on the right side of the accounts. Another proprietor says it will simply result in raising the price of rum to the consumer. He holds that if men want drink they will pay for it. Others, not directly interested in the cane crop, insist that an internal-revenue tax on rum would be a good thing. It is now the common beverage of the poorer classes, because it is very cheap; imported wines, which pay under the existing tariff a total tax of 30 cents, being much too costly for general consumption. Its effects on the consumer are said to be injurious, and it would be a measure in the interests of health and good morals, according to philanthropists, so to tax native rum and artificial liquors as to lessen their consumption and lead to the more general use of light wines.

The number of cigar manufacturers is 108, and of cigarette manufacturers 27. The inquiries were limited because of the information that it would be impossible to get definite returns for other items. There are no official figures relating to the annual production of tobacco. It is only possible to approximate the figures by estimates. There are two ways of doing this. It is believed that two-thirds of the annual production have been exported. The amount exported in 1897 was 6,267,327 pounds. One-half of that, which it is estimated was consumed in the island the same year, is 3,133,663, making a total of 9,400,990 pounds. One of the leading tobacco dealers in the island makes the following estimate by districts for 1898:

Tobacco districts.	Bales produced.	Tobacco districts.	Bales produced.
Cayey	4,300	Yauco	10,000
Cortá abajo	12,000	Juncos	4,000
Arecibo	25,000		
Caguas	30,000		85,000

Bales weigh about 100 pounds each.

In addition to the number of cigar and cigarette manufacturers reported in this table, there is a large quantity of tobacco manufactured into cigars and cigarettes in private houses, especially into cigars. Most of the cigars consumed in the island have been made here, while most of the cigarettes have been imported from Cuba. Since the same rates in customs duties were imposed on Cuban cigarettes as are imposed on those imported from other countries, it is believed that the imports from that island have fallen off almost entirely. Native production has therefore been greatly stimulated. There is a steam factory in San Juan which produces 400,000 cigarettes daily, all of which are sold in Porto Rico. There is another steam factory in Ponce. Formerly manufactures of tobacco from Cuba were admitted to this island without the payment of any customs duty except the payment of the 10 per cent transitory tax, amounting to about 4 cents per kilo. It is estimated by a committee appointed by the chamber of commerce of Ponce that there are about 250,000 smokers in the island and that the average daily consumption of cigarettes is about 200,000 packages.

Very respectfully,

HENRY K. CARROLL,
Commissioner.

Liquors and tobacco manufacturers and dealers.

Municipal district.	Number of distilleries.	Annual product in gallons.	Number of bay rum distilleries.	Annual product in gallons.	Whole-sale liquor dealers.	Retail liquor dealers.	Cigar manufacturers.	Cigarette manufacturers.
Adjuntas						54	1	1
Aguas-buenas					3	6	5	
Aguadilla	5	66,137			10	60	2	2
Anasco	5	19,709			2	28		
Aibonito						25		
Arroyo			1	13	3	8	2	2
Aguada	7	25,780				13	1	
Arecibo	7	294,000			9	157	8	3
Bayamon	2	65,016	1	350	2	40		
Barceloneta	1	27,249				20		
Barras						30		
Barranquitas						23		
Carolina	2	152,000			4	15		
Caguas	3	12,600			3	66	6	
Cayey					5	24	2	1
Cidra					3	81	3	
Camuy	6	15,000			6	15		
Cabo-rojo	14	14,782				46		
Ceiba						6		
Comerio						17	1	1
Ciales					5	45		
Corozal	1	2,142				15	2	
Coamo	2	14,417			6	32	3	1
Dorado	1	17,724			1	15		
Fajardo	8	24,000	1	300	3	23	6	
Gurabo	3	2,119			3	30	1	
Guayanilla	3	26,475			2	28		
Guayama	9	62,911				45	9	
Hato Grande	2	9,530			1	25		
Hatillo	3	18,518			2	14		
Hormigueros	5	23,102			3	8		
Humacao	2	25,000			2	52	1	2
Isabela	2	11,000			2	61		
Juncos	5	38,089			5	31		
Juana Diaz	8	9,521				40	3	
Loiza					2	23	5	
Larcs						29		
Lajas	6	7,390			6	30	5	
Las Marias	2	5,294				20		
Luquillo						3		
Manati	2	19,047			1	29	4	
Morovis	1	3,000			1	25		
Moca	2	12,000			2	10		
Mayaguez	7	52,910	1	661	30	100	7	7
Maricao						32		
Mannabo	3	15,000	1	9,259	9	18		
Naranjito						7	2	
Naguabo	1	8,300				14		
Ponce	9	27,893	11	2,790	31	198	4	4
Penuelas						22		
Patillas	4	62,626				36		
Piedras	3	3,174				6	1	1
Quebradillas	1	7,936			1	25		
Rio-grande	3	30,000				30	1	
Rio-piedras	6	18,000	1	100	3	64		
Rincon	2	36,000						
San Juan	1	7,000	9	1,500	40	130	20	2
San Sebastian	3	8,206				40	3	
Sabana-grande					2	50		
San German	3	2,110			5	66		
Salinas	2	76,899			1	8		
Santa Isabel	1	2,645				30		
Tor-alta	2	24,000			1	30	7	
Tor-baja	3	14,400				8		
Trujillo-alto						6		
Utuado	6	15,872				84		
Vega-alta	2	52,285				8		
Vega-baja	2	42,327			3	12		
Vieques	4	8,000	2	200	4	12		
Yanco	9	38,680			12	35		
Yabucoa	3	58,000			3	46		
Total	198	1,615,075	28	15,143	246	2,445	168	27

COMMERCE, FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC.

BUSINESS METHODS.

[Hearing before United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., November 1, 1898.

MR. SASTERIA FRANCESCA. Importations formerly were made on a half scale in Porto Rico, that is to say, were imported over and above the needs of the island, because the importers could get a year's credit from Paris, London, or Hamburg commission houses. These merchants or importers when they sold to smaller houses charged them from the date of invoice one-half per cent interest outside of their commission on the merchandise shipped, while they only paid their bankers at the rate of 4 per cent a year. Moreover these importers sold that very merchandise on long terms to merchants in the interior—these terms extending as long as a year and a half, in some cases—and generally sold at wholesale at higher prices than were paid by retail at the rates prevailing in the capital. These merchants of the interior would do exactly the same thing in turn with the smaller merchants of the country, selling to them on long terms, and charging them at least 10 per cent a month on the invoice value, and often from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

This class of smaller merchants in the interior consists for the most part of cultivators, and it is a very important matter to be considered that these small cultivators are charged at least 35 per cent per annum over and above any profit realized in any country in the world. The results of that system have been that at least one-quarter of the small proprietors in the island, buying in that way, in the period of five years have all lost their estates, the estates going into the hands of Spanish merchants who commenced selling goods on credit without any capital to speak of, and who after five or ten years have become worth \$20,000 and even \$50,000. The estates on which they held mortgages were unable to produce sufficient to pay back at the half rates that were collected. When the relations between the United States and Spain became strained the merchants here became afraid, saying that nearly their whole capital consisted of bills receivable and other forms of credits owing from creditors throughout the island. This alarm was increased by the Spanish bank declining to renew on first-class indorsements except by paying off on the principal amount at 25 per cent for every renewal. As a matter of fact, big importing houses have to follow the same system and their customers, the interior merchants, have had to do the same with large and small estate owners. The result of that is that to-day all transactions are done on a spot-cash basis throughout the island, and the current stock of merchandise in merchants' stocks and warehouses does not amount to one-third of what it was before the war. The prospect is that this state of things will continue, because every merchant is convinced that the extraordinary credit allowed in Porto Rico has been the cause of much mischief, for any person who knows Porto Rico never thinks of attempting to collect money through the courts, as they invariably protect the man who owes against the man to whom the debt is due. The Spanish law intrinsically may be as good as any law elsewhere, but it will never be enforced so long as the judges receive no salary.

COMMERCIAL BUSINESS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., November 5, 1898.

Dr. CARROLL. What do you consider the most important matter respecting the future of Porto Rico?

Mr. MANUEL EGOZCUE, Vice President Provincial Deputation. The establishment of a Territorial form of government.

Dr. CARROLL. We have had a number of statements with respect to the money question. We have had less about commerce and mercantile business than anything else, and I would be pleased if you would tell me something about that.

Mr. EGOZCUE. Commercial business in Porto Rico is entirely in the hands of the Spaniards. Porto Ricans hardly have any representatives in it at all. The commerce of this island is in the hands of very active men, and also of men of means, who will distribute money over the island. Lately there has been an extensive grant of credit to storekeepers in the interior, and a great many of these having failed, the critical stage of affairs has resulted. Commerce without a doubt has built up agriculture, but unfortunately agriculturists have not attended to the prompt payment of their debts, but have used the amounts which they have been able to get together for the purpose of buying new estates. It would be a great desideratum to-day for the commerce of Porto Rico to obtain a low tariff between here and the United States, or, better still, to have free trade. I am in favor of indirect taxation, as against direct taxation. In any case the amount need not be so great as it formerly was, as we have removed from our estimates, or will do so, the clergy of Rome, and to a great extent pensioners. The poor of the island would not feel taxation so heavily if it were indirect and through the custom house.

Dr. CARROLL. Would you have a high tariff with all other nations than the United States?

Mr. EGOZCUE. It would certainly be well to have a high tariff, because with very few exceptions everything we consume could be bought there, and this would interest the people to protect the trade of the island and of the United States.

Dr. CARROLL. What are the exceptions you refer to that can not be bought in the United States?

Mr. EGOZCUE. There is no olive oil in the United States.

Dr. CARROLL. Yes, there is lots of it there.

Mr. EGOZCUE. One of the things we could not get would be the Spanish peas, which is a staple food here. As to the textile fabrics, we know nothing of them, because, owing to the heavy duties, we have not been able to import them. The article of food which is consumed here by all classes is rice. East India rice is generally used by the poor and working classes, while the better classes use the Valencia rice, which is a better quality. That would be one of the exceptions.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you never heard of the Carolina rice?

Mr. EGOZCUE. No; I never did.

Dr. CARROLL. I understand that the Spanish idea of the United States was that our chief products were pork and a poor class of machinery.

Mr. EGOZCUE. Yes, and it was their object to make everybody here believe it, too.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the mercantile trade here divided into the usual classes, retail and wholesale, or are most of the articles that are needed by the retail trade imported through commission houses on order?

Mr. EGOZCUE. A great many of the retailers imported directly for their own consumption. Some of them who are really retailers buy everything of the local merchants. Besides the wholesalers there are commission merchants, who are generally the bankers and owners of steamship lines.

Dr. CARROLL. Do the wholesale houses here have drummers going through the island to sell their goods?

Mr. EGOZCUE. Not as a general rule. Generally a wholesale house will send one of its employees around the island, chiefly to find how its customers are getting along, and when it finds them all right it tries to sell them goods. Most of the small houses in the interior have their own houses in the city where they have an open credit. For instance, in the cities of Toa-alta and Ciales every merchant and business interest buys from me exclusively at four or six months, or from harvest to harvest, and all the produce from this district comes to me in payment of merchandise.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it common to charge high interest on those long-term credits?

Mr. EGOZCUE. For terms longer than four months usually 8 or 9 per cent is charged.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it not extremely difficult to introduce new goods to the people of Porto Rico? If you wanted to introduce something new in dress goods, for instance, how would you go about it?

Mr. EGOZCUE. By advertising, and also by sending around printed lists stating that the goods had arrived, were of such and such quality and description. These lists we would send around to all our customers through the island.

Dr. CARROLL. What per cent of their sales do the wholesale merchants generally expect to lose in the way of bad debts?

Mr. EGOZCUE. That is not an easy question to answer. Sometimes I don't lose more than \$2,000 or \$3,000 in a year in bad debts, but if harvest is bad there is a heavier loss. Things now are better because merchants generally are not selling goods to persons except of recognized standing.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there not an enormous number of retail shopkeepers in this island?

Mr. EGOZCUE. No; there is plenty of room for more business.

Dr. CARROLL. There seem to be a great many of them in this city.

Mr. EGOZCUE. They all do business, and as a proof of this it can be stated that shopkeepers are constantly retiring from business, leaving the country, and taking with them twenty, thirty, forty, and even as high as eighty thousand dollars.

Dr. CARROLL. You said that the mercantile business was generally in the hands of Spaniards. I want to ask how it is that they have obtained control of the retail business in this island. Is it that they are better business men than the Porto Ricans, or are they more thrifty and live on less?

Mr. EGOZCUE. Not by reason of any superior intelligence, but because of the protection they give one another. Take my case, for example. Although I was born here, I was educated in Spain, and I desired to obtain a mercantile career. I had difficulty in getting a position in a Spanish house. When I did get one I commenced by

sweeping out the store. The Spaniards prefer to take an employee who is a relative, or some one recommended to them by their friends in Spain. In this way commerce has become a sort of close corporation.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that system likely now to be interrupted and perhaps entirely broken up, owing to the change of allegiance of the island from Spain to the United States?

Mr. EGOZCUE. The Spaniards are of the same mind as before. I have been urging Porto Ricans to go into business, and I have met with a great deal of opposition from the Spaniards. I have been able to persuade two to open retail grocery stores. I believe there will be a great future for Americans who will come down here and establish themselves with Porto Ricans, so that little by little as the Spaniards go from the country the new commerce will gradually be introduced.

Dr. CARROLL. How much profit does the retail merchant generally expect to make on his goods?

Mr. EGOZCUE. It is absolutely impossible to reply to that question. Retailers generally take advantage of the scarcity of an article to raise prices, and when there is an abundance of the article they drop their prices. The system in San Juan is absolutely cash. The wholesale houses sell to the retailer on cash terms, and the retailers sell in the same way.

Dr. CARROLL. Then, I suppose, the wholesale dealers in that case have to sell on a small margin of profit.

Mr. EGOZCUE. Yes; they have to content themselves with small profit, but they do very well.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that cash system also established in Ponce, Mayaguez, and Aguadilla?

Mr. EGOZCUE. There also. What I mean by cash is payment at the end of a week or ten days. No accounts are opened.

Dr. CARROLL. That is really the valuable trade of the island, is it not?

Mr. EGOZCUE. Those three points are the most important, and here there are stores, if they could be supplied with American capital, whose business would be increased very much, as they have a large following in the country. To-day the tendency is to buy from Porto Ricans, and if that tendency increases I will have to buy twice as much as I do to supply the demand.

Dr. CARROLL. One complaint which the American visitors make is that the retail dealers have no fixed prices for their goods; that what they ask at first is a much larger price than they expect to get.

Mr. EGOZCUE. It is a bad custom of the country, and it is owing to the fact that the peasant from the country is never satisfied with the first price asked him, but always insists on a reduction on the price stated. This has naturally led the merchants to raise the price above the figure at which they are willing to sell their goods.

Dr. CARROLL. Perhaps if a few Americans came here and set an example it would be followed by their merchants.

Mr. EGOZCUE. I think it would be. Everybody wants to drop the old custom so as to make an epoch in our commercial life. Perhaps if one started all would follow.

Dr. CARROLL. Have the retail merchants and wholesale merchants any society here?

Mr. EGOZCUE. They have a sort of club which is more of a social institution than anything else, in which they have to pay a small fee

for membership. I don't know whether it has been dissolved or whether it is still existing. The merchants of higher rank usually meet and expound their views in the chamber of commerce.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the chamber of commerce a somewhat large body?

Mr. EGOZCUE. Under Spanish rule it was a very important body because it was the official chamber of commerce, but it was a Spanish body. To-day the press and public opinion are beginning to ask that the native Porto Rican shall be represented in it.

Dr. CARROLL. Have they been excluded hitherto?

Mr. EGOZCUE. Almost entirely.

Dr. CARROLL. The newspapers in the United States have told us, through some of their correspondents down here, that the people are very much wedded to one style of goods, and that they would not take to new goods. Does that correctly represent the situation here?

Mr. EGOZCUE. I consider that the question of price is all important. I think we can introduce new goods here if we can get them at a sufficiently low price. If we have free trade here, and a high protective tariff against other countries, we shall have to introduce goods from the United States, but in any event I think if merchants take some trouble to prepare the public for the receipt of these goods they will be quite acceptable.

WAR PRICES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., November 5, 1899.

Dr. CARROLL. I wish you could give us some notion about the prices here relative to dry goods before the war and now since the war. There are some people who have come here from America who say that the people are robbing them; that they are putting the prices up, and that they are in a conspiracy to extract from the American consumers all they can, and I would like to have a statement as to this matter.

Mr. ANDREAS CROSAS. Previous to the war as exchange went up on the United States to 80 per cent, it was natural to expect that provisions would increase in proportion, but they really did not. Dry goods remained about stationary. During the war there was hardly any business done. Those who had a little business were the provision merchants. When provisions commenced to get a little short here the Captain-General decreed that no provisions should be taken out of the city, so that what little there was in the country they had to do the best they could with. As I foresaw that the Government was going to pounce on these provisions, I bought a large supply for myself. Then it was that Hamburg rice, for instance, was worth \$5 and \$5.25 a quintal. It ran up to \$7.50 and \$8, but dry goods dragged along and they did not sell \$5 worth in any of these stores, but now since the war is over business has revived a little, principally provisions, and some lines of dry goods. Building material and everything of that kind is stagnant yet. Provisions have decreased some, according to the rate of exchange. Dry goods have kept the old prices, and these prices are not exorbitant in reality. You can get many articles in dry goods down here cheaper than in the city of New York. I know of several ladies who have bought articles of clothing cheaper, they said, than they could buy them in the States. A lady was telling me of a lawn that she bought for \$1.50, for which she had to pay \$1 more in gold in

New York. There is a custom here, however, very different from that in New York, and it is a Latin custom. You go into a store, for example, to buy an article worth \$4 and they will ask you \$5. They expect you to beat them down and then they come down to the real value. If they know you are not of the kind that beat merchants down, they will ask the real price first. I bought some cigars the other day. When I asked how much they were the cigar man said \$3. I told him I would not give him \$3 for them, and he asked me what I would give. I said \$2.50, and I got the cigars. Pretty soon an American came in and asked me what I paid for the cigars and I told him \$2.50, but when he priced the cigars the cigar man asked him \$3. I told the dealer not to act foolishly; to sell the cigars for \$2.50, and assured him that Americans don't beat down. He said he did not know that that was the custom among them.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that custom you have described universal here?

Mr. CROSAS. Yes.

THE IMPORTS OF PORTO RICO.

STATEMENT OF MIGUEL I. ARSUAGA, OF THE COMMERCIAL AND BANKING FIRM OF SOBRINOS DE EZQUIAGA.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *December 5, 1898.*

Merchandise generally imported from the United States consists of herrings, machine oil, beans, pease, some dry goods, wheat flour, corn flour, bacon, lard, hams, beer, canned goods, brooms, whisky, crackers, sausages, petroleum, paper, maizena, thread, fencing wire in rolls, pepper, macaronies, soap, paraffin, spices, oysters, notions, plows, Florida water, blacking, drugs, codfish, potatoes, bicycles, lumber, shucks, specie, safes, salted meats, chairs, butter, glass, manufactures of iron, furniture, and some few other manufactures and provisions which for years have been imported from the United States both before and after the Spanish-American treaty of commerce.

Merchandise imported into Porto Rico from other countries is rice, dry goods, hardware, machinery, wines, liquors, canned goods, cheese, dried fruits, mineral waters, oils, olives, notions, jewelry, furniture, frijoles (beans), gin, perfumery, ready-made clothing, codfish, umbrellas, fruit jellies, Spanish candies, sweets, French beans, chick-peas, potatoes, raisins, dried plums, and many other goods, as well as almost all the articles brought from the United States, which are ordered in the markets where quotations happen to be lowest, or whose tariffs give the most advantage.

Merchandise which could be imported from the United States if there were free coasting trade (cabotaje) would comprise everything now brought from Europe of which an equivalent exists in the United States and the goods now imported from there. In time the whole, or nearly all, the importations would come from the north, as American usages and customs were gradually introduced.

The present difference of fashions of dressing, etc., will cause some time to elapse before this country acquires the same tastes and customs as the American; and this holds goods with several articles of food and drink, owing to the difference of the American and Spanish table. These will be overcome by assimilation in time, and then everything made in the States will find a market here. The tariff would play a very important part in the question in favor of the United

States—molding customs, usages, and the tastes of the people, if necessary, in a more or less short period. The hardest goods to obtain in the United States to fill public tastes will be foot wear, women's hats, some articles of food and drink usually obtained in Spain, France, and England; also fancy articles and novelties.

European countries compete favorably with the prices of the United States, as merchants there quote lower prices than in America; freights are lower, and maritime commerce is proportionately less. In imports of consideration these items do not pass unperceived. The question of tonnage and charges thereon¹ will be a very important matter for this island once the sugar crop commences, owing to the exclusive coasting trade under the American flag between this island and the States. This measure has not yet resulted in an increase of tonnage under that flag, and it is feared that it will be confined to steamships, whereas sailing ships are required for freighting sugar, molasses, and rum, otherwise freights will rise and harm considerably the agricultural and commercial interests of the island. Formerly the competition of foreign flags kept down freights between the island and the United States, as ships of various nationalities calling at the French islands, Barbados and St. Thomas, in ballast sought freight for the United States chiefly in Cuba and Porto Rico. The English flag, owing to the number of its merchant marine, was most abundant and its freights lowest.

The importation of merchandise is chiefly as follows: Textiles, Spain, France, England, and a small amount from United States; ready-made clothing, from Spain—this article is hardly used here; hardware and machinery, Spain, France, England, Germany, Belgium, Holland, and United States; food stuffs of general consumption, Spain, France, England, Germany, Holland, Belgium, and United States; canned goods, Spain, France, England, and United States; wines and liquors, Spain, France, and Italy; stationery, Spain, United States, England, France, and Germany; furniture, Spain, United States, Austria, Italy, and local manufacture; lumber, United States chiefly. The island produces fine lumber for building purposes, boards, beams, planks, cabinet woods, and woods of great beauty for canes, etc. The woods mostly used in building are American white and pitch pine. Houses are built of wood with galvanized zinc roofs imported from England, with roofs sometimes of shingles imported from the United States. In the principal cities, houses are of mixed stone and brick, with roofs of the same material.

Goods imported from the United States and Europe are of the sizes and weights usually demanded for this trade, and come in packages subject to the same demands, or merchants send special instructions according to their special needs. The weights and measurements are usually the common ones current in all countries, as regards textiles, hardware, food stuffs, canned goods, wines, liquors, etc.

THE YAUCO MARKET.

YAUCO, P. R., *March 5, 1899.*

The market place in Yauco is a large square in the center of the town, on one side of which is the alcaidia. From early in the morning (Sunday is market day) until 11 o'clock, this square was crowded

¹ Note by translator: By tonnage is here meant ownership or nationality of bottoms.

with market people and others doing their marketing. Some were selling vegetables only; others were selling corazones, cacao, and some vegetables, including cucumbers. Others were selling yams, water cresses, radishes, tomatoes, bananas, achiote or annatto, beans, peas, beef, fat bacon, lard, codfish, fresh fish, coffee, sugar, tobacco twists, cigars, rice, bread, sirups used as sweet drinks, mabby (a native drink), and butter. Besides, there were venders of hats which, they stated, were brought from Cabo Rojo; also small notions, such as cheap laces, collar buttons, cheap ornaments, etc. At one stand where various provisions were being sold, including lard from an American can, a young native who was assisting in the sales was very skillful in wrapping up the various articles sold. He was able to wrap up rice in small sheets of paper, seemingly too small for the purpose, without wasting a grain or using a string, and did it very rapidly. He also made change very rapidly, and kept up a busy stir that seemed to draw business to his stand. One man had on exhibition a graphophone, and was surrounded by natives listening to the tunes. There were also a number of beggars who were importuning everybody.

THE STRUGGLE OF COMMERCE.

STATEMENT OF MR. P. SANTISTEBAN Y CHARIVARI, SPANISH MERCHANT.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 28, 1898.*

Commerce constitutes the most substantial source of income, owing to the tribute it pays through the custom-house, and its general condition of solidity gives it prestige in foreign parts. It may be said to constitute the greatest wealth of the country.

In spite of all the advantageous qualities just attributed to it and which make it a subject for the greatest consideration on the part of the Government, it has to sustain a terrible struggle to defend itself against the bad faith which is taking it to ruin by means of suspension of payments and failures, which are rarely punished, owing to the deficiency of our laws and judicial proceedings. It is also the victim of the present monetary system, which lends itself easily to speculation in exchange, sometimes the rise being as much as 25 per cent and 30 per cent during three months. This state of affairs does not allow even the most clear-sighted merchant to protect himself from enormous losses.

Customs tariffs which have been in force for a long time are not based on equitable or scientific principles. The rates charged do not follow the requisite table of valuations based on 20 per cent over actual cost of goods in the factory, and the custom-house rules are full of punishments, guided more by the letter than the spirit of the law.

Custom-houses, from their very nature, require more intelligent and honest employes than any other public offices, their object being to facilitate commerce by good faith and attention to duty, and also to discover the frauds which dishonest merchants try to perpetrate.

COMMERCIAL TAXES.

STATEMENT OF MANY CITIZENS.

ISABELA, P. R., *February 15, 1899.*

Agriculture is suffering from great prostration and the Government should hold out a helping hand, freeing it for a few years from direct taxation, which to-day weighs so heavily on it owing to years of bad prices, monetary crisis, and immense municipal and State taxation. The industrial and commercial taxes are also too heavy and should be reduced after giving a hearing to the persons interested.

There is a notable want of agricultural banks which would lend money at low rates and for long periods to agriculturists, so as to help them recover from the losses occasioned by the Mexican and colonial currencies, which, authorized by the Spanish Government, caused the ruin of the country.

The town of Isabela, one of the most industrious and fertile when rains are copious, has its properties well divided among several owners. But its position on the coast, where there is a lack of trees, subjects it to continuous droughts, which, however, have never been able to make our farmers lose heart for their work.

We think the Government would commit an act of justice by attending to the two requirements of this town, which are: an irrigation canal to bring the waters of the River Guajataca into the district and fertilize its fields, and the opening of the port for commerce of export and import with the other towns of the island, which would lead to an extension of business.

MERCANTILE BUSINESS FLOURISHING.

STATEMENT OF MAYOR CELESTINO DOMINGUEZ.

GUAYAMA, P. R., *January, 1899.*

Coevally with the downfall of the sugar industry one of the most extraordinary spectacles ever witnessed in an agricultural country has been seen. On the ruins of agriculture there has arisen a flourishing community of merchants, which not only dominates the farmers, but is slowly absorbing their land. These merchants are nearly all peninsular Spaniards. In other parts of the world commerce has been the right hand of agriculture; here it is its worst enemy, owing to the protection granted by the Government to merchants, which has enabled them to override the landowners, generally natives of Porto Rico.

The larger part of our business to-day is with the United States, which buys our sugars. Then comes Spain, which has extensive dealings in this country, as we are accustomed to consume her products. We can not ship our produce there, except in small quantities, owing to prohibitive duties and fiscal hindrances. Our sugar is hardly known in Spain, our coffee goes there in very small quantities only, and our tobacco and alcohol in lesser degree still.

Our imports come also from France, Italy, and Germany, and our exports go to North America, France, and Denmark, as to our sugar; to Cuba, Germany, and Denmark as to our coffee, and our other produce is consumed in the country.

Cuba takes large quantities of our tobacco, manufactures it and sends it out all over the world as *Vuelta Abajo*.

THE COMMERCE OF PORTO RICO.

[Compiled from Estadística General del Comercio Exterior de la Provincia de Porto Rico for 1897.]

Value of importations in 1897.

Schedules.	Value.	Duty.
	<i>Pesos.</i>	<i>Pesos.</i>
I. Stones, earth, minerals, etc.	691,821.86	69,772.91
II. Metals and manufactures	575,747.58	124,431.13
III. Chemicals, etc.	651,947.78	66,696.36
IV. Cotton and manufactures	2,540,264.87	186,725.86
V. Vegetable fibers and manufactures	512,094.46	66,389.01
VI. Wool and manufactures	128,464.25	12,661.16
VII. Silk and manufactures	50,581.84	5,871.51
VIII. Wood	268,211.55	32,449.92
IX. Paper	818,952.71	78,156.26
X. Animals and animal products	1,496,477.39	28,016.45
XI. Machinery, etc.	401,156.76	35,739.06
XII. Food stuffs	8,984,808.41	1,750,856.54
XIII. Miscellaneous	189,597.83	27,185.98
Special imports	643,044.00	12,900.88
Total	17,858,063.29	2,841,062.57

Foreign commerce with Porto Rico in 1897.

Countries.	Value		Quantity.	
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.
	<i>Pesos.</i>	<i>Pesos.</i>	<i>Tonclados.</i>	<i>Tonclados.</i>
Spain	7,152,016	5,067,407	41,431	23,304
United States	3,749,815	2,814,549	35,573	47,198
England	1,755,761	77,341	19,408	960
British possessions	1,445,600	254,420	24,895	5,426
Germany	1,314,063	2,117,802	19,543	5,370
British India	913,089			
Cuba	692,780	3,515,006	698	15,125
France	215,474	3,637,984	765	5,680
Belgium	163,675		3,799	
Holland	155,393	1,007		
Denmark	124,466	98,539		
Argentine Republic	74,126		372	
Uruguay	38,046		79	
Venezuela	10,106	1,293	177	2
Austria	9,709	408,211	190	416
Santo Domingo	5,495	28,792	94	
Switzerland	5,391			192
Sweden and Norway	3,774	28,319		
Mexico	3,715			
Danish possessions	2,783	35,724	993	
Peru	1,800			2,147
Japan	518			
French possessions	78	53,156	1	339
Portugal	37			
Haiti		280	19	
Africa		8,655		102
Holland's possessions		6,682		224

* Tonclado = 1,000 kilograms, or 2,250 pounds.

Articles imported in 1897.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.
		<i>Pesos.</i>
Mineral coal	kilograms.	39,517,771
Iron plates	do.	1,919,040
Soap	do.	2,207,630
Paper, straw and ordinary	do.	1,185,968
Staves, etc., for hogsheds	do.	3,592,749
Meat and lard	do.	4,549,784
Jerked beef	do.	774,892
Codfish	do.	11,244,215
Fish and shellfish in oil	do.	317,919
Rice (cleaned)	do.	35,451,874
		2,481,631

Articles imported in 1897--Continued.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.
		<i>Pesos.</i>
Wheat flour.....kilograms.	15,852,630	989,642
Dried vegetables.....do.	2,176,884	141,497
Garden produce.....do.	5,026,086	201,043
Olive oil.....do.	762,102	172,179
Common wine.....liters.	4,314,473	368,303
Canned goods.....kilograms.	265,477	238,029
Cheese.....do.	137,982	202,780
Manufactured tobacco.....do.	324,022	648,044
Other articles.....do.		8,473,228
Total.....		17,858,063

National flags under which shipments left Porto Rico in 1897.

Countries.	Steam vessels.	Sailing vessels.	Seamen.	Merchandise.
				<i>Tons.</i>
United States.....	172	144	5,245	47,168
Cuba.....	243		13,568	15,125
Spain.....	138	26	8,395	23,304
English possessions.....	21	89	1,223	5,426
Danish possessions.....	27	27	1,546	2,147
Santo Domingo.....	39	14	1,686	192
France.....	49		1,842	5,690
Germany.....	43		1,008	5,270
French possessions.....	1	24	261	339
England.....	151	5	502	968
Italy.....	16		650	1,705
Austria.....	14		516	416
Holland's possessions.....		6	53	224
Haiti.....	5		284	
Venezuela.....	1		22	2
Mexico.....		1	10	
Africa.....		1	20	102
Total.....	780	341	37,420	108,246

Articles exported in 1897.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.	Articles.	Quantity.	Value.
		<i>Pesos.</i>			<i>Pesos.</i>
Coffee.....kilograms.	23,504,909	12,222,600	Peanuts.....kilograms.	4,899	490
Sugar.....			Ginger.....do.	5,300	530
Centrifugal.....do.	16,154,460	1,316,584	Corn.....do.	1,941,050	97,208
Muscovado.....do.	40,129,495	2,008,415	Corn meal.....do.	3,612	361
Molasses.....do.	1,364,980	82,991	Tortoise shells.....do.	07	298
Molasses.....do.	11,529,132	403,530	Sweets (dry and in syrup).....kilograms.	4,043	4,179
Tobacco.....do.	2,843,615	1,194,318	Fruits.....do.	7,201	5,761
Hides.....do.	378,170	71,832	Animal wax.....do.	137	27
Tallow.....do.	118,624	11,032	Oil of cocoanut.....do.	4,446	881
Rum.....liters.	310,006	31,000	Honey.....liters.	1,330	405
Bay rum.....do.	50,339	7,551	Lime.....kilograms.	10,600	318
Oil of bay leaves.....do.	223	982	Horns of cattle.....do.	7,077	354
Cocoanuts, thousands.	1,391,917	27,938	Eggs.....hundreds.	113,253	2,831
Oranges.....do.	1,004,048	2,510	Potatoes.....kilograms.	24,211	484
Guano vegetal, kilo- grams.....	50,759	5,581	Bananas.....hundreds.	6,181	96
Annotto.....kilograms.	54,819	2,551	Guineos (small bana- nas).....kilograms.	3,750	19
Chocolate bean.....do.	5,715	2,385	Arceos de pomarous, kilograms.....	1,380	55
Chocolate.....do.	58	47	Brick.....M.	23,160	278
Starch.....do.	61,555	6,771	Beans.....kilograms.	4,465	450
Tamarinds.....do.	7,594	760	Small beans.....do.	10,886	1,080
Hedionda (to mix with coffee).....kilograms.	2,328	233	Yams.....do.	41,442	628
Pineapples, hundreds.	12,000	840	Yautias.....do.	2,168	65
Cattle.....head.	5,517	220,690	Ice.....do.	2,190	82
Oxen.....do.	53	1,060	Woods.....do.	2,799	140
Sheep.....do.	15	60	Cocks.....number.	42	84
Salt.....kilograms.	220,000	6,800	Chickens.....do.	4,009	8,007
Caraza.....do.	2,200	110			
Husks of cacao.....do.	1,249	14	Total.....		18,352,541
Tobacco seed.....do.	5,032	2,113			

National flags under which shipments entered Porto Rico in 1897.

Countries.	Steam vessels.	Sailing vessels.	Seamen.	Mer- chandise.
				Tons.
Spain	194	16	13,956	41,433
English possessions	31	116	1,058	20,365
United States	97	71	2,437	25,573
Cuba	141		9,095	908
England	134	16	4,516	18,408
Germany	85	1	6,224	19,543
Danish possessions	14	30	1,157	93
San Domingo	24	4	1,577	94
France	36		2,160	765
Belgium	27		1,049	3,799
French possessions		22	195	1
Venezuela	7		235	177
Italy	7		361	39
Haiti	6		338	19
Holland's possessions		4	35	
Austria	3		120	150
Argentine Republic		3	35	372
Brazil		2	20	
Uruguay		1	18	79
	809	326	45,566	143,818

Countries to which the exports were sent in 1897.

	Quantity.	Values.		Quantity.	Values.
COFFEE.			DAY RUM.		
		Pesos.			Pesos.
Spain..... kilograms.	6,853,694	3,563,921	United States..... liters.	50,177	7,527
France..... do.	5,592,495	3,017,297	Danish possessions. do.	162	24
Cuba..... do.	4,008,775	2,084,563	MOLASSES.		
Germany..... do.	3,975,878	2,067,458	United States, kilo-		
Italy..... do.	1,939,375	1,008,475	grams	8,732,406	307,734
Austria..... do.	785,022	408,212	English possessions, kilo-		
Sweden and Norway,			grams	2,644,937	92,573
kilograms.	54,480	24,319	England..... kilograms.	91,786	3,213
United States..... do.	47,093	24,957	HIDES.		
England..... do.	34,453	17,916			
TOBACCO.			TALLOW.		
Cuba..... kilograms.	2,359,068	990,805	Spain..... kilograms.	2,200	110
Spain..... do.	357,451	141,720	CAJANA.		
United States..... do.	80,729	33,906	Spain..... kilograms.	2,200	110
Germany..... do.	68,032	23,506	Cuba..... kilograms.	262,800	49,932
Danish possessions. do.	3,756	1,577	France..... do.	64,482	12,352
England..... do.	2,632	1,189	Germany..... do.	36,590	7,028
Venezuela..... do.	2,244	942	Italy..... do.	8,849	1,681
Italy..... do.	285	110	Cuba..... do.	5,050	960
SUGAR.			CARNAZA.		
United States, kilo-			Spain..... kilograms.	2,200	110
grams	34,066,638	2,418,938	TALLOW.		
Spain..... kilograms.	18,020,119	1,272,885	Cuba..... kilograms.	109,020	10,902
English possessions. do.	1,591,927	102,831	Spain..... do.	7,604	760
Denmark..... do.	1,327,062	88,523	GUANO VEGETAL.		
England..... do.	843,989	46,595	Cuba..... kilograms.	50,320	5,537
Danish possessions. do.	282,556	19,806	Spain..... do.	420	46
Germany..... do.	278,598	17,784	COCOANUTS.		
Italy..... do.	143,465	9,234	United States. thousands.	723,768	14,475
France..... do.	113,539	7,380	Cuba..... do.	427,713	8,544
Cuba..... do.	78,399	5,602	Spain..... do.	237,941	4,759
WOODS.			Danish possessions,		
United States, kilo-			thousands	1,500	30
grams	2,500	125	English..... thousands.	1,000	20
Spain..... kilograms.	209	15	CACAO.		
RUM.			Spain..... kilograms.	5,715	2,286
Spain..... liters.	200,105	20,011	ORANGES.		
Africa..... do.	80,558	8,656	United States, thou-		
United States..... do.	15,768	1,578	sands	339,798	2,350
France..... do.	4,663	460			
Italy..... do.	1,337	184			
Cuba..... do.	1,060	106			

Countries to which the exports were sent in 1897.—Continued.

	Quantity.	Values.		Quantity.	Values.
ORANGES—continued.			PEANUTS.		
Cuba..... thousands	46,000	115	Cuba..... kilograms	4,899	Pesos. 490
Danish possessions, thousands	17,000	43	GINGER.		
English possessions, thousands	1,050	3	United States, kilograms	5,300	530
Spain..... thousands	200	50	CORN.		
OIL OF BAY LEAVES.			Cuba..... kilograms	1,950,353	96,518
Danish possessions, liters	193	772	Spain..... do	13,637	685
United States..... liters	30	130	CORN MEAL.		
CHOCOLATE.			Cuba..... kilograms	3,012	331
Spain..... kilograms	58	46	TORTOISE SHELLS.		
ANNOTTO.			United States, kilograms	40	160
Germany..... kilograms	34,548	1,527	Spain..... kilograms	27	108
United States..... do	10,773	339	SWEETS (DRY AND IN SIRUP).		
France..... do	8,481	424	Spain..... kilograms	4,445	4,000
Danish possessions, kilograms	1,013	51	Santo Domingo..... do	100	90
STARCH.			Cuba..... do	98	88
Cuba..... kilograms	60,827	6,691	FRUITS.		
Santo Domingo..... do	728	80	Cuba..... kilograms	4,279	3,423
TAMARINDS.			Santo Domingo..... do	2,424	1,987
England..... kilograms	6,964	698	Spain..... do	438	850
United States..... do	610	61	ANIMAL WAX.		
HEBIONDA (A SMALL SEED TO MIX WITH COFFEE).			United States, kilograms	73	15
Spain..... kilograms	1,211	121	Spain..... kilograms	61	13
Cuba..... do	1,117	112	OIL OF COCONUT.		
PINEAPPLES.			Cuba..... liters	4,405	861
United States, hundreds	12,000	540	HONEY.		
SALT.			United States..... liters	1,350	405
Holland's possessions, kilograms	220,000	6,600	LIME.		
HUSKS OF CACAO.			Santo Domingo, kilograms	5,600	168
Spain..... kilograms	1,849	14	Cuba..... kilograms	5,000	150
CATTLE.			HORNS OF CATTLE.		
Cuba..... head	2,420	96,600	Spain..... kilograms	7,077	354
English possessions, do	1,471	58,840	EGGS.		
French possessions, do	1,312	52,480	Cuba..... hundreds	113,253	2,631
Danish possessions, do	304	12,100	POTATOES.		
Santo Domingo..... do	10	400	Cuba..... kilograms	24,211	489
OXEN.			BANANAS.		
French possessions, head	32	640	Cuba..... hundreds	6,181	98
Danish possessions, head	20	400	GUINEOS (SMALL BANANAS).		
Santo Domingo..... head	1	20	Cuba..... kilograms	3,750	14
SHEEP.			ARCOS DE POMAROSA.		
English possessions, head	9	54	Santo Domingo, kilograms	1,880	55
French possessions, head	6	36			
TOBACCO SEED.					
Cuba..... kilograms	5,032	2,113			

Countries to which the exports were sent in 1897—Continued.

	Quantity.	Values.		Quantity.	Values.
BRICKS.			YAUTIAS.		
Santo Domingo M.	23,180	Pesos. 278	Cuba kilograms.	2,168	Pesos. 85
BEANS.			ICE.		
Cuba kilograms.	4,405	150	Santo Domingo. kilo-grams.	8,190	82
SMALL BEANS.			COCKS.		
Cuba kilograms.	16,830	1,683	Santo Domingo. kilo-grams.	42	84
YAMS.			CHICKENS.		
Cuba kilograms.	41,442	828	Cuba kilograms.	4,000	3,007

THE MEANS OF TRANSPORTATION.

RAILROADS.

The San Juan Railroad.

The Porto Rico Railroad (French).

The Bayamon Railroad (Ferrocarril del Oeste).

A short railroad from Anasco toward Lares.

THE SAN JUAN RAILROAD.

This road was built to Martin Pena in 1879 and completed to Rio Piedras in 1880. It comprises 7½ miles of track, including side tracks, and has four station buildings, shops, bridges, etc.

The equipment consists of 5 engines, 15 passenger cars, 1 baggage car, and 16 freight cars.

	Pesos.
Cost of construction and equipment	\$232,500
Passengers carried in 1897	557,437
Freight carried in 1897	tons. 9,123
Receipts for passengers, 1897	\$55,670
Receipts for freight, 1897	8,340
Cost of operating in 1897	\$64,010
	50,919

THE WESTERN RAILROAD.

Passenger and freight traffic during the year 1897.

	Pesos.
Number of passengers, 141,355, giving receipts of	\$24,442.32
Tons of freight, 12,370, giving receipts of	12,389.93
Gross earnings	36,812.25
Total working expenses	23,181.40
Net earnings	13,630.85

There are 10 kilometers (6.21 miles) in operation, of which 7 kilometers (4.35 miles) are by land and 3 kilometers (1.86 miles) by water.

The system is between San Juan and Bayamon, and the stock consists of 2 locomotives, 5 passenger coaches, and 17 cars. Coal has cost on an average 12 pesos per ton.

R. VALDÉS COBIAN.

BAYAMON, December 8, 1898.

THE PORTO RICO RAILROAD COMPANY.

Sections of lines.	In operation.		
	Perma- nent.	Provi- sional.	Total.
	Kilometers.	Kilometers.	Kilometers.
A 1, from San Juan to Arecibo	88		88
A 2, from Arecibo to Camuy		14	14
A 3, from Aguadilla to Mayaguez Beach	44		44
C 1, from Mayaguez Beach to Hormigueros		11	11
C 2, from Yauco to Ponce	35		35
B 1, from Martin Peña to Carolina		14	14
Total	165	39	204
Totals reduced to miles	102.54	24.24	126.78

Numbers, tonnage, and receipts in the year 1897.

Passengers carried		138,379
Freight carried	tons	59,108
Receipts from—		
Passengers	pesos	104,818.04
Freight	do	138,055.79

Rolling stock.

Locomotives	18
Passenger coaches	26
Mail coaches	3
Baggage wagons	4
Closed cars, series E	90
Open cars, series F H and H H	240

SUBDIRECTOR.

SAN JUAN, November 21, 1898.

RAILROAD FROM AÑASCO TO ALTO SANO.

This railroad, with a gauge of 23½ inches, was built in 1898. It comprises 11 miles of completed track and has buildings at two stations. The cost of construction is reported as having been \$275,000. The line is to be continued through San Sebastian to Lares. The rolling stock consists of 2 locomotives, 4 passenger cars, 2 baggage cars, and 8 freight cars.

FREIGHT AND PASSENGER RATES.

The distance from San Juan to Camuy is 100 kilometers. The rates for passengers between these points on the Porto Rico Railroad are as follows:

	Pesos.
First class, single	4.95
Second class, single	3.85
Third class, single	2.75
First class, excursion	8.14
Second class, excursion	5.92
Third class, excursion	3.70

Freight rates depend on distance, quantity, and character of shipments and speed of trains. For 10 kilograms or less the rate at the greater speed is 60 centavos between San Juan and Camuy; \$3 for 41 to 50 kilograms. At the lesser speed the rate is one-half these figures

Merchandise is divided into four classes, and the lowest charges are 15 centavos a ton per mile for first class, 12½ for second, 10 for third, and 7 for fourth class. The charge per ton on merchandise of the first class between San Juan and Camuy is \$15, for the second, \$12.50; for the third, \$10, and for the fourth, \$7. These rates apply to articles of not less than 50 kilograms—that is, the minimum charge is for that amount.

There are also special tariffs for sugar, coffee, and general farm produce. The rate on coffee between Camuy and San Juan is \$1.95 per ton; on farm produce and fruits, \$2.56 between San Juan and Barceloneta (65 kilometers); on sugar, \$3.85 between Arrecibo and San Juan (86 kilometers). Rum and other liquors pay \$6.51 per ton between San Juan and Camuy.

The passenger rates on the Western Railroad between San Juan and Bayamon are 30 centavos for first class, 20 for second class, and 40 and 30, respectively, for excursion tickets.

PORTO RICAN ROADS.

By MT. TUULO LARRINAGA, *Civil Engineer.*

The greatest drawback in the development and progress of the island of Porto Rico has been the absence of good roads and of any other means of transportation. Too late to be of any use to the country, the Spanish Government took up the affair and gave out at public auction the concession for building a railroad around the island with quite a liberal subsidy, consisting of the guaranty of an 8 per cent interest on the capital invested. The interest was calculated on the assumption that the average cost of building the road was \$18,000, when \$30,000 would have been a closer approximation to the truth, so that the interest was rather 4.80 per cent than 8. Work on the line was commenced in October, 1889. Bad management, carelessness in the selection of the auxiliary class of the personnel, and some systematic opposition in the beginning on the part of Spanish engineers soon brought the affair to a standstill, and work was stopped.

From 1889 the Spanish Government had been trying to change his system and devote to subsidies for concessionaries of railroad the greater part of the money appropriated for building common roads and other public works, but the local corps of official engineers resisted, and nothing definite was come to. In 18— the Government passed a royal decree—put up for bids the concession of several roads to the interior of the island—offering to help the building of them with 40 per cent of the actual cost of the roads. It seems that the credit of the Government at the time and other difficulties to be encountered in official bureaus kept away bidders.

The finishing of the road around the island should be taken up at once. Several lines going from the coast to the interior should be built to furnish the country with good means of transportation.

Of these lines the most important perhaps is the line from Rio Piedras to Caguas, to be extended afterwards through the valley, if found convenient. Caguas and the whole plateau forming this rich valley is no more than 40 meters above the level of the sea. A road to that district may be passed through the gap cut in the mountains by the Loiza River, whose course must follow the line as soon as the town of Trujillo Alto is reached. The road will be a very winding one, but

grade would be easy; no tunneling would be required; the Loiza will afford ample power for working the road by electricity at a very low expense. The traffic has not to be created, as the existing one now done through the common roads is more than is required to make the road pay.

Next in importance comes the road from Añaseo to Lares, in the district of Mayaguez. Lares is one of highest and best coffee-producing districts of the island. This road has been studied and a part of it built. The road is being built on the French system of narrow-gauge road, 0.60^m wide between rails, so much in favor for "chemin de fer d'intérêt local" in France. Seventeen kilometers, forming the first section, have already been built and are working since December, 1897. The line is equipped with first-class American rolling stock and possesses all the rails, ties, etc., for the superstructure of another section reaching to San Sebastián. The actual cost of the part working has been \$17,000 per kilometer. Grade will not exceed 2½ per cent, and 50 meters is the minimum radius for curves.

Wood is used mostly as fuel and the road is worked at little expense. The length of the line is 43 kilometers.

Next after the Añaseo-Lares line comes the line from Arento to Utuado.

SAN JUAN P. R., *January 10, 1899.*

ROADS.

By JOSÉ AMADEO.

Except the central road, which was built splendidly and with strategic views, as were also those of Guayama and Adjuntas, the roads of the country are for the most part mule tracks and cart paths, impassable in rainy weather. It was a pitiful sight last September to see three pair of powerful American mules on the road from Ponce to Guayama pulling at the wagons and unable to move them.

A journey from Maunabo to Mayaguez in the months of June to October costs more than a trip to New York.

There is also a lack of communication around the coast by water—the cheapest of all ways—and we can not understand why a small line of steamers is not established to attend to this traffic. This was impossible under the last government, owing to vexatious custom-house restrictions, which I am informed are still in force under the American rule.

As we have no other means of transport, it is to be hoped our coasting vessels will be assisted rather than hostilized, and that they will be allowed to enter and leave the island ports freely and without formalities.

After four centuries of existence we are almost cut off from inter-communication. Of our internal roads, it is best to say nothing; no one dares journey by them. Even in traveling on foot one's ribs are not safe. There are towns where no mail is delivered for five or six days when the rivers rise, and neither the public works department nor private enterprise has thought of spanning the rivers by footbridges even. With a thousand obstacles and expenses we have to carry our produce to market and bring back our provisions the same way, adding to the expenses of freight those of "consumos," which keeps up the already excessive prices and causes general discontent. The want

of activity of the Porto Ricans forcibly condemned to inertia by want of means of travel is not to be wondered at.

The peasant of Patillas would like to market his produce in Ponce and there make his purchase of provisions at lower prices, but can not, as the cost of the journey would represent the earnings of months. The greater part of the people of this town have never seen Ponce, distant only 60 miles.

There can be no greater obstacle to the progress of the country than this.

Any sacrifice made now to inaugurate a good system of roads would soon meet with its recompense.

Many were surprised and angered by the paralyzation of the construction of the railroad to the east of the island, one of the richest districts, owing to the fertility of the soil and the continuous rains. Six years ago no one would have said that the concessionary company would have neglected to tunnel the Pandura (mountain between Maunabo and Yabuco). No other administration would have tolerated such a want of good faith in its dealings with our progress-loving people. Unfortunately these aids to progress have been undertaken as timid experiments. This has been a serious evil, as no country unprovided with a network of railroads can progress.

The value of these is understood by Americans better than by any others. In the hands of the Government the post-offices, telegraphs, and money-order service so necessary for the country can be installed and run as perfectly as in the United States.

This would leave room for railroads and private telegraph companies, which would surely come, as the increase of the well-being of the country would offer hopes of large profits.

In rich, happy countries people travel, and there is life and motion on every side. In poor countries only the cry of anguish and misery is heard, leading to despair and immorality. We must work therefore for the benefit of our country.

This can be aided by the freedom of our commerce giving us access to all the world and cheapening our cost of living.

PATILLAS, P. R.

ROADS AND RAILROADS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 29, 1898.*

DR. CARBONELL, secretary of the interior. In preference to ordinary roads, railroads should be built, because from the time they are started they begin to pay, as they work the portion already started, whereas roads do not until completed. The road from here to Ponce costs \$15,000 a year to keep in order.

It would be far better for the State to invite foreign capital to come in to build railroads and guarantee interest on the money, as they would not have to pay so much money, and the most they would have to pay for interest would not be in excess of the amount required to keep ordinary roads in condition.

DR. CARROLL. But that would leave many parts of the island without proper communication, would it not?

DR. CARBONELL. They were making a railroad from Mayaguez to San Sebastian, but as it was started without sufficient capital behind it, it came to an end and they had to abandon the railroad.

Dr. CARROLL. I should suppose that good cart roads would be necessary in order to give access to the railroads from towns in the interior. I am told that the roads now in use, with a few possible exceptions, are almost impassable.

Dr. CARBONELL. I think the roads already begun should be finished, but I think it would be advisable to grant liberal concessions to railroad companies with the view of having the island intersected by railroads as soon as possible. This would make communication much easier than it is.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it very costly to construct such roads as the military road from here to Ponce?

Dr. CARBONELL. It cost \$14,000 a kilometer. There was an immense amount of robbery in connection with the building of that road. They used 400 prisoners, whom they paid 10 cents a day, and they put in bills for wages at 50 cents a day, the difference going into the pockets of the officials. In some places it cost \$25,000 a kilometer, 5 kilometers being equal to 3 miles.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they have stone convenient for the construction of roads in the island?

Dr. CARBONELL. Everywhere throughout the island.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you the facilities for crushing the stone?

Dr. CARBONELL. In some places we have, in others we have not. In the greater part of the island it is crushed by hand.

Dr. CARROLL. Can not the cost be greatly reduced by having proper appliances for crushing stone?

Dr. CARBONELL. It is not possible to have machinery everywhere, and to cut it (the stone) from place to place would be very costly.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the length of the road?

Dr. CARBONELL. It is variously stated at 142, 143, and 144 kilometers.

Dr. CARROLL. I am told that in the interior of the island the roads are so bad that teams are destroyed, and that transportation, owing to the state of the roads, costs an immense amount—an amount, in fact, out of proportion to what the planters can pay.

Dr. CARBONELL. You have been correctly informed. In many places the oxen have been drowned in mud. The freight charges are far out of proportion to the value of the stuff transported.

Dr. CARROLL. Has your department any control over the railroads?

Dr. CARBONELL. Yes, over the railroads and over electric lighting; formerly the telegraph also; but that is now under the military authorities. Also my department had charge of the stock (not the working) of the post-office.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the department fix the rates of tariff on the railroad?

Dr. CARBONELL. The railroad companies put in their propositions for freight and passenger tariffs, and they were accepted by the government.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you heard any complaints as to the tariffs being too high?

Dr. CARBONELL. I have heard a good many complaints, and the railroad company has violated its agreement. For instance, if you want to take a horse from here to Arecibo the rate is the same as a first-class passage for a person; moreover, if you take one horse you have to pay the same as for five. Formerly the State used to grant concessions to private parties for building a certain road or certain bridge, and allowed them to collect so much for foot passengers and so much for vehicles.

Dr. CARROLL. Could the prisoners be used by the government in the making of roads?

Dr. CARBONELL. Yes; they have to give prisoners 10 cents a day when making roads, besides supporting them.

Dr. CARROLL. That is cheap labor, is it not?

Dr. CARBONELL. The Spanish officers who had charge of them always took from the prisoners one-half, and when they went out they hardly had anything. I do not understand why the United States authorities have not removed the employee who is at the head of the present department, as he is the very worst man they could have for the purpose.

Dr. CARROLL. The military government having been established only about a week, it can not correct all the evils at once.

CART RATES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 31, 1898.*

Dr. CARROLL. Would not the agriculturists be greatly helped if they had a quicker and better transit for their products to the ports of shipment?

Dr. SANTIAGO VEVE, of Fajardo. The chief complaint against the Spaniards has been that they did not furnish facilities of that kind, and some farms are so located that it is impossible to ship products from them to the seaport towns.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the rates charged by the railroads excessive?

Dr. VEVE. The railroads in existence in the island are of very little importance. They consist of small sections, which are not connected. They charge practically any rate they like and their rate is established without regard to equity, but even then it is cheaper than the old cart roads.

Dr. CARROLL. Why are the cart rates high, when labor is cheap and the cost of cattle is not great, I presume, nor the carts themselves?

Dr. VEVE. A cart from here to my city, which leaves to-night, for instance, at midnight and arrives to-morrow morning at daylight, can not be rented for less than from \$20 to \$25. The reason for this is the condition of the roads, which wear the oxen out. They are really not roads. You go over them and get stuck in the mud up to the middle of the wheels. In order to come here to attend the congress yesterday I had to pass over a river on a raft.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think the establishment of the trolley or electric system would be a good thing for the producer?

Dr. VEVE. Yes; it would be of immense value.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it not a fact that producers lose the best of the market by the delay incident to the difficulty in getting their goods to the shipping points?

Dr. VEVE. In reference to the sugar producers, they do not suffer on this account, because they can get their crops to the seashore in ample time with the facilities in the way of roads which they have here. There are only a few firms here who buy sugar, and these firms do not limit the purchasers in point of time in getting their sugar to the seaport.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the military road between the capital and San Juan the only good road in the island?

Dr. VEVE. In addition to that road there are other small pieces which have been begun, but not completed, and are now more or less in a state of dilapidation. For instance, from here to Fajardo the road is not finished, and from Arroyo to Guayama the road has been years in building, and is not yet finished. From Guayama to Cayey the road is finished, and is fairly good. From Mayaguez to Cabo Rojo and from Mayaguez to Añasco the roads are fairly good. The rest of the roads in the island are atrocious; they are not graded and are really unworthy of the name of roads.

Dr. CARROLL. Should the railroad system be extended so as to encircle the western half of the island to Aguadilla, Mayaguez, and Ponce?

Dr. VEVE. That was the original plan of the railroad, and its completion to those points is very necessary. The French company began, but failed in a short while. Referring again to the other roads which I have described as atrocious, it is sometimes necessary to pull a coach which is passing over the road out of the mud with oxen.

Dr. CARROLL. If the railroad system were finished and reasonable charges were made, would it not result in an increased use of the railroad, so that the revenues would be increased and the road be a paying investment?

Dr. VEVE. I think it would. There are families living here in the island, some of whose close relatives live within a few miles of them, who, because of the almost impassable condition of the roads, have not visited each other and have not seen each other for four or five years; and I believe that if the railroad was opened up many of these people would patronize it and greatly increase the receipts of the company.

Dr. CARROLL. What does the railroad company charge per mile?

Dr. VEVE. I do not know. It is 50 cents a round trip to Rio Piedras from the capital, which is a distance of about 11 miles, and I suppose the rate between other points is in proportion.

Dr. CARROLL. I have heard that the freight charged on a chicken from Arecibo to the capital is \$1.

Dr. VEVE. That is an exaggeration. It is my impression, however, that the rate between here and Arecibo is greater than the rate between the capital and some other points, the rate seemingly being based on the amount of business which the company handles between the capital and connecting points.

THE NEED OF RAILROADS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 31, 1899.*

RICARDO NADAL, of Mayaguez:

They have begun a railroad from Añasco to Lares, affording communication from the center of this coffee district to the seaport in Mayaguez, which enterprise, owing to the abnormal condition brought about by the war and consequent retrenchment of all mercantile transactions, has been suspended, the shareholders waiting and hoping for some American company to come and take hold and carry out this line and plan. The island is also greatly in need of some crossroads running through from east to west, which together with the French Belt

Line of railroad, that is to run around the coast of the island, would furnish sufficient transportation from the interior to every available seaport. That French line, although its time of completion has been extended three different times by the Spanish Government, has not as yet complied with the requirements of the grant, affording good ground for the question as to whether or not the American Government now has a right to take such part of the line as is already built away from the company according to the articles of agreement under which the concession to the railroad company was made.

COST OF INLAND TRANSPORTATION.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

ARECIBO, P. R., *January 14, 1899.*

Mr. BERNARDO HUICY. The question of roads is a most important one, as there are estates in the center of the island which have to pay as high as 75 or 80 cents a hundredweight over a distance of 20 miles.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that to the railroads or by the railroads?

Mr. HUICY. To the railroads.

VIEWS OF AN ENGINEER.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *January 10, 1899.*

Mr. TUILO LARRINAGA, an American civil engineer:

Mr. LARRINAGA. I am a native of Porto Rico, and studied in the United States.

Dr. CARROLL. When were you educated in the United States?

Mr. LARRINAGA. From 1865 to 1870. Since then I have been here. I was in the United States a few days in 1894.

Dr. CARROLL. What engineering works have you been engaged in here?

Mr. LARRINAGA. I built the first railroad of the island.

Dr. CARROLL. When was that?

Mr. LARRINAGA. In 1880. I was employed in its construction somewhat against the wishes of the then Governor-General, who questioned the propriety of having a Yankee come here to build a railroad. He seemed to regard it as a reflection on the ability of Spanish engineers.

Dr. CARROLL. Was that first road the one which connects San Juan and Rio Piedras?

Mr. LARRINAGA. Yes. The longer road from San Juan to Camuy was built later.

Dr. CARROLL. I notice that on the maps a distinction is indicated between certain parts as completed and in working order and of certain other parts as under construction; for instance, from Camuy to Aguadilla.

Mr. LARRINAGA. No; that has only been surveyed and studied. Plans and specifications and estimates are complete. From Aguadilla to Mayaguez and Hormigueros the road is built and in working order. From Mayaguez to San German all the grading is done and

the superstructure is ready to be placed, such as ties, rails, and bridges. I was to put up the bridges. I have put up all the bridges of that line for a French company. I also built all the bridges from San Juan to Ponce. From San German to Yauco all the plans and estimates are made. From Yauco to Ponce it is built and in working order. There is a little of the east line running to Carolina, 11 kilometers.

Dr. CARROLL. There is a line shown on the maps all around the island, from Ponce eastward through Guayama.

Mr. LARRINAGA. That was given in the concession, but nothing was ever done except to survey it. There was some little grading done near Fajardo. I should add that there is a short road from Afiasco to the heights.

Dr. CARROLL. I suppose you will meet many difficulties in running branches into the interior from the belt road?

Mr. LARRINAGA. It is not difficult to build roads to the interior along the rivers. We have plenty of rivers affording good passages through to the interior.

Dr. CARROLL. Don't those rivers become dry?

Mr. LARRINAGA. No; except on the south coast, the difference being due to the fact that our mountain range runs closer to the south side of the island than to the north, so that the territory where rain falls is smaller on the south side, and dry weather there is more frequent. The great watershed is on the northern side, and you can see brooks on that side which do not carry a pint a second and yet never run dry; whereas on the other side you see streams that abound with water in the rainy season which disappear in the dry season. Moreover, the land on the northern side is more porous and water filters through to the substrata more than it does on the southern side, where the soil is sandy.

Dr. CARROLL. I am told that the rivers on the east coast dry up sometimes.

Mr. LARRINAGA. Yes, some of them; but not so much as in Ponce and Guayama. From Naguabo coming north you do not find it so.

Dr. CARROLL. Mr. Argueso, of Humacao, said that they wanted to build a trolley line from Humacao to their port, and that there was water power enough to run their dynamo; but there was a gentleman here this morning who stated that the streams in that section dry up now and then.

Mr. LARRINAGA. Small brooks may, but not the larger streams.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think it would be cheaper to have trolley roads and have cars run by electricity rather than by steam?

Mr. LARRINAGA. Yes; there can be no question about it.

Dr. CARROLL. You would not, in that case, need as solid a roadbed.

Mr. LARRINAGA. That is true, because it would avoid the use of a locomotive, which is always the trip hammer that destroys the roadbed. Heavier trains and locomotives than those you see here in use would require a much more solid roadbed than we have now.

Dr. CARROLL. If you could have a more solid roadbed, and perhaps change your gauge and have more powerful engines, you could make railroading pay. You could then reduce freight and passenger rates, and passengers then could make quicker trips.

Mr. LARRINAGA. Yes; there would be a gain in time, and with a broader gauge more freight could be carried, so that the rates could be brought down; but my experience in railroading has taught me

that such a step should not be taken unless there is an excess of traffic over the capacity of the road.

Dr. CARROLL. It has seemed to me that if you had branch roads from this belt line into the interior, so as to facilitate traffic between the interior and the coast, and charged lower rates, the people would patronize the road and make it pay.

Mr. LARRINAGA. When such feeders shall have brought the excess of traffic to justify the use of heavier trains, then would be the time to study that matter.

Dr. CARROLL. One difficulty has been the cost of getting the locomotives, the coaches, and the steel rails here. Now, you are going to have lower duties so that it will not cost so much to import these things. Besides, you will have ad valorem duties, which will make a large margin of difference. Your locomotives are of an old pattern, are they not?

Mr. LARRINAGA. Those which run along the north coast are of French manufacture and are old-fashioned, but those in use on the tramway to Rio Piedras are of the best Baldwin make from the United States. These Baldwin locomotives have been working well, even with poor repairing. The company sent to England for a No. 4 engine. It was a 14-ton engine, but they have never been able to get the work out of it that they have been getting out of a 10-ton engine of Baldwin make. She was too stiff about her back—too much of an Englishman. The French engines can not make 10 kilometers an hour, as I was able to do with the Baldwin engines.

Dr. CARROLL. It seems to me that the trolley is the thing to introduce here for short lines, to connect the towns of the interior with the belt line.

Mr. LARRINAGA. Yes; and that would enable the people of the interior to send their fruits out to the coast towns. At present they can not send bananas or oranges, which they have in great abundance. They can only cultivate coffee and tobacco.

Dr. CARROLL. Referring again to the introduction of electric motors here for passenger and freight cars, would it be your idea to have the overhead wire?

Mr. LARRINAGA. Yes; it is the cheapest. The only objection to it is the danger of its causing accident in thickly populated districts.

Dr. CARROLL. Would you think it wise to make use of the military road to Ponce for a trolley line?

Mr. LARRINAGA. It is not wide enough.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you know whether any concessions have been granted for the construction of trolleys here?

Mr. LARRINAGA. None of any kind whatever have been granted. I was named as under-secretary of public works when the first autonomic government was established here and have been in close touch with the work of that department. The law requires that before any power other than animal power can be used for transportation purposes, application must be made to the insular government, and such applications all come to the department with which I was connected, and I can state positively that no concessions have been granted.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there many engineers in the island now?

Mr. LARRINAGA. About a dozen or so.

Dr. CARROLL. It seems evident that the first great need of Porto Rico to-day is a system of good roads. The question is, Should the insular government bear the expense of them alone? Responsibility

for the construction and maintenance of good roads might be divided between the various divisions of the island.

Mr. LARRINAGA. There was a governor-general here several years ago who gave the entire island roads and then left the care of them to the municipalities. In three years from that time the roads were in a state of ruin and were never repaired. But good roads must be built; nothing is more urgently needed, and nothing would influence more materially the social and moral development of the people than good means of transportation.

COST OF ROADS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

UTUADO, P. R., *January 18, 1899.*

Mr. LUCAS AMADEO. Roads of broken and rolled stone are calculated to have cost from 18,000 to 20,000 pesos a kilometer under the former administration.

Dr. CARROLL. But I understand that much of that went into wrong channels.

Mr. AMADEO. I understand that to-day such roads can be made at from 12,000 to 14,000 pesos a kilometer. I think, in contradistinction to what many others think, that roads are more important to the country than railroads. This is a country of small distances only. The roads would allow the development of industries which to a large extent would not give support to railroads. That does not prevent anybody from building railroads across the island or anywhere he wants to. I would favor anybody who wished to come here with capital to build railroads, but I think plain roads are most needed.

Dr. CARROLL. But are there not cases where the tramway, which can be run with exceeding cheapness, could be run with great advantage, as between Utuado and Yauco, or Utuado and Ponce, or Utuado and Arecibo?

Mr. AMADEO. Yes; but not to the exclusion of ordinary roads. A most ridiculous proposition has been advanced to exclude ordinary roads altogether.

COST OF LIGHTERAGE.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

ARROYO, P. R., *February 3, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. Is this a port of entry?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. Yes; and we expect to remain such because it is a center of this district; and if this port of entry were suppressed, we would have to go to Ponce.

Dr. CARROLL. You could have it kept open if you guarantee that the expenses of the port shall be paid?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. At present we have only two or three employees. The expenses of the port are only about \$310 a month, and that is nothing as compared with the business that is done. We collected from \$40,000 to \$50,000 a year here.

Dr. CARROLL. Then there is no question about it. Have you considered a project for getting a pier built here?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. It would cost a great deal to construct one, because the sea is quite rough sometimes, but I think a strong pier of iron would pay.

Dr. CARROLL. It must cost you a great deal to load and unload cargoes.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. We bring the cargoes on lighters, and we run out two poles. The system is very primitive; it costs \$1.85 to discharge 1,000 feet of lumber.

Dr. CARROLL. I was told it would cost \$5 for a thousand feet in Humacao.

Mr. VERGES, of Arroyo. As regards the questions you have been speaking of, I agree with the gentleman who has spoken.

NEED OF MORE PORTS OF ENTRY.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *January 10, 1899.*

Mr. GUSTAVO PRESTON, of Humacao, called at the office of the special commissioner and made a statement respecting ports of entry in the island. He said that although large quantities of muscovados are shipped from Maunabo and Yabucoa, two towns on the southeastern coast, neither of these places has a port of entry, but vessels with cargoes from or to these places are obliged to go to Arroyo to report for landing of cargoes or for clearance papers. Planters and merchants importing staves for hogsheads are obliged to have them landed at Arroyo and reshipped by coastwise vessels, or carted from Arroyo to the place of final destination, thus very greatly increasing the cost of importation. There used to be a rule by which vessels which reported at Arroyo and landed cargo could go on to Maunabo or Yabucoa and lie there, take on cargo, and clear without returning to Arroyo, by paying the fee which would be charged if they did go there.

On the southwest coast there is a similar inconvenient arrangement at Cabo Rojo, which is the shipping point for the salt mines of that place. Vessels are obliged to proceed to Mayaguez to report and get clearance papers, thus increasing the cost of shipment.

The district of Naguabo is subject to the same rule as Yabucoa.

FREIGHT RATES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

UTUADO, P. R., *January 17, 1899.*

Mr. CASALDUC. In good times we pay \$1 a quintal freight from here to Ponce. When the roads are bad, as they are now, we pay \$1.25. That is the ruin of agriculture. It costs more to transport coffee from here to Ponce than from Ponce to Europe. The road from Arecibo here is the best in the whole district.

Dr. CARROLL. How can anything be worse than the road from Arecibo to Gobo? I can not imagine it possible.

Mr. CASALDUC. That is a fine turnpike road in comparison. You should not go from here to Lares without first making your will. From here to Ponce it is 30 kilometers, and it requires from twelve to fourteen hours to go there.

COST OF BAD ROADS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

UTUADO, P. R., *January 18, 1899.*

Mr. J. A. M. MARTINEZ, of Lares. We need good roads—cart roads and railroads. We have to pay \$1.25 freight from the port to our city. Our ports are Arecibo, Aguadilla, and Mayaguez.

Dr. CARROLL. Are those ports equally distant?

Mr. MARTINEZ. They are 6, 7, and 9 leagues. Such rates cut down the profits considerably.

Dr. CARROLL. Are roads as bad between those places as between Utuado and Lares?

Mr. MARTINEZ. Worse still.

Dr. CARROLL. It seems to me that your system of roads, as I have seen them, is the most costly in the world, because they are so destructive to wagons and to teams, and it costs so much to get your goods transported over them that they are really far more expensive than good macadam roads.

Mr. MARTINEZ. With what has been collected for the making of roads in the four hundred years of Spanish domination we could have all our roads paved with silver.

Dr. CARROLL. What does it cost to make a mile of good road that will withstand the rain?

Mr. MARTINEZ. Here they estimate, but they do not spend. They make an estimate of \$20,000, but most of it goes into private pockets.

Dr. CARROLL. That was under the old régime, but I want to get at the cost of the making of roads under the new régime. What would it cost to put a road in good working order with cracked stone?

Mr. MARTINEZ. I can not inform you as to that. The man who had the contract for road making could tell you about it. His name is José Roig. He lives in Santurce and is now visiting in Utuado. The railroad from Añasco to Lares ought to be finished. They have a large amount of money lying dormant in shares, which is not producing any returns.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that road built by a foreign company?

Mr. MARTINEZ. Yes; by a French company. If the road does not pass into the hands of the new government, it will never be finished.

Mr. VIVO. Half a million dollars was spent on it, and when they reached that point and found it would cost a million, they were unable to go on. Nearly 12 miles were finished.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it in operation?

Mr. MARTINEZ. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the entire length?

Mr. MARTINEZ. Thirty miles.

VIEWS OF AN EXPERT ON ROADS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

UTUADO, P. R., *January 18, 1899.*

JOSE ROIG, of Santurce, P. R.:

Dr. CARROLL. I desire to ask you as to the best kinds of roads in these mountain districts to withstand sudden and heavy rains and what they would probably cost.

Mr. ROIG. The best sort of roads for these districts are what they call "vicinage roads," the width of which should not exceed 4 meters, or about 12 feet. These roads at intervals of $2\frac{1}{2}$ or 3 kilometers have a widening which enables carts to pass going in opposite directions. Added to the width of these roads there is an additional 7 feet used for ditching to carry off the water when it falls in abundance, and this part of the road is not packed down, but is left soft. It really is a sort of sidewalk. At intervals of a kilometer or a kilometer and a half there is a sectional ditch to carry off water, to prevent it from collecting and injuring the road. These roads over the mountainous parts of the country, where there are ups and downs and irregularities, should cost, with all the additional construction which I have just mentioned, from \$2,000 to \$2,500 a kilometer.

Dr. CARROLL. Would you use cracked stone?

Mr. ROIG. Yes; the middle part of the road of broken stone, beaten down, but the 7 additional feet at the side are not macadamized.

Dr. CARROLL. What would it cost to have the road sufficiently wide all the way through for wagons to pass each other at any point?

Mr. ROIG. The differences in building roads of that kind are considerable. They call them roads of the third class, and they cost about \$11,000 a kilometer.

Dr. CARROLL. That is in the mountains.

Mr. ROIG. No; we don't have really level roads. We take an average, and estimate on that basis.

Dr. CARROLL. Would you have a road wide in the valleys and wherever it is convenient?

Mr. ROIG. A road on the level lands wide enough to allow two carts to pass would cost only about \$2,000—less than a single track would cost in the mountains.

Dr. CARROLL. Where there is much travel would you have wide roads on the plains?

Mr. ROIG. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Have not many of these roads already been cut, requiring now only the roadbed?

Mr. ROIG. The whole question of cost depends on the depth of stone you want in the roadbed and whether you break the stone by hand or by machine.

Dr. CARROLL. Of course the cost would be greatly reduced by machinery?

Mr. ROIG. In the interior such a machine has not been known. The state has them and uses them elsewhere.

Dr. CARROLL. How do they make the road firm? Do they have rollers to press down the stone?

Mr. ROIG. They have a big iron roller drawn by oxen. They first make the excavation to the depth they require the stone to be laid, then put the stone in and either beat it down with hand implements or with the roller I have mentioned.

Dr. CARROLL. I suppose a steam crusher would greatly reduce the cost also.

Mr. ROIG. Doubtless it would, because one of the machines can break up from 50 to 60 cubic meters a day, and a man can not break a cubic meter a day.

Dr. CARROLL. We pay about 90 cents a ton for cracked stone in the United States; that is, including cartage. That would insure cheap road making here.

Mr. ROIG. There is no road in this country of any use unless it has a stone top, because after a rain a cart opens a ditch in the road, water collects there, and the road is injured.

Dr. CARROLL. It is an axiom now that money put in roads made of gravel is money thrown away.

Mr. ROIG. I have held that opinion for a long time.

Dr. CARROLL. It is better to make 100 feet of good road in a year than a mile of gravel road.

DECADENCE DUE TO BAD ROADS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

AGUADILLA, P. R., *January 21, 1899.*

Mr. TORREGROSA. This city used to be one of great commercial importance, owing to the fact of its being the port of outlet for several interior towns which produce coffee. To-day it is a city of complete decadence. One of the chief reasons for this decadence is the complete abandonment of the roads. From here to Lares is a journey of six hours, and yet there are times when carts laden with freight require seven, eight, and ten days to make the journey.

Dr. CARROLL. That is when the weather is very wet and the roads very muddy.

Mr. TORREGROSA. Yes; in the rainy season, which lasts from seven to eight months.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the road from Aguadilla to Lares worse considerably than the road from Aguadilla to Camuy?

Mr. TORREGROSA. There is no comparison between them—very much worse. There are mud holes where oxen have fallen in and perished.

Dr. CARROLL. That has always been so, has it not?

Mr. TORREGROSA. Twenty years ago that was not the case. Roads were kept in good order, but since that time the Government has abandoned them completely and paid no attention to repeated appeals to have them repaired. Half the distance from Moca to Lares it is an infernal road. It is not more than six hours, but there have been instances of carts taking as long as fifteen days in making the journey. There have also been occasions when a hundredweight of freight has paid \$5, or four times that from Aguadilla to Liverpool. The opposite has taken place in Arecibo. Arecibo, a few years ago, was of no importance; but as the people of Lares have not been able to communicate freely with Aguadilla, they have opened a road to Arecibo and send their goods that way.

Dr. CARROLL. If they could open a road to Arecibo why could they not improve the road to Aguadilla?

Mr. TORREGROSA. The limits of Lares lie half way between here and Arecibo, and the people living in those districts were able to get to Arecibo better and it cost less to make the road.

Dr. CARROLL. What about the road from Lares to Camuy?

Mr. TORREGROSA. Bad; but the other is worse.

Dr. CARROLL. The town of Camuy itself is bad?

Mr. TORREGROSA. Very bad. Camuy and Hatillo should be joined to make one municipality.

Dr. CARROLL. How far is it from Rincón to Mayaguez?

Mr. TORREGROSA. It is about an hour's journey by railroad.

Mr. CARROLL. Why has the commercial importance of Aguadilla been deteriorating since the roads have been getting bad?

Mr. TORREGROSA. All these small towns around the coast are poor. The only two towns of importance that used to feed Aguadilla were San Sebastian and Lares. Since they have gone to Arecibo; Arecibo has gone ahead and Aguadilla has dropped behind.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the harbor of Aguadilla a good one?

Mr. TORREGROSA. One of the best in the island. Ships can remain here in all weather, they have such good anchorage. There is no trouble getting in and out. They do not even need a pilot.

Dr. CARROLL. Has the government discriminated against Aguadilla in any way?

Mr. TORREGROSA. As this town and the interior towns of Lares and San Sebastian were almost entirely in the hands of Porto Ricans, the Spanish Government would never do anything for the benefit of them.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there much shipping here now?

Mr. TORREGROSA. No, but there used to be. The traffic between this port and Europe and the United States used to be very important. Insurance companies that would not allow their vessels to stop at Arecibo never made any objection to their calling here.

Dr. CARROLL. What measures are necessary to reinstate the prosperity of Aguadilla?

Mr. TORREGROSA. The very first is the roads. If you will open them the rest will come.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the municipality do all that it can for its own roads and streets?

SECRETARY OF THE COUNCIL. This municipality can hardly cover its expenses. It assigns a small amount yearly to attend the vicinage roads, but the amount is so small it has very little effect. The municipality labors under too many restrictions. Everything has to be sent to the government center for approval. The municipality can do nothing of its own accord.

Dr. CARROLL. Are your propositions generally approved in San Juan?

SECRETARY OF THE COUNCIL. Since the American Government has been in power we have not sent any, but now the time of making our budget is approaching and we will have to send various propositions.

Mr. F. ESTEBES. I am a sugar planter and wish to say that what the sugar planters want is good roads and agricultural banks to advance them money with which to carry on their work. Agriculture is the source of wealth of the country. The real wealth of the country lies in the interior. The land around the coast has been worked out, and what we want is better facilities for bringing our produce from the interior to the coast towns. The interior possesses a large extent of fertile virgin lands.

Dr. CARROLL. How far from Aguadilla is your plantation?

Mr. ESTEBES. I have one estate near the railroad station and another near Moca, but this road that I speak of should go through the towns of Moca, San Sebastian, and Lares. The great part of the produce of the island is lost through not finding an outlet. It costs four or five times as much to bring it down to the coast as to transport it from the coast to the United States or Europe. Besides the staples, sugar, coffee, and tobacco, we could ship pineapples, oranges, and other things, if we had better facilities of communication with the interior.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any water power on this route which could

be used to run dynamos, so that you could have trolley roads into the interior?

Mr. ESTEBES. There are rivers of great volume of water which could be used for that purpose, and also plenty of material in the way of stone and lumber which could be used. As Aguadilla is a natural port for all those towns in the interior which I have named, the construction of a pier here is very necessary to accommodate shipping. Owing to the advancement made in scientific building of these structures, it could be built very easily.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you recommend that it be done by the state or by private enterprise?

Mr. ESTEBES. I think it would be a very good business enterprise for any private company to undertake. The municipality would do it if it could.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the present method of transporting freight from the shore to the ship and vice versa?

Mr. ESTEBES. We are about two hundred years behind the times in that respect. They bring the lighters up to the beach, turn them over so that the inside is perpendicular to the earth, and then they roll the hogsheds in, let the lighter fall back again into its normal position, and then push it out to the ships. Each hogshed pays one-half dollar. Bags of flour weighing 200 pounds pay 8 cents a bag.

Dr. CARROLL. You have no pier, then, at which the vessel can lie?

Mr. ESTEBES. No.

Dr. CARROLL. If the pier were built, could a vessel lie here at the pier in all kinds of weather?

Mr. ESTEBES. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think the prosperity of this city can be revived?

Mr. ROBERT SCHNABEL. Yes; if the roads are improved. It used to take only four hours from here to Lares, and now it requires two days. Sometimes it costs a dollar and a half to bring a quintal of coffee from Lares to this city. In good times it can be brought for 75 cents. In rainy times the peons are better for the bad roads, but only certain classes of articles can be taken up by them.

NEED OF RAILROAD FACILITIES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

CABO ROJO, P. R., *January 27, 1899.*

Mr. PAGAN. The natural course of the railroad is from Mayaguez to the bridge on the road you passed over joining the branch that leaves Yauco. It is a flat land and naturally adapted for the construction of a railroad. The construction of this road, or the alteration of the old plan, would be an immense benefit to this town district and to the surrounding districts. This road would receive freight from all of the largest and most productive estates of Cabo Rojo. It would also receive all the wealth of production of the neighboring municipality of Lajas; also that of Guanica; it would also take a lot of freight from the salt mines, one of which is at a short distance from here and another down on the southern corner of the island. One of these mines is only about half a mile from where the line would pass. This freight we speak of would not take away the freight of the port, because it would be for internal consumption. The railroad would

get 50,000 quintals of freight per annum from the salt transportation. A great quantity of tobacco also is produced all along the line.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you made representations to the railroad company?

Mr. PAGAN. No. A great quantity of corn also is raised along the line; also a large number of cattle—and very fine cattle, too—cocoanuts, firewood, cacao, lime in abundance, and bricks made of the best clay known in Porto Rico.

ROAD EXPERTS REQUIRED.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

ARROYO, P. R., *February 3, 1899.*

A gentleman of Maunabo and others:

Mr. ———; I would like to say a word about the roads and about the new tax laws. I think the money to be spent on the roads should be under the control of the government, and the work undertaken by contract and not left in the hands of the municipalities. For instance, this town has \$10,000, we will suppose. The people here are not able to study roads and are unable to make the best application of the money. In the mountains it is still more difficult. If the government is going to spend half a million dollars, that sum is too important to be left in the hands of incompetent persons. Engineers should do the work in order that the money may be well spent. The money will certainly be squandered if placed in the hands of the municipalities. We have asked for \$5,000. Perhaps it is too small for our needs, but the engineer would know what is required, and I think we should have the services of one.

Mr. ———. I think in every town there should be a road commission. In Maunabo there is nobody who knows anything about roads, and my experience is that money spent by the municipalities of the island on roads has been ignorantly spent. Sometimes the Spanish Government would give a town a couple of thousand dollars, and I have known cases where that amount disappeared entirely, and not a cent of it was even spent on roads.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there anything to be said about the roads of Arroyo?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. They are infernal. The road from here to Patillo should be built, also the vicinage road, and a road from here to San Lorenzo, which is now in project.

RAILROAD AND CART FREIGHTS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

YAUCO, *March 6, 1899.*

A GENTLEMAN. In Mayaguez there is a soap factory which makes very good soap, but as they have so small a market they can not go into it on a large scale, besides which the margin of profit is not large, but the quality of the soap is good, as I can show you.

Mr. VIVALDI. I am a merchant, and have never seen any of this soap.

Dr. CARROLL. This incident brings out very strongly and very clearly the great defect in this island, and that is in transportation.

If you had easy, quick, and cheap transportation and they produced good soap in Mayaguez you would know it here in Yauco.

A GENTLEMAN. A load from Mayaguez to Yauco costs 7 pesos now that the road is dry; in the wet season it costs 15 pesos.

Dr. CARROLL. That is an embargo on commerce between municipal districts.

The DRUGGIST. Before there was a railroad between here and Ponce I have paid 18 pesos for one ox load brought here from there.

Dr. CARROLL. How do the rates compare with railroad rates?

Mr. VIVALDI. In normal times, when the roads are dry, there are still people who prefer to bring their goods by cart, because they are brought direct from the playa, while by the railroad they have to cart them from the playa to the railroad station and then load them on the cars.

The DRUGGIST. I think on the average, in the rainy season, the freight is about 50 per cent less by railroad.

Dr. CARROLL. How much would you pay now, during the rainy season, on the railroad for the same load?

The DRUGGIST. From 2 to 3 pesos.

Dr. CARROLL. The railroad charges no more in bad weather than in good?

A GENTLEMAN. Besides, we can always have transportation.

Dr. CARROLL. How much does it cost to send a hogshead of sugar or a thousand pounds of coffee to Ponce by railroad?

A GENTLEMAN. Two-thirds of a cent per quintal per kilometer.

Dr. CARROLL. How many kilometers are there between here and Ponce?

Mr. CIANCHINI. Thirty-five.

Dr. CARROLL. What does it cost from here to Ponce for 2,500 pounds by cart?

Mr. CIANCHINI. Four pesos.

Mr. VIVALDI. The average freight on merchandise from the warehouse here to the warehouse in the playa at Ponce is 15 cents per quintal by cart; and the railroad freight and the car freight to Ponce are more or less alike—sometimes a little in favor of the cart freight.

Dr. CARROLL. What does it cost from the railroad in Ponce to the playa by cart?

Mr. VIVALDI. One dollar, and it costs 50 cents from the warehouse here to the station.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you consider the railroad freight rates too high?

Mr. VIVALDI. The general opinion here is that they are too high and could be lowered.

NOTE.—The commissioner made the following calculation on the transportation of 2,500 pounds from the warehouse in Yauco to the warehouse in the playa at Ponce on the basis of two-thirds cent per quintal (100 pounds) for 1 kilometer of distance:

Per quintal for 35 kilometers.....	\$0.234
Railroad charges	5.75
Cartage in Yauco50
Cartage in Ponce to playa.....	1.00
Total for 2,500 pounds.....	7.25

Several gentlemen present at the hearing examined the foregoing figures and acquiesced in the result as a fair estimate for the transportation of the amount stated.

Mr. ROIG. You must take into account that the railroad freight is

collected under different tariffs. The rate you have taken is that for carload lots.

Dr. CARROLL. It would be higher, then, for other freights?

Mr. ROIG. Yes; very much higher. Yauco is one of the most important cities of the island, and its traffic is one of the most extensive. It contains a population of 27,000 persons, with an area of 50,000 cuerdas, paying taxes, divided into 24 barrios, each one important in itself. There are 40 coffee estates of the first class and as many of the second class, a great many small coffee estates, and 10 sugar plantations. One of the grades of coffee most acceptable in Europe is Yauco coffee. Our surrounding districts also send their products to Yauco. Yauco exports 2,000,000 pesos' worth of coffee, and imports three-fourths of that amount of merchandise. Its natural port is Guanica. We require two hours to go to Ponce, over 35 kilometers, while we can reach Guanica in twenty minutes, over 5 kilometers. One great disadvantage of this is that we have to purchase our provisions from Ponce. Ponce controls the only communication between Yauco and the rest of the world, and the merchants there put their own terms on us. When our merchants have tried to import directly through Ponce, they have been badly treated. The Ponce people tried to have fines imposed on them, and put other hindrances in the way of direct importation. This town has sufficient vitality to exist by itself, and could do so easily if the port of Guanica was opened. It is a painful thing to us that, rich as this district is, we find ourselves tributary to another district, and we appeal to you, as the representative of the Government which can bring about this change, to bring it about.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the character of the harbor of Guanica?

Mr. ROIG. It is the best one in the island.

NOTE.—A few weeks later Guanica was opened as a port of entry on the commissioner's recommendation.

RESULT OF WRETCHED ROADS.

STATEMENT OF MR. P. SANTISTEBAN Y CHARIVARI, SPANISH MERCHANT.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 28, 1898.*

Countries which have the good fortune to possess honest and intelligent municipal administration usually have good roads—thanks to which they are also, as a rule, in possession of a flourishing commerce and agriculture. Their freight rates for agricultural products to the ports of exportation and for merchandise to the centers of consumption are nearly always low. This, however, is not the case in this island, there being important producing centers here where coffee, tobacco, and other crops are grown which have to pay from 2 to 4 pesos a hundredweight for freight charges to get their products to the port of shipment. This is owing to the wretched roads which have to be crossed, sometimes so bad that ox teams and drivers have been known to lose their lives. Postal communication with these parts is in no better shape.

STATE ROADS.

STATEMENT OF A. HARTMANN & CO.

ARROYO, P. R., November 7, 1898.

We think the Spanish system of highways (*carreteras*) being made and sustained by the state a very good idea. In proof of it there are good *carreteras* existing in the island. If the towns have to look after the roads, they would have more roads to attend to than their municipal finances could stand, and the result would be, in course of years, no roads. Without roads the island can not be developed in all its riches; though we expect American enterprise will give us railroads, there are many parts of the island where they can not be built, nor would it pay to do so.

DIFFICULTIES OF TRAVEL.

STATEMENT OF MAYOR EUSTOQUIO TORRES.

GUAYANILLA, P. R., November 7, 1898.

Apart from the Central road from San Juan to Ponce, that from this town to Adjuntas, and a few others, the rest do not merit the name of roads. During the rainy season travel from one town to another is almost impossible, not only owing to the bad condition of the roads, but also because of the absence of bridges, which is more noticeable when the rivers are swollen. But in the roads called "rural," which join one *barrio* (district) with another, this is still more apparent. This, as is natural, makes the moving of the crops very difficult, and is one of the chief difficulties agriculture has to contend against. The laws in force direct that these roads be kept in order by those using them, but if it is taken into account that these are mostly the field hands who live from hand to mouth on their miserable daily wage, and that the day they attended to the roads their families would be left without food, it will be seen how impracticable that measure is and how unjust to the laborers.

Therefore if an ample system of autonomy does not give the municipalities the right to control this matter, the foregoing order should be derogated, and the municipalities should be authorized to provide for the maintenance of these roads in their estimates, the province in either case setting aside a sum sufficient to help them for a period of four years, after which time the municipalities to take them under their exclusive charge.

As regards the *vecinales* (roads joining one town with another), the economic situation of almost all the towns of the island will not permit them to undertake the work necessary to provide a system of good roadways. I am of opinion that this should be a matter for the public treasury, at least until a stronger administration has lifted the municipalities out of the prostration into which they have fallen.

One of the roads which calls for immediate attention is certainly that from Mayaguez to Ponce, and another that from Ponce to Yauco, the latter not only because of its present bad condition, but because of the numerous towns it passes through and the trade depending on it. It is therefore of greatest moment that the road from Ponce to Yauco be declared *carretera* (highroad) and put under the jurisdiction of the province.

BETTER TRANSPORTATION INDISPENSABLE.

STATEMENT OF DELEGATION FROM PONCE.

PONCE, P. R., *November 8, 1898.*

In reference to our seaports and means of transportation to and from the interior of the island, we are to-day in about the same primitive state as when Puerto Rico was discovered. A short visit to the interior will demonstrate that the immense natural resources of Puerto Rico can not be properly developed unless we have the necessary means of transportation.

ROADS AND RAILROADS.

STATEMENT OF JOSE M. ORTIZ.

MAUNABO, P. R., *February 24, 1899.*

1. Speedy construction of roads, especially around the island (belt road), which for a long time has been neglected and contains places absolutely impassable; for instance, between Maunabo and Yabucoa, where at times even a horse can not pass.
2. Stimulate and assist the installation of railroads, both steam and otherwise, all over the island.
3. Grant facilities to foreign steamships to enable them to call at our ports.
4. Cheapness and rapidity in the mail and telegraph service.

INSUFFICIENCY OF TRANSPORTATION FACILITIES.

STATEMENT OF SEÑOR C. DOMINGUEZ.

GUAYAMA, P. R., *December 8, 1898.*

If we look at the topography of the island, it will be noted that its territory on the coast land is generally flat, and extensive valleys are found in this district. On the other hand, the interior of the island is very mountainous. On the coast land most of the sugar plantations, pasture lands, and cocoanut groves are to be found, also grazing lands and stock ranches, and, to a certain extent, tobacco, cocoa trees, and a fair number of vegetable products.

Coffee, the principal source of the wealth of the island, is cultivated on the highlands, the principal region of its cultivation being that about Yauco, Maricao, Lares, Ciales, Utuado, Adjuntas, San Sebastian, and Moca. Besides coffee, numerous small fruits are cultivated, and here the forests abound, full of fine woods for building and cabinet work.

Owing to the exuberance of our vegetation, almost all the lands of the island are capable of cultivation. The approximate area of the island is about 10,000 square kilometers. If, in addition to this data, it is taken into consideration that the island is peopled by about 900,000 inhabitants, that its agricultural productions exceed \$19,000,000, and that its exterior trade amounts to \$36,000,000, it will immediately be seen what a large amount of capital should be brought into the island for the proper development of those agencies which modern life and our particular necessities require.

Let us now look at the means which we possess to attend to the transportation of passengers and merchandise within this region. With respect to roads of the first order, we have one from the capital to Ponce, measuring 132 kilometers; one from Rio Piedras to Rio Grande, 25 kilometers; one from Arroyo to Cayey (by way of Guayama), of 25 kilometers, and pieces from Mayaguez to Añasco, from Bayamon to Reyes Catolicos, and, in course of construction, one from Arecibo to Ponce, 72 kilometers, which will be of great importance as joining four of the most flourishing districts of the island. The remaining roads are far from being in suitable condition; in fact, they are so lamentably bad that in the rainy season the freight on products from the interior to ports of shipment is two or three times as much as that across the Atlantic.

The aspect of railroads is not any more flattering. The railroad called the Belt Road covers 546 kilometers, of which 194 only are in operation. These 194 kilometers are cut up into four disconnected sections. The branch from Añasco to Lares is only finished between the first-named point and San Sebastian. The concession for the construction of a road from Arecibo to Utuado has already been granted, and a short time ago there was some thought of constructing a branch from Ponce to Jayuya, and another between Rio Piedras and Caguas.

Public works may always be considered as measuring the amount of interest and intelligence with which governments have attended to the well-being and greatness of their countries. We consider, for the reasons already stated, and to give impulse to agriculture and commerce on this island, a railroad should be constructed which would take in the whole of the shore line, with branches to the most important towns of the interior.

A NETWORK OF RAILROADS.

STATEMENT OF RUCABADO & CO.

CAYEY, P. R., *March 4, 1899.*

One of the most necessary requirements of this country is the opening of new roads between different districts which to-day, owing to the inexplicable indifference of the last government, are completely neglected. The best results would be obtained by a network of railroads joining the interior towns of the island. It would be less costly, quicker to construct, and more suitable than cart roads.

CENSUS OF THE POPULATION.

THE POPULATION OF PORTO RICO AT VARIOUS PERIODS SINCE THE SPANISH OCCUPATION.

The first census of Porto Rico, according to Acosta's annotated edition of Fray Iñigo Abbad's history of the island, was taken in 1765. The figures given for previous dates are, therefore, evidently estimates, official and otherwise. It is not clear that the results given for later years of the last and the early years of the present century were official. It is nowhere stated that the government took an annual census. How the figures given for those years were made up

there is no definite information to show. In 1867, we are told, a decennial census was ordered, but no figures are given for that year, and there is a break of seventeen years—from 1860 to 1877.

The table for 1775, as found in Abbad's work, is full of errors in addition, which Acosta refers to and says that he did not undertake to correct them. It is not a very difficult clerical work, however, to find and remove these errors. Similar errors are to be found in most other Spanish statistics. I have eliminated them from the tables for 1887 and 1897, as well as from that of 1775. The necessary changes very slightly affect the totals. Of much more importance is the discovery that the last column of the table for 1775, which has universally been understood to represent the total of population for that year, is only the total for all classes, excepting the slaves. The heading of the column *De Almas* (souls) would seem to be inclusive of all classes. Acosta himself accepts the footing, 70,260, as the total of all "classes and castes of inhabitants," but I am convinced that is this a mistake. The column of "souls" is embraced with that of "slaves" under the same heading, "Total general," showing that the compiler, from whom Abbad doubtless copied the table, intended to place "slaves" and "souls" in complementary columns, which must be added together in order to find the grand total. Any one may convince himself that this inference is correct by adding together, across the table, the several numbers representing whites, free mixed, free blacks, and groups, the sum of which will be found identical with that placed in the column of "souls." The total for that column, 73,932, represents, therefore, all classes of inhabitants of Porto Rico, except slaves. The slaves must be added in order to get the total population, which is found to be 80,504, which is more than 10,000 greater than has been attributed to Porto Rico for that year. In the table for 1765 no such discrepancy exists; the slaves are included in the final total. The population in 1765 was 44,883. The total for 1775 is 80,504. Here is a difference of 35,621, from which it would appear, if both censuses are correct, that there was an increase in ten years of 80 per cent. If there was any such increase, no explanation has been given of it, and one is left to suspect that one or both of the censuses must be incorrect. No errors in addition were found in the table for 1765. In all other tables, including those for 1887 and 1897, I have found many.

The returns for the censuses of 1887 and 1897 were kindly furnished by the secretary of state for Porto Rico, Señor Muñoz Rivera. They differ somewhat from the figures given for both censuses elsewhere. One authority, for example, gives 806,711 as the total population for 1887; another, 803,474, and another, 802,439, while in the table furnished by Mr. Rivera the footing is 798,565, all claiming to give official figures. The discrepancy between the last figure and the two preceding ones is in large part explained by the fact that evidently the former includes the Spanish soldiers and marines, and also the prisoners, while the latter does not. There were in 1887, 3,224 soldiers, 114 marines, and 536 prisoners, making a total of 802,439, which is 4,000 less than one of the figures above given. According to the census of 1897 the population in that year was 800,820. To be added to this number, as making up the actual population of the island on the 31st of December of that year, are 7,014 Spanish soldiers, 368 marines, and 1,101 prisoners, making a grand total of 899,203, as representing the actual population on the 31st of December, 1897. It will be observed that in ten years the number of soldiers and prisoners had more than doubled and the number of marines had more than trebled.

Among the intelligent Porto Ricans with whom I have talked there seems to be no very great confidence in the correctness of the figures of the census of 1897. It was taken under the direction of the Spaniards, who are said to have carried away most of the detailed returns when they left for the peninsula or to have destroyed them. I have obtained copies of the blank schedules used in that census. The sheets are from 14 to 20 inches in length and each is ruled for seventeen names. The province, judicial department, municipal district, section, and barrio are indicated, together with the street, number of the house, the story, etc. The inquiries embrace (1) sex, (2) race, (3) age, (4) civil state (married or single), (5) family relation, (6) education, (7) place of birth, (8) nationality, (9) resident or transient, (10) present or absent, (11) length of residence in the municipal district, (12) profession or occupation, (13) period of absence, and (14) legal residence of transients. A distinction is made between the actual or *hecho* and the legal or *derecho* population. The former includes all who are present, whether citizens or not, permanent or transient residents; the latter, those who are citizens of Porto Rico or of Spain, both present and absent. It would be interesting to know how the population is divided among the various occupations and how many can read and write, but I am informed that, notwithstanding the requirements of the schedules, there are no returns for these items, or they are too incomplete to be tabulated.

The progress of the population of Porto Rico since the discovery of Columbus has been greatest in the present century. The aborigines disappeared "like the mists before the sun," according to an authority quoted by Acosta, shortly after the Spaniards began to settle the island. In 1493, the year of the discovery by Columbus, there were, Secretary Coll thinks, not more than 80,000 to 100,000 Bori-queños or Caribs. Acosta's estimate is 200,000. Both agree in saying that the estimate of Father Las Casas—600,000—is impossible, because the island could not have supported so large a population living in such a primitive state, because in 1511 only 11,000 Caribs could be mustered to oppose the invaders and to strike a final blow for the liberty of the natives, and because it is not conceivable that 600,000 persons could be destroyed within a generation, authentic documents showing, it is claimed, that there was only a small remnant of Indians in 1530. The lot of the Indians was indeed a hard one. They were virtually slaves; and when they finally disappeared as a distinct race, the Africans, who had come with the first colonists, continued to serve the Spanish settlers as bondmen until 1873. If the first census is at all trustworthy, the number of inhabitants, including slaves, was less than 45,000 in 1765, which was more than two hundred and fifty years after the settlement of the oldest town, Caparra. That is slow progress, indeed. It is partly explained, however, by the fact that gold fields were opened by Pizarro and other Spanish adventurers in South America, and that the Spanish thirst for gold led the migration from Spain in that direction and also tempted all who could to abandon Porto Rico, which, while it was rich in other natural productions, was not a promising gold field.

From 1765 to the close of the century there was an increase of 110,593, showing that the tide of population was setting from the peninsula more rapidly and steadily toward the West Indies. In the next twelve years there was a gain of about 28,000; some 38,000 were added in the next three years, if we may believe the record, while the growth in the next nineteen years was 128,000. The large growth in

the fifty years ending in 1834 was brought about by the gradual relaxation of the laws prohibiting foreigners from settling in Porto Rico. In 1778 some Catholic workmen were allowed to come from neighboring islands, and by a royal decree of 1815, when the golden age of the island is said to have begun, many foreigners were allowed to obtain land and became permanent residents. In the period between 1834 and 1846 there was a net increase of 85,000. From 1834 to 1877 the population was considerably more than doubled. In the decade 1877 to 1887 the increase was about 71,000, and in that of 1887 to 1897 upward of 87,000.

In the period 1765 to 1783 the population doubled; in that of 1783 to 1803 it doubled again; in that of 1803 to 1834 it doubled a third time; in 1834 to 1877 it doubled a fourth time. The gain in the last twenty years has been at the rate of 22 per cent. During the present century the population has almost multiplied itself by 6. This sextuple increase shows that it was only in the present century that the Madrid Government made the conditions of settlement in Porto Rico sufficiently attractive to induce a large migration to the colony.

NOTES ON THE POPULATION OF PORTO RICO AT PERIODS.

By SEÑOR COLLY TOSTE, *Secretary of the Treasury.*

1493 (date of discovery).—According to the historian Fray Bartolomé de las Casas, the island was as thickly populated as a beehive. Fray Inigo Abbad, agreeing with Bayacete, places the number at 600,000. The probable number is from 80,000 to 100,000 aborigines, taking into consideration the difficulties of obtaining food and the unhealthiness of the intertropical climate.

1515-1535.—Thirty-five residents in Caparra (old capital) and 35 in San German, the only two towns of the island (Licentiate Velasquez). The aborigines were then formed into gangs and were working in the mines. Those who had taken part in the uprising were branded with an "F" in the forehead.

1548.—The capital, more than 100 residents, and San German a few more than 30 (Bishop Bastido). Aborigines, but very few.

1556.—The capital, 130; San German, 20 residents. (This latter had been burned by French corsairs.)

1646.—The capital, 500; San German, 200; Arecibo, 100; Coamo, 80 inhabitants.

1759.—5,611 fighting men, according to Governor Esteban Bravo.

1765.—44,833 souls, according to Governor O'Reilly (first census).

1775.—70,260 souls (Fray Inigo).

1782.—81,120 souls.

1783.—87,984 souls.

1788.—101,398 souls.

1793.—120,022 souls.

1796.—132,982 souls.

1798.—144,525 souls.

1799.—153,232 souls.

1800.—155,426 souls.

1802.—163,192 souls.

1803.—174,902 souls.

1812.—183,014 souls.

1815.—220,892 souls.

1834.—358,836 souls.

1846.—443,139 souls (Santiago Fortun).

1860.—580,329 souls (Paulino Garcia).

1877.—731,648 souls.

1884.—784,709 souls.

1887.—802,439 souls. This last was made up of 474,993 whites, 246,617 mixed, 76,985 blacks, plus 3,224 individuals of the army, 114 of the navy, and 536 prisoners.

1897.—899,394, made up of 573,187 whites, 241,900 mixed, 75,824 blacks, plus 7,014 individuals of the army, 368 of the navy, and 1,101 prisoners.

Since 1867 the census of the island was ordered to be taken every ten years. From 1860 to 1867 no census was taken. In the last census of 1897 it is noteworthy that the black race is not prospering, as will be seen by comparing the number of blacks, 75,824, with that of 1887, 76,985. By not allowing black immigration from the neighboring islands and counting on a 3 per cent annual loss by absorption by the white and mixed races the 75,824 negroes now in the island will have disappeared in 300 years, more or less. This study in anthropology is interesting, for if that should happen Porto Rico would be the only island of the Antilles in which the white race would preponderate numerically.

TABLE I.—Census of 1897.—Poblacion de hecho, or actual population.

Municipal district.	Resident.				Transient.				Summary.						
	Spaniards.		Foreigners.		Spaniards.		Foreigners.		White.	Mixed.	Black.	Total.			
	White.	Mixed.	Black.	Total.	White.	Mixed.	Black.	Total.							
First department.															
San Juan:															
Males	10,197	3,827	2,230	16,254	112	33	33	178	261	34	20	515	25	1	28
Females	8,040	4,768	2,890	15,698	90	33	35	157	190	60	28	287	10	1	11
Total	18,237	8,595	5,120	31,932	211	66	68	345	450	94	48	802	35	2	39
Bayamon:															
Males	4,650	3,042	820	8,530	8	1	2	10	33	6	1	39	3	1	3
Females	4,716	3,280	882	8,878	13	1	1	15	52	12	1	65	4	1	5
Total	9,366	6,322	1,711	17,406	21	2	3	25	85	18	2	104	7	2	8
Carolina:															
Males	2,081	2,077	1,632	5,810	1	1	1	2	19	6	4	29	1	1	1
Females	1,948	2,160	1,785	5,893	1	1	1	2	37	3	2	42	1	1	1
Total	4,029	4,237	3,417	11,703	2	2	2	4	56	9	6	71	2	2	2
Rio Piedras:															
Males	2,667	2,065	1,127	5,859	10	7	1	17	30	9	2	41	1	1	1
Females	2,300	2,263	1,141	5,704	9	5	1	15	50	14	6	70	1	1	1
Total	5,266	4,328	2,268	11,862	19	12	2	32	80	23	8	111	2	2	2
Vega Baja:															
Males	2,841	1,375	458	4,674	4	1	1	6	17	4	1	22	1	1	1
Females	2,614	1,374	380	4,368	1	1	1	3	10	12	1	16	1	1	1
Total	5,455	2,749	838	9,042	5	2	2	9	27	16	2	38	2	2	2
Corozal:															
Males	3,752	1,276	225	5,253	1	1	1	2	72	10	1	82	1	1	1
Females	3,694	1,319	238	5,251	1	1	1	3	68	9	1	77	1	1	1
Total	7,446	2,595	463	10,464	2	2	2	5	140	19	2	159	2	2	2

[illegible]

TABLE I.—Census of 1897—Población de hecho, or actual population—Continued.

Municipal district.	Resident.				Transient.				Summary.										
	Spaniards.			Total.	Foreigners.			Spaniards.			Total.	Foreigners.			Total.	Mixed.	Black.	Total.	
	White.	Mixed.	Black.		White.	Mixed.	Black.	White.	Mixed.	Black.		White.	Mixed.	Black.					
Second department.																			
	Arecibo:																		
	Males	12,179	3,436	1,070	16,685	84	4	2	90	183	5	7	200	1	12,432	3,445	1,079	18,976	
	Females	12,343	3,690	1,146	17,179	87	6	5	78	38	8	1	47	3	12,451	3,704	1,152	17,307	
Total	24,522	7,126	2,216	33,864	151	10	7	168	226	13	8	247	4	24,903	7,149	2,231	34,283		
Barceloneta:																			
	Males	2,269	1,601	153	4,023	1		1	1	2			2	2,272	1,601	153	4,026		
	Females	2,130	1,546	132	3,808					3	2		5	2,131	1,548	132	3,813		
	Total	4,399	3,147	285	7,831	1			1	5	2		7		4,403	3,149	285	7,839	
Ciales:																			
	Males	5,623	1,643	333	8,632	2			2	51	12	1	64		6,684	1,658	334	8,686	
	Females	5,984	1,366	249	7,600					33	13		36		6,047	1,369	249	7,905	
	Total	12,617	3,232	652	16,501	2			2	74	25	1	100		12,693	3,257	653	16,603	
Canmy:																			
	Males	4,367	244	196	4,807	3		1	4	2			2		4,832	244	197	4,833	
	Females	4,542	266	229	5,028	1		1	2	3			3		4,546	266	229	5,045	
	Total	8,909	510	416	9,835	4		2	6	5			5		8,918	510	418	9,846	
Hatillo:																			
	Males	3,984	517	183	4,634					6		2	7	1	3,990	517	185	4,692	
	Females	4,633	546	171	5,770					1			1		4,684	546	171	5,771	
	Total	8,617	1,063	354	9,454					7		2	8	1	8,674	1,063	356	9,463	
Manati:																			
	Males	4,065	1,365	437	6,127	1			1	2	3		6	2	4,100	1,368	437	6,135	
	Females	4,278	1,070	430	6,378					1	1		2		4,279	1,071	430	6,380	
	Total	8,373	3,265	867	12,545	1			1	3	4		7	2	8,379	3,269	867	12,515	

TABLE 1.—Census of 1897—Population de hecho, or actual population—Continued.

Municipal district.	Resident.				Transient.				Summary.			
	Spaniards.		Foreigners.		Spaniards.		Foreigners.		White.	Mixed.	Black.	Total.
	White.	Mixed.	Black.	Total.	White.	Mixed.	Black.	Total.				
Third department—Cont'd.												
Mo-a.												
Males	5,477	622	83	6,122								
Females	5,221	712	90	6,023								
Total	10,698	1,334	163	12,195								
Rincon.												
Males	2,880	144	78	3,062	7	6						
Females	2,811	165	68	3,044		4						
Total	5,691	309	146	6,096	7	10						
San Sebastian.												
Males	7,210	770	223	8,222	2	31	2	43	1			
Females	7,019	658	212	7,869		30	2	34				
Total	14,228	1,428	445	16,001	2	61	4	67	1			
Total third department:												
Males	41,820	4,207	1,572	47,695	47	30	14	416	3			
Females	41,710	4,627	1,600	47,937	38	41	10	135	1			
Total	83,536	8,824	3,172	95,532	85	71	24	541	4			
Fourth department.												
Ponce.												
Males	15,922	5,077	2,372	23,361	371	115	23	138	43	3		
Females	15,106	5,705	2,662	23,332	302	175	47	120	5	2	1	
Total	31,027	10,842	5,034	46,913	673	190	70	258	48	5	1	
Aibonito.												
Males	2,492	528	595	3,615	15	324	27	384	4			
Females	2,406	514	543	3,523	15	67	3	74				
Total	4,898	1,042	1,138	7,138	30	391	30	458	4			

Adjuntas:	7,858	811	776	0,445	72	182	1	4	187	1	8,113	812	780	9,705
Males	7,858	772	689	8,850	14	17			1		7,429	772	690	8,882
Females														
Total	15,247	1,583	1,465	18,285	86	199	1	5	295	1	15,553	1,584	1,470	18,287
Barros:														
Males	5,102	1,250	345	6,707	10	11	345	3			5,253	1,254	345	6,852
Females	4,868	1,224	317	6,409		7	2				4,875	1,225	317	6,418
Total	9,970	2,484	662	13,116	10	11	132	5			10,128	2,479	662	13,270
Barranquitas:														
Males	3,088	689	171	3,898			8		8	1	3,097	689	171	3,967
Females	3,005	665	165	3,835		4	2		6		3,069	667	165	3,841
Total	6,093	1,354	336	7,733			12	2	14	1	6,166	1,356	336	7,798
Casco:														
Males	3,939	1,977	655	6,571	16	17	14	1	3	18	3,960	1,978	659	6,740
Females	3,876	2,013	684	6,553	11	14	15		1	16	3,902	2,014	687	6,573
Total	7,815	3,990	1,339	13,094	27	31	29	1	4	34	7,871	3,992	1,346	13,313
Guanilla:														
Males	2,375	1,762	172	4,299	57	58	12	8	1	19	2,444	1,762	174	4,377
Females	2,253	1,770	166	4,169	25	27	12	5		17	2,270	1,775	168	4,213
Total	4,608	3,522	338	8,468	82	86	24	11	1	36	4,714	3,537	342	8,590
Yauco:														
Males	6,127	6,630	551	13,306	293	299	174	16	4	194	6,206	6,651	557	13,712
Females	6,016	6,565	541	13,142	121	126	26	11	4	41	6,165	6,601	543	13,313
Total	12,143	13,215	1,092	26,448	414	425	200	27	8	235	12,371	13,252	1,102	27,025
Juana Diaz:														
Males	7,428	3,867	1,158	12,251	70	75	129	16	16	161	7,628	3,885	1,205	12,518
Females	7,150	3,419	1,031	11,610	44	47	10	10	8	28	7,214	3,432	1,040	11,689
Total	14,578	7,286	2,217	23,891	114	122	139	26	24	189	14,842	7,317	2,245	24,204
Penuelas:														
Males	2,066	2,501	377	5,034	22	22	2	6		8	2,090	2,507	377	5,084
Females	2,846	2,480	327	5,672	6	6	1	3		4	2,858	2,502	327	5,682
Total	5,812	5,000	704	11,006	28	28	3	9		12	5,843	5,009	704	11,048
Santa Isabel:														
Males	992	897	442	2,061	11	12	64	37	36	137	998	795	480	2,213
Females	853	646	413	1,921	7	7	44	44	27	115	910	683	441	2,044
Total	1,751	1,546	855	3,982	18	19	108	81	63	252	1,908	1,478	921	4,257

[illegible]

TABLE I.—Census of 1897—Population *de hecho*, or actual population—Continued.

Municipal district.	Resident.						Transient.						Summary.		
	Spaniards.			Foreigners.			Spaniards.			Foreigners.			White.	Mixed.	Black.
	White.	Mixed.	Black.	Total.	White.	Mixed.	Black.	Total.	White.	Mixed.	Black.	Total.			
<i>Sixth department—Cont'd.</i>															
Caguas:															
Males	4,389	3,628	665	8,680	7	19	8	28	2	2		2	4,397	3,637	696
Females	4,116	3,563	751	8,430	2	36	2	40					4,152	3,571	754
Total	8,495	7,191	1,416	17,120	7	55	15	73	2	2		2	8,549	7,208	1,450
Cayey:															
Males	4,365	1,817	373	6,555	18	490	75	586	5	5		5	4,868	1,833	404
Females	4,423	1,854	326	6,603	12	136	90	217					4,591	1,914	317
Total	8,788	3,731	699	13,158	30	626	165	823	5	5		5	9,459	3,807	721
Comerio:															
Males	2,905	1,141	211	4,257		15	6	21	1			1	2,921	1,147	211
Females	2,690	1,061	205	3,956		9	3	12					2,699	1,064	205
Total	5,595	2,202	416	8,213		24	9	33	1			1	5,620	2,211	416
Cidra:															
Males	2,606	671	135	3,412		1							2,606	671	135
Females	2,539	702	138	3,379		2		2				2	2,541	702	135
Total	5,145	1,373	271	6,809		3		2				2	5,147	1,373	272
Garabo:															
Males	2,041	1,403	532	4,026	2	28	8	37					2,071	1,411	539
Females	2,065	1,312	503	3,970		21	5	26					2,086	1,317	505
Total	4,106	2,715	1,035	7,996	2	49	13	65					4,157	2,728	1,044
San Lorenzo:															
Males	2,775	2,894	532	6,201		170	16	186	1			1	2,946	2,910	534
Females	2,830	2,925	540	6,295		31	9	40					2,851	2,934	540
Total	5,605	5,819	1,072	12,496		201	25	226	1			1	5,797	5,844	1,074

[illegible]

TABLE I.—Census of 1887—Población de hecho, or actual population—Continued.

Municipal district.	Resident.				Transient.				Summary.								
	Spaniards.		Foreigners.		Spaniards.		Foreigners.		White.	Mixed.	Black.	Total.					
	White.	Mixed.	Black.	Total.	White.	Mixed.	Black.	Total.									
Seventh department—Cont'd.													Total.				
Naguabo:																	
Males	2,384	1,446	462	4,892	9	17	1	18	4			4		3,014	1,452	477	
Females	3,063	1,415	420	4,898	6	13	1	16	3	1	1	5		3,077	1,424	423	
Total	6,037	2,861	882	9,780	15	30	2	34	7	1	1	9		6,091	2,876	900	
Patillas:															Total.		
Males	1,862	3,038	513	5,444	13	27	18	43	2			2	1,904	3,089		516	
Females	1,843	2,979	538	5,360	6	18	16	39					1,867	2,896		544	
Total	3,705	6,046	1,051	10,804	19	45	34	87	2			2	3,771	5,985		1,060	
Piedras:																Total.	
Males	2,124	1,524	320	3,968	1	6	2	14					2,143	1,536	324		
Females	2,060	1,479	340	3,879		5	4	9					2,085	1,483	340		
Total	4,214	3,013	670	7,897	1	11	6	23					4,228	3,019	674		
Total seventh department:															7,921		
Total seventh department:													Total.				
Males	19,060	14,570	4,187	37,767	70	137	134	34	10		1	11		19,670	14,738	4,244	
Females	19,061	14,964	4,060	38,075	45	132	134	17	3	1	1	5		19,338	15,142	4,092	
Total	38,141	29,534	8,157	75,842	115	269	268	51	13	1	2	16		39,008	29,881	8,336	
Total														77,223			
Eighth department.													Total.				
Vieques:																Total.	
Males	1,207	933	353	2,493	38	51	27	5	2	1	4	7		1,365	1,012		401
Females	1,293	993	321	2,623	45	48	13	7	4	1		5		1,317	1,030		410
Total	2,446	1,896	674	5,016	83	99	40	12	6	2	4	12		2,682	2,042		810
Culebra:															Total.		
Males	156	121	76	356	2	1	3	1			1	2	164	125		87	
Females	128	136	80	346			3	1					130	132		83	
Total	284	249	159	692	2	1	6	2			1	2	294	257		170	
Total													721				

Total eighth department:	1,363	1,054	432	2,849	40	51	125	296	121	30	2	5	0	1,329	1,137	578	3,244
Males	1,367	1,091	401	2,859	45	49	98	193	81	21	2	1	5	1,447	1,263	592	3,111
Females																	
Total	2,730	2,145	833	5,708	85	100	294	419	155	51	8	3	5	2,976	2,399	1,090	6,355

RECAPITULATION.

Males	284,623	117,875	36,846	499,344	1,683	225	361	2,269	5,435	971	428	147	11	174	261,896	119,087	37,646	448,619
Females	277,615	121,546	37,327	436,738	1,156	314	338	1,811	2,363	888	311	53	7	70	281,210	123,808	36,181	442,201
Total	562,238	239,421	74,373	936,082	2,842	539	699	4,080	7,806	1,859	739	200	18	244	573,066	241,895	73,829	890,820

TABLE II.—Summary by departments.

Department.	Resident.				Transient.				Summary.			
	Spaniards.				Foreigners.				Spaniards.			
	Foreigners.				Spaniards.				Foreigners.			
	White.	Mixed.	Black.	Total.	White.	Mixed.	Black.	Total.	White.	Mixed.	Black.	Total.
San Juan	52,315	51,615	21,113	145,043	289	86	97	472	625	215	71	1,201
Arecibo	16,266	24,898	7,924	49,088	166	10	11	187	720	151	68	939
Pagadilla	13,802	8,261	3,172	25,235	83	10	15	108	31	23	18	54
Ponce	13,802	31,201	15,160	60,163	1,363	151	146	1,660	1,457	266	174	1,890
Mayaguez	78,822	21,524	6,487	106,833	470	20	38	528	239	140	170	549
Guayama	38,315	27,267	8,477	74,059	245	76	116	437	532	209	273	1,014
Punacoe	38,111	29,231	8,197	75,539	115	76	116	307	266	51	1,006	1,323
Vieques	2,730	2,145	853	5,708	85	100	234	419	155	51	8	214
Total	362,238	239,421	74,373	676,032	2,842	539	699	4,080	7,816	1,859	739	10,414
									200	26	18	244
									573,066	241,895	73,829	890,820

TABLE III.—Sex and race in 1897.

	Population.	Percent- age.
Males.....	448,619	0.504
Females.....	442,301	.496
White.....	573,086	.643
Mixed.....	241,895	.272
Black.....	75,829	.085

TABLE IV.—Penal population—Census of 1897.¹

Departments.	Number of pris- oners.	Departments.	Number of pris- oners.
San Juan.....	799	Guayama.....	58
Arecibo.....	48	Humacao.....	57
Aguadilla.....	24		
Mayaguez.....	62	Total.....	1,101
Ponce.....	53		

¹ Evidently the entire number of prisoners in all classes of prisons, including municipal jails.

TABLE V.—Totals of population—Census of 1897.

Total general population.....	890,820
Spanish military forces.....	7,014
Spanish naval forces.....	368
Prisoners.....	1,001
Total.....	899,203

TABLE VI.—Census of 1887 compared with census of 1897.—Race and sex.¹

MALES.

Department.	White.			Mixed.			Black.		
	1897.	1887.	In- crease (+) or de- crease (-).	1897.	1887.	In- crease (+) or de- crease (-).	1897.	1887.	In- crease (+) or de- crease (-).
San Juan.....	38,132	30,401	+ 7,731	25,089	23,875	+ 1,214	10,225	9,628	+ 597
Arecibo.....	59,324	46,428	+ 12,896	11,805	11,378	+ 427	4,105	3,858	+ 247
Aguadilla.....	42,266	36,100	+ 6,166	4,311	4,571	- 260	1,637	1,912	- 275
Ponce.....	80,304	46,250	+ 34,054	25,826	27,026	- 1,200	7,807	7,798	+ 9
Mayaguez.....	40,874	84,014	- 43,140	17,188	19,541	- 2,353	4,189	4,356	- 167
Guayama.....	26,737	25,480	+ 1,257	18,994	17,394	+ 1,600	4,841	5,184	- 343
Humacao.....	19,670	19,448	+ 222	14,789	16,178	- 1,389	4,244	4,810	- 566
Vieques.....	1,529	1,279	+ 250	1,137	1,073	+ 64	573	801	- 228
Total.....	291,896	239,400	+ 52,496	118,087	121,304	- 3,217	37,646	38,817	- 1,171

FEMALES.

Department.	White.			Mixed.			Black.		
	1897.	1887.	In- crease (+) or de- crease (-).	1897.	1887.	In- crease (+) or de- crease (-).	1897.	1887.	In- increase (+) or de- crease (-).
San Juan.....	35,440	28,717	+ 6,723	26,920	26,074	+ 846	10,990	10,817	+ 173
Arecibo.....	57,562	46,886	+ 10,676	11,954	11,804	+ 150	3,908	3,711	+ 197
Aguadilla.....	41,858	36,517	+ 5,341	4,839	4,850	- 11	1,608	2,046	- 438
Ponce.....	56,583	43,808	+ 12,775	26,100	26,789	- 689	7,705	7,870	- 165
Mayaguez.....	39,834	33,939	+ 5,895	17,379	20,156	- 2,777	4,477	4,490	- 13
Guayama.....	28,800	25,885	+ 2,915	19,304	18,049	+ 1,255	4,801	5,029	- 228
Humacao.....	19,838	19,618	+ 220	15,142	16,499	- 1,357	4,082	4,646	- 564
Vieques.....	1,447	1,135	+ 312	1,162	1,028	+ 134	502	659	- 157
Total.....	281,210	236,538	+ 44,672	122,908	125,343	- 2,435	36,183	38,638	- 2,455

¹ There are wide discrepancies between reports of the results of the census of 1887. One authority gives the population at 306,711. In Table VI the returns by departments were certified to the commissioner by the secretary of state, Senor Muñoz Rivera. His total is 708,665, which evidently does not include the Spanish military and naval forces and the prisoners. These aggregate 8,674, making the total 717,339. Another authority gives the figures 803,474. It is impossible to reconcile these differences, because there is no way of ascertaining the cause of them.

TABLE VI.—*Census of 1887 compared with census of 1897.—Race and sex—Cont'd.*

SUMMARY.

	1897.	1887.	Increase.	Decrease.
Males:				
White	291,896	239,400	52,496	
Mixed	119,087	121,304		2,217
Black	37,646	38,817		1,171
Total	448,619	399,521	49,098	
Females:				
White	281,310	235,533	45,777	
Mixed	122,808	125,343		2,535
Black	38,183	39,668		1,485
Total	442,301	399,544	42,757	
Aggregate:				
White	573,096	474,933	98,163	
Mixed	241,895	246,647		4,752
Black	75,829	78,485		2,656
Total	890,820	799,565	91,255	

TABLE VII.—*Summary of population in 1765.*

	Free.	Slaves.
Males	10,968	3,439
Females	11,487	
Children	17,381	
Total	39,836	6,837

General total, 44,883.

TABLE VIII.—*Summary of population in 1775.*

	Residents.		Sons.	Daughters.	Total.
	Men.	Women.			
Whites	5,349	4,663	9,908	9,284	29,199
Free mixed	5,433	5,346	11,388	11,431	34,148
Free blacks	898	590	890	712	2,795
Groups	4,351	3,441			7,792
Slaves	3,450	3,122			6,572
Total souls	19,276	17,102	22,696	21,427	80,504

INCREASE OF POPULATION FROM 1765 TO 1897.

Between 1775 and 1877 no full tables of census returns are given. The following figures are, with two or three exceptions, those of Acosta, in his notes in Abbad's History:

TABLE IX.

Year.	Popula- tion.	Year.	Popula- tion.	Year.	Popula- tion.	Year.	Popula- tion.
1765	44,883	1788	101,308	1796	182,982	1812	183,014
1775	80,504	1789	103,061	1797	138,758	1815	220,892
1782	81,190	1790	106,879	1798	144,325	1824	358,556
1783	87,994	1791	112,712	1799	153,252	1846	443,130
1784	91,845	1792	115,557	1800	155,426	1860	568,308
1785	93,300	1793	120,022	1801	158,051	1877	731,048
1786	96,233	1794	127,133	1802	163,192	1887	802,406
1787	98,877	1795	129,758	1803	174,902	1897	890,520

TABLE X.—Population in 1834.

Whites	188,869
Free, mixed	101,275
Free, blacks	25,124
Slaves	41,818
Troops and prisoners	1,750
Total	358,836

TABLE XI.—Population in 1846.

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Whites	109,061	107,022	216,083
Free, mixed	76,728	77,572	154,300
Free, blacks	10,200	11,131	21,331
Mixed slaves	6,366	6,674	13,040
Black slaves	21,908	16,517	38,425
Total	224,223	218,716	443,130

TABLE XII.—Population in 1860.

	Families.	Souls.
San Juan	3,387	18,259
Bayamon	13,951	77,781
Arecibo	13,916	80,427
Aguadilla	12,558	70,629
Mayaguez	18,425	107,710
Ponce	16,961	96,116
Guayama	11,546	68,891
Humacao	10,150	59,516
Total	99,994	580,329
Isle of Vieques	530	2,973
General total	100,524	583,308

BY RACE AND SEX.

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Whites	154,350	146,080	300,430
Free colored	120,887	120,618	241,505
Slaves	21,668	20,068	41,736
Total	296,415	286,766	583,181
Not classified by races			127
General total			583,308

TABLE XII.—*Population in 1860—Continued.*

PERCENTAGE BY RACE AND SEX.

	Per cent.
Whites:	
Males5207
Females5094
Free colored:	
Males4061
Females4206
Slaves:	
Males0731
Females0699

BY NATIONALITY.

	National.	Foreign.
Whites	298,704	1,726
Free colored	280,821	1,930
Total	579,525	3,656

BY AGE.

Less than 1 year	16,852
Between 1 year and 7 years	158,502
Between 8 and 15 years	114,721
Between 16 and 20 years	61,616
Between 21 and 25 years	57,693
Between 26 and 30 years	57,556
Between 31 and 40 years	64,734
Between 41 and 50 years	35,524
Between 51 and 60 years	22,710
Between 61 and 70 years	11,758
Between 71 and 80 years	3,078
Between 81 and 85 years	928
Between 86 and 90 years	970
Between 91 and 95 years	253
Between 96 and 100 years	218
100 years or more	73

BY OCCUPATION.

	Whites.	Free colored.
Proprietors	8,855	4,593
Farm peasants	17,895	9,642
Merchants	3,091	321
Manufacturers	26	6
Industrial pursuits	891	512
Ecclesiastics	159	—
Active employments	874	—
Pensioned officials and superannuated	49	—
Active military duty, including trained militia	11,133	44
Retired	117	12
Professors	454	15

CIVIL STATE.

	Single.	Married.	Widow and widower.
Whites:			
Males	112,555	37,155	4,600
Females	98,871	36,756	10,453
Free colored:			
Males	92,167	24,599	3,632
Females	89,359	24,218	7,040
Slaves:			
Males	21,372	838	57
Females	19,766	256	57

TABLE XII.—Population in 1860—Continued.

LITERACY.

	Literate.	Illiterate.
Whites:		
Males	27,009	127,341
Females	17,719	128,861
Free colored:		
Males	3,672	188,393
Females	2,850	187,836
Total	51,250	531,931

* LITERACY IN PORTO RICO AND CUBA COMPARED.

	Literate.	Illiterate.
Cuba:		
Male	35.00	67.00
Female	26.00	74.00
Porto Rico:		
Male	17.50	82.50
Female	12.50	87.50

TABLE XIII.—Increase of population by race, 1765–1897.

Year.	Whites.	Increase.	Free colored.	Increase.	Slaves.	Increase.
1765					5,037	
1775	29,100		36,941		6,572	1,535
1834	188,867	159,668	128,399	89,458	41,818	35,246
1846	216,063	27,216	175,791	49,392	51,216	9,398
1860	300,430	84,347	241,015	65,224	41,736	19,480
1887	474,933	174,503	323,632	82,617		
1897	573,086	98,163	317,724	16,908		

¹ Decrease.

GEOGRAPHICAL.

SAN JUAN, P. R., November 2, 1898.

Mr. ANDRES CROSAS, an American citizen, many years in business in Puerto Rico:

The area of the island of Puerto Rico has been represented as 3,865 square miles, and in a new geography it is given as 3,500 square miles. The fact is there has never been an accurate survey, and the true area lies probably between those figures. There was a triangular survey of the island made by the engineer staff officers of the Spanish army, but the Spaniards took that survey away with them. That survey cost the island a great deal. I do not know how much.



RIVERS AND BROOKS.

[Those in braces are known by the first name, the other names being of branches or feeders; Italics indicate different names for the same river; Q. means quebrada, or brook; R. means rio, or river.]

NORTH COAST FROM EAST TO WEST.

Q. Fajardo.	R. Bairoa.	R. Bayamon.	R. Arecibo.
Q. Juan Martin.	R. Caguitas.	R. Hondo.	R. Tanama.
R. Pitajalla.	R. Quebradillas.	R. de la Plata.	R. Criminales.
R. Sabana.	R. Turabo.	R. Usabon.	R. de los Angeles.
R. Mameyes.	R. Valencia.	R. Guayabate.	R. Alonso.
R. Grande.	R. Gurabo.	R. Chico de Carite.	R. Limones.
R. Espiritu Santo.	Q. Baden.	R. Carite.	Q. Seca.
R. Herrera.	Q. Grande.	R. Hondo.	Q. Beblaca.
R. Canovanas.	Q. Juan Mendez.	R. Ciburco.	R. de Camuy.
R. Grande de	R. Piedras.	R. Morovis.	R. Guajataca.
Loiza.	R. Puerto Nuevo.	R. Manati.	Q. de los Cerdos.
R. Cañas.	Q. Margarita.	R. Cialitos.	Q. Seco.

WEST COAST FROM NORTH TO SOUTH.

R. Culebrinas.	R. de Añasco.	R. Guanajibo.	R. Rosario.
R. Nador.	R. de Prieto.	R. Grande.	R. Buey.
R. Grande.	R. de Blanco.	R. Viejo.	R. Chico.
Q. de Liana.	R. Guabas.	R. Maguas.	Q. Dumas.
Q. de la Altura.	R. de Mayaguez.	R. Cain.	Q. Ortiz.
Q. Cagnat.			

SOUTH COAST FROM WEST TO EAST.

Q. Machucal.	R. Canas.	R. Lapa.	Q. Palencia.
Q. Adolfo.	R. Portugués.	R. Majada.	R. de Arroyo.
Q. Gonzalez.	R. Bucana.	R. Jajome.	R. Maria.
R. Susna.	R. Inabon.	R. Seco.	R. de Patillas.
Q. Rosas.	R. Jacaguas.	Q. Aguas Verdes.	R. Maton.
R. Yauco.	R. Canas.	Q. Cimarrona.	R. del Real.
R. Guayanilla.	R. Descalabrado.	Q. Pozo Hondo.	R. Chico.
R. Macana.	R. de Coama.	R. Guamaní.	Q. del Bajo.
R. Tallaboa.	R. Jueyes.	R. Pianos.	R. Jacaboa.
Q. del Agua.	R. Salinas.	Q. Créaux.	Q. Manglillo.

EAST COAST FROM SOUTH TO NORTH.

R. de Maunabo.	R. Candelero.	R. Santiago.	R. Aguas Claras.
Q. Honda.	R. de Humacao.	Q. Bolijas.	R. Ceiba.
R. Guayanés.	R. Anton Ruiz.	Q. Palma.	Q. Damajagua.
R. de Ingenio.	Q. Mambille.	R. Dagua.	Q. Vueltas.
R. Limones.	R. de Naguabo.	Q. Salada.	R. de Fajardo.

HARBORS AND ROADSTEADS.

NORTH COAST.

San Juan.

Arecibo.

WEST COAST.

Aguadilla.

Mayaguez.

Cabo-rojo.

SOUTH COAST.

Guanica.

Ponce.

Jobos.

EAST COAST.

Humacao.

Fajardo.

Isabel Segunda, Island of Vieques.

ISLANDS.

[Cayo means key, small island.]

EAST COAST.

Vieques.	Cayo Southwest.	Puerca.	La Alcarraza.
Culebra.	Cayo Northeast.	Hicacos.	Piragua del Este.
Culebrita.	Palominos.	Pinero.	Cucharas.
Caballo Blanco.	Arcifes de la Cor-	Cabras.	Descubridor.
Cayo Santiago.	dillera.	Aldodon.	

SOUTH COAST.

Cordona.	Cano Gardo.	Ratones.	C. de Berberia.
Caja de Muertos.			

WEST COAST.

Mona.	Monita.	Desecheo.
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NORTH COAST.

Cabras.	San Juan.
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CAVES.

El Consejo (Council Cave), near Arecibo.
 Oscura, Clara, Ermita, in Aguas Buenas.
 Cave of the Dead, Utuado, so called because of human bones found therein.
 Cueva de Pagita, in Callejones, Lares.
 Cave at Guayabal, in Juana Diaz.
 Indian Cavern, in Loiza.
 Swallow Cave, in Manati.
 Guataca, in San Sebastian.
 Enes, in San Sebastian.

MOUNTAIN PEAKS.

El Yunque, between districts of Naguabo and Rio Grande, about 5,000 feet.
 Torrecilla, near town of Barranquitas, 3,664 feet.
 Mata Platano, northern part of district of Peñuelas, 3,030 feet.
 Toita, in district of Cayey, 2,856 feet.
 Guilarte, in district of Adjuntas, 2,660 feet.
 Cerro Gorda, in district of Sabana Grande, 2,233 feet.

BATHS OR SPRINGS.

Baños de Coamo, mineral, medical, hot.
 Quintana, near Ponce, sulphur baths.
 San Sebastian, warm springs, mineral.
 San Lorenzo, mineral springs.
 Caguitas, in Aguas Buenas, hot springs.
 Rayo, Rincon.

THE CLIMATE.

By Prof. MARK W. HARRINGTON, *Director of the U. S. Weather Bureau.*

The published observations of Porto Rico are very scanty, consisting of a total of about nine years at San Juan only, and these are fragmentary, being scattered through twenty years. They show a true tropical climate, with a high mean temperature (78.9° F.) and very little difference in season, except in rainfall. The coldest month on the average is February (75.7°), and the hottest June (81.5°), but December to March are very much alike in temperature, and so are the months from June to September. The very coldest month on record is January, 1895 (70°), and the very warmest is June, 1878 (86°).

The average change from the coldest to the hottest is only 6 degrees, but this is very appreciable to one who has lived long in the Tropics. The cool months really seem to the natives to be decidedly cold, requiring additional covering on the bed and heavier clothing.

The coldest temperature on record in San Juan is 57.2° , on a day in January, 1894. The very hottest on record is 100.8° , on a day in May, 1878. The absolute range of temperature observed is therefore between 43° and 44° . The former temperature is far above frost, but would seem to the natives very cold and would check the growth of tropical plants. The latter would seem very hot, for the air of San Juan is very moist and the evaporation of perspiration is slow.

The comfort of San Juan as a place of residence, not to mention its healthfulness, is very much increased by the "briza," which is not given in the published reports. It is the northeast trade which has been turned toward the west, until the "briza" comes quite regularly from the east. It is not felt much during the day, but springs up late in the afternoon and lasts through the evening. It is a soft, gentle breeze, laving the body, and giving an effect which is most fresh and delightful. It has a regularity approaching that of the sun, and Santurce and Catano, two suburbs of the capital, get it both more strongly and through a larger part of the twenty-four hours. At Catano it may be felt until the middle of the forenoon, and begins again in mid-afternoon. At Santurce it makes the nights positively cool.

The year at San Juan is divided into the dry season and the wet season; but the dry season has about as much rainfall as the Northeastern States, and the wet season more than twice as much. The dry season embraces the months from December to March, with a rainfall of 10 or 11 inches. It is the most attractive season of the year, relatively dry and cool. It is the proper season for the visits of Northerners to San Juan; and winter residents would find its climate very gentle, mild, and safe. The wet season embraces the other eight months in the year, and has a rainfall of 48 to 49 inches, or more than the whole of the year for the most of the United States. The total rainfall at San Juan is nearly 60 inches, and the culmination is in November, when an average of nearly 8 inches falls.

The rainfall is not excessive. It is equaled in many places in the Southern States and in the northern part of the Pacific coast, and is surpassed in many places. It is less significant from the ease with which the rain comes down. There are few threatenings of storms for days beforehand. There is little wind and little lightning. Rainy days are rare, but rainy afternoons or evenings—for an hour or two—common. The rain begins suddenly, falls heavily, and ends soon.

There is no impression of a rainy climate, except that everything seems constantly fresh and clean.

The healthfulness of San Juan is the greatest of any city in the West Indies. Yellow fever is never at home here, and when imported it rarely, if ever, spreads. Malarial fevers are very rare in the city and some cases of dysentery and typhoid occur. The little city has no waterworks in a condition to be used, but stands on a coral island which rises to a summit of 100 feet or more and is only 3 miles long by half a mile broad and with few open sewers, and between the city authorities and the heavy rainfalls it is kept quite clean.

The great climatic misfortune of San Juan is the hurricane which occasionally visits it in the latter part of the rainy season (from August to October). It comes on very much as general storms do in

the North, with lowering sky, rising winds, and general threats of an impending storm; but it comes from the east, while our storms generally are from the west. It is much more intense than our storms, but is very much rarer. Its usual earliest sign is a booming sea without apparent cause, for waves propagate themselves faster than wind travels. Hurricanes are rare in San Juan. The last occurred in 1876. They usually pass to the south or to the north of Porto Rico.

The climate of the rest of the island is much like that of San Juan, with modifications due to elevation above the sea and to changes in the "briza," due to the topography. The change of the temperature with elevation is relatively rapid here, being apparently about 4° of temperature to every thousand feet.

Now, Mount Yunque, at the northeastern part of the island, is, according to the chief of the department of engineers of the island, about 6,000 feet high, and its summit would have a mean temperature as low as that of many places in the States. Besides elevations of 2,000 feet are not unusual for towns—snow apparently never falls on the island, but hoarfrosts are reported as occasional in high places. Several towns of some size in the interior have a popular reputation as being cold—Cayey, Adjuntas, and Utuado. That black frosts do not occur, however, is evident from the fact that the banana grows freely up to at least 2,000 feet, and it is very sensitive to frost.

There appear to be three mountain ridges running from end to end in the island, but the central is the commanding one, and the elevations are, on the whole, highest toward the eastern end, and especially at the northeastern angle. The result is that the "briza" most wets and refreshes the eastern end of the island and the rainfall changes greatly from point to point. Judging by Jamaica, of which the climate has been carefully studied, the heaviest rainfall is in the northeast, and it may here in places amount to 100 inches annually or more. In Jamaica it is known to surpass 200 inches in some places, and El Yunque, as seen from San Juan, is very generally capped by rain cloud. The interior valleys of the island are relatively dry, while the northern and eastern mountain slopes are wet. A few protected places are reported as so dry that rain may not fall for an entire year or more, but these spots must be small.

The general appearance of the island is most attractive and vernal. The vegetation is luxuriant and clothes the mountains to their very summits. Very little bare rock is seen anywhere. The island is one of the best watered in the world. It is said to have 1,200 streams with names, of which 71 can be called rivers, and 5 or 6 are of considerable size. In crossing the island from Ponce to San Juan on the military road one crosses over 50 bridges, besides fording several streams at the southern end. Water power is extremely abundant and could provide power for a large part of the work required in the island. It suffers, however, the marked disadvantage that the streams are subject to sudden and severe floods. Two or three weeks ago the Coamo River rose 15 or 20 feet and fell again in one night. Its highest point was marked by the limbs of trees and other vegetation which it had plastered against the arches of a high bridge. A heavy afternoon rain in the mountains about its source had caused the sudden rise.

WEATHER BUREAU STATION,

San Juan, P. R., November 3, 1898.

HURRICANES IN THE ISLAND.

According to history the nineteenth century has seen more destructive hurricanes than any previous century since Spanish occupation of the island. The following list is given in Acosta's Notes to Fray Inigo Abbad's History of Puerto Rico:

SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

July, 1515. August 23 and 31, 1530.
 October 4, 1526. July and August, 1537.
 July 26, 1530. September 21, 1575.

SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

September 12, 1615.

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

—, 1740. August 28, 1772.

NINETEENTH CENTURY.

September 4, 1804. August 2, 1837.
 July 23, 1813. August 18, 1831.
 July 23, 1814. October 29, 1867.
 September 21, 1819. August 14, 1886.
 July 26, 1825. August 8, 1899.

Of these twenty-two hurricanes, the record of which has been preserved, ten have taken place during the present century. Eight occurred in the month of August, six in July, four in September, and one in October. Of all the hurricanes, that of 1772 seems to have been the most severe.

SUMMARY FOR TWELVE MONTHS.

Month.	Highest temperature.	Date.	Lowest temperature.	Date.	Mean.	Greatest daily range.
November, 1898	88	1	65	9	77.2	18
December, 1898	85	12	66	18	75.9	17
January, 1899	82	28	66	19	74.6	18
February, 1899	85	8	66	20	75.2	16
March, 1899	82	15	66	8	74.7	15
April, 1899	90	21	66	4	76.6	16
May, 1899	89	13	68	1	79	17
June, 1899	91	22	71	6	79.4	17
July, 1899	87	2	70	14	80	16
August, 1899	88	29	71	29	80	16
September, 1899	91	11	71	30	81	14
October, 1899	89	10	68	1	80	17

Month.	Least daily range.	Cloudy days.	Partly cloudy days.	Clear days.	Rain.	Maximum velocity of wind.
					Inches.	
November, 1898	7	2	4	12	12.08	
December, 1898	8		9	22	5.34	
January, 1899	8		9	22	2.92	22
February, 1899	8		9	19	.80	20
March, 1899	10	1	9	21	2.26	21
April, 1899	8	2	8	20	6.09	24
May, 1899	10	2	18	11	2.59	19
June, 1899	9	6	17	7	7.23	24
July, 1899	7	4	16	11	7.53	19
August, 1899	7	5	12	14	10.38	66
September, 1899	7	6	11	13	13.66	31
October, 1899	7	13	12	8	10.21	38

¹ Also, 19, 22.

² Also, 25.

³ Also, 7, 19, 20, 30.

⁴ Also 4, 22, 27.

⁵ Also, 8, 27, 28.

⁶ Beginning November 13.

⁷ Eighth, east.

PUBLIC HEALTH AND SANITATION.

THE CHIEF DISEASES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 28, 1898.*

JOSÉ C. BARBOSA, M. D.:

Dr. BARBOSA. I am a physician, having graduated at Ann Arbor, Mich., in the class of 1880.

Dr. CARROLL. I desire to ask you a few questions bearing on your work as a physician. What are the chief diseases here?

Dr. BARBOSA. Malaria is the principal disease. It is found here in all its different forms. There is also much tuberculosis, owing to the condition in which the people live here. We have here sometimes 50 or 60 persons living in quarters where there is hardly sufficient space for 10 or 12. The poor live in the lower part of the house and the wealthier classes upstairs. The lower part of the houses is frequently damp and altogether unhealthful.

Dr. CARROLL. What about smallpox?

Dr. BARBOSA. We have a case of smallpox now and then, but it is sporadic. We have no epidemics of that kind. In 1880 we had some cases, and again in 1893, but it was not so dangerous as in former years. We have paid a great deal of attention to precautionary measures against it. We have given special attention to vaccination.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there not a great mortality here among children?

Dr. BARBOSA. Yes. The poor people here have too many children to sustain; they have not the means to provide their children proper nourishment. Milk costs here a great deal, because of the consumption tax, and is usually stale. Then the crowded way in which the poor live and the damp places where they have to live are conducive to disease among the children and adults as well. The principal diseases among the children are bowel diseases, which reduce them to a condition of weakness from which they are unable to build up their strength again, owing to lack of proper nourishment and suitable conditions. There is also a great deal of tetanus among the children owing to the careless way in which the cord is cut at birth—seldom by a physician in the case of poor children; usually an old neighbor is called in and she will cut the cord with a pair of scissors. This carelessness, together with the climate, which is favorable to the development of tetanus, produces the disease in many cases.

Dr. CARROLL. Do the people suffer often from sunstroke?

Dr. BARBOSA. Very seldom. We usually have a good breeze, which greatly modifies the temperature.

NEED OF MEDICAL AID FOR THE POOR.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

UTUADO, P. R., *January 16, 1899.*

Mr. GONZALES CÓRDOVA (physician). I will take advantage of this opportunity to say a few words in behalf of my country with regard to questions concerning my profession. I consider Porto Rico the most enemic country in the world. We are almost without charitable institutions; so much so, that among a people of 1,000,000 inhabitants we only have one hospital worthy of the name. That is at Ponce. We are continually seeing people in the country die for want of med-

ical assistance. I think that is a matter of the utmost importance. This lack of hospitals should be attended to at once. As there are judicial districts, so there should be formed hospital districts. If every town is not able to sustain a hospital, several towns can unite and among them be able to do so. It is impossible to educate a people unless you can first attend to their health. I make these suggestions because I recognize the good intentions of the great country which to-day protects us and which is striving to do everything for our good.

INSANE COMMITTED TO JAIL.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

CABO ROJO, P. R., *January 27, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. How many prisoners have you in the municipal jail?

Mr. ORTIZ. One madman there only. We send our prisoners to San German. We only detain prisoners in our jail one day.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you no other places for an insane person?

Mr. ORTIZ. No; not even a prison. It is only a detention place.

A LABORATORY NEEDED.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

HUMACAO, P. R., *February 1, 1899.*

Dr. PABLO FONT, a physician of Humacao, and Mr. JOAQUIN MASFERRER, mayor of the city:

Dr. CARROLL. I am told that the health of Humacao is very good.

Dr. FONT. It is good.

Dr. CARROLL. It is a poor place, then, perhaps, for doctors to get rich?

Dr. FONT. Yes; decidedly so.

Dr. CARROLL. What are the prevailing diseases here?

Dr. FONT. Principally malarial fever in various forms. We have also typhoid, but it is rare; it is never epidemic, and yellow fever is almost unknown here. We have at present two smallpox cases, brought in here from Ponce. We quarantine such cases out on the limits of the city. We also have a quarantine place for yellow fever.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there many cases of pulmonary diseases?

Dr. FONT. Owing to the weather of the winter months we have an epidemic of grip here. Two or three hundred people are suffering from that now. There is also very much rheumatism in the town.

Dr. CARROLL. What is rheumatism here due to—to dampness on account of rain or to undue exposure?

Dr. FONT. It is due to dampness. The poor people are more subject to it, because they haven't sufficient covering to keep themselves warm.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the condition of the hospital?

Dr. FONT. The hospital is in good condition—at least, in proportion to the size of the town. It requires to be enlarged a little, but we haven't the money to do it. I desire to suggest to you the necessity of establishing a bacteriological laboratory, which might be either in the capital or other large city of the island. It is an absolute necessity.

Dr. CARROLL. What special argument would you advance for having a bacteriological laboratory in the island? What would be its chief uses?

Dr. FONT. I give as one reason that there are a great many cases of hydrophobia in the island, and we have to take them to Havana. The same is true of croup and diphtheria. If we had such an establishment in San Juan, we could take patients there. Poor people can not go to Havana.

Dr. CARROLL. Would the cost of maintaining such a laboratory be large?

Dr. FONT. During the Spanish domination there was some talk of establishing such an institution in Mayaguez, and all the municipalities were to contribute a proportionate amount for that purpose, but when the war came on the project fell to the ground. Some money was, in fact, contributed.

Dr. CARROLL. Where did the money go?

Dr. FONT. History telleth not.

DISEASES IN THE INTERIOR.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

CAGUAS, P. R., *February 7, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. What are the prevailing diseases here?

Dr. JIMÉNEZ CRUZ. Paludic fevers and typhoid fever, the latter not in an epidemic form. Yellow fever, smallpox, and measles are only of rare occurrence and are brought here from outside. There is a disease getting more common here every year and which will merit the attention of the Government. It is malignant pustule, which is caught from cattle.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

PONCE, P. R., *March 4, 1899.*

Dr. VIDAL. It will be necessary to have energetic health measures introduced here. The country is suffering very much for want of health regulations. For the last two months there has been an immense mortality in the island on account of smallpox and for want of vaccination.

Dr. CARROLL. That is being altered now.

Dr. VIDAL. By the time the remedy is applied a large number of people will have died. It would have been easy to remedy it beforehand. It is necessary to Americanize everything, beginning with the ayuntamiento at Ponce. There are five councilors who have been in council for ten years who have come to regard it as a business. Another terrible evil here is the evil of venereal diseases. I am doctoring a large number of American soldiers for that. We have a system of vigilance, but it is not sufficient. If you want to see the state of abandonment and distress in which things are here, go to the emergency hospital in the alcaldia and take an American doctor with you. There is not a needle or anything else to attend to wounded persons. The poor man who goes there wounded is murdered for want of proper treatment. I was the titular doctor here and left the position because I thought it was beneath me as a doctor to treat people as I had to treat them with the small means afforded.

SANITARY CONDITION OF THE CITIES.

STATEMENT OF DR. AZEL AMES, MAJOR AND BRIGADE SURGEON, U. S. VOLUNTEERS.

PONCE, P. R., *March 20, 1899.*

The sanitary or rather unsanitary conditions of Porto Rico have been too well known, especially by Army and other visitors of the island in the last few months, to need any extended comment. That every disease of a zymotic character—that is, diseases originating in filth—was widely prevalent—in fact, omnipresent—goes almost without saying. Perhaps no more general filth conditions among a people living so nearly an outdoor life, and yet so densely packed in a small area, was ever known, and these conditions, both as an ever-increasing menace to themselves and recently to the lives and health of the new possessors and their representatives, have assumed the utmost importance. While it has been denied that typhoid fever prevailed to any extent in the island before the advent of the United States troops, such a claim can not be made good, though it is beyond dispute that the volume of the disease was immensely increased by the arrivals from camps Alger, Chickamauga, etc. The prevalence of malaria, on the other hand, has not proved as extensive as was probably generally expected by medical officers of the Army. In fact, the whole ring of most prevalent diseases except, probably, rheumatism is chiefly that due to evil hygienic conditions. Syphilis and associated venereal diseases, long the curse of the Tropics and certainly extremely so in Porto Rico, were undoubtedly increased by the influx of the American Army; and while the disease has perhaps become more attenuated, still it is widely prevalent and possesses no small degree of virulence.

To this assemblage of conditions it became the paramount duty of the medical intelligence of Americans as represented especially by the Medical Corps of the Army, to address itself, and with great vigor, skill, and energy. That it has done so may best be known from the results which have followed.

Mayaguez, the chief city of the western end of the island and the earliest one, except Ponce, of the principal cities occupied by the United States forces, was the first to receive any considerable measure of attention in the direction of public hygiene. Under the sanitary supervision of Major Ames, at that time sanitary inspector, the effort was made to rehabilitate its health conditions, and Dr. Hernandez Nuessa, a very able young Porto Rican physician, educated in the United States, was created its health officer, and to-day Mayaguez presents an almost altogether unobjectionable appearance to the visiting stranger. Its water supply is excellent, requiring only proper filtration to make it acceptable. Its streets are clean, its market houses the same, and a general air of cleanliness and fineness, thrift, and modern prosperity is evident. The city council has voted a considerable appropriation, pursuant to the suggestion of Major Ames, for the improvement of its waterworks in the direction indicated, and a comprehensive system of sewerage is a probability of the near future.

Aguadilla, at the extreme western end of the island, at the time of its occupation by the United States troops in October last, it being the delivery point of the Spanish prisoners at the close of negotiations, was the representative town of its size in the matters of filth and an evil hygiene, but under the exceptionably able administration of Major Mansfield, Eleventh United States Infantry, who has held nearly every

official relation to it possible, it has become a model town in the island, the United States post there being one of the most beautiful to be found in the Antilles. It lacks an adequate water supply and drainage, which, with the wealth and energy displayed by its people, are sure to receive early attention.

Ponce, the largest city and chief commercial port of the southern coast of the island, including its port or playa, situated on a bay 2 miles or more from the town, has the merit of an admirable water supply and of fairly conditioned streets. Its public buildings, city hall, jail, market houses, abattoir, etc., are of wretched description, and require to be demolished and replaced. It is probable that all this will be of speedy occurrence. Its low location and the extensive water shed surrounding it make it especially desirable, in fact essential, that its sewerage should be a matter of very early consideration. There are five tentative propositions looking toward this under consideration, but there is need of a comprehensive board of water supply and drainage for the island, composed of competent engineers and experienced men to determine this with other similar questions. While the conditions of life of the lower classes are far superior to those of San Juan, the capital, the low-lying character of the city's site and perhaps other causes may account for the unduly large mortality which attends its sick list. The city is now kept in a cleanly condition and with adequate sewerage and a continuance of the excellent regulations recently established can not fail to become in a few years as well conditioned as it is beautiful. A vast gain has been made since the occupation by the troops in every material condition, but the poor character of the public buildings and the want of proper drainage have been insuperable barriers to a progress otherwise possible on hygienic lines.

Guayama, an old town built upon the popular lines of the Moorish-Spanish character, is by situation a healthful town, but lacked, on the advent of the American forces, nearly every sanitary requirement. Under the administration of United States medical and military officers its condition has been greatly improved and is now likely to receive still more careful attention in the presence there of old and experienced officers of reputation for energy, and has already taken on features of cleanliness and improvement not hitherto possessed.

San Juan, the capital, perhaps the dirtiest and vilest city in the island, presented so many difficult problems to the sanitarian on its occupation by the United States forces as to be well-nigh paralyzing. It was then without water supply, without any but the most superficial attempts at drainage, with a population more densely huddled together under utterly unsanitary conditions than any other similar population in the United States domain. Narrow in construction, contracted in its limits, and under particularly bad conditions as to diseases prevalent, San Juan was apparently as hopeless a proposition to the health officers as could well be imagined. The first difficulty was that of the densely crowded mass of human beings occupying, in families of astonishing size, the ground-floor rooms of the contiguous dwellings. Their condition may be better imagined than described; in fact, there are no words equal to the task of telling it. Yet, in the few months of American occupancy, water from the works in process of construction by the Spaniards for several years has been brought into the city. Its fire department has been reorganized and made considerably more efficient; the health administration intrusted to a board created by the general commanding, at the head of which is Capt. L. P. Davidson, Fifth United States Infantry, ably assisted by

Dr. Glennan, assistant, United States Marine-Hospital Service, a native physician, and two members of the municipal council, which board is accomplishing a tremendous work in the cleansing of the city, in house-to-house inspection, the abatement of intolerable nuisances and the regulation of sanitary conditions, the prevention and control of diseases, quarantine regulations, the removal of domestic waste and excreta, and various other kinds of hygienic work of the utmost importance. Captain Davidson, recognizing the magnitude of the work committed to him, promptly ordered from Boston, New York, and other cities of the United States the most perfect appliances for the removal of garbage, excreta, etc., and has installed them in an efficient and well-regulated service. The outbreak of smallpox which has visited the city has been placed under adequate control and with the march of vaccination will be speedily eliminated.

The question of the control of the dense, ill-starred population massed together in the tenements of the lower stories in San Juan is one that might well appall the most sagacious and experienced sanitarian. Without an adequate water supply until now, without sewerage accommodations, public wash houses, or baths, and with only the poorest provision for the preparation of food, it has seemed almost hopeless to accomplish any material change in the situation of this great population. But already, under the stimulus of Captain Davidson and his associates, endeavors are being mooted, partly by philanthropic aid from the United States, to occupy certain lands of the Government at San Geronimo and build there industrial dwellings for this class, which can be given to the poorer classes at present rentals, to which it is believed that 5,000 or more of the poorest people could be successfully removed and there be controlled in hygienic matters. It is a bold and great undertaking, as yet in embryo, but that it will develop into something adequate there seems little room to doubt.

The health of the United States troops, since they have been so reduced in number as to make it possible adequately to house and care for them, especially since the advent of fine winter weather, has marvelously improved, and sickness is now at the minimum and below the figures for equal numbers at the majority of posts in the United States. The people and the soldiers are already accustomed to each other, and the friction which has sometimes to a limited extent and in a mild degree existed is rapidly being reduced to the minimum, having been always much exaggerated. Under the more careful handling of the men and the better regulation of the citizens, brawls, licentiousness, and petty crimes are steadily decreasing and the level of public health is proportionately rising. That so much should have been accomplished under shifting conditions and under conditions involving haste and waste, poor regulations and uncertainty, and the movement of large bodies of troops in the brief time which the Americans have occupied the island, seems incredible; but that another year is to furnish results far greater still can not reasonably be doubted. There is every reason to believe that sanitary conditions are abreast of, if not superior to, those in the British West Indies, with sanitary appliances of American manufacture far superior, and all at the end of a few months. When the American army established itself, intelligent officers of experience took up the "white man's burden" with an individual sense of obligation and a devotion worthy of the American citizen soldier.

THE VACCINATION PLAN OF GENERAL HENRY.

PONCE, P. R., *March 20, 1899.***STATEMENT BY DR. AZEL AMES, MAJOR AND BRIGADE SURGEON, U. S. V., COMMANDING THE UNITED STATES VACCINE CORPS, DEPARTMENT OF PORTO RICO.**

Dr. AMES. The undertaking to vaccinate the entire department of Porto Rico arose from the increasing prevalence of smallpox and the evident necessity of taking vigorous measures to control it. It became evident that there should be a thorough and general vaccination, and General Henry issued an order requiring compulsory vaccination of all inhabitants. The initial question then, of course, was want of the supply of virus, vaccine lymph, and on inquiry it was found that to bring it from the United States in sufficient quantity—the only source available for so large a quantity as would be requisite for the vaccination of a million people—would be approximately \$50,000 or \$60,000. In discussion of the matter with the chief surgeon, Colonel Hoff, I suggested that it ought to be possible to produce our own virus, as the supply of cattle in the island was large and uncommonly fine, and after preliminary consideration and inquiry I was placed in charge of the undertaking, which contemplated nothing less than the primary testing for disease of approximately 2,000 cattle, a million vaccinations and revaccinations.

The work of organization of so great an undertaking was one involving, of course, infinite detail and some considerable difficulty.

It was necessary to secure without great cost to the United States a sufficient supply of young cattle, to locate them and subsist them for a considerable period, to procure from the United States initial lymph and the appliances for vaccination and tests, to organize and equip a corps of nearly one hundred men, with expert pathologists, physicians, assistants, etc., arrange for their transportation, and get them all into effective working order. Of course, the production of the virus was of itself a very great undertaking, but was but half of the entire enterprise, and left the organization for the vaccination of the inhabitants to be provided for.

The great difficulty experienced, after securing the cattle and providing for their proper manipulation and the regulation of the corps, was in the matter of procuring the initial vaccine virus for the vaccination of the cattle. This had to be brought from the United States, and, as was feared, it proved to a very considerable extent entirely untrustworthy, probably owing to climatic changes incident to the voyage and conditions under which it was transferred from the States. Enough, however, was procured to make a beginning, and it was rapidly multiplied as soon as local stock was established, and the work carried steadily forward from that time. The magnitude of the undertaking and the difficulties attendant will perhaps be best understood when it is stated that the vaccination requirements of the public vaccinators employed in the field made it requisite that there should be sent from the United States distributing station at Coamo Baths 15,000 charged points every day, besides which there must be gathered from the animals at the camps 1,200 points, more for the vaccination of cattle, etc., making a total of 16,200 requisite per day. The work of distribution was simplified by the division of the island into departments, namely: five with headquarters at San Juan, Ponce, Guayama, Arecibo, and Mayaguez, the effort being to divide the population between these five divisions as

nearly equally as possible. These divisions embraced a population usually of about 165,000 people, all of whom have had either to be vaccinated or examined for proof of smallpox or of satisfactory recent vaccination.

To reach the vaccinators engaged in the work it was necessary to establish a carrier service from the virus-producing farms at whatever distance they might be from the distributing station at Coamo Baths, whereby the virus produced each day to the amount of 16,200 points should be conveyed to the distributing station. The carrier and his horse, on arriving each night, must be fed and housed, the hour of his arrival and departure noted, and the virus placed for safe-keeping in a cold refrigerator. The next morning it was divided at the distributing station into unit packages, so called, containing 100 points, which were placed in quadruple wrappings to protect them against changes of heat, cold, and moisture, and then sent by mail to their various destinations, to the extent of 3,000 points each, to every one of the five vaccination divisions of the island. The virus being committed to the several alcaldes of the municipalities in the five divisions, is distributed by them to the vaccinators engaged in their respective jurisdictions.

The work at the virus farm has been so carefully done that when an animal was selected for vaccinating purposes, after being under observation for two days as to general health conditions, it was tested by an injection prepared by the United States Agricultural Department, and then retained under observation for twenty-four hours or more, temperatures being taken carefully from 5 o'clock each morning until 12 o'clock the same night and duly recorded. The animal giving satisfactory reactions to these tests had a tag placed in its ear and took its place in the group for vaccination. Vaccinating tables, with tilting tops, were constructed, and the animal ready for vaccination, being driven alongside, was instantly strapped to the table top and lifted to the horizontal and laid upon the table. It was then thoroughly sterilized, cleansed, and shaved, and vaccinated with the virus first procured from the United States and later by that produced on the farm. In gathering the virus from the ripened vesicles of the vaccinated animals—all of which were under 1 year of age, and hence of tenderer skin and more likely to be free from all disease than older animals, as well as being easier handled—much care was taken.

The virus from each animal was kept separate and distinct, and thorough records were kept by the number of the animal from start to finish, so that the complete record of every vaccine point at the various points of the island is in the hands of the vaccinator using it. As the virus is cut from the animal it is placed on a wire-net drying basin, from which it is removed to a sterilized glass jar, which is closed and placed in a refrigerator and left until the work of gathering for the day ceases. All virus to be shipped to the distributing station is then taken, one jar at a time, so that there shall be no admixture of points, and 500 points are placed in absorbent cotton, in shallow tin boxes made for the purpose, and duly protected by wrappings of absorbent cotton and oiled silk, and 15 of these boxes are placed in a pannier, two panniers being slung on opposite sides of the carrier's horse, who starts immediately upon his ride to the vaccination station, sometimes consuming half a night in the journey.

In each tin box is placed a printed blank, carefully filled in, giving the record number of the animal from which the virus was taken, the

name of the owner, the location of the farm, the breed, age, sex, color, weight, and distinguishing marks, general condition of the animal, its response to tests, whether for tuberculosis or glanders, the date of these tests, and the operator's name, the date of vaccination, the virus used, the name of the operator, the number of punctures made, the date at which the virus was gathered, the number of points charged from the animal, the number sent to the vaccination stations, the date and hour of departure—the whole being duly attested by the officer in charge at the distributing station at Coamo Baths (which was found admirably adapted to the needs of the corps on its occupation, being possessed of ample space, excellent location, fine conveniences of corrals, kitchens, outbuildings, tent room, etc.).

The charged points, taken from the tin boxes in which the carrier brought them, are packed, as before stated, in unit packages of 100 each, great care being taken to keep them always in a cool temperature in a refrigerator until en route for their destination. Great care has been taken to distinguish the packages containing the virus by proper marks and labels, so as to keep them from the sun and in cool and dry places, and the post-office people have been charged to give both great care and rapid dispatch to virus packages throughout the department. They have, at considerable pains, prepared mailing schedules to enable a package intended for any particular destination anywhere in the island to be forwarded with greatest dispatch to its destination.

The work of vaccinating the island has been simplified in a degree by the efficient use of the division of labor. In each of the four divisions are jurisdictions or *alcaldias*, presided over by an *alcalde* or mayor, varying in number in different divisions. Under these *alcaldes* are numerous precincts or *barrios*, which are presided over by an *alcalde de barrio*, who is responsible to his *alcalde* for the proper conduct of his precinct or district. These *alcaldes de barrio* are familiarly acquainted with every person in their precincts. Their assistance under the plan formulated by the chief surgeon and myself was availed of to accomplish the desired ends. Full lists were made by them of all the people in their respective precincts, and at a designated time, of which due notice was given, the *alcalde de barrio* summoned 225 people from these lists to a designated place, usually a schoolhouse in his district. In the order of their arrival each person is given a numbered check, establishing the number of his vaccination, so that there is no overcrowding.

The vaccination of these 225 people, or so many as appear and require vaccination, is a day's work for a vaccinator and his assistants. The organization of this corps of vaccinators, consisting very largely of native physicians, who are employed under contract by the directors of the respective vaccination divisions, has been a work of no small preparation, involving as it does the necessity of procuring competent men, usually versed in both Spanish and English, dividing up the territory among them for greater efficiency, keeping in such communication with them over difficult trails and in remote places as to secure them their daily supply of virus, properly inspect them and their work, and secure through them proper certification of vaccination and records. It has only been accomplished by the utmost attention to detail and systematic organization. Every inhabitant is required to have a public vaccinator's certificate, under the stamp of the public vaccinator and the seal of the United States.

On presenting himself to the vaccinator, if the person has had

smallpox, a certificate is given him so indicating. If presenting a certificate of recent vaccination from a responsible physician, such certificate is accepted and the official certificate of vaccination issued. Otherwise the person on presentation, after cleansing the arm, is vaccinated in turn, under specific instructions given by the director of vaccination, a complete record made, and an incomplete certificate given the person, with instruction to return in one week for examination, at which time the certificate will be completed, and if the vaccination is successful will be stamped accordingly. If not, the individual is revaccinated and the certificate finally stamped as vaccination finally completed. Without these certificates every person is practically debarred from any participation in any occupation, the public schools, assemblies, etc., while for failure to report, when ordered, for vaccination or examination, penalties imposed by the alcalde follow.

The records alike of the scientific work of vaccination and its results, testing of the cattle, the measure of success resulting from the various efforts, and the work incident thereto, will, it is believed, constitute important additions to the scientific professional literature of this most important subject. The effort comes at a time and under conditions favorable, if well handled, for testing thoroughly, on an enormous scale, the merits of vaccination; this is very desirable at a time when there seems to be, in different parts of the world, a revival of the animosity against this invaluable agent for the control of a noxious disease.

To the personnel of the work its successes must necessarily be more or less indebted. The conception of the undertaking originated in the mind of the able chief surgeon of the department, Lieutenant-Colonel Hoff, of the Medical Corps of the United States Army, and the execution of it was, as stated, so far as the production of the virus was concerned and the care of the largest vaccination division, committed to Maj. Azel Ames, brigade surgeon, U. S. Volunteers, who was more than fortunate in being able to surround himself with a corps of most admirably qualified assistants. He was especially so in the opportunity of securing the services of Timothy Leary, who, although a young man, was widely recognized as one of the ablest pathologists of the United States, serving since last summer for scientific purposes in Porto Rico as a pathologist at the general hospital at Ponce in the capacity of acting assistant surgeon, U. S. Army. To him has been committed the work of testing all cattle for disease, and his labors have been as indefatigable and unselfish as they have been scientific and fruitful. To no person connected with the undertaking is a larger debt due for its successes than to Professor Leary. The vaccinating corps was organized by him into four sections: First, the administration, with myself at the head, and Dr. Richard Wilson, acting assistant surgeon, U. S. Army, generally well known and universally esteemed in Porto Rico, as executive officer at the vaccination station at Coamo Baths.

To Mr. Samuel Moret, a well-known citizen and cattle buyer of Porto Rico, the entire undertaking is primarily inexpressibly indebted for the supply of cattle gathered by him at a trivial expense to the United States and the painstaking service he has rendered. The second section is that of cattle testing for disease, and is placed under the charge of Dr. Timothy Leary, who, with a corps of 21 efficient assistants, has been steadily in the field from the inception of the enterprise. The third section is comprised of two groups, the officers

of the first being Dr. L. L. Gillman, acting assistant surgeon, U. S. Army, and Drs. Gustav Moret, temporarily, and W. E. McConathy, acting assistant surgeon, U. S. Army. To this group has fallen the difficult work of collecting the virus from the vaccinated cattle, a work full of the utmost difficulty, the greatest responsibility, and the most fatiguing effort. To this group, in addition to the severe strain involved in the cattle tests, Professor Leary has given his personal aid in unstinted measure, as also more or less to the second group of this section, which is that charged with the duty of vaccinating the animals. In this group are associated Drs. William Reddin Kirk, acting assistant surgeon, U. S. Army, and L. E. Barney, acting assistant surgeon, U. S. Army, with a corps of assistants, and their work has called for most laborious effort and the best of professional endeavor. The supply service of the corps has been in the hands of Dr. J. S. White, acting assistant surgeon, U. S. Army, by general order of the Department, acting quartermaster, commissary of subsistence, ordnance officer, and medical supply officer of the corps, to whom in no small degree is due its great successes in taking the field and the small amount of friction with which this work has been accomplished.

The post established at Coamo Baths, under the name of the United States Vaccination Station, is well known to many of the visitors of the island as one of the most beautiful and perhaps the best regulated in the department, admirably adapted to the purpose to which it has been delegated. It has been made, by the efforts of the commanding officer and his staff, one of the most completely furnished and effective of any in the department, guard at this post being furnished by the Nineteenth United States Infantry, which has also the field camp. The carrier service, before mentioned, between the camps and the field is furnished by the Fifth United States Cavalry. The proximity of this plant to the beautiful Coamo baths has naturally caused it to be much visited by those coming to the baths, and added a new feature to the already many attractions of that beautiful spot.

That the undertaking is one of greater magnitude than has ever before been conducted, established on distinctive scientific lines, can not be doubted; that great advantages will be derived from it for a long period of years in the island of Porto Rico is equally beyond doubt. Smallpox has been for many years one of the worst scourges of the island, and far more injurious as interfering with commerce, both foreign and internal, than any other disease. That it is now to be stamped out can not be doubted. If we had imported cattle, we could not have done it for less than \$25,000, but by manufacturing the virus here the cost has been only about one-sixth of what it otherwise would have been.

VITAL STATISTICS.

TABLE I.—*Inmates of military hospital from 1889 to first half of 1898.*

Year.	Standing over from prior year.	Admitted.	Discharged.	Died.	Remaining.
1889.....	249	3,507	3,360	151	242
1890.....	242	2,658	2,650	137	113
1891.....	113	2,150	2,004	109	159
1892.....	159	2,145	2,027	98	199
1893.....	199	2,239	2,128	110	200
1894.....	200	3,175	3,038	145	191
1895.....	191	3,524	3,081	328	308
1896.....	308	2,999	2,970	132	305
1897.....	305	2,587	3,143	169	311
1898 (first half).....	211	1,389	1,218	80	396
Total.....	2,077	26,382	24,619	1,463	2,124

SAN JUAN, September 26, 1898.

JOSÉ BATTLE, Director, Subinspector.

TABLE II.—*Inmates of military hospital—Nosological statistics from 1889 to July 1, 1898.*

Year.	Prisoners and charity patients.	Military prisoners.	Officers.	Disease undetermined.	Yellow fever.	Smallpox.	Measles.	Surgical operations.	Wounds.	Veneral diseases.	Ophthalmia.	Skin diseases.	Medicine.
1889.....	446	59	1	14	114	8	3	386	15	305	16	850	699
1890.....	425	19	5	24	169	12	19	370	25	259	13	236	1,369
1891.....	431	48	4	18	24	3	3	281	16	333	21	106	1,120
1892.....	421	55	4	34	99	3	3	105	19	291	10	84	1,091
1893.....	414	40	6	18	91	3	3	265	29	415	16	115	2,103
1894.....	130	11	1	8	185	3	1	307	24	259	13	218	2,220
1895.....	261	35	10	32	690	7	2	290	48	520	20	100	1,607
1896.....	282	73	10	59	95	4	23	462	65	411	71	115	2,810
1897.....	328	64	15	59	95	4	4	420	75	401	40	130	1,510
1898 (first half).....	189	29	14	34	95	—	—	259	83	281	21	151	1,060
Total.....	3,327	463	70	300	1,597	35	58	3,163	399	3,504	259	1,531	15,639

SAN JUAN, September 26, 1898.

JOSÉ BATTLE, Director, Subinspector.

TABLE III.—*Marriages, births, and deaths in 1897, as returned by municipal judges.*

Municipal district.	Marriages.	Legitimate births.	Illegitimate births.	Deaths.
Adjuntas.....	78	498	731	516
Aguas Buenas.....	15	102	31	294
Aguadilla.....	75	218	85	351
Anasco.....	41	249	231	635
Aibonito.....	25	149	130	297
Arroyo.....	7	21	34	238
Aguada.....	45	280	124	396
Arecibo.....	187	533	620	1,073
Bayamon.....	65	133	89	825
Barceloneta.....	74	145	157	858
Barros.....	50	226	95	820
Barranquitas.....	127	209	84	216
Carolina.....	44	73	48	272
Caguas.....	64	398	217	752
Cayey.....	43	242	392	678
Cidra.....	88	79	47	236
Camuy.....	50	240	63	186
Cabo Rojo.....	67	316	333	426

TABLE III.—*Marriages, births, and deaths in 1897, as returned by municipal judges—Continued.*

Municipal district.	Marriages.	Legitimate births.	Illegitimate births.	Deaths.
Ceiba.....	13	68	163	153
Comerio.....	41	176	157	202
Ciales.....	89	323	97	466
Corozal.....	56	306	126	236
Coamo.....	29	271	331	506
Dorado.....	1	45	76	72
Fajardo.....	14	112	149	436
Gurabo.....	51	68	42	246
Guayanilla.....	21	143	353	234
Guayama.....	21	102	98	617
Hato Grande.....	45	266	265	446
Hatillo.....	51	223	91	212
Hormigueros.....	18	52	46	133
Humacao.....	33	173	301	561
Isabela.....	70	183	79	321
Juncos.....	22	88	73	323
Juana Diaz.....	79	249	543	904
Loiza.....	18	19	35	224
Lares.....	103	426	213	606
Lajas.....	22	169	167	191
Las Marias.....	56	135	102	300
Luquillo.....	20	100	114	188
Manati.....	56	145	99	455
Morovis.....	45	241	53	273
Moca.....	63	231	36	316
Mayaguez.....	89	384	278	1,418
Maricao.....	16	156	270	319
Maunabo.....	14	59	97	331
Naranjito.....	21	197	101	224
Naguabo.....	36	115	67	340
Ponce.....	118	287	242	1,778
Ponuelas.....	61	206	280	304
Patillas.....	29	154	235	407
Piedras.....	33	159	160	231
Quebradillas.....	102	110	5	147
Rio Grande.....	33	334	304	338
Rio Piedras.....	35	67	50	421
Rincon.....	76	195	53	198
San Juan.....	111	362	446	1,272
San Sebastian.....	62	376	113	456
Sabana Grande.....	39	268	106	333
San German.....	73	446	233	606
Salinas.....	22	48	104	168
Santa Isabel.....	29	78	86	128
Toa Alta.....	25	78	64	222
Toa Baja.....	3	25	42	131
Trujillo Alto.....	20	57	39	153
Utuado.....	135	112	663	1,407
Vega Alta.....	30	74	98	187
Vega Baja.....	26	149	163	330
Vieques.....	14	64	126	270
Yanco.....	87	463	667	992
Yabucoa.....	39	124	144	351
Total.....	3,557	13,489	12,471	30,806

TABLE IV.—Deaths in San Juan in 1898 (causes of death as stated in burial certificates), by race, sex, and month.

Sex.	White.	Mixed.	Black.	Total.	Jan- ary.	Febr- ary.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	Aug- ust.	Sep- tem- ber.	Octo- ber.	No- vem- ber.	De- cem- ber.
Males	390	142	135	657	46	54	74	74	61	60	43	29	88	43	37	36
Females	213	142	139	494	38	30	61	83	61	36	42	34	25	26	23	28
Total	603	284	274	1,151	85	90	135	157	122	96	85	63	113	69	60	64

TABLE V.—*Most prevalent diseases in San Juan in 1898, as shown by burial certificates.*

Disease.	Sex.	White.	Mixed.	Black.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
GENERAL DISEASES.																
A.																
Malarial fever	Male	3	1	1	1		2	3	1		1	1		1		
	Female	3		2												
Malarial cachexia	Male	6			1			1				1	3		1	
Diphtheria	do.	1														
Erysipelas	Female	1														
	Male	7	1	3	2	1		3	2	1	1	2			2	
Typhoid fever	Female	1	1	2												
	Male	1	1	2		2	1		2		1			1		
Paludic fever.	Female	3		1												
	Male	4	2	1		1	1	1	1	1	1		1		2	1
Pernicious fever	Female	10	9	11	3		13	23	9	3	1					
Measles	Female	9	7	8												
	Male	5	1	1			1	1	1		1	1	3			2
Malarial typhus	Female	2														
	Male	2	1													
Smallpox	Female	1								2						
B.																
Chronic alcoholism	Male	1	2	1												1
Cachexia	Female	4	2	4	1	1	2	1	1			1	1	3	1	
C.																
Atrophia	Male	5	4													
	Female	3	4	4	1	3	1	2		2			3	1	1	1
Stillborn	Male	5	8	4	4	2	1									
	Female	2	4	4				2	1	2		1	5	2	5	1

TABLE VI.—Marriages, births, and deaths in thirteen districts in the last five years.

Municipal districts.	Marriages.					Deaths.				
	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.
Aibonito.....	28	43	27	33	25	203	170	163	417	287
Arroyo.....	14	12	15	7	11	130	99	102	238	144
Cabo Rojo.....	89	96	47	57	56	447	527	308	425	567
Coamo.....	47	50	31	29	43	316	284	289	506	346
Comerio.....	26	23	34	41	27	190	192	236	292	388
Fajardo.....	13	22	14	14	115	241	246	232	436	371
Guayama.....	51	39	31	21	22	455	344	424	617	513
Mayaguez.....	140	145	128	116	89	1,231	1,367	1,243	1,517	1,418
San Juan (1 dist.).....	43	42	51	59	30	450	423	413	641	484
San German.....	318	196	89	76	51	509	784	572	692	930
Trujillo Alto.....	13	19	26	20	19	79	114	97	153	106
Yabucoa.....	90	60	46	36	52	442	371	455	851	471
Vieques.....		19	13	14	8		123	219	239	239

Municipal districts.	Births.					Deaths.				
	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.
Aibonito.....	155	180	297	170	146	132	147	139	154	133
Arroyo.....	109	114	103	55	150					
Cabo Rojo.....	282	322	318	314	258	313	201	274	333	249
Coamo.....	419	398	343	544	326					
Comerio.....	175	185	198	176	153	109	142	141	157	138
Fajardo.....	283	320	326	291	188					
Guayama.....	70	90	98	102	69	97	118	110	98	89
Mayaguez.....	485	414	427	420	384	406	387	378	360	278
San Juan (1 dist.).....	196	212	202	204	167	228	229	224	282	156
San German.....	732	687	660	679	649					
Trujillo Alto.....	47	40	56	57	51	25	30	26	39	36
Yabucoa.....	285	278	344	317	164					
Vieques.....		51	75	64	52		137	167	91	46

THE FLORA AND FAUNA.

Dr. Stahl, who has made numerous and careful studies in the natural history of Porto Rico, with admirable illustrative drawings in colors, very kindly furnished the commissioner with the following brief survey of the subject. His ambition is to be permitted to complete his most important work and present it to the Government at Washington for the use of the Smithsonian Institution. He does not ask compensation for his work—simply support while he is completing it, which would, I am assured, take no long time.

HENRY K. CARROLL, *Commissioner*.

THE FAUNA AND FLORA OF PORTO RICO.

By Don AUGUSTIN STAHL, M. D., *Naturalist*.

The natural history of Porto Rico is yet unstudied. Its flora will within a short time be fairly well known; its fauna is a long way from that point, and the knowledge of its geology extends only to as much as can be seen superficially by the eye.

The Spaniards in four hundred years have done nothing to acquire a specific knowledge of its natural history. What is known to-day is from analogy with studies made in the neighboring non-Spanish islands—the splendid researches of Dr. Gundlach in Cuba, his valuable work also in this country, although this latter is not of a general character—and from the copious collection of plants made by Mr. Lintenis, which is preserved in the botanical garden of Berlin.

The fauna is less known at present than the flora by reason of this latter having been given preferential study; and those animals inhabiting the seas or the depths and hidden places of still or running waters, as also those requiring the microscope, are still enveloped in the darkness of the unknown. In the great group of

vertebrates we have, in the first division, the mammals, represented by four only of the Cheiroptera. The Muridae and domestic animals have all been imported, as has been the mongoose ichneumon (*Herpestes mungo*), which has caused incalculable damage among poultry and wild birds which nest low. It is certain that this animal, which has spread over the island in a most astonishing manner, far from being a blessing, as was expected when it killed off the rats in the sugar plantations, has become a veritable plague.

Birds have had special attention from the American ornithologists, although the greater number of them had been previously classified. This branch is relatively poor, there being hardly 130 species, of which a third are birds of passage which abandon the North American Continent during the winter only and come to enliven our woods and shores, while the marine eagle (*Pandion carolinensis*) mounts to the sources of our rivers and feeds on the fish therein. The indigenous birds can be distinguished from the transitory species by the greater brilliancy of their plumage, while the harmonious voice of the ruiseñor (*Mimus polyglottus*) and that of the cotorra (*Psittacus vittatus*), which imitates the human voice, cause admiration. Many have quite delicate flesh. A species of periquito (small parrot) has been extinct since the beginning of the century, and many other species, such as the hawk, carrao, and yaguaza, and the pigeons, partly owing to the ravages of the mongoose and partly to the barbarous destruction of our forests, which has also removed our most useful trees.

The number of our reptiles and batrachians is small. We know of 7 species of saurians, 4 testudinata, 4 ophidians (among which is 1 boa and 3 batrachians). Of the last the coqui has merited the attention of naturalists by reason of its anomalous metamorphosis, leaving the egg as it does in a perfect state without passing through the preliminary of tadpole life. We have no venomous ophidia. Our reptiles, as a rule, are harmless, and, with the exception of the flesh and eggs of the testudinata, useless also.

Our fishes have not yet been studied. Their analogy with those of the Cuban coast has, however, enabled the greater part of them to be classified. The roadstead of Aguadilla and Aguada, celebrated as the spot where the immortal Genoeese, Columbus, touched when he discovered our island on his second voyage, in 1493, is notable also for the abundance and fine quality of its fishes. Of fresh-water fish there are but few in our rivers. Species appearing in the estuaries are sea fish and only ascend the rivers up to where the salt water inflow terminates. Some of the species attain great size; some are remarkable for their brilliancy of colors, and some are terrible in their attacks on their prey around the coast, in the bays, and even in the mouths of the largest rivers.

Without doubt, of our fauna the fishes are the most useful, giving food to thousands of poor people on our coasts. The voracity of the sharks is terrible, as is also that of their familiars of the family of Plagiostomi, which accompany them as parasites, the so-called pega (*Leptechinus naucrates*), which adheres to their body by its suction apparatus, situated on the back of the head and neck. Worthy of attention, by reason of their strange form, are the eriso, chapin, toro, and others, all of the family of Plectognathi, and the *Hippocampus punctulatus*, which represents the figure of a miniature horse without feet, the body terminating in a long tail.

Of the second group the invertebrates, divided into articulates and mollusks, we find among the first the insects, a group of graceful winged creatures of which hardly one is directly useful to mankind, while some of them are more or less harmful. The color and variety of our Lepidoptera, especially of the diurnal species, is charming;

The Coleoptera, whose bodies are protected by a hard and resisting armor, labor under the unjust charge of causing almost all the ills to which our agriculture is subject, not only in newly planted fields but also in those whose crops have already matured. The truth is, they lodge wherever they find sickly or rotten vegetation or dead plants, to feed on the softening roots and fibers. As a proof of this, they are generally to be found among the roots of sickly plants, or where the only vegetation is the refuse that has been cast aside and is rotting.

The larger escarabajos are lovers of palm trees, but are to be found among the roots of other vegetation far removed from palm groves. The smallest of the Rhynchophora, scarcely visible to the naked eye, has its habitat among some of the Solanaceae and on the most beautiful of the guayabos. Numerous hidrofillos are to be seen swimming in pools of stagnant and deleterious waters.

To attribute the disease of the sugar cane to the larvæ of the caculo is crass stupidity which causes public laughter. The author of this fleeting theory formerly depended on the fanatical and ignorant belief of his political friends to sustain it.

The Hymenoptera, or wasp family, are represented by the bee (*Apis mellifera*). Apiculture is unknown in this country, where the bee finds material at hand for

the preparation of honey and wax. If men of understanding should be sent to teach our people this industry, the gain in the future therefrom would be considerable. Of other species of insects there are hardly any worth the mention. The comejen, of the tribe of Termites, is one of the most harmful of the country, destroying in a relatively short time the most solid wooden buildings. The Grillo talpa, or changa (*Gryllotalpa hexadactyla*), is an intrusive foreigner, introduced here to our sorrow, probably in Peruvian guano, which concealed some of its eggs or larvæ. It has caused incalculable damage in the young plantings of tobacco, rice, and garden stuff, and attacks everything but leguminous plants.

The class of Arachnida is poorly represented. In it figure two interesting species. The hairy spider (*Migula spinierus*), which excavates holes in the mountain sides for a nest. It has a repulsive appearance; its bite is to be feared. The guabá (*Phrynos palmatus*) hides under fallen trees in the forests and in the brushwood of damp caves. This spider is wrongly feared as terribly venomous. It can inflict a bite with its pointed defenders, but as these are unprovided with poisonous secretion it is comparatively harmless. The alacran, or scorpion, is provided with a sting. There remain the *Garrapatas ixodes*, an annoying parasite, which infests cattle and horses, lodging itself in the ears and around the anus.

The Annelida are not worth mentioning, consisting of a few species of ground worms and those infesting the body of man and domestic animals.

The Crustacea, on the other hand, are numerous both on land and sea, in the rivers and waterfalls. Several kinds of lobsters (family *Loricata*) are caught on the rocky shores of our coasts. In our rivers shrimp abound and some species of large crabs, while among the stones washed by small cascades in the deep ravines formed by closely-meeting mountain sides our peasants search for the buruquema (*Epilabocera cubensis*), which is of delicate flavor. To the same family belong the centipedes (*Scolopendra*) and the gongolones (*Julus*). The first-named inflicts a terrible bite, but the second is wrongly feared, being harmless.

The mollusks are very numerous as well in species as in numbers. The land species are univalve, only one species of bivalves having been found by Dr. Gundlach, near Guanica. Their color is uniform, and at first sight attracts but little attention. It is worthy of note that many species are to be found only in certain very circumscribed limits—as, for instance, the meridional coast has some species entirely unknown in the rest of our little island. On the shores, either in the sands or adhering to the rocks, are great numbers of univalves and bivalves of varied form and beautiful colors. The Venus anell (*Venus dione*) is one of the most curious of the malacologic fauna.

The polypus and cuttlefish, of the order of *Cephalophora*, which abound in these waters, are much appreciated for their delicate flesh. Their great tentacles, provided with innumerable suckers, distinguish them from all other mollusks.

The Radiata are scarce in species; but members of the Echinida and Asterida families, the latter commonly known as starfish, are numerous along the shores.

The Polypi are very widespread along the coral formations of our coast, which is composed in its greater part of this material, extending some way inland and resembling real rock formation. On the sand flats the naked polypi and different forms of medusæ are common. These latter, generally known here as "aguaviva," are to be found swimming just below the surface, their numerous tentacles spread out from their gelatinous bodies. They exhibit brilliant iridescent colors, and are to be feared by reason of the caustic effect produced by contact with their pulpy bodies. The finest coral growths are to be found in the depths of still waters. Our sponges are not very serviceable for purposes of commerce.

The flora of our island is as rich as its fauna. From the shore to mountain top, from north to south, there is a profusion and variety of splendid vegetation.

As in all intertropical countries of the character of Porto Rico, the Dicotyledoneæ, or plants exceeding in woody element, are more numerous than the Monocotyledoneæ, and these latter were numerous than the Acotyledoneæ. Belonging to the first family were the luxuriant and, at times, gigantic trees of our former extensive and impenetrable forests, among the second the majestic palmas, and in the third the gigantic Felix fern and others of fair size which cover the argillaceous soil of the crags and high mountains.

If we were to divide our plants into groups according to their utility to mankind, we should have to give the food plants first place. Most of these have been introduced from Europe, Asia, and Africa and are cane, coffee, yam, yautia, plantain, calabash, bean, gandul (a species of bean), as well as fruit trees and other useful plants, such as cocoanut, breadfruit, mango, nispero, quenepa, orange, pomarosa, emajagua, mailla, zarza amarilla, lemon, acacia.

Sugar cane was introduced from the East Indies; coffee from Arabia and Africa; rice and vegetables from Spain; the plantain, yam, yautia, cocoanut, and breadfruit from Africa; mango and orange probably from the Canary Islands; the nispero and quenepa from South America. The only indigenous food plants are yuca,

malanga, gunda, yuquilla, maize, aguacate, maguey, and a few others. Tobacco is also a native and is to-day one of our principal crops, exceeding in quality all other tobaccos, with the exception of the Cuban leaf from the Vuelta Abajo district.

Our massive forest trees supply fine woods of every description, especially veined cabinet woods and woods of iron hardness; but the rapid destruction of our forests under the devastating ax is greatly to be deplored. Unless some energetic measures are taken, they will have disappeared within a very short time. Our peasant knows only how to destroy; he has no thoughts for the morrow. Cedar almond-rillo, capa prieto, male cedar, laurel sabina, capa blanca, ortegón, caña fistula and caña fistula cimarrona, guayacan, pendulo rojo and pendulo blanco, tachuelo, and many other fine trees can almost be considered extinct in the island, and we shall soon have to import our timber for building purposes. Whole forests of valuable lumber have been destroyed by burning, representing a capital lost for their owners. In course of extinction are also the yaya, magar, tortugo amarillo, maricao, ausubo, and even the oak. With difficulty the following species are conserved: The ucar granadillo, guaragnao, and several laurels and, in the high mountains, tabonuco, cucubano, sebonquillo, and others.

The shores, almost bare of trees, now and then produce some mangroves of the red, white, and button species, and magos.

The trees we have named are the most valued for solid buildings and for cabinet-work. Others of less value and strength are the caiba, pomarosa, aguacate, geogeo, javilla, mamey, guama, and guaba.

Among fruit trees producing succulent fruits are aguacate, nispero, mamey, mamey zapote, saimito cimitillo, ausubo, pomarosa, jagna, cerezo, grosella, guama, pajuil, and hicaco.

The different classes of higueros are of great value owing to the hardness of the shell of their fruit.

Among medicinal plants we may mention manzanilla, tilcoy, tibey rojo, tabaco, carrasco, rabano cimarron, and all the araceas and many belonging to the family of Euphorbias.

Distinguished for their beautiful and at times fragrant flowers are the magar, bello or mauricio, pendulo rojo, caña fistula, guave, taman, tabaiba, roble, all the mirtaicas. In this direction the shrubs and herbs are more notable. In the winter season our pastures and mountain sides are covered with convolvuli, sinantereas, verbenas, and leguminosae, and the orchideae and other parasites display their blossoms on the limbs of trees. On the placid waters of the pools the *Nymphaea* and *Eichhornia azurea* extend themselves.

The foods most liked by our herbivorous animals are malojilla and guinea grass, both of which are exotic gramineae, the name of their introducer not being known. They eat also some of the native grasses, whose growth, however, is very inferior to those mentioned. Fifty square meters of the former will easily sustain one ox or horse, while three times the quantity of native grass would be necessary for the same purpose.

If the flora of our north coast can be distinguished from that of the south, with only 1° of latitude between them, much more so the floras of the coast and high mountains, where the corresponding distance is 10° or 1,100 meters of height, equal to 28° north latitude.

Before terminating we will mention the guano tree, useful for the fiber contained in its great capsules, which fiber we use for stuffing pillows and mattresses.

As textile plants, we have cotton, maguey, and emajagua, and, less useful, the gasima and some herbaceous malvaceae.

The scope of this article does not allow of a detailed account of the different plants of our flora, but we have mentioned the most common and notable ones.

We conclude this paper with a list of the flora already mentioned, their common, scientific, and family names.

Common name.	Scientific name.	Family.
Ortegón	<i>Coccoloba rugosa</i>	Polygonae.
Ausubo	<i>Dipholis</i>	Sapotae.
Ucar	<i>Buella buceras</i>	Combrretaceae.
Capa prieto	<i>Cordia gerascanthus</i>	Boraginaceae.
Capa blanca	<i>Peltia domingensis</i>	Verbenaceae.
Pendulo rojo	<i>Citharexylum quadrangulare</i>	Do.
Tachuelo	<i>Pictetia squamosa</i>	Leguminosae.
Guayacan	<i>Guajacum officinale</i>	Zygophylleae.
Espino rubial	<i>Xanthoxylum ochroxylum</i>	Rutaceae.
Guayabacan	<i>Myrica divaricata</i>	Myrtaceae.
Tortugo amarillo	<i>Sideroxylon pallidum</i>	Sapotae.

Trees whose timber is less strong and resisting.

Common name.	Scientific name.	Family.
Tabonuco	Dacryodes haxandra	Terebinthaceae.
Espino	Xanthoxylum dava hercules	Rutaceae.
Roble	Tecoma pentaphylla	Bignoniaceae.
Almendrillo	Prunus occidentalis	Rosaceae.
Haya, or yaya	Oxandra laurifolia	Anonaceae.
Laurel	Laurus	Lauraceae.
Maricao	Byrsonima spicata	Malpighiaceae.
Guaraguao	Guarea swartzii	Meliaceae.
Moca	Andira inermis	Leguminosae.
Maria	Calophyllum Calaba	Guttiferae.
Pendulo blanco.	Vitex divaricata	Verbenaceae.

Trees with ordinary timber for building and inferior usefulness.

Ceboruquillo	Thouinia tomentosa	Sapindaceae.
Cabo de hacha	Trichilia hirta	Meliaceae.
Mamey	Mazma americana	Guttiferae.
Mangle, colorado.	Rhizophora mangle	Rhizophoraceae.
Mangle, blanco.	Avicennia nitida	Verbenaceae.
Mangle, boton	Conocarpus erectus	Combretaceae.
Palo de hueso	Linociera compacta	Olinaceae.
Palo de doncella	Byrsonima lucida	Malpighiaceae.
Mago	Hernandia sonora	Lauraceae.
Guara	Cupatia americana	Sapindaceae.
Jacana	Succina multiflora	Sapotaceae.

Trees whose timber is of poor quality and of slight duration.

Jobo	Spondias lutea	Terebinthaceae.
Almacigo	Bussiera garrufera	Do.
Cayur	Anona palustris	Anonaceae.
Jaboncillo	Sapindus saponaria	Sapindaceae.
Palo de muñeca	Rauwolfia nitida	Apocynaceae.
Celba	Eriodendron anfractuosum	Bombacaceae.
Palo de burro	Caparis verrucosa	Capparidaceae.
Palo de jaqueca	Thespesia populnea	Melastomaceae.
Achiotillo	Alchornea titolia	Euphorbiaceae.
Masa	Hedwigia balsamifera	Terebinthaceae.

Trees whose wood is fit for fine cabinet work.

Magar	Thespesia grandiflora	Malvaceae.
Dedro hembra	Cedrola odorata	Meliaceae.
Acefitillo	?	?
Bella mauricio	Magnolia portoricensis	Magnoliaceae.
Nuez	Juglans (?)	Juglandaceae.
Guitarón	Colubrina ferruginosa	Rhamnaceae.
Bojé	Exostemma floribundum	Rubiaceae.
Cuero de Zapo	Exostemma caribaeum	Do.
Cedro macho	Hieronymis clusoides	Euphorbiaceae.
Taiti	?	Do.

Indigenous fruit trees.

Guanábana	Anona muricata	Anonaceae.
Anon	Anona squamosa	Do.
Cerazon	Anona reticulata	Do.
China dulce	Citrus aurantium	Aurantaceae.
Cerezas	Malpighia punctifolia	Malpighiaceae.
Paiull	Anacardium occidentale	Terebinthaceae.
Guayaba	Psidium paniferum	Myrtaceae.
Jagua	Gnua americana	Rubiaceae.
Calmito	Cryosophyllum cainito	Sapotaceae.
Aguate	Persea gratissima	Lauraceae.
Guamá	Inga laurina	Leguminosae mimosae.

Trees and plants imported and propagated.

Common name.	Scientific name.	Family.
Mango	Mangifera indica	Terebinthaceae.
Ciruela	Spondias purpurea	Do.
Almendro	Terminalia catappa	Combretaceae.
Café	Coffea arabica	Rubiaceae.
Pomaraosa	Jambosa vulgaris	Myrtaceae.
Nispero	Sapota acbica	Sapotaceae.
Quenepe	Melicocca bijuga	Sapindaceae.
Coco	Cocos nucifera	Palmeae.
Saman	Calliandra saman	Leguminosae mimosaeae.
Acacia	Acacia lebbick	Do.

Trees and plants useful for various purposes.

Guasima	Guasima ilmicolia	Butterlaceae.
Emajagua	Paritium thiacum	Malvaceae.
Guano	Ochrobia lagopus	Bombaceae.
Guaba	Inga vera	Leguminosae.
Higuero	Crescentia cujete	Bignoniaceae.
Magney	Agave	Liliaceae.
Juan caliente	Bourea glabra	Terebinthaceae.
Malla	Bromelia	Bromeliaceae.
Achiote	Bixa orellana	Bixineae.
Bejuco prieto	Hippocratea ovata	Hippocrateaceae.

Plants considered as poisonous.

Manzanillo	Hippomane mancinella	Euphorbiaceae.
Carrasco	Coumcladia liciifolia	Terebinthaceae.
Javilla	Jura crepitans	Euphorbiaceae.
Tibey blanco	Ysotoma longiflora	Lobeliaceae.
Yuca	Jampha manihot	Euphorbiaceae.
Tibey colorado	Tupa assurgens	Lobeliaceae.
Don Tomas	Jatropha multifida	Euphorbiaceae.
Rabano cimarrón	Dffenbachia seguine	Aroidae.
Bejuco de mona	Cissampelos pareira	Mentispermee.
Barbasco	Saurauia alba	Canellaceae.

BAYAMON, P. R.

WOODS OF PORTO RICO AND THEIR USES.

[Revised by the Director of Agriculture, San Juan, for the Commissioner.]

Spanish name.	English name.	Specific gravity.	Uses.
Abelluello		.80	Boards.
Abispillo		.75	Shooks.
Acetillo	Satin wood	.90	Cabinet wood.
Acetitillo		.84	Boards.
Algarrobo	Gum anime or carob.	1.08	Wagon wheels and other objects where rough usage is required.
Almendro	Indian cherry; almond	.90	Boards.
Aquilon		.88	Do.
Ausubo	Bullet wood	1.08	Much used for building.
Bucaro		.77	Boards.
Cacao cimarrón	Fire wood	1.08	Walking sticks, firewood.
Cafello		.85	Charcoal.
Caimitillo	Star apple	1.78	Shingles, barrel staves, charcoal.
Caimito	do	.85	Boats.
Canela	Cinnamon	.87	Boards.
Canella		.60	Do.
Capa blanca		.89	Do.
Capacillo		.82	No use.
Capa prieto		.75	Boats, boards.
Caracollillo		1.20	Hard wood for building.
Cedro macho	Cedar (bastard)	.90	Boards.
Cedro Hembra	Cedar		Cabinet wood.
Canizo	White goose foot	.74	Formerly for hogsheds.
Cerezo	Cherry tree	.61	Shooks.
Cojova		.60	Posts and fencing.

Woods of Porto Rico and their uses—Continued.

Spanish name.	English name.	Specific gravity.	Uses.
Corazon.....	Bull's heart of sweet sop.	.65	Charcoal.
Coscarron.....		.90	Boards.
Corcho.....			Used for charcoal and to sharpen steel instruments and carpenters' tools.
Cuero de Sapo.....		.80	Hut building, firewood.
Cucubano.....		.84	Boards, firewood.
Clenigilla.....			Boards (one of the fine woods).
Dama Juana (a bush).....		.82	Firewood.
Ebony.....			
Espejuelo-bobo.....		1.08	Boards.
Espinillo (a very large tree).....		1.10	Firewood.
Espino rubio.....		.68	Do.
Flamboyant.....			
Gallina (a shrub).....			Machete handles.
Gen gen.....		.68	Wooden pans of gold seekers.
Geno geno.....		.89	
Guaba.....		.64	Shade for coffee.
Guajandillo, same as caracolillo.....		.80	Firewood.
Guama.....		.70	Do.
Guanabana.....	Sour-sop.	.44	Do.
Guasabara.....		.87	Do.
Guasabarrillo.....		.78	Do.
Guastima.....		.85	Fibre used for rope.
Guasimillo.....		.63	Firewood.
Guabara.....		.63	Do.
Guara.....		.70	Do.
Guaraguanó.....		.60	Boards and cabinet wood.
Guayaba.....	Guava fruit tree		
Guyacan.....	Lignumvitæ.	1.16	One of the hardest building woods of the island.
Gusayabota.....		.66	Posts.
Acetuna.....		1.03	Boat building.
Higuierillo.....		.79	Boards.
Higuero.....	Gourd tree	.61	Firewood; fruit furnishes the peasants cups, etc.
Hortegón.....		1.25	Hardest wood known.
Húcar.....		1.06	Hard wood (coffee and cocoa shade).
Hucar amarillo.....		1.07	Do.
Hucar colorado.....		.93	Do.
Hucarillo.....		.80	Hard wood.
Huso amarillo.....		.88	Do.
Huso blanco.....		.89	Do.
Huso colorado.....		1.30	Do.
Jaboncillo.....	Soapwort.	.68	Boards.
Jagua.....		.80	Boards, coaches, and wagons.
Jobo.....			Fence posts.
Juso.....		1.12	Posts.
Laurel blanco.....		.84	Furniture.
Laurel amarillo.....		.96	Boards, furniture.
Lechicillo.....		.79	Firewood.
Limoncillo.....	Bay tree	1.20	Cabinet.
Mahogany.....			Do.
Maria.....	Tolu.	.91	Do.
Maricao.....		.78	Cabinet, firewood.
Maza.....		.87	Firewood.
Moca.....		.88	Coffee shade.
Mora.....	Mulberry	.86	Cabinet wood.
Mamoyuelo.....		1.02	Boards.
Moral.....	Species of mulberry	.87	
Multa.....		1.06	Fruit used for coloring rum, etc.
Mulleco.....	Shrub	.50	Firewood.
Naranja.....	Bitter orange	.48	
Negra lora.....		.91	Boards.
Nispero.....	Tropical plum	1.02	
Nuez moscada.....	Nutmeg	.80	
Hoja menuda.....			Hut building.
Oak.....			
Palo blanco.....		.77	Do.
Palo bobo.....		.54	Charcoal.
Palo de hierro.....	Shrub	1.07	
Palo pollo.....	do		Handles for machetes, pans for gold seekers.
Palo puerco.....		.87	Charcoal.
Palo santo.....	Shrub	.70	
Pendula.....		.84	Boards, posts.
Pimiento.....		1.02	Very hard wood.
Pomaroza.....	Rose apple	.70	Charcoal (fruit said to be 30 per cent sugar).

Woods of Porto Rico and their uses--Continued.

Spanish name.	English name.	Specific gravity.	Uses.
Quina	Chinappa	.87	Cabinet wood.
Rabojunco		1.07	Hut building.
Ramoncillo		.89	Do.
Roble	Oak	.85	Yokes of oxen.
Retama	Shrub	1.11	Charcoal.
Rubial	Madder	.55	
Tubáiba		1.13	Persons sleeping under the shadow of this tree are poisoned by its exhalations. Useless.
Tabonuco, a very resinous tree.		.60	Timber.
Tachuelo blanco		1.12	Boards.
Tortugo amarillo.		1.25	Do.
Tortugo negro			
Zapote		1.05	Firewood.
Aguacate			
Llagrúmo macho (produces the drug digitalina).	Alligator pear.		Boards.
Llagrúmo hembra			
Mangle bobo	Mangrove		Tanner's bark.
Yaiti		.94	Walking sticks.
Cóbana negra			Walking sticks. Very hard building wood.
Ceiba	Five-leaved silk cotton tree.		Shooks.
Guano	Silk cotton tree		
Guajón			Boards.
Granadilla		1.11	Boards, cabinet.
Yaya		.74	Shooks of best quality.
Majagua	Shrub		Laths, bark for fastening, and rope fiber.
Uca			

VEGETABLES OF THE ISLAND.

Achiote	Annato seed, used for coloring rice, etc.
Ajo	Garlic.
Ajonjolí	Sesame seed.
Algarroba	Carob bean.
Apio	Celery.
Arroz	Upland rice.
Batata	Sweet potato.
Berengena	Eggplant.
Calabaza	Squash or pumpkin.
Caña dulce	Sugar cane.
Cebolla	Onion.
Col	Cabbage.
Eddoes	A tuber used for food.
Frijol	Black bean.
Gandul	Small red bean.
Gingamboá	Seed like a small lentil.
Guisante	Pease.
Gumbo	Okra, used for soup.
Habichuela	String bean.
Hedionda	Small berry used by natives instead of coffee.
Higuera	Gourd used to make peasant's cup, ladle, and spoon.
Kenep	Kenep.
Lechosa	A species of muskmelon.
Lechuga	Lettuce.
Lenteja	Lentil.
Leren	Species of small potato.
Maíz	Corn.
Malagueta	Tabasco pepper.
Maní	Peanut.
Melón	Melon.
Nabo	Turnip.
Nami	Yam, a large tuber.
Papas	Potatoes.
Pepino Angola	Angola cucumber.
Pimienta	Green pepper.
Rabano	Radish.

Remolache	Beet.
Tallote	A corrugated, pear-shaped green vegetable.
Tanier	A plant, the leaves of which are boiled and eaten.
Tabaco	Tobacco.
Tomate	Tomato.
Yuca	Cassava, manioc, a starch food.
Zanachoria	Carrot.
Zandia	Watermelon.

FRUITS OF THE ISLAND.

Agucate	Alligator pear.
Almendro	Wild almond.
Cacao	Chocolate bean.
Café	Coffee.
Caimito	Small red fruit.
Cereza	Tropical cherry.
China	Sweet orange.
China injerta	Bitter sweet orange.
Cidra	Species of grape fruit.
Coco	Cocoanut.
Corazon	Soursop, a large sweet fruit.
Corozo	Ivory nut.
Coyoll	Coyoll palm fruit.
Fresa	Wild strawberry.
Fruta de pan	Breadfruit.
Grosella	A kind of gooseberry growing on a tree in clusters like grapes.
Guanabana	Custard apple.
Guayaba	Guava.
Guinda	Species of currant.
Guineo	Small plantain.
Hicaco	Coco plum.
Higos chumbo	Cactus pear.
Lima	Lime.
Limon	Lemon (sweet).
Mamey	Mamee, sopota.
Mangle	White pulp inclosed in shell of fruit of mangrove tree.
Mango	Mango.
Mangotin	Mangosteen, fruit of size of apple.
Multas	Mulberries.
Naranja	Bitter orange.
Nispero	Russet fruit, very sweet.
Nuez moscada	Nutmeg (spice).
Pajull	A small pulpy stone fruit.
Pinas	Pineapples, three varieties—sugar loaf, Mayaguez, and Cimarron or wild.
Platano	Plantain or banana; there are 20 or more varieties.
Pomarosa	Rose apple, an edible berry.
Tamarindo	Tamarind fruit.
Toronja	Grape fruit.
Uvas de playa	Seaside grape (so called in British West Indies).

MEDICINAL AND OTHER PLANTS.

Acerga	Flavoring herb.
Añil	Indigo.
Arrowroot	
Caña fistula	Medicinal plant.
Culantrop	Herb used for soup.
Flor de nacahuitta	Dried flour used medicinally.
Gengibre	Ginger.
Helecho	Male fern.
Mabi	Bark used for liquor.
Malanga	A farinaceous root.
Mato	A small round gray bean, medicinal.
Oregano	Wild marjoram.
Patchouli	A mint-like plant.
Perejil	Parsley.
Tabaluco	A resin extracted from a tree used as vermifuge.
Yuquilla	Ginger-like medicinal root.

THE INSULAR GOVERNMENT.

CHARACTER OF THE PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 2, 1898.*

Señor LUIS MCNOZ RIVERA, secretario de la gobernación:

Dr. CARROLL. I heard a great deal about you even before I left the United States, and I am very glad of this opportunity to meet you. I desire your views on the condition of things in Porto Rico, and as to what would be best to be done to advance the welfare of the island.

Mr. RIVERA. If you will give me concrete questions, I will be better able to give you the information you desire.

Dr. CARROLL. What are the present political conditions of Porto Rico? Are the Porto Ricans divided on party lines; and if so, on what lines?

Mr. RIVERA. Under the Spanish rule in Porto Rico there existed two political parties—one a small one, the party of the rulers, whose basis was the Peninsula; the other a large one, composed almost entirely of natives of the country. The ruling party was able to keep itself in power for a long period, thanks to the electoral privileges which were conceded them. In the opposition party all the Porto Ricans were united, but on the establishment of the autonomous régime, and on the declaration of universal suffrage in 1897, the Peninsula party was reduced to an insignificant minority, and the Porto Rican party was divided into two branches. One of these branches, more moderate than the other, was called the Liberal party, and the other party, more advanced, called itself the Radical. The Liberal party is much larger than the Radical party and has won in all electoral struggles since the establishment of autonomy in the island. Their defeats irritated the Radical party, which resorted to violent proceedings, making use at times of even personal insults, which has brought on a condition of affairs making politics very difficult in this country.

When the American army took possession of the whole island in a definite manner on October 18, things were in the following situation:

When General Brooke, who was of the opinion that the various secretaries should continue the exercise of their respective functions, continued in office the secretaries who had received their election to office by the votes of the Liberal party, their adversaries inaugurated a violent campaign against them, in spite of old unions being dissolved and in spite also of the fact that the council of the island tries by every means to bring to its side all conflicting elements in the island. I do not think that any great difference exists between the two parties in their primary principles, and I believe the present opposition is owing entirely to reasons of personal rancor on the part of those who have determined the struggle. The citizens of Porto Rico are for the most part democrats (I use the word "democrats" in the broad sense of the word, not as indicating the tenets of any political party). All of them aspire to preserve the individuality of the country within the union of the states, and as no fundamental principle divides us, it is possible that concord will soon be reestablished and that the Government of the United States will find in the island immense opportunities for working out her objects and for arriving at an era of progress and general welfare. That is my idea of the general condition of the island.

Dr. CARROLL. May it be said that the autonomous system is fairly installed?

Mr. RIVERA. When the Americans arrived the autonomous system was fully introduced, but to-day the government is a military one, and that government settles matters having any importance.

Dr. CARROLL. I would like to have an explanation of the general scheme of government here at the time our troops arrived, and, if it would be just as convenient, I would be pleased to have you divide the subject into the three parts—the legislative, judicial, and executive—and give me a plain exposition of each.

Mr. RIVERA. The legislative power was exercised by two chambers, representatives and councilors of administration, who constituted a sort of senate. These chambers had the power to legislate on estimates, public instruction, sanitation, charities, public works, and, in general, upon everything which affected the life of the island locally.

Dr. CARROLL. Were they subject to any veto power?

Mr. RIVERA. Yes; the governor-general had the right of vetoing the statutes voted by the chambers which required his approbation to acquire executive character. The opportunity of exercising this right of veto never arrived, because the first legislature was dissolved immediately on being called, owing to the war.

Dr. CARROLL. How were the members of the legislature elected?

Mr. RIVERA. The election of representatives was by universal suffrage, exercised by all males above the age of 25 years. The election of councillors, or senators, was by indirect suffrage; that is, the towns elected their representatives, who in turn voted for the senators, but had no other function.

Dr. CARROLL. How many members were there in the senate?

Mr. RIVERA. The senate was composed of 15 members, 8 of whom were elected by popular vote, as before stated, and 7 members were named by the Spanish Crown.

Dr. CARROLL. Were the representatives all voted for on the ballots?

Mr. RIVERA. Yes; all of them.

Dr. CARROLL. How many of them were there.

Mr. RIVERA. Thirty-two.

Dr. CARROLL. This was the system prevailing under autonomy?

Mr. RIVERA. Yes.

THE EXECUTIVE POWER.

Mr. RIVERA. The executive power was exercised by a governor-general and four secretaries, one of public works and public instruction, another of justice, another of finance, and one of gubernacion (government). No act of the governor was valid unless one of the secretaries added his assent to it—that is to say, it must have the approbation of at least one of the secretaries, and the secretaries in turn could not decree any measure without the approbation of the governor; so that together the council of administration and the governor had charge of all executive functions, and it was their duty to apply all statutes passed by the chambers. The secretaries were required to be members of one of the two chambers—either of representatives or senators. The governor, besides the power which he exercised in company with the secretaries, took under his charge all matters of a diplomatic character and was the sole manager of ecclesiastical matters in the island by virtue of the patronato real or special powers conferred on him by the Holy See for that purpose, making him virtually the head of the church here. The governor,

together with the secretaries, named all the employees of the colony, and he alone the employees of his special secretarial department. But in each ministerial department the secretary was at the head of affairs and directed without hindrance of any sort all matters pertaining to his department. The governor-general had the right to evoke and dissolve the chambers and to remove his ministers at will.

THE JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT.

The judiciary was directed by the secretary of justice, and was composed of the territorial superior court at San Juan, which had jurisdiction of appeals from all civil and criminal judgments and decisions; of the two audiencias, one at Ponce and one at Mayaguez, which only had jurisdiction in criminal matters; of several justices of first instance in the chief city of each district, who, as their designation indicates, attended to preliminary proceedings and also suits of a civil character only. There was also a municipal justice in every city and town of the island, established to punish offenses for which the maximum penalty or punishment prescribed did not exceed one month's imprisonment, and who also had jurisdiction in civil cases where the amount involved was not greater than \$200.

RELIGION.

The public treasurer paid all expenses connected with the Catholic Church in the island, which was the religion of the State, and in every city and in every town there were churches exclusively for Catholic worship. In Ponce only does there exist a Protestant church and minister. In the country there are no followers of any other religion.

I will now compare the autonomous system with the system which it succeeded. Before the establishment of autonomy, or under the old system, the Governor-General was absolute master of the destinies of the country. He directed finances through a manager, who was his subordinate, who had under his order the chiefs of all the other departments, so that the country did not have a voice in any way in its government. The governor was surrounded by a number of influential persons, to whom he granted favors, and on whom he depended to keep up the appearance of a system of representation which was at bottom completely false. There was a provincial deputation, with very limited powers, such powers as it had being purely administrative powers, and the budget of the country was voted by the Spanish Chambers, in which Porto Rico had a representation of 16 members and 3 senators, which representation it kept under the autonomous government. As regards the municipalities, they had no liberty for the administration of their interests, and all their acts were submitted for the approbation of the Governor-General, who appointed all municipal employees, naming arbitrarily every employee, even down to porters and janitors, and removing completely all initiative from the municipalities. It can be said that the Governor-General did everything in the government of Puerto Rico.

DR. CARROLL. The present military government, as I understand it, is a continuation of the former system of government, with such changes as military control might require.

MR. RIVERA. That is the case.

DR. CARROLL. Then, the autonomistic system is not in operation to-day?

Mr. RIVERA. I can not consider that we are to-day an autonomous government, because the fact of the invasion dissolved the chambers, and the secretaries are not responsible members of the government. They have to appeal to General Brooke.

Dr. CARROLL. It is a system of government ad interim, awaiting legislation from the United States to make necessary changes?

Mr. RIVERA. The country generally understands that, and desire and hope that the United States will legislate for them in such a way that their road to progress will be easy.

Dr. CARROLL. Would the Territorial system of the United States be a satisfactory system for Porto Rico, with such adaptations as may be necessary?

Mr. RIVERA. I will answer that at some length. The Territorial system of the United States is perfectly applicable to Porto Rico—with a governor at the head of the country; a secretary to consult with him, to keep him informed; a manager of the treasury; a manager of the post-office, and a manager of public works, which office does not exist in the Territories of the United States, but which is here necessary and indispensable, because public works can not be here exclusively a municipal matter. These functionaries would be sufficient to manage all matters of the Territory. The business of the government should be further simplified by the concession of absolute liberty to the municipalities, so that they themselves could resolve, without any hindrance, their own municipal problems, the administration of justice being under the direction of the Supreme Court. There should exist also a legislature, with power to make laws, which should be submitted for approbation to the Congress of the United States.

The country would be satisfied with this system, and under its protection would prepare itself gradually for statehood, which is the highest aspiration of the natives of the country, a consummation which might arrive in a comparatively short period of time if the culture and richness of the island be taken into account, which are equal to the minor States of the Union itself. Porto Ricans desire that the military occupation should be as brief as possible, and that the situation at present existing shall be normalized, not being subject to the will of the governor or the President of the United States, but that the colonial life shall be subject to the necessary and appropriate laws.

To conclude, Porto Rico aspires to statehood and accepts as a transitory condition that of a Territory, asking that the military regimen may be concluded as soon as possible.

Dr. CARROLL. I suppose that the people of Porto Rico want true home rule, not only for the general affairs of the island but for municipalities. Now, I am told that there are a great many municipalities, more than are really needed for the island; that there is a great deal of municipal machinery, and that it would be better that some of the municipalities should be merely towns and villages. If that is so, I desire to ask whether it would not be well to inaugurate the system of counties which we have in all our States?

Mr. RIVERA. I don't consider the system of counties practicable in this country.

Dr. CARROLL. Let me explain further. These counties are judicial districts. At the county seats, so called, are the county courts, places for the registration of property transfers, mortgages, wills, etc., a board of taxation, a school superintendent, etc., and the general business of the county is there transacted. The county is also a legislative dis-

trict. It would seem that there ought to be similar divisions here, and would it not be well to call them counties and give them county government?

Mr. RIVERA. As regards the county court-house, under the judicial system as at present in vogue every group of five or six municipalities has its judge of first instance. As to municipal matters generally, I think every municipality should be its own master and not be subject to any county council; that if it saw fit to build a road or a bridge or other improvement it should be free to do so.

Dr. CARROLL. They have that right under our form of government.

Mr. RIVERA. Then I don't see the advantage of having that division. Is the object of the county to resolve questions affecting a number of communities all together?

Dr. CARROLL. Partly that and partly to stand between the municipality and the State. For example, as districts convenient for electing members to the legislature; as districts convenient to the exercise of judicial functions; as districts convenient for the registration of deeds and other documents; as districts convenient for the exercise of school superintendency; for the construction and maintenance of county roads and bridges, and for the purpose of assessment and collection of taxes and remittal to the State authorities.

Mr. RIVERA. I believe that such an institution or organization would be both practical and useful, and we possess almost the same institution here to-day, except that we have an anarchical state of affairs existing in these institutions at present, some so-called counties being in one district for judicial matters, in another district for military matters, and in another district for other matters; but I consider the proposition you suggest a very practical and useful one.

Dr. CARROLL. The object of the county is to unify all those interests and to bring home to the people the privileges of government, so that in a country where it may cost a great deal to travel the people may not have to go very far to seek governmental aid in any direction. If the Territorial form of government is introduced here in its simplicity, it would probably do away with a great many posts which exist under the present government. Would that be an objection?

Mr. RIVERA. Not in the least. The country would be pleased to see the government simplified and the disappearance of useless sinecures.

Dr. CARROLL. I would like to ask what were the limitations of suffrage previous to the establishment of universal suffrage in 1897?

Mr. RIVERA. Voting was only allowed to those persons who paid to the state taxes above the value of \$5 without regard to what they paid to the municipality, and all public servants and employees also had votes, no matter what their salaries. It was an original and curious system under which those who collected the money could vote, but those who paid it out had no vote; by which means the government was able to retain in power its own party continually, and although consisting of an insignificant minority in point of numbers these voters were the absolute dictators of the island. It has been known to happen in San Juan that the number of voters who were employed by the state were greater in number than the number of citizen voters; therefore it can easily be seen that all outside parties together had no voice in the government.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it not be well to change the minimum age limit with respect to the right of suffrage by reducing it from 25 years to 21 years, as is the general rule in the United States?

Mr. RIVERA. Taking into consideration the state of education of our people and also the difference in race—the Anglo-Saxon race being a considering and debating and calm people, whereas the Latin race is excitable and undeliberative, and at the age of 21 years a man of the latter race has not formed character—I think it unwise to make the change suggested. I consider that the Government of the United States should give this matter of suffrage earnest attention, because it is perhaps the most serious which it will have to resolve. From the vote will proceed the government of the country, and experience has shown us already that it would be extremely dangerous to hand over our future to the masses, who are entirely without civic education and who might be wrongly directed by the audacity of agitators who would make them their tools. I wish to emphasize the fact, before our interview closes, that I am earnestly in favor of the establishment here of a Territorial form of government with the modifications proposed, and I can say that with the more genuineness because I hold an office which will be swept away by the change to a Territorial form.

THE PROVINCIAL DEPUTATION.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 5, 1898.*

Mr. MANUEL EGOZCUE (a merchant and vice-president of the provincial deputation). I hand you some books which refer to the provincial deputation, which I present to you. I was at the head of this institution for six months, during which time, I think I can say truthfully, the country made some advance. One of these pamphlets treats of the rules governing vaccination, another of the provincial lottery, and there are also several reports here.

Dr. CARROLL. I thank you very much for these books; I shall find them valuable. I am desirous of information in regard to the provincial deputation.

Mr. EGOZCUE. The promulgation of the provincial law in Porto Rico and, as a consequence, the establishment of the provincial deputation was the first step which the Spanish Government made in favor of administrative decentralization.

The ayuntamiento was governed by a law which limited all popular action with reference to their peculiar interests, because in the most important branches of the administration, and in their municipal budgets, the direct inspection of the governor-general was required, whose authority assumed all civil and military powers; then came the deputation to fill a felt necessity demanded by the liberal spirit which has always been manifested in the country, for thus the said municipal corporations were not subjected to the absolute judgment and will of the governor, except that in permanent functions a commission of the deputation, which was elected by the people subdivided into electoral districts, knew of the local affairs and informed the superior authority after a careful examination of these. The orders emanating from the central provincial authority have been generally executive.

The deputation came also to give impulse to the branches of beneficencia, instruction, and public works and health, establishing an asylum and colleges, and giving impulse to roads and cart roads for the development of the wealth which was found stationary on account

of the want of the elements which would determine its progressive movement.

Then, with the promulgation of the first reforms in the system of autonomy, the deputation occupied an important place in the administrative life of the country, charged the country with the government and direction of the peculiar interests of the province, the stimulation of its material interests, extending to everything in general which has reference to public works—telegraphic and postal communication, territorial and maritime, agriculture, industry and commerce, emigration and colonization, public instruction, beneficencia and health, assemblies, expositions, and other institutions for industrial development (fomento) and other analogous objects, without other limitations than those inherent faculties in the sovereign power which the laws always reserve to the government of the nation.

The centralization of the state thus became almost annulled, and the Province saw administered directly and liberally its interests by a popular corporation ably judging of its necessities and eager to supply them. The ayuntamientos moved also in their proper orbit and the deputation was the protecting center which guaranteed their popular action, and assisted with its elements to render aid in those beneficent enterprises for their respective municipal objects.

The provincial deputation to-day has property worth \$1,145,000. The cities of the island are its debtors to the extent of over \$150,000, and the deputation itself does not owe more than \$70,000 or \$80,000.

Dr. CARROLL. Then the island has no debt?

Mr. EGOZCUE. No; none whatever.

Dr. CARROLL. The provincial deputation has a treasury, and the provincial government has another treasury. Why is that?

Mr. EGOZCUE. They have separate treasuries because they have separate functions and separate collections. Each collects its income independently of the other. Although connected with the deputation, I am in favor of its disappearance, but not until after the establishment of another government.

Dr. CARROLL. Was the provincial deputation under the central government, or did it run parallel with it?

Mr. EGOZCUE. Neither was subject to the other. They were independent bodies, with independent functions. The high officials of the provincial deputation are not paid any salaries. They are elected by popular vote and are not subject to anybody.

Dr. CARROLL. There are two departments, I understand, which were under the direction of the provincial deputation. One was that of fomento, and the other that of gobierno.

Mr. EGOZCUE. No; it was purely administrative in its functions. Fomento was entirely under the charge of the provincial deputation under the autonomistic government, but not gobierno.

Dr. CARROLL. I thought those two departments were provided for in the budget.

Mr. EGOZCUE. They simply made distribution or apportionment of the expenses of the gobierno, without having anything to do with it.

Dr. CARROLL. Well, the expenses of the province which were approved in Madrid also included these expenses, did they not?

Mr. EGOZCUE. The last ones did not go to Madrid at all for approval. They were approved here.

Dr. CARROLL. The budget I saw was for 1897-98.

Mr. EGOZCUE. It was reformed after it was adopted, and the reformations came in the form of decrees and royal orders.

Dr. CARROLL. Can we get the estimates for 1898-99?

Mr. EGOZCUE. There was no new estimate furnished. As the country was in a state of war, the Government ordered that the previous one should be adopted.

Dr. CARROLL. Then the last one did not go to Madrid?

Mr. EGOZCUE. The provincial deputation estimate is the one that did not go to Madrid.

Dr. CARROLL. When was the provincial deputation established?

Mr. EGOZCUE. It was established when the decentralization of power commenced. You will find a full statement of it in the paper which I have included in the several documents handed to you. The provincial deputation was the bulwark of defense against the Spanish Government. It was formed by popular election. They have the same thing in Spain; each province has one; but there the vice-president is named by the Crown, while here he is elected by the people. It is not legislative; it is purely administrative. It is nothing more than a court for the protection of the people against the governing bodies; for instance, against the municipalities. It had to approve the estimates made by the municipalities, and where they transgressed the law in drawing up their estimates the provincial deputation intervened to see that the estimates were changed in that respect and made to conform to the law.

Dr. CARROLL. To whom was the provincial deputation responsible?

Mr. EGOZCUE. I was and still am the vice-president of the provincial deputation and one of its permanent committee. Among the twelve provincial deputies five are chosen by the deputation itself to form a permanent committee to transact its current business. The deputation, as a body, meets only twice a year. In all the Spanish provincial deputations the deputies have salaries, but in Porto Rico they never have had salaries.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the twelve deputies all elected on one ballot or slip, or were they elected by districts?

Mr. EGOZCUE. By districts.

Dr. CARROLL. What districts—the military, the judicial, or are there distinct districts for the purposes of the provincial deputation?

Mr. EGOZCUE. The judicial districts. I wish to add here that the provincial deputation is the only institution in Porto Rico to-day which represents the popular vote. The present secretaries of the Government wish to do away with the provincial deputation at once, but I think it would be a pity at present to do away with the only institution in the island whose officers were elected by popular vote. Manuel Lopez does not wish it, but the other secretaries are trying to justify the salaries they are drawing.

THE AUTONOMISTIC SYSTEM.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 28, 1898.*

Dr. CARROLL. I shall be very glad if you can give us a succinct statement of the insular civil government.

Mr. MANUEL F. ROSSY. Owing to the representations made by the autonomist party; owing, also, in part to the pressure exerted from Washington during the Cuban war and to the situation in which Spain found herself as a result of that war, the autonomous government of

Porto Rico was instituted. Our programme had specially in view two objects: One was the citizenship of every inhabitant of the island, and the other was the installation of local self-government. Accepting these views and responding to our desires, the Spanish Government formulated the articles of the autonomous government which were in force until the occupation of the island by the American forces. The Spanish Government recognized the Spanish citizenship of every inhabitant of Porto Rico and gave them representation to enable them to take part in imperial decrees in all matters relating to the national affairs. In regard to the second point, the Government gave us power to direct our internal affairs, but not to the extent which we required.

In obedience to these two principles, the following is the autonomous constitution:

A Governor-General, named by the Peninsula Government to represent it here in Porto Rico, who was at the same time the military and naval commander of all the forces stationed here.

A local government consisting of a president and four secretaries—namely, a secretary of the treasury, a secretary of the government, one of justice, and the fourth of fomento. The secretary of fomento includes the following portfolios: Public works, education, agriculture, and commerce. I was minister of public instruction under the first autonomous government. These ministers were named by the Governor-General from members of the political party which obtained a majority in the elections.

Dr. CARROLL. What was that election for?

Mr. ROSSY. For the purpose of electing members to constitute the local parliament under the autonomous régime.

Dr. CARROLL. Was that the first real election the people here had had?

Mr. ROSSY. That was not a real election; it was so unreal that I and my party retired from the government. The insular parliament was composed of two chambers, the higher one called the council of administration and the lower the chamber of representatives. The latter chamber was composed of thirty-two members, elected by universal suffrage throughout the island. Any male person who had attained the age of 25 years and resided in the island was entitled to vote.

Dr. CARROLL. Are persons under the age of 25 regarded as infants in the eyes of the law?

Mr. ROSSY. That is only the case respecting the right of suffrage; in all other civil matters 23 years constitute majority. The council of administration is composed of fifteen members, seven named by the Governor-General from among persons resident in the island who possess certain requirements (which are too extensive to go into *ad extenso*) and eight elected by the people at large. Each of these chambers named its president and discussed everything concerning the management of the chambers and concerning the legality of the election of their respective members. This régime has not been carried out here in its amplitude, because after the formation of the first cabinet war with the United States intervened, the autonomous government was suspended, and things went on without any autonomous government. The *ayuntamientos* or municipal corporations which administered municipal business came under the autonomous municipal law. This never was put into practice. Above the municipal government there is a provincial government, which has jurisdiction over all questions in which persons who are not satisfied with municipal acts seek redress or correction at the hands of this body.

It has the characteristics of a superior tribunal. The provincial government was for the whole island as one province. Everybody was agreed that this body had to disappear, because the rest of the mechanism had not been brought into play. That is the extent of the insular government as lately decreed.

Dr. CARROLL. Will you give a general view in outline of the duties and powers of the Governor-General under this autonomistic system?

Mr. ROSSY. The following was the theory of his duties and powers under that system: He was a sort of constitutional king, according to the European system, because he had no powers of government vested in himself alone. The secretaries governed in their respective departments, and any act promulgated by the governor, in order to become legal, had to have the consent of the secretaries, which secretaries made themselves personally responsible for their government to the insular parliament. The whole system is very analogous to the constitutional parliament system adopted by European countries. In military and naval matters the insular government had no jurisdiction. Orders came direct from the Peninsular Government.

Dr. CARROLL. What was the scope of the duties and powers of the secretaries?

Mr. ROSSY. The secretaries were the chiefs of the administration of their respective departments, in the management of which they were subject to the laws respecting the same and to those which might be promulgated by the insular parliament. In other words, they were executive chiefs.

Dr. CARROLL. What was the scope of the functions of the legislative department?

Mr. ROSSY. The insular parliament had the power to legislate on all local questions except those which involve questions affecting the Empire in general, military and naval questions, war, and questions affecting the constitution.

Dr. CARROLL. Did they have the power to fix the budget of expenses and salaries in the island?

Mr. ROSSY. Yes; with the obligation of voting, in addition to insular estimates, the amount assigned by the nation as our proportion of the general contribution.

Dr. CARROLL. Had the insular parliament the right of fixing the customs duties without reference to Madrid?

Mr. ROSSY. No; they did not have that power. This was the only exception to the rule above mentioned. The tariff was fixed by a commission appointed by Spain, in conjunction with another commission appointed by the island, who arranged and fixed the tariff schedules and everything else connected with the custom-house in Puerto Rico.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that the tariff that the Americans found in operation here?

Mr. ROSSY. No; they never got further than the naming of their employees for the customs service. The present is the old Spanish system.

Dr. CARROLL. How long has it been in force?

Mr. ROSSY. I can not say with certainty; but I believe it is the *modus vivendi* which was arranged when the last treaty was abrogated, in 1890 or 1891.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the present tariff satisfactory to merchants?

Mr. ROSSY. No; it is too high. It tends unduly to favor what they call Catalanian business men.

Dr. CARROLL. Returning to the question of legislation; did the legislature legislate directly for the districts and municipalities, or for the municipalities through the districts?

Mr. ROSSY. I do not understand the question fully.

Dr. CARROLL. Do the districts here correspond to our counties in the United States?

Mr. ROSSY. No; they are different. A municipal district here consists of a portion of territory embracing a certain number of houses; that is the basis of the municipality. There are 70 municipal districts in Puerto Rico.

Dr. CARROLL. What is meant by the "seven districts?"

Mr. ROSSY. That is a division for military purposes. Each of the 70 municipal districts has its municipal government, and these municipal governments are subject to the provincial deputation. The island is further divided into 11 judicial districts entirely distinct from the municipal and military divisions. The military districts of the island are the capital, Arecibo, Aguadilla, Mayaguez, Ponce, Guayama, and Humacao, at the head of each of which there was a military commander.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the composition of the municipal government?

Mr. ROSSY. The actual state of affairs in municipal and provincial government is the old one. They did not have time to get down to that before the war broke out. They had elections in February and March and war broke out in April, and municipal government remained as it was under the old régime.

Dr. CARROLL. What was the former municipal government?

Mr. ROSSY. The old system, which is at present in force, has a municipal council elected by all persons residing in the municipality, and is composed of members called councilors, varying in number from nine to twenty-four, according to the importance of the municipality. Once elected, they met and named their mayor, unless the Governor-General should wish to name the mayor, which he could do, but the person so named by him had to be one of the councilors.

Dr. CARROLL. What was the term of the councilors and mayors?

Mr. ROSSY. The councilors remained in office four years, half of them being replaced every two years. The mayor held office for two years.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the mayor intrusted with large powers?

Mr. ROSSY. Mayors have a twofold official character. As delegates of the Governor-General, they receive orders in regard to political government; as head of the municipality, they have to execute the mandates of the councilors, and had, by virtue of their office, certain powers over priests, vigilantes, and other matters of a purely local character, which they exercised at discretion.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the highways controlled by the municipal government or by the provincial?

Mr. ROSSY. Roads are divided into two classes—one class called municipal roads and streets and the other called provincial roads. The former are those within the immediate limits of the municipality, and provincial roads are those which connect the municipalities. Provincial roads are under the jurisdiction of the provincial government.

Dr. CARROLL. Can you inform me in regard to the schools of the municipalities?

Mr. ROSSY. The schools are governed under a law promulgated by

one of the Captains-General, and also by the school law of the new autonomous government. It is a provincial matter. The naming of teachers is under the immediate jurisdiction of the secretary of fomento. In respect to financial matters, such as payment of salaries, repairs of school buildings, etc., the schools depend upon the municipality.

Dr. CARROLL. Do the mayors direct the municipal police, municipal fire department, and similar municipal matters?

Mr. ROSSY. They have charge of the police. There are further boards, called local boards, whose duties include the inspection of schools and education generally. They are named by the mayors of each municipality.

Dr. CARROLL. Who prescribes the text-books?

Mr. ROSSY. Formerly they were prescribed by the Governor-General, but they are now prescribed by the secretary of fomento.

Dr. CARROLL. Have the mayors also powers of magistrates to hear and determine cases of any kind?

Mr. ROSSY. Absolutely none.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the range of salaries paid the Governor-General and heads of the several departments of the insular government?

Mr. ROSSY. The Governor-General has an annual salary of \$20,000 and a house, besides \$2,500 for entertaining and \$2,500 for furniture and fittings. The president of the council and the secretaries each have \$8,000 annually, without houses.

Dr. CARROLL. Can a secretary hold more than one portfolio?

Mr. ROSSY. Each can hold only one portfolio. The president can hold, besides the presidency, another portfolio; but he is legally allowed to draw only one salary.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any fees besides these salaries?

Mr. ROSSY. None whatever; but in the corrupt times we have had here everybody has looked out for himself.

Dr. CARROLL. I have been informed that the cost of maintaining the governmental machinery of the island has been too large and that there has been too much of it.

Mr. ROSSY. That is absolutely so.

TUESDAY, November 1, 1898.

Mr. ROSSY. To-day affairs in the island are worse than ever, because the autonomous government did not have time to promulgate new laws, and we have our own constitution and the old Spanish constitution, both partly in effect, and there is continual confusion, and no one knows where to look for his authority.

Until the 18th of last month there were a great many unnecessary employees whose salaries amounted to \$32,000 a month, of which a few still remain. The old intendencia remains just as it was with its four sections—secretary's department, central administration, auditor's and accountant's office, and treasury—in each one of which there is a regular army of employees. To give you an idea of the unnecessary and cumbersome machinery and number of employees in this department, suppose, for example, that a judge orders \$50 to be refunded to a person for certain purposes. In order to collect it it is necessary to go through the following steps: You have to apply to three or four of its interior departments, in each one of which you have to get two or three signatures and have three or four entries made in the books of the office. You have to pay a "gratification" to one of the inferior

clerks in order to have him steer you through all this. Then the intendent gives his signature ordering the payment to be made, and finally the document is taken to the treasurer to be cashed. All these formalities occupy much time, frequently consuming the morning hours of five or six days and costing in "gratifications" \$5 or more. I have been a victim of this system in my profession as a lawyer which often takes me to this office. Under the jurisdiction of the *intendencia* are all the custom-houses of the island, which are also oversupplied with employees, and in which scandalous robberies took place, and still do, not by taking money from the custom-house directly, but by connivance on the part of some of the employees and certain merchants to defraud the government of its revenues. The former collector at the port of Ponce, who was appointed on the 22d of February of this year (and I mention these facts because they are public property) was, when appointed to office, known as a poor man, up to his eyes in debt, with nothing to eat and little to wear. When the Americans landed there, he had paid off his debts, amounting to \$5,000 or \$6,000, he had bought a printing establishment for about \$2,500, and he was living in luxury with horses and carriages on a salary of \$208 a month.

Everything connected with the collection of taxes and everything, in short, referring to the financial department of the government is under the jurisdiction of the *intendencia*. The political organization was under the jurisdiction of the secretary of government. The secretary of the government was really the secretary of the Governor-General and had under his jurisdiction the political management of the country, so that the secretaries appointed under the autonomous government were only figureheads and could not perform their functions independently.

I think there will be much difficulty in the way of coming to a clear understanding of the present political situation here in Porto Rico because of the confusion which has been caused by changes in the form of government following each other in quick succession. Formerly there was a definite form of government which had in it no suggestion of self-government, all the employees being Spaniards. As soon as the difficulty with Cuba arose, Canovas, who was then prime minister, had a law passed decentralizing the government, taking away from the Governor-General the right to exercise certain governmental powers, such as direction of public instruction, posts, telegraphs, and some others which were turned over to the provincial deputation, and a more ample municipal law was promulgated. While the country was getting used to this new order of things, Canovas was killed and Sagasta came into power and gave the autonomous system to the island. While this latter system of government was being introduced and before it had been completely established in all its parts the American forces invaded the island and gave us a military government, so that we have now a mixture of the three forms of government, resulting in much confusion as to the exact status of governmental matters in the island.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the fiscal year in this island?

Mr. ROSSY. From the 1st of July to the 30th of the following June.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any officials of the government who are in receipt of income from more than one source.

Mr. ROSSY. There are none. In some cases, however, when the chief officers wished to increase the salaries of minor employees beyond the limits of what they were legally entitled to receive (such limits

being those of salaries paid to employees in similar positions in Spain) they added to the legal salary a "gratification" or bonus.

Dr. CARROLL. I have noticed a provision for that in the budget. Is it to be translated as a bonus or an allowance?

Mr. ROSSY. The employees who were favored in that way collected the money; you can translate it as you please.

Dr. CARROLL. Was it according to law?

Mr. ROSSY. No; it was contrary to law. The salaries could only lawfully be equal to those paid in Spain of persons holding corresponding positions there, not in excess of them. But, in order to keep the letter of the law while they violated its spirit, they called the extra compensation in excess of their rightful salaries a "gratification." The colonels in the army here received \$400 additional in that way.

Dr. CARROLL. It would seem that if the amounts appropriated for the church and the military establishment of the island were cut out of the budget it would make a difference of over 2,000,000 pesos.

Mr. ROSSY. Yes; about two and a half million pesos.

Dr. CARROLL. Then it would seem possible, if these two items are not to be provided for, to do away with some of the taxes which are burdensome. Moreover, there will be this difference now: There will be a more honest, capable, and intelligent set of officials in charge of the administration of the custom-house and other branches of the government.

Mr. ROSSY. I think it will be possible, as you suggest.

Dr. CARROLL. Suppose the Government of the United States should allow the amounts collected from customs and internal revenue, beyond the amount necessary to administer the custom-house and collect the taxes, to remain in the island for its needs?

Mr. ROSSY. It would not be safe to suggest that here. If some of these people knew that they were to have 2,000,000 pesos and more spent here they would be killing each other trying to get some of it.

Dr. CARROLL. I should think it could be spent on schools and other needs of the island.

Mr. ROSSY. I believe the country has resources sufficient to contract a loan that would enable us to meet all our needs, and it seems more just that the public improvements to be undertaken here should be borne in part by future generations who will equally have the benefits of them, so that a loan for, say, fifty years should be contracted and distribute the burden of expense, rather than compel the present generation to pay in two or three years for public works destined to last a hundred years.

Dr. CARROLL. Why is it that Porto Rico has no debt?

Mr. ROSSY. Because the Government has always collected here more money than was required to meet the island's expenses. In June, 1897, there was \$1,600,000 in the public treasury of the island, but it has disappeared. The Spanish Government has made way with it.

Dr. CARROLL. How was the great military road built?

Mr. ROSSY. By assigning a certain amount in the budget every year, during a period of about twenty-two years, for that purpose. The people got very tired of it because of the excessive and unnecessary expenditures of money in its construction. It was a great work, but the cost was far out of proportion to what it should have been. Taxation here is not heavy. What affects the poor man chiefly is the consumption tax, which makes it difficult for him to clothe and feed himself properly. Besides, as everything has been neglected, he has

no hospital to go to when he is sick and has no proper schools in which his children may receive an education.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any income tax here?

Mr. ROSSY. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Judge Russell, of the evacuation commission, understood that there was such a tax?

Mr. ROSSY. What Judge Russell may have had in mind was what is called the territorial tax, which is paid by property holders on the value of the lease of the property. The tax is not based on a man's capital, but on his income from the property he owns. For instance, this house might be calculated as producing \$1,500 a year; in that case the owner would pay 5 per cent on that amount, but he would not have to pay any other tax on the house. This form of tax does not apply to stocks, bonds, or other forms of property. The tax is charged on lands under cultivation, a deduction being made of 30 per cent to cover cost of cultivation and harvesting. This tax results in injustice in the country districts because it is badly distributed. The assessors who have the work of apportioning the amount to be paid by each estate are a political body and favor adherents of their political party to the prejudice of their opponents, and they generally assess more in proportion for the small property holders than for the large ones.

THE CIVIL PENSION LIST.

SAN JUAN, P. R., November 5, 1898.

Mr. MANUEL FERNANDEZ JUNCOS:

Mr. JUNCOS. I have been in the island about forty years and am familiar with the general conditions throughout the island as to politics, customs administration, and almost any other subject about which you would wish to ask.

Dr. CARROLL. I desire a statement from you in regard to politics. I understand that you are a leader of the Liberal party.

Mr. JUNCOS. Since the change of government I have abstained from politics altogether, so that the parties might reform themselves without the pressure of influence of their former heads. Politics to-day consists more or less of personal feelings which were initiated before the last election, but I believe that this state of affairs is only transitory and that it can easily be calmed by the good sense of the Governor-General, as the feelings of our political men are not really as violent as they appear to be.

Dr. CARROLL. I would like to have you describe the general customs here. I think that was one of the things you stated you could give me information about.

Mr. JUNCOS. The nation, as a whole, suffers for want of education. Only for about sixteen years has the system of free education been in existence, and that very imperfectly. In rural districts the working people are so scattered about that they do not get the benefit of these institutions. The general character of the Porto Rican is a mild and hospitable one, his chief fault being lack of will force. This should be one of the points to be attended to in his education. As far as I can find out by my own research, the natives are well disposed toward the new government. From the old government they received such education as they have and such customs as now prevail, but these advantages, if they can be called such, came so modified and so

wrapped up in restrictions that the affection of the people of this country for the mother country has been somewhat lukewarm.

I think that the condition of this country can be materially improved by the following three things: First, the implanting here of American laws and customs; second, by the wise direction of a stream of white immigration which would lend force to the inhabitants and better the economic conditions of the people in the next generation; and, third, legislation which would enable this country to place itself in close commercial communication with other parts of the world, which it ought to be able to do owing to its favorable geographical position, and thus acquire a large amount of commercial prosperity. The change of government has materially altered the estimates for this year. We should dispense with a great number of items which are not now necessary, but which are found in the last estimates made. The gain which will result to this country in one year by the change of government will not be less than \$2,000,000 of income and may be near \$3,000,000. In view of this economy it appears to me to be only just that a corresponding reduction should be made in the heavy duties and imposts under which the people are suffering. I hand you a statement showing a few items which ought to be cut out from the estimates. They represented the net savings resulting from the mere fact of the change of government. The amount in round numbers is \$3,119,937. I have not taken note of the military question, as the island is still occupied by the military body, but if that were deducted from the expenditures, the net saving would be materially increased. I would strongly advise the government to form a new estimate from January, because if the collection of taxes is carried on as it is now being done, at the point of the bayonet (that is, soldiers are accompanying the tax collectors through the country), the island will be left without any money whatever.

Dr. CARROLL. I had not heard of that before. When did that occur?

Mr. JUNCOS. That is general through the island in the collection of taxes. Under present conditions the estimates which were compiled by the Spanish Government are a ridiculous thing to keep in force, because they include salary items for positions which now do not exist and for employees who are not now here. Nevertheless these items are being collected.

Dr. CARROLL. I notice that you include in those statements that you have handed to me an item of nearly \$500,000 for public works as an item which can be omitted. Are not the public works covered by that item necessary?

Mr. JUNCOS. These amounts are only in relation to the last estimates. The estimates were made out in July last, and that amount was assigned to public works.

Dr. CARROLL. For what economic year?

Mr. JUNCOS. The year 1898-99. As the country was at war, and public works could not be commenced because of the prospect that they might be destroyed, I think the item should be struck out and a new estimate put in on a new basis.

Dr. CARROLL. These items might apply to buildings or roads or light-houses or anything of that sort, as I understand it.

Mr. JUNCOS. It might have referred to any class of public works. Public works are all right, but it is wrong to leave them in these estimates. Any amount deemed necessary can be put into the new estimate. I don't mean to say that these amounts are not necessary,

but I say that it is only right and just that the amount assessed for that purpose should be in a new estimate.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think most of these should be struck out?

Mr. JUNCOS. No; the title under which they were classed there was not proper.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you an exact knowledge of all the pensioners included in this amount of \$362,700.

Mr. JUNCOS. Yes. As in Spain, it was the custom to pay to the widows of civil employees who had served a certain number of years a pension in proportion to the salary they received, and to widows of officers of the army and navy. There were also what are called retiring pensions; that is to say, military or naval officers could retire at a certain age and receive a pension. I should state that the pension fund was made the instrument of great abuse. Ministers in power used to send their relatives and friends here and keep them in active service for a while, and then these relatives would go back to Spain and retire on a pension for the rest of their lives. It is clear that in time a pension list will be established here to pension the relatives of those who die or to pension those who have been injured in the service of the government, but for the present I consider that the whole amount can be wiped out.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think that there are any claims these pensioners have which the incoming government would not be free to disregard? Are there none that might be due to invested funds or anything of that kind?

Mr. JUNCOS. The Spanish Government has the obligation of continuing those pensions which were granted wholly for state reasons; that is to say, for services given to the state. There are a few pensions granted here both by the provincial government and by municipalities, but they will be continued doubtless by the bodies which granted them. I think the question you raise ought to be settled by the Peace Commission in Paris.

Dr. CARROLL. Will you kindly explain what is meant here by dietas comisiones, which appear in this list?

Mr. JUNCOS. It was a gratuity given to employees, which was also abused from the Governor-General down. It was an amount assigned to employees above their salaries when they made journeys on government business. For instance, when the Captain-General made an official trip around the island he was given \$1,000 for personal expenses, and the first thing the Captain-General did on arriving in the island was to make this trip, even though the preceding Captain-General had just made one.

Dr. CARROLL. Is this \$150,000 item for subvention to the railroad company not a permanent obligation of the Government?

Mr. JUNCOS. No. It was a contract made between the French railroad company and the central Government of Spain, although the amount was called from the insular treasury. I don't see how the new Government can be made responsible for the contract, and more especially as I understand that the Constitution of the United States does not allow of bolstering up by payment of subventions in private undertakings. This was the amount required to bring the earnings of the company up to the guaranty of 8 per cent of its capital. The contract read that the day the company earned 8 per cent from its traffic the Government should pay nothing.

Dr. CARROLL. What are the establecimientos pios put down here at \$7,716?

Mr. JUNCOS. They are gratuities made to schools of education erected by religious orders, which schools at the same time make a charge for tuition to pupils. There is not included in this amount the sum granted by the Deputation for the Esculapian Fathers, who receive a house and a certain amount annually. This amount stated refers to a college of the kind I have described situated in Ponce.

THE PENSIONERS.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 4, 1898.*

Dr. CARROLL. I would like to ask you particularly about the class of pensioners and what claim these pensioners would have upon the United States, if any?

Mr. JULIAN Y. BLANCO, secretary of the treasury. Some of the pensioners are out of the island and there was an order that after July those residing in Spain should be paid there. I can not give all the data in regard to these pensioners.

Dr. CARROLL. I would like very much to have details regarding them and the basis of their claims.

Mr. BLANCO. The pension bureau in Madrid used to decree that such and such persons were entitled to pensions. Some of these pensions were granted for military service and others for civil service. There was a great deal of abuse committed with these pensions.

Mr. ANDRES CROSAS. I know a party who was a major in the army. At his death his widow and daughter were granted a pension. The widow died and the daughter got married and the whole of the pension was lost. Afterwards the daughter, who had a large number of children, lost her husband, who was a planter, and she by some *locuspocus* arrangement commenced to receive the pension that her mother used to receive.

SALARIES AND ABUSES.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 2, 1898.*

Mr. ANDRES CROSAS (an American citizen engaged in business for many years in Porto Rico): The salary of the Captain-General of Porto Rico was \$25,000 a year; he also had a house and servants. But during the term of their service here, which was generally three years, they managed to store up about \$300,000. There is a problem for you to figure out—how they managed to do that. In fact, if the Captain-General happened to be any sort of a good business man he cleared out with a great deal more than that. Abuses of official office, however, were not confined to the Captain-General. I can give you the name of a civil engineer who remained here about eighteen months. His salary was something like \$4,000 a year. He lived here in elegant style and was seen at every public place of amusement. At the expiration of the eighteen months he left here with \$100,000. He did not resign, but asked for a furlough to go to Spain. It was granted. When the four months were drawing to a close, he asked for three months more, which were granted. When the three months were drawing to a close, he asked for a further extension of two months and got that. All this time he was receiving his salary, and his substitute, acting here in his place, had an

increase in salary. When the term finally expired, he asked to be transferred to a position in Spain, and he was transferred accordingly.

Dr. CARROLL. Referring to the former government, did the Captain-General have vacations every year?

Mr. CROSAS. No; he generally stayed here until withdrawn.

Dr. CARROLL. Did he go to the mountains?

Mr. CROSAS. He generally went around the island; but when he went, he made it out that he was visiting the island officially and, of course, put in a bill for it. Generally, such visits brought about \$9,000 extra into his pocket.

Dr. CARROLL. The term of office of governors of Territories is four years. Perhaps Congress would wish some light as to the salary that should be paid to the governor, who, I presume, will be an American.

Mr. CROSAS. Yes; we want an American, a real American; not a whitewashed American. As to salary, some say about \$6,000 a year, but in my opinion the Government could well afford to give him \$12,000 a year in gold and a house. All the military forces that we had here, the naval and the arsenal, were paid by the island. Spain never paid a single cent for those objects, and this island was the fattening place for the Spaniards. Sometimes they called us a province, and sometimes a colony, but we were nothing more than one of those places on the coast of Africa where they go to make themselves rich. When the ten years' war started in Cuba, they called on the treasury here for assistance, and took from it \$1,200,000. I am not certain of the amount, because at that time I was considered a rebel and had to get out of the country. Then there was a remittance of about \$600,000, and later a further remittance of about \$200,000. This was a loan which the island made to the Spanish Government to suppress the rebellion in Cuba. Well, after having that put away on the shelf without touching it, they pretended to say that they would pay that debt by making a steamer touch once a month at the island and each trip of the steamer would be reckoned at \$13,000. These trans-Atlantic steamers belong to the prominent men of Spain, so it was a case of playing into their hands. They were to reserve freight and passenger spaces from here to Spain, but frequently they did not take a pound to Spain, though sometimes they did crowd a few passengers in. Some time ago, according to the lowest estimate, we ought to have had \$600,000 with which to build an aqueduct. At the time of the annexation of Santo Domingo, the Government took a large amount of that fund. Seeing that the fund in the treasury was disappearing, it was decided to build a hospital on a large scale, and every one of the natives voted in favor of it, not because they thought it would be wise, but so as to convert the money into brick and stone, which could not be taken away. The hospital was planned on too large a scale, and consequently for two years there was nothing done on it. There was always a case of smallpox in the jail, and they decided to convert the hospital into a jail. As to the penitentiary, the Spaniards did a wrong thing here on their evacuation from the island. They took particular pains, as they thought it were an act of grace, to set free about 400 of the worst criminals—thieves and cut-throats—and deceit fellows who are in there for petty vices are still locked up. I believe that those who have been liberated in that way are the fellows who have been robbing and burning around the island.

INSULAR ACCOUNTS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *February 11, 1899.*

Mr. NICHOLAS DAUBON, of San Juan, P. R.

Mr. DAUBON. I was formerly interventor, and when General Brooke came, he named me auditor of revenue in the treasury. On the 31st of December I learned with surprise that my post was to be abolished. As I can not understand how any administration can exist without auditing, I went to General Henry with this document, in which I asked to be continued in the post, having had forty-one years of service, and Dr. Coll, to whom it was referred, sent it back to General Henry with an indorsement. The fact of this post being abolished permits Dr. Coll to audit his own affairs, which is against morals. The secretaries are taking to themselves functions which they have no right to. They are returning sums which have been left as collateral to secure due performance of some service or contract. They have no right to do that.

Dr. CARROLL. On what plea are they doing it?

Mr. DAUBON. The accounts are not examined.

Dr. CARROLL. Were the accounts generally kept carefully under the Spanish régime?

Mr. DAUBON. Yes. After the American invasion everything became paralyzed, because the Americans were in possession of some parts of the island and the Spaniards of the others. I opposed the return of the securities, which were deposited in the treasury, because before returning a bond the accounts connected with that bond have to be examined. They haven't examined the accounts, but have returned the bonds and freed the sureties from responsibility.

Dr. CARROLL. Can you give me some instances?

Mr. DAUBON. Ramon Mendez Cardona, José Mendez Arcaya, Negron Sanjuajo, Luis Sanquirico, and Carlos Peñaranda. There are many more.

Dr. CARROLL. What were they bonded for?

Mr. DAUBON. These were bonds for the faithful performance of their duties in the custom-house. According to the treaty of peace, the American Government bound itself to respect all cases which were decided in Spain by the court of appeals, which were then in progress. Spain has abolished every office in connection with the colonies, Cuba and Porto Rico, except the court of accounts; and if this court to-morrow were to order that any of these former employees should pay amounts for any particular object, there would be no bond under which to hold them responsible.

Dr. CARROLL. Did you present to General Henry these facts about the return of the bonds without the accounts connected with them being audited?

Mr. DAUBON. Yes. The accounts are in Madrid. They are being examined there, and these men should have been held until the examination of the accounts is completed and the results known.

Dr. CARROLL. Were they released by act of a court, or merely by act of the secretary?

Mr. DAUBON. General Henry issued an order allowing bonds to be returned in certain cases where there was no claim against the person, and these secretaries have taken the order in a general sense.

Dr. CARROLL. I have been informed that a year or two ago, when there was a surplus in the treasury, it was transferred to Cuba and

used by Spain in the prosecution of the Cuban war. Is there any truth in that statement?

Mr. DAUBON. We expended money by order of Spain, for account of Cuba, to the extent of \$1,000,000, more or less. When the Americans surrounded this island and established a blockade, and thus cut off from Porto Rico its principal source of income, the Spanish Government directed Fernandez Juncos to draw against the Spanish treasury for that amount, and it was done; but as they went on making these payments after that date, in small amounts, Spain still owes us \$61,000 for Cuban account. From the last ten years' war Spain owes us nearly \$3,000,000.

Dr. CARROLL. It was used in the prosecution of the Cuban war?

Mr. DAUBON. Yes. The money was sent in hard cash to Cuba by order of Spain. The mistake has been made in trying to differentiate between American and Spanish sovereignty as regards the treasury of Porto Rico. This treasury was independent, collected its own budget, and spent the money it collected, or a portion of it. When it did not have enough it had to economize.

Dr. CARROLL. You sent about \$500,000 a year to Madrid to pay for expenses of administration of the colonial office?

Mr. DAUBON. Not so much as that.

Dr. CARROLL. It was \$488,000 in 1898?

Mr. DAUBON. Porto Rico had to pay 16 per cent of the amount in the national budget for the administration of the colonies. When the liquidation of the year 1878 was made it was seen that Spain owed Porto Rico \$3,000,000 for account of Cuba. I have documents in my possession to prove it. The Spanish Government ordered Cuba to place in its budget every year an amount to go toward this sum. It did so for one year and then ceased doing so. Cuba owes that to Porto Rico, and if Cuba is declared independent, it will be a claim on Cuba.

THE CIVIL GUARD.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

PLAINFIELD, N. J., *May 26, 1899.*

Señor LUCAS AMADEO, of Utuado, Puerto Rico:

Dr. CARROLL. I desire a statement in regard to the civil guard, its police functions, and just what that famous organization was as it existed in Puerto Rico.

Señor AMADEO. It was essentially a military body, much like the gendarmerie of France. Its aspect or its form was not entirely that of a rural police; it was more of a military organization.

Dr. CARROLL. How extensive was it?

Señor AMADEO. I think from 800 to 1,000 men; I am not sure about that. After the civil war in Spain this body was made up especially to pursue and capture bandits, thieves, etc., and then the same body was extended to Porto Rico for the same purpose. General Sans was the first Spanish general to bring over the civil guard into Porto Rico, and he brought this body over just about the time of the strongest political strife in the island, and this general, being somewhat of a despotic character, employed the forces of the civil guard to subserve his own political ends and aspirations in the island by compelling the people to vote the way he wanted them to.

Dr. CARROLL. It was a fine body of men, was it not?

Señor AMADEO. When it was first established there by General Sans,

he employed in it a great many of the soldiers who were in Porto Rico already, and thus it was not such a fine body of men as it might be expected to be: but later, when these men were drafted from Spain, then the body took on the aspect which it has recently had.

Dr. CARROLL. In what way did they become oppressive, if they did become oppressive?

Señor AMADEO. By direct opposition to any political voice that the people might want to express at the polls. They would prevent them from voting by being very exact with their cédulas, their electoral cards; and political feeling being very strong between the people of the country and the Spanish party, the civil guard would use their influence to keep the people away from the polls, either by threats or forcibly?

Dr. CARROLL. That was not of their own initiative?

Señor AMADEO. It was during the recent times, when the island was divided into two distinct bodies—the people of the island and the Spanish Government, which looked with suspicion upon everything that was done by the sons of the country and would oppress them in any measure that they wanted to take, and therefore used the civil guard as one of their instruments.

Dr. CARROLL. Was it most oppressive during the years known as the "componte?"

Señor AMADEO. Yes; as you suggest, it was during this "componte" that the greatest tyranny was exercised by this civil guard—of course, always under orders—because the people of the country, the Porto Ricans, had established secret societies with the object of separating themselves, if possible, from the Spanish as much as they could, and then the civil guard not only attacked them in an indirect way, as you may say, but directly punished them and inflicted tortures by their "componte" system.

Dr. CARROLL. Was the civil guard superior in influence to the municipal police?

Señor AMADEO. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Did their spheres of influence or power conflict at all?

Señor AMADEO. The civil guard had the authority and right to invade any premises or territory in the island in search or pursuit of bandits or any political offenders that they were running down.

Dr. CARROLL. You have referred to brigandage. Did that exist previous to the late war?

Señor AMADEO. No; not before the war, or was very rare. It may be said to have become known since the war.

Dr. CARROLL. That is pretty well over with now?

Señor AMADEO. Yes; completely.

THE INSULAR LOTTERY.

The lottery was authorized by royal decree and formed a part of the estimates of provincial income. The prizes were guaranteed by the whole of the provincial income. Of the net proceeds of each drawing, one-half was paid into the public treasury. Drawings were held every twenty days in San Juan. There were 27,000 tickets at \$2.50 each, divided in tenths, of 25 cents. Of the total sum, three-fourths was paid in prizes. These amounts could be altered to suit the provincial requirements. The drawings were held in public. At all drawings armed forces were present.

INSULAR REVENUES AND EXPENDITURES.

(Compiled from "Presupuesto General de Gastos e Ingresos" for 1897-98.)

Estimates of receipts of Porto Rico for 1897-98.

FIRST DIVISION—TAXES AND IMPOSTS.

	Pesos.	Pesos.
Territorial taxes	410,000.00	
Less 50 per cent, which is to be handed over to the provincial deputation	205,000.00	205,000.00
Taxes on industry and commerce	240,000.00	
Less 50 per cent. due provincial deputation	120,000.00	120,000.00
Royal dues and dues on transfer of property	148,000.00	
Mining imposts	200.00	
Cedulas personales (passports)	31,000.00	
Ten per cent tax on railroad passenger and freight traffic	11,000.00	
Consumption tax on petroleum	61,000.00	251,200.00
Total for first division		576,200.00

SECOND DIVISION—CUSTOM-HOUSES.

I. Customs duties:		
Duties on imports	2,631,000.00	
Duties on exports	254,000.00	2,885,000.00
II. Special duties:		
Charges on loading and unloading of merchandise and embarkation and disembarkation of passengers (transferred entire to the provincial deputation)	245,000.00	
Warehouses	1,100.00	
Fines and confiscations	5,800.00	
Transitory dues of 10 per cent on custom duties	241,000.00	247,000.00
Total for second division		3,132,000.00

THIRD DIVISION—MONOPOLY REVENUES.

I. Stamped papers:		
Bills	1,200.00	
Stamped papers and instruments of indebtedness	97,000.00	
Forms for payments to the State	82,000.00	
Forms for receipts and accounts	7,000.00	
Forms for drafts	17,000.00	
Forms for insurance policies and bank and company shares	4,000.00	
Drafts for use by the press	3,000.00	
Custom-house stamps and documents	28,000.00	
Total for the third division	184,200.00	
Postage stamps (transferred entire to the provincial deputation) ..		128,000.00

FOURTH DIVISION—PROPERTY OF THE STATE.

I. Income produced:		
Rent of property	100.00	
Rent of waste and unappropriated lands		
Building lots	1,000.00	
Products of slate mountains	100.00	
Rent from confiscated clerical property	100.00	1,300.00
II. Products of sales:		
Sale of property prior to law of 1872	2,000.00	
Sale of property subsequent to law of 1872	5,000.00	
Sale of waste and unappropriated lands	1,000.00	8,000.00
Total for fourth division		9,300.00

FIFTH DIVISION—INCIDENTAL REVENUES.

	Pesos.	Pesos.
I. Various classes	1,500.00	
Cessions and restitutions	1,900.00	
Six per cent interest on delayed payments	2,600.00	
Half anatos (clerical term for the receipts for titles and decorations)	100.00	
Undetermined products of prison work	2,000.00	
Received on accounts unprovided for in estimates	4,000.00	
		12,100.00
II. Closed accounts:		
First division	22,000.00	
Second division	100.00	
Third division	2,000.00	
Fourth division	700.00	
		24,800.00
Total for fifth division		36,900.00
Imposts for raffles and lotteries (to be transferred entire to the provincial deputation)		145,000.00
RECAPITULATION.		
Taxes and imposts		578,200.00
Custom-houses		3,132,900.00
Monopoly revenues		184,200.00
Property of the State		9,300.00
Incidental revenues		36,900.00
Total		3,939,500.00
Total estimates of expenses for 1897-98		3,536,342.19
Total estimates of receipts for 1897-98		3,939,500.00
Surplus		403,157.81

Estimate of expenses for the island of Porto Rico for 1897-98.

FIRST DIVISION—GENERAL OBLIGATIONS.

I. Assignment for expenses of the colonial ministry—personal:	Pesos.	Pesos.
Salary of the minister	960.00	
Secretary's department	21,976.00	
Registry and notarial division	1,544.00	
Superior committee on the debt	836.00	
Archives of the Indies	216.00	
Library and museum, colonial	638.00	
Maintenance of archives and library	1,312.00	
		27,552.00
II. Assignment for expenses of colonial ministry—material:		
Various expenses	5,321.60	
For buildings and repairs	304.00	
Maintenance of archives and library	6,664.00	
Library and museum, colonial	336.00	
Superior committee on the debt	192.00	
Custom-house statistics	240.00	
Undetermined expenses	1,000.00	
		14,057.60
III. Auditing of accounts—personal: Employees of the colonial division of auditing department		15,664.00
IV. Auditing of accounts—material: Material and various expenses of the colonial division of the auditing department		1,128.00
V. Incidental expenses:		
Traveling expenses of civil and ecclesiastical functionaries	12,000.00	
Exchange and losses thereon	30,000.00	
Coinage of money		
		42,000.00

VI. Judicial fees	Pesos.	3,400.00
VII. Interest, sinking fund, and negotiation of notes		32,000.00
VIII. Pensions:	Pesos.	
Civil pensions	85,000.00	
Military pensions	71,000.00	
Favor pensions	1,000.00	
For retired soldiers and marines	158,000.00	
For those who have completed the term of service	24,000.00	
Temporarily suspended	9,000.00	
Emigrants from America	700.00	
		348,700.00
IX. Bonuses: Bonuses allowed pension classes		14,000.00
Total of first division		498,501.00

SECOND DIVISION—WORSHIP AND JUSTICE.

I. Tribunals—personal:		
Superior court of the island	59,360.00	
Criminal court at Ponce	23,625.00	
Criminal court at Mayaguez	23,625.00	
		106,610.00
II. Tribunals—material:		
Superior court of the island	4,390.00	
Criminal courts	2,100.00	
Indemnities	6,900.00	
		13,390.00
III. Judges of the first instance and ecclesiastical justices:		
Judges of the first instance	34,010.00	
Judges, ecclesiastical	4,200.00	
		38,210.00
IV. Judges of first instance and ecclesiastical justices—		
material:		
Judges of the first instance	843.75	
Ecclesiastical justices	135.00	
		978.75
V. Service commissions:		
Subsistence and traveling expenses	1,000.00	
Notarial expenses	600.00	
Rents of buildings	3,720.00	
		5,320.00
VI. Worship and clergy—personal:		
Clergy of the cathedral	42,400.00	
Parochial clergy	124,940.00	
		167,340.00
VII. Worship and clergy—material:		
Expenses of buildings, bulls, and conciliar seminary		26,270.00
VIII. Reformatory and prisons—personal:		
Reformatory	273.75	
Penal prisons	58,582.80	
		58,856.05
IX. Reformatory and prisons—material		6,984.00
Total for the second division		423,818.80

THIRD DIVISION—WAR.

I. Superior administration—personal:	
Salary of the Captain-General and gratuities (the salary is given in the sixth division)	432.00
Salary and gratuities, lieutenant-governor	8,288.00
Staff of the army, and office employees	30,795.00
Staff of the army, artillery	12,025.00
Staff of the army, engineers	16,125.00
Staff of the army, military justice	6,650.00
Staff of the army, administrative corps	16,025.00
Staff of the army, military sanitation	19,150.00

	Pesos.	Pesos.
I. Superior administration—personal—Continued.		
Military clergy	180.00	
Gratuities	4,328.00	
	114,198.00	
Less for vacancies and on leave	6,853.67	
		107,344.33
II. Superior administration—material:		
Staff of the army	900.00	
Government and military commands	1,250.00	
War audits	100.00	
The army staff	700.00	
Military sanitation	200.00	
Subordinate administration	122.50	
		3,272.50
III. Permanent army corps—personal:		
Infantry	689,211.14	
Cavalry	4,049.79	
Artillery	149,521.51	
Sanitary brigade	4,542.52	
Colonial fund	16,193.10	
Preparatory military academy	600.00	
Invalids	371.44	
Gratuities	9,246.00	
	873,737.50	
Less vacancies and on leave	12,769.32	
		860,968.18
IV. Volunteers: Fifes and cornet bands		4,565.76
V. Active commissions, reserves, and substitutes:		
Commissions in active service	57,036.60	
Chiefs and officers waiting to embark	9,000.00	
Reserved for San Domingo pensioners	324.00	
Disciplinary militia about to be mustered out	8,740.00	
Chiefs and officials acting as substitutes and super- numary	23,700.00	
	98,800.60	
Less vacancies and on leave	5,200.00	
		93,600.60
VI. Clergy and hospital service		4,756.00
VII. Various materials:		
Utensils and lighting	724.00	
Hospital supplies	63,491.75	
Military transportation	60,590.00	
Artillery supplies	9,000.00	
Engineers' supplies	10,000.00	
Rents and cleaning buildings	5,151.00	
Water	400.00	
		149,356.75
VIII. Various expenses		3,500.00
IX. Pensions accompanying medals		4,000.00
X. Colonial war fund for the disabled and orphans		9,600.00
XI. Disciplinary brigade of Cuba		11,413.64
Total of the Third Division		1,252,377.76

FOURTH DIVISION—THE TREASURY.

I. Administration—Personal:		
Director-General of the Treasury	12,250.00	
Auditing-General of the state administration	20,000.00	
Central treasury	6,800.00	
Clerks and employees	16,160.00	
		55,210.00
II. Administration—Material		3,700.00

	Pesos.	Pesos.
III. General objects:		
Rents of offices.....	3,110.00	
Transfer of funds.....	2,000.00	
Printing.....	4,750.00	
Valuing real estate.....	12,000.00	
		21,860.00
IV. Incidental expenses: Service commissions.....		2,900.00
V. Expenses of collecting taxes and incomes—personal:		
Central administration of taxes and incomes.....	26,375.00	
Local administration of custom-houses and collectorships.....	760.40	
Custom-house coast guards.....	657.80	
		168,195.00
VI. Expenses of collecting taxes and incomes—material:		
Central administration of taxes and incomes.....	1,000.00	
Local administration of custom-houses and collectorships.....	3,035.00	
Custom-house coast guard.....	900.00	
		4,935.00
VIII. Various expenses: Transportation of printed forms.....		4,000.00
Total for the fourth division.....		260,800.00

FIFTH DIVISION—NAVY.

I. Land service—personal:		
General service.....	52,209.00	
Special service.....	15,516.00	
General expenses.....	2,150.00	
		69,875.00
II. Vessel service—personal:		
Ship assigned to the station.....	37,437.20	
Hydrographic service.....	10,848.00	
Service of the commanding general and captain of the port.....	3,812.00	
General expenses.....	1,200.00	
		53,097.20
III. Land service—material:		
General office expenses.....	3,380.00	
Semaphores and special service.....	1,815.00	
		5,195.00
IV. Vessel service—material:		
Repairs and renewals.....	10,631.00	
Rations.....	12,975.00	
Coal.....	2,645.00	
Clothing.....	300.00	
Medicines and hospital supplies.....	600.00	
		27,201.00
V. General expenses.....		3,300.00
Additional improvement of the national navy.....		94,000.00
Total for the fifth division.....		222,668.20

SIXTH DIVISION—GOVERNMENT AND INTERIOR DEPARTMENT.

I. General government—personal:		
General government, secretarial and technical inspection departments.....		85,940.00
II. General government—material:		
Service commissions.....	1,000.00	
General government.....	2,000.00	
Cablegrams.....	22,870.00	
Expenses of the palace and house of acclimatization.....	3,096.00	
Commission on statistics.....	300.00	
Unforeseen expenses.....	3,500.00	
Technical inspections.....	3,000.00	
		35,766.00
III. Council of administration and local tribunal of official litigation—personal:		
Council of administration.....	20,000.00	
Tribunal of litigation.....	5,500.00	
		25,500.00

IV. Council of administration and local tribunal of official litigation—material:	Pesos.	Pesos.
Council of administration	2,000.00	
Tribunal of litigation	500.00	
		2,500.00
V. Division of local administration—personal: Attention to this duty.		23,750.00
VI. Division of local administration—material: Expenses for materials and rent		2,500.00
VII. Delegations of the general government—personal: Regional delegations		22,200.00
VIII. Delegations of the general government—material: Regional delegations		4,000.00
IX. Civil guard—personal: Body of civil guard		310,075.29
X. Civil guard—material: Materials for the guard		41,557.88
XI. Public order—personal: Corps of vigilance and security		86,480.56
XII. Public order—material: Corps of vigilance and security		5,812.10
XIII. Postal, telegraphic, and telephonic service—personal: Telegraph stations		28,840.00
XIV. Postal, telegraphic, and telephonic service—material:		
Telegraph stations	7,700.00	
Ocean transportation	79,406.00	
International Postal Union	200.00	
		87,806.00
XV. Navigation—personal: Light-houses		20,625.00
XVI. Navigation—material:		
Ports	34,650.00	
Light-house examinations	3,000.00	
New works, preservation and repairs of light-houses	37,000.00	
Purchases, rents, and gratuities	9,913.00	
		84,563.00
XVII. Civil construction—material: New works, preservation, and repairs		10,000.00
XVIII. Board of control of waste lands:		
Personal	360.00	
Material	100.00	
		460.00
XIX. Examinations for professorships: Expenses of examination		300.00
Total for the sixth division		878,175.88

RECAPITULATION.

First division—General obligations	498,501.60
Second division—Worship and justice	423,818.80
Third division—War	1,252,377.76
Fourth division—Treasury	260,800.00
Fifth division—Navy	222,668.20
Sixth division—General government and interior	878,175.88
Total	3,536,342.19

Comparative statement of expenditures for the years 1897-98 and 1896-97.

	1897-98.	1896-97.	Net decrease.
General obligations	\$498,501.60	\$499,236.46	\$734.86
Worship and justice	423,818.80	436,688.22	11,869.42
War	1,252,377.76	1,271,118.26	18,741.50
Treasury	260,800.00	281,772.87	20,972.87
Navy	222,668.20	193,668.20	29,000.00
General government and department of interior	878,175.88	1,766,642.70	888,466.82
Total expenses	3,536,342.19	4,448,127.71	911,785.52

Comparative statement of receipts for the years 1897-98 and 1896-97.

	1897-98.	1896-97.	Decrease.
Taxes and imposts.....	\$573,200	\$550,000	\$23,200
Custom-houses.....	3,132,900	3,300,000	167,100
Monopoly revenues.....	184,200	300,000	115,800
Property of the State.....	9,300	10,000	700
Incidental revenues.....	10,000	250,000	218,100
Total receipts.....	3,930,500	4,710,000	779,500

Budget of the deputation provincial.

[Compiled from "Presupuesto General de Gastos é Ingresos" for 1897-98.]

ESTIMATE OF EXPENSES FOR 1897-98.

FIRST DIVISION—PROVINCIAL DEPUTATION.

Administration provincial:	Pesos.
Personal.....	64,700.00
Material.....	7,160.00
Lottery:	
Personal.....	11,050.00
Material.....	11,530.00
Beneficencia:	
Personal.....	16,391.00
Material.....	33,725.00
Public correction.....	25,000.00
Various expenses.....	9,175.00
Debt.....	35,800.00
Closed accounts.....	6,180.48
Total for first division.....	231,261.48

SECOND DIVISION—GOVERNMENT.

Postal and telegraphic service:	
Personal.....	90,590.00
Material.....	80,916.00
Sanitation:	
Personal.....	10,780.00
Material.....	1,516.00
Vaccine station.....	2,400.00
Medicinal baths.....	1,000.00
Hospitals and asylums.....	23,052.00
Total for second division.....	210,254.00

THIRD DIVISION—INTERIOR DEPARTMENT.

Public instruction:	
Personal.....	82,395.00
Material.....	37,900.00
Public works:	
Personal.....	72,290.00
Material.....	539,789.52
Colonization.....	8,910.00
Total for third division.....	786,184.52

RECAPITULATION.

First division—provincial deputation.....	231,261.48
Second division—government.....	210,254.00
Third division—interior department.....	786,184.52
Total.....	1,217,500.00

Estimates of receipts for 1897-98.

	Pesos.	Pesos.
50 per cent of the territorial taxes.....	205,000	
50 per cent of the tax on industry and commerce.....	120,000	
Apportionment to the municipalities.....	150,000	
	<hr/>	475,000
Sale of postage stamps.....		128,000
Tariff charges on loading and unloading merchandise and passengers.....		245,000
Proceeds of the lottery.....		309,700
Income from the institute and normal schools.....	5,000	
Income from orphan asylum and school of art.....	5,000	
	<hr/>	10,000
Closed accounts.....		50,000
	<hr/>	<hr/>
Total.....		1,217,700

Summary of the two budgets.

RECEIPTS FOR 1897-98.

General budget:	
Taxes and imposts.....	\$576,200
Custom-houses.....	3,132,900
Monopoly revenues.....	184,200
Property of the state.....	9,300
Incidental revenues.....	36,900
	<hr/>
	\$3,939,500
Budget of provincial deputation:	
Territorial and industrial taxes.....	325,000
From municipalities.....	150,000
Tariff charges on loading, unloading, etc.....	245,000
Postage stamps.....	128,000
Proceeds of lottery.....	309,700
Other sources.....	60,000
	<hr/>
	1,217,700
	<hr/>
Total.....	5,157,200

EXPENSES FOR 1897-98.

General budget:	
General obligations.....	\$498,501.60
Worship and justice.....	423,818.80
War.....	1,252,377.76
Treasury.....	260,800.00
Navy.....	222,668.20
General government and interior.....	878,175.83
	<hr/>
	\$3,536,342.19
Budget of provincial deputation:	
Administration, provincial.....	71,860.00
Lottery.....	33,180.00
Beneficencia.....	50,118.00
Various items.....	76,105.48
	<hr/>
	\$221,261.48
Postal and telegraph service.....	171,506.00
Sanitation, etc.....	38,748.00
	<hr/>
	210,254.00
Public instruction.....	120,195.00
Public works.....	662,079.52
Colonization.....	3,910.00
	<hr/>
	786,184.52
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	1,217,700.00
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Total of two budgets.....	4,754,042.19

ANALYSIS OF THE BUDGET OF PORTO RICO.

[By Señor JULIAN E. BLANCO, Secretary of the Treasury; presented to the United States commissioner November 8, 1898.]

The last budget, approved in Madrid the 25th of June, 1897, divides expenses as follows:

	Pesos.
Section 1.—General obligations: Salaries and materials of the colonial ministry, of the court of accounts in Madrid, of pensions, and other payments in Spain	498,501.60
Section 2.—Worship and justice: Tribunals of the island, penal establishments, worship, and clergy	423,818.80
Section 3.—War: Salaries and material of the army, military sanitation and administration, transport, pensioned orders and decorations, etc	1,252,377.76
Section 4.—Treasury: Salaries and material of all the offices thereof, expenses of collection, etc	260,800.00
Section 5.—Navy: Salaries and material of this department in the island	222,608.20
Section 6.—Government and interior: Salaries and material of the government general of the island; auxiliary centers and employees; civil guard and civil police; posts and telegraphs; light-houses, ports, public works: education	878,175.88
Total	3,536,342.29

These expenses must be met by the following income:

Section 1.—Territorial tax: Direct tax of 5 per cent on the net incomes on No. 1:	
1. Real estate and cattle	410,000.00
2. Industry and commerce	240,000.00
3. Royal dues on transfer of property	148,000.00
4. Mining dues	200.00
5. Internal passports	31,000.00
6. 10 per cent on passenger tickets, transport of merchandise by rail and coasting steamers	11,000.00
7. Consumption tax on petroleum	61,000.00
	901,200.00
Section 2.—Custom-house:	
Imports	2,681,000.00
Exports	254,000.00
	2,885,000.00
Special dues:	
1. Loading and unloading merchandise, embarking and disembarking passengers	245,000.00
2. Mercantile deposit (warehouse)	1,100.00
3. Fines and confiscations	5,800.00
4. Transitory dues of 10 per cent on import duties	241,000.00
	492,900.00
	3,377,900.00
Section 3.—State (monopoly) income: Stamped paper, instruments of all classes	312,200.00
Section 4.—State property: Sale and rental of waste lands and government property, commutation of censos (clerical mortgages)	9,300.00
Section 5.—Eventual income:	
Lottery tax and raffles	145,000.00
Balances of accounts, interest for delay in payments, amounts paid after closing last budget	36,900.00
	181,900.00
	4,782,500.00

The State granted the following items to the provincial deputation to enable it to cover its expenses:

	Pesos.	Pesos.
50 per cent of the territorial tax	205,000.00	
Loading and unloading tax	245,000.00	
50 per cent of the industrial tax	120,000.00	
Posts and telegraphs	128,000.00	
Lottery	145,000.00	
		843,000.00
Leaving the state income at		3,939,500.00
Expenses		3,536,342.29
Surplus		403,157.71

The autonomous constitution of this island being promulgated on the 11th of February, 1898, in which the insular government was authorized to form its own budget for local purposes, excluding general obligations, war and navy, understanding that it should vote the amount which the Spanish Cortes might agree to as expenses of sovereignty, the government drew up the budget for 1898-99 in June of last year with the modifications which the new regimen (autonomous) required, taking over the amounts which had been assigned to the provincial deputation which had been formerly ceded to that corporation.

Owing to current events, the national Cortes had not yet voted their budget, neither had they fixed the amount which this island should pay for expenses of sovereignty, so the insular government left standing the same amounts as had figured in the last budget.

In the new budget, therefore, appeared, in section 1, expenses:

	Pesos.
General obligations, as before	498,501.60
Section 2 (worship and justice) was increased to	454,773.80
Section 3 (war) as before	1,252,377.76
Section 4 (treasury) was reduced to	225,825.00
Section 5 (navy) as before	222,668.20
Section 6 was divided in two:	
Government, increased to	906,070.83
Fomento, amounting to	886,735.12
Expenses amounting to	4,446,952.31
To cover which the items of income were	4,782,500.00
Leaving as before, a surplus of	335,547.69

The outbreak of the war prevented the collection of the larger part of these items, and the insular government, to make up the deficiency, established the following transitory taxes:

	Pesos.
Export tax on cattle	14,000
Import tax on tobacco from Cuba	2,000
War tax on letters and telegrams	37,000
Discount from salaries and pensions	71,724
Discount from provincial and municipal employees	25,000
Total	120,724

The United States Government took possession of the island by virtue of the protocol, and the insular government continues administering as a council of secretaries on its behalf. Therefore the income can be considered reduced as follows:

Customs collected direct by the United States Government without intervention of the Secretary of the Treasury	\$3,377,900
Personal passport (cedulas) farmed out by the Spanish Government before leaving	31,000

Tax on passengers and petroleum, suspended by the war.....	\$72,000
Stamped paper, etc., abolished by General Orders, No. 4.....	312,200
Lottery.....	145,000

Total reduction.....	3,938,100
Former income.....	4,782,500

Leaving the Secretary of the Treasury 844,400

No notice is taken of transitory dues, such as surcharge on letters and telegrams, as those that are not suppressed will soon be so. In detail the Treasury will now collect:

	Pesos.
1. Territorial tax on lands and cattle.....	410,000
2. Industrial and commercial tax.....	240,000
3. Royal dues on transfer of property (since annulled).....	148,000
4. Mining dues, waste lands, etc.....	9,500
5. Eventual taxes.....	36,900
Total.....	844,400

With which to pay the following expenses of civil administration:

Section 2.—Worship and justice.....	\$454,773.80	
Less clergy.....	193,610.00	
		\$261,163.80

Section 4.—Treasury.....	225,825.00	
Less salaries and material paid by the United States.....	146,070.00	
		79,755.00

Section 6.—Government.....	906,070.83	
Less governor-general.....	76,471.00	
Tribunal of contention.....	6,000.00	
Post-offices.....	291,832.00	
Civil guard.....	331,633.17	
Civil police.....	92,292.66	818,228.83
		89,742.90

Fomento, including 766,928 for public works, roads, railroads and light-houses.....	836,785.12
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Total expenses.....	1,815,495.92
Income.....	844,400.00

Deficit.....	471,095.92
Which will have to be taken from the amount for public works.....	766,928.00

Reducing that amount to..... 295,833.08

The budget for civil administration expenses is to-day as follows:

	Pesos.
Worship and justice (without clergy).....	261,163.80
Treasury (without customs or coast guard).....	79,755.00
Government, reduced to.....	87,842.00
Fomento, including only 295,833.08 for public works.....	415,680.20

Equal to income..... 844,400.00

As will be seen, the United States Government to-day takes possession of the easiest collected tax, that of the custom-house, amounting to 3,377,900 pesos, from which deducting the expenses for management thereof, or say, 146,070 pesos, there remains, net, 3,231,830 pesos, which covers with excess all the expenses of sovereignty paid up to the present, including war, navy, and colonial ministry, and pensions, 1,975,547.56 pesos, leaving a balance for no purpose of 1,256,282.44 pesos, with which there is sufficient to pay all the expenses of our present local budget without necessity for any other taxation, or, say, 844,400 pesos, and still leave a surplus of 411,882.44 pesos.

Against this surplus without application the recourse left to the

civil administration to meet the expenses of 844,400 pesos is either very problematical, as, for instance, the 36,900 pesos interest on overdue taxes, etc., and 9,800 pesos rent of State lands, or else is difficult of collection in the present unsettled state of affairs, as is also the 410,000 pesos tax on income from property (agricultural) and the 240,000 pesos tax on commerce and industry and the professions.

These facts should be considered in making the budget for next year, but without prejudice to the immediate granting to the civil government such sums as it may need to cover its expenses.

To cover the expense of the department of justice it needs at least 261,163.80 pesos, and for urban and suburban police, at least (if order and tranquillity are to be restored by these bodies in place of the civil guard and the civil police, which formerly cost 440,000 pesos) 200,000 pesos; to give impulse to the work on roads and public works, to-day paralyzed, another 200,000 pesos; a total of 661,163.80 pesos, which, with the surplus from custom-house receipts, 1,256,282.44 pesos, would still leave a surplus of 595,118.64 pesos.

(1) The sum of 120,724 pesos, quoted as representing the transitory dues, is wrong, owing to a mistake of the Official Gazette, and should be 150,724 pesos. This, however, is immaterial, as the amount will shortly be suppressed and will disappear in toto.

(2) The tax of 240,000 pesos on industry and commerce has been reduced by superior order, and I have solicited the revocation of the order. This tax is completely separate and apart from any tax collected through the customs, and forms one of the few recourses left to the civil administration for its needs, which it will be unable to cover if the sources of income be further suppressed or diminished.

(3) The division of the collection and administration of taxes—the custom-house by the military and the others by the civil authorities or secretary of the treasury—causes a number of conflicts and much confusion, and should be altered if a smooth and orderly working is required. Either the office of the secretary of the treasury should disappear or be converted into a mere paying branch of civil accounts, all collections being made by the military; or else the treasury should, as before, take charge of all collections, including customs, and all payments for military expenses should be drawn against by the military chiefs, under authority of their paymasters. In this way the safes of the treasury, to-day empty, would become the central depository, and due inspection and vigilance of all income and expenses could be exercised, replacing what to-day amounts in this direction to a state of financial anarchy.

PORTO RICO, November 8, 1898.

THE CODES AND COURTS.

SYNOPSIS OF THE SPANISH CODES.

By Señor HERMINIO DIAZ, *Secretary of Justice.*

THE CIVIL CODE.

The civil code in force has been drawn up by the Spanish legislative chambers on the following bases:

(1) It takes as its capital inspiration the sense and intention of the civil institutions of historic law of that nation, regulating, explaining, and harmonizing the legal precepts which were in force in Spain before

its promulgation and adopting the rulings which doubtful points of the same had given rise to in practice.

(2) The operation of the laws and statutes, as well as the nationality, naturalization, recognition, and conditions of judicial entities, are therein adjusted to the constitutional and legal precepts in force in Spain.

(3) It establishes two forms only of marriage—the canonical and the civil—granting to the former the same legal consequences as to the latter and decreeing both indissoluble.

(4) The juridical relations consequent on marriage as affecting the persons and property of the married parties and their descendants, paternity, and affiliation, the successive parental rights of the father and mother over minor children, civil effects of the union of the parties, and, in fine, everything relating to family law is handled in conformity with previous Spanish legislation, notoriously influenced in those matters by the doctrines and precepts of the Roman Catholic Apostolic religion.

(5) It does not allow the investigation of paternity, except in cases of crime or the existence in writing of the undoubted wish of the father to recognize his offspring, deliberately written with this view, or when a question of the possession of property arises. It allows the investigation of maternity and authorizes the legitimization of offspring by subsequent marriage or royal decree, this latter being permitted only when the first is impossible, and allows prejudiced third persons to impugn both recognition and legitimization when not effected within the conditions of the law. It also authorizes adoption by contract and judicial authority, fixing the requirements of age and consent, and also prohibitions preventing the inconvenience which the abuse of this right might introduce into the organization of the family proper.

(6) Characterizes and defines cases of absence and presumed death, establishing guaranties for the assurance of the rights of the absent and his heirs, which, while allowing those concerned who have an interest in the estate, either by testament or legitimate succession, to enjoy their rights of inheritance, in no case authorizes the surviving spouse to remarry.

(7) Allows the law, testament (will), or family council to name the guardians of minor children, demented persons, legally declared prodigals, and persons laboring under civil disability.

(8) Fixes the legal age at 23 for civil effects, and establishes the emancipation from minority by the marriage of minors, or voluntary emancipation by permission of living persons, when the minor has attained 18 years of age.

(9) Creates a registry for acts affecting the civil conditions of persons, in which should be inscribed births, marriages, recognition of natural offspring, legitimization of same, deaths, and naturalization; it directs that these operations be accredited by such inscriptions only, except when they have taken place before the creation of the registry or when the registry has disappeared.

(10) Maintains the principle of ownership, the division of property (laws affecting), the principle of accession and of coownership on the lines of fundamental articles of historic law, and respects the spirit of the laws of water rights, of scientific productions, of literary and artistic authorship, and of mines, as ruling on its promulgation.

(11) Defines possession in its two phases—absolute, or emanating, from and coexisting with right of use; limited, and springing from a

holding which can be proved to be separate and independent from the right of use. Upholds the results of this distinction both in the form and manner of acquiring property, establishing the particular results as affecting hereditary property; the personal unit of the person holding property, excepting in case of indivisibility of property, and determining the effects of such ruling by the public authorities, the presumption being in the holder's favor; enjoyment of benefits accruing therefrom according to the nature thereof, the crediting of expenses and improvements, and the conditions attending the loss of possessory rights according to the class of property.

(12) Defines usufruct, use, and habitation, and regulates the limits of the right of use and forms of division, firstly, by title and, secondly, by law. States the rights of the person enjoying usufruct respecting the things enjoyed according to kind and situation thereof at the time of the beginning and termination of the period of usufruct. Fixes the principles on which to decide doubtful questions in practice regarding the usufruct and use of mines, forests, plantings, cattle, improvements, obligations as to inventories and bond, registration, payment of taxes, defense of rights of enjoyers of usufruct and of owners, both in the courts and outside, and the proper and legitimate procedure in order to cancel such rights, all in obedience to the principle and practice of Spanish law.

(13) Classifies and divides "servidumbre" (servitude as applied to property) into continuous and discontinuous, positive and negative, apparent and nonapparent, according to its condition of exercise and use; legal and voluntary, according to the origin of its cause. It respects the doctrines of historic Spanish law regarding the means of acquiring servitude, rights and obligations of the owners of estates affected actively or passively thereby, and procedure for canceling such rights and obligations. In special chapters defines the principal servitudes fixed by law respecting water rights and urban and suburban property.

(14) Institutes occupation as one of the modes of acquiring property, regulates rights over domestic animals, treasure trove, and appropriation of abandoned personal estate, and leaves in force as a complement of these dispositions former laws of chase and fisheries.

(15) Preserves the essence of former Spanish legislation as regards wills in general, their forms and solemnities, their different classes, such as open, closed, military, maritime, and those subscribed to in foreign lands, and also everything relative to the capability of disposing of and acquiring by will, the institution of entail, of disinheritance, bequests and legacies, conditional or terminal institution, executors and revocation, or inefficiency of the terms of wills; organizing and classifying such laws as formerly existed and complementing them by the addition of what was thought necessary to insure the facility and legality of testamentary expression.

(16) It does not allow fiduciary substitution to pass the second generation, not even in direct line, except such substitution be made in favor of persons living at the time of death of testator. It divides the estate of deceased into three parts: (1) Which is the legitimate inheritance of the children, divisible among them in equal parts; (2) which he can divide as he wishes among them, and (3) which he can dispose of by will as he pleases. The half of the obligatory heritage, adjudicated according to proximity of parentage, without prejudice to exceptions, constitutes, in default of legitimate descendants, the heritage of the ascendants, who can choose between taking it or having the

estate pay their sustenance. It gives to recognized natural offspring a share in the heritage, and if they have been legitimized, they are entitled to one-half of what their shares as legitimate children would have been. This amount can be increased when only ascendants exist to inherit.

(17) Establishes for the widow an usufruct of the deceased husband, limited to an amount equal to what a legitimate child, if any, could have inherited, and determines the cases when usufruct shall cease.

(18) Invites to take a share in intestate estates. The ascendant relatives, legitimate descendants, natural offspring, brothers, sisters, and children of these, the widow or widower. This succession does not pass the sixth degree in the collateral line. When, in default of relatives, the state inherits, the estate passes to benevolent, or educational institutions in the town where the deceased lived or, if there are none, to those of the province. As regards reservations, right of increase, acceptance or repudiation of inheritance, benefit of inventory, collation and partition, and payment of hereditary debts, it expounds juridical doctrines of great exactness.

(19) Takes cognizance of simple obligations (contracts) and explains their nature and effect. Retains the historic idea of "mancomunidad," joint action, and, with general principles, solves the questions arising from the relations between creditor and debtor, and those arising from the subject of a contract being a thing divisible or a thing indivisible. It defines the elements of legal entail as affecting different kinds of contracts, alternative, conditional, with terms and with a penal clause. Simplifies the procedure for annulling contracts by separating into two groups, one of which is subjected to the doctrines generally accepted as affecting the terms of the contract and the other of contracts of an essentially different element. Establishes general principles for the proof of contracts, and fixes a maximum above which all contracts of gift or restitution, of constitution, of rights, of renting, of property, or of personal service shall be made in writing, in order to be valid before a court in suits of execution or complement.

(20) Considers contracts as mere titles of acquisition when they have for an object the transfer of ownership of some similar object. Submits contracts to the principle that the mere coincidence of purpose between those contracting establishes the legal link between them, even in cases requiring determinate processes for the transfer of property and the drawing up of deeds. Establishes conditions necessary for consent, both as regards capability and legal power therefor, and accepts the sacred modern principles of the nature and object of contracts, their cause, form, and interpretation, and the causes of their annulment or rescindment.

(21) Accepts the existence of quasi contracts and determines the responsibilities that may accrue from the voluntary acts given effect to thereby, in conformity with the principles of justice as understood by the doctrine of historic law unanimously accepted by modern codes. Recites the effects of culpability and negligence when not constituting a crime or misdemeanor. Obligations arising from misdemeanors or crimes are left to be treated under the penal code, both in cases when the accused incurs civil responsibility and when this responsibility is incurred by the person under whose custody or authority the accused may have been.

(22) Allows liberty of contract in antenuptial agreements, and

takes for granted that when no antenuptial contract is made the parties have wished to establish a legal partnership of earnings.

(23) Antenuptial contracts can be entered into by minors who possess the legal conditions for marriage. These contracts must be subscribed to by the persons who give consent to the marriage.

(24) Gifts of parents to children are considered as advances of heritage. Expresses the rules governing gifts between husband and wife during the period of their matrimonial life.

(25) States that the marriage portion and inheritance property can be made the subject of antenuptial contract, but that when the marriage portion is not specially mentioned it shall be considered as not included. The husband has the management of the marriage portion, and gives a deed of mortgage, so as to insure the rights of the wife, rules being established for the sale or decrease of such portion, for the usufruct thereof, and for the charges that it incurs, which admit the principles of the laws of mortgage in everything organic and legislative in the matter, leaving the woman freedom during her married life to undertake the defense of her property against the prodigality of her husband.

(26) It explains the forms, requisites, and conditions of all contracts and their effects, keeping within the lines of historic legislation. Defines and fixes the nature and effects of donation, stating who may give and receive, the limitations, revocations, and reductions, the formalities to be gone through, the relative duties of giver and receiver, and everything tending to prevent prejudicing the offspring of the giver thereby, or of his legitimate creditors, or the rights of third persons.

(27) In its final disposition abolishes all legal bodies ruling before its publication. Does not concede retroactive effects if such prejudice acquired rights, and establishes the organic basis as an addition, allowing every ten years such reforms as the practice and progress in the science of law in other countries may make advisable.

LAW OF CIVIL PROCEDURE.

This law determines the form of procedure of the diverse civil matters which can be tried before our courts.

Its bases are the following:

(1) Steps or petitions (suits) instituted before the courts of first instance, trial, and appeal can not be taken personally by the parties interested except in determinate cases mentioned by the law. Except in those cases, power of attorney must be given to a functionary, styled procurator (procurador), who, in the name of his client and under the direction of a lawyer (abogado), takes the steps in the matter.

These procurators collect fees according to a tariff which will be stated later. Lawyers are subject to no tariff. They may charge whatever they think their work is worth, but the client has the right of challenging the account before the court in which the suit has been tried, if he thinks it excessive. The court obtains the opinion of the board of directors of the college of lawyers thereon, and decides.

(2) Procurators, lawyers, clerks of courts, and judges' secretaries must defend gratuitously those persons who have proved their poverty to the court.

(3) Establishes rules determining before which judge or court of first instance a suit should be heard, taking as the primary basis that such one as the litigants have voluntarily selected shall always be

considered competent therefor. If any judge of court is conducting a case not within his jurisdiction the parties interested may request the judge within whose jurisdiction it falls to demand the turning of the suit over to him.

(4) In one suit distinct claims not incompatible among themselves can be embodied if all the claims come within the power of the judge to pass upon and if they can all be settled by a suit of one character.

(5) Any litigant can recuse any judge or tribunal sitting on his case if such be a relative of the other litigant up to the fourth degree either of consanguinity or affinity, or the lawyer defending the other litigant if a relative in the second degree; also if any of them have previously been denounced by the litigant as principal, accomplice, or accessory of a crime; or in general, if any fact tends to affect their impartiality, or inclines them to favor either of the litigants. On the recusation being made and justified the judge must pass the case to the substitute provided for by the law. If he do not, and the litigant prove the motive of his recusation, the judge is severely punished and can even be criminally proceeded against.

(6) Determines the form in which all judicial resolutions and judicial formalities must be drawn, the method by which the cooperation of other judges must be sought in cases where any steps have to be taken outside of the territory of the judge acting, and the period within which resolutions must be written.

(7) If the litigant thinks that the judge has infringed the law by issuing any order or resolution in connection with a suit in process before him, and before final decision be given thereon, he can ask to have it quashed, and, on the judge refusing, can appeal to the superior court.

(8) The superior tribunals, when the inferior ones fail in their duties, and judges of courts, when lawyers or procurators are disrespectful in the conduct of the cases, can apply any of the following correctives: 1, admonition; 2, warning; 3, suspension from practice or employment for not more than six months.

(9) Before any suit can be instituted the plaintiff can exact what is called a "conciliatory meeting," to be held before the municipal judge, to endeavor to arrive at an amicable arrangement. If not successful, then the plaintiff can formulate his suit before the judge competent to sit on it.

(10) All questions not turning on any of the matters which will be detailed later must be ventilated and decided by one of the following forms of suits: "Declarative suit of major degree," "declarative suit of minor degree," "verbal suit."

(11) Questions to be decided by major declarative suits are: Those exceeding 1,500 pesos value in litigation; those in which the matter in litigation can not be valued; cases concerning political rights or questions of honor; cases of personal exemption of privileges, affiliation, paternity, interdiction, and other cases turning on the civil status and conditions of the person. Cases to be decided by minor declarative suits are those in which the subject of litigation is of greater value than 200 pesos but does not exceed 1,500. Verbal suits are those where the subject of litigation has a value not exceeding 200 pesos.

(12) The procedure of the major declarative suit is as follows: The claim is presented in writing, accompanied by the documents on which the plaintiff founds his case and by a literal copy of the whole as duplicate. The judge then orders the defendant to give written

notice of his participation in the suit, which must be done within nine days, counting from the day following the judge's notice to the plaintiff that he has so advised.

If the defendant does not comply, the case is proceeded with and the defendant declared in default, in which case, on the request of the plaintiff, the defendant's property can be attached while awaiting the result of the trial.

Should the defendant, however, have complied within nine days, the judge orders him to put in a plea within twenty days, in writing, which plea is handed to the plaintiff for written reply within ten days. This reply is handed to the defendant for him to adduce in writing new arguments if he thinks proper.

After this, if either or both litigants have so requested, the case is opened for proofs. If the issue is a point of law and proofs are unnecessary, the parties can ask for judgment, and verdict must be given without further steps.

If proofs are to be submitted, the judge orders that within twenty days the litigants shall submit those on which they propose to justify their allegations.

Any of the following proofs are permissible: (1) Sworn examination by either one of the litigants of the other before the judge; (2) presentation of public or printed documents; (3) examination of the books or correspondence of some merchant who, if interested in the case, is obliged to show them—if not interested, he can refuse; (4) opinion of experts; (5) examination by the judge personally; (6) testimony of witnesses called by the litigants.

The litigants having stated what proofs they propose submitting, and the term for so doing having expired, the judge orders the examination of same within thirty days if all the proofs are interinsular and six months if some have to be examined outside of Puerto Rico.

The proofs are examined in the following manner: If one of the litigants wishes the other to testify under oath, he draws up in writing a set of questions which he presents closed and sealed to the judge, who fixes a day for the examination. On this day both litigants appear, and in their presence the judge breaks the seal. The witness is then required to swear by God that he will tell the truth, and the questions are put to him. The judge's secretary draws up a document of what has taken place, containing the replies which the witness has dictated to him. In this document both litigants can have embodied the questions and observations which they think necessary to establish the truth of the statements on which the interrogatories have turned.

When public documents are to be submitted as evidence they, or certified copies thereof, drawn up by duly authorized functionaries, must be presented when the claim is made, or with the reply made to the claim by the defendant, if the documents are of previous date. If of later date, they can be produced during the period allowed for the proposition of proofs to be submitted. If either of the litigants disputes the authenticity of the original or certified copy of a public document, the other must ask that it be compared with the original. The law considers as public documents: Deeds authorized before a notario; certificates given by brokers of entries in the books recording their transactions (brokers in Spain and colonies have to keep certain books legally defined and are licensed under bond); papers granted by public functionaries in the exercise of their duties; extracts from books of registry in the public archives; certificates of birth, marriage, and

death given by the persons charged with keeping the books of registry of same; certificates of judgments and of judicial proceedings.

If any private document is to be offered as proof, it must be presented within the same periods as allowed for public documents. To be valid as testimony the signatory must acknowledge his signature before the judge; and if he denies it, the signature must be passed on by experts in calligraphy in comparison with other signatures by the same person.

The examination of merchants' books and correspondence must take place in their office in their presence or in that of their delegate and of the litigants if they wish to attend. The true finding of this examination, which the judge himself must make, or his clerk, or the clerk of the court (*escribano*), if the litigants so request, is to be put in writing then and there and attested by all present. The litigants may exact the insertion in this document of any observation they think proper.

The evidence of experts may be used when scientific, artistic, or practical knowledge is required to appreciate some influential point of the suit. The litigant proposing this evidence must clearly state the object or point on which the expert has to pass. Experts are named by both litigants appearing before the judge, who endeavors to bring about an agreement between them as to how many are to be named, which number must be either one or three. If they do not agree, the judge decides as to the number, according to the importance of the case, and draws, by lot, one name from among several, which is decisive.

The examination by the judge of some place or object, if necessary, is also direct evidence.

The litigants can assist at such examination and can make such observation as they think proper. The result of the examination must be put into writing and signed by all present.

The litigant wishing to use the testimony of witnesses must draw up a list of the questions to be asked and present a list of the witnesses to be called. The judge fixes the day and hour for the examination, at which the other litigant has the right of cross-examination. Witnesses must be sworn; and if a witness be a relative, intimate friend, employee, or servant of the litigant calling him or if interested in the suit, he can be challenged by the opposite party, and if the challenge is upheld by reason of the above incompatibilities, the evidence shall be struck out.

On the termination of the maximum time allowed for the taking of evidence, even if all the evidence proposed has not been produced, the litigants are notified to present in writing, through their attorneys, within twenty days, the remarks they think necessary regarding the testimony taken. On the completion of this the judge gives a verdict. Further on in this paper the right of appeal allowed by law will be entered into.

(13) Minor declarative suits mentioned in paragraph 10 are shorter than those just treated of. Their procedure is as follows: Having presented the claim, the document on which it rests, and duplicate copy of the whole, the judge orders the defendant to put in an appearance by writing within nine days, counting from the day following the notification. If the defendant does not appear within the stated time, he is declared in default, and the case continues. If the claimant so requests, the defendant's property may be attached to await the result of the trial. The defendant on making his reply should state all the arguments in his favor, whether or not he is in con-

formity with the facts alleged by the complainant. If both litigants are of one accord, and the question is reduced to a point of law, a meeting is held before the judge, in which both state their interests orally, and sentence is given. If the litigants should not have been in accord, the case is opened for proofs, and six days are granted for submitting testimony. The same class of testimony, offered in the same way, can be produced as already mentioned in "major suits." The term mentioned for proofs having ended, no matter whether the testimony has been offered or not, a meeting is held before the judge, both litigants state their case, and judgment is given. Later the appeal allowed in these cases will be stated.

(14) The verbal suits mentioned in paragraph 10 are the most rapid of all. They are tried before the municipal judge. The claim having been presented, both litigants are ordered to appear before the judge at a certain day and hour. Both appear and, in order, state their cases. If the testimony offered can be examined then and there, it is so examined; if not, a day is named for such examination. Having examined the testimony, or the day named for doing so having passed without this having been done, sentence is given. All steps in the suit have to be reduced to writing by the judge's secretary and the document signed by all taking part in the case. Appeal allowed in these suits will be treated of later.

(15) Questions involving litigation can be settled by the parties submitting them to a court of lawyers, if they do not wish to take them to the courts. In this case the following rules must be observed: The number of lawyers composing the court can not exceed five and must always be an odd number. They are to be named by the litigants in joint accord. The litigants must have drawn up before a notary a deed stating date, names, professions, and residence of the signatories, the period within which judgment must be given, the amount of the fine to be paid by the party not accepting the verdict, and the name of the place where the sittings are to be held.

After the deed is drawn and the referees or substitutes have accepted the nomination, they shall notify the litigants that within a given time they must present their briefs in duplicate. If either litigant neglects to do so, the case shall continue without him, without prejudice to his being called on to pay the stipulated fine. The briefs shall be given to the opposite litigants, granting them a certain time in which to propose their replies, after which time the case shall be opened for proofs in the form as expressed in paragraph 11.

After the proofs have been heard, and if the litigants so wish, a day may be named for them to appear and make oral observations. After this judgment is given. If any points of discord among the referees fail to obtain a majority of their votes, the points in question shall be submitted to the judge, whose decision shall be accepted. Of the appeal allowed in both cases I will treat later.

(16) With the same object as the former exists another form of suit called friendly composition, the procedure of which is the same as that recorded in paragraph 15 with the difference that those forming the court need not be lawyers.

(17) Against judgment given in suits treated in paragraphs 11 and 12, appeal is allowed in second instance to the court of appeals, which court is composed of three judges of the supreme court. In order to do this, all the testimony which has been written in the case is placed before the court of appeals, which fixes a day for the appellant to appear, and the secretary of the court draws up a résumé of the case.

This résumé is handed the litigants for them to express themselves in conformity therewith or to make known if anything has been omitted therefrom which should have been included. Having expressed their conformity, or having made the observations which they think necessary, they may ask that testimony be taken, but only when the judge of first instance has refused to accept, or when in any case not attributable to the litigant, he did not take certain testimony in the first instance, or when the time allowed for testimony in the first instance shall have concluded and some matter of absolute bearing shall have arisen afterwards, or when either of the litigants shall swear that some defect exists, of which he previously had no knowledge, or when the litigant declared in default by the judge shall have appeared after the time conceded for testimony.

If both litigants are agreeable that these proofs shall be taken, the court shall so order it. If they are not agreeable, the court shall order what it thinks proper. If the court orders that the testimony be taken, there is no appeal against its resolution. If it does not do so, the right of requiring it to reconsider the matter is given, and on its refusing to reconsider the matter, there is a right of appeal, which will be treated of later. For the purpose of hearing all testimony before the court of appeals, the same rules are in force as mentioned in paragraph 11. To take the testimony, if such has been offered, a day is fixed for the counsel to state the case orally to the court, which being done, judgment is given. Against this judgment there is right of appeal, which must be lodged in the manner to be treated of later.

(18) The right of appeal against judgment indicated in paragraph 13 lies before the judge of first instance. The judge, upon receiving the brief and hearing the claimant who lodges the appeal, fixes a day for the appearance of both litigants, who state their case. The judge then gives a verdict.

(19) When, in the cases of appeal referred to in paragraphs 16 and 17, the party lodging the appeal does not appear before the court of appeals to sustain it within the period conceded, which must not exceed twenty days, the case must be returned to the judge for execution without further steps.

(20) When judges infringe the laws through negligence or ignorance, the litigants have the right, if prejudiced by such action, to beg the superior court to order damages occasioned by such infringement to be paid by the judge so infringing. This claim, according to the amount it relates to, must be ventilated by one of the forms of suit referred to in paragraph 10.

(21) Besides all the matter already treated of, the law which I am now analyzing determines the form in which the judgment shall be executed and the resolution to be adopted when the person dies intestate, when minors are living or heirs who wish for a judicial division of his property. The same law treats of meetings of creditors and failures and the steps to be taken in those cases. It is not possible that a paper of this scope shall go into detail about these dispositions.

(22) When a creditor suspects that his debtor is sacrificing his goods or is trying to hide them, the object being to evade payment of a debt already due, he can ask that a sufficient quantity of goods or property be attached to cover the debt in question and all the expense occasioned by the attachment. The judge is obliged to order the attachment in every case in which the debt can be proven by the presentation of documents.

(23) Within the same law we have a privileged suit, when the collection of a debt is in question, called executory suit. This can only be made use of when the debt has been acknowledged by the debtor in a public document drawn before a notary or privately acknowledged by him as having been subscribed to before a judge, or when no document exists, but the debtor confesses under oath before a judge that he does owe the amount.

This form of suit can also be employed when the collection of a bill of exchange is in question, or of any security to bearer, or to original policies of contract made through the intervention of licensed agents or brokers.

In this suit the judge orders the debtor to pay. If he does not pay immediately upon being ordered, a sufficient quantity of his property is attached to cover the claim, interest, and costs. If the debtor so require and he pay the debt, interest, and judicial expenses which have been incurred, the suit is not continued. If he does not pay, the attachment is made. Within three days after the attachment is made the debtor can present his evidence, which is subject to the creditor for him to refute, if he thinks proper, which he must do within four days following, after which the suit is opened for testimony, which must be proposed and heard within the next ten days following, after which judgment is given. The judgment must consist of one of the three following results: (1) Either the suit must continue until the attached goods have been sold at auction in order to pay the creditor; (2) it must not be continued; (3) or all the steps are null and void by reason of some of the regulations decreed by the law determining the procedure of this class of suit having been infringed. The right of appeal, as mentioned in paragraph 16, is applicable to these judgments, and against the decision of the court of appeals there is a right of appeal in the form which will be treated of later.

(24) In the cases of eviction from either urban or suburban property, of obtaining alimony, of making valid the right of retraction, retention, recovery, or possession of an object, or the prevention of the construction of anything prejudicial or causing harm to one's property the law now being treated of determines the proceedings as brief as the necessity of the case requires.

(25) Of the recourse to appeal treated of in paragraph 16, only the supreme court in full session can treat. Its records can be taken advantage of should the substantive law of right have been infringed, or the law which determines the rules to be observed in the steps of the suit treated of. Those wishing to have recourse to appeal for infraction of the substantive law must require the court of appeals to give the sentences against which they wish to appeal within ten days of their request and to provide them with a certified literal copy of the same. This certified copy must be presented by the appellant to the supreme court within fifteen days, counting from the day following its presentation by the court of appeals to the supreme court, which then hears arguments of both sides and decides whether there has been an infringement of the substantive law, giving verdict accordingly.

If appeal is to be had for infringement of the law determining the rules which should have been observed in the steps of the suit in question, the appellant must present to the court of appeals a statement in writing of the infringements which he thinks have been committed and stating that the recourse is justifiable. The court of appeals

admits the recourse and sends a copy of the document to the supreme court with a literal certified copy of the part of the suit only in which, according to the allegations of the appellant, the infraction was committed. The supreme court discusses the matter and then decides.

(26) In the matter of former verdicts or verdicts against which no appeal can be had by reason of a court of last appeal having arrived at a decision thereon, or the verdict having been accepted by both litigants, a revision can be asked for if some decisive documents shall have come into the possession of either of the litigants afterwards, or if judgment shall have been based on documents which had previously been declared forgeries without the knowledge of the court, or might be so declared afterwards; or if, having given judgment on the strength of testimony, such witnesses had been condemned later for perjury on the particular evidence; or if judgment had been obtained by suborning the judge or by actual violence. These records can only be taken advantage of before the supreme court and the procedure is very brief.

(27) In its last article the law under discussion treats of the rules for verifying acts called "Of voluntary jurisdiction," which are those in which the intervention of the judge is necessary without the formal suit having been brought.

These facts are: Asking permission to adopt, when law makes adoption necessary; the temporary guardianship of persons; the supplementary authority to contract mortgage; the procedure for putting into writing a verbal will; the opening of closed wills; information necessary when the dispensation from certain laws is applied for; the steps for opening a lawsuit; information regarding "perpetua memoria;" the administration of property of persons whose whereabouts are unknown; the voluntary auction of property and the laying down of the boundaries of property.

LAW OF MORTGAGE.

We know that a mortgage constitutes a right of real estate, guaranteeing the fulfillment of a contract. The law of mortgage, as stated by its constructors, and as it really is, adopts the system which has publicity for its basis, which system, the Germanic, is highly recommended by the best writers on legal subjects.

Publicity does not allow of hidden mortgages. Neither does it allow that persons of good faith can be endangered by liens on the property they are interested in unless such liens be found duly registered. A person possessing rights which he has neglected to inscribe can not prejudice, by an omission for which he alone is to blame, a person who, being unaware of the same, may have acquired an estate or lent money thereon with a mortgage as guaranty. The registry is open to everyone who wishes to search the titles of real estate for the purpose of lending money thereon, for claiming rights thereon, or for any other matter in which he may have legitimate interest in knowing the condition of the property and the lien attached to it.

It may be said that a person lending money on mortgage lends rather to the property than to the owner of the property; the value of the mortgaged property becomes the debtor. The personal debtor is only a representative of the property. The lender does not care about the qualities, credit, or condition of the person to whom he lends. What matters to him is whether the value of the estate which guarantees him payment is sufficient to insure it at due date. The debt

in these cases is not really owed by the owner of the estate as such, but is passed from one owner to another when the estate is sold, thus making the person who may own it at the time of due date the person who is to liquidate the obligation. The creditor is in this way well protected; each creditor thus knows what preference he has over other creditors and has nothing to fear from mortgages or liens being hidden, as persons can not prejudice him in his rights unless they have them inscribed in the registry. In this way capital is confined to solid and safe investment, and property owners can obtain credit in proportion to their real wealth, the circulation of money is increased, and new springs of wealth and prosperity are brought into existence. Having indicated the general principles on which our mortgage law is based, I will now make a résumé of its special precepts.

The law names the towns in which registries shall be established, so as to facilitate the inscription of mortgages. These towns are San Juan, Caguas, Humacao, Guayama, Ponce, San German, Mayaguez, Aguadilla, and Arecibo.

It orders that the following shall have inscription in registries: Deeds of transfer or deeds of ownership of real estate or of the royal dues imposed on same; the deeds by which are constituted, recognized, modified, or extinguished the rights of usufruct, use, habitation, alienation of usufruct, mortgages, church liens, servitude, and of all other rights; deeds or contracts by virtue of which any property or royal dues are adjudicated, even if they are accompanied with the obligation of transfer to others or of the inversion of their amount in determinate objects; executive verdicts in which are declared a legal incapacity for administration or the presumption of death of persons or of those which impose punishment of interdiction or any other by which the civil capacity of persons as regards the free disposition of their property is modified; contracts of rent of real estate for more than six years or by which the rent for three years or more have been paid in advance, or, when possessing none of the stated conditions, the contracting parties shall have mutually agreed to have the deed registered; deeds of acquisition of real estate or royal dues possessed or administered by the state or civil corporations or ecclesiastical bodies; and, lastly, after certain formalities, documents drawn up in foreign countries.

For the purpose of registry, national debt bonds and bank shares, and shares of mercantile companies or of ordinary corporations of any class, are not considered as real estate.

Registry can be asked for by him who transmits, him who acquires or has an interest in sharing the right of the property to be inscribed, and by legitimate representatives of any of them.

Each property inscribed for the first time shall be given a distinct number, which shall be correlative, and the corresponding inscriptions shall be marked with an ordinal number.

The system adopted by the law is not that of the transcription of the document, but its inscription. Every inscription has to express the following requisites: The nature, the situation and boundaries of the property inscribed, or of those whose rights are affected by the inscription, with their superficial measurement in square meters; the nature, extent, conditions, and charges of the right on which the right which is the object of inscription is based; the nature of the deed to be inscribed and its date; the name or surname of the person or corporation or collection of persons interested, in whose favor the inscription is to be made; the name or surname of the person or the name of

the corporation or juridic entity from whom the property or rights to be inscribed immediately proceed; the name and domicile of the court, notary, or functionary who authorizes the deed to be inscribed; the date of presentation in the registry of the deed, also the hour and day of its registration.

As regards the effect of registration the general principle is that titles which have not been inscribed shall not prejudice a third person, who may not have intervened in the act or contract of the subject of the deed. This principle is admitted to be without exception and in force, even against creditors otherwise privileged.

At times in the registration of some properties there are made what are known as "preventative annotations," which have for an object that in all negotiations engaged in by the owner of the property in question respecting such property such annotations shall appear. These annotations can be executed by him who claims the property as his own in a suit, by him who has claimed the constitution, declaration, modification, or distinction of any royal dues thereon, by him who has obtained under the provisions of the law an order of attachment which was put in force against the real estate of his debtor, by him who has obtained an order prohibiting his debtor from administering his property, by him who has entered a suit for the purpose of obtaining an order annulling or modifying the capacity of a person for disposing of his property, and by him who has presented for registration any deed whose inscription can not be effected because of some defect in the title. The law in each case determines the effect produced by these annotations. The effects of registration and annotation are lasting as regards third parties while the registration is not canceled or left without effect and during the period named within which the annotation is valid.

On treating specially of mortgages these are described, stating that they constitute a real right, forming a part of the contract for which they serve as a guaranty and which follows the property mortgaged into whosoever hands it passes.

Only the following are subject to mortgage: (1) Real estate, inalienable royal dues within the provisions of the law on real estate. (2) Buildings constructed on other persons' land without prejudice to the rights of the owner of the land. (3) The right of usufruct, in which case the mortgage terminates when the usufruct terminates by an act foreign to the wish of the person possessing such usufruct. (4) The mere property, in which case, if the person possessing the usufruct and the owner are one, not only will the mortgage continue, but it will also be extended to the usufruct itself, in case the contrary has not been agreed upon. (5) Property formerly mortgaged, although a clause may exist that it shall not be remortgaged, in which case the right of collecting on the first mortgage is always permanent. (6) Rights of surface, grazing, water, wood, fuel, and other similar natural rights, in which case the rights of others participating in the property must always be respected. (7) Railroads, canals, bridges, and other works of public service, whose exploitation the Government has conceded for ten years or more, together with buildings and land which, although not directly and exclusively destined to that particular service, belong to private ownership and form part of the said works. (8) Property belonging to persons who are not allowed the free disposition of same, in cases where the formalities prescribed by law for their disposal have been complied with. (9) The right of voluntary mortgage, subject to the confirmation of this same

right. (10) Property sold with the agreement of reselling, if the buyer limits mortgage to the amount which he shall receive in case of reselling. (11) Property in litigation, if the claim in which the suit originates has been accorded "preventative annotation" or if the registration books prove that the creditor was aware of the litigation.

The following can not be mortgaged: Income and rent due when separated from the property producing them; (2) movable property when permanently fixed in buildings, either for their ornamentation or comfort or for the use of some industry, except when mortgaged jointly with the buildings; (3) public buildings; (4) bonds issued by the state, provinces, or towns, bank shares, and bonds or share of bonds of any enterprise or company of any sort whatever; (5) royal dues on property, when such dues form a future but not present claim; (6) servitudes, except when mortgaged jointly with the property which they affect, and excepting water rights in all cases; (7) the right of usufruct constituted by the laws to the parents on goods of their children, or to the surviving spouse on property of the deceased spouse; (8) use and habitation; (9) mines, until definite title of concession has been obtained, even when such mines exist in one's own property.

The mortgage is understood to constitute a lien on the estate, its natural growths, improvements, pending harvests, and rents not received at the time of the falling due of the contract. It is also understood to constitute a lien on indemnities conceded or owed to the owner by insurers of the property mortgaged, or for sums paid for forcible appropriation of the property in the public interest.

In case of the estate passing to other hands, furniture placed permanently in the buildings and improvements other than repairs, if paid for by the new owner, are not considered as forming a part of the mortgage. Neither are growing crops or rents due if belonging to said new owner.

When several estates are mortgaged as a guaranty for one debt, the amount for which each estate is liable is to be specifically stated. The mortgage remains in force until the whole amount of it has been paid, even though the debt shall have been partly paid. When a mortgaged estate is divided into two or more, the debt shall not be divided also, except by the consent of debtor and creditor. In contrary cases the creditor can claim the whole amount of mortgage against either of the new properties formed by the division, or against both at the same time. Mortgages granted by persons who, in the judgment of the registrar, have not the right to grant them shall not be valid, although the grantor may later acquire such right.

If a mortgaged estate passes to the hands of a third person before falling due, the payment therefor at its due date must be obtained from such third person. The right of foreclosure of mortgage transpires in twenty years, dating from the day in which such foreclosure could have been legally undertaken.

Mortgages are divided into two classes, called voluntary and legal.

Voluntary mortgages are those agreed upon by contracting parties or imposed by the owner of property constituting the subject of mortgage. This can be effected personally or by persons holding power of attorney. To be valid they must be drawn by a notary and inscribed in the registry of property. All mortgages can be sold or disposed of or ceded, which concession must also be effected by a deed drawn by a notary and registered in the same way as stated above.

Legal mortgages are those which the law allows to certain persons as a means of guaranteeing their property. Married women, minors, the

helpless children under control of their parents, possess this right. Others are those given by the husband to protect the property handed to him as the dower of his wife. It is given to guarantee reservable property of children. It is given by guardians to guarantee property of their wards. It is claimed by the State and municipality to guarantee due taxes of the past fiscal year and those liens granted as a premium for insurance on the estate insured.

On treating of the manner in which the registries have to be conducted, the law of mortgage orders, firstly, that the books of all the registries be alike and of the pattern ordered by the government, with a view of preventing frauds and falsifications. These books are called daybooks, and in them inscriptions are made.

The registry must be opened on all working days, six hours each day. Outside of these hours all work therein is prohibited. When the hour strikes for closing the registry the registrar must state, on the first blank line following the signature of the last inscription, the fact that he has closed the registry for the day and the number of operations which have been concluded during the day. In each registry a separate book is kept for the inscriptions of each municipality. On taking a document for registration an entry must immediately be made of the day and the exact hour of its presentation and a résumé of the contents of the document. Within fifteen days from such entry the inscription or refusal, in case the document has any defect preventing its inscription, must be made.

The books are public and may be examined by anybody interested. The registries are classed in three categories: First, second, and third. Only those holding titles of lawyers are allowed to take up the profession of registrars, and positions as registrars are granted by competitive examinations. Those admitted by a competitive examination are first appointed to a registry of a third class.

COMMERCIAL CODE.

This code gives us a conception of mercantile law in the most scientific form. Whether an action is mercantile or not, it takes into consideration the nature of the action and the person executing it. It thus widens considerably the horizon of mercantile legislation, giving a place therein to all those transactions which the progress of the age and industries have brought within its scope and to all which future events may bring.

Our code, inspired by these principles, considers as mercantile actions all those mentioned in it and all those of an analogous nature, thus admitting a determination "*á posteriori*" of mercantile actions which can be undertaken either by the practice or uses of merchants themselves or, if occasion requires, by the courts of justice.

Accepting the principle of liberty of working, it recognizes the right of mankind to dedicate itself to any of the industrial or mercantile professions, and only exacts as an adequate condition the requisites which the civil code marks for the possession of a juridic entity. The legal incapacities, which carry with them the limiting of contracting, have been reduced to very narrow limits. It reduces the age of minority, with respect to capacity for engaging in business, to 21 years, when the minor is emancipated and has a personal individuality. For the benefit of minors, it establishes a principle that they can enter into commerce, whatever be their age, when they wish to continue the business left by their parents or those whose heirs they

may have become. In these cases the guaranty of their guardians is required.

Married women can undertake business with the tacit consent of their husbands, who, if not granting it, are under the obligation to make their denial publicly. Married women of more than 21 years of age can establish themselves in business when divorced in cases where their husbands are under their guardianship, or when the husband is absent and his whereabouts are unknown, or when suffering penal punishment or civil disability. Foreigners are granted the same commercial privileges as Spaniards if, under their own legislation, they are competent to engage in business.

Taking into consideration that the great spread of commerce requires publicity in its operations with a view of guaranteeing third parties affected thereby, the mercantile register is fully developed in the code and its sphere of action is broadened, making it a base and starting point of the largest mercantile undertakings.

This registry is under the jurisdiction of the courts and is managed by an independent functionary, who obtains the position by competitive examination. His books are open to the inspection of anybody wishing to see their contents. There are two books. In one of them are inscribed the documents of corporations and mercantile societies, and in the other documents of private merchants, who have a right of option in the matter. In places where it is necessary, a third book is kept for the registration of vessels.

Corporations and mercantile societies are obliged to keep, besides other necessary books, a book of minutes, which has to contain the resolutions passed in general meetings or meetings of directors of the companies with reference to their operations. It authorizes the use of mercantile letter copy book, and determines the manner and form in which merchants' books have to be kept in order to have the value of testimony in lawsuits and for the purpose of insuring exactness between the different entries in the respective books of each transaction.

Any transaction established by credible entries in mercantile books can be offered as testimony in the courts.

All mercantile contracts must be guided by the commercial code as regards validity, capacity of the contracting parties, renovation, interpretation, and extinction in matters not provided for by dispositions of the civil code. The most ample and unlimited liberty is allowed in the form and celebration of contracts. The proof of the existence of contracts is allowed by the same means as employed in civil law, except that evidence of witnesses in contracts whose amount is greater than 300 pesos is to be submitted by written proofs.

The effects of delay count from the day following the termination mentioned in the terms of the contract.

A freedom of exchanges is allowed, and they can be established in any place, either by initiation of the Government or by concession of the Government, at the request of private persons, after full information has been taken about their public utility. The Government reserves to itself the right of conceding or refusing an official character to the quotations of private exchanges. All possessing civil capacity for contracting can freely exercise the profession of middlemen. The exercise of the functions of stock-exchange brokers, exchange brokers, commercial brokers, and ship brokers and interpreters is also free. A notable difference, however, is established between the judicial effects of contracts entered into through the inter-

vention of agents not authorized by the Government, it being necessary to prove their transactions by methods offered under common or civil law in all cases when such agents are not publicly accredited in their respective markets.

Determines the method of forming mercantile societies, allowing the most ample liberty for the associates to constitute the society as they see fit. The government does not take any intervention in the internal management or in the complete publicity of whatever acts of the society might effect third persons. The code also treats of all classes of mercantile companies in existence and those that may come into existence later on through new combinations, but not of the mutual associations or cooperative societies, calculating that these have nothing in them of a mercantile nature, as their transactions are not carried on with a view of earning money.

Limited partnerships and anonymous companies can represent their capital by shares to bearer or registered shares, without in any way taking into account the extent of their operations. These last-named companies are allowed to purchase their own shares or lend money on them.

All commercial shares have to be registered in the name of the holder until 50 per cent of the nominal value has been paid up, after which time they can be converted into shares to bearer, if their statutes so ordain or if a resolution be passed to that effect.

Anonymous companies are obliged to publish monthly their balance sheets in the monthly Gazette.

Collective and limited companies must resolve by meeting of shareholders the method to be employed when they wish to liquidate. Anonymous companies must during that period continue observing their statutes. No special form of contract is required for mercantile commission, but the commission agent must, under his signature, state whether he is working on commission and the name and residence of his principal. All contracts entered into by commission agents are irrevocable and have legal effect between the contracting parties. The principal has the right of claim against his commission agent when this latter shall have exceeded the limits named in the commission.

As regards factors, employees, and apprentices, the first named must have the power of attorney registered in the mercantile registry before entering into his position. Other employees need not be so authorized.

The depositing of goods in a warehouse shall be considered as a contract, which shall only be completed when the goods are delivered. The depository is entitled to compensation, except when he expressly renounces it, and is responsible for all damage, prejudice, and loss suffered by the goods in his warehouse, even if the object deposited be money in coin.

NOTARIAL LAW.

The notary, according to the above law, is the public functionary, who must draw contracts and other extrajudicial documents.

The notary is obliged to lend his services. If he refuses without a just reason he is held responsible.

Each judicial division constitutes a notarial district, within which the number of notaries thought to be requisite may be named, taking into account the number of inhabitants, the frequency of transactions, the special circumstances of the locality, and the possibility of the notaries earning a reasonable livelihood.

On appointing notaries the government must determine where they are to reside.

The notarial demarkations of Porto Rico are as follows:

District of San Juan: Two notaries within the city proper and one in Carolinas for the service of that town, Rio Piedras, Rio Grande, Loiza, and Trujillo Alto (total, three).

District of Caguas: One for Caguas, Aguas Buenas, and Comerio; one for Hato Grande and Gurabo (total, two).

District of Aguadilla: One for Aguadilla, Aguada, Moca, Isabela, Quebradillas, and San Sebastian (one).

District of Mayaguez: Two for Mayaguez, Hormigueros, Las Marias, Anasco, and Rincon (total, two).

District of San German: One for San German, Sabana Grande, Cabo-Rojo, Lajas, and Maricao (one).

District of Arecibo: One for Arecibo, Camuy, and Hatillo; one for Manati, Barceloneta, and Morovis (total, two).

District of Utuado: One for Utuado and Ciales, one for Adjuntas, one for Lares (total, three).

District of Ponce: Two for Ponce and Penuelas; one for Yauco and Guayanilla; one for Juana Diaz and Sta. Isabel; one for Coamo and Barros (total, five).

District of Guayama: One for Guayama, Arroyo, Patillas, Maunabo, and Salinas; one for Cayey, Aibonito, Cidra, and Barranquitas (total, two).

District of Humacao: One for Humacao, Yabucoa, and Naguabo; one for Fajardo, Juncos, and Piedras; one for Vieques and Culebra (total, two).

District of Vega Baja: One for Vega Baja, Corozal, Dorado, Toa-baja, and Vega Alta; one for Bayamon, Toa Alta, and Naranjito (total, two).

In case of death, sickness, absence, disability, or any other preventive cause, the notary is substituted by the person who was designated as his substitute at the time of his nomination. If any cause should prevent this, the judge names a substitute from among the notaries of the town or of the nearest town, until the president of the supreme court resolves the matter.

The substitution endures while the causes originating it endure.

The notary must reside in the place designated at the time of his nomination to the post.

The requirements for nomination as a notary are: The applicant must be a native, of legal age, of good reputation, and must either be a lawyer or have passed the notarial examination.

Formerly the notaries were appointed by the Spanish Government. To-day they are appointed by the secretary of justice, with the governor-general's approval.

Notarial posts are filled by the examination or contest between the candidates.

Before entering on their duties, notaries have to give bond as guaranty for their actions, which bond is fixed in proportion to the importance of the district.

The bond can be in money or mortgage on real estate.

No notary can exercise any other employment in which jurisdiction is an attribute, or which is remunerated, or which obliges him to live away from his home.

Notaries draw up the original deeds of contract or other documents which have to be submitted to their authorization. These have to be

signed by the contracting parties and two witnesses. These original deeds are held by the notaries in their own keeping, and these, when bound in volumes, are known as "protocol." Copies of the original deeds are issued to the contracting parties and are certified to by the notary only.

Every notary must use a special rubric to his signature, which can only be altered by permission of the Government.

The supreme court keeps a book containing the signature and rubric of each notary.

Deeds drawn by notaries can not be witnessed by their relatives, clerks, or servants; nor by relatives up to the fourth degree of consanguinity or second of affinity of the contracting or interested parties.

Notaries must state in the deeds that they personally know the contracting parties, or, if not knowing them, must require the presence of two witnesses who do.

Notaries must state in every document its date, the names, residence, and professions of the contracting parties, and their own names and residence. Abbreviations and signs in the expression of dates and amounts or quantities are not allowed.

Additions, interlineations, and erasures in the original document are invalid unless mentioned at the foot of the deed.

Deeds drawn by notaries are valid all over the island. To acquire validity out of the island the notary's signatures must be attested by two other notaries.

No other person but the notary in custody of the protocol can grant valid copies thereof.

Not even judges can order the removal of the protocol from the building in which it is kept. It can not be removed therefrom.

No document can be examined by any person except those mentioned therein, nor can a copy be issued except by them or their heirs except by order of a judge.

Within the first eight days of each month notaries must remit to the president of the supreme court, through the judge of first instance, indices of the original documents drawn by them during the preceding month, stating their classification in the protocol in the ordinal numbers. These indices must also state the names of the contracting parties, witnesses, date of signature, and object of contract of each document.

The protocols are the property of the state. The notaries are their custodians only and are responsible for them.

If any part or the whole of a protocol should be injured, the notary must notify the judge of the district, who, in his turn, must notify the president and attorney of the supreme court, who form an expediente to replace the part destroyed and state therein the antecedents of the case.

Judges should pay visits of inspection to the notarial offices when they think necessary.

The notaries of the whole island constitute a notarial association (college), with a board of directors, who are empowered to apply correctives to those members who offend against professional decorum.

Notaries can not be suspended or deprived of their functions by gubernatorial action.

Notaries are subjected to a tariff of fees.

JUDICIAL ORGANIZATION.

The judicial organization of Porto Rico is governed by the royal decree of January 5, 1891.

There is a supreme court in San Juan, composed of—

	Per year.
A president, with a salary of.....	\$4,500
A president of the chamber, with a salary of.....	4,000
Five judges (magistrados), with a salary each of.....	3,500
An attorney (fiscal), with a salary of.....	4,000
An assistant attorney (teniente fiscal) salary.....	2,750
A fiscal advocate (abogado fiscal), salary.....	2,250
A general secretary (secretario de gobierno), salary.....	1,875
Two court secretaries (secretarios de sala), with salary of.....	750
Three court officers (oficiales de sala), with salary of.....	750

In both Ponce and Mayaguez there is a criminal court, each composed of—

	Per year.
A president.....	\$3,500
Two judges, each.....	3,500
An attorney.....	3,500
An assistant attorney.....	2,500
A court secretary.....	1,700
A court officer.....	750

There are, besides, twelve judges of first instance for civil cases, called also judges of instruction when acting in criminal cases. These judges are classified into three categories: *Entrada* (initiator), *ascenso* (promotion), and *termino* (terminated), who draw the respective salaries of \$1,700, \$1,875, and \$2,250 annually.

The so-called *escribanos* (scriveners) serve as secretaries to the judges. They are not paid a salary, but receive fees, subject to a tariff.

The judges of "*termino*" are five in number—two in San Juan, one in Ponce, one in Mayaguez, and one in Arecibo.

There is only one judge of "*ascenso*," who is in Humacao. The judges of "*entrada*" are: One in Vega Baja, one in Utuado, one in Aguadilla, one in San German, one in Guayama, and one in Caguas.

The two judges in San Juan, called judge of the Cathedral district and judge of the San Francisco district, and those of Caguas, Humacao, and Vega Baja are dependent on the supreme court.

The judges of Ponce and Guayama depend on the criminal court of Ponce.

The criminal court of Mayaguez has dependent on it the judges of Mayaguez, Arecibo, Aguadilla, San German, and Utuado.

(NOTE.—The meaning is that the inferior courts send their cases to the superior courts respectively named when these cases are "*instruccion de sumario*," or cases in which the inferior courts have no final jurisdiction, but prepare the cases for trial only.)

REFORMS IN THE CIVIL AND CRIMINAL CODES.

By Don HERMINIO DIAZ, *Secretary of Justice*.

Our laws, the majority of which are codified, are not a capricious system, but a collection of laws which, fitting one into the other and forming as a whole a fairly complete system, lay down in their precepts the solutions which at the time of their promulgation were accepted

by the most radical and advanced European schools of lawyers for the intricate problems of law which juridic experience presented.

Those laws are not so defective as affirmed by some, who, perhaps not having studied them thoroughly and conscientiously, do not understand them.

Their relative worth, however, is no argument against their necessary reform at this time. These reforms are necessary not only because said laws had as a basis the Spanish constitution, the political principles of which are diametrically opposed to the republican institutions of the United States, but also because it is necessary to adopt certain reforms lately made by judicial science and to modify some precepts and abrogate others as unproductive of good results.

In making these modifications it is my opinion, and that of the most distinguished lawyers of our courts, that our law should not be totally lost sight of, but such precepts as have been useful and fruitful in our social development should be retained.

Radicalism is exaggeration, and exaggeration is sometimes ultimately useful; is for the moment productive always of great disturbance; and if society does not wish to witness reactions as exaggerated as the step in advance itself, it should endeavor to attain a gradual evolution, such as fruitful nature shows us in her evolutionary scheme.

Keeping this well in mind it is absolutely necessary that any reform in our laws should retain the system of codification and should make imperative the introduction into the reformed code of all laws to be adopted by reason of the reform.

On modifying the precepts thought to be defective these modifications should be made in the particular code affected and a new edition of same should be prepared.

Thus, grouping the precepts which rule in each branch of our law, their study will be facilitated and ignorance of them will not be an excuse for their noncompliance.

Thus, also, governors and governed will be spared the tedious work of consulting innumerable volumes in order to ascertain at a given moment the law governing questions arising, and can choose, without fear of error, and by simply consulting the code, the course to be followed in resolving such questions.

Admitting the necessity of reforming our laws and determining the scope to be given to such reform, it is important to make some observations about the process by which this work should be carried out.

Right here, and excuse the frankness which I owe to my government and my country, I do not hesitate in stating that if our laws are modified in accordance with the recommendations of the advisory commissioners sent to study our needs, they will be unproductive of good and may cause harm. That was the procedure followed by the Spanish Government for four hundred years. The colonial ministers, without understanding us, legislated for Cuba and Porto Rico from their offices, which system stifled our society and prevents its growth by reason of certain laws circumscribing its activity.

The advisory commissioners have been here but a few days. In such a short time it is not possible to study and know this country thoroughly. The greater part of their information has been supplied by egotists, who wish public reforms to take certain directions to suit their private interests. They have been able to judge of our conditions only by isolated cases presented to their rapid observation. They have not made a previous and conscientious study of the basis and form of our ruling laws, to be able to appreciate their true value,

or the contrary, for which reasons their reports must be erroneous, deficient, and very far from the strict reality of things.

Even admitting that on submitting their reports to Washington, they had, with marvelous intuition and absolute fidelity, pictured in detail and as a whole the internal life of our society, you, who are a statesman, and the Government in Washington must see that legislation drawn in Washington for Porto Rico by men of different habits and customs from those of our country, would not fit in as it should with our social machinery, and if history does not lie the Constitution of the United States does not permit of it.

The laws of autocratic societies are the expression of the will of their rulers, and these laws fall like bombs of dynamite and destroy the most sacred rights of the masses, attempting their lives, violating their hearths, disposing of individual property, imposing on consciences, all with a view of the aggrandizement only of the ruler.

In the United States, habit, custom, traditions, mutual consideration, respect for others' rights as a means of respect for one's own, all this constitutes the being, the spirit of public and private life, and takes shape and is reduced to law by each of the self-governing peoples who are guided by them and who respect them as their own work and recognize therein all the liberty compatible with social requirements.

"E pluribus unum" is the motto of the United States, and according to this motto, which synthesizes the principles of the wise Constitution, which can not change, which has to be alike for all, it is this fundamental principle which constitutes the nation, which gives life to the freedom of unity without restraint, the spirit, the variety of customs and characters, the distinct character of each State, the special idiosyncrasy of each one of the peoples, which forms the unconquerable union, and which palpitates in the laws and special institutions that each creates for itself according to its needs.

Taking all these remarks into consideration, it appears to me that if it is not at this moment possible to satisfy our ardent desires that Porto Rico be declared a Territory of the Union, leaving to our chambers, elected by the people, the work of modifying the laws as they think proper on the basis of the Constitution, it would be well if the governor of the department should decree such reforms as proposed by the secretary of justice in consultation with our most eminent lawyers and as called for by the unanimous voice of public opinion.

Thinking thus, sir, I beg you to allow me to submit for your approval the necessary general orders, introducing into each one of our laws the reforms and modifications which I proceed to state and which should be adopted with haste, as the island needs them urgently.

CIVIL CODE.

- (1) Fix the age of majority at 21 years.
- (2) Suppress all laws relating to matrimony which tend to connect the religion of Rome with civil matters.
- (3) Give civil effects only to civil marriage, leaving contracting parties at liberty to contract religious marriage or not, as they think fit.
- (4) Allow divorce for all forms of marriage, giving this disposition retroactive effect.
- (5) Suppress the "family council."
- (6) Establish liberty of legacy.

(7) Abolish the contradiction found in some of the precepts of this code, and clear up others whose ambiguous and obscure wording lead to different interpretations, bringing all within the American Constitution.

(8) Shorten the term of prescription of real estate.

MORTGAGE LAW.

(1) Unification of this law and its codification, making it one legal body only.

(2) Suppression of brief (*expediente*) of possessory title, shortening the period now in force for the proceedings in titles of dominion.

(3) Ordering that the substitutes of the registrars be lawyers with title accepted in the island.

(4) All documents presented for registry to be inscribed, unless there exists cause in the registry for not so doing; for instance, the property to be registered already being inscribed under the name of a different person from that figuring in the deed.

If the document be defective, the registrar to state same in writing on inscribing it.

(5) The procedure of appeal against the only instance in which the registrar shall have the right to deny registry to be simplified and shortened.

(6) The attributes given by law to the minister of colonies to pass to the secretary of justice, who will always act with previous approval of the general commanding.

COMMERCIAL CODE.

(1) Will determine when the merchant can suspend payment before declaring himself bankrupt, adopting measures to protect and guarantee the creditors who to-day are at the complete mercy of the debtor until an arrangement is made between them.

(2) Dictating dispositions defining exactly the rights engendered by the contract of current accounts and determining their judicial effect.

(3) Indicating the form of making contracts by telegraph, cable, and telephone in order to establish their existence when necessary.

(4) Embodying in the code the laws here ruling respecting banks, making the necessary modifications and explanations.

NOTARIAL LAW.

(1) Unifying this law and its codification in one legal body only.

(2) Allowing the practice of "notaries" to all at present allowed so to practice and to all allowed to practice as lawyers in Porto Rico.

(3) Allowing these to reside and open their office in any city or town they wish and to give their services in any part of the island without the restrictions to-day imposed.

(4) The present notarial tariff of fees to continue in force.

(5) Certified copies, in any number, of documents in any notary's office to be given to parties interested or persons authorized by them to ask therefor.

(6) Originals of notarial deeds to be filed in the supreme court and notaries to send the volumes of originals in their possession every ten years or before in case of death, illness, absence, disqualification, or any other motive preventing them from practicing.

(7) All attributes to-day conceded by this law to the minister of colonies of Spain and to the president of the supreme court shall pass to the secretary of justice, who shall always act with the approval of the Governor-General of the island.

LAW OF CIVIL PROCEDURE.

(1) Litigants shall be allowed to conduct their own cases, and shall be at liberty to name a representative to do so, if they please, if such representative live in the same town where the suit is conducted. This privilege is forbidden under the present law.

When living in another town they shall be obliged to name a representative and, for their own good, a lawyer also in the case.

(2) In cases heard before judges of diploma the three instances at present necessary shall be reduced to one instance, with right of appeal to the supreme court.

(3) Dilatory incidents and useless formalities shall be done away with in universal suits of intestates, wills, meetings of creditors, and bankruptcies.

OTHER CIVIL LAWS.

(1) In the law organizing the civil registry, law of mining, public forests, patents, railroads, forcible expropriation, intellectual property, chase and fishery, water and associations, and in instructions for the drawing up of public documents requiring registration in the registry of property, the necessary reforms for the simplification of procedure which these laws exact for the realization of the acts and acquisition, conservation, and defense of rights conceded by them shall be made.

PENAL CODE.

(1) Referring to the application of punishment for authors, accomplices, or accessories of crimes or misdemeanors, the principle shall be adopted that the sentence named by the code shall be applied, but that judges may, in consideration of their estimation of the greater or lesser gravity of the offense and of extenuating or aggravating circumstances, determine the time that the punishment may last.

(2) All crimes shall be defined.

(3) Many deeds now unduly considered by our code as crimes shall be considered as misdemeanors.

LAW OF CRIMINAL PROCEDURE.

(1) The absolute publicity of trial from its inception shall be ordered; the accused shall not be imprisoned "incomunicado."

(2) Preventive imprisonment shall be subject to habeas corpus.

(3) Judges of instruction shall try small crimes punishable by major arrest.

(4) Other crimes shall be tried by jury.

SAN JUAN, P. R., April 12, 1899.

THE JUDICIAL SYSTEM.

SAN JUAN, P. R., November 8, 1898.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

Chief Justice DON SERVERO QUIÑONES:

Dr. CARROLL. I would be very much obliged to you if you would give me a clear idea of the judicial system of this island as it now exists, together with such suggestions as you would like to make as to changes under the new government to be established here.

Mr. QUIÑONES. I will reply with much pleasure to the questions which you care to put to me.

Dr. CARROLL. Will you please begin by giving a statement of the judicial system as it now exists?

Mr. QUIÑONES. As regards procedure?

Dr. CARROLL. As regards the constitution of the courts, as to what the judicial system is, what it comprehends, the audiencia territorial, with the scope of its powers, the courts of first instance, with the scope of their powers, and the municipal magistrates, with the scope of their powers.

Mr. QUIÑONES. Our judicial system consists, first, of subaltern or inferior judges, who are called municipal judges. These judges have limited powers in civil cases. They can hear and give judgment in cases where the amount involved does not exceed \$200. In criminal cases they have jurisdiction only over misdemeanors. They are besides obliged to prepare the preliminaries in major criminal cases. Both in civil and criminal cases their documents and sentences are appealable to the judge of instruction and first instance. These justices are named at the beginning of the fiscal year for two years by the president of the audiencia. They have jurisdiction also in what are called suits of consolation; that is to say, they try cases as arbitrators between litigants.

In the ascending order we next come to judges of first instance and instruction. These judges hear appeals from the municipal judges. They also hear civil cases in which the amount involved exceeds \$200, with appeal to the audiencia territorial. They prepare criminal causes to be passed to the audiencia of the criminal branch. There are two criminal audiencias and one audiencia territorial, the latter being established in San Juan, and the other two at Mayaguez and Ponce, respectively. The audiencias in Mayaguez and Ponce only take cognizance of criminal cases, and appeal lies from their sentence to the supreme court of Madrid. The audiencia territorial has a chamber which is called the criminal department. It has jurisdiction over criminal causes within its territory. This is a bird's-eye view of the judicial system in the island in which I have not taken into account the supreme court at Madrid.

Dr. CARROLL. I suppose that appeals to Madrid are now, naturally, broken off.

Mr. QUIÑONES. The right does not now exist.

Dr. CARROLL. And at the same time appeals are not allowed to the Supreme Court at Washington?

Mr. QUIÑONES. No; there is no appeal to the tribunal there for this reason: All suits on appeal are in suspension and await action from Mr. McKinley.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you understand that cases of appeal now pending at Madrid lapse by virtue of the change in the status of the island?

Mr. QUINONES. That is a very grave question, which all the lawyers here are thinking about very deeply. Before the signing of the protocol a great many cases were appealed to Madrid and were in litigation, but I suppose that the final treaty of peace at Paris will probably dispose of the question. In other cases, where right of appeal has been granted from the Supreme Court, the parties are awaiting decision from Washington.

Dr. CARROLL. The judicial system of the United States in the States and Territories, and in both State and Territorial courts, embraces the system of juries. First, the grand jury, which is an inquisitive body called together generally at the beginning of the term of a court to inquire into criminal cases and to report indictments if they find probable cause, which indictments are brought to trial in course of time by the district attorney or prosecuting officer of the court, and these indictments are always tried before the court with one or more judges presiding and a jury of twelve men, and it requires the unanimous vote of the twelve jurymen for either a sentence of guilt or acquittal. The jury judges of the facts of the case, while the presiding judge always lays down the law. You are, of course, familiar with all this. I simply state it for the purpose of basing upon it a question as to whether, in the establishment of a Territorial or other governmental system in the island, the jury system could be adopted here to advantage.

Mr. QUINONES. I think not for the present, as I do not consider the people in general sufficiently well educated to pass on questions of that sort, and because just now political feeling runs very high.

Dr. CARROLL. There might be some difficulty in adopting a system of government and a judicial system for this island under the United States Constitution which should leave out the jury system, particularly the jury-trial system. I suppose that if the defendant in any case were to demand trial by jury, under the Constitution of the United States he could not be convicted unless he had such trial.

Mr. QUINONES. If the adoption of the jury system is a constitutional right of citizens of the United States, no matter what the result might be in this country, we would be bound to accept it and would be glad to accept it. Yet, as a lawyer and a man of conscience, I prefer judges by prevention rather than judges by adoption. Under the system of the audiencias as it to-day exists, all trials are conducted before three judges at least, who are men of high standing in their profession. These judges hear orally the accused, the witnesses, documents, and everything relating to the case, and I am of the opinion that the trained legal criterion of these three judges is more satisfactory than that arrived at by a jury. In cases which might involve the passing of capital sentence, or life imprisonment, the law requires the attendance of at least five judges.

Dr. CARROLL. There are not that many in the audiencia territorial, are there?

Mr. QUINONES. There are eight altogether.

Dr. CARROLL. Are all of them here?

Mr. QUINONES. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the criminal judges in Ponce and Mayaguez considered a part of the audiencia territorial, or are they separate from it?

Mr. QUINONES. In criminal matters they exercise their functions within their jurisdiction absolutely independently.

Dr. CARROLL. An appeal, then, in a criminal case goes to Madrid?

Mr. QUINONES. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. There are many in the United States who agree with you that the judges, who are trained lawyers and who are generally impartial men, are more likely to give a correct judgment in many criminal cases than a jury; but it is the practice in all criminal courts of the United States for the judge to give a review of the testimony when the case is submitted to the jury and to instruct the jury upon all the legal points, and then to lay the facts as developed by the testimony so clearly before them that they will be able to consider them and arrive at a right judgment. Are there any suggestions which you have to make with regard to changes in the judicial system, or any special features which you think it would be well to retain?

Mr. QUINONES. Do you refer to judicial proceedings or to a judicial constitution?

Dr. CARROLL. To both.

Mr. QUINONES. I think it would be advisable, for the present, to retain our code of laws known as the Civil Code as it exists, with some slight modification. This code has been our law in civil matters since 1890. It was formed by the codification of the old laws. It treats of domestic relations, of contracts, and everything relating to civil rights.

Dr. CARROLL. What about the criminal code?

Mr. QUINONES. I would say the same of that. There are some slight alterations which should be made in that code.

Dr. CARROLL. The Territorial system of the United States, as well as the system of State government for the various States, includes an attorney-general, who is the chief law officer of the State. It is his function to advise the executive department in all cases where legal counsel is required. It is also his function to superintend the operation of the various district or prosecuting attorneys throughout the State or Territory. Would it be advisory to ingraft that system upon the judicial system of this island?

Mr. QUINONES. In each audiencia there is an officer called the fiscal, whose duties are not a part of the administrative branch, but do include that of seeing to the correct interpretation of the laws as they exist. He has his assistants, who are all under his direction and attend to the carrying out of his branch of service in the various districts. These are simply his subordinates and carry out the work as he directs them, but their principal function is chiefly exercised in criminal cases. In civil cases they have jurisdiction only when the law expressly grants it, as in the case of orphans, demented persons, and persons who have no legal protection.

Dr. CARROLL. Who represents the State in the prosecution of persons on trial for criminal charges?

Mr. QUINONES. The fiscal.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the fiscal appear also in civil cases?

Mr. QUINONES. Just the same as in criminal cases. It will be very advantageous if our system of civil procedure can be considerably simplified. Under the existing Spanish law the system is a lengthy and a costly one.

Dr. CARROLL. Can you explain in what respects the system is intricate and costly?

Mr. QUINONES. The cost has already been lessened by the abolition of stamped paper. Formerly there were some proceedings which could not be taken because the stamp fee was one half dollar on each page. As to simplifying the procedure, this could be done by taking out cer-

tain steps in a case now required by existing law. Much of the present circumlocation in litigation could be removed without affecting the ends of justice in the least degree.

Dr. CARROLL. We have a good deal of the same difficulty in civil proceedings in the United States, where very often civil cases drag on for years in one court or another. Dickens wrote a book, as you may recall, to indicate the circumlocation in the English courts.

Mr. QUINONES. In Spain they have had lawsuits which have lasted for a century.

The ultimate aspirations of this country are toward statehood, but we recognize that this can not be granted at once; but we desire to have an autonomistic form of government as ample as the one we were granted recently by Spain.

THE COURTS.

(Hearing before the United States Commissioner.)

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 1, 1898.*

Dr. CARROLL. Will you give me a general idea of the system of judicature here?

Mr. FRANCISCO DE P. ACUNA (abogado). In the first place, we have municipal judges, whose jurisdiction extends to cases involving up to \$200, with right of appeal to judges of first instance. The municipal judges also have the right to try criminal cases of a petty kind.

Judges of first instance have within their jurisdiction all cases of a civil character, with a right of appeal to the supreme court and with a further right of cassation established by law to the court of appeal in Madrid. This applies to civil law. As to criminal cases, the judges of first instance, who are called judges of instruction, prepare cases, and when prepared they are taken to the criminal audiencia, of which there are two, one in Ponce and one at Mayaguez, which are criminal exclusively, and the audiencia territorial, of this capital, having both civil and criminal jurisdiction. Each audiencia has a number of courts depending upon it.

Now, I wish to recommend to the commissioner the convenience of altering the system of civil procedure analogous to the criminal procedure. Judges of first instance should prepare statements of discussion and evidence between the litigants, which statements or summaries of the case should be passed on to the audiencia in one single hearing. In this way a multitude of delays on the part of persons of bad faith, whose object is to draw out legal proceedings, will be avoided.

There should be established a tribunal of cassation to take the place of the same tribunal existing in Madrid, which has occupied itself with supreme court questions up to this day. This is necessary in order to have a court of review to pass on acts of the lower courts; otherwise verdicts will depend on one court only, as to-day there is no supreme court as there was formerly. These matters are for future consideration only; other questions require immediate consideration at the hands of the Government with respect to suits which have already been referred to Madrid and as regards suits which were in preparation for reference to Madrid. It is extremely necessary for the Government to decide immediately whether it is obligatory to suppress or do away with the necessity of appealing to the supreme court in

Madrid or not. Under the hypothecary law the right of appeal exists against the decisions of the registrars of property to the judge; after that to the audiencia; after that to the management of the registrars of property in Madrid. This last right should be suppressed immediately.

In mercantile law we have suits in bankruptcy, and the proceeding is extremely long and costly, with great prejudice to creditors. These proceedings should certainly be curtailed, substituting meetings of creditors with powers to arrange all affairs in the bankruptcy proceedings. There is also a proceeding for the suspension of payments, which produces disastrous results to commerce. The administration of his own case by a merchant declaring himself unable to meet his engagements should be taken from his hands. I suppose that the high powers of the United States will feel inclined to establish the jury system here in criminal matters. I do not consider the status of this population sufficiently high to give this method of justice good results. It is preferable to leave the system of criminal justice as it exists to-day.

Dr. CARROLL. Does it work satisfactorily?

Mr. ACUNA. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Without undue delay or bias?

Mr. ACUNA. The administration of justice has gone on all right. There have been cases where some judges have not been scrupulous, but that has been owing to the judge and not to the law.

Dr. CARROLL. We have juries in civil and criminal cases. In criminal law we have the grand jury, which inquires into cases referred to it by police justices or the prosecuting attorney. The grand jury is also instructed by the court to inquire into any abuse of the law by officers. In case they find anything against any person in any part of the municipality they may make a presentment to the court, and in case they believe it probable that a crime has been committed they present an indictment to the court.

Mr. ACUNA. With us the fiscal can also denunciate, as it is called, any crime or illegal act which comes to his knowledge.

Dr. CARROLL. Can he institute proceedings, on his own motion, in civil or criminal cases?

Mr. ACUNA. Yes. The court has to admit his accusation and open proceedings to try the person accused. The jury is not necessary in petty cases. The moment the jury system is established here it will be necessary to change the entire system of judicature.

Dr. CARROLL. In criminal cases the jury are the judge of the facts, while the presiding judge decides all questions of law.

Mr. ACUNA. Here tribunals perform the same part that juries do in the United States.

Dr. CARROLL. I suppose if anyone brought to trial here, under the laws of the United States, were to appeal to the Supreme Court in Washington and ask for a trial by jury, under the Constitution of the United States he would have to be granted that trial; but if the accused made no such appeal, the matter might pursue the usual course here. It would be better to establish a jury system right away.

Mr. ACUNA. There is here a distinct difference between proceedings of private parties and those in which the State is a party. We have a separate court called the administration court, which takes under its jurisdiction charges against high officials as regards infringement of the law of this country, as well as against any other independent center of government in the island. This court is composed of the presi-

dent of the audiencia and two judges, and to deliver sentence two members of the provisional deputation, who must be doctors of law, are further required. For procedure in such cases there is separate legislation, distinct from the legislation applicable to civil procedure. It will be better if in these cases the judges are taken from among the judges of the audiencia without having doctors of law from the deputation, and these are questions which, without any inconvenience, could be submitted to Washington on appeal.

Dr. CARROLL. Suits between private parties under our system would not be carried to the Federal Supreme Court unless some question were raised involving the construction of a provision of the Constitution or a law of Congress.

Mr. ACUNA. I consider in the matter of the registration of property that the Spanish law is good as it stands, but the administration of it by the employees is very corrupt and causes great prejudice to persons who have to make use of these services. If a document is presented to the registrar for registration, he has authority to refuse inscription for the document, for which he has to give his reasons. The trouble is that the registrar is not held accountable for having refused to inscribe a document, even when the document conforms completely to the requirements of the law. A person who has been refused inscription for his document has the right of appeal as in other civil cases, but even if he gains his appeal he has no remedy against the registrar. On review the court will issue a mandamus, but there is no remedy by which to recover the costs on the appeal. The registrar has an authority which is entirely unnecessary in this, that if the judge of first instance or the president of the audiencia decides against his decision, he has the further right of appealing himself, which causes immense harm to property holders.

Dr. CARROLL. You would recommend an immediate change, then, in the powers of the officials in that office?

Mr. ACUNA. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Can you point to the law in which the officials of the registrar's office have this power?

Mr. ACUNA. It is found among the first paragraphs of the hypothecary law. I consider that from the decisions of the registrar of property there should be only one appeal, and that should be to the sala gobierna audiencia. The registrar can absolutely intervene and prevent the sale of property if he does not wish the sale effected, and he sometimes takes advantage of this to say to the party interested in securing the inscription of the document, "If you don't give me so much money, I won't register your document. I will appeal it all the way to the Madrid court." The present registrar of this district is a lawyer, but he is away on leave, and he is allowed to appoint a substitute, whose acts he is accountable for. I think that the office of registrar of property should not be a purely mechanical one. It should always have a seal of judicial examination to it, but the appeal from the registrar to the sala gobierna audiencia should be immediate and be decided within four or five days.

Dr. CARROLL. How are the judges of the supreme court and the courts of first instance appointed?

Mr. ACUNA. Under the old rule judges were all named by the colonial minister in Madrid, but under the autonomistic government which has been in force since February of this year they were named by the council and secretary and approved by the Governor-General.

Dr. CARROLL. What was their term of office?

Mr. ACUNA. There was no limit. In the autonomistic government the Government could remove them by process in case of any laxity in their administrations.

Dr. CARROLL. What are the salaries of the judges?

Mr. ACUNA. Judges of first instance have distinct salaries according to their grade, *entrado*, *ascenso*, and *termino*. The first receive about \$2,000, the second \$2,500, and the third \$3,000. Judges of the *audiencia* receive \$3,000, the president of the *sala gobierna* and *fiscal* \$5,000, and the president of the court is allowed \$500 more for expenses.

Dr. CARROLL. Are they allowed any fees of any kind?

Mr. ACUNA. To accept a fee would be considered a crime.

Dr. CARROLL. How many judges are there of first instance?

Mr. ACUNA. In the capital there are two, and there are ten all together.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that the right number?

Mr. ACUNA. That is two too many. In Vega Baja and Utuado they are unnecessary.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there capital punishment here?

Mr. ACUNA. Yes; by means of an iron collar, which is screwed about the neck; but in the few cases where it was ordered reprieves have come from Spain. The last cases were under military rule. At least six or seven years have passed since there was a case under civil administration.

CRIMINAL AND CIVIL CASES.

ARECIBO, P. R., *January 14, 1899.*

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

ALFREDO ARNALDO, judge of first instance and instruction of Arecibo:

Dr. CARROLL. Does your jurisdiction extend to all criminal cases?

Judge ARNALDO. Over all criminal cases which are brought for action here, except cases of arson, robbing in gangs, and robbing in the country, as to which tribunals or commissions take the place which was held by the criminal court of Mayaguez.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you hold court here or at Mayaguez?

Judge ARNALDO. Here.

Dr. CARROLL. I want to ask you some questions about the character of the crimes which are most common in this part of the country.

Judge ARNALDO. These times we are now passing through are extraordinary. Most cases brought before me are either burning of estates or robbery directed against persons, and all bearing the character of collective crimes—that is, of conspiracy with the intention of robbery.

Dr. CARROLL. Leaving out of view these extraordinary crimes, what are the more ordinary ones?

Judge ARNALDO. Generally small thefts from the coffee estates and assault. But there is really a very small amount of crime here.

Dr. CARROLL. Do cases of disorder come before you or before magistrates, such as the breaking of the peace—the more serious of such cases?

Judge ARNALDO. Any violation of the municipal ordinances is tried by the municipal judge, but he has not jurisdiction over any other matters.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any other magistrates in the city besides the mayor, or person who hears cases of violation of municipal ordinances?

Judge ARNALDO. Within this district, only myself. I would suggest, as a very important point, that a great many of these disorders and robberies are committed, I think, from political bias. I think that people who have committed these crimes have, in very many instances, done so foolishly thinking that in that way they are helping the American forces. Before the American invasion here there was a great political turmoil, and to-day the result is being noticed. There are many crimes being committed for which there is no proof, and many persons are committed on charges for which there are false proofs, and for that reason I think that all persons detained upon such charges ought to be let out.

Dr. CARROLL. That is, you think members of one party are attempting to have those of the other found guilty, although they may not be guilty?

Judge ARNALDO. Those who were at the head of Spanish politics had absolute power, and, having the monopoly of every privilege, they are naturally odious to the people in general. Upon the American occupation this feeling naturally broke loose and found vent in these various disorders, and, besides, there was a theory that property was going to belong to everybody. That was the opinion held by the country people.

Dr. CARROLL. I have seen it stated that the military officers have reported from various points that it is impossible to have these criminals who are guilty of crimes against property brought to judgment; that in many cases after they have been brought to trial they have not been sentenced, although the proofs were overwhelming.

Judge ARNALDO. As regards the Mayaguez court, that is not so. That court is too severe. The people here are very shrewd in defending themselves.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there much delay in bringing criminals to trial?

Judge ARNALDO. The penal system could not be worse. To begin with, they have to form what they call a summary, which covers from 500 to 1,000 sheets, and the work of preparing this is in the hands of the judge of first instance and instruction. The summary is the initiation of the case. Then the case passes to Mayaguez from here, and it is six months before there is a hearing.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the fault with the penal code or with the method of procedure?

Judge ARNALDO. It is with the procedure. It requires too much detail.

Dr. CARROLL. I have understood that the penal code is a good one.

Judge ARNALDO. Yes; but the method of procedure requires simplification. We have a project for the simplification of legal procedure, of introducing the jury system, so that cases can be terminated within twenty days.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it be, in your judgment, a wise thing so to modify the present law as that people shall not be allowed to be put in jail without an immediate hearing of some kind?

Judge ARNALDO. We have a law at present which requires that within twenty-four hours they go to the prisoner and take his declaration; but it means nothing.

Dr. CARROLL. In the United States, when a man is arrested he is generally taken before a justice of the peace, and he has the right to

ask for an immediate hearing, or his counsel may waive an immediate hearing and await a hearing before the grand jury; but in every case the man has the right to demand a hearing.

Judge ARNALDO. The introduction of the jury system here is an indispensable improvement.

Dr. CARROLL. No man can be arrested in the United States unless by an officer of the law and without a warrant from a justice of the peace, except when taken by an officer who finds the man actually engaged in the commission of the crime. The warrant is issued on an affidavit of the person who makes the complaint.

Judge ARNALDO. It is actually true here that there are persons in our prisons whose cases are being tried in Mayaguez.

Dr. CARROLL. There is one other point about the system in the United States. If anyone there swears out a warrant falsely, the injured party can proceed for false imprisonment at civil law and recover heavy damages.

Judge ARNALDO. The same thing exists here. When the judge pronounces sentence exonerating the man from a crime he also accuses the person who instigated the case of false witnessing.

Dr. CARROLL. I understand that many persons are now in jail of whom it is likely some are innocent; that some persons out of pure motives of revenge have put charges against their names and had them put in prison, and that it is a custom here after a person has been in prison a month or so for the prison or court authorities to tell him to go, and nothing more is done about the matter.

Judge ARNALDO. The situation is even stranger than that. After putting the person at liberty, the case still goes on at Mayaguez. When they have found out all about it they send it back here. It is a gigantic work that counts for nothing.

Dr. CARROLL. It seems to me they ought to have a court here to inquire into the serious cases—the more serious police cases. It would be wise to have in every city a court that could deal with them at once.

Judge ARNALDO. They should be correctional tribunals.

Dr. CARROLL. Corresponding to our police courts in New York City, for example?

Judge ARNALDO. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. It must put the municipality to great expense in having so many prisoners confined for so long a time?

Judge ARNALDO. Yes; it is a crying evil. The number of reams of paper consumed every month in the preparation of summaries is amazing.

Dr. CARROLL. Did you have to use stamped paper for that?

Judge ARNALDO. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think a petty jury would do for the trial of cases of arson, burglary, and murder?

Judge ARNALDO. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. It is a theory of the courts of the United States that the people shall be represented in this case by a lawyer called a prosecuting attorney, whose business it is to prepare the case and put it in shape for trial. Then the judge sits and judges between the State and the criminal. Is that the theory here?

Judge ARNALDO. Yes; the same thing.

Dr. CARROLL. Then no change is needed in that respect?

Judge ARNALDO. It is the procedure which needs correction here.

Dr. CARROLL. Would there be a place in this system for the grand

jury? (Here Dr. Carroll explained at length the functions and duties of the grand jury.)

Judge ARNALDO. I think it would be preferable to leave the preference of complaints to judges.

Dr. CARROLL. One theory in connection with the grand jury is that it will be a protection to innocent people, and prevent some cases coming before the court which should not be brought there.

Judge ARNALDO. It is an ingenious system and has its merits.

Dr. CARROLL. But would not be expedient here?

Judge ARNALDO. As regards the change of judicial system, it should be done wholly because towns here are small and people are all friends of each other.

Dr. CARROLL. That is a difficulty we have in the United States, and for that reason challenges of jurymen are allowed on the part of the district attorney. For example, he may challenge a jurymen because he finds that he was a business partner or a relative of the accused.

Judge ARNALDO. The same system is followed wherever they have a jury.

Dr. CARROLL. Some lawyers in San Juan were doubtful about the success of the jury system here.

Judge ARNALDO. I think it would be wise, without doubt. This is a Latin country. We have followed the old Roman system; but to-day, as we are entering a period of more upright administration of justice, the people should administer their own justice.

Dr. CARROLL. I think the objection on the part of the lawyers of San Juan was owing to a misapprehension of the scope of the jury, thinking that laymen were to be brought in to decide questions of law, which is not the case. Were there many cases in the island of burglary or murder before these outbreaks that have occurred since the occupation?

Judge ARNALDO. There has always been a great deal of petty thieving, but not burglary.

Dr. CARROLL. What about murder?

Judge ARNALDO. Very little of that. In this country one can always pass through any part with any amount of money and without fear of molestation.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there much in the way of offenses against property; is there much litigation over titles to property?

Judge ARNALDO. Since the registration of property was introduced lawsuits have increased considerably. There are not many to-day. We have a very fine law of registration.

Dr. CARROLL. Does that law require that all parcels of property shall be registered?

Judge ARNALDO. No. Registry is voluntary, but as inscription of property brings advantages, naturally owners desire to have their property inscribed.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any questions arising in the courts regarding the property passing by descent, for instance, from father to son? Is it necessary that the will shall be probated and that the son shall be placed in possession of the title by a process of law?

Judge ARNALDO. That depends upon whether the heir is a minor or not. If he is a minor, then they have to appoint guardians. The will is taken to the registrar, who inscribes it and that becomes evidence of ownership. If the father dies intestate, they make a document of intestacy, and that is inscribed.

Dr. CARROLL. Are mortgages also inscribed?

Judge ARNALDO. Everything is inscribed that has any bearing or any effect upon real estate titles.

Dr. CARROLL. When did the last capital punishment occur here?

Judge ARNALDO. In 1882.

Dr. CARROLL. In the law regarding murder, do they distinguish between murder and manslaughter of different degrees?

Judge ARNALDO. There is plain homicide; then there is homicide with aggravating circumstances, and there are classifications. There is a high grade of murder called infanticide, and this is always punished by capital punishment. The penalty for murder committed in a row is fourteen years of penal servitude.

COST AND DELAY OF PROCEEDINGS.

GOBO, P. R., January 15, 1899.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner, at the residence of Mr. Leopold Strube, whose estate lies partly in the municipality of Arecibo and partly in Utuado.]

Mr. STRUBE. Recently I had trouble with a man who made a personal attack upon me. The next day after the attack he tried to steal my horse. I followed him up instantly, and caught him and the horse and made my complaint to the commissioner of the district. The value of the horse was only about \$25. The next day I had to make my statement before the judge at Arecibo. Every horse here has a certain brand, and I had to show the brand of my horse. The judge gave me my horse in deposito. The next day the same man was here again making trouble. The case had to go from Arecibo to Utuado, because the offense was committed in that district. Three days later I went to Utuado to see the judge, and to inquire whether or not I had to make another statement before him. He did not seem to know whether it was necessary or not, but told me that probably I would not have to make another statement. He also told me that the case would be tried in Mayaguez in June or July next. At that time I will have to go there with my witnesses. The man is now at large, and if in the mean while, as is probable, he leaves this district—for all that class of men are here to-day and the next day somewhere else—they will not be able to find him. Then I will have to bear the cost of my journey, which will be about \$50, besides the loss of time. It will be a week at least. This week is in addition to the two days already spent at Arecibo and Utuado. I would have to get to Mayaguez the day before the hearing, and could not well leave there until the day after. It takes two days to go and two days to return.

Dr. CARROLL. Why did you go to Utuado?

Mr. STRUBE. I went first to Arecibo. My land lies partly in Arecibo and partly in Utuado, where the man stole the horse, but I caught him in the Arecibo district. That fact appeared in my statement, and when the Arecibo judge saw it he delivered him to the judge in Utuado. The man was immediately released without bail.

Dr. CARROLL. If you had a village government here, you would have a man on the ground to hear such a case at once. It would be a great improvement in the administration of justice to have a judge here.

Mr. STRUBE. Yes; but the difficulty is in getting a justice.

WORK OF JUDGE OF FIRST INSTANCE.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

UTUADO, P. R., *January 17, 1899.*

Mr. JOSE L. CASALDUC, ex-notary of Utuado, now procurator and property owner:

Dr. CARROLL. Are you fiscal for the municipal district or the judicial district?

Mr. CASALDUC. For the judicial district.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the name of the judicial district in which Utuado is situated?

Mr. CASALDUC. It is the judicial district of Utuado, comprising Utuado, Lares, Ciales, and Adjuntas.

Dr. CARROLL. You have no criminal court, I believe, in this district. You have to go to Mayaguez for that?

Mr. CASALDUC. Yes; we go to Mayaguez.

Dr. CARROLL. But I understand that you have a judge of first instance here.

Mr. CASALDUC. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Does he prepare cases for the criminal court?

Mr. CASALDUC. Yes. It would be more convenient to have an audiencia of Utuado. We should be connected with that of Ponce, as we are within easy reach of Ponce.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it not be better still to have a court here in Utuado to hear and determine criminal cases, with appeal to the audiencia territorial?

Mr. CASALDUC. Under the new rule which has been promulgated in San Juan three judges hear the case, and when there is appeal five judges sit.

Dr. CARROLL. That is, three judges in Mayaguez, Ponce, or San Juan?

Mr. CASALDUC. In San Juan; but the three judges who tried the case originally form part of the court of appeal.

Dr. CARROLL. That is contrary to good juridic principles, is it not?

Mr. CASALDUC. Where they had a voice in deciding a case originally they would not go back on that decision.

Dr. CARROLL. Then you can not get any independent judgment from them?

Mr. CASALDUC. Formerly these appeals went to Madrid, and this is an attempt to dispose of them somehow.

Dr. CARROLL. I suppose that when the civil government of Porto Rico is established there will be an appeal to the Supreme Court of the United States. What class of cases are determinable here in Utuado?

Mr. CASALDUC. Criminal cases are only prepared here and sent to Mayaguez.

Dr. CARROLL. What about ordinary police cases, such as petty thefts? Must they go to Mayaguez also?

Mr. CASALDUC. All have to go to Mayaguez. The people take special pains not to give any information about robberies or about any crime committed, because they understand that they will be called to Mayaguez, and that means several days lost without any compensation.

Dr. CARROLL. Are they not paid for it?

Mr. CASALDUC. There was an order directing the payment of

expenses, but the employees of the court got together and whenever bills for such expenses were presented these employees said there was no money. Eventually these employees bought up these claims and had them cashed themselves.

Dr. CARROLL. Then the only cases that are heard here and finally determined are violations of municipal ordinances?

Mr. CASALDUC. Small cases that are called in the Spanish code *faltas*, which can only be punished by imprisonment for seven days or so, are tried by the municipal judge, and appeal lies from his sentence to the judge of first instance.

Dr. CARROLL. Has the judge of first instance in such cases final decision?

Mr. CASALDUC. Yes; and in civil cases the judge of first instance gives verdict, with an appeal to the *audiencia territorial*.

Dr. CARROLL. What suggestions would you make of reform in the constitution of the courts and in judicial procedure?

Mr. CASALDUC. Small cases, such as robberies for small amounts, and police cases generally should be tried by juries composed of persons taken from the place itself, which cases should have a preliminary hearing here, and afterwards, if necessary, be sent elsewhere.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you not think the *audiencia* should be established here?

Mr. CASALDUC. Yes; that is what must be done. This being a centrally located town, should naturally have such an institution.

Dr. CARROLL. Then you would have one here, instead of compelling people to go to Mayaguez?

Mr. CASALDUC. Yes. In that way most of the small crimes would not go unpunished. If a man to-day should rob me of my horse, I would not make an accusation against him, because it would cost me \$50 to make the journey to Mayaguez.

Dr. CARROLL. There is a jail here, I suppose?

Mr. CASALDUC. There is no building here specially for that purpose. We have a provisional prison, but it is in very bad condition. There is not a single penitentiary in the island.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there not one at San Juan?

Mr. CASALDUC. There is a prison there, but not a penitentiary.

Dr. CARROLL. By penitentiary do you mean a place for reforming criminals?

Mr. CASALDUC. Yes. Here they mix up the real criminals with those who are not natural criminals. They do not teach the prisoners any trade nor give them any work to do. The prisons here really are schools for bandits, because those who go in not as criminals, but as transgressors of the law, come out criminals.

Dr. CARROLL. What do you do with juvenile offenders?

Mr. CASALDUC. They put them in the prison with the rest of the prisoners. They are very behindhand in these matters. Another thing worth mentioning: The judiciary should be well paid, to remove the judges from temptation. They receive small salaries, while the secretaries of the government are paid enormous salaries. The government can remove judges whenever it sees fit. That was the rule and I presume is still. Take, for instance, a judge of first instance in Ponce, who has to take cognizance of from 4,000 to 5,000 cases a year. He receives \$187 a month only. He is naturally exposed to all sorts of temptations.

Dr. CARROLL. What do the clerks make?

Mr. CASALDUC. They have no salaries at all. They have fees.

Dr. CARROLL. I should think it would be better to give them a fixed salary.

Mr. CASALDUC. It is owing to this fee system that justice runs as it does here. Anybody who wants to get out of prison can do so if he has \$100.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there a tariff of fees for the clerks?

Mr. CASALDUC. There is a tariff in civil cases. There is no tariff in criminal cases.

Dr. CARROLL. Does not the criminal pay for his defense?

Mr. CASALDUC. The rich ones do; but you don't see the rich ones up for trial, because they buy themselves off before the case comes up for trial. A popular saying here is that "The prison was not built for people with black coats."

Dr. CARROLL. Have you any suggestion of amendments of the penal code, or is it generally satisfactory?

Mr. CASALDUC. It ought to be reformed where it relates to petty crimes. For instance, if you have a servant in your house who takes \$25 from you, he can be sentenced to six years; that is, for what are called domestic crimes.

Dr. CARROLL. Then they make a distinction as to domestic crimes?

Mr. CASALDUC. They punish the servant the more, because in addition to the robbery, he is guilty of an abuse of confidence.

Dr. CARROLL. What would be the sentence of a man found guilty of burglary?

Mr. CASALDUC. There are several subsections to that. The penalty would depend on whether it were done during the day or at night and whether or not there are two or more persons concerned in the burglary. If it takes place in a country district, and there are more than one, the sentence is twelve years.

Dr. CARROLL. In that case is it supposed to be a conspiracy?

Mr. CASALDUC. It is supposed to be in band or brigandage.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the element of conspiracy enter into that?

Mr. CASALDUC. They call it robbery in gangs, and everybody who has a direct or indirect part in it is liable to imprisonment.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there many cases of petty theft?

Dr. CASALDUC. It is the case that happens the most here, and if the present procedure were changed the crimes would soon be stopped.

Dr. CARROLL. Have there been any serious crimes in this municipal district in the last eight or ten years, apart from such as may have grown up as a result of the war?

Mr. CASALDUC. There were very few. The people had a terror for the civil guard—it was not a respect for the law—and now that that terror has disappeared with the disappearance of the civil guard, I don't know whether there will be such cases or not.

Dr. CARROLL. There have been no capital cases here?

Mr. CASALDUC. A case of homicide is so unusual that a case of assassination would create a great deal of excitement here.

SPECIAL TRIALS OF BANDITS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

MAYAGUEZ, P. R., *January 24, 1899.*

Maj. CHARLES L. COOPER, of the Fifth United States Cavalry, made a statement the substance of which is as follows:

There were a great many depredations committed in this district by

persons who had cause for revenge against proprietors. Cases accumulated before the civil courts, which seemed either to be powerless or indifferent to the trial of them. In consequence of this slowness of action, General Henry constituted a military commission of three persons, with the secretary, and this commission tried three or four cases of a minor character. The sentence of imprisonment was imposed in prisons of the United States. This seemed to stimulate the civil courts to action, as it was intended to do. Major Cooper believes that it would be a wise thing to institute a mounted police for the rural districts, composed of natives. He spoke of the police of the city as excellent men, and he believed that by organizing a secret service the marauders could in many cases be apprehended and be brought to justice. The cases before the military commission were tried under international law, as declared by Lieber in 1862 or 1863. Major Cooper stated that the planters very seldom took measures for self-defense, because it was a principle of law that they were not allowed to defend themselves, but were held responsible before the court for any act committed in defense of their domiciles. He said he had been told this over and over again by Porto Rican lawyers. On examination of the penal code it appears that defense of one's person or family or domicile is justifiable, but it is stated that subsequent proceedings in such cases included imprisonment of the defender and such a course of legal responsibility as to deter people from the ordinary means of self-defense. It is claimed that this is not due to the law itself, but to the corruption of the courts, and that judges appointed from the Peninsula took this means of adding to their income, requiring persons who were arrested for acts committed in self-defense to pay a good round sum to regain their liberty.

PROCEDURE IN CRIMINAL CASES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN GERMAN, P. R., *January 26, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. I recognize you as one of the judges who presided at a trial in Mayaguez which I attended a few days ago. Has the trial been concluded?

Mr. JOAQUIM SERVERA SILVA, registrar. It was finished Tuesday morning.

Dr. CARROLL. What was the result?

Mr. SILVA. The sentence will be published on Monday. The court has already arrived at its decision. I will have to go and sign the sentence on Monday. They publicly put in provisional liberty three of the prisoners, having taken that step because three of them will be acquitted.

Dr. CARROLL. I would be very glad, indeed, if you could give me the steps that were taken in that case from the beginning to the end. I saw a part of the case, and I would be glad to get a better idea of the Spanish method of procedure.

Mr. SILVA. There was in this case a private accuser, who is called a "denouncer." The denouncer was the aggrieved person, Don Juan Sein. Immediately after the denouncement the judge of instruction took the first steps to inquire about the matter.

Dr. CARROLL. Was the complaint made to him?

Mr. SILVA. They first complained to the alcalde verbally, and then a complaint was made in writing to the municipal judge of Añasco.

Dr. CARROLL. Did the alcalde sign any document or do anything to expedite the case?

Mr. SILVA. Under the Spanish law any aggrieved person has the right to make complaint to any government official, and this official is obliged to refer the complaint to the competent judicial authority.

Dr. CARROLL. Then it was placed in the hands of the judge of first instance.

Mr. SILVA. The judge of first instance in this case is what they call the instructing judge, who looks into the case, attending to the claims of the denouncer. The judge takes the necessary steps to prepare the case. When the judge of first instance considers that he has obtained all the necessary proofs and data within his power, he draws up a summary and passes the case on to the audiencia.

Dr. CARROLL. Does he cite witnesses?

Mr. SILVA. Yes; he calls witnesses and examines them under oath. The testimony given before a judge of first instance is not considered as evidence, and the same witness may testify in a completely opposite way before the audiencia without rendering himself liable to punishment for false swearing. The reason for this is that the Spanish civil guard here used to illtreat people, and before the judge of first instance they would give any sort of evidence to get away from the guard. But when reforms were introduced here the Spanish law said that the conclusive evidence was only that given before the audiencia.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that law or only practice?

Mr. SILVA. It is a new law of criminal procedure. There are two exceptions to the rule above stated. For instance, when the judge of first instance has to take cognizance of a matter which has to be inquired into on the spot, and which the audiencia could not examine into, such as blood stains, which would not last until the audiencia could meet, or the evidence of a witness who desires to leave the country and make his formal statement before doing so.

Dr. CARROLL. From the judge of first instance is the case reported directly to the audiencia or to the fiscal?

Mr. SILVA. The case is passed from the judge of first instance to the audiencia. The audiencia examines the summary, and if it does not consider that the case has been properly drawn—for instance, if certain witnesses have not been examined who should have been—they return the case to the judge of first instance, recommending what they consider convenient in the case. Should they consider the case complete in its drawing by the judge of first instance, they draw up a document in which they put on record that the case has been properly drawn up by the judge of first instance, and they pass it over to the fiscal. The fiscal then studies the case and prepares a preliminary opinion and passes the documents over to the defending counsel, who present in writing their preliminary defense. The court then studies the preliminary defense and appoints a day for the first hearing.

Dr. CARROLL. How is the case opened by the lawyer for the prosecution—in an address to the court, as is the custom in the United States, or do they proceed at once to examine witnesses?

Mr. SILVA. Each party has his well-defined duties in the case. The court is opened by the president asking each person the regulation questions as to age, birthplace, etc.; then he allows the fiscal to address each of the prisoners, asking such questions as he thinks convenient. After the fiscal is through the lawyer for the defense may also put questions to the prisoner. The witnesses called by the fiscal are first

examined and then the witnesses called by the defense. Should the court think it necessary to take evidence at the scene of the crime, it has the power to constitute a commission from among the judges and hold court on the spot where the crime was committed. When all the evidence of witnesses has been taken, the evidence of documents or of exhibits, such as clothing, chemical substances that have been analyzed, and other inanimate testimony generally, is taken. Then the president calls on the fiscal to substantiate or correct his original accusation, which he does. He also calls on the lawyer for the defense to substantiate or rectify his original defense, which he does by writing. Then the court retires and within three days gives sentence.

Dr. CARROLL. Is a majority sufficient to convict?

Mr. SILVA. Yes; and dissenting votes are put into writing, with the reasons therefor, together with the documents of the case, which are sent to the supreme court.

Dr. CARROLL. In case verdict of death is decided upon, what is the next proceeding?

Mr. SILVA. In all sentences the prisoner has the right of appeal, but in such a grave sentence as that of death, whether the prisoner appeals or not, the law implies that the prisoner appeals, and the case proceeds as if appeal had been made.

Dr. CARROLL. In the trial of a case are there rules governing the fiscal or lawyers for the defense in raising points of law?

Mr. SILVA. Yes; they can only call as witnesses those whom they have named in their previous documents. Under the old system they used to be able to call witnesses at will and could spread the case out to any length by saying they had new witnesses to call.

Dr. CARROLL. The method of criminal procedure in the United States is very different from this, and I will give you a brief outline of it. Perhaps you are already familiar with it.

Mr. SILVA. No; I do not know the jury system of the United States, but I know the jury system of Spain.

Dr. CARROLL. In cases of the commission of a crime the matter is brought to the attention of a justice of the peace. Unless the prisoner waives a hearing, he proceeds to give a hearing at a date determined upon. The prisoner usually has counsel from the time he is put under arrest, and this counsel may waive all proceedings before the justice of the peace, knowing that the case must come before the grand jury.

Mr. SILVA. That is the same system as in Spain.

Dr. CARROLL. In case it is a bailable offense, the offender may be released by furnishing proper bonds to await the action of the grand jury. In a mere serious case of crime the offender is held in prison. The grand jury is composed of from twenty to twenty-four men. The case goes from the justice of the peace before the grand jury, being presented to the grand jury by the fiscal, or prosecuting attorney. The prosecuting attorney names the witnesses he has, and the grand jury may allow him to examine them or they may proceed to examine them themselves. After they have heard all the witnesses who are witnesses for the accusation, as it is an entirely ex parte proceeding, they proceed, by vote of the majority, to determine whether there is probable guilt or not. Then, if they vote that there is probable guilt, the prosecuting attorney proceeds to draw up a formal indictment, in which the offense or offenses are stated in legal terms. The foreman of the grand jury then presents this indictment to the court which instructed it. The judge then causes the prisoner to be brought before him.

The charges in the indictment are stated to the prisoner, and he is asked to plead guilty or not guilty. He usually does so through his counsel. Then the prosecuting attorney moves that a date be set for the trial of the case. This may be agreed to by the counsel for the defense or they may ask for a longer time for preparation. Before the case comes to trial the counsel for the defense may present a demurrer to the indictment, alleging that it is defective and moving to quash the indictment. On a day appointed the court hears arguments for and against that motion, the prosecuting attorney representing the people. If the judge decides that the indictment is good, a day for the trial is set and the commissioner of juries is notified to have a number of persons qualified to sit as jurors present on the trial day.

From the persons present they proceed to select jurymen, putting it to each man whether he is a relative of the accused or an enemy or in any way interested or biased in the case. If it appears from this or any other reasons that any person can not give a fair verdict in the case according to the testimony, the judge tells him to step aside. In addition to this, the law allows a certain number of absolute challenges, both by the counsel for the defense and by the prosecuting attorney. The jury duly impaneled and sworn, the prosecuting attorney proceeds to state his case, giving a history of it, and he then proceeds to call his witnesses, whom he examines himself. Then the witnesses are turned over to the counsel for the defense, who have great latitude in course of cross-examination. When a witness is asked a question which the counsel on either side considers objectionable, the counsel tells the witness not to answer, and appeals to the judge, giving the grounds therefor. The counsel on each side insists that the judge shall keep in his own place, and if he asks too many questions, the probability is they will ask him whether he is inclined to try the case as well as to judge it. After the witnesses for the prosecution have been heard, the counsel for the defense opens with an address, in which he reviews the evidence given by the prosecution and indicates the theory that the defense will take in the case. Then, when all the testimony is in, the lawyers on either side address the court in support of the testimony that has been given. Then the judge charges the jury; that is, he instructs them in points of law, it being understood that the province of the jury is to determine the facts according to the evidence, while they receive their instructions in the law from the judge. The jury then retire to a room set apart for them, in which they are free from all public interruption, and there they proceed to consider what their verdict shall be. It requires a unanimous verdict of guilt to establish guilt. There are many other incidental steps in a case of this kind. For example, before the case is tried there may be a writ of habeas corpus sued out before a law judge and an inquiry held as to the process by which a prisoner is held. It is to prevent imprisonment on false accusations. Does the Spanish jury law correspond to this in any respect?

Mr. SILVA. There are a great many points of similarity. In such points as the right of challenge, the retiring of the jury, the right of examining jurymen before they are impaneled, and in several other points there is almost complete resemblance.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it your judgment that the jury system would work well in the trial of criminal cases in the island?

Mr. SILVA. Before replying to that I should have to think quite a good deal. The jury system is a great system, but if it is going to be given to the people, it requires that the people who are going to dis-

pense justice thereby should have a considerable degree of culture and education.

Dr. CARROLL. That is not considered at all necessary in the United States. It is simply required that a man should have his natural faculties, a fair mind, be able to weigh evidence, and be honest enough to give his verdict on the side on which the weight of evidence inclines. The counsel on each side give a complete analysis of the testimony so as to instruct the jury, and the judge presiding in the case gives a complete explication of all points of law, and tells them that they must be governed by those instructions.

Mr. SILVA. I supposed that in the United States a juryman is required to know how to read and write. According to what you require of the juryman will be the success of the system. They are not required to examine documents.

DEFINITIONS OF CRIMES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

HUMACAO, P. R., *February 1, 1899.*

Mr. SALVADOR FULLADOSA, judge of first instance and instruction:

Dr. CARROLL. I wish to ask you some questions about judicial matters. What is your judicial district?

Mr. FULLADOSA. My district embraces Humacao, Fajardo, Naguabo, Vieques, Yabucoa, Juncos, and Piedras.

Dr. CARROLL. Your function, I suppose, is to prepare cases for the audiencia?

Mr. FULLADOSA. As the judge of the district, I have subordinate judges in each municipality. In civil cases matters not exceeding \$200 are settled by the municipal judge, with right of appeal to me as district judge. In criminal matters the municipal judge or alcalde has to prepare the case within a period of three days and send it to me, and I have to see whether it is prepared right and that no necessary parts of the case are missing. If the case is not fully prepared, I cite witnesses before me and continue the preparation of the case until I consider that it is fully drawn up. Then I sign it and send it to the court in San Juan for trial. In civil cases I have jurisdiction to any amount and give judgment here, besides my jurisdiction to hear and determine cases on appeal from municipal judges.

Dr. CARROLL. Then your functions as judge are really confined to civil cases?

Mr. FULLADOSA. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. There is no reason in the world why you should not be judge in criminal cases also.

Mr. FULLADOSA. There existed here formerly a law by which judges throughout the island could sentence in criminal cases, but when oral trials were introduced that power was taken away.

Dr. CARROLL. In the United States a larger power is given to the fiscals. The latter prepare the brief on the part of the people, while the attorney for the defense prepares the brief in behalf of the prisoner.

Mr. FULLADOSA. It is most ridiculous that a man who steals a plate should have to be tried in San Juan. The system causes a block in the wheels of justice.

Dr. CARROLL. It is a judicial absurdity.

Mr. FULLADOSA. My function in criminal cases is merely that of preparation, which is hardly the proper function of a judge. It is my duty to classify crimes prepared by me for trial; to say whether the case should go up for trial under one heading or another, or whether the alleged offender should be set at liberty.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the existing law with respect to arrest of a person who, for example, is charged with being guilty of arson or robbery? Can a person who sees him in the act arrest him without process?

Mr. FULLADOSA. Yes; everybody has that right, but not the legal obligation to do so.

Dr. CARROLL. That is the law in the United States, but in all other cases no one can be arrested except by process duly issued by a magistrate.

Mr. FULLADOSA. Here it is the same; a person can not be arrested unless a judge issues an order for his arrest.

Dr. CARROLL. What justifies a judge in issuing a process of that kind?

Mr. FULLADOSA. The judge can issue an order for imprisonment on the denuncia of any person. The person arrested is held provisionally for twenty-four hours, during which time the judge cites the person making the charge to determine whether there is cause to hold the person for seventy-two hours as required by law.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the law require that the order of arrest shall recite the charge for which the person is arrested?

Mr. FULLADOSA. When the arrest is made by the marshal the order says that such and such a person must present himself to respond to an accusation of such and such a person.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that shown to the person when he is arrested?

Mr. FULLADOSA. The alleged offender is called to appear before the judge, or is arrested under a warrant. It does not do to tell the person why he is arrested, because he might prepare himself for a defense beforehand; he might put himself in communication with persons for that purpose. They are very clever here.

Dr. CARROLL. It is an elementary factor of justice in the United States that a man should not be arrested without knowing why he is arrested.

Mr. FULLADOSA. I am speaking now of simple offenses, not of grave crimes. We presume that a person is guilty until he has proved himself innocent.

Dr. CARROLL. Then a person might be arrested here and not know whether he was arrested for disorder or assault or for murder?

Mr. FULLADOSA. Before he is put in prison he knows what he is arrested for. There are exceptional cases; for instance, a quarrel in a country district, where a comisario has to arrest all persons in the neighborhood, who might turn out to be guilty.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any such thing here as giving bail?

Mr. FULLADOSA. It is quite general. I am a great believer in bail.

Dr. CARROLL. What classes of cases areailable?

Mr. FULLADOSA. Those punishable by imprisonment for three or more years, but not generally charges of a grave character such as robbery, homicide, and arson. Crimes and offenses are all classified. For example, there is robbery with violence and robbery without violence, and each classification has its appropriate bail within the class ofailable crimes. A great deal depends also on the judge and the antecedents of the prisoner. The judge has a discretion in the matter.

Dr. CARROLL. In case a person is arrested in Vieques for theft, does it require that the person making the charge and the thief be brought here before you?

Mr. FULLADOSA. The municipal judge in Vieques keeps the prisoner in jail there three days while he is preparing the brief. The brief and the prisoner are then sent here. If he is to be liberated, he is liberated from here, as the judge there can not release a prisoner after he has once put him in prison.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that true of small cases?

Mr. FULLADOSA. Of every case. That is the law, and it governs even in a case where a man in Vieques is arrested for stealing a chicken. There is only one exception to the rule, which I have stated somewhat too broadly, namely, in the class of cases called *faltas*, which are tried by the municipal judge and are punishable by imprisonment for not more than thirty days. Where, for instance, a peon, passing through a cane field, cuts a stalk of cane and sucks it and is caught in the act, that would be a *falta*, punishable by imprisonment up to thirty days without sending the man here to Humacao. If, however, the peon, after having eaten one stalk, should cut more and take it away with him, then his offense would be larceny, and not a mere *falta*, the reason for the distinction being that in the first case the man, on the spur of the moment, and from a sense of immediate need, takes the cane and at once eats it, whereas in the second case the element of immediate need is not present, but the peon appropriates the property of another for his future use.

Dr. CARROLL. In case a man is brought over here from Vieques for some petty offense, who bears the expense of the trip?

Mr. FULLADOSA. All the municipalities comprising the district. This is the head of the prison district, and its expenses are paid by the municipalities in this judicial district, each paying a proportion.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you sit sometimes in the *audiencia* in particular cases?

Mr. FULLADOSA. No.

Dr. CARROLL. In Mayaguez they sometimes ask judges of other courts to sit with them, and while I was there they had two of them sitting with the regular judges to try a case of arson and robbery.

Mr. FULLADOSA. I could be called, but I have not been. They can name me a judge in commission.

AMERICAN LAWYERS AND THE COURTS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *February 10, 1899.*

Mr. F. H. DEXTER, an American lawyer and agent of the Cuban and Pan-American Express Company:

In my judgment conditions do not now exist to justify American lawyers in their hope of practicing in the courts of Porto Rico. According to General Orders No. 1, issued by General Brooke upon the occupation of San Juan by the American forces, the laws then in existence which were not inconsistent with American institutions or which had not been abrogated by orders of the military government remain in force, and up to the present time no order has been issued changing the laws in Porto Rico covering the matter of judicial procedure and the regulation of practice in the courts of the island.

The code in force in Porto Rico is the old civil code, or Roman code, and is written in Spanish. This code is considered different from the practice which obtains in all the States of the American Union, with the exception of the State of Louisiana. Very few American lawyers have studied this code beyond their college course outside of the State of Louisiana. It seems to be the understanding of those in authority, justified by the necessities of the case, that the Porto Rican laws, so far as local matters are concerned, will remain in force for some time to come. While the American military government and Congress will gradually promulgate orders and adopt legislation affecting matters of a general concern, such as those regarding the relations between Porto Rico and the United States and foreign countries, such as the regulation of shipping, navigation and tariff, exchange, and similar questions, the body of municipal law, in my judgment, will be gradually and slowly modified or abrogated. These municipal laws, in addition to being a feature of the government of Spanish possessions and having a traditional dignity, are perhaps better adapted to the wants and conditions of the people of this tropical country than many of our laws which are in force in the American Union. I do not mean by this to say that the American system of laws is not better than the system in force here; but in the exercise of sound judgment and wisdom it would appear to me that to change the system of laws which is so intimately ingrafted into the institutions and lives of the people here would be to create great confusion. In fact, it would appear to be a physical impossibility.

Soon after the occupation of the capital of this island by the American forces a number of intelligent lawyers of good standing came here from the United States with the idea of settling here and practicing their profession. So far as I have been able to learn, none of these gentlemen know the Spanish laws or the code now in force here. Some of these gentlemen desire to practice in the courts here, and they were refused this right by the then acting minister of justice, Señor Hernandez Lopez, on account of what I have expressed heretofore, namely, that they did not know the Spanish law or language. These gentlemen addressed a complaint to General Henry, who referred the matter again to Mr. Lopez, minister of justice, and desired him to state his reasons for this action. Mr. Lopez reported in due time to General Henry, and gave the following reasons: He stated that the laws governing Porto Rico at this time were still Spanish laws; that according to the judicial procedure and the said code applicants for admission to practice in the courts of Porto Rico should pass an examination provided by the civil code relative to attorneys, and should have certain qualifications of residence and training, which it appears these gentlemen did not possess. Upon the strength of this recommendation General Henry refused to permit the American lawyers to practice in the courts of Porto Rico unless they could pass the required examination which was demanded of native lawyers.

Although desirous myself of enjoying the privilege of practice in the courts of Porto Rico, I must admit the justice of this rule. A license to practice law is not only an implied guaranty but an express certificate on the part of the authority granting the license that the holder of it is familiar with the practice of the court in which he is authorized to practice and has complied with all the qualifications and requirements demanded of those who practice in these courts. If an American lawyer, not conversant with its practice or the code should try to practice, injustice might be done.

REFORMS DEMANDED.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *March 10, 1899.*

ALFREDO M. AGUAYO (formerly judge of first instance in Ponce). It is my opinion that the Spanish law relating to criminal cases ought to be reformed. It is contrary, in my opinion, to the Constitution of the United States in that the Constitution guarantees to everyman a fair and impartial trial before a jury of his own countrymen.

Dr. CARROLL. I should be pleased to have you state the proceedings in detail which are had in a criminal case.

Judge AGUAYO. As soon as the judge has information that a crime has been committed he sends for the accused and has him arrested and takes his declaration in court secretly. Then he puts him immediately into a room where he is without communication with anyone. The judge then sends for all the witnesses who can give him information in the matter. He receives them secretly, one by one, and takes their declarations and cross-questions them. Meanwhile the defendant does not know what is being done against him and can take no steps whatever. He is absolutely in the dark. He does not know at all what is going on. Within two or three days he is allowed to communicate, but not until after the summary of the case against him is completed is he allowed this privilege or given any hint as to what has been done. He can name his lawyer, but the lawyer is not allowed to present to the judge in this stage of the proceedings any proof which the judge does not care to accept. This summary (summary) usually occupies in its preparation from a month to a month and a half. The reason of this delay is that everything is being done in writing, and society and the world at large, which is also interested in the case, knows nothing at all about it, and is naturally unwilling that this state of things should continue. Should the newspapers publish a proof which has been adduced before the judge, its editor would be punished immediately. When all the proofs have been gotten together, the judge of first instance declares the summary concluded, and all the papers are passed on to the audiencia, where the oral proceedings are begun.

The reasons why all the steps of the summary should be published from its inception, in my opinion, are many. First, because the publicity would insure the cooperation of everybody, and all persons having proofs would bring them forward; secondly, it would enable the defendant to produce all the proof on his side; third, it would constitute a guaranty against the venality of judges, as the public would be immediately informed of all mistakes and infirmities committed by the judge; fourth, the secrecy of the summary produces in the public conscience a sort of terror, and all witnesses, as a rule, have to be made to testify by force, whereas if the hearings were public from the beginning a sort of civic dignity would induce persons to testify on their own volition, and witnesses would see that what they testified to was accepted as evidence and that their words had value. I think that before any other steps are taken in the matter of changing the laws a general order should be issued directing that all judicial proceedings from their inception be public and that the defendant be allowed to name his lawyer and make use of his lawyer before the declaration is made.

Dr. CARROLL. In the United States secrecy is only observed when

the case is before the grand jury and it is proceeding to inquire whether an indictment may be had.

Judge AGUAYO. The difference between the American and the Spanish systems is that the American is an accusatory system and the Spanish an inquisitorial system. Under the American system there can be no trial until after there is a specific charge made, but under the Spanish system there is a trial before the charge.

Dr. CARROLL. The Spanish idea is that when a man is charged with a crime he is guilty unless proved innocent, is it not?

Judge AGUAYO. No; not exactly. Their principle is that the judge is charged to discover the crime and that he need not consult anybody. His business is to ferret out the crime. I think the attorney should be present at all the trials from their start to their finish.

Dr. CARROLL. It seems to me that the judge of first instance should be a judge of oyer and terminer to hear and determine cases, not only on the civil side but also on the criminal side.

Judge AGUAYO. I think that the jury system ought to be established here soon, and that the trial should be oral and not in writing, as now. Cases can be concluded in one day by oral proceedings instead of from eight days to a month and a half by written process. This is a very important matter.

Dr. CARROLL. It seems to me that the judge of first instance might be clothed with the power to hear and determine cases with an appeal from him direct to the superior court, and that the audiencia territorial of Ponce and Mayaguez might be abolished to simplify proceedings.

Judge AGUAYO. That is the way it used to be here before. It was the system here ten years ago.

Dr. CARROLL. Some of the cases could be prepared before the municipal judge if necessary and sent up to the judge of first instance for trial.

Judge AGUAYO. That is the way they are prepared now. All municipal judges should have greater amplitude in their powers.

Dr. CARROLL. I think so, too.

Judge AGUAYO. The principal thing is that all trials should be public and should be oral instead of in writing, as a means of insuring speedy and fair trials, and so that the whole country may know what is going on in their courts of justice.

Dr. CARROLL. It seems to me that the judge in the audiencia has too large powers with reference to the trial of a case; that the function of the man who sits upon the bench ought to be to hear and determine, and not in any way to question the witnesses with the idea of bringing out testimony to fit his own theory of the case.

Judge AGUAYO. Yes; he has a great deal of power.

Dr. CARROLL. And he exercises his power arbitrarily sometimes to shut off questions asked by the defendant's counsel. I noticed in the proceedings in a case at Mayaguez that the court was very arbitrary in refusing to permit a defendant to ask questions, which, in my judgment, he had a perfect right to ask. As I understand it, a judge of first instance is a judge in civil matters, but is not a judge in criminal matters, but rather a district attorney, in that he prepares the case against the defendant.

Judge AGUAYO. In civil cases I have the right to give judgment, but not in criminal cases. In criminal cases I can only prepare the summary and pass it on to the audiencia.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that the system in Spain?

Judge AGUAYO. No; the criminal procedure here and in Spain are

alike up to and including the preparation of the summary; but after finishing the summary the case goes to the jury in Spain and the jury gives verdict.

Dr. CARROLL. How many jurymen do they have?

Judge AGUAYO. Twelve.

Dr. CARROLL. Does it require unanimity to give verdict?

Judge AGUAYO. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. The judges of the audiencia here make up the sentences among themselves, do they not?

Judge AGUAYO. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Secretly?

Judge AGUAYO. Yes; and this secrecy is not only a bad thing, but a useless thing. I have been accused of revealing the secrets of the summary in this case against ———. In every criminal case, as every witness goes out of the court and tells his friends what he has been testifying about, there is no such thing really as secrecy.

Dr. CARROLL. The congress that met here in San Juan in October drew up a scheme of reforms, and in it they demanded the "public votation of sentences." What did they mean by that?

Judge AGUAYO. They simply meant that instead of the judges retiring to consider their sentence secretly they should consider it publicly.

Dr. CARROLL. It does not seem to me that that is a necessary reform, because the jury always retires for that purpose.

Judge AGUAYO. No; it does not seem to me necessary, either.

Dr. CARROLL. I don't see why the judges should not retire to consider what their verdict shall be. Do you distinguish in the Spanish law between a verdict and a sentence?

Judge AGUAYO. No. In our law the judge is a judge of fact and law, and makes the verdict and sentence in one. He judges about the facts and applies the law.

Dr. CARROLL. I think those functions ought to be made distinct. Under our system the jury makes up the verdict on the facts and the law is given by the judge. Then the judge, on the basis of the verdict, pronounces the sentence.

VARIOUS REFORMS.

STATEMENT OF ANTONIO SANCHEZ RUIZ.

AGUADA, P. R., *November 12, 1898.*

In my opinion the most important of existing laws is the Civil Code, which is a codification of all the laws of the class. On the other hand, the laws of civil and criminal procedure and the Penal Code appear somewhat deficient, judging by the questions which daily are brought before the tribunals, to which said laws are not adaptable. Not feeling myself competent to consider in detail each and every one of them, I will point out only article 42 of the Civil Code, which, while recognizing two forms of matrimony, the civil and canonical, makes it appear that the first form can be employed only by persons not professing the Catholic religion. The mere reading of this article shows that it trespasses on the liberty of worship. There is in force a circular from the audiencia to the justices ordering them not to perform the civil ceremony between contracting parties of the Catholic faith. This circular should be declared void and article 42 amended as follows:

Two forms of matrimony are recognized, civil and canonical; contracting parties, whether Catholics or non-Catholics, are free to choose either form.

In the law of civil procedure it is very necessary to shorten the period to the strictly necessary number of days for the notification of decisions, which decisions should be considered in force the day after notification. There should also be a prudent reduction in the appointed number of days allowed for appeal, and also in the proceedings of judicial sales by auction, in order to put a stop to delays prejudicial to litigants.

The extension of the jurisdiction of municipal judges to cover the hearing and decision of cases of eviction of tenants, even in cases of precarious property, also giving them the right to sit on cases not exceeding \$500 in dispute, is desirable.

In criminal procedure there should be a shortening of the time of detention from seventy-two to twenty-four hours, and of provisional imprisonment to the least possible time. The charge should be prepared promptly, so as not to deprive an innocent person of liberty for any length of time.

The amount of bond should be regulated in proportion to the crime, not leaving it to the caprice of judges, as this often causes great prejudice to the accused parties.

Let trial by jury be instituted as in other countries, and put an end to the "audiencias de lo criminal."

In the Penal Code, proceed to abolish the death penalty, and also that of perpetual imprisonment, as being incompatible with the American spirit of democracy.

SALARIES INSTEAD OF FEES.

STATEMENT OF JOSE M. ORTIZ.

MANUABO, P. R., *February 24, 1899.*

(1) Make committals to prison difficult; favor other classes of punishment in place thereof.

(2) Any person suing, or entering suit, to give bonds previously and in sufficient amount to enable him to be held responsible for the consequences of the suit in case it result adversely to him.

(3) Suppress or modify the present system of governmental proceedings, by which it frequently happens that only the testimony of persons wishing to injure the accused party is taken. The defense allowed the accused under this system is very rudimentary.

(4) Clear and widely published tariff of fees allowed to lawyers, notaries, doctors, engineers, registrars of real estate, etc., and the application of serious and quick correctives for those who charge more than legal rates.

(5) Suppression in San Juan, Ponce, and Mayaguez of oral trials for misdemeanors. These are very troublesome and prejudicial to persons of small means and annoying to persons of social standing, who are obliged to appear in public court to prosecute or defend, for which reason they prefer to leave unpunished many crimes and delinquencies, to the encouragement of thieves and bullies.

(6) The payment of a salary to municipal judges and their secretaries; their failure to receive any is the cause of the existing immorality, which is covered up.

(7) Lessening of the cost of citations, subpoenas, and judicial letters, and, above all, of the estimates for embargoes (attachments), so terribly ruinous for debtors. Many small debtors owe their ruin to this scandalous judicial procedure.

(8) Imprisonment for those who can not produce means to cover their due debts, unless they can show justifiable circumstances in excuse.

(9) Cheapen and simplify the costs and steps of mortgaging.

(10) Establishment of the right of divorce, with the right of remarriage, although both parties be living.

(11) Modification of the commercial code with respect to maritime traffic. In this particular shipowners and freighters are unduly favored, and importers are afforded but small protection.

REVISION OF METHODS OF PROCEDURE.

UTUADO, *January 17, 1899.*

Mr. FELIX SANTONI (lawyer). We think that the subject of laws should also have careful attention. We desire especially that the Penal Code should be revised. The Civil Code also requires some corrections; but as the Civil Code has been more or less an outcome of the wish of the people, we think that to a certain extent it should be respected. What is needed is a thorough revision of the methods of procedure, which under the Spanish Government were very badly applied. Good laws on the statute books are not alone sufficient. We need to have a good administration of them. Italy, which in my judgment has the finest set of laws of any nation, suffers more from bad administration in the legal sense than any other country, as the laws are not administered as they are written.

AS TO CORONERS.

STATEMENT OF DR. C. LOPEZ, OF FAJARDO.

It is very necessary to recognize the importance of the employment of doctors for coroners who can give their whole time to their official duties without having to spend any of it on other matters. In Porto Rico coroners are appointed only in San Juan, Ponce, and Mayaguez. In other points of the island doctors in private practice have to perform the important duties of coroner. Those named by the municipalities have no time to attend to such work as chemical analysis, expert testimony, etc., and it is anomalous for them to pretend that they are able to attend to other duties; but these doctors are frequently obliged to attend on the audiencias to give expert testimony, calling for journeys of 5 leagues to 15 leagues over bad roads, crossing swollen rivers, etc., so as not to fail of compliance with the official call under pain of being fined. The expenses of these journeys are not paid, nor are they indemnified in any way, and many times judgment is deferred for want of several witnesses, or for other causes, and the doctor has to return to his town to await a new citation. The fees set aside to compensate witnesses and doctors are \$4 for the first and \$16 for the second. These amounts are seldom paid, sometimes because they have not been claimed in time and frequently because the witnesses do not put in a claim, owing to the delay occasioned. In this latter instance there are always speculators who will buy up these claims for one-half of their value.

I myself have traveled from this city to the capital three times to give expert testimony, and I have not been able to collect a cent. The doctor has to hand in information and make the autopsy of deaths occurring in quarrels, by wounds, suicides, sudden deaths by lightning, poisoning, etc. This is very tedious work. In these cases the State pays \$17.50 for each post mortem, which sum it sometimes takes three or more years to collect. The last autopsies conducted in the island, for which about \$20,000 are owing, will never be paid, because the Spanish Government surrendered sovereignty, and all attempts to collect these amounts before they left the island were fruitless.

In cases of wounds and other matters calling for judicial attention the law requires two titular doctors to participate in the inquiry, and in the towns where there is only one he must call the nearest doctor. The fees received were only the actual out-of-pocket expenses of the journey at the rate of \$4 a league; that is to say, \$2 for the journey and \$2 for the return, and it was frequently necessary to wait six or more months if the municipality did not have the funds with which to make payments. This is the naked truth about what takes place with regard to titular doctors.

TRIAL OF SANTIAGO IGLESIA AND RAMON RIVERA ROSA.

The commissioner deems it advisable to present the court records of the trial of these two men, who are artisans and were engaged in helping on a strike when they were placed under arrest. The case is important as showing the Spanish method of trial and the Spanish policy toward labor, though it occurred under military rule.

NOTE.—This trial, in common with others coming within the province of the Penal Code, passed through two stages: The first (instrucción), preliminary investigating proceedings before the judge of instruction in San Juan, and the second (juicio oral), oral trial before the higher criminal court of the same city (audiencia), with a bench of three judges. As an insult to a Government official was, and still is, an offense under the Spanish law, which has not been repealed, it was only necessary to prove the authorship of the articles and that the judges should consider them insulting in order that the prosecuting attorney should win his case. Therefore the oral suit was not a court trial in our sense of the word. No witnesses were examined, and the attorneys presented their cases to the court in writing. As no shorthand notes are taken of court proceedings in Porto Rico, the "expedientes" filed as records of the trial contain only the official steps taken, attorneys' pleadings (reduced to five arguments and five rebuttals), and the verdict; that is to say, once the fact of the authorship and publication being brought home to the accused, the question was merely whether the bench thought that the law in question was applicable to the offense and whether the deed constituted such offense.

The "expediente" of the preliminary proceedings is a collection of papers numbering 48 pages, most of which are printed official forms filled in.

Title page: Names of both the accused, accusation, date, district, judge, etc.

Then follows the first page of *El Porvenir Social*, the paper of which Rosa was editor, and the matter of which constituted the offense. A brief summary of the matter is given herewith.

THE PERSECUTION OF SANTIAGO IGLESIAS CONTINUES.

As soon as I was informed that my intimate companion, S. Iglesias, had been sent for by the secretary of government. I went in haste to ascertain the cause of the call, and finding him in his house, questioned him, and here give the result in the form of an interview. At 4 o'clock Iglesias was in his house with several workmen friends, when a policeman arrived and informed him that Muñoz Rivera wished to see him. He went to the office of the secretary.

INTERVIEW.

MUÑOZ RIVERA. Tell me, is there a workman's club in Sol street, 62?

SANTIAGO IGLESIAS. The workmen have rented a house there with the object of forming an association.

M. R. I understand that your meetings are with the object of inciting the people to illegal acts.

S. I. That is untrue. They meet to defend labor and uphold the Government which came to Porto Rico to end despotism and robbery. Therefore, at our meetings we only attack the rogues who, under the Spanish Government, exploited us workmen.

M. R. Where is this club; and under what authority have you formed it; and do you hold meetings?

S. I. It is at 62 Sol street, and we meet under the guaranty of the great Republic, which allows liberty of association and protects the lawful, rich and poor alike.

M. R. You are a foreigner and have no right to mix in politics or the defense of any class. Under the Spaniards you were imprisoned and, owing to me, obtained your liberty, and I thought—

S. I. (To himself.) That is false. It was you who had me imprisoned, where you held me for seven months. You made General Marin believe that I was an anarchist and propagandist of assassination of the Spaniards, and you did the same with General Brooke.

M. R. —that on being released you would have other ideas. I counsel you to leave the country. I speak in the name of the military government, and if you don't you will have a bad time.

S. I. (Rising indignantly.) In order to defend the working classes I will swear allegiance to the United States, and will continue my labor as before. I shall not leave.

Then follow editorial comments occupying the whole page, in which both Iglesias and Rosa revile the Spanish Government, and accuse Muñoz, who was secretary at the time of the invasion, of continuing the old practices. Strong language is used, in which the words "thief" and similar terms occur.

Note from secretary of justice to judge of first instance saying that he had received the foregoing from Muñoz Rivera and asking that action be taken if it lie.

Note from judge citing the accused to appear.

Document establishing the authenticity of the newspaper and authorship of articles.

Written copy of articles and editorial comments.

Note from police informing of seizure of the edition and returning order authorizing same.

Document committing accused to imprisonment pending investigation, and printed documents of notification, seizure, receipt for prisoners, and usual prison formalities.

Subpoenas of witnesses (persons testifying that paper was edited by Rosa and published, etc.).

Note asking for penal antecedents of accused.

Reply that Rosa had been prosecuted for "disorderly conduct."

Document from judge stating that accused have no penal history bearing on the present case.

Document requisitioning baptismal certificates of accused for identification purposes.

Document from accused naming Manuel Rossy as their lawyer.

Index of documents and indorsement transmitting this summary to the audiencia for trial.

This ends the "sumario" before the judge of instruction.

AUDIENCIA.

Title page: Name of accused, date, names of judges, accusation, district, etc.

Letter from judge of instruction passing the case to the audiencia.

Order of the secretary of the court to bring the case to trial in conformity with the law of criminal procedure.

Order to pass the summary to prosecuting attorney for the period of five days.

Document setting day for trial.

Document from prosecuting attorney stating his case as follows:

1. That the articles published constitute an offense.
2. That S. Iglesias and R. Rivera Rosa are responsible for the articles.
3. That their publication constitutes an aggravation of the offense.
4. That each should be imprisoned for the term of four months and one day.
5. That the accused do not incur any civil responsibility. [i. e., damages can not be claimed by complainant.]

PROOFS OFFERED.

Confession of accused.

Documentary evidence: Copy of the paper produced; identification of accused by documents produced.

Document giving the lawyer for the defense five days in which to prepare rebuttal of above.

Document of Manuel Rossy, lawyer for the defense, in rebuttal.

1. Accepts the relation of facts as stated.
2. Denies that the articles constitute an offense.
3. Does not accept the pleading that his clients are responsible either civilly or criminally.
4. Denies that publication constituted an aggravation.
5. Accused should be acquitted without costs.

Sentence (16 written pages) in substance: It having been proved that the accused were the authors of the articles (written in full) and that they published them, and that in view of the prosecuting attorney's charge not having been refuted in court to the satisfaction of the bench, an offense against the secretary of government was committed according to article 265 of the code, and that the publication constituted an aggravation thereof, as tending to publicly discredit a government official, we condemn the accused to imprisonment for the term of four months and one day, suspension from the right of holding public office and loss of civil rights during that period, and the payment of half the costs. Imprisonment already suffered to be deducted from the term of the sentence. (Signed): José C. Hernandez, Rafael A. Nieto y Abeillé, Angel Acosta.

Indorsement of attorney stating that in view of the decree of amnesty of May 15, 1899, action is to be stopped in this matter.

THE MORTGAGE, NOTARIAL, AND REGISTRATION SYSTEMS.

DUTIES AND POWERS OF NOTARIES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 26, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. What are the duties and powers of a notary?

Mr. MAURICIO GUERRA (notary and lawyer). The formation of public documents between private parties, attending to legal interests, making all wills, and all extrajudicial business. The duties of a notary are to comply fully with his duties; to give bond for the faithful performance of those duties, so that should any discrepancies occur through carelessness or ignorance he can be held responsible.

Dr. CARROLL. How is a notary qualified for his work and how appointed?

Mr. GUERRA. By competitive examination, before competent persons—judges of the high court.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they give a diploma?

Mr. GUERRA. Notaries receive a diploma direct from the King of Spain. The college of examiners, which consists of all doctors of law, gives notice that an examination is to be held. All persons having university titles can apply for examination. One person is examined at a time before the board of examiners. They have 100 ballots, and they divide the subjects up into 10 and examine the candidates on the 10 subjects. If they pass in one subject they receive 10. At the end of the examination the candidate who has the greatest number of votes comes out ahead. A report of the examination is sent to Madrid, and the King issues a royal order conferring the title of notary on the person who has gained it. In order to be notary a person must first possess the title of abogado (lawyer). The abogado is a defending lawyer.

There are no distinct titles for civil and criminal lawyers. The duties of the notary lawyers include the searching of titles, drawing up of deeds, etc. They draw up, in fact, all kinds of documents; every kind of protest where it must be made formally and in writing, such as a protest on a bill of exchange. The number of notaries admitted to practice in each of the principal towns of the island is two. These were granted their title after undergoing a competitive examination, but were only admitted to practice on payment of a large fee to the Spanish Government, which fee gave them the right to practice for life, and excluded other notaries from practicing until a vacancy occurred in the ranks. My right to practice cost me \$17,000, and should the monopoly be abolished by the American Government this amount will be a total loss to me. The sum paid for this right constitutes an investment just as in the States when a man buys a seat in the stock exchange, which is transferable property. The notary here was allowed to offer a substitute for acceptance by the Government, and was paid by this substitute usually the sum which he had himself expended or a greater one, according to the value of his practice.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the function of a notary include the taking of affidavits?

Mr. GUERRA. If you wish to take an original affidavit you can do so before the notary; but for affidavits connected with legal work you have to take it before the audiencia.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there fees established by law for the various kinds of work for the notary?

Mr. GUERRA. Yes. On deeds drawn which can be valued it is so much per cent of the value of the deed. It is 80 cents for every \$1,000 up to \$10,000. In deeds that can not be valued it is \$3 per sheet of document. It is the same in the case of contracts. If the notary must leave his house and go outside the limits of the capital, he receives \$4 a sheet additional.

Dr. CARROLL. Are deeds recorded in full in the registers?

Mr. GUERRA. The original of the deed remains in the power and possession of the notary. It is the copy which is registered.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it simply filed or is it written out in the book.

Mr. GUERRA. Only the extract is copied into the book, including the name of the persons authorizing the document, the amount in question, the name of the notary who drew up the document, and other essential points. In case the copy is lost a further copy can be given at any time from the original in the notary's possession. This only applies in the case of immovable property, such as real estate. The copies are made on stamped paper and are called testimonies.

Dr. CARROLL. From what causes do titles to real estate become clouded?

Mr. GUERRA. When once the title is registered, it can become defective by using fraud.

Dr. CARROLL. What about the use of stamped paper for documents?

Mr. GUERRA. They have to be made on stamped paper. Since stamped paper and royal taxes were established here transactions involving notarial work have diminished greatly, as people do not want to incur heavy expenses. These royal taxes are dues paid to the Crown on transfers of property by one party to another.

NOTARIAL REFORMS.

STATEMENT OF VENTURA RIVAS.

So as to better the public service of notarial matters, it is necessary to establish at least two notarial offices in the head towns of districts, such as Utuado, Arecibo, Humacao, and others of the island of importance, as at present exist in Ponce, Mayaguez, and the capital. The number of inhabitants of each of these districts makes this necessary, and the public would be saved two sources of injury—one, the delay in the drawing of deeds, especially when the only practicing notary is absent and the supplementary notary, who usually lives at a distance and has to leave his own office and the affairs of his clients in suspense, must be waited for; and, secondly, to correct the monopoly caused by having one notary only, who is thus wont to charge higher fees than permitted by the tariff, high enough already in some of its items. The change would assure to the public dispatch in the service and moderation in the fees.

It is necessary, therefore, for the welfare of the public, and especially the owners of property, the persons who mostly pay notaries' fees, that notarial freedom be extended and that new posts be filled by persons showing the proper diplomas and having more than ten years' practice as protocolists, giving preference to those who have practiced with notarial lawyers, as to-day in the island more than half of the notaries have no other title than of the old-time escribanos, with the experience they have since gained, and being confirmed in their positions when the notarial college of Porto Rico was created.

These reforms would facilitate the entering into contracts, somewhat restricted formerly also by the high price of stamped paper and royal dues and notarial and registrars' dues, now abolished.

It should also be noted that Utuado, having been transferred to the judicial district of Lares, Adjuntas, and Ciales, a new notarial district including these places has sprung into existence according to law, and therefore this city should be provided with a registry of property. This concession was granted by the insular cabinet during the last days of Spanish domination, it being incongruous that notarial deeds drawn in Utuado, Adjuntas, Ciales, and Lares should continue being registered in the registries of Arecibo, Ponce, and Aguadilla, which are situated in different judicial districts. With regard to Arecibo, it is hereby stated that in virtue of steps taken by the notary of that place before the Spanish Government the notariats of Camuy and Hatillo have been included in his office, while a separate office should exist in each place.

It is confidently expected that the Government in Washington will be pleased to favor the general interests of the country by instituting the reforms named, as, although the notaries now established may suffer somewhat pecuniarily, the general welfare is above the good of a few.

UTUADO, P. R., *January 16, 1899.*

REGISTRATION OF PROPERTY.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN GERMAN, P. R., *January 26, 1899.*

JOAQUIN SERVERA SILVA, registrar and abogado:

DR. CARROLL. Now, I would like to ask you a few questions with regard to registration. I would like, if you please, an outline of the system of registration.

MR. SILVA. It is the way to acquire a legal right against a third party. If a man should sell property to one person and the day afterwards sell it again to a second person, if the first sale should not be registered and the second sale should be, the second sale would hold good, but without prejudice against the first person to proceed against the seller civilly and criminally. The character of the register is twofold. It is public and special. It is public in the sense that it is open to everybody. Anybody who wants to find the condition of another man's property can examine the register. It is special in the sense that a man who wishes to lend money to another man on property which the borrower says he has no sort of mortgage or lien, by means of the register he can find out whether mortgages have been filed on that property at any previous date. It is special in the sense that whereas old mortgages were granted generally on a man's whole property without specifying what property it referred to, now mortgages have to cite specially what house or what field or what portion of a man's property they affect. The act of registration in Porto Rico is a very important one, for when once the registrar has given inscription to a document brought to him for registration it is not contestable except by a court of law.

DR. CARROLL. Then does the registrar regard it as a part of his duty to see that a mortgage which has been inscribed is the sole mortgage or is not interfered with by any other mortgage?

Mr. SILVA. He is responsible for the legality of the title that he inscribes. He can take three steps—refuse inscription, put it off until further examination has warranted it, or inscribe it as it is. He is held responsible for it after inscription is made.

Dr. CARROLL. That is very different from the American system. Mortgages and deeds may be inscribed at the county clerk's office which may prove afterwards to have no value in law. It is for the purchaser there to ascertain, through an examiner, whether the property he is purchasing he gets by a good and valid title. Does this provision as to the law of registration requiring you to satisfy yourself that the document offered is a valid document not often give rise to great delay in transfers of title from one person to another?

Mr. SILVA. The hypothecary law requires the registrar to say within fifteen days whether he will or will not inscribe the property.

Dr. CARROLL. It has been stated to this commission that sometimes when a document is offered for registration the registrar raises questions as to defects in the instrument and says that they must be corrected, but that he will undertake to correct them on payment of a fee, it being an abuse of the law.

Mr. SILVA. That grows out of the fact that the hypothecary law gives the registrar the right to practice as a lawyer also, and he takes advantage of his position as a lawyer to settle such questions.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that not regarded as an abuse of the law of registration?

Mr. SILVA. That has its pros and cons. In a great many instances registrars have invented defects so as to be able to remedy them in their own way.

Dr. CARROLL. I understand that in registering a document, as a deed or a will or a mortgage or a lien, you don't spread the document in full upon the pages of your records, but only a part of it.

Mr. SILVA. They don't make a transcription, but an inscription. They only attend to certain points which the hypothecary law has made necessary.

Dr. CARROLL. In the United States they spread the whole document, whatever it may be, upon the records in full. Therefore in case a deed is lost a record of it will be at the county clerk's office.

Mr. SILVA. That is the notary's business. The notary who draws up the deed, and is present at the signing of it, has to keep the original. The document going to the party interested is therefore only a copy.

Dr. CARROLL. What fees are allowed to be charged by law for registry?

Mr. SILVA. There is a legal tariff for the mere inscription, not for the judging as to the validity of the inscription. The law also allows charges for searching the documents in the registrar's office.

Dr. CARROLL. Has most of the property in the district of San German been registered?

Mr. SILVA. I have not been here a long time, but I think there is much of it still unregistered.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the theory of the law regarding property rights where the property is unregistered? Is it that the man in possession has a right to be in possession unless proof from records is given to the contrary?

Mr. SILVA. When a person in possession of property which has not been inscribed or to which he has no documentary title wishes to inscribe it he applies to the judge for what is called a document of

possession. The judge gets all the evidence on the question that he can, witnesses are examined, and on this testimony a document is issued, and the person declared in the document to be the owner can then apply for inscription.

Dr. CARROLL. A person in possession of property can not be ousted, I suppose, unless proof from records is given that he is not the real owner?

Mr. SILVA. You can not remove anybody unless the person seeking to oust the one in possession has a better title. The person in possession is presumed to be the owner.

Dr. CARROLL. How is public property held? This building, belonging to the municipality of San German—is it inscribed in the register?

Mr. ACOSTA. I think this particular house has been.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that true also of the cemeteries?

Mr. SILVA. No; they are not inscribed.

Dr. CARROLL. Are church titles usually inscribed also?

Mr. SILVA. No; I know of no case where it is.

Dr. CARROLL. It is understood that the church building is the property of the church, is it not, or the property of the municipality?

Mr. SILVA. It is understood that the churches belong to the parish as a religious body.

Dr. CARROLL. The ground was contributed, I suppose, by the city; the furniture by private persons.

Mr. ACOSTA. We have a hospital here which was built and given by the people. And the church has property; it has its own property.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it a matter of record that the hospital belongs to the municipality?

Mr. ACOSTA. The archives will be found to contain evidence that the donations were given with that view by the people of the town. Mr. Quiñones's family made large presents to San German.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. Under the old administration, the clergy had the right of administering all charities, and they are trying to establish their right now to such administration, but not to the property as property. No doubt the hospital belongs to the poor people, as it was given to them; but the church, which tries to invade all rights, has tried to invade the right of administering the hospital.

FEES FOR REGISTRATION OF PROPERTY.

Summary by Señor Joaquín Servera Silva, registrar of San German.

	Pesos.
1. For the examination, recording presentation, marginal notes, or footnotes of any title of five estates or less, whose inscription, annotation, or marginal note may be solicited, excepting cancellations, and considering as one title the document or documents which may call for a record of presentation	0.75
2. If more than five properties are referred to, the following scale will be observed:	
From 6 to 10	1.00
From 11 to 20	1.50
From 21 to 30	2.00
From 31 to 50	2.50
When this number is exceeded, the first 50 shall be charged as per above scale; for all above 50 estates worth 300 pesos or more, 5 cents each; those worth less, 2 cents each.	
3. When the title to be examined by the registrar exceeds 50 folios, each folio in excess	.02
4. When the value of the property or rights referred to in the title do not amount to 300 pesos, no matter what number of folios, properties, or rights referred to	.25

CANCELLATIONS.

	Pesos
5. For all operations of any class presented for cancellation or redemption of mortgages, censos, or royal dues, including the entry of presentation, and marginal notes for each estate:	
If the estate or equity be of less value than 300 pesos.....	3.00
From 300 to 1,000.....	2.50
From 1,000 up.....	3.75
If the cancellation be refused or suspended, the previous numbers of the tariff shall be charged.	

SPECIAL NOTES, INSCRIPTION, AND ANNOTATION.

6. When the presentation does not call for inscription or annotation, but for marginal notes in the old or new registry, for each one.....	50
For each note comprehended in article 24 of the respective laws, the same sum.	

* * * * *

MANIFESTATIONS OF ENTRY, CERTIFICATIONS, AND SEARCHING TITLES.

8. For manifestation of registry, for each property of whatever value.....	50
9. For the first page of literal certification (inscription), without reference to the value of the property or equities referred to.....	1.00
10. For successive pages, one-half of the last fee.	
11. For each entry of which a certified copy is granted:	
Estates of less than 300 pesos value.....	75
Estates value of 300 pesos or more.....	1.00
For the relation in one certificate, although more than one property be referred to, only one charge shall be made.	
12. When certificates contain statements or references that no entry of a determined class of estates or royal dues exist:	
Each estate or right of less than 300 pesos.....	35
Each estate 300 pesos or more.....	50
* * * * *	
14. For search in the old or new registry for personages, without reference to estates or rights for each person or year.....	10

GENERAL RULES.

(1) In order to determine the fees, the value of estates is considered to be the amount they are transferred for plus the amount of the mortgage when this latter subsists.

(2) The value of censos, pensions, or other liens of perpetual, temporary, or redeemable nature shall not be added to the price of transfer.

(3) When this is effected under lucrative title it is understood that the value of the estate be diminished by the amount of the liens of any nature which may bear on it.

(4) With respect to the right of usufruct, use, and habitation, the value is considered as one-fourth of the estate, and with respect to new proprietorship, three-fourths of same.

(5) The collection of fees for contracts of renting shall be based on the amount to be paid for the whole period of the contract. If no period is mentioned, twelve yearly payments shall be taken as a basis.

(6) For the guidance of fees for inscription or annotation or marginal notes of service (slave), 5 per cent of the price denominated.

(7) So that the registrar may graduate his fees to conform to this tariff he must charge according to these headings, but may take advantage of the rights conceded him under article 461 of the Hypothecary Law and Rules of Cuba, and 440 of Porto Rico, not collecting when the title's liens are mentioned, which are exempt from fees. When the title does not mention the value of an estate, the registrar shall require the party presenting it to name the value on a slip of unstamped paper, which shall be filed in the office. Should he refuse to do so, the registrar may collect under the maximum scale, or any he chooses.

(8) When for the purpose of fixing the value of any estate or equity or royal due to be transferred it may be necessary to compute any lien affecting it or any other property whose special responsibility therefor be not determined, a note on

unstamped paper must be presented, detailing all the properties subject to the lien and the value of each one of them, so that the registrar may compute what amount of the lien corresponds to each, so that the one wishing inscription may bear his pro rata share.

(9) Registrars should receive no fees whatsoever, unless the person paying be given a receipt in detail, corresponding to the stub to be kept in the office, which must be signed by said party. If unable to write, a witness may sign for him at his request.

LAW OF FORECLOSURE OF MORTGAGES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

UTUADO, P. R., *January 17, 1899.*

MR. FELIX SANTONI:

Dr. CARROLL. I shall be glad to have from you a full explanation of the law respecting the foreclosure of mortgages, how it is done, how long it takes, and the whole method of procedure.

Mr. SANTONI. There are two ways of foreclosing a mortgage, namely, the proceeding which is called the executive proceeding and another special proceeding which is governed by the hypothecary law. Nearly everyone who brings an action prefers to proceed under the latter. The proceedings consist of presenting the application to the judge according to forms prescribed by the law, accompanied by a copy of the mortgage as it exists in the civil registry. The judge thereupon issues an order to the debtor directing that he must pay the amount of the mortgage debt within thirty days, or in default that his property will be subjected to sale by public auction.

If the debtor does not pay the estate is put up at public auction, pursuant to the direction of the judge, and the sale takes place with a view to realizing from it the amount of the debt. If at the first auction sale an offer is made for two-thirds of the set price that is advertised in the Official Gazette, the estate is adjudged to the person making the bid.

Dr. CARROLL. Then the amount of the debt is not the minimum amount of the sale?

Mr. SANTONI. The knockdown price is determined by a representative of the debtor and a representative of the creditor; but if in the first auction sale there are no bidders, another sale is had, and the price is lowered until they get some one to bid. They take off 25 per cent of the amount agreed upon by these representatives of the debtor and the creditor after each order for a resale. That is, if when the property is put up at auction there is no bid to the amount of two-thirds of the agreed figure, they take off 25 per cent from the amount, and put it up again at that price. Upon the payment of the mortgage, the debtor has to see that the debt is canceled in the civil registry. If he fails to do this an action still lies against him, and he is liable to have the estate put up at auction, although he could bring, in such a case, a criminal action against the creditor.

Dr. CARROLL. When the estate is sold for less than the debt, and the amount is turned over to the creditor, is that considered a satisfaction of the debt, so that the creditor can not proceed against other property?

Mr. SANTONI. The debtor still has the right of action for the balance, under the law of mortgage.

Dr. CARROLL. Have creditors been in the habit here of worrying debtors by the power they possess?

Mr. SANTONI. Yes. There are now a great many processes on foot.

Dr. CARROLL. Merchants and bankers claim that they have lost a great deal by lending money to agriculturists.

Mr. SANTONI. Commerce here has always had its own way, and if they have lost anything they are to blame. The agriculturist sends his crops to the merchant, who will not fix the price at once if he thinks prices are going to fall. Otherwise he fixes the price at once.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there an office here for the registration of titles?

Mr. SANTONI. The island is divided into different districts for registration purposes. This town registers in Arecibo. There are other towns in this judicial district which have their place for registration. Adjuntas, for instance, registers in Ponce.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it convenient to have those offices distributed in that way? Would it not be convenient to have one here?

Mr. SANTONI. If it were possible to realize what we were talking of last night, municipal autonomy, it would be possible to have one in every municipality.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it costly to register property?

Mr. SANTONI. The present rate is sufficiently high. The registrars receive no salary, but collect fees for registration.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it not be better to allow a salary instead of fees, to prevent the abuse of the law?

Mr. SANTONI. It would be much better.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you have much litigation over titles?

Mr. SANTONI. No; very little. The civil courts here are mostly taken up with commercial questions.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the proceeding in will cases here, where a man leaves a will for the distribution of his property?

Mr. SANTONI. If there is a simple will in which a father constitutes his wife or sons owner of the property, all that is necessary to do is to register that will in the civil register, and that constitutes them owners of the property. If there is any difficulty over a will, the question usually becomes a source of long litigation.

Dr. CARROLL. How is a will proved to be the last will and testament of the deceased?

Mr. SANTONI. The registrar requires that the documents proving the birth and death of the person shall accompany the will.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there witnesses to the signature to the will?

Mr. SANTONI. I have been speaking on the supposition that the will is made by a notary. The will is proved by the notarial stamp.

FORECLOSING ON RURAL ESTATES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

UTUADO, P. R., January 17, 1899.

Mr. FRANCISCO PLÁ Y TORT. I am a coffee planter and a Spaniard. My estate is at Santa Isabel.

Dr. CARROLL. How large a plantation is it?

Mr. PLÁ. Four hundred acres, with a production of 300 quintals of coffee. I owe between sixteen and eighteen thousand dollars. My estate is worth from thirty to fifty thousand dollars. I pay 12 per cent per annum interest. A portion of this debt falls due this year and the rest next year.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it all in one mortgage?

Mr. PLÁ. I owe two different people. One part of the money is due already. One of my creditors has already begun proceedings against me and has put an attachment on the property, including some which is not my own.

Dr. CARROLL. For what reason?

Mr. PLÁ. Because he fears that, owing to the critical times through which we are passing, I will not be able to pay the money I owe.

Dr. CARROLL. Does he propose to sell your crop at once?

Mr. PLÁ. His idea is to put it up at auction.

Dr. CARROLL. At once?

Mr. PLÁ. He will have to go through certain legal forms first. The attachment is the first step.

Dr. CARROLL. Do your creditors propose to liquidate and get out of the country?

Mr. PLÁ. I am not in a position to tell you that with certainty.

The ALCALDE. That is the general opinion here.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you kept the interest paid?

Mr. PLÁ. I have paid my interest regularly every year. I have almost killed myself trying to meet my debts.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you pay once a year?

Mr. PLÁ. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you appealed to the creditor to give you accommodation until you shall have an opportunity to get the money elsewhere or to pay it off?

Mr. PLÁ. Yes; but he will not listen to me.

(Mr. Plá produced a letter from another creditor telling him that if he did not pay at once he would foreclose one of the mortgages, as their own debts (those of the creditor firm) have to be attended to, and they could sell his estate to one of their neighbors.)

Dr. CARROLL. How can they proceed, when the mortgage is not yet due?

Mr. PLÁ. One of the payments has fallen due, but not the whole of it. I have written to them telling them that I am trying to get together 20 or 25 quintals of coffee to pay off a part of the debt.

Dr. CARROLL. How much time do you need in order to be able to save yourself from foreclosure?

Mr. PLÁ. To pay off my debts I want at least six years.

The ALCALDE. A year ought to enable you to look around to find a banker to take up these obligations.

Dr. CARROLL. If an order were issued postponing the bringing of these actions, it would be an extraordinary remedy, and the question is for what time it would be necessary to postpone these mortgage proceedings.

The ALCALDE. What we have to do is this: We will have to get our estates valued by experts, and then send to the United States to interest the capitalists in our property. We have more than sufficient property to guarantee the money covered by these debts. I think it would be necessary to postpone proceedings a year.

Dr. CARROLL. It is a serious question whether the cessation of foreclosure proceedings for the term of one year should be ordered.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. Then grant it for six months. The Spanish Government itself had granted a year just before the war, recognizing the gravity of the situation.

Dr. CARROLL. In these same cases or in others?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. As soon as war was declared the Spanish

Government gave that period, but when the Americans came in the order was recalled.

Dr. CARROLL. Was that order recalled at the time of the American occupation or just before?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. The Spanish Government before withdrawing its forces annulled the decree and let the creditors loose, because they are their own people.

The ALCALDE. I will give you my own case. I am a merchant and an agriculturist and owe \$16,000. My debtors owe me more than \$25,000. The same crisis which attacks everybody has prevented these debtors from paying me. I have not cared to take advantage of my right to foreclose on the mortgages I hold, as I might do under the law, because I know the people are not in a position to pay. I have a property of 300 acres which at a very low valuation is worth \$30,000. To-day I am in a serious position for want of \$5,000 which has fallen due, a part of the debt. Therefore, I, who have property worth more than \$60,000, may find myself in a ruined position for want of \$5,000. If I had brought my debtors to the courts I could have collected from them by a forced sale of their properties, but I should have ruined them in so doing, and I would not do that.

Dr. CARROLL. What rate of interest do you pay?

The ALCALDE. Twelve per cent per annum. I pay the bank 9 per cent. The 12 per cent I am paying to merchants here.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the crisis of which you speak that has caused this difficulty?

The ALCALDE. The war has brought about the crisis. The larger merchants have closed our credits completely. The wholesale merchants are desiring to liquidate with a view of leaving the country.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you had just as good crops as usual?

The ALCALDE. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. And they bring the same price?

The ALCALDE. No; prices are only half as high.

Dr. CARROLL. Is this same state of affairs true among the sugar planters?

The ALCALDE. The same thing.

Dr. CARROLL. They said nothing about it at Arecibo. I ask the question because I want to know how general this condition may be.

The ALCALDE. Arecibo is the town that is pressing Utuado. It is the center of capital for this region. The house of Rosas, which owes everything it has to the district of Utuado, has sent around notices stating that it is liquidating, and demanding payment of all outstanding debts.

Mr. BARTHOLOME MAYOL. They are actually putting under the hammer an estate worth \$107,000 for a debt amounting to \$27,000. I have 600 acres of land. This estate owes \$27,000 only on mortgage. Besides this, they are selling other property of mine—my mercantile house on which they hold a second mortgage, and which will probably be sold for a very small part of its value. These proceedings have already had the effect of stopping my credit with other mercantile houses with which I have been doing business. I am in the same position as the alcalde. I am owed more than \$60,000. All my debtors wish to pay me in land, but my creditors won't accept payment in that form, so that it would be no object for me to force my debtors. I think that with the year of extension of time for which we ask I should be able to find some financial institution that would help me out, because I have a large margin of guaranty to give for any loan they might make.

Dr. CARROLL. Is this condition general among the plantations of this district?

Mr. MAYOL. The condition is quite general. Four or five years ago this district was very far behindhand, but great impulse has been given in the years since then, and property has been made on borrowed money. I know of an estate here worth \$90,000 that is being sold for a debt of sixteen or eighteen thousand dollars.

Mr. SOSTENIO CATALÓN. I have an estate which is worth \$60,000, and for which I was offered that amount a few years ago in cash. It consists of 180 acres all planted in coffee, and produces from 500 to 600 quintals. There are improvements on it in the shape of buildings, etc., of the value of \$10,000. They have put an attachment on my property for \$1,000 which I owe.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that all you owe?

Mr. CATALÓN. I owe about \$8,000, but I should have got enough from my estate this year to pay all my debts, covering everything. If things continue normally as they are now, I could collect everything in a short time.

Dr. CARROLL. Would your creditor not accept coffee in payment?

Mr. CATALÓN. He would not accept anything. He has commenced attachment proceedings, and it is the kind which is called without contemplation—that is, they won't contemplate any other course. The creditor is Juan Piza, at San Juan.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you anything further to say?

Mr. CATALÓN. I wish to have the judicial proceedings held over a while so as to give me a little time in which to turn around.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you been threatened before within a year with these proceedings?

Mr. CATALÓN. I have never before had to be asked for the payment of my debts. I have paid everything with the greatest faithfulness, and this has come to me with great suddenness. During the eighteen or twenty years I have been in this district I have never had my name in the judge's office for any sort of delay in payment, or, in fact, for any cause whatever.

The ALCALDE. A representative of the house of Eduardo Rosa has come down here to-day from Arecibo and said to three of his debtors: "I understand you are working for the suspension of judicial proceedings. I have a proposition to make. I will give you an extension of time if you will agree to pay me all in legal coin, in the money current at the time of payment, dollar for dollar. If you do not, I will institute proceedings against you, and as your obligations to me fall due before any steps can be taken by the American Government, you see I am master of the situation." He also said, "My conscience does not prick me at all in proffering this arrangement for the payment in money current at the time the extended obligation would accrue, because I have been to the priest and consulted him, and he has told me that I would be acting entirely within my rights in making the proposition."

Mr. FELIX SIEJO (vice-mayor and coffee planter). I wish that you would appeal to President McKinley to allow the cessation of judicial proceedings on mortgages for, say, one year, in order to enable the country to get out of the crisis into which recent events have thrown it. It frequently happens, for instance, that an agriculturist with an

estate worth \$16,000 owes, say, \$2,000, and for want of ability to find that amount of money he is in danger of losing his estate. We have no doubt that foreign capital will soon come in and advance us money which will enable us to get a fresh start. The money would be safely invested, for, aside from the security which the lender would have in the estates here, no Porto Rican desires to keep anything which does not belong to him. The only thing that the country asks for just now is that it be granted a small measure of protection, and with some consideration, too, shown toward it. We ask nothing else. This is a rich country and has immense wealth, and if given an opportunity we will be sure to win prosperity.

Mr. ANTONIO QUINONES, of Rio Bajo, municipal district of Utuado. I am a coffee planter and have an estate which is worth from forty to forty-five thousand dollars. I owe about \$5,000. My creditors are trying to get my estate from me. This has obliged me to present a petition to the judge asking for time. In my district there are a great many who are in the same position as myself. Therefore I beg, if it is possible, that we may be assisted by a grant of time, as we all wish to pay our debts, but do not wish to have our estates wrested from us by our creditors.

Dr. CARROLL. What time do you think would be necessary? Would a year be sufficient?

Mr. QUINONES. We want more if we can get it, because this year has been a particularly bad one, and we have not been able to attend to our estates for want of credit. We have to pay cash for everything we get now, and we don't expect to realize very much from the crops.

Dr. CARROLL. How much interest do you have to pay for the money you have borrowed?

Mr. QUINONES. Eighteen per cent. That has caused the ruin of the country. Provisions are high, coffee is low, we have no credit, and the agriculturists are therefore in a hole.

Dr. CARROLL. This gentleman who has just testified says he has applied to the court for leave to suspend foreclosure proceedings, and I wish to inquire if there is a law that gives a judge the power to suspend?

Mr. FELIX SANTONI. Yes; but the judge only enters into the matter in this sense: This man has called a meeting of his creditors, and if three-fourths of the creditors, representing four-fifths of his debt, consent to give him an extension, the others are obliged by the law to enter into the arrangement also, and then it is drawn up before the notary and becomes a debt of extension.

Dr. CARROLL. But that affords but a small margin of escape?

Mr. SANTONI. If he can not dispose of the big amount of the debt, there is no use calling together the creditors.

Dr. CARROLL. I want to ask also if there is any right to redeem property which has been sold under mortgage provided the debtor is ready to pay the money in cash?

Mr. SANTONI. No; when once the public auction has been held and the creditor has obtained the property, his title is a clear one and he can sell it to anyone he wants. If the holders of mortgages should take part in the proceedings before the judge in a meeting of the creditors of the kind which you have referred to, they become parties of the proceedings, but they do not have to attend the meeting in the first instance. There is no law to compel them to do so.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any means of prolonging the action?

Mr. SANTONI. The debtor has no hearing at all in the proceedings. As you may recall, I told you there were two ways of collecting, one by judicial proceeding and the other under the hypothecary law. If they proceed by the judicial or executive method, there are several delays which can be taken advantage of, but not of the other method of procedure.

Dr. CARROLL. Who has the option? I presume the creditor.

Mr. SANTONI. Yes; the creditor has the option.

Mr. CASALDUC. Commerce here is altogether in the hands of the Spaniards, and they are attacking agricultural interests, as they are closing up their accounts to retire their capital in the country. They are attacking the agricultural interests, and from now on are charging agriculturists 18 per cent on what they are carrying; that is, they close up their accounts, and in cases where there is a balance they are charging 18 per cent on the balance. Most agriculturists have paid their debt over and over again in interest, but as the interest continues running they never get free. There are only two ways of saving the country. One is the immediate institution of banking corporations and the other an order giving the right to suspend payments on mortgages for a time.

Dr. CARROLL. How much time do you regard as necessary?

Mr. CASALDUC. I don't owe any money. The agriculturists want four or five years to get clear.

Dr. CARROLL. I don't think you understand me. I refer to the length of the time for suspending foreclosure of mortgages.

Mr. CASALDUC. I think a couple of years would be required. The reason I say two years is because I don't think a definite civil government for the island will be settled on before that time, nor that banks will be here before the civil government is established.

Mr. LUCAS AMADEO. The law of Porto Rico as to mortgages is bad, owing to the want of knowledge on the part of the persons who framed it. We have assimilated laws from other countries which, though good in those countries, were not adapted to conditions existing here. Those laws could be implanted in crystallized countries, where property has a fixed and known value, which it has not here. In Germany, for instance, or France, property has a fixed value, and always has a purchaser for a price slightly less than its value. But such is not the case here. Such a condition assists the commercial life of a country, because it quickens transactions and enlarges credit and increases the amount of capital, for a man knowing that he can realize immediately on his property will buy more. In Brazil they have stretched the matter so far that it is almost impossible to enforce the collection of a mortgage, and that is what has given stability to the wealth of Brazil.

Dr. CARROLL. But I should think they would have to pay more interest on their money in such cases.

Mr. AMADEO. That is not so, because when a country has money the rate is forced down by the competition between the money lenders.

Dr. CARROLL. Yes; but if a man can not collect his money it increases the risk in lending it.

Mr. AMADEO. I have seen an estate situated about ten minutes' walk from Ponce, worth a million dollars, change hands in a crisis for lack of 20,000 pesos. This is a frequent occurrence.

Mr. SEIJO. I will cite an instance of how the present crisis is affecting values here. A few months ago we had an offer for an estate for \$50,000 cash. To-day the owner can not get \$30,000 for it on terms.

Mr. AMADEO. That is not a condition peculiar to this country. It has occurred in every country where there has been a want of ready money. For that reason to-day in all new colonizing schemes the banker always accompanies the frontiersmen. Instead of the chaplain, which the old colonizing parties took with them, they take now the banker. They may not leave the chaplain behind, but they do not regard him as so important.

SELLING OUT PLANTERS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

AGUADILLA, P. R., *January 21, 1899.*

Mr. ADRIAN DEL VALLE. As regards agriculture, the creation of agricultural banks is very necessary. Agriculturists have no money to attend to the cultivation of their crops. They have to come to the merchants for that money, and then it is given at high rates of interest. They have to bind themselves to sell at less than the market value, even to obtain money on these unfavorable terms.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there much distress among the agriculturists?

Mr. DEL VALLE. Quite a great deal. They have nowhere to go to obtain money to continue sowing their crops, and in this district especially, where large sugar crops used to be raised, they have had to abandon raising cane for want of funds.

Dr. CARROLL. Are any of the planters suffering from proceedings in the foreclosure of mortgages?

Mr. DEL VALLE. We, as merchants, besides other merchants in this part of the island, have really had to abstain from advancing money to agriculturists because we were losing money. We saw that the thing could not continue. I mean that the credit system has been discontinued.

Dr. CARROLL. So there is no credit now extended to the agriculturist?

Mr. DEL VALLE. Little by little the people have been losing their estates. They have not been able to pay their taxes this year. They have had a small portion of their property sold off. Next year they will have another part sold; and so their estates will disappear, as some have already, and the merchants, seeing the bad condition of things, have had to stop their credits. Quite a common thing here is the system of bossism. The boss would get together with the mayor, and they would arrange to sell a man out whose estate was worth \$200 an acre for something like \$8 an acre, and the boss, who was always a Spaniard, would divide up with the mayor.

Dr. CARROLL. Are any foreclosure proceedings now on foot owing to merchants going out of business?

Mr. DEL VALLE. I have heard, especially in Arecibo, that some houses there wish to increase the misery of the situation and are making use of these proceedings. There are some Spaniards who, with the knowledge of their former bad conduct, knowing that they have made their capital by illegal methods, are frightened, and they are making efforts to obtain their money and get out of the country.

INTEREST ON MORTGAGES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

AGUADILLA, P. R., *January 21, 1899.*

Dr. CASSELDUC, mayor of Aguadilla:

Dr. CARROLL. Is there much distress here among plantation owners from foreclosure proceedings?

Dr. CASSELDUC. Yes, a great deal, because they can not get money. Anybody who would come here with money, I think, could double it in four or six years. In the States you can get money at 3 per cent annually, and here you can get as high sometimes as 20 and 25 per cent.

Dr. CARROLL. I don't see how they can pay so high an interest here and thrive. I believe the bank rate is about 9 per cent.

Dr. CASSELDUC. Yes, with security, and they can not get all they want from the bank at that; but the low price of coffee is going to ruin the island. Instead of selling for 25 and 30 pesos a quintal, they get only about 14 or 15 pesos. In Paris you have to pay as much for Porto Rican coffee as for Mocha. Our second-class coffee used to go to Cuba, but we have lost that market. Our better grades go to Europe, principally to Italy. We have great wealth here in this island, represented by bananas, pineapples, oranges. They grow wild.

SUSPENSION OF THE LAW OF FORECLOSURE.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *March 10, 1899.*

Mr. GUZMAN BENITEZ. We have seen in the Gazette an order prohibiting the sale of real estate to prevent the defaulting of creditors. This is the consequence of another order issued, formerly suspending the right of judicial proceedings for the foreclosure of mortgages. I want to suggest, respectfully, that the first order was issued in an unpremeditated way, but the second order, which is intended to remedy it, is a worse evil. This order impedes contracts of every description. The right of property holders is blocked by the order and nobody cares to buy. Merchants can not make any transactions, lawyers have no work, and the order puts an end to real-estate business in general.

Dr. CARROLL. What objection have you against the order for the suspension of the foreclosure of mortgages?

Mr. BENITEZ. I have a great objection, namely, that agriculture in the island has been killed by means of supplies and loans from merchants. Merchants have given credit to agriculturists under the only guaranty which they can obtain in the island, that of mortgage. Merchants on their part have liabilities to attend to the payment of their bills in the United States and Europe, bills which never exceed ninety days in point of time. If a merchant can not collect his debt before the year from the agriculturist, he must necessarily fail.

Dr. CARROLL. But this order does not apply to contracts or ordinary transactions of a commercial character, but to the lending of money on mortgage.

Mr. BENITEZ. Yes; but every mercantile transaction to-day in

which credit forms a part has necessarily to be guaranteed by mortgage.

Dr. CARROLL. Advantage was being taken of the summary method of foreclosure by merchants and bankers who were liquidating their business in Porto Rico in order to withdraw and enjoy the proceeds in foreign lands, and a great many estates were threatened with being taken away from their owners at a very small part of their value. Of course a forced sale now is a sacrifice, because there are few persons here in a position to buy, and if you ruin the agricultural interests you ruin the prosperity of the island.

Mr. BENITEZ. Yes; I think the order was conceived in a spirit of justice. It is founded on eminently political and just social bases, but I think the mistake has been to leave in the hands of the debtors the crop of last year and the crop of the coming year, whereas this crop should have been turned over to the creditors.

Dr. CARROLL. If they don't pay their interest you can foreclose the mortgage.

Mr. BENITEZ. The order only says you can embargo or put a lien on the property.

Dr. CARROLL. No. The law suspending proceedings only applies where interest is kept paid up. After the original was issued there was a supplementary order also.

Mr. BENITEZ. As everybody does not get the Gazette, some of us have been badly informed. But be that as it may, the new order is a bad one.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the practical effect, as you understand it, of the new order?

Mr. BENITEZ. You can get two or three persons to testify falsely that you owe them money, and if you have sold your estate the sale is held to be worthless and the estate is returned to you.

Dr. CARROLL. How can that be done?

Mr. BENITEZ. By documents signed by the debtor to two or three persons.

Dr. CARROLL. What would be the purpose of it? Why should a man want his property returned after he has sold it?

Mr. BENITEZ. There are three cases. Suppose I buy an estate from Mr. Solomon in good faith and pay him \$20,000 for it. I then, wishing to do him an injury, proceed in the following way: I plan with two or three persons to give them notes in my signature bearing dates prior to the date of sale. After I have put the \$20,000 in a good safe place, these men with whom I have made the arrangement go before the judge and complain that I have deprived them of their rights, under the order in question, by selling my estate while I was under obligations to them.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you mean to say that you have people in Porto Rico as villainous as that?

Mr. BENITEZ. Unfortunately, bad faith has been the general rule in the business of the island.

Dr. CARROLL. Then I don't see how you can reach it by law, because it is easy to violate in that way any law. All law, to be effective, must be based upon the good faith of the people, and if the people as a whole are without good faith, the law is useless.

Mr. BENITEZ. As a general principle I am with you, but in this special instance I am not. Our law of mortgage is so stringent that a person doing business with an agriculturist and registering the

operation in the register, under the law of mortgage, is so protected that no human power can cheat him out of his due.

Dr. CARROLL. It seems to me the creditor is entirely protected. He is protected at the risk of the debtor.

Mr. BENITEZ. But the debtor when he makes the contract knows exactly the contract he is making.

Dr. CARROLL. That is true, and yet it gives the creditor undue advantage, so that the creditor may institute proceedings for foreclosure at the worst time of the year, and within thirty days may sell out the debtor's estate and deprive him of all his equity in it.

Mr. BENITEZ. I was referring only to the substance of the law of mortgage and not to the procedure. The law of mortgage is the only means by which good faith can be enforced.

Dr. CARROLL. It is important that those who lend money on mortgage should be protected, and it is also important to those who wish to borrow, because otherwise men would not lend. While we provide for the security of mortgage holders in the United States, the interests of the debtor are also looked after, so that it requires very often from six months to a year, or even more, to foreclose a mortgage and sell an estate in order to realize the amount of the debt. That gives the debtor an opportunity, if he is an honest man, to obtain the money elsewhere; and if he is not an honest man, the law steps in, brings about a sale, and satisfies the debt.

Mr. BENITEZ. But if they wanted to lend money for a short time, what would be the effect of a contract there?

Dr. CARROLL. Usually they lend it on a promissory note with collateral security.

Mr. BENITEZ. Here, as a note has really no value, and a man who has property to-day can sell it to-morrow, it has been customary to secure all loans of any size with a mortgage contract.

Dr. CARROLL. Even for short terms, such as a month or two?

Mr. BENITEZ. I, as registrar of Ponce, have registered contracts covering loans of a month and a half.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you such a thing as a chattel mortgage—a mortgage on household goods or upon crops or cattle?

Mr. BENITEZ. No; movable goods are not subject to mortgage; but there is an abuse of a kind which I will explain. Many money lenders, not thinking themselves fully protected by mortgage, exact from the borrower a deed of sale of all their effects, and in case the money is not paid at maturity by just registering that deed they become the owners of the property.

Dr. CARROLL. We have the same thing, which is called a bill of sale. Are planters who borrow money generally men of bad faith? Do they require a stringent law in order to protect the creditor?

Mr. BENITEZ. I would not like to say they are people of bad faith; but I think the human heart is easily moved by circumstances when it is not thoroughly educated in moral principles. Owing to the circumstances which the country is passing through, the economic crisis, there are persons who, though honest of heart, find it necessary to save their interests. I am quite certain that all of these men who have apparently sold their estates, if there had been sufficient banking institutions here, would have obtained loans and paid their debts; but they have been acting under force.

Dr. CARROLL. Of course this law for the suspension of foreclosure was an extraordinary measure and grew out of the fact that an extraordinary situation existed in the island. It is not a measure without

precedent, however, for I understand that a year ago, under the last Governor-General, a similar order was prepared and authorized to be published, and was only withheld because of the breaking out of the war, and such suspension has also a precedent in other countries. For instance, in the United States at the close of the civil war the law of the foreclosure of mortgage was suspended for two years in the southern part of the Union, which had been devastated by the war.

Mr. BENITEZ. I protest against the period of two months allowed the debtors for the payment of interest.

Dr. CARROLL. That is, two months for the payment of interest in arrears?

Mr. BENITEZ. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. That was not the form of the order. There was a mistake in the order as first published. It was made to extend to all debts of every character as well as mortgage debts. That was never intended in the original, but got in somehow by mistake and was afterwards corrected by the supplementary order.

Mr. BENITEZ. As soon as the debtor receives notice that he must pay his interest within two months he can sell his crops. He can not be held to be a legal depository of them because no suit was pending. He has two months, however. The time mortgages usually take into account more the value of the crops than of the estate, and the terms in relation to the payment of interest are made with reference to the time when the crop will be gathered. Merchants here do not wish to collect their debts by taking over the estates; they want the crops.

Dr. CARROLL. A good many of them wanted the estates. I had a great many instances presented to me where that was the case, and then they used the lever which they had in this proceeding to force the debtor to make some other arrangements—that is, to make a contract to pay principal and interest in gold, although the money had been loaned in pesos, and in other cases to advance the rate of interest to 18 and 20 per cent.

EMBARGOES ON ESTATES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

CABO ROJO, P. R., *January 27, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. What has caused the failure of industries in Cabo Rojo?

Mr. ORTIZ (vice-alcalde). The fall in price of sugar has caused the abandonment of many estates; inability to load our salt without heavy charges has caused almost the abandonment of that industry, and owing to heavy taxation generally. The Spanish Government put such heavy taxes on everything that we could not go on. And the merchants of Mayaguez are the owners of nearly all the property here. Estates that have been worth from forty to fifty thousand dollars have been given to satisfy debts of \$10,000. I could give you some specific cases if you wish—Abram Rodriguez, Federico Ronda, and Federico Davila.

Dr. CARROLL. What were the values of the estates respectively and the amounts of the debts due on them?

Mr. ORTIZ. In one case, that of Bellas, the amount of the debt was \$38,000. The machinery alone on the property is worth that amount, and the estate is worth at least \$80,000. Mr. Santos held the mortgage.

Dr. CARROLL. Was it put up at public auction?

Mr. ORTIZ. No; he had a mortgage and afterwards he gave a small sum of money. The matter was adjusted by an agreement, but the agreement was really forced on the debtor.

Dr. CARROLL. Can you give particulars in the other cases?

Mr. ORTIZ. The other fore-closures were made in Mayaguez and not here, and I am not sure of the amounts.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. In the case of Abram Rodriguez the amount of the debt was \$10,000, which was increased to \$25,000 by adding unpaid interest. The estate is worth about \$50,000. In the case of Federico Ronda the debt was \$11,000, with accrued interest, amounting, in all, to \$20,000. The value of the estate is about \$40,000.

Dr. CARROLL. Who held the mortgages in these two cases?

Mr. ORTIZ. A man by the name of Schultze. The mortgage on the estate of Federico Davila is also held by Schultze. I don't know what the amount of the debt was, but the estate consists of fine valley lands with fine machinery. The final steps of these foreclosure proceedings have not been taken yet.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you know of the order of General Henry suspending proceedings?

Mr. ORTIZ. Yes. Mr. Ronda went yesterday to prevent the creditors from cutting his cane. The justice has just now taken off the embargo from the estate.

Dr. CARROLL. Has this order operated to prevent the collection of ordinary debts?

Mr. ORTIZ. They have understood it in that way. It is well that something should be published on the subject. Some people do not want to pay their municipal taxes because they understood the law to apply to them also.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the order well received here?

Mr. ORTIZ. Very well. It has been like winning the first prize in the lottery for Mr. Ronda.

Dr. CARROLL. The order was not intended to include anything but mortgages. It was not intended to include ordinary debts.

Mr. ORTIZ. Are they under the obligation of paying the interest also?

Dr. CARROLL. Yes.

Mr. ORTIZ. If they owe interest at the rate of one, one and one-half or more per month, will that accumulate?

Dr. CARROLL. I suppose whatever rate of interest was contracted for in the past would be due, but hereafter no more than 12 per cent could be charged; but that is a matter for the judges to decide. Have the planters usually paid their interest?

Mr. ORTIZ. As a rule, no. Their crops have not even given them enough to pay interest. They have had to turn their crops over to the creditors, who have usually credited them at much less than their market value.

Dr. CARROLL. In order to take advantage of this order they must pay up interest. What are the highest rates of interest paid here by planters?

Mr. ORTIZ. Four per cent a month.

Dr. CARROLL. During a year?

Mr. ORTIZ. The general rule is $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent a month.

Dr. CARROLL. I understand that, but I want to get at the highest rate of interest paid a year.

Mr. ORTIZ. They charge compound interest. The highest rate is 18 per cent.

EXTENSION OF TIME FOR PAYMENT OF MORTGAGES.

MEMORIAL OF EMILIO CABRERA.

I believe that the only way to save the properties of agriculturists, commercial, and industrial business men in this country is to make more expansive the order of Gen. Guy V. Henry.

I honestly believe that this order should be general for all debts in the island for the agriculturists, merchants, and industrialists, with an extension to three years, dividing the credits into three equal parts, so to be paid annually with interest at 6 per cent annually, and forbidding the sale for that period of time of property without being advertised to the public in the official gazette for one month.

This would save everybody and the agricultural and commercial development will be helped.

I humbly believe that the planters in the short period named in the present order will not be able to cover their debts, and at the end of the year the merchants will take possession of many properties and a great number of families will be ruined.

LAS MARIAS, P. R., *January 25, 1899.*

HOW ONE MORTGAGE WAS FORECLOSED.

MEMORIAL TO THE SPECIAL COMMISSIONER.

I beg to inclose the adjoined note giving you the full details by which you can see how I was traitorously and fraudulently deprived of an estate, which I had honestly acquired by legal methods, by the house of Fernandez & Co. for an insignificant sum of money.

I beg you to study this document, so that you can resolve thereupon that which justice exacts.

At the end of 1897 George Agostini bought of Cerefino Agostini an estate under coffee in the barrio of Naranjales, of the jurisdiction of Mayaguez, valued at \$10,000, of which he paid cash \$6,500, the estate remaining mortgaged for the remaining \$3,500 plus \$138 for interest. This mortgage was owned as to \$2,625 by Antonio Blanco and as to \$875 by Fernandez & Co., both merchants of Mayaguez, and the terms of payments of the said mortgage were as follows, with interest:

	Prin- cipal.	Interest.
On December 31, 1896.....	\$300	\$96
On December 31, 1897.....	800	192
On December 31, 1898.....	800	288
On December 31, 1899.....	800	384
On December 31, 1900.....	800	420
	3,500	1,380

The first installment, with interest, was punctually paid.

The second payment of \$800, in the abnormal situation of the country which began to make itself felt owing to the change from the Spanish to the American Government, could not be met.

The firm of Fernandez & Co., taking advantage of this situation, and unknown to George Agostini, lawful owner of the estate, entered action against the old owner, Cerefino Agostini. You must know

that when this execution of mortgage was asked for, Cerefino Agostini was already defunct.

What was the surprise of George Agostini when the sheriff, armed with an order of the judge, dated September 13, 1898, presented himself—the American forces being then in possession of this city—demanding the immediate delivery of the estate to Fernandez & Co., said estate having been sold at auction for \$875 without the knowledge of its owner, this being the sole amount the estate owed to that firm! Plainly speaking, Fernandez & Co. got possession of an estate worth \$10,000, and for which \$6,500 cash has been paid, for \$875, which act must be considered as fraudulent, though protected by the corrupt Spanish courts. All complaints of George Agostini and all steps on his part have been useless. No court would listen to his appeal. He was ordered to relinquish the property under pain of being proceeded against criminally. It is worth noting that the mortgage contained the clause "that if one installment was not paid when due, all remaining installments, with interest, should be considered as having fallen due."

JOSE GEORGE AGOSTINI.

MAYAGUEZ, *January 27, 1899.*

THE CIVIL DIVISIONS.

ADMINISTRATIVE DEPARTMENTS.

SAN JUAN.

First department.—San Juan, Bayamon, Carolina, Rio Piedras, Vega Baja, Corozal, Loiza, Toa Alta, Naranjito, Rio Grande, Vega Alta, Trujillo Alto, Dorado, Toa Baja.

ARECIBO.

Second department.—Arecibo, Barceloneta, Ciales, Camuy, Hatillo, Manati, Morovis, Quebradillas, Utuado.

AGUADILLA.

Third department.—Aguadilla, Aguada, Isabela, Moca, Rincon, San Sebastian.

PONCE.

Fourth department.—Ponce, Aibonito, Adjuntas, Barros, Barranquitas, Coamo, Guayanilla, Yauco, Juana Diaz, Penuelas, Santa Isabel.

MAYAGUEZ.

Fifth department.—Mayaguez, Añasco, Cabo Rojo, Las Marias, Lajas, San German, Sabana Grande, Maricao.

GUAYAMA.

Sixth department.—Guayama, Arroyo, Aguas Buenas, Caguas, Cayey, Comerio, Cidra, Gurabo, San Lorenzo, Juncos, Salinas.

HUMACAO.

Seventh department.—Humacao, Fajardo, Yabucoa, Maunabo, Naguabo, Patillas, Piedras.

Eighth department.—Vieques, Culebra.

JUDICIAL DISTRICTS.

AUDIENCIA TERRITORIAL, CRIMINAL BRANCH, SAN JUAN DEPARTMENT.

District.	Municipalities.	District.	Municipalities.
San Juan	San Juan. Carolina. Loiza. Rio Grande. Rio Piedras. Trujillo Alto.	Humacao	Juncos. Naguabo. Piedras. Vieques. Yabucoa.
Caguas	Caguas. Aguas Buenas. Gurabo. San Lorenzo. Comerio.	Vega Baja	Vega Baja. Bayamon. Corozal. Dorado. Naranjito.
Humacao	Humacao. Pajardo.		Ton Alta. Ton Baja. Vega Alta.

AUDIENCIA CRIMINAL OF PONCE, PONCE DEPARTMENT.

Ponce	Ponce. Barros. Cosmo. Guayanilla. Juana Diaz. Ponfelas. Santa Isabel. Yauco.	Guayama	Guayama. Aibonito. Arroyo. Cidra. Cayey. Baranquitas. Maunabo. Patillas. Salinas.
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AUDIENCIA CRIMINAL MAYAGUEZ, MAYAGUEZ DEPARTMENT.

Mayaguez	Mayaguez. Anasco. Las Marlas. Rincon.	Aguadilla	Quebradillas. San Sebastian. Isabela.
Arecibo	Arecibo. Barceloneta. Caimy. Hatillo. Manati. Morovis.	San German	San German. Cabo Rojo. Lajas. Maricao. Sabana Grande.
Aguadilla	Aguadilla. Aguada. Moca.	Utuado	Utuado. Adjuntas. Ciales. Lares.

POLITICAL PARTIES.

LIBERALS AND AUTONOMISTS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., October 23, 1898.

Dr. JOSE C. BARBOSA. When I came back from the United States in 1880 we had here no liberty, no freedom, except on paper. We at once set to work to acquire from Spain some degree of liberty for this country and formed a party called the Liberal party, also called the Reform party. Our object was to reform the laws of the island, and most of the native Porto Ricans belonged to this party.

Dr. CARROLL. Was the Liberal party here in sympathy with the Liberal party of Sagasta?

Dr. BARBOSA. No; no Spaniard supported us. The Spaniards supported the Conservative party, to which also belonged some of the natives; but the natives who were identified with the Conservative party were of that class of people who always like to be associated

with the party in power, irrespective of the principles for which the party stands. Both Sagasta and Canovas were opposed to us and in favor of the Spanish party in the island. We had a great struggle here until 1887, when we asked for autonomy. In that year, seeing that the Spaniards here, no matter what shade of government might be introduced in the peninsula, would always adhere to Spain, in a public assembly we declared ourselves autonomists, our purpose being to force the Spanish party in the island to declare themselves assimilationists. Previous to the assembly we had asked for the same laws here that were granted to the Spaniards in Spain. This was refused. Then, when we declared ourselves autonomists, the Spaniards here immediately became assimilationists and said, "Give them what they asked for first"—that is, the laws in force in Spain, and that result was what we had sought and expected by our declaration in favor of autonomy.

Our demand for autonomy, however, was met by the fearful persecutions of the year 1887, and the tortures which were inflicted caused many to cease calling themselves autonomists. Only a few had the courage to continue to do so. But a few of us continued to work on the same lines in spite of the arguments of many of our former adherents that we were pursuing a policy which could never meet with any success. Finally our party was reduced to about forty or fifty, and this small number continued working, assisted by Senor Labra, the Spanish statesman. We continued calling meetings in the different towns of the island, trying to raise the spirits of the people who, discouraged by the failure of the form of government granted by Spain, came gradually over to our way of thinking.

At this period we took advantage of the Cuban revolution to send a committee to Spain to ask the home Government for autonomy on the ground that the government it had granted was having only bad results and that unless autonomy were granted we feared we would not be able much longer to restrain the revolutionary spirit of the people.

We sent this committee to Spain under orders to accept nothing but autonomy. This committee had a conference with Sagasta, not yet in power, who promised them that when he did come into power he would grant Porto Rico autonomy in the proper acceptation of the word, but with the condition that the Autonomist party of the island was to form a part of Sagasta's Liberal party in Spain and be subject to his orders. The first part of this promise was good, but the condition was bad. Our committee was composed of five members, three of whom were of republican and two of monarchical sympathies. Our object in placing the three republicans on the committee was that they might override the monarchical tendency of the other two members, but for some reason unknown to us one of the republicans went over to the monarchicals, with the result that the committee accepted the offer of Sagasta with its condition.

When the committee came back and reported to the assembly, only three or four accepted their report. The forty or fifty of us who had been struggling so long to obtain our ends protested against the acceptance of Sagasta's proposition. From that dates the split of the party. The reason we opposed Sagasta's plan was that we knew it was not possible for an autonomist party, having for its object local self-government for the people, to be attached to a monarchical party which would have control over it and be in a position to forestall its action. It was clear enough that the purpose of Sagasta was only to destroy our party here. We, the larger number, who had refused to accept

the Sagasta proposition, returned to our homes, hopeless but protesting, and the three or four who had accepted the offer directed their attention to the matter of forming a new party, called the Liberal-Fusionist party.

Shortly afterwards Sagasta came into power and began favoring the leader of the new party, Munoz Rivera, giving him all the posts of the island and giving him power over the ballots; that is, he gave him such power in elections that he could practically control them. Mr. Rivera began by offering official appointments to men who had never thought of appointments before, and in that way created a large party of men who were more interested in having a good position than in standing for a principle. Those who were opposed to the party of Mr. Rivera said: "We have steadily opposed the Spaniards in that kind of misgovernment, and we will not submit to it from natives."

We began to pay special attention to international politics, and that gave us hope, because we thought that if Mr. Woodford would ask for the freedom of Cuba, there was some reason to believe he might do the same thing for us. So we began to struggle harder than ever and endeavored to let it be known in the United States that it was not true, as Sagasta was trying to represent, that the people of Porto Rico were all contented with our government here. We never thought of war, but we thought the end we desired might be brought about by diplomacy. We thought that Spain would have to grant to Porto Rico what she granted to Cuba. To a certain extent we achieved what we wanted, because the Government, on account of the representations being made by the United States and taking note of the fact that affairs were moving along anything but smoothly in Porto Rico, called the leaders of our party together in a conference with them to unite us with the Liberal-Fusionist party and form a mixed government. This fusion, which we thought was prompted by sincere motives, was effected, and, as a consequence, the united party took the name of the Union-Autonomist party.

On the 12th of February of this year (1898) there was formed the first insular council, composed of three autonomists and three fusionists, which lasted until the 17th of March, by which time we understood that we had been chosen only as figureheads to enable Spain to do what she wanted with us. We therefore resigned, to take effect at once. The two parties then separated again. The Governor-General would not accept their resignations, because in the time of elections the law does not allow of their acceptance, and this was of itself another trick, because after we held official positions we were by law prohibited from taking part in the elections, and the government, in the absence of our efforts in opposition, got in the persons it wanted. The secretary of the government here has charge of the post-office, telegraph service, police, and other municipal matters, and he took advantage of his position at the time of the elections to prevent letters and telegrams from passing from San Juan to the other cities of the island, and stationed the civil guards at the election places. We were not permitted even to talk with people about the issues of the election, and the result was that out of 32 elected 27 were the men whom the government desired in office. They allowed 5 of our party to be elected, but these 5, because of the manner in which the election was conducted, said it was beneath their dignity to accept the offices to which they were elected, and refused to accept them. They wanted to be elected by the favor of the people, not by the favor of the government.

The legislature was convened on the 17th day of July, the purpose of convening it at that late day being merely a pretense on the part of Spain that affairs in the island were proceeding in a normal manner in spite of the war. The 27 members who accepted the offices to which they had been nominally elected took their seats without opposition from the other 5 and proceeded to elect the present members of the government, who are to-day in power, their official positions having been confirmed by the military government.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the state of affairs to-day; are the political parties united?

Dr. BARBOSA. No; the feeling is very bitter. The secretary of the government recommended 14 of our party for appointment as city councilors in San Juan, including myself, but we refused to accept the positions under the present insular government. We can not consent to serve under officials who came into office in the manner they did.

Dr. CARROLL. Will the meeting to be held Sunday represent your party?

Dr. BARBOSA. Not my party only, but every party in the island. There is a party here which calls itself Partido Incondicionalmente Español (Unconditionally Spaniards), and the natives who have hitherto adhered to that party will be present.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it your opinion that it would be good policy to make English the official language of Porto Rico?

Dr. BARBOSA. Yes; but not immediately. There should be teachers here for a couple of years to instruct the people in English first. I should like very much to have schools for the teaching of English here—such schools as you have in America. With such schools here we could in ten years bring up a generation of English-speaking people. I think, too, that a few kindergartens would be a great thing for the island.

CABINET DIVISIONS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 4, 1898.*

Mr. JULIAN Y. BLANCO (secretary of the treasury). I have been anxious to give you some information regarding the government and the laws of the country.

Dr. CARROLL. I shall be glad to hear anything you may have the kindness to present. My mission in the island is to get information.

Mr. BLANCO. What I desire to call your attention to specially is the lack of harmony which exists to-day between the secretaries of the insular government. The laws existing in this country when the American occupation commenced were those given to the country on the 25th of last November. By virtue of those laws the insular government was constituted. In inaugurating that government different parties in the island were given representation in the government. It was a sort of mixed government. I had belonged until then to one of the political parties known as the Orthodox party, and was placed as such secretary to Mr. Quiñones, the president. I soon saw that I could do nothing in that position, as none of the officials were in agreement with him. They did not occupy themselves in the public interests, but gave themselves up to matters of personal politics. Consequently I separated from both parties, the two parties being the Orthodox and the Sagasta or Fusionist party.

Dr. CARROLL. By the Orthodox party do you mean the Conservative?

Mr. BLANCO. When the Liberal party split, two parties were formed, one of these being the Orthodox, the really genuine Liberal party, and the other merged with the party in Spain and called the Fusionists. I remained subsecretary, but without being able to accomplish anything. After the elections there was a change in the government. These elections were full of fraud. They took place in February last and were won by the Sagasta or Liberal party. Both parties did some things that were wrong.

Dr. CARROLL. Please give me some idea what those abuses were and how they were carried out.

Mr. BLANCO. Before the elections took place the leader of the Fusionist party got possession of all the municipalities of the island, changing all the mayors to men of his own party, and I want to say here that the mayors of these towns should be named, according to law, by vote of their common councils, instead of by appointment from the central government. Most of the mayors, before the change was made by the leader of the Fusionist party, were members of the Conservative party, but those offices were all filled with men who would support the Sagasta faction. Also, in making up the census of those entitled to vote they took great care to see that all the different election boards were composed of men of the Sagasta party, so as to have everything in their hands, and when the time for election came everything connected with it was under the management and control of this party. The elections came, and as the Liberal party won the government called the leader of the Liberal party and asked him to form a cabinet. He then called me in turn and told me he was anxious that I should be one of the cabinet and hold the office of secretary of the treasury, because he believed me to be the most competent person to hold that post. I told him that I was willing in every way to lend assistance in the establishment of the autonomistic government, but that I would not join his party; that I would assist as an independent man.

All that I wanted was that the law should be complied with and impartially, and I said that I would assist if I were allowed to follow that course. The leader of the Liberal party said, yes, that was what he wanted; that all party feelings had ended. Already there were symptoms of war, but he set about to form the government of the island on the new basis. War was finally declared, and everything was interrupted. The country after that went along without much further change, so far as the application of the autonomistic law of the municipalities of the island was concerned. After the American occupation the common council sent a memorial to General Brooke, asking him to concede to the common council of Ponce the right to which they are entitled by law, the law providing that in purely local affairs the common council shall have the right to name all its employees necessary for the management of the city government, and to attend to the various necessities of the municipal district. Article 52 of the autonomistic constitution says that all municipalities legally constituted or empowered to legislate regarding public instruction, roads, maritime matters, sanitation, the assessment of taxes, shall have the power to name their employees.

Article 53 says that municipalities as well as the province can establish means of income with which to meet their expenses without any more limitations than is sufficient to make them conform to the tributary system of the island.

Article 56 says that the mayors and vice mayors shall be elected by the vote of the common council.

Article 61 says that the municipal law in force in Porto Rico will continue to be enforced as far as it will not interfere with the present decree, and that the modification established by the electoral law so long as the colonial parliament does not legislate about these matters, but article 62 says that no colonial law can deprive the municipalities of the rights and privileges granted by the former articles. That is to say, the power was granted to the insular assembly to modify municipal laws, but without being able to alter the rights and privileges of municipalities specified in the preceding articles. For example, it could never deny to the common council the right of naming mayors and vice mayors or making appointments to the other posts which they are specially authorized to fill. This law has never been complied with. The mayors continue to be named, as before, by the governor-general. They do not observe the law at all, but are denying a right which the island sought for many years in behalf of municipal government.

Dr. CARROLL. According to the American system, mayors of towns and cities are always elected by the people, who also elect the common councils. Would it be well to have that system established in Porto Rico?

Mr. BLANCO. That is just what the country has wanted always, but has never been able to get. When we obtain that right everything else will come, for it is the foundation of local self-government. The memorial which has come from Ponce asks only for compliance with the law, by the grant of those rights to which they are entitled. General Brooke called the council of secretaries and read the memorial to them and asked them their opinion. The president of the council, Mr. Rivera, and Mr. Lopez gave their opinions against granting the right demanded by the memorial, protesting at the same time that they had liberal ideas and were in sympathy with what the petition from Ponce asked, but that it was not compatible with military occupation to grant the petition, and that no attempt should be made to establish municipal autonomy until after Congress met and legislated in the matter. When it came my turn to speak I stated that I was not in conformity with Mr. Rivera and Mr. Lopez. These gentlemen pretended to show that the common council of Ponce was asking for an amendment of the law, but I stated that they did not ask for an amendment, but were asking for compliance with the law. We had quite a heated discussion in Spanish, but General Brooke was not able to appreciate the arguments advanced on both sides, as he is not acquainted with the Spanish language, but he understood perfectly that the secretaries were not in agreement. He advised us to reconsider the matter and arrange it among ourselves and he would then call us again together. We had a meeting for that purpose the same evening and were unable to agree.

They have tried to make General Brooke believe two great errors. First, that the common council of Ponce was asking for a reformation of the law, which they said was incompatible with the military establishment, and, second, that those articles which I have referred to could not be carried out until the provisional assembly should meet, and as it had not got together, and very likely will not meet, they would have to wait until Congress resolves the matter. That is not the truth. The articles I have referred to are a part of the established law of Porto Rico and should be carried out, and that law

expressly provides that the assembly shall not have power to change those articles; so what difference could it make whether the assembly meets or not so far as these provisions are concerned. The rights of the council to elect their mayor and proceed under the articles referred to can not be abridged by the assembly. After this meeting, seeing that we could not agree, we decided that either Mr. Rivera or Mr. Lopez should make a proposal in writing, with a view to seeing whether or not we could patch up some sort of agreement. Last Saturday quite late I was notified that a meeting of the council would be held at 8 o'clock Sunday morning.

Dr. CARROLL. Who composed the council?

Mr. BLANCO. Luis Munoz Rivera, secretary of government; Hernandez Lopez, secretary of justice; Dr. Carbonell, secretary of fomento, and myself. I did not assist at that meeting because I had to go to Bayamon, but said in the afternoon I would be able to participate in a meeting. I went to the country, and they never communicated to me anything of this meeting. The following day, in the afternoon, I had to go to Mr. Rivera about other business, and then he told me that the whole thing had been resolved; that General Brooke urged the matter so strongly that they were obliged to get together and give him a decision. A few days ago another meeting was called by General Brooke, and an answer to the Ponce petition was submitted by General Brooke, in which he made it appear that the whole matter had been settled on his own initiation, and not that he had listened to this council. In this letter of General Brooke he stated that the people of Ponce were asking for a reformation of the law, which, as I have said, was not the case. At that same meeting there was another document of which General Brooke has taken notice. Dr. Carbonell indicated that he wished to name certain school-teachers for the different villages and towns. This brought on a heated discussion as to the authority of Dr. Carbonell to name school-teachers. I maintained that he had no such authority; that the only case in which the central government can intervene is where a district, in violation of the law, appoints a school-teacher who has not the proper title. General Brooke again advised the secretaries to make an effort to get together.

I have given you all this account of the trouble in the ministry, which is perhaps out of the line of what I came to talk to you about, so that you may understand the great difficulties in the way of good government. I consider the matter of applying the autonomistic law as very important to the interests of the island, and I am disposed to tell my colleagues at the meeting of the council at 4 o'clock this afternoon that if an agreement can not be reached I will resign. I can not continue, because for over fifty years I have supported certain principles, and I can not go back to them now. I believe that our mission is to smooth over the present regimen and prepare to better ourselves, and not to sow discord. I don't believe that the military force in the island requires to be strengthened. I am sure that it will displease the people of Ponce when they receive the decision of General Brooke. If they complied with the law, they would allow each municipality to select its own teachers and to carry out the autonomistic plan in all its features.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that in accord with the autonomistic law and also the provincial law?

Mr. BLANCO. Before the government did what it pleased.

Dr. CARROLL. But was it not the law before that teachers, for instance, should be appointed by the central government?

Mr. BLANCO. Yes; but there were certain limitations.

Dr. CARROLL. I have been given to understand that the autonomistic régime was never fully established here and that it is not now in operation, and I understand from Mr. Rivera that the autonomistic system has never been more than a dead letter.

Mr. BLANCO. That is so, and the law has been violated—has never been complied with. The law is imperfect; nevertheless, if they carried it out it would have given very good results, but they never carried it out.

Dr. CARROLL. I understand the military policy is to continue things in status quo, not to make any changes, but to continue the government just as the Americans found it, until Congress, on the recommendation of the President, adopts a new system.

Mr. BLANCO. I understood that the policy of the United States would be to carry out the law of the country in so far as it affects the settlement of private rights of persons and property and as to the punishment of crime, and that the general provisions of law of the country would be in force. In that view of the case I don't understand why the measures referred to in the articles of the autonomistic constitution are not carried into effect. So long as the municipalities are not given the rights accorded to them by that law there will be complaints and any system of government that may be established will be unsettled.

PARTIES THE SAME IN FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

UTUADO, P. R., *January 17, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. I would like to have you discuss, unless you have some good reason for not doing so, the form of government which should be established here. There are those who think a colonial form of government is preferable, and there are some in the United States who are in favor of a Territorial government for the island. I should like to have the opinion of citizens here respecting the question.

Mr. LUCAS AMADEO. My opinion is in favor of the Territorial form, with a view to arriving, later on, to statehood, with the full enjoyment of all that implies. I think that the military power should be as brief as possible, because it is an abnormal condition of government, and while the Territorial form of government remains to be settled I think there are certain questions of importance that should be treated of. Among others is that of immigration, and this is an important question, because this country is marching onward to the complete predominance of the white race. Should a heterogeneous emigration come here, we should arrive at a state of confusion in politics, because mixed races precede mixed relations in politics.

In the present period through which we are passing there are opportunities for cheapening the form of government—that is, of removing a great many useless employees who are now being retained. Later, the Territorial form will provide for that; but I speak of the interim period. To-day the country is divided into two parties which formerly were united to claim advantages for the country. This difference of opinion was not brought about by a difference of principles, but was brought about by the desire on the part of certain persons to

arrive at position and power. The party which is at present in power got into office for the sake of power. Pursuant to a contract which their leader made with the Spanish Government, we were given a so-called autonomy, and under that system, with the assistance of Spain, the present people in office were elected. They are acting, and have done so since coming into power, as others did under the former régime, and that state is what has caused the strained relation existing between the parties to-day. The country is not satisfied with the men who are in power, and is restless under them. I think it would be a good thing if the various elements of the different parties would come together under the military government, and later under the Territorial government, and work in the interests of the people of Porto Rico. This could be done if those in power to-day were generous enough to step down and out of office.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any difference between the parties in their fundamental ideas?

Mr. AMADEO. No. Both have made the same platform, but there are differences between their methods. Both made the same affirmations with regard to autonomy in the time of the Spanish Government. Both accepted the reforms which Spain at first offered. Later, when the division was brought about, the historical party asked for something else, but that was simply a proposition on which to base a platform.

I don't belong to any party. I think they are limited companies organized to exploit the people for their own benefit. I would never suffocate my conscience under a political party. Where I see a good idea, whoever gives birth to it, I accept it, and whoever gives birth to a bad idea, I exert my efforts against it. The country does not possess directive abilities. The people have been brought up on personal politics and do not know anything about the direction of the country's affairs. Politics to-day is a science, and when unscientifically carried out its evil effects are very far reaching.

SUMMARY OF PLATFORM OF THE REPUBLICAN PARTY OF PORTO RICO, ORGANIZED IN MARCH, 1899, BY RADICALS.

Preamble: Commends the able, patriotic, and manly spirit manifested by the President in releasing Porto Rico from misrule of Spain, and pledges faithfulness in adherence to the new principles of our new country.

I. The name of the organization shall be the Republican party of Porto Rico.

II. Declares sincere loyalty to the American flag and American ideas.

III. Hails with pride the fact of annexation to the United States.

IV. Believes that the people of Porto Rico may be trusted with civil government of the island, but awaits the action of Congress on that subject, meantime asking that all civil offices shall be filled by efficient and honest men of unquestioned loyalty to the Government of the United States.

V. Promises devotion to the national Constitution and the rights and liberties of all citizens to cast their ballots, and asks for effective legislation to secure the integrity and purity of elections.

VI. Opposes the introduction of foreign contract labor.

VII. Declares for liberty of thought, speech, and the press.

VIII. Favors the establishment of free, public, and unsectarian schools sufficient to afford every child the opportunity of a good common-school education, and recommends that the English language be introduced.

IX. Declares that the system of taxation is unequally applied and should be regulated on American principles of justice.

X. Commerce should be free between Porto Rico and the United States.

XI. Provincial money should be exchanged for the money of the United States on a gold basis, and every dollar should be made as good as every other dollar.

XII. The burden of taxation falls too heavily under the present system upon agriculture.

XIII. The American system of courts should be established and speedy trial granted to all.

XIV. Expresses gratification that Porto Ricans are now under the American flag, and pledges loyalty to American institutions, and gives honor to the names of Washington, Lincoln, and McKinley, which are household words.

PLATFORM OF THE FEDERAL PARTY.

[Translation.]

1. The men who formed the Liberal Puertorriqueño believe that their organization, with a name which should embody their ideas and with a platform which defines and concretes them as a political force, should not be delayed.

2. The Federal party declares that it accepts and applauds the act of annexation consummated after the war, believing that Porto Rico will be a prosperous and happy country under the shadow of the American flag and the shelter of American institutions.

3. The propositions of the Federal party are condensed in this formula: Direct and efficient influence in the development of local interests by an administration intelligent and honorable; a firm and resolute tendency toward absolute identity with the United States in its laws and governmental methods.

4. The Federal party asks that Porto Rico may be shortly a Territory of the United States, with all the rights of a State except that of sending Senators and Representatives to the Congress, in which it shall have, in common with the other Territories, a Delegate with a voice, but without a vote.

5. The Federal party aspires that Porto Rico may in the future become a State without any restrictions, as the others of the Federation.

6. The Federal party supports the complete autonomy of the municipalities in such manner as that the ayuntamientos may resolve their local affairs, as quotas, budgets, instruction, police, sanitation, charity, public works, etc., without intervention from the central power.

7. The Federal party will maintain all private rights with profound respect and with enthusiastic devotion, and will favor the greatest amplitude of the suffrage without opposing the limitations which the United States may esteem prudent, but making clear that it desires the right to vote for all citizens resident in the island.

8. The Federal party understands that it is indispensable and just to abolish the customs tariff and to establish free commerce between Porto Rico and the rest of the Union, unifying at the proper time the money and converting our circulating silver into American dollars with the least possible loss to the holders of the metal.

9. It understands likewise that the development of the production urgently requires that the greatest freedom be decreed for the banking institutions, that the insular industries be protected in a positive manner, that public works be constructed without delay, and that direct imposts for the general expenses of the Territory be suppressed.

10. The Federal party concerns itself for the welfare of the laboring classes and the peasants; it contemplates with interest their advances in the public life and assists in every proposition of harmony between the resistance of capital and the requirements of labor, and will persist in its desire to place in the elective bodies virtuous and intelligent men, without respect to their occupation or race.

11. The Federal party will leave to the functions of the municipalities the creation, provisioning, and sustaining of their schools, committing as a consequence primary instruction to the representatives of the people, although conforming to the plan which the legislature of the Territory may devise.

12. In respect to superior instruction, university and professional, it will propose the restoration of all the necessary centers in order to arrive at a high plane in the arts and sciences, preferably those of practical application, and striving without rest to procure the establishment of a university.

13. The Federal party will do away with everything routine and will found colleges in which women may receive serious and copious instruction, which may facilitate her in the exercise of the different professions to which already she has consecrated her ingenuity and ability in the most advanced communities.

14. In general we believe that our legislation ought to tend to identity in methods between the Porto Rican and American schools, bringing this about by a gradual and scientific adaptation.

15. In respect to the organization of the tribunals, the Federal party believes that it is convenient to elect the functionaries by suffrage, to designate them by the vote of the legislature, or to nominate them by competition according to the nature of the offices, removing all political interest and placing the judges under conditions of salutary independence.

16. The Federal party inscribes among its cardinal principles the establishment of trial by jury.

17. The Federal party proposes the reform of our civil legislation, penal and administrative, with profound regard to the moral and material interests of the society in which it operates, but in a sense predominatingly democratic.

18. The Federal party finally affirms its faith in the traditions and in the character of the American people, and in the confidence as well as in the effort of the insular people to make of Porto Rico an emporium of wealth and of culture, over which the banner of the United States may float forever.

SAN JUAN, October 1, 1899.

POLITICS OF THE ISLAND.

(Hearing before the United States Commissioner.)

PONCE P. R., *March 7, 1899.*

Mr. FELICI and a merchant from Ponce:

Dr. CARROLL. A great many representations have gone to the United States about the bitter political feelings in the island. Now, what should I say about that?

A MERCHANT OF PONCE. I think that politics here, as well as in other countries, is in the hands of what we should call freebooters—gentlemen who have nothing. Their cries really mean that they want positions, and the healthy, right-thinking part of the population look upon them with disdain. If you will look closely into the matter, you will find that the number of respectable persons behind these politicians is few. I am not speaking of one party, but of both. That is the case, at least, here.

Dr. CARROLL. Well, the leader of one of your parties will go to the United States with pretty respectable support?

The SAME MERCHANT. I don't know, perhaps, what he calls respectable support.

Dr. CARROLL. I noticed in the *Correspondencia* two or three pages of letters very highly appreciatory. I noticed in the paper here to-night a column or two of names, and I should say, from a short residence here, that he is by far the most popular man in the island, if not the idol of the people.

The SAME MERCHANT. I should not say that was quite correct. He is a politician. I don't mean to say he is a bad man, but I don't know to what extent you can rely on those behind him. He would have some friends, of course, but not so many as there appear to be.

Dr. CARROLL. He is a very able man and, with the support he has here in the island, he is likely to make a strong impression on the minds of the American people, and the question I would like to ask is, Is he a representative man? Will he represent the feelings and opinions of the Porto Ricans?

The SAME MERCHANT. In what respect do you mean?

Dr. CARROLL. In respect to the things of the island and the character of the people, and the future government of the island, and all those matters. Will he speak for you?

The SAME MERCHANT. No; I don't think he will.

Mr. FELICI. I am neither a Porto Rican nor a Spaniard. I don't think the majority of the country is right. Although there are a great many signatures in the list printed in the paper here, I think two-thirds of the signers are persons who aspire to some position in the public service.

Dr. CARROLL. Now, my own feeling about the party and party feeling here is that it is not at all a bad sign. I would a great deal rather see fierce contention between two parties than to see no parties at all—than to see a state of indifference; but what I would like to see better than strife would be to have each of the parties take a position with reference to the needs of the island or its development and future government, and indicate in platforms what they stand for. If your parties would divide on present questions and not over the history of the past, it seems to me it would be an important thing to have parties. I believe in parties, and in countries where there is

not stagnation of opinion there will be parties, but I think that men should divide on principles and not on offices.

Mr. FELICI. As the great majority of the people here are annexationists, the man who declares frankly for annexation to the United States will carry the people with him. If Muñoz comes out frankly before any other parties do for annexation, he will doubtless carry the people with him, but it will have to be without any reservations. It will be the strong plank in the platform of any party.

Dr. CARROLL. I think it important that the parties which are to bid for public support here and which are to exercise influence with the United States to obtain what is needful for the island should declare their principles, if they have any. Suppose I am asked in the United States what is the difference between the Radicals and Liberals?

Mr. FELICI. It is only personal.

Dr. CARROLL. All that I can say is that one is called the Liberal and the other the Radical party.

Mr. FELICI. Those distinctions were formed in the old days, but there is no reason for them to-day.

Dr. CARROLL. If I am asked whether one is annexationist and the other opposed to it, I shall be forced to say that on not a single question affecting the future of the island do I know the position of either of your parties.

Mr. FELICI. And nobody here could tell you.

SUFFRAGE AND THE SYSTEM OF AUTONOMY.

THE ELECTORAL LAW OF 1890.

The provision of this law, as applied to Porto Rico, defining the right of suffrage was as follows:

ARTICLE I.

The electors of councilors and provincial deputies in Porto Rico shall be all the residents who are heads of families, over 25 years of age, who have resided at least two years in the municipal district and who have paid on their own property the amount of 25 pesetas or more as a tax on real estate, cultivation of the soil, and on cattle, or as industrial or commercial subsidy, for one year before the making up of the electoral lists, or if they prove that they are civil employees of the State, province, or municipality in active service, or suspended with pay on account of their category, and suspended with pay or retired from the army or navy.

The quota to which the preceding paragraph refers shall be calculated by adding up that paid by the taxpayers within and without the town by reason of direct taxes of the State and for municipal surtaxes. Besides, the amount paid for taxes imposed by the provincial deputation, by virtue of the new powers which are granted to it by the provincial law, modified by the decree of this date, shall be computed for all electoral purposes as if they were levied by the State. Persons who are over 25 years of age and have resided for two years at least in the municipal district and who justify their professional or academic qualifications by means of an official diploma shall also be electors.

In towns with a population of less than 100 inhabitants all of them shall be electors without further exceptions than the general ones established by article 5 of this law.

ARTICLE 2.

In order to compute the taxes to be paid by the electors the following shall be considered their own property:

(1) With regard to the husbands, all the property belonging to their wives during the continuation of the conjugal partnership.

(2) With regard to parents, that belonging to their children of which they are the legal administrators.

(3) With regard to children, their own property of which for any reason whatsoever their mothers have the use.

ARTICLE 3.

The following can not be electors:

(1) Those who on account of final sentence are deprived of the exercise of political rights.

(2) Those who at the time of the elections are criminally indicted, if they have been remanded to prison and have not instead furnished bail in the cases in which it is admissible according to law.

(3) Those sentenced to corporeal or correctional punishments while they have not fulfilled their sentences nor secured their rehabilitation in cases in which it is proper.

(4) Those who, lacking means of subsistence, receive the latter in charitable institutions, and those who are recorded as mendicants and authorized by the municipalities to beg public charity.

When the autonomistic system was projected, the electoral law was modified so as to remove all restrictions and establish universal suffrage, as the law of 1890 had provided for Spain itself. Article 1 follows:

ARTICLE 1.

All male Spaniards over 25 years of age who are in the full enjoyment of their civil rights and are residents of a municipality in which they have resided at least two years are electors in the islands of Cuba and Porto Rico.

Noncommissioned officers and privates of the navy or army can not cast votes while they are serving in the ranks.

The same suspension is established with regard to those who are in similar circumstances in other corps or armed institutions under the orders of the State; province, or municipality.

THE LAW OF SUFFRAGE.

By M. ZENO GANDIA, M. D., *Commissioner from Porto Rico to Washington.*

The Spanish law of sufragio universal (universal suffrage) had no limitation whatever. It was sufficient to be 25 years of age, which constitutes majority. After the year 1890 Porto Ricans and Cubans lost, under protest, the extension of that law to Cuba and Porto Rico, the Spanish Government applying it to those islands with the limitation of the right to vote to those citizens who were 25 years of age and besides who paid a contribution of at least \$5 in Cuba and \$10 in Porto Rico. That law produced indignation in the Antilles, especially in Porto Rico, whose citizens Spain regarded as inferior to the sons of Spain and inferior before the law to the citizens of Cuba. That was one of the immediate causes of the Cuban war and produced in Porto Rico a discontent so great that even the few who had faith in Spain lost it. In the law other prescriptions were ordered which rendered it impossible that the people of the islands should ever triumph in the elections. One consisted in what was called "socios de ocasion," (members of occasion). It was ordered that all who were members of societies which paid taxes should have the right to vote, and in order that such members should acquire the right to vote it was only demanded that the principal member should manifest that those who solicited that right were its members, and this without demanding any documentary proof from them. This was a burlesque.

The societies were almost all Spanish firms, or servants paid by them, and from that prescription it resulted that the clerks, the relatives, and even the servants of the principal member acquired the

right to vote, while many Porto Ricans did not possess it because they did not pay \$10 tax. In the case of many Porto Ricans who paid taxes of 15, 12, or 11 pesos, they diminished those quotas in the municipalities, collecting from them only 9.90 pesos or 9 pesos, and in that way left them without the right to vote. That was an infamy, and the Radical party withdrew itself; that is, abandoned the false right which they gave it and did not vote.

Afterwards, under the pressure of American diplomacy, the Spanish Government resolved to implant autonomy, and then the Spanish law of universal suffrage was extended to Porto Rico without any restriction, except that the person should be 25 years of age. When the Americans occupied the island, that was the law of suffrage which ruled.

When the President asked us, Dr. Henna and myself, in April last, the class of suffrage which seemed to us convenient for Porto Rico, we answered "universal suffrage;" that people exercised that right with order and advantage in 1873 when the Spanish Republic conceded it.

The Bourbon reaction of Alfonso XII took it away. Spain again conceded it on account of the demand of the American Government, which obliged it to bring tyranny in the islands to an end if it desired to preserve them. That was a tardy measure. The war came, and Porto Rico was ceded. To-day it is not possible to understand from any standpoint why, after the concession to Porto Rico of universal suffrage by the action of the American Government, it should be taken away by that same Government from a country which has always defended it in its programme of liberties.

Thus, then, in 1890, the law of suffrage demanding 25 years of age and \$10 tax and giving a vote to the socios de ocasion; after 1896 (during the Cuban war) the Spanish law of suffrage without restriction.

NEW YORK, September 11, 1899.

THE SUFFRAGE QUESTION.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

UTUADO, P. R., January 18, 1899.

Dr. CARROLL. If you exclude from the suffrage all who can not read, you will have a small number of voters at first, as I understand that the number of literates in the island is only about 12 per cent.

Mr. AMADEO. Yes; but we have a great many who pay taxes. In the year 1870 we had that form of voting here when the electoral system was introduced, and the result was satisfactory. It produced a very respectable and representative body of voters.

Dr. CARROLL. Would that not exclude the entire class of peons?

Mr. AMADEO. I think they would be excluded, but I think they should be, because they have not a real knowledge of the subjects about which they are voting. It is better that they should not vote.

Mr. SELJO. They would not really vote, because they would be controlled by their employers.

Dr. CARROLL. Then you can not have villages and townships as we have them in the United States.

Mr. AMADEO. If these people have not the first elements of education, it will be impossible for them to administer their own affairs.

Dr. CARROLL. In the United States it is thought that our township and village government not only educates men, but dignifies men and

gives them a desire to obtain a larger education for their children, because they desire them to have a power of which they realize their own lack.

Mr. AMADEO. To-day universal suffrage is the most powerful weapon possessed by professional politicians, who want to have it introduced everywhere as affording them wider scope for their operations.

Dr. CARROLL. You mean they can lead the ignorant masses. It is proposed in giving the Hawaiian Islands a form of government to restrict the suffrage somewhat. There is a property qualification proposed.

Mr. AMADEO. I would allow suffrage to anybody who pays taxes, municipal or insular.

Dr. CARROLL. In a majority of the States there is no limitation on account of property. There was a property qualification in the older States, but that has been abolished.

Mr. AMADEO. All this voting machinery is made very much easier when you have wise men at the head of your Government, which you generally have. The United States was fortunate when it set out on its journey to have at its head a man of very great attainments, who started it right. In countries where they have not had the good fortune to possess these guiding heads universal suffrage turns out to be a curse rather than a blessing. In France, for instance, it has given rise to great disturbances.

Dr. CARROLL. But in England under the Gladstone régime it was extended, and while the first result was the defeat of the Liberal party, still I think it is generally recognized that that extension which added something like a million voters to those who had the suffrage has been on the whole decidedly beneficial.

Mr. AMADEO. England has been 1,000 years educating its people; that is evolution. Universal suffrage is the arm of the Socialist, who thinks he can by its use make everybody happy. The Socialist preaches to the masses about the great boon of giving all a voice in the management of their own affairs. That is purely illusory.

Dr. CARROLL. It is an illusion of a great many people that you can get everything you want by a system of legislation, whereas such things depend largely upon the operation of natural laws.

Mr. AMADEO. That is a mistake of the Socialists. They don't understand that natural laws have to develop themselves, and that people must submit to that development, and can not legislate themselves out of it. This situation has given rise to so-called reformers—men who present a platform and offer to ameliorate every unhappy condition. These men have been the cause of great disturbances in all countries for a long time. I have been averse to universal suffrage. Restricted suffrage, moreover, acts as a stimulation. A man who desires to take part in the administration of the government must either save money or educate himself.

Dr. CARROLL. The native congress that met in San Juan submitted a plan of reform to me. Among other things they proposed that there should be manhood suffrage for all above the age of 21 years, and that at the expiration of two years all who could not prove that they could read and write should lose that suffrage. I would like to ask whether or not all should be allowed the right of suffrage at the beginning, and say at the end of ten years that right should be restricted to persons paying taxes or persons able to read and write?

Mr. AMADEO. It would not be a bad thing to do what you say, but you must take into consideration the fact that the dissemination of

the population makes general education a hard thing to attend to in this country, and makes the inspection of education still more difficult; but I think the idea is a good one.

Dr. CARROLL. Those who have the suffrage naturally would wish to retain it; they would be more anxious not to lose it, perhaps, than to gain it. Two years would be entirely too short a time to allow men to qualify themselves.

Mr. AMEDEO. I do not consider that the elementary education which is received in most countries of the world fits a man to take part in the government of his country. I believe that sound traditions among people who can not read and write does more in some countries to fit them for suffrage. As in Porto Rico concubinage is one of the curses of the country, family traditions do not exist.

[This was changed somewhat by special decree for Porto Rico.]

AUTONOMIC CONSTITUTION.

TITLE I.*

GOVERNMENT AND CIVIL ADMINISTRATION IN THE ISLANDS OF CUBA AND PORTO RICO.

ARTICLE 1. The system of government and civil administration in the islands of Cuba and Porto Rico shall hereafter be carried on in conformity with the following provisions:

ART. 2. Each island shall be governed by an insular parliament, consisting of two chambers, and by the governor-general, representing the mother country, who shall exercise supreme authority.

TITLE II.

THE INSULAR CHAMBERS.

ART. 3. The legislative power as to colonial matters in the shape and manner prescribed by law shall be vested in the insular chambers conjointly with the Governor-General.

*EXPLANATORY NOTE.—To facilitate the understanding of this decree and to avoid confusion as to the legal value of the terms employed therein, the following definitions are to be observed:

Central executive power	The King, with his council of ministers.
The Spanish Parliament	The Cortes, with the King.
The Spanish Chambers	The Congress and the Senate.
The central government	The council of ministers of the Kingdom.
The Colonial Parliament	The two chambers, with the Governor-General.
The colonial chambers	The council of administration and the chamber of representatives.
Colonial legislative assemblies	The council of administration and the chamber of representatives.
Governor-General in council	The Governor-General, with the secretaries of his cabinet.
Instructions of the Governor-General	Those which he may have received when named for his office.
Statute	Colonial measure of a legislative character.
Colonial statutes	Colonial legislation.
Legislation or general laws	Legislation or laws of the Kingdom.

ART. 4. Insular representation shall consist of two bodies of equal powers, which shall be known as chamber of representatives and council of administration.

TITLE III.

COUNCIL OF ADMINISTRATION.

ART. 5. The council shall be composed of thirty-five members, of whom eighteen shall be elected in the manner directed by the electoral law and seventeen shall be appointed by the Governor-General acting for the Crown, from among such persons as have the qualifications specified in the following articles:

ART. 6. To be entitled to sit in the council of administration it is necessary to be a Spanish subject; to have attained the age of thirty-five years; to have been born in the island, or to have had four years' constant residence therein; not to be subject to any pending criminal prosecution; to be in the full enjoyment of his political rights; to have his property free from attachment; to have had for two or more years previous an annual income of four thousand dollars; to have no interest in any contract with either the insular or the home Government.

The shareholders of a stock company shall not be considered as Government contractors, even if the company has a contract with the Government.

ART. 7. Persons are also qualified to serve as councilors who, besides the above-stated requirements, have any of the following qualifications:

1. To be or to have been a senator of the Kingdom, or to possess the requirements for being a senator, in conformity with Article III of the constitution.

2. To have held for a period of two years any of the following offices: President, or prosecuting attorney of the pretorian court of Havana; rector of the University of Havana; councilor of administration in the council formerly thus designated; president of the Havana Chamber of Commerce; president of the Economic Society of Friends of the Country; president of the Sugar Planters' Association; president of the Tobacco Manufacturers' Union; president of the Merchants, Tradesmens, and Agriculturalists' League; dean of the bar of Havana; mayor of Havana; president of the provincial assembly of Havana during two terms or of any provincial assembly during three terms; dean of either of the chapters of the two cathedrals.

3. Likewise may be elected or appointed as councilor any property owner from among the fifty taxpayers paying the highest taxes, either on real estate or on industries, commerce, arts, and the professions.

ART. 8. The councilors appointed by the Crown shall be appointed by special decrees, stating the qualification entitling the appointee to serve as councilor.

Councilors thus appointed shall hold office for life.

One-half the number of elective councilors shall be elected every five years, and the whole number shall be elected whenever the council of administration shall be dissolved by the Governor-General.

ART. 9. The qualifications required in order to be appointed or elected councilor of administration may be changed by a national law, at the request or upon the proposition of the insular chambers.

ART. 10. No councilor shall, during the session of the council, accept any civil office, promotion (unless it be strictly by seniority)

title, or decoration; but any councilor may be appointed by either the local or the home government to any commission within his own profession or category, whenever the public service shall require it.

The secretaries of the insular government shall be excepted from the foregoing rule.

TITLE IV.

THE CHAMBER OF REPRESENTATIVES.

ART. 11. The chamber of representatives shall be composed of members named by the electoral boards in the manner prescribed by law and in the proportion of one for every twenty-five thousand inhabitants.

ART. 12. To be elected as representative the candidate must have the following requirements: To be a Spanish citizen, to be a layman, to have attained his majority, to be in full enjoyment of civil rights, to have been born in the island or to have had four years' constant residence therein, and not to be subject to any pending criminal prosecution.

ART. 13. Representatives shall be elected every five years, and any representative may be reelected any number of times.

The insular chamber shall determine what classes of offices are incompatible with the office of representative, as well as the cases governing reelection.

ART. 14. Any representative upon whom either the local or home government shall confer a pension, or any employment, promotion (unless it be by strict seniority), paid commission, title, or decoration shall cease to be such without necessity of any declaration to that effect, unless he shall within fifteen days of his appointment notify the chamber of his having declined the favor.

The provisions of the preceding paragraph shall not include the representatives who shall be appointed members of the cabinet.

TITLE V.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE INSULAR CHAMBERS AND THEIR RELATIONS TO EACH OTHER.

ART. 15. The chambers will meet every year. The King, the Governor-General acting in his name, shall convene, suspend, and adjourn the sessions and dissolve the chamber of representatives and the council of administration, either separately or simultaneously, under the obligation to call them together again or renew them within three months.

ART. 16. Each of the two legislative bodies shall determine the rules of their proceedings and shall be the judges of the qualifications of their respective members and the legality of their election.

Until the chamber and the council shall pass their own rules, they shall be governed by the rules of the national house of representatives and of the senate, respectively.

ART. 17. Each chamber shall choose its president, vice-president, and secretaries.

ART. 18. Neither chamber shall sit unless the other be sitting also, except when the council exercises judicial functions.

ART. 19. The two insular chambers shall not deliberate together nor in the presence of the Governor-General.

The sessions shall be public, but either chamber may hold secret sessions whenever business of a private nature shall require it.

ART. 20. To the Governor-General, through his secretaries, as well as to either of the two chambers, belongs the power to initiate and propose colonial statutes.

ART. 21. All colonial statutes in regard to taxes and the public credit shall originate in the chamber of representatives.

ART. 22. Resolutions may be passed by either chamber by a plurality of votes; but in order to pass a measure of a legislative character a majority of all the members constituting the body must be present. Nevertheless, one-third of the members shall constitute a quorum for deliberation.

ART. 23. No resolution or law shall be considered passed by the insular parliament unless it has had the concurrence of the chamber of representatives and the council of administration.

ART. 24. Every colonial statute, as soon as it has been approved in the form prescribed in the preceding article, shall be presented to the Governor-General by the officers of both chambers for his sanction and proclamation of the same.

ART. 25. Members of the council and the chamber of representatives shall have immunity for any speech or vote in either chamber.

ART. 26. No councilor of administration shall be indicted or arrested without a previous resolution of the council, unless he shall be found *in fragranti* or the council shall not be in session; but in every case notice shall be given to that body as soon as possible, that it may determine what should be done. Nor shall the representatives be indicted or arrested during the sessions without the permission of the chamber unless they are found *in fragranti*; but in this last case, or in case of indictment or arrest when the chamber is not sitting, notice shall be given as soon as possible to the chamber of representatives for its information and action. All proceedings against councilors and representatives shall be brought before the pretorian court at Havana in the cases and manner that shall be prescribed by colonial statutes.

ART. 27. The guaranties established in the foregoing section shall not apply to a councilor or representative who shall himself admit that he is the author of any article, book, pamphlet, or printed matter wherein military sedition is incited or invoked, or the Governor-General is insulted and maligned, or national sovereignty is assailed.

ART. 28. The relations between the two chambers shall be governed, until otherwise provided, by the act of July 19, 1837, regulating the relations between the two legislative houses of the Cortes.

ART. 29. Besides the power of enacting laws for the colony, the insular chambers shall have power—

1. To receive the oath of the Governor-General to preserve the constitution and the laws which guarantee the autonomy of the colony.

2. To enforce the responsibility of the secretaries of the executive, who shall be tried by the council, whenever impeached by the chamber of representatives.

3. To address the home Government through the Governor-General, proposing the abrogation or modification of existing laws of the Kingdom; to invite the home Government to present bills as to particular matters, or to ask a decision of an executive character on matters which interest the colony.

ART. 30. The Governor-General shall communicate to the home Government, before presenting to the insular parliament any bill originating in the executive government of the island, whenever, in

his judgment, said bill may affect national interests. Should any such bill originate in the insular parliament, the government of the island shall ask for a postponement of the debate until the home Government shall have given its opinion.

In either case the correspondence passing between the two governments shall be laid before the chambers and published in the official Gazette.

ART. 31. All differences of jurisdiction between the several municipal, provincial, and insular assemblies, or between any of them and the executive, which by their nature may not be referred to the home Government, shall be submitted to the courts of justice in accordance with the rules herein prescribed.

TITLE VI.

POWERS VESTED IN THE INSULAR PARLIAMENT.

ART. 32. The insular chambers shall have power to pass upon all matters not specially and expressly reserved to the Cortes of the Kingdom or to the central Government as herein provided, or as may be provided hereafter, in accordance with the prescription set forth in additional article 2.

In this manner, and without implying that the following enumeration presupposes any limitation of their power to legislate on other subjects, they shall have power to legislate on all matters and subjects concerning the departments of justice, interior, treasury, public works, education, and agriculture.

They shall likewise have exclusive cognizance of all matters of a purely local nature which may principally affect the colonial territory; and to this end they shall have power to legislate on civil administration; on provincial, municipal, or judicial apportionment; on public health, by land or sea, and on public credit, banks, and the monetary system.

This power, however, shall not impair the powers vested in the colonial executive according to the laws in connection with the matters above mentioned.

ART. 33. It shall be incumbent upon the colonial parliament to make regulations under such national laws as may be passed by the Cortes and expressly intrusted to it. Especially among such measures, parliament shall legislate, and may do so at the first sitting, for the purpose of regulating the elections, the taking of the electoral census, qualifying electors, and exercising the right of suffrage; but in no event shall these dispositions affect the rights of the citizens as established by the electoral laws.

ART. 34. Notwithstanding that the laws governing the judiciary and the administration of justice are of a national character, and therefore obligatory for the colony, the insular parliament may, within the provisions of said laws, make rules or propose to the home Government such measures as shall render easier the admission, continuance, or promotion in the local courts of lawyers, natives of the island, or practicing therein.

The Governor-General in council shall have, as far as the island of Cuba is concerned, the same power that has been vested heretofore in the minister for the colonies for the appointment of the functionaries and subordinate and auxiliary officers of the judicial order and as to the other matters connected with the administration of justice.

ART. 35. The insular parliament shall have exclusive power to frame the local budget of expenditures and revenues, including the revenue corresponding to the island as her quota of the national budget.

To this end the Governor-General shall present to the chambers every year before the month of January the budget for the next fiscal year, divided in two parts, as follows: The first part shall state the revenues needed to defray the expenses of sovereignty, and the second part shall state the revenues and expenditures estimated for the maintenance of the colonial administration.

Neither chamber shall take up the budget of the colonial government without having finally voted the part for the maintenance of sovereignty.

ART. 36. The Cortes of the Kingdom shall determine what expenditures are to be considered by reason of their nature as obligatory expenses inherent to sovereignty, and shall fix the amount every three years and the revenue needed to defray the same, the Cortes reserving the right to alter this rule.

ART. 37. All treaties of commerce affecting the island of Cuba, be they suggested by the insular or by the home Government, shall be made by the latter with the cooperation of special delegates duly authorized by the colonial government, whose concurrence shall be acknowledged upon submitting the treaties to the Cortes.

Said treaties, when approved by the Cortes, shall be proclaimed as laws of the Kingdom and as such shall obtain in the colony.

ART. 38. Notice shall be given to the insular government of any commercial treaties made without its participation as soon as said treaties shall become laws, to the end that, within a period of three months, it may declare its acceptance or nonacceptance of their stipulations. In case of acceptance the Governor-General shall cause the treaty to be published in the Gazette as a colonial statute.

ART. 39. The insular parliament shall also have power to frame the tariff and fix the duties to be paid on merchandise as well for its importation into the territory of the island as for the exportation thereof.

ART. 40. As a transition from the old régime to the new constitution, and until the home and insular governments may otherwise conjointly determine hereafter, the commercial relations between the island and the metropolis shall be governed by the following rules:

1. No differential duty, whether fiscal or otherwise, either on imports or exports, shall be imposed to the detriment of either insular or peninsular production.

2. The two governments shall make a schedule of articles of direct national origin to which shall be allowed by common consent preferential duty over similar foreign products.

In another schedule, made in like manner, shall be determined such articles of direct insular production as shall be entitled to privileged treatment on their importation into the Peninsula and the amount of preferential duties thereon.

In neither case shall the preferential duty exceed 35 per cent.

Should the home and the colonial government agree upon the schedules and the preferential duties, they shall be considered final and shall be enforced at once. In case of disagreement the point in dispute shall be submitted to a committee of representatives of the Cortes, consisting of an equal number of Cubans and Peninsulars. The committee shall appoint its chairman, and in case of disagree-

ment the eldest member shall preside. The chairman shall have the casting vote.

3. The valuation tables concerning the articles in the schedules above mentioned shall be fixed by mutual agreement and shall be revised, after discussion, every two years. The modifications which may thereupon become necessary in the tariff duties shall be carried out at once by the respective governments.

TITLE VII.

THE GOVERNOR-GENERAL.

ART. 41. The supreme authority of the colony shall be vested in a Governor-General appointed by the King on the nomination of the council of ministers. In his capacity he shall have as viceregal patron the power inherent in the patronate of the Indies; he shall have command of all military and naval forces in the island; he shall act as delegate of the departments of state, war, navy, and the colonies; all other authorities in the island shall be subordinate to his, and he shall be responsible for the preservation of order and the safety of the colony.

The Governor-General shall, before taking possession of his office, take an oath in the presence of the King to discharge his duties faithfully and loyally.

ART. 42. The Governor-General, representing the nation, will discharge by himself and with the aid of his secretaries all the functions indicated in the preceding articles and such others as may devolve upon him as direct delegate of the King in matters of a national character.

It shall be incumbent upon the Governor-General, as representing the home Government:

1. To appoint without restriction the secretaries of his cabinet.
2. To proclaim, execute, and cause to be executed in the island all laws, decrees, treaties, international covenants, and all other acts emanating from the legislative branch of the Government, as well as all decrees, royal commands, and other measures emanating from the executive which shall be communicated to him by the departments of which he acts as delegate.

Whenever in his judgment and in that of his secretaries he considers the resolutions of the home government as liable to injure the general interests of the nation or the special interests of the island he shall have power to suspend the publication and execution thereof, and shall so notify the respective department, stating the reasons for his action.

3. To grant pardons in the name of the King, within the limitations specially prescribed to him in his instructions from the Government, and to stay the execution of a death sentence whenever the gravity of the circumstances shall so demand or the urgency of the case shall allow of no time to solicit and obtain His Majesty's pardon; but in either case he shall hear the counsel of his secretaries.

4. To suspend the guarantees set forth in articles 3, 5, 6, and 9, and in the first, second, and third paragraphs of article 13 of the constitution; to enforce legislation in regard to public order, and to take all measures which he may deem necessary to preserve the peace within and the safety without for the territory entrusted to him after hearing the counsel of his cabinet.

5. To take care that in the colony justice be promptly and fully

administered, and that it shall always be administered in the name of the King.

6. To hold direct communication on foreign affairs with the ministers, diplomatic agents, and consuls of Spain throughout America.

A full copy of such correspondence shall be simultaneously forwarded to the home Department of State.

ART. 43. It behooves the Governor-General, as the superior authority in the colony and head of its administration:

1. To take care that the rights, powers, and privileges now vested or that may henceforth be vested in the colonial administration be respected and protected.

2. To sanction and proclaim the acts of the insular parliament, which shall be submitted to him by the president and secretaries of the respective chambers.

Whenever, in the judgment of the Governor-General, an act of the insular parliament goes beyond its powers or impairs the rights of the citizens as set forth in Article I of the constitution, or curtails the guarantees prescribed by law for the exercise of said rights, or jeopardizes the interest of the colony or of the nation, he shall forward the act to the council of ministers of the Kingdom, which, within a period that shall not exceed two months, shall either assent to it or return it to the Governor-General with the objections to its sanction and proclamation. The insular parliament may, in view of the objections, reconsider or modify the act if it deems fit without a special proposition.

If two months shall elapse without the central government giving any opinion as to a measure agreed upon by the chambers which has been transmitted to it by the Governor-General, the latter shall sanction and proclaim the same.

3. To appoint, suspend, and discharge the employees of the colonial administration, upon the suggestion of the secretaries of the departments and in accordance with the laws.

4. To appoint and remove, without restriction, the secretaries of his cabinet.

ART. 44. No executive order of the Governor-General, acting as representative and chief of the colony, shall take effect unless countersigned by a secretary of the cabinet, who by this act alone shall make himself responsible for the same.

ART. 45. There shall be five secretaries of department, to wit:

Grace and justice and interior; finance; public education, public works and posts and telegraphs; agriculture, industry, and commerce.

The Governor-General shall appoint the president of the cabinet from among the secretaries, and shall also have power to appoint a president without a secretaryship.

The power to increase or diminish the number of secretaries composing the colonial cabinet, and to determine the scope of each department, is vested in the insular parliament.

ART. 46. The secretaries of the cabinet may be members of either the chamber of representatives or the council of administration and take part in the debates of either chamber, but a secretary shall only vote in the chamber of which he is a member.

ART. 47. The secretaries of the cabinet shall be responsible to the insular parliament.

ART. 48. The Governor-General shall not modify or abrogate his own orders after they are assented to by the home government, or when they shall declare some rights, or when a sentence by a judicial court

or administrative tribunal shall have been based upon said orders, or when they shall deal with his own competency.

ART. 49. The Governor-General shall not turn over his office when leaving the island except by special command from the home government. In case of absence from the seat of government which prevents his discharging the duties of his office or of disability to perform such duties, he can appoint one or more persons to take his place, provided the home government has not previously done so or the method of substitution shall not be stated in his instructions.

ART. 50. The supreme court shall have the sole power to try the Governor-General when impeached for his responsibilities as defined by the Penal Code.

The council of ministers shall take cognizance of his other responsibilities.

ART. 51. The Governor-General shall have the power, in spite of the provisions of the different articles of this decree, to act upon his own responsibility, without consulting his secretaries, in the following cases:

1. When forwarding to the home Government a bill passed by the insular parliament, especially when, in his opinion, it shall abridge the rights set forth in article 1 of the constitution of the monarchy or the guaranties for the exercise thereof vouchsafed by the laws.

2. When it shall be necessary to enforce the law or public order, especially if there be no time or possibility to consult the home Government.

3. When enforcing the national laws that shall have been approved by the Crown and made applicable to all of the Spanish or to the colony under his government.

The proceedings and means of action which the Governor-General shall employ in the above cases shall be determined by a special law.

TITLE VIII.

MUNICIPAL AND PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT.

ART. 52. Municipal organization shall be compulsory for every group of population of more than one thousand inhabitants.

Groups of less number of inhabitants may organize the service of their community by special covenants.

Every legally constituted municipality shall have power to frame its own laws regarding public education; highways by land, river, and sea; public health; municipal finances; as well as to freely appoint and remove its own employees.

ART. 53. At the head of each province there shall be an assembly, which shall be elected in the manner provided for by the colonial statutes, and shall be composed of a number of members in proportion to the population.

ART. 54. The provincial assembly shall be autonomous as regards the creation and maintenance of public schools and colleges; charitable institutions and provincial roads and ways by land, river, or sea; also as regards their own budgets and the appointment and removal of their respective employees.

ART. 55. The municipalities, as well as the provincial assemblies, shall have power to freely raise the necessary revenue to cover their expenditures, with no other limitation than to make the means adopted

compatible with the general system of taxation which shall obtain in the island.

The resources for provincial appropriations shall be independent of municipal resources.

ART. 56. The mayors and presidents of boards of aldermen shall be chosen by their respective boards from among their members.

ART. 57. The mayors shall discharge without limitation the active duties of the municipal administration, as executors of the resolutions of the board of aldermen or their representatives.

ART. 58. The aldermen and the provincial assemblymen shall be civilly responsible for the damages caused by their acts.

Their responsibility shall be exacted before the ordinary courts of justice.

ART. 59. The provincial assemblies shall freely choose their respective presidents.

ART. 60. The elections of aldermen and assemblymen shall be conducted in such manner as to allow for a legitimate representation of the minorities.

ART. 61. The provincial and municipal laws now obtaining in the island shall continue in vogue, wherever not in conflict with the provisions of this decree, until the insular parliament shall legislate upon the matter.

ART. 62. No colonial statute shall abridge the powers vested by the preceding articles in the municipalities and the provincial assemblies.

TITLE IX.

AS TO THE GUARANTIES FOR THE FULFILLMENT OF THE COLONIAL CONSTITUTION.

ART. 63. Whenever a citizen shall consider that his rights have been violated or his interests injured by the action of a municipality or a provincial assembly he shall have the right to apply to the courts of justice for redress.

The department of justice shall, if so required by the agents of the executive government of the colony, prosecute before the courts the boards of aldermen or provincial assemblies charged with breaking the laws or abusing their power.

ART. 64. In the cases referred to in the preceding article the following courts shall have jurisdiction: The territorial audiencia shall try all claims against municipalities, and the pretorian court of Havana shall try all claims against provincial assemblies.

Said courts, when the charges against any of the above-mentioned corporations shall be for abuse of power, shall render their decisions by a full bench. From the decision of the territorial audiencia an appeal shall be allowed to the pretorian court of Havana, and from the decisions of the latter an appeal shall be allowed to the supreme court of the Kingdom.

ART. 65. The redress of grievances which article 62 grants to any citizen can also be had collectively by means of public action, by appointing an attorney or representative claimant.

ART. 66. Without in any way impairing the powers vested in the Governor-General by Title V of the present decree, he may, whenever he deems fit, appear before the pretorian court of Havana in his capacity as chief of the executive government of the colony, to the end that said court shall finally decide any conflict of jurisdiction between the executive power and the legislative chambers of the colony.

ART. 67. Should any question of jurisdiction be raised between the insular parliament and the Governor-General in his capacity as representative of the home Government, which shall not have been submitted to the council of ministers of the Kingdom by petition of the insular parliament, either party shall have power to bring the matter before the supreme court of the Kingdom, which shall render its decision by a full bench and in the first instance.

ART. 68. The decisions rendered in all cases provided for in the preceding articles shall be published in the collection of colonial statutes and shall form part of the insular legislation.

ART. 69. Every municipal measure for the purpose of contracting a loan or a municipal debt shall be without effect, unless it be assented to by a majority of the townspeople whenever one-third of the number of aldermen shall so demand.

The amount of the loan or debt which, according to the number of inhabitants of a township, shall make the referendum proceeding necessary shall be determined by special statute.

ART. 70. All legislative acts originating in the insular parliament or the Cortes shall be compiled under the title of colonial statutes in a legislative collection, the formation and publication of which shall be intrusted to the Governor-General as chief of the colonial executive.

THE SYSTEM OF TAXATION.

THE CONSUMPTION TAX.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 31, 1898.*

MR. CROSAS. I have been engaged in business here for twenty years, dealing mostly in produce. Planters consign to me and I sell on orders from the United States.

DR. CARROLL. Can you give me some information in regard to the consumption tax?

MR. CROSAS. That is a tax levied on all goods, according to the Spanish law, to eat, to drink, or to burn; not on dry goods, not on trinkets or jewelry—only on the most necessary articles of consumption, such as wines, maize, rice, lard, sugar, flour, milk, charcoal which is used for cooking purposes, and other articles. When this law was passed it would seem that there must have been among the representatives at Madrid a majority who were dry goods merchants, because it favors the dry goods men as against the provision merchants.

Eventually this tax has produced a serious effect upon the stomachs of the poor people. We have been selling sugar at \$3 a hundred pounds, Spanish—the Spanish pound being a little heavier than the pound of the United States. Added to that was the consumption tax of 2 cents a pound, and then the grocer wanted to get a profit out of it and he had the expense of clerk hire, etc., so that the sugar which might have sold for 4 cents a pound was sold for 6 cents, and the poor people were the ones that suffered. Take flour, \$2.50 per sack of 200 pounds; take rice, 2 cents a pound, and at this rate it can be seen that the burden fell directly upon the poor, because the very things which they required were the things which were taxed. They have complained about it; they say that they are becoming anæmic for

want of proper food because they are unable to buy the necessaries of life with their small wages.

Dr. CARROLL. How long has it been since the tax was first levied?

Mr. CROSAS. I do not remember just how long. I remember how I opposed it, but there was a smart lawyer, who thought he knew it all, in the council, and he said it was scientific; that France had it, and that it would be a good thing here. I told him that France had a heavy debt and everything had to pay there, but that we did not have that here. However, my objection went for naught.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the tax general throughout the island?

Mr. CROSAS. As soon as the tax was instituted here every little town throughout the island did the same thing. They even had a tax on eggs.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they have a tax on eggs and chickens?

Mr. CROSAS. No; it was taken off, but we have it on rum, rice, wine, beer, Spanish pease, meat, charcoal, milk, etc. The tax should be abolished immediately. Taxes generally through the country have been levied according to the party you belonged to. If you were a Conservative, you got off pretty well; but if you were a native or a foreigner or a Liberal, they would put the screws on you by changing the valuation. I remember that there was a farm rented by a Spaniard and he was obliged to pay the taxes on that farm, the whole of which amounted to about \$80 a year. The owner of the land owed me considerable money and I had to take this property, and when it became my property they increased the taxes on it to \$400.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there a tax, municipal or provincial, on storekeepers?

Mr. CROSAS. We have what is called here patente—that is, the patent or privilege of opening your doors as a store. They have four classes; I was in the first class as an importer. The Government levied the tax on me for the national treasury, amounting to \$700. Then the municipal authorities levied a tax of $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, amounting to \$1,050. Consequently I was paying to Her Majesty annually \$1,750 under Spanish administration. But finally, seeing how things were going, I placed myself in the second class and they have imposed on me a Government tax of \$421, and the city council wants to charge $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent (\$1,050), but I refused to pay it. The Government taxes you on your profits 5 per cent, but they appraise the profits a great deal more than they really are. The municipality taxes the storekeeper according to its necessities—7 per cent or more; this year $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. I don't know where the municipality got its authority from to contribute so many thousand dollars to the national Government.

ABUSES IN TAXATION.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

GOGO, P. R., *January 15, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. How many miles is it from here to the city of Arecibo?

Mr. LEOPOLD STRUBE. About 16 miles, and from here to Utuado, 6 or 7 miles.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you have to pay as much taxes as though you lived in Arecibo?

Mr. STRUBE. We have to pay only one tax here. That was a tax on property according to the income—no, not even according to the

income, but according to the character of the plantation—and the tax is not large. This property is valued at 18,000 pesos, and we pay only about 150 pesos a year in Arecibo, and about 60 or 70 pesos in Utuado. This is not a large tax, but it is not equally divided between the two municipal districts, because I have four parts of my land in Arecibo, and pay 150 pesos there, and one part in Utuado, where I pay nearly one-half what I pay in Arecibo.

Dr. CARROLL. Don't you pay any insular taxes for the General Government in San Juan?

Mr. STRUBE. That tax covers both. About 50 pesos would go to the insular treasury and 100 to the municipal.

Dr. CARROLL. How do they get at the amount of that tax?

Mr. STRUBE. It is based on what we declare. That is another thing. At first I had to pay more money than anybody else. Then one big plantation here, which raises about five times as much coffee as I, paid only \$20 more than I paid. When I noticed that, I went to the secretary and arranged it with him in Arecibo. In Utuado I never could get to see the secretary. When it came time to make statements for taxes in Arecibo, I went there and made a claim and said I could not pay so much when others were paying less. Then they reduced my taxes \$30. Afterwards the secretary of the municipality came to me and said that I must give him \$15 because he had had my taxes reduced \$30. I said, "No, you did not do it. I protested in the usual way and got my right in public." But I knew that if I did not pay him \$15 I would lose the benefit of the reduction, because he would put the assessment back again to what it was before. I said to him, "I will give you \$15 if you will reduce my taxes another \$30," and he did that, and since then I have been paying him \$15 a year, and he has kept my assessment down.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think he divided with others?

Mr. STRUBE. No; the Spaniards did not pay to him, because they had their ways of getting their rights, but this secretary had all the foreigners. It was like a personal tax we had to pay him.

Dr. CARROLL. The poor man did not get that rebate?

Mr. STRUBE. No; but the Spaniards did not tax the poor man, because they knew he had nothing. They said, "We will tax the other fellow more and make up the difference."

STATE TAXES ONEROUS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

AGUADILLA, P. R., *January 21, 1899.*

Mr. ADRIAN DEL VALLE (of Del Valle, Coppich & Co.). Mr. Torregrosa and I defend the same ideas and principles. I was mayor of the town, elected by popular vote. I have a commission house and coffee-cleaning establishment.

In the name of Porto Ricans generally I thank you for the good opinions you have formed of the island, as I have seen it stated in the press. I have a brother in the States, and all the family of my partner are being educated in the United States. Owing to my position as a taxpayer for twenty-five or thirty years I have always had a voice in the municipality, and I do not preach anything but that which will benefit the district in which I live.

One of our necessities is roads, especially that from here to Laros.

The deputation had this road under its charge and was planning to make such a road in former days, but the road was never completed. They were six years making 5 kilometers of this road, and that has never been paid for yet. Everything has been done here by what we call an expediente—that is, you can not address anybody except by a certain form of writing on stamped paper; everything has to be done by written documents. The country is ruined by the immense amount of taxation levied on it.

Our business house had to pay \$500 for state taxes. We had to pay one and one-half times that for municipal taxes. Then we had to pay besides indirect taxes. They used to say here that the state had a hand in one pocket and the province a hand in the other pocket of poor Porto Rico; but, in spite of this, the Government never allowed us to take care of our own matters. We had nothing to say in the government of the country, because we were Porto Ricans. A merchant, if he wished to live a quiet life, had to fall in with the plans of robbery and thieving from the Government that is practiced here. In custom-house dealings, for instance, it was impossible to conduct a business if the merchant did not fall in with the ways of the custom-house people and bribe them for the purpose of smuggling in goods. The Spanish employees forced us to rob the Government or go out of business. Ten years ago, when I was in the United States, I liked the country so much that I said to my friend, "The only salvation for Porto Rico is that it fall into the hands of the United States." We want new laws to be put in force here as soon as possible. It is not possible to do very much under present conditions.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you refer now to any particular code, the penal or the commercial code, or to the administration of affairs generally?

Mr. DEL VALLE. The whole system has to be changed, especially that of instruction. Money is spent and nothing is seen for it.

THE BASIS OF STATE TAXATION.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

MAYAGUEZ, P. R., *January 24, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. I should like to ask a few questions about the tax department. How are estimates upon property made?

Mr. MANUEL BALSAC (secretary of municipality). They take as a basis the State taxation, and on that basis the municipality taxes so much per cent—that is, so much per cent of the amount taxed by the State.

Dr. CARROLL. Who determines the basis of State taxation?

Secretary BALSAC. The taxpayers themselves. They themselves form a committee of experts and prepare plans showing the amount of property that they own, and they work upon that.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there no attempt to ascertain whether they have property or income beyond that which they report?

Secretary BALSAC. They have not done it up to the present, because the State has proceeded in the following manner: It merely says, "We want so much money. Now, you divide it up among yourselves." Usually this measure applies only to urban property, in which usually the merchants and householders form committees. As regards the suburban and agricultural property, a State board of

experts was formed, and made application to the alcaldes for information and returns, and on that they formed the tax rate.

Dr. CARROLL. I suppose it was expected that each gremio would see that every member paid his proper share?

Secretary BALSAC. Among the merchants that did take place, but among agricultural interests the vigilance exercised was not so effective, and now and then they had complaints.

Dr. CARROLL. For the purpose of taxation how many gremios are there?

Secretary BALSAC. I think there are about forty, every industry and every profession being represented.

Dr. CARROLL. How are the accounts divided as between the gremios—by representatives of those gremios?

Secretary BALSAC. The basis of the taxation of each gremio is determined by the tariff established by law. For instance, lawyers pay \$40 each. If there were ten lawyers in the town, they would be taxed \$400. They would meet and apportion that among themselves. In practice they all pay the same amount. There are several physicians, and they all pay the same.

Dr. CARROLL. How about householders? Do they pay for the value of the rental of the houses, or how do they pay, if not in that way?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. Householders send in sworn returns of their property during the year. From these sworn returns as to rental 25 per cent is deducted as an allowance for expenses, and they pay 5 per cent on what remains.

Dr. CARROLL. Are household needs included in the estimates?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. No; only rental value of the houses.

Dr. CARROLL. Suppose a house were unoccupied for a whole year, would there be a tax?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. It pays just the same.

Dr. CARROLL. Suppose a farm is abandoned and brings in no income, does it pay the same tax?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. In that case the owner would make it known to the authorities, and instead of paying a tax on his land as cultivated land he would pay a tax on it as grazing land or pasture land.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it, in your judgment, be better to fix a different plan of valuation, a certain percentage, say, on the valuation of property, it being understood that as property increases or decreases in value the rate of assessment is changed accordingly, and then to levy a rate at a certain per cent on the value of the lands and tenements.

Mr. ST. LAURENT. That is our desire here, but we are prevented from doing it because we have not municipal autonomy.

Dr. CARROLL. I merely ask if you approve that method—whether that method ought to be introduced when the new government is introduced into the island.

Mr. ST. LAURENT. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. And whether it would be well to levy also a poll tax of, say, 1 peso upon every voting citizen, apart from all his other taxes, so that not only those who have property should pay taxes, but those who have not property.

Mr. ST. LAURENT. The collection of that would be very difficult.

Mr. CARTAGENA. Do they have that system to-day in the United States?

Dr. CARROLL. In many of the States they do, and in those States when a man comes to vote his vote may be challenged if he has not paid his poll tax.

Mr. ST. LAURENT. Later on, perhaps, I think we could introduce that, but at present it would be attended with great difficulty.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it not a sound principle that every male citizen should contribute to the government whose protection he enjoys?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. As a general principle it is as good a plan as you could advise, but the difficulty would be to put it in practice.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the special difficulty about the inauguration of it? You have had a system of passports for which you have paid more than this amount of tax.

Mr. ST. LAURENT. The passive resistance of individuals against it. The cédulas were divided into different classes. The laborer paid 12 cents only. Then there was a cédula of 20 cents, and so on up to \$25, according to the position of the person who paid.

Dr. CARROLL. It might be that a lesser amount should be named. I named the peso because generally the amount in the United States is \$1.

Mr. ST. LAURENT. Would you make the amount the same for everybody?

Dr. CARROLL. Yes.

Mr. ST. LAURENT. The poor men would have to pay an equal amount then with the rich men.

Dr. CARROLL. But the rich men would have to pay several hundred dollars in other ways, while the poor man would pay only one tax.

Secretary BALSAC. The municipal law provides for the collection of a head tax, but the difficulty of collecting has been so great that we have given it up.

Dr. CARROLL. Perhaps you have not had any penalty attached to it, such as denying the right of suffrage to those who do not pay the tax.

Mr. ST. LAURENT. Nobody has that right.

Dr. CARROLL. Under the autonomistic régime a voting privilege was allowed.

Secretary BALSAC. Under the law of suffrage granted the head tax was \$5.

Dr. CARROLL. Under the autonomistic régime?

A PHYSICIAN PRESENT. There was universal suffrage in that system.

THE NEW LAND TAX.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

ISLAND OF VIEQUES, P. R., *January 31, 1899.*

Mr. L. F. WOLFE. There is another thing we wish to speak of, and that is the new tax on land. Our land can not be classed with the land of Porto Rico as 1, 2, and 3, the cultivation of sugar paying from 50 cents to \$1 and the cultivation of grass for cattle paying one-half that. The \$1 charge is exorbitant. The tax on hills that we do not use at all is also excessive, because we must leave them wooded in order to attract the rain, as we have no rivers here. If we cut down the trees on them, we would be ruined.

Dr. CARROLL. Your objection is to the rates and not to the classification?

Mr. WOLFE. That is it. Porto Rico can stand those rates. We are paying also a great deal in customs. We pay to the capital also, and I fear that with all these taxes we shall have to leave the island.

Vieques has been badly treated by Porto Rico. We used to pay the city \$25,000 for prisons. Then we used to have to pay for roads, although we never got roads. Our roads would not have been built at all if we had not done something for them.

THE MUNICIPAL TAX.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

HUMACAO, P. R., *February 1, 1899.*

Mr. ANTONIO ORTIZ, a retail dealer of Humacao, and others:

Mr. ORTIZ. Under the Spanish Government we had to pay very heavy taxes, and still have to pay them. I want to ask if the present government can not reduce them.

Dr. CARROLL. I understand that the tax was very small under the Spanish law; that you could open your store for something like \$15 a year.

Mr. ORTIZ. The state charges \$16; we pay 400 per cent of that to the municipality, and on top of that \$60 for a liquor license.

Dr. CARROLL. Are you in the first, second, or third class of liquor dealers?

Mr. ORTIZ. In the seventh class.

Mr. ANTONIO ROIG. We have only two classes—first and second.

Dr. CARROLL. Then you haven't followed out the new order, which makes a further division.

Mr. ORTIZ. The order makes no further distinction; the only distinction is as to the population of the town in which we do business—those in some towns paying more than those in others, according to the number of inhabitants in the towns. The tax of \$60 on liquors and \$60 on tobacco are in addition to the old tax, to make up for the consumption tax, which was in part abolished.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the council only make two classes in applying the new order?

Mr. ORTIZ. Yes; only into wholesale and retail. I don't complain about the new liquor tax, but about the municipal tax of \$64. It is too large an amount as compared with the money I have invested in my business.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you made representation to the alcalde and council with reference to this matter?

Mr. ORTIZ. The whole of the merchants of this district made a complaint to General Henry. Some time ago the collector of taxes went around town from store to store and told them they were not paying in the class to which they belonged. I was put from the eighth class into the seventh, so that I am paying more than I did before. I don't know why they raised my class. I have been around to all the merchants and they all complain that their status has been changed.

A COUNCILMAN. They have no complaint to make on that score, because formerly they were paying in a class to which they did not belong, owing to the favoritism of the custom-house officials, who placed them in their respective classes. They now have their proper legal status, so they can not make any representation to General Henry.

Dr. CARROLL. Yes, they can, because that will present a reason for a new classification. A man who has a capital of only \$200 can not afford to pay nearly \$200 to start business.

OBJECTIONS TO THE NEW LAND TAX.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

GUAYAMA, P. R., *February 8, 1899.*

Mr. JUAN I. CAPO. I am a property owner, and I think I can say that the people, as a whole, are not pleased with the new tax published a few days ago, because it is not a just one. In characterizing it as unjust I can give data which will uphold my statement. This data will be given in a written statement which I will send to you at the capital.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any other gentleman who wishes to speak on the new land tax?

Mr. MODESTO BIRD (property owner). I consider that the tax on cane lands is a just one, but I consider the tax on pasture lands too high. I am an owner of cane lands, and can, therefore, speak without prejudice.

Dr. CARROLL. Will you please give your reasons?

Mr. BIRD. There are pasture lands which should pay a dollar, because they are worth it; but others should not pay a dollar, because their condition does not warrant it. There are some lands up on the mountains, on which the owners raise small fruits, which will have to pay \$200, although the land itself is not worth more than \$800. I think cane lands will be benefited by the tax, but lands growing small fruits can not pay the tax.

Dr. BELONDTE. The owners of pasture lands are not all on the same footing. You have to take into account what land produces, what it can be rented for, and what it can be sold for. For instance, in Guayama, where we suffer six months in the year for want of rain, we require 4 acres to pasture the same number of cattle that can be pastured on 1 acre in Yabucoa; and when I say Yabucoa, I mean other districts under the same conditions.

Dr. CARROLL. That seems to be reasonable.

Dr. BELONDTE. If you rent an acre of pasture land here you can not get more than \$2 for it, whereas if you rent an acre of cane land you can get \$8 and more. The same applies to selling. If you sell an acre of pasture land you get \$15, but in the case of sugar or coffee land you get \$100 or more.

INEQUALITY OF THE NEW LAND TAX.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

ARROYO, P. R., *February 8, 1899.*

Mr. VERGES (of Arroyo). One of the questions that are causing a great deal of discussion is the new land tax, which I think perhaps is not rightly understood. Certainly the old system was very defective, and this is an improvement, if it can only be established in the correct way.

Dr. CARROLL. What would be your idea as to the inauguration of it?

Mr. VERGES. It is difficult to say. I think, however, that a commission should study the matter before it is implanted, because there are cane lands, for example, which easily give 4 or 5 hogsheads a cuerda, while others give no more than 2, and yet under this law each must pay the same.

Dr. CARROLL. Are they not classified in three classes?

Mr. VERGES. No; in two classes; and I think that the greatest losers will be the poorer people—those who will be treated most harshly.

Dr. CARROLL. Those who will have to pay 25 centavos a cuerda?

Mr. VERGES. Yes; that is too high. People who have very poor land can not afford to pay that.

Dr. CARROLL. I have heard the criticism that you make now made before as to small proprietors.

Mr. VERGES. In places like Arroyo and Maunabo I think the yield, under the conditions that we have here, will hardly exceed 2 hogs-heads a cuerda. Formerly lands were more productive, more verdant than they are to-day, and the yield was considerably more. Our lands are becoming worn out. If we can establish irrigation here and properly renew the land, I have no doubt the yield could be augmented a good deal.

Mr. VERGES. Returning to the tax, I think there should be a fourth class. The first class pays \$1; that is 1 per cent for land worth \$100; but 25 per cent is too high, because there are lands here you can get for \$12.

I think there should really be five classes. There are some lands far away from the roads which are of very little value, some of which animals can not work, but the idea of the system is good. It puts a certain tax on our lands, whereas formerly taxation was a source of great injustice. People who have been so placed that they could work everything to their own interests, without regard to the interest of others, have taken advantage of it. Certainly there should be a low tax in behalf of the very poor people.

Dr. CARROLL. My own belief is that the property tax best for this island is the system which is based on valuation, the tax being a certain per cent on the valuation. It seems to me that that system is a really just one.

Mr. VERGES. My idea would be to assess the land at a certain valuation, and let the same per cent rule in the whole district.

Dr. CARROLL. That is the system we have in the United States, and while open to abuse, as any system is, I think on the whole it is the most equitable. The only difficulty is to put land into the right classification. You can generally arrive at an idea of what land is worth an acre and let it be assessed in that way.

Mr. VERGES. But we will know better what our lands are worth when we know under what conditions we are working. If we are working as United States citizens and are granted the large measure of freedom enjoyed in the mother country, the situation will be different from what it has been up to this time. There has been no fixed valuation to any property in the island.

Dr. CARROLL. I don't think it is possible for the old system to continue.

Mr. VERGES. We hoped not, but up to the present it has continued. I have seen properties which have cost their owners \$250,000 practically given away for \$50,000 or \$75,000. You can not go out into the country and say this property is worth so much. It has no fixed market value. If you want the property, you will give for it what the particular circumstances of the case may make it worth to you. When we know under what conditions we are working, then, of course, it will be different.

Mr. LUIS BOSSELO. I wish to inform you of a case of injustice of a kind which frequently occurs in this island. I started a coffee plantation in Patillo, and the ayuntamiento, instead of helping me, imposed

on me a maximum tax, as if it were in bearing, whereas it has just been planted. That is against the law, as under the Spanish law estates which are newly planted are exempt for ten years from taxation.

Dr. CARROLL. If they are working against the law, you have a remedy.

Mr. BOSSELO. No; they pay no attention to petitions or representations. My estate yielded this year 120 pounds of coffee, and they charged me \$100.

Mr. JUAN P. GIOVANI. I produced on my estate 320 pounds and paid \$160 in Patillo.

THE NEW TAX LAW IN CITIES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

PONCE, P. R., March 4, 1899.

Dr. STEPHEN VIDAL (a physician). The laws with regard to house rent are defective and tend to depreciate the value of city real estate. Property is not so valuable if there is no facility for collecting rents.

There is a very important question in reference to the city building lots. City lands within the last few years have increased greatly in value and have been much built up. I don't think the government has any right to complain of the holders of town lots, but they have just put a tax of 5 cents per meter on town lots, and I find that tax very heavy. I have been trying to make arrangements to build on some of them, but this tax will prevent. It is a precipitous measure and uncalled for.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you refer to the last order of General Henry?

Dr. VIDAL. Yes; there was absolutely no need for that measure.

Mr. CORTADO. I consider it a very unjust tax, because it is not possible to build up our city in a day. Everything you see here has been the result of our own initiative. We have never had protection from the government. Under the administration of Dabán I was in the council of Aguadilla, and he issued an order against putting up of wooden houses.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the size of city lots?

Dr. VIDAL. There is no limit to them.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the tax per year?

Dr. VIDAL. The tax is 5 cents a meter.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that square measure?

Dr. VIDAL. Yes; and I think the measure must have been devised by persons who have no property at all.

Dr. CARROLL. That would be about \$55 a year on a lot 100 feet front—about what would it be in the United States.

Dr. VIDAL. In the United States the inhabitants of a town are in a better position. There are more people in a position to pay, whereas here nearly all are poor.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. I have people on my property too poor to pay the tax. If they consider my suburban property as within the limits of the city for the purpose of this tax, it will not be possible to pay it. Some poor people living in my houses can not even pay \$1 a month, and I can not sell the property, because there are no buyers.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you get any income from your land?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. No; absolutely none.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you furnish the houses for them to live in?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. There are houses built on them which cost

very little. If they are considered as standing on building lots, within the meaning of the tax, I don't know what will be the outcome.

Dr. CARROLL. What are you holding the land for?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. They were formerly grazing lands.

Dr. CARROLL. Is all of it occupied now by the poor people?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. The greater part of it is.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it not likely that such lands will be considered as lands outside of the city and be taxed so much per cuerda?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. That may be, but as lands have not been classified yet I am not sure about it. They adjoin the city limits. We fear the municipality will abuse this power and consider such lands as city property.

Dr. CARROLL. General Henry said that his reason for taxing poor men's property at 25 cents per cuerda was to force them to cultivate the lands and make more out of them. I presume his system of taxing building lands is for the purpose of inducing the owners of them to make improvements on them or to build on them.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. We don't require a stimulus of that kind. If under the Spanish Government we could produce what we have, you can imagine that under the present Government we will build up the lands without any such coercion. You can be sure there are merchants here who, as soon as they can see that there are any profits to be made out of building, will build.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think there should be no tax on these building lots?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. A proper way to stimulate building would be to better the law in relation to landlord and tenant so as to enable the landlord to collect.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the difficulty about that law now?

Dr. VIDAL. There are a great many difficulties. I will make you a list of them and send it to you.

Dr. CARROLL. Before you pass from that point, unless you are going to talk further, I want to ask a few questions. I was informed by the alcalde yesterday that the result of the new tax scheme for city property would be that this municipality would not have much more than one-half the income that it has previously had from taxation; that the tax will be very much reduced upon improved property.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. Formerly, under the Spanish law, unimproved building lots paid nothing.

Dr. CARROLL. But I am speaking of improved property. The alcalde says that the new system has greatly reduced taxation on improved property. Is that true?

Mr. VIDAL. The municipality does not need to have so much. The municipality has too many unnecessary expenses.

Dr. CARROLL. I understand that, according to the preceding system, about $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of the taxes went to the municipality and about 5 per cent went to the insular government, and under the new arrangement there will be an even division of the proceeds as between the municipality and the insular government. And the alcalde states that instead of \$300,000 or \$360,000 the municipality ought to have at least \$500,000 for its expenditures.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. We can not be frank in speaking of this alcalde or any other, because we don't wish to appear to slander anybody. I understand the reason for the shortage in the municipality is that many importing merchants took their names off the importing list when the war was started. I think the Government has been too

kind in removing the licenses on lawyers and doctors. I am a doctor myself, but I think as such I ought to pay.

Dr. CARROLL. Don't you think a just and fair system of taxation on assessed valuation of all property is a better system than taxation on incomes?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. The system is a good one, but it would take a great while to value property.

Dr. CARROLL. General Henry's idea is that the present system is a step in that direction.

Mr. CORTADO. I think that the deficit could be made up by a small duty on articles imported. Ponce imports 50,000 barrels of flour, and I don't think a tax of 25 per cent would hurt anybody, and in that way they could make up their deficits. Flour in the United States can not possibly be cheaper than the quotations of yesterday—\$3.15 per barrel.

Dr. CARROLL. If Porto Rico is to become a Territory of the United States, all customs duties between the two countries may be abolished.

Mr. CORTADO. We have to get our municipal expenses from somewhere.

Mr. CASALS. This country is purely an agricultural country, and has no industries of any sort. Instead of taxing agriculture it should be protected, because you see the terrible condition it is in now.

Dr. CARROLL. I don't think agriculture should be taxed heavier than it is now.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. I have been in this country for many years, and I believe that it is the desire of everybody to have a Territorial form of government and to secure free trade with the United States. These gentlemen, I believe, will tell you the same thing. It is an erroneous opinion on the part of the people in Washington that we want a colonial form of government.

Dr. CARROLL. An important financial question is involved, and that is whether without the receipts from customs, you can raise money enough to meet your expenses.

Mr. R. CASALS. We all wish to have a Territorial form of government, and we believe that the island will be able to raise money enough to attend to it, but the form in which taxes are collected must be changed. The present system is too onerous and is not justly carried out. The assessor may be your enemy, and in that case he will assess you larger than he ought. The custom-houses should be constituted as tax collectors, doing away with the assessors and collectors, who are guilty of immoral transactions.

Dr. VIDAL. As I am a doctor, have lived all my life in Porto Rico, and necessarily mingled with the people, I can say that everybody would be well satisfied to see a Territorial form of government established here. The great mass of the people do not fall in line with the view of our seeking something else.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. The Spanish Government used to collect internal revenue and also customs. Now, Mr. Casals means to say that the officials in the custom-house named by the Federal Government should pay the taxes to the insular government and not trust the insular agents.

Mr. CORTADO. The proof that we must have customs of some sort is that municipalities have never been able to meet their expenses without a consumption tax.

Dr. CARROLL. But the island has had larger expenses than it will have hereafter. You won't have to pay \$200,000 to the church; you

won't have to pay \$2,500,000 for the army and navy; and so there will be a big reduction in the expenses.

Dr. VIDAL. I think that by economizing in the municipalities and levying an equitable tax we could fully cover our expenses.

Dr. CARROLL. I think if you had the right system of taxation you could raise all the money you need without putting a burden on anybody.

Mr. CORTADO. You must understand that this country is dead. In its interior everybody owes money and no one can pay.

Dr. CARROLL. Is not it altogether probable that the system of taxation has been very unequal and unjust?

Mr. CORTADO. The people are afraid that the same system will be continued here.

REFORMS IN TAXES.

STATEMENT OF JOSE M. ORTIZ.

MAUNABO, P. R., *February 24, 1899.*

1. Suppression of the provincial deputation and the enormous disbursements it occasions.

2. Collect no taxes from newly established industries for at least three years. Impose light duties only on the crude material they may import.

3. Extensive liberty for mercantile traffic and opening of all the ports to coasting trade. Allow no measures making this illusory or favoring the absorbent pretensions of the heads of maritime departments.

4. The prohibition of the payment of gratuities, fees, and traveling allowances (apart from expenses) to employees of custom-houses and public treasury inspectors when on journeys of inspection.

5. Suppression of the sale of meat in the cities by auction, and complete liberty for anyone to engage in the sale of that article. The slaughter of cattle in public abattoirs under rigid inspection, and the payment of the taxes imposed by the state or municipality. Suppression of direct taxation of the wholesale and retail supplier.

(6) A better system of registry tax on cattle or its complete suppression. There are owners of 200 oxen who only have 10 registries, and some of 5 or 6 oxen who have no registries, whereas many cattle dealers possess hundreds of registries of imaginary oxen, which illegal state of affairs is the cause of much immorality.

(NOTE BY TRANSLATOR.—This probably refers to the ownership of registered brands.)

(7) Suppression of stamped paper, poll tax (*cedula*), royal dues on transfer of real estate, and the fines which these dues give rise to.

(8) Less rigor and complexity in the custom-house regulations, so that they shall not contain so many impossible and vexatious requisites, almost impossible of compliance by the importers, who have to buy, in many cases, the employees' laxity in their observation.

(9) Exaction of responsibility of administrative and public servants when their acts or habits prejudice the moral or material interests of citizens. Complete indemnization for persons thus prejudiced.

(10) All, or at least the greater part, of these imposts should be collected through the custom-house in the form of duties.

(11) To collect no direct taxes from property owners owning less than 20 *cuerdas* (about 1 acre to a *cuerda*) of high mountain lands.

(12) Suppression of the consumption tax.

UNEQUAL ASSESSMENTS.

STATEMENT OF TOMAS VASANEZ, M. D.

MAYAGUEZ, P. R., *November 10, 1898.*

To assess for municipal taxation it is the custom to name a commission, called repartidores (dividers), composed of two principal men among the agriculturists, manufacturers, and commerce. Naturally these gentlemen try to lighten their tax burden by increasing that of the rest. This occasions the occultation of public wealth. The cattle raiser—I could give names if necessary—possessing 6,000 head of cattle declares only 1,000 or 500; another possessing 1,000 declares 100, and another possessing 100 declares 20 only. I know personally ranchers who with 1,000 head of beeves pay only \$300 tax, or not more than is paid by those owning one-fourth the number. The same things take place with sugar and coffee planters. The coffee planter harvesting 500 hundredweight declares only 80, etc., whereas the very small producer, with but a few head of cattle or a few acres of land, has to pay the whole of the tax, which under these conditions is excessive and enormous.

Porto Rico does not pay as much as she could pay, and therefore does not attend to public improvements. What she does collect is badly distributed, and it may be said that the rich pay no taxes, which fall entirely on the small proprietor, overwhelming and ruining him.

A remedy, in my opinion, would be the introduction of the registration of property for the purpose of taxation. In a small country like this it would be relatively easy, would give an exact knowledge of properties, and would allow of a just assessment for taxation, together with a larger taxable area.

OPPOSITION TO THE NEW TAX SYSTEM.

STATEMENT OF MANY CITIZENS.

ISABELA, P. R., *February 15, 1899.*

About taxes decided on by the Government: When the country was expecting that the Government would fulfill its promise of freeing agriculture and commerce from taxation in order to raise them from a state of prostration, the general order referring to taxation, accompanied by the famous letter of the secretary of the treasury to the president of the council announcing that the island would furnish half a million to the insular treasury and an equal sum for the municipalities by the new plan, showed the island that the ruinous taxation of old times which has ruined our island was to be continued, and that the municipalities were to be shorn of their legitimate right of voting and collecting the necessary imposts required by their local obligations. We think it would be praiseworthy of the secretary of the treasury to try by every means in his power to make taxation equitable and acceptable for all. The limiting the tribulation of the municipalities to \$500,000 when their requirements are \$3,000,000 makes us lose hope of the country's regeneration.

We think that if it is desired that Porto Rico become a country of freedom and happiness, the Government must with a firm hand abolish all beaurocratic centers, which only desire to create a privileged class and live at the expense of an unhappy people long groaning under a system of exploitation.

THE NEW SYSTEM OF LAND TAXATION.

By a general order issued by General Henry, military commander, dated January 19, 1899, the following system, devised by the secretary of the treasury, Señor Colly Toste, was adopted in place of the former method of assessment according to income. But one tax on land is assessed under the new regulations, and the proceeds are divided equally between the insular and municipal treasuries.

1. The assessment of taxes upon lands will hereafter be made in accordance with the various cultivations existing in the island and the quality of the land taxed.

2. In accordance with the various cultivations, there will be taxes on cane lands, coffee lands, tobacco lands, pasture lands, minor produce lands, and forest lands.

3. In accordance with the quality of the land there will be taxes of the first, second, and third classes; the first class comprising the best lands, the second class the next best, and the third class the poorest.

4. On all lands of the first class there will be a tax of 1 peso per cuerda, on all lands of the second class a tax of 0.50 peso per cuerda, on all lands of the third class a tax of 0.25 peso per cuerda.

5. Each municipal corporation will appoint a classifying commission which will select subcommissions in the different districts of each township, these subcommissions to report to the classifying commissions on the class of lands in their respective districts.

6. These commissions will be guided by the following instructions:

(a) First-class cane lands are plains and valleys and other alluvial lands lying near settled communities, highways, railroads, and seaports, and the lands of drained lagoons and mangrove marshes.

(a') Second-class cane lands are the highland plains, generally surcharged with oxides of iron and known in the country as clayish lands.

(b) First-class coffee lands are valley lands and hills abounding in organic detritus.

(b') Second-class coffee lands are highlands having a calcareous or limy formation.

(c) First-class tobacco lands are valley lands watered by rivers.

(c') Second-class tobacco lands are loamy highlands mixed with clay and sand.

(c'') Third-class tobacco lands are sandy lands along the coast and calcareous lands among the hills.

(d) First-class pasture lands are valleys, lagoons, and glens where grow "malojilla" and Guinea grass.

(d') Third-class pasture lands are those along the coast and limy hills where grow only brush, "rat-tail," sweet grass, etc.

(e) First-class minor-produce lands are valley lands.

(e') Second-class minor-produce lands are highlands.

(e'') Third-class minor-produce lands are sandy and limy lands.

(f) First-class forest lands are those growing virgin forests whose timber can supply building and cabinet woods, e. g., "aceitillo," cedar, "capá," "ausubo," etc.

(f') Second-class forest lands are lands with a rocky and calcareous soil, growing only bushes available for fuel.

7. Taxes on lands whose owners reside abroad will be increased by 50 per cent.

8. All ordinances or decrees conflicting with the provisions of this order are hereby revoked and rendered null and void.

URBAN TAXATION TOO HEAVY.

STATEMENT OF MAYOR EUSTOQUIO TORRES.

GUAYANILLA, P. R., November 8, 1898.

The principal sources of income of the State, apart from royal dues, customs, stamped paper, and poll tax, are the taxes on territorial wealth. Until a short time since these were divided into three headings, called agricultural, urban, and commercial, which were subdivided into cane, coffee, tobacco, grazing lands, small crops, mountain brush, urban, etc.

These are taxed by an impost of 5 per cent on their net products, after deducting for working expenses 75 per cent in the case of sugar; 35 per cent in the case of coffee, small crops, tobacco, and mountain brush; 10 per cent in the case of other subdivisions.

Although this system of subdivisions has its defenders, it is certain that it was devised only to protect cane growers, as can at once be seen by the disproportionate reduction they are allowed, to the prejudice of other branches. These, therefore, had to declare a net production much greater than the reality in order to be able to cover their proportion of the impost, levied without any regard for the real product of the agriculturist. Experience has shown that the old style of three divisions was more easy and less complicated, more equitable and approximate to true assessment. It also prevented assessors from doing what was frequently done under the new divisional plan—that is, adding to the number of acres said to be under cultivation an arbitrary quantity, for fear the original amount was understated, thus frequently making it appear that twice the number of acres were under cultivation than in reality were.

It has been stated that the new government proposes to suppress territorial taxes and to substitute for it urban taxation. Although this might give results in a few cities, such as San Juan, Ponce, and Mayaguez, it would be ridiculous if applied to other towns of the island, whose houses, small in number and importance (owing to the fact that the principal property owners live on their country estates), could not support a tribute so excessive.

Owing to the aforesaid reasons and the fact that this country is essentially agricultural, urban taxation should be decreased rather than increased. Besides, if the collection of the municipal taxes be governed by the territorial tax, as is the rule in force to-day, the result would be that persons living in one district in which they had built their houses would not be called on to pay anything in the municipalities in which they might have the bulk of their fortune in land.

The Spanish Government decreed the general enumeration and assessment of property, which work was well advanced, and returns were sent in from almost all the towns to the superior centers, where they were pigeonholed, owing to the influence of persons who would have been injured by the adoption of this registry.

It is therefore of great importance that the country be left its system of territorial taxation, even if the rate on sugar be reduced to a level with or a little more than that of coffee.

PLEA FOR LOWER TAXES.

PATILLAS, P. R., *March, 1899.*

SEÑOR JOSÉ AMADEO, M. D. If the expenses of the budget are not reduced, neither can the taxes be. In all well-administered countries when the products decrease taxes also decrease. This is a law of political economy which everybody knows. We have not before us the precise data to be able to judge of what each town produces, but the complaints regarding present taxes are numerous, and nobody is surprised at it, as our tributary system has produced the same effects in all countries where it has been tried. We keep on lamenting. Nonconformity with assessment can be regulated by the efforts of taxpayers by awakening little by little individual and collective conscience, which will bring with it equity and justice. We do not have

a State assessment and valuation of property, the most solid and certain means of being able to assess taxation. Meanwhile the municipalities, with good alcaldes at their head, administering well and inspired by highly patriotic sentiments, can do much for the general welfare. Sugar cane, which grows as a most flourishing agricultural product, can not possibly support further imposts until the markets of the United States are opened to us. Sugars are struggling against bonuses and foreign competition, which reduced the price to an extreme limit, so that profits will always be very low. Coffee is just beginning and, instead of exactions, requires assistance to enable it to succeed, as it is the most costly and difficult of all crops raised in Porto Rico.

We may say nothing of minor agriculture, which for some time has been decayed and requires a great stimulus. Under such circumstances of poor protection municipal expenses should be reduced and the government should be requested to suppress or reduce the amount collected for account of the state. This is the only way the municipalities can get out of their difficulties during this period of terrible crisis, until prosperity increases in the country. An appropriation for education alone should be allowed to stand, it being impossible to do without it. It amounts to \$3,303. The state collects \$5,010, which, if it releases the district from, would be of an immense assistance to it during these days of difficulties. We must say something as regards the condonation of unpaid taxes, dating back two or three years ago under the Spanish rule. This would prevent sales of property and foreclosure proceedings, which dishearten the agriculturist and ruin the small producer.

THE TAX ON INDUSTRY.

STATEMENT OF HARTMANN & CO.

ARROYO, P. R., *November 7, 1898.*

We think this strange Spanish system of taxing industry should be abolished. For example, compelling a merchant to pay the state treasury, without counting municipal rates, \$400 to \$800, according to the importance of the town in which he is established, for the privilege of doing commercial transactions. The state taxes should be raised by inland revenue on alcohol, wines, rum, tobacco, etc., and by duties, custom-house entries, and by the 5 per cent tax on net incomes.

THE TRANSFER TAX.

STATEMENT OF MAYOR CELESTINO DOMINGUEZ.

GUAYAMA, P. R., *January, 1899.*

Fortunately, stamped paper has been abolished. This was one of the greatest scourges of property which the island was laboring under. I will not dwell on this subject, as you will already have learned of the heavy burden this tax constituted. There were stamps that cost \$25, and one class, called "state payments," which cost as high as \$50.

Another of our calamities was the transfer tax levied on transfer of any class of property, through the custom-houses, which has also been abolished. This tax was so onerous that the island is full of deeds

which have been held in hopes of better times and have not yet paid this tax, thus making the titles inoperative. Poor people have been special sufferers by this impost. One of the matters requiring the immediate attention of the Government is the property registry offices, whose employees have enjoyed a sinecure. These offices have been a hindrance to the transfer of real estate. The registrars, although subjected to a tariff of fees, pay no attention to this, but charge whatever they think fit.

Transfers of property worth \$300 have had to pay as high as \$12 registration fee. Those who wanted their deeds registered were obliged to accede to the demands of the registrars; otherwise their documents were held up. The history of the employees of the government in Porto Rico is full of the names of men who, with no other capital than their pens, their titles of lawyers, and a government employment, have amassed enormous fortunes. The registries of Ponce, Mayaguez, San Juan, and Arecibo are mines of gold for the fortunate holders. A single employee in each municipality could easily attend to the work.

Another impost was that of commercial licenses, invented by the Spanish Government to protect merchants who are nearly all peninsular Spaniards and follow Spanish politics. This tax was based on the declaration of the interested parties, and the insular government could neither raise nor lower it even in cases of real necessity. In some towns this tax was so low that merchants whose business reached hundreds of thousands of dollars yearly, as in Guayama, paid only \$2,000. Manufacturing, which is here insignificant, was also subjected to this tax.

From time immemorial almost all the island has suffered under the odious *consumo* tax on articles of food, drink, and fuel. As *alcaide* of this town I wished to suppress it, but as I am not allowed to surcharge the taxes of the merchants, I should have been obliged to impose an extra tax to balance the deficiency on other interests, which would be a further protection for the commercial monopoly, both irritating and unjust, and would further burden the poor classes in a country already impoverished. For the present, therefore, I have had to abandon the idea. Besides the taxes already mentioned, there is the direct territorial tax, consisting of 5 per cent of the sworn declared gross returns of property made yearly, from which are reduced the following amounts allowed for working expenses: Sugar estates, 75 per cent; other crops, 35 per cent; urban property, 25 per cent; pasture lands, 10 per cent.

Municipalities can also impose a direct tax, taking as a basis the state assessment, but raising it as high as their needs require, except in the case of commerce, manufacturing, and professions, which can not be raised more than 20 per cent.

REDUCTION OF TAXES.

STATEMENT OF JOSÉ V. CINTRON, PLANTER.

YABUCOA, P. R., *February 2, 1899.*

Reduction in the estimates of expenditures to a point enabling them to be met by the custom-house receipts. This can be done by reducing the higher salaries, suppressing the unnecessary posts, and reducing the custom-house and collectorships to four, viz: Capital, Ponce, Mayaguez, and Humacao, but declaring all the ports of the

island open for the purpose of import and export under the supervision of the nearest custom-house.

Declare free from duties tools and machinery for industries and agriculture, also coal, and place a heavy duty on rice to stimulate its production in this country, so as to harvest enough for local use, the quantity consumed being of extraordinary proportions.

The substitution of the system of taxation of landed property by the plan proposed to the military government by the secretary of the treasury fills a long-felt want. The same order might be made extensive to house property by charging an annual tax equivalent to the half of one month's rental. The taxation of industries and commerce by a system of just and reasonable licensing would complete in a satisfactory manner the total reform of the present system of taxation.

The total amount of the direct and internal taxes to be divided in halves, assigning one-half to the municipalities for local disbursements and the other to a special fund for education under the charge of the state or department. This would realize the ideal of efficacious generalization of education.

Work out a vast plan of education, making it gratuitous and obligatory, and attending to roads and railroads (the most pressing need of the island to-day), whose pitiful condition is showing the lamentable state of backwardness and calling for the serious consideration of all concerned.

It is not strange that the country has been reduced to the condition of poverty now overshadowing us, owing to its system of taxation, both absurd and absorbing, which only fell short of taxing light and air. But, thank God, its credit has been spared; there is no public debt, and the solvency of the treasury and the good purposes of the new government may open the way by means of loans to the construction of roads and railroads, which are the arteries through which the wealth and progress of a country flow.

The cane grower and sugar maker are so related that the one is nearly always the other, and the division of labor does not therefore exist. The depreciation of the sugar product during the last few years, the competition which it has had to sustain with the beet product, a competition at once unequal and desperate, owing to the fact that manufacturers in Europe are able to employ the latest machinery and best methods, capital and science, and above all the export bonus giving government protection—all that has here been lacking. The government here protected inversely.

The ravages of usury, on the other hand, taking what the tax-gatherers left, make it appear impossible that anything could be left of the industry.

It is natural that these causes should have produced a corresponding effect, and that some estates should have passed into the mortgagor's hands, and others have ceased to exist, while most of them follow a course of misery unsustainable.

THE CONSUMO TAX.

STATEMENT OF DR. FRANCISCO DEL VALLE, MAYOR OF SAN JUAN.

Since the year 1883 this municipality has collected the consumo tax. In that year the only articles taxed under this law were wheat flour, coal, and charcoal. In successive years the tax has been levied on

various articles, and at the present date is collected on the following things:

Meats of the following animals: Ox, hog, sheep, goat, including their fats, which brings in monthly about \$3,500; coke, \$510; wheat flour, \$1,523; milk, \$1,381; sugar, \$811; spirits, \$569; beer, \$118; wines, \$209; rice, \$395; Spanish beans, \$382; imported lard, \$302; cigarettes, \$510. In the fiscal year 1895-96 the total amount collected from these articles was \$164,456.90; in the year 1896-97 the amount was \$163,786.10; in the year 1897-98 the amount was \$165,515.13; and for 1898-99 the estimate is \$135,569.47.

It may be observed that these sums constitute one of the principal resources of the municipality of San Juan with which to cover its estimated expenses, amounting in the present fiscal year to the considerable sum of \$336,428.55.

NOVEMBER 1, 1898.

STAMPED PAPER.

This was a means employed by the Spanish Government to raise money. The stamped paper was made at Madrid. The prices were according to the following scale for various documents:

From \$1 to \$20.....	\$0.15
From \$20 to \$40.....	.25
From \$40 to \$100.....	.40
From \$100 to \$200.....	.60
From \$200 to \$300.....	.80
From \$300 to \$400.....	1.00
From \$400 to \$500.....	2.00
From \$500 to \$1,000.....	3.00
From \$1,000 to \$1,500.....	5.00
From \$1,500 to \$2,000.....	10.00
From \$2,000 to \$4,000.....	15.00
From \$4,000 to \$10,000.....	20.00
From \$10,000 upward.....	25.00
Notarial acts.....	.50
Power of attorney.....	2.00
Documents whose value could not be determined.....	4.00
For "state payments".....	50.00

THE PORTO RICAN TARIFF.

PRELIMINARY REPORT OF THE COMMISSIONER, MADE IN DECEMBER, 1898.

The tariff at present in force in Porto Rico is the old Spanish tariff, slightly modified so as to abolish discriminations against the United States and other countries, to subject imports from Spain to the same duties as similar articles from the rest of the world, and to collect tonnage dues on a new basis. Tonnage dues were formerly collected at the rate of \$1 per ton cargo. They are now collected at the rate of 20 cents per ton measurement. Formerly a vessel of 2,000 tons measurement bringing a cargo of 50 tons to San Juan would pay \$50; now she would pay \$40 for the same cargo, or for 1 ton, and \$20 if in ballast. The change chiefly affects vessels coming in ballast for

orders. A later order exempts vessels of American registry plying between ports of the island or between ports of the island and ports of the United States from these dues.

The Spanish tariff, like all other Spanish methods of raising money, was designed to secure the revenue needed with the least possible disadvantage to Spain. It was, of course, natural and proper that Spanish imports should be favored and that the productions of other nations should bear the chief burden. Consequently the rate paid on goods from the Peninsula averaged about 10 per cent, while the charges on those from other countries were high, in some instances so high as to be practically prohibitive. When prohibitive duties are levied, it is usually for the purpose of excluding undesirable goods or of protecting home products. Prohibitive duties do not, of course, yield revenue, and if revenue is sacrificed it must be in order that some other object deemed more important may be gained. But the Porto Rican tariff was so levied as to suppress, or at least repress, Porto Rican industries, and in some instances without benefiting those of the mother country. There seems to have been an utter disregard of insular interests. If Spanish producers were not affected, the framers of the tariff showed little concern as to how high or low the rates were put.

As between Spanish and Porto Rican producers and manufacturers the latter had no chance. Nor were the needs of Porto Rican consumers, however urgent they might appear from the insular point of view, treated as worthy of serious attention. Indispensable articles of food not produced in the island had to come in a roundabout way through the hands of the merchants in Spain or pay enormous duties if imported direct from other countries. The Porto Ricans thought that some of the many streams of the island might well furnish power to mills to grind wheat from the United States or Canada into flour; but the Government at Madrid punished these aspirations by making the duty on wheat almost as high as that on flour. Flour paid \$4 per sack of 92 kilos (about 200 pounds), and wheat \$3.15, and flour paid also, for municipal purposes, a consumption tax of \$2.30. There were mills in Spain, and by importing wheat for them from the United States they could be kept going. The millers of Spain profited; the people of Porto Rico suffered.

Attempts were made in the island to manufacture soup paste and crackers. The result is graphically described in the report of the manufacturers of Ponce, drawn up in 1898 for the use of the colonial ministry at Madrid, and presented to the commissioner of the United States, without change, as the best statement possible of the needs of the island. The cracker manufacturers had to pay the high duties on flour and compete with crackers from the peninsula entered free of all duty. Those who invested largely in the manufacture of soup paste saw their business killed in the same way. Their petition to the Liberal ministry, from which they hoped so much, is pathetic in its pleadings for simple justice. Appeal after appeal was made, they say, but all "sleep the sleep of the just (are pigeonholed)," for "if ever a minister intended to cast a pitying glance upon such injustice and relieve so much misfortune by some saving measure, this intention never materialized, but was strangled in its birth by the influences brought to bear by Spanish manufacturers." All they got was promises and manana never came. The advent of the Liberal ministry kindled new hopes. "We are emerging from the tutelage of ex-

plotters," they said; but Sagasta never had full opportunity to show how he would meet the appeals for relief.

The shoe manufacturers have the same story to tell: Shoes imported free from Spain, shoes of the poorest quality—"pasteboard soles," "badly made, unsightly, coarse, and without durability"—while Porto Rican manufacturers were heavily taxed for the raw materials. Of course, shoes are costly, and 700,000 out of the 900,000 population go barefoot. It was the opinion of industrialists that they could make better shoes and furnish them more cheaply than the Balearic Island manufacturers, but they were not given the chance. They believed that the result of home manufacture would be to lower prices, as in other instances, but competition with Spanish producers when the latter had both the home and the insular market was impossible. There are salt mines at Cabo Rojo, but salt from Spain is free, and vessels loading with salt had to clear at Mayaguez, increasing the expenses of shipments, because the port of Cabo Rojo had been closed; so the salt industry was crippled.

Those interested, or who would be glad to be interested in the manufacture of soap, show that while soap from Barcelona paid only the transitory duty of 10 per cent at the ports of the island, amounting to \$15 for every hundred boxes of 1 hundredweight each, the insular industry is compelled to pay \$32.82 in duties for the raw materials to make that quantity of soap. No wonder they ask in despair: "What business can succeed under such circumstances?"

It is not strange that though the Porto Rican tariff is high, too high by about 50 per cent, it did not tend to develop Porto Rican industries. It was evidently framed so as not to promote such a development.

The representations of the industrial leaders of Ponce, not originally intended for the United States, but for Spain, indicate that they not only desired to introduce new business enterprises, but that they knew that the only possible way of doing so was under the protection of judicious tariff schedules. The arguments in support of their appeal are such as we have long been familiar with in the United States. Countries, they say, which have no industries of their own can never advance to the front rank. Manufacturing countries are the richest and most powerful. They have the largest resources, the necessities of life are within the reach of all, and the lower classes are better off. Manufacturing is the source, they add, of progress, because it contributes to the general education and to the general wealth; of well being, because it cheapens prices and enlarges the range of things accessible to the poor; of morality, because it gives work, stimulates to good habits, and opens to woman a wide field of usefulness. It improves social relations, lessens indigence and vice, and converts vagrants into prosperous workmen.

They point to England, Germany, France, and the United States as object lessons, showing what manufactures can do to make nations great, prosperous, intelligent, and contented. It is impossible, however, they contend to have thriving industries without positive protection. "A government anxious for wealth and social prestige would not leave its industries to take care of themselves, but would stimulate them by removing or lowering the duties on raw materials, by imposing high duties on competitive goods, and by making all possible concessions to them." If such a course might seem to shut out altogether foreign competition, they argue that it would stimulate home competition and give the people better goods and cheaper goods.

They conclude their appeal to the Sagasta government at Madrid with these words, using reiteration to add emphasis:

Protection! protection! and protection, in every sense of the word, in all its forms, and in every measure—this is what the industries of Porto Rico need.

It is not possible to visit Porto Rico and investigate, however inadequately, its industrial condition without a feeling of sympathy for the industrialists of Ponce in their aspirations. The existing industries are few and weak. Capital is needed to develop them and to add to their number. Capital can of course only be had when better conditions than those which the Spanish Government allowed are made possible. An equitable and judicious customs system is needed, which should neither be prohibitive on the one hand nor unmindful of local interests on the other. The desire for protection is very general, not only among manufacturers and capitalists, but also among the workingmen. At an interview held at the office of the commissioner, November 4, with the heads of the various gremios, or unions, of the artisans of San Juan, Santiago Iglesias, head of the gremio of carpenters, and president of the federation of workingmen, expressed the opinion that "protective duties on all manufactured articles" should be imposed "so as to protect the embryonic industries which exist here * * * for at least a certain number of years." After they are able to look after themselves, the competition of other markets could be admitted. Of course the multiplication of industries means more work, more kinds of work, and therefore, better wages and steadier employment. The report of the manufacturers and capitalists of Ponce indicates a number of enterprises which might be made profitable. No doubt others could be introduced.

The rates on machinery seem to have been levied with the purpose of allowing as little of it to be introduced as possible. If the framers of the tariff wanted to encourage railroads in the islands, why did they tax locomotives to the point of prohibition? If they thought it well that the sugar cane should be ground where it was grown, why did they put so much duty on boilers, cane crushers, vats, and other machinery for the mills? When it was necessary to import detached parts of agricultural and industrial machines, the duty was increased sevenfold. For four-seated coaches the importer had to pay \$350, a full hundred dollars more than was collected at the custom-houses in Cuba, and Cuba had an enormous debt and a war, while Porto Rico had no debt and was at peace. Railway carriages had to pay \$8 per 100 kilograms in the smaller, but only \$4.80 in the larger island. The rate on carts and handcarts was \$3.80 in Cuba; in Porto Rico it was \$6. Porto Ricans might well say that only a capitalist could afford to import machinery. There was another difficulty manufacturers were subjected to. In order to import machinery they had to pay an importer's tax. This was no light burden. Mr. Andres Crosas, an American citizen, long engaged in the importing business in San Juan, states that he paid as tax on his business \$700 to the insular and \$1,050 to the municipal government. That was the tax which importers and merchants of the first class paid. Later he placed himself in the second class and paid \$420 government tax, besides the municipal levy. Of course, this unnecessary burden will be removed when the tax system of the island is reformed.

The duties on food stuffs are very high, and while all bear the burden of increased prices of indispensable articles of sustenance, it rests

with crushing weight on the shoulders of the poor, who are very numerous. The farm hand and laborer may go without shoes for himself and his family, he may make out with a few coarse garments, but he can not get along without food. Chickens and eggs bring too much in the market to retain for his own use; fresh meat is far beyond his means. A diet of bananas and native vegetables is not sufficient to keep him in good condition as a worker. He needs something more substantial. The food stuffs which are most largely imported are.

Articles.	Value of importa- tion in 1897.
Rice	\$2,481,631
Codfish	1,461,751
Pork and lard	1,324,935
Flour	969,642

These four articles constituted, in value, more than 34 per cent of the total (\$17,858,063) of importations in 1897, or \$6,307,959. The change made by the United States by which articles from Spain pay the same rates as those from other countries raises, of course, the prices; or did the Spanish exporter get the benefit of the difference in duty?

There can be no question that the duties on these articles, excepting codfish, should be reduced. Codfish pays only 90 cents, while in the old Cuban tariff it paid \$2.50, and the Ponce committee think it might remain unchanged. The committee add to the three articles above enumerated four more as deserving preference in the cutting-down process, viz., jerked beef, olive oil and olives, cheese, and butter. For some unexplained reason the imports of jerked beef, chiefly from South America, increased in 1896 over those of 1895 enormously, but fell off in 1897 more than was gained in 1896. The quantity imported in 1895 was 1,030,676 kilograms; in 1896, 3,524,116; in 1897, 774,392, valued at \$108,415. The value of the olive oil imported in 1897 was \$172,178; of cheese, \$202,789. Butter came in to the value of \$60,178, chiefly from Spain, the United States, Germany, and Denmark.

The propriety of reducing the duties on the chief articles of food can hardly be questioned from any point of view. It is favored by all Porto Ricans. A congress of 208 representatives of all classes, from various parts of the island, held in San Juan, October 30, recommended that no customs or consumption taxes should be levied on articles of food, drink, and fuel. They would have them come in free. Some of the merchants suggest that low duties on necessary articles from Spain, such as Spanish rice, onions, garlic, olive oil, beans, pease, potatoes, raisins, wines, and certain kinds of dry goods would be in the interest of the people at large.

There is a very strong demand that raw materials, so called, used in the manufacture of various articles of commerce should have consideration in the reform of the tariff. The reasonableness of the demand does not need to be argued. If manufactures are to be encouraged, low duties on materials needed for them are a legitimate concession of the state. Of course it is to be remembered that what the manufacturer calls raw materials may be to the farmer or woodsman or miner finished products. Regard must be had, therefore, in determining rates on this class of imports to the interests of home

producers, to the needs of the treasury, to the importance of the enterprise asking relief, and to the character and extent of its output. Among the manufacturers of Ponce those interested in the making of shoes ask to have leather introduced free of duty and to have raw hides pay a heavier rate. On the other hand, the tanners say an export tax ought to be put on the native production of raw hides. They complain that they have to pay too much for the raw materials for their tanneries. The shoe manufacturers not only want raw materials free, but they want the rates on imports of boots and shoes trebled. This would be practically prohibitive. The carriage manufacturers ask to have the raw materials used in their factories put on the free list—various kinds of leather, wooden articles, such as felloes, spokes, paints, varnishes, etc. At the same time they ask that the duty on carriages be made higher. As carriages already pay from \$120 to \$350 at the custom-houses, this last request seems both unnecessary and unreasonable. If with the very low wages prevailing in Porto Rico carriages can not be made profitably on the wide margin of the present imposts, it must be due to lack of skill and management. It would seem that the duties on these and other articles ought to be lowered and encouragement given to manufactures in other forms.

Those who ship coffee, tobacco, and lumber, which pay export duties, ask that these taxes on native products, which fall entirely upon the producers, be abolished. Imposts of this class, which can hardly be justified except by exigency of the treasury, are burdensome. In the case of Porto Rico, which has no debt, it is doubtful if they are necessary, and, together with the cargo or transit duties on exports, which extend also to sugar, molasses, salt, and other products, might properly be remitted altogether or gradually removed. Agriculturists, who pay 12½ per cent of their net revenues in the way of taxes, might well be excused from paying double duties on their products—duties to get them out of their own country and duties to get them into another. A great saving has already been accomplished in the abolition of the useless provincial deputation, in the stoppage of payments to the Government at Madrid, and for pensions, and in the cessation of allowances for the support of the church. Other economies can be made without in the least imperiling the efficiency of government.

The question of absolute free trade between the United States and Porto Rico suggests points which can not be fully settled just now. The matter is one for discussion in connection with the form of government to be given to the island after the treaty recently signed in Paris shall have been ratified and Congress is ready to take it up. It is proper here to say that Porto Ricans of all classes are united in urging that the markets of the United States and Porto Rico shall be as free, reciprocally, as those of New York and Jersey City, or Philadelphia and Camden, or Alaska and Oregon. They look to the markets of the United States as the natural markets in which they shall sell their exports and buy their imports. They say they want American food stuffs, American dry goods, American hardware, machinery, clothing, American wines and canned goods, and an American marine to carry them. They will take these, with American institutions and civilization, and aspire to no higher destiny than to become an integral part of the great American nation.

The classification of the Porto Rican tariff is similar to that of the Cuban. There are 13 schedules, with various groups under each. The

following table shows for the year 1897 the value of the importations under the several schedules and the duties collected:

Schedules.	Values.	Duties.
	<i>Pesos.</i>	<i>Pesos.</i>
I. Stones, earths, minerals, etc.....	691,824.88	99,772.91
II. Metals and manufactures of.....	675,647.58	124,481.13
III. Chemicals, etc.....	651,947.78	84,696.98
IV. Cotton and manufactures of.....	2,540,293.87	180,723.36
V. Vegetable fibers and manufactures of.....	512,094.46	66,393.01
VI. Wool and manufactures of.....	128,464.25	12,661.16
VII. Silk and manufactures of.....	50,581.84	5,871.54
VIII. Paper.....	368,211.55	22,449.92
IX. Wood.....	818,952.71	78,176.26
X. Animals and animal products.....	1,196,377.39	28,046.48
XI. Machinery, etc.....	401,156.76	39,739.06
XII. Food stuffs.....	8,084,808.41	1,750,856.54
XIII. Miscellaneous.....	189,557.88	27,185.98
Special imports.....	648,044.00	12,960.88

The schedules most productive of duties are, in order of amounts of revenue, those relating to food stuffs, cotton goods, and manufactures of metals. These three produce nearly four-fifths of the entire revenue. The silk schedule yields very small returns. It is suggested that the duties are too high and that, under lax administration of the customs, smuggling has been encouraged. While the duties on luxuries, among which silks are classed, may be high for the purpose of revenue, they may be so high as to defeat this purpose. It is the opinion of some Porto Ricans that those on silks are too high. They are considerably higher than in the old Cuban tariff.

The duties paid by the various countries, in amounts exceeding \$10,000, are indicated by the following table:

1. United States.....	\$945,677.88
2. Germany.....	431,507.02
3. English India.....	352,023.08
4. England.....	299,477.90
5. English possessions.....	108,070.92
6. Spain.....	106,943.14
7. France.....	54,000.66
8. Denmark.....	48,081.22
9. Belgium.....	41,663.71
10. Holland.....	40,566.53
11. Argentina.....	12,480.49
12. Cuba.....	10,624.47

The value of imports by countries, for amounts above \$100,000, is shown by the following:

Countries.	Chief item.	Value.
1. Spain.....	Cotton goods.....	\$7,152,016
2. United States.....	Pork.....	3,741,815
3. England.....	Wrought-iron sheets.....	1,755,755
4. English possessions.....	Codfish.....	1,445,601
5. Germany.....	Rice.....	1,314,603
6. English India.....	do.....	913,060
7. Cuba.....	Tobacco.....	692,780
8. France.....	Cotton goods.....	215,474
9. Belgium.....	Rice.....	193,675
10. Holland.....	Cheese.....	155,363
11. Denmark.....	Rice.....	124,406

A comparison of these two tables will show that Spain furnished over 40 per cent of the imports, according to value, and paid less

than 4 per cent of the customs collected; the United States furnished 21 per cent of the imports, according to value, and paid 38 per cent of the customs collected. As Spanish imports now pay duties at the same rates as those from other countries, an increase of revenue is to be expected.

There are many requests for reduction in the duties on wines and beers, on the ground that they are now so high that the majority of the people can not afford to buy them. Wines formerly came in from Spain at a low duty, about 3 centavos. Now they pay, including the consumption tax, 30 centavos. The Ponce committee propose that the duties on alcohol and brandy should be increased and those on wines and beers be reduced, and that the consumption tax on all liquors be abolished. The manufacturers of liquors do not ask for additional protection, but oppose the removal of the consumption tax. They speak of brandy and alcohol as the raw materials of their industry. If I am correctly informed, wine is manufactured from these strong liquors. Such, at least, is the report made to me by an attaché of this commission who visited a distillery which produces 200 gallons of alcohol per day. Most of this is made into wine by the help of sugar and of raisins from Spain. It would seem to be better to lower the duties on wines made from grapes, for the benefit of the people, even though it be at the expense of this particular industry of local wine making.

The effect on the revenues of the reductions proposed by Porto Ricans it is difficult to estimate. The belief is quite general that an improved administration of the customs system would save a considerable amount of income; that many of the reductions proposed would add to the revenue through increased importations, and that, on the whole, a judicious revision of the schedules would lead to larger rather than smaller results. It is also to be considered that the great volume of imports from Spain will no longer be almost free. The difference between the sum which Spain paid in 1897 and that which she would pay now is the difference between \$106,943 and \$1,788,000, on the basis of the duties paid by imports from the United States, or \$1,681,057. If imports for the present year do not fall off there should be a substantial gain in receipts for the balance of the fiscal year, on the basis of the old rates.

It is hardly possible to estimate what can be expected for the treasury of the insular government from other sources or what its actual needs will be. The taxes need a complete readjustment. The main dependence has been on the customs revenue, and must continue to be until the future government of the island is determined. The estimates of receipts for the year ending June 30, 1898, amounted, for both the Government and the provincial deputation to \$5,157,200. Of this there was expected from:

Customs.....	\$3,377,900
Taxes.....	1,051,200
Monopoly revenues.....	184,200
Postage stamps.....	128,000
Lottery, etc.....	309,700
Other sources.....	106,200
Total.....	5,157,200

The orders already issued, under the military control of the United

States, have cut off several sources of revenue. The amounts expected from them in the fiscal year 1897-98 were as follows:

Monopoly revenues (stamped papers)	\$184,200
Lottery, etc.	309,700
Taxes on transfer of property	148,000
Passports	31,000
Total	672,900

On the other hand, reductions will be effected in expenditures. These items, which appeared in the estimates for 1897-98, disappear from the accounts of the last half of the year:

Expenses of colonial ministry at Madrid	\$498,502
Public worship	197,945
Army	1,252,378
Navy	222,668
Provincial deputation	71,860
Lottery	23,180
Total	2,266,533

According to the judgment of Porto Ricans most competent to have an opinion other reductions can be made for the good of the service. It must be remembered, however, that large sums will be needed almost immediately for the public schools and for various internal improvements indispensable to the development of Porto Rico. Fortunately there is no debt, so far as can be learned; surpluses have been the rule in the insular accounts, though they do not seem to have been carried over, but used for Spanish exigencies in Cuba and elsewhere.

It would seem to be prudent not to revise the Porto Rican tariff so as very greatly to reduce the customs revenue, at least for the period ad interim.

I beg to make the following recommendations:

(1) That export duties on coffee, wood, and tobacco be abolished. This measure of relief to the agriculturists of Porto Rico is recommended in the elaborate reports of the Ponce merchants, manufacturers, and agriculturists, and is highly desirable.

(2) That the consumption tax on beverages be abolished, provided the duties on distilled liquors be increased as recommended in observations on Schedule XII.

(3) That to the free list be added plows, hoes, spades, hatchets, machetes, cane knives, and other agricultural tools, excepting agricultural machinery.

(4) That scientific, literary, and artistic works not dangerous to public order be admitted free, in the terms of the treaty between Spain and the United States, which shall apply to such works whether from Spain or any other country.

(5) That a separate schedule be made for tobacco, separating it from the miscellaneous class and numbering it XIV, as in the Cuban tariff.

(6) That, the conditions in Cuba and Porto Rico being similar, the revision of the Porto Rican tariff follow that of the Cuban, except in specific instances to be indicated in the observations which follow on the schedules severally.

SCHEDULE I.—STONES, EARTH, ETC.

Under this schedule the value of the importations in 1897 was \$691,825; duties, \$69,773—nearly 10 per cent. No changes have been

asked for in group 1. Some of the items are higher, others lower, than those in the Cuban tariff. I would suggest that none of the items be increased. Coal, for which free entry has been asked, should be grouped with bitumens and schists and reduced from 33 to 20 centavos. As to crude and refined petroleum, earnest representations have been made in favor of protection for an oil refinery at San Juan. As the margin is wide, I would suggest that an increase be made in item 8 from 55 to, say, 90 centavos, leaving item 9 at \$3.10. The Cuban rate for item 7 is four times as great as the existing rate in the Porto Rican tariff. I know of no reason for increase. In group 5 the Cuban classification might be adopted with the Cuban rates for mirrors; but as reductions are desired in items 11, 12, and 15, and the Cuban rates are higher, I would recommend that no increase be made. For group 6 Cuban rates and classification would be acceptable, I think. If surtaxes are to be retained, that of 75 per cent on painted or gilt porcelain should be reduced to 50 per cent.

SCHEDULE II.—METALS, MANUFACTURES OF, ETC.

The value of the imports under this schedule for the calendar year 1897 was \$675,748, which paid \$124,431 in duties (nearly 9 per cent), twice as much as the first schedule, although the value of the importations under the latter were larger. For group 1, gold, silver, and platinum, it would be well to substitute the classification and rates of the similar group in the Cuban tariff. The same recommendation will apply to group 2. The reductions in both cases will be acceptable to Porto Ricans. The adoption of the Cuban rates for group 3, wrought iron and steel, will give the relief needed on various indispensable articles, while the few instances of increased rates, as in firearms, will cause no hardship. Encouragement is asked for the manufacture of tinware in Porto Rico. The Ponce committee says that the countries of Latin America are very successful in this industry, and Porto Rico might make everything needed for home use if the raw materials were only free. These materials with the present rates of duty and with the Cuban rates are:

Item.	Porto Rican duty.	Cuban duty.
60. Unmanufactured tin.....	\$2.10	\$1.50
80. Tin in ingots.....	11.00	4.00
81. Bar zinc, rosin, etc.....	2.90	1.00
82. Zinc in sheets, nails, etc.....	3.00	1.50

Manufactures of tin plate pay \$9. The Cuban rate is \$4. Perhaps this would not give sufficient margin for the industry. If the Cuban rates are adopted for 60, 80, 81, and 82, I would suggest that item 61 be not reduced below \$7 or \$6.50. The reductions specially asked for in articles entering into the manufacture of carriages and articles known as builders' hardware seem to be fairly met in the proposed Cuban rates, and I recommend their adoption.

SCHEDULE III.—CHEMICAL AND PHARMACEUTICAL ARTICLES.

Under this schedule the importations in 1897 were valued at \$651,948, on which \$66,696 in duties was collected, somewhat more

than 10 per cent. The committee at Ponce seem to have given the system of classification a careful examination and make a number of suggestions of changes upon the value of which expert opinion is desirable. They are all in the interest of reductions, which the adoption of the Cuban rates would accomplish perhaps sufficiently. That in cod-liver oil would be especially welcome. Quinine should be made free. The soap makers ask for rosin and caustic soda free. While this is not conceded, large reductions are made in these articles in the Cuban rates.

SCHEDULE IV.—COTTON, AND MANUFACTURES OF.

This schedule produced in 1897 in duties \$180,725, the importations being valued at \$2,540,294. Undoubtedly both the Cuban classification and rates would be more satisfactory to the vast number of Porto Ricans interested in cotton goods than those of their own tariff. Cotton goods are used for clothing and household purposes almost exclusively by the great majority of the inhabitants of Porto Rico. The imports under this schedule are nearly four times as great as those under the wool, linen, and silk schedules combined. It will be of special benefit to the poorer classes to get their cotton goods cheaper, and the Ponce tariff reformers have proposed lower rates in some cases and higher in others. The Cuban schedule would answer for Porto Rico, except for item 128. The present rate for that item is 30 cents, the rate proposed by the Ponce committee 25 cents, and the Cuban 33 cents. I believe it would be well to make it 25 cents. It would be of benefit to an industry in which many young girls are engaged, and in which they are very skillful.

SCHEDULE V.—HEMP, FLAX, ETC., AND MANUFACTURES OF.

No one has asked that items 163 and 164 shall be free. The Ponce tariff reform committee suggest that these items be dutiable at \$1 each, cutting down one 65 cents and increasing the other 40 cents. So far as appears there is no extensive rope factory or other industry using these materials in the making of fabrics. I would suggest that the duties be fixed at \$1 in each case. A reduction is asked in sewing thread. It now pays 16 cents per kilogram gross; the proposal is \$8 per 100 kilos. Reductions are suggested from Ponce on various kinds of tissues and increases on others. Probably the Cuban schedule entire, with the exceptions noted, would be satisfactory.

SCHEDULE VI.—WOOL, AND MANUFACTURES OF.

The importations of wool and woolen manufactures amounted to \$128,464 in 1897, paying duties of \$12,661, or less than 10 per cent. The Cuban schedule levies 40 per cent. The Ponce committee propose new rates, most of which are in the direction of increase. No reasons are given for raising the rates. It is to be considered whether a fourfold advance on the average would not be too great, even allowing for the large imports which have hitherto come from Spain almost free. Tailors ask for an increase on ready-made clothing, and the Ponce committee propose that it be 50 per cent.

SCHEDULE VII.—SILK, AND MANUFACTURES OF.

The importations of silk and manufactures of silk are extremely small, amounting to only \$50,582 in 1897, yielding in duties \$5,872,

or somewhat more than 11 per cent. Intelligent Porto Ricans express the opinion that the rates are too high for revenue; that there has been a good deal of smuggling. With this in mind, perhaps, the Ponce committee proposes a radical reduction in some cases, as for example, from \$6.10 to \$1.25 in item 214; from \$9.10 to \$4 in item 216, and from \$18 to \$6 in item 218. An increase is suggested in items 219 and 220, and surtaxes for silk ribbons, ready-made clothing of the materials of the schedule, and silk handkerchiefs. The Cuban rate of 50 per cent ad valorem would, I fear, lessen rather than increase the income from this schedule. Silks must be cheap to find many buyers in Porto Rico.

SCHEDULE VIII.—PAPER.

The imports under this schedule in 1897 were valued at \$368,212 and paid \$22,450 in duties. The Ponce reformers ask that pulp or paste for the manufacture of paper be free and that paper of all kinds be greatly reduced, because "it is the essential basis of a thousand mediums of intelligence and liberty." They also propose that books, both bound and unbound, go on the free list. As the treaty recently negotiated at Paris makes provision for free importation of Spanish literary, scientific, and artistic works, it would be only just to make all such articles from each and every country free. In view of the large reductions proposed by the Cuban tariff and its improved classification, I recommend that it be adopted entire, allowing paper pulp to pay the small duty of 15 per cent instead of making it free. This reduction amounts to 40 per cent.

SCHEDULE IX.—WOOD.

This is one of the more important schedules, yielding \$78,176 in duties on importations valued at \$818,953. The Ponce committee say, "There is no reason why lumber should not continue to pay the same duties as at present." On the other hand, United States Consul Hanna considers that cheapening the cost of materials for houses, and presumably of furniture also, would be a boon. Probably timber will be required to build vessels, the need of which for transportation between ports of the island is greatly felt. Materials for casks, hogsheads, etc., might, it is suggested, be allowed to come in at reduced rates. It would seem to be wise, therefore, to adopt the rates of the Cuban schedule. The manufacturers of straw hats complain of the excessive duties they have to pay on straw braids, and suggest that these be taken out of item 257 and incorporated in item 256 and that the braids should be classified as first, second, and third, the first class comprising braids from 3 to 5 millimeters in width, the second those from 6 to 8 millimeters, and the third those of 9 millimeters and over. This would avoid, they say, the present inconsistencies by which the coarser straw pays more duty than the finer because it is heavier, although it is far less valuable.

SCHEDULE X.—ANIMALS AND ANIMAL PRODUCTS.

In value of imports this is the third schedule in importance, cotton being second and food stuffs first. The imports in 1897 amounted to \$1,196,377, yielding \$28,046 in duties. No reduction of duties is asked for in group 1 of animals. There has been no long, wasting war in

Porto Rico to deplete the meat supply, as in Cuba. The Porto Rican cattle are large and fine and make splendid draft animals, quite superior to the native horses, which are small and only adapted to driving and riding purposes. According to a property census, taken in 1896, there were in that year 303,612 cattle, 67,751 horses, 13,411 hogs, 5,799 goats, 1,467 mules, 2,055 sheep, and 717 asses. There are lands well adapted to cattle raising. It is not necessary, therefore, that any of the animals in group 1 be put on the free list. Perhaps, however, some benefit would come to the people if the rate 25 per cent ad valorem were adopted. A comparison of group 2, hides, skins, and leather ware, with that of the Cuban tariff will show no very wide differences in the rates on manufactured articles. The new item in the Cuban schedule for children's shoes is provided for in the Porto Rican schedule by an allowance of a rebate of 50 per cent for shoes the inside soles of which do not measure more than 18 centimeters. That appears to be more favorable to this class of goods than the Cuban classification. It is very desirable that the use of shoes by children shall be encouraged by low prices.

The manufacturers of Ponce estimate that not more than 200,000 persons in Porto Rico wear shoes. Of these, 50,000 wear four pairs a year; 50,000, three pairs; 50,000, two pairs, and 50,000, one pair, making 500,000 pairs for a year's supply. Of these, 100,000 pairs are made in the island, and they believe that all that are needed can be supplied by the native industry if only sufficient encouragement be given. This encouragement consists in admitting sheepskins and calfskins, tanned and patent leather free; but strangely enough they ask for a higher rate on rawskins, saying that the increased demand for leather will compensate the tanners. On the other hand, the tanners represent that tan bark costs too much, and that the premium offered on raw hides in Hamburg and Havre puts the native production beyond their reach. They ask that an export duty be put on raw hides. It would seem more equitable to allow the tanners to import hides at a reduced rate, say two-tenths of one per cent, as in the Cuban schedule. The shoe manufacturers also ask that shoes for men and women, under items 276 and 277, shall pay "three times the duty now in force," or \$7.65 and \$6.75 instead of \$2.75 and \$2.25. They would probably now agree that this is unnecessary in view of the fact that shoes from Spain have ceased to come in practically free of duty. The Balearic Island shoes, which were so poor, now pay the same duties as similar shoes from other countries. The tanners are helped by lower duties on tan bark and on hides, and the shoe manufacturers get protection against "the coarse, unsightly" Balearic Island shoes, with "pasteboard soles." The adoption of the Cuban rates is therefore recommended.

SCHEDULE XI.—INSTRUMENTS, MACHINERY, ETC.

On articles in this class \$35,739 in duties was paid in 1897 on imports valued at \$401,157. There is a general call for lower duties on articles in this list, particularly on agricultural machinery, which many think ought to be free. It was formerly free, but in view of the proposal to abolish export duties, to admit agricultural implements free, and other concessions to the interests represented, a reduction, such as the new Cuban rates would give, will probably be reasonably satisfactory. It is to be hoped that the importer's license or tax which agriculturists have to pay for importing machinery will be abolished. The adoption of ad valorem rates will avoid excessive duties on cheap machines and

distribute the burdens more equally. Especially to be commended is the provision of the Cuban schedule making detached parts of machines dutiable at the same rates as the machines themselves. I recommend the adoption also of the Cuban rates for the other groups. Musical instruments, watches, etc., may properly pay a duty of 50 per cent ad valorem. This will lessen the cost of pianos and organs, the rates on which are higher than were the Spanish rates in Cuba. Appeals have been made for reductions of from 20 to 50 per cent or more, particularly for small practice pianos of four octaves or less, also for hand organs.

In the interests of carriage making the Ponce committee asks for an increase in the duty on carriages, in addition to lower duties on the leather, wooden, and metallic materials used in the construction of them. Carriages now pay from \$120 to \$350. The last figure is a full \$100 more than the highest rate in the original Cuban tariff—\$250. This was reduced at Santiago to \$100. It would seem that the Porto Rican rates ought, in the interests of the people, to be lowered. A duty of 50 per cent ad valorem ought to be sufficiently protective to carriage makers, who are to get their raw materials cheaper. The rates on vessels are high. There is great need of sailing and steam craft for island navigation. The ad valorem rates of the Cuban tariff are recommended for adoption.

SCHEDULE XII—ALIMENTARY SUBSTANCES.

The rates in this schedule affect directly more people in Porto Rico than those of any other class. The importations in 1897 amounted to \$8,984,808, which was more than 50 per cent of the total for all the schedules. The duties collected were \$1,750,857, or upward of 70 per cent of the aggregate. Those interested in the condition of the peasant and laborer of the island are anxious that duties shall be lower on all classes of foods, particularly rice, which leads the entire list of imported foodstuffs in quantity and value, and meats.

The rates in group 1, meat and fish, butter and preserves, are far lower than those of the old Cuban tariff, and are lower even than those of the new schedule. Codfish, for example, which is second only to rice in the value of imports, is rated at 90 cents, while in the old Cuban tariff it was \$2.50 and in the new \$2. I am informed that the present rate on codfish is satisfactory. I would suggest that all the articles in group 1, except codfish and jerked beef, be reduced 10 per cent. The new Cuban rates in group 2, for cereals, if adopted for Porto Rico, would allow a reduction for rice, which now pays \$1.95 in the husk and \$2.70 without the husk. The Cuban rate is \$1.50 for both. The reduction in wheat flour and wheat will also be a great boon, but the proposed classification for corn, rye, oats, and barley makes reductions far beyond what is necessary or desired in Porto Rico. Corn is an important crop in the island and can be grown profitably to a larger extent, if the duty is not lowered too much. The present duty is \$3.15. I would recommend that the rates be fixed as follows:

Corn.....	\$1.30	Barley	\$1.50
Rye.....	1.40	Oats	1.40

And that flour of corn be \$1.50. Items 346 and 347 should be incorporated in group 3, garden produce, and the Cuban classification and rates be substituted.

In group 4 a reduction in the duties of cocoa is desired by the Ponce and San Juan chocolate makers; also an increase of duty on chocolate. The best chocolate made in San Juan commands a price of \$1 a pound. Asked why it was so high, the maker said it was because the duty on cocoa was so heavy. Cocoa is grown in Porto Rico, and, the Ponce committee say, in "sufficient quantity," the product augmenting daily. But they want lower duties on the raw material and higher on the finished product. On the latter the rate is 30 cents. On the former \$13. Of course no reduction is asked for in the rate on coffee. No reduction should be made in the rate on tea, which is half the old Cuban duty. It would be well if heavier rates could be assessed on inferior chocolates, which contain little cocoa, such as come from Spain. This would be a measure of protection to the home manufacturers. Large reductions are requested in the rates on olive oil and on beers and wines in group 5. These are articles in very general demand. Good wines have almost been driven out of use by the prices. Artificial wines made in the island and the products of the distilleries have taken the place of the lighter drinks. Mr. Casals, president of the Industrial Club of Ponce, expressed the opinion that native rum is doing great harm to the people and that the adoption of the internal-revenue excise system of the United States would be of advantage. With this opinion the congress of Porto Ricans, held in San Juan October 30 last, agrees in its conclusions, recommending "the imposition of a heavy tax on alcoholic drinks" and the "absolute prohibition of harmful drinks." Of course native producers think otherwise and would like to have insular taxes lowered and higher duties levied on distilled liquors. They say if the consumption tax is taken off the duties should be increased in compensation.

It seems wise to encourage importation of grape wines and beers rather than distilled liquors. The rates recommended for the latter from Ponce are higher than those of the present tariff and considerably higher than those of the new Cuban tariff. It would seem to be desirable that the duties should not be greatly reduced, if at all. Item 372 should be incorporated in group 4. The Cuban rates will be satisfactory for articles in group 7. The manufacturers of soup paste want the duty on that article increased fivefold; but the reductions on flour and grease will make increase unnecessary.

SCHEDULE XIII.—MISCELLANEOUS.

There was imported under this class in 1897 \$189,538, which yielded \$27,186 in duties. A special plea has been made in the report of the Ponce tariff reformers for all possible reduction in toys, as they are "a moralizing factor among children" and "a mental stimulus." They suggest a reduction from \$35 to \$20. The Cuban rate is \$10, which will be heartily approved. They also asked for lower rates for trinkets. Their views are met by the Cuban rate. Too great a reduction should not be made in matches. There are several match factories in Porto Rico. The reduction should not exceed 50 per cent, probably.

An increase is suggested by the Ponce committee on umbrellas and parasols, but no reason is assigned. Instead of 40 cents and 20 cents, they ask for 60 cents and 25 cents. The Cuban rates are 10 cents and 5 cents. This is perhaps a larger reduction than would be advisable. With respect to straw hats many changes are requested, mainly in the interest of native manufacture. They want straw braids, now

imported under item 257, Class IX, to be differently classified and be subject to greatly reduced duties. Straw hats, they think, should pay heavier rates. Item 402 they would increase from 37 centavos to \$2; item 403, from \$1.60 to \$6, while they would reduce item 404 from \$2.35 to \$1; item 406, from \$5 to \$2; item 406, from \$9.50 to \$2.50, and item 407, from \$34 to \$5. If the classification and rates suggested for straw braids in Schedule IX be made, perhaps the Cuban rates for the above items ought to be adopted. The Ponce manufacturers say, concerning felt hats:

Most of the felt hats imported in the island are woolen. The value of the forms for the manufacture of one dozen of these hats is 1 peso, more or less; the import duty on the same is 1 peso 25 centavos plus the 10 per cent transitory tax, making a total of 187½ per cent. Besides, there is a duty on the ribbons, bands, linings, and other materials, such as stiffenings and dyes, which raise the price to 1 peso 75 centavos per dozen; adding this to the 187½ centavos for the forms makes a total of 3 pesos 12½ centavos—that is to say, 312½ per cent on the value of the forms.

The value of the finished hats is from 3 to 6 pesos a dozen, an average of about 4½ pesos per dozen. The import duty, under item 409, is 3 pesos plus 10 per cent transitory duties, \$3.30, making a total tax of from 73 to 74 per cent on their value.

PROPOSED SCHEDULE XIV.—TOBACCO.

This is an important industry in Porto Rico. The value of the product exported in 1897 was \$1,194,318. The Ponce committee estimate that there are 250,000 smokers in the island—50,000 who smoke cigars and 200,000 who smoke cigarettes; that the consumption of cigarettes is 200,000 daily, or 73,000,000 annually; that a large proportion of this total comes from Cuba, the value of the imports approximating \$1,500,000 annually, and that all the tobacco consumed could be manufactured in Porto Rico and employment thus be given to 8,000 men if there were more protection. They say new methods of cultivation are employed with better results and that more skill has been introduced in the manufacture of the weed. They complain that while Porto Rico tobacco was practically excluded from Cuba, the Cuban manufactures were admitted to Porto Rico free from all duty except the 10 per cent transitory tax. The Porto Rican article also paid an export tax of 32 cents, including the transitory tax. There are five tobacco factories in Ponce alone, besides those in Caguas and other places—thirty or more in all. The industry has improved in the past few years, and it is expected that it will be greatly extended. No rates are suggested, but those of the new Cuban tariff would undoubtedly give necessary protection, particularly if the export duties are removed.

Respectfully submitted.

HENRY K. CARROLL, *Commissioner*.



HOW THE TARIFF SHOULD BE REVISED.

VIEWS OF PONCE MERCHANTS.

The two accompanying papers on tariff reform were presented to the Commissioner at San Juan, November 8, 1898, by Señors D. Felici, E. Torres, and A. Casals, chosen by the representatives of the commercial, agricultural, and industrial classes of the district of Ponce.

The deputation presented to the Commissioner the following resolutions bearing on the tariff:

First. That a banker, an agriculturist, and the president of the Club de Industriales shall be selected to call on Mr. H. K. Carroll at his office in San Juan.

Second. That, it not being possible in such a short time to prepare a special work or information to offer to Mr. Carroll, the commission elected shall present him with an exact copy of the extensive and laborious work that was successfully accomplished by the Club de Industriales and the Chamber of Commerce of the city of Ponce. This work comprises a good many statistical details and logical arguments, all tending to show the modifications that should be made in the custom-house regulations and tariff, in order to protect the development of the industries and to demonstrate also the reason why agriculture in Porto Rico is in such a decadent condition.

Third. Said work, made by seven different commissions, was ordered by the Spanish Government with the object of making the necessary alterations in the custom-house tariff and of using it as a guide to make commercial treaties with the United States and Canada; but when the work was finished and ready to be sent the war broke out and the Club de Industriales did not send it.

Fourth. It is our opinion that if the translation of said work into the English language were ordered by Mr. Carroll, a good many important details would be found that could aid considerably his present investigation. He will, of course, have to set aside all that was intended for the special use of the Spanish Government.

Fifth. We wish now to call his attention to the most vital, urgent, and necessary measure that should be taken in Porto Rico, if the ruin of this rich island is to be prevented. This measure is the free importation in the island of the products of the United States, and vice versa.

REPORT OF THE MANUFACTURERS OF PONCE.

[Commission: Don Juan Cabrer, Don Julio E. Prats, Don Arturo Idrach, Don Alfredo Casals, Don Luis Aguerrevere, Don Roberto Graham.]

To the President and Members of the Official Chamber of Commerce and the Manufacturers' Club of Ponce:

In compliance with the request made by the honorable secretary of agriculture, manufactures, and commerce for information in regard to the modifications which may be introduced into the custom-house tariff, in view of the opening industries of Porto Rico, the undersigned commission, appointed by the above-named officers to make a report upon the same, has endeavored to fulfill its mission conscientiously, not only by analyzing the obstacles opposed to industrial development, but also the means necessary to promote activity in these branches, so that they may develop in Porto Rico, to the increase of public prosperity and the welfare of the country.

With this object in view, and in order to cooperate the better with the laudable autonomic system just initiated for our government, all the manufacturers of Ponce have been invited to make a detailed report of the requirements of their respective industries, and at the same time to offer such suggestions as, in their opinion, are advisable for the development of such industry.

The result of these various reports, all tending to one end, is embodied in the accompanying report. Satisfied and proud we will be if it sheds any light upon the plausible work which it is intended to realize and open to our beloved country new and extensive fields of wealth, work, and life.

REPORT ON THE INDUSTRIES OF PORTO RICO.

If our century is remarkable for one above other things it is for the immense impulse to manufactures and industries.

Countries which have no industries of their own, or have them only in limited scale, are lacking in self-support, and are therefore subject to the tutelage of those which have acquired great development in this branch of human employment.

It should be observed that manufacturing countries are, par excellence, the richest and most powerful—England, Germany, France, and the United States of America.

It must be observed, too, that in these countries, and in them only, the necessities of life are easily procured; there are greater resources for persons of all capacities, and the condition of the lower class is far better than in other places.

In all the countries of the world manufacture is the source of progress, well-being, and morality. Of progress, because it contributes in the highest degree to general education as well as to general wealth; it educates the people in the performance of work, cultivates their mechanical aptitudes, and elevates them in the social scale. In manufactories the proletariat is converted into a workman. Well-being, because it affords employment and the means for supplying the material needs and enjoyments of life to the poor by lowering the revenue taxes, which bear heavily upon the contributors, and it reduces the price of the necessities of life. Of morality, because of the numerous opportunities it affords for work; it does away with vagrancy and the evils of vice; it educates mankind in the practice of good habits, and especially elevates and dignifies woman, to whom it opens a wider field than that of ordinary labor as a domestic, and enables her to turn away from the inducements offered by houses of ill fame.

The foregoing ideas are based upon facts and practical observations made in the workshops and in the social relations.

The few manufactures of our island have declined in price.

Numbers of indigent poor who were subjected to daily want have been converted into useful workmen, doubling and trebling their means of subsistence. Hundreds of women take the fruit of their labor to their homes, thanks to the factory which has saved them from the wages of sin.

Of the facts of these details the hat factory, tannery, and cigarfactories of Ponce will bear evidence.

In order that these experiments may take root, develop, and multiply in our province, offering solid guaranties to the capital invested in the various enterprises, it is necessary, in order to obtain the best results in the various manufactures, that we follow the course employed by those nations which are in the vanguard of the contemporaneous industrial movement.

This is nothing other than a positive, unfettered protection to the industries of the country, or what we would call, referring to Porto Rico, a system of colonial protection. To attempt the development of industries without openly protecting them is to attempt an impossibility.

A government anxious for wealth and local prestige would not leave its industries to take care of themselves, but would help and stimulate them by suppressing or lowering the customs duties on materials imported for use in manufactories. It would impose prohibitive duties imported upon goods which made competition, and would concede all possible facilities to the industry in order that all manufactures may redound to the general prosperity. All that does not go to further these interests will be a lamentable loss of time and labor and

endanger the complete loss of the capital invested in unprofitable business.

Nor should it be urged that countries lacking the raw materials for manufacture can not become manufacturing centers. There are many examples to the contrary.

The fine manufactory of candles and soap of Rocamora, in Barcelona, imports the grease and resins used in its business. The piano factories established in the same city also import from foreign countries the strings, pegs, keys, and other accessories of their business. The weaving mills of different places in Catalonia obtain their flax and cotton from England and America. Many other like examples might be cited which do not occur to us at this time.

And can the industrial importance of Catalonia be doubted?

In the same manner many industries in Porto Rico might be fostered without taking into account that not a few of the raw materials necessary can be found in the country.

To this end we propose the following general bases, susceptible of great amplification:

First. Declares free from duty all raw material and machinery from whatever source.

Second. Authorize the manufacturers doing business or those licensed to manufacture to make a declaration before the custom-houses of the raw materials and machinery which they import for their respective industries.

Third. Impose an additional tax of 30 per cent upon all goods similar to those manufactured or which may be manufactured in this island, from whatever country they may be imported.

Fourth. Exempt from duties, taxes, or other burdens, for the space of five years, the new industries which may be established here.

Fifth. Stimulate industrial enterprise by offering premiums of some value, to be awarded each year, to those who have made most progress in their respective industries.

These are, in our opinion, the only means really practicable to favor in a substantial manner the development of the industries of Porto Rico.

We do not care for monopoly; we are the first to condemn unjust privileges; but the insular industries should obtain a margin of protection under the tariff in force, for, according to an old adage, "Charity, well understood, begins at home." Furthermore, if protection is ample and is based upon fair measures, monopoly could not exist. Any industry that attempted it would find itself at once mistaken, because, by virtue of the ample protection afforded, other similar industries would be established for the purpose of competition.

In proof of our assertion we will refer to the case of the match factory of Bolivar, in San Juan de Porto Rico, and to the ice manufactories in the capital and in Ponce. Their abuses brought to them a non-productive result.

Protection, protection, and protection in every sense of the word, in all its forms and in every measure—this is what the industries of Porto Rico need.

Having made the foregoing statements upon industries in general, we will proceed to describe, in detail, three of the most important in Porto Rico—shoe factories, cigar and cigarette factories, and salt mines.

We do not refer to the other industries, because each has its special report accompanying this.

SHOE FACTORY.

Of the 1,000,000 inhabitants of the island it is calculated that only 150,000 wear shoes regularly and 50,000 use them occasionally. Of these—

50,000 wear 4 pairs per year.....	200,000
50,000 wear 3 pairs per year.....	150,000
50,000 wear 2 pairs per year.....	100,000
50,000 wear 1 pair per year.....	50,000
Total.....	500,000

Deducting the shoes made in the country, which may be estimated at about the fifth part of the number used, or 100,000, there remains as imported, 400,000 pairs of shoes, of which seven-eighths are from the Balearic Islands and from Catalonia and the remainder from France, England, and the United States of America.

Calculating that the 400,000 pairs of shoes imported cost in the factory about 10 pesetas each, on an average, they yield in addition an annual duty of 4,000,000 pesetas, or 800,000 pesos (dollars), which is the tribute we pay to the countries which supply us with these articles.

As will be seen Porto Rico contributes quite a respectable amount to the morocco leather industry. Our market is, for the Balearic Islands, a veritable mine of wealth. This should oblige them to send to us their best; but notwithstanding our trade, only the commonest kinds produced by those factories are sold here. Generally these shoes are badly made, unsightly, coarse, and without durability; they are made of the worst kind of materials, with pasteboard soles, and are commonly called "pacotilla" (unwarranted).

Although the shoe industry in Porto Rico is hardly more than in its infancy, the manufacturers have the firmest conviction, based upon the balance of their accounts, that they will be able, successfully, to compete with the foreign goods in the home market. For this reason the enterprise has been established. Now is the time, when we are emerging from the tutelage of exploiters, for us to look about for the means to establish a good shoe manufactory and place the Porto Rican shoe within the reach of everyone. Large shoe factories must be established in Porto Rico, supplied with all the modern improvements.

Keeping strictly to the foregoing calculations, which must serve as a basis for others if we could manufacture all the shoes used in the island, we would be obliged to increase the number of shoemakers now occupied in the trade by 1,323 additional for the manufacture of the 400,000 pairs of shoes annually imported, supposing that each shoemaker can make one pair of shoes daily. Another favorable result of home manufacture would be the saving on exchange which now amounts to the value of the imported shoes; this would be reduced one-third, more or less, being the value of the raw material imported for use in the manufactories.

In view of the reasons set forth, it seems to us that articles under items of the tariff numbered 270, 271, and 272, now in force should be exempted from duty. These items refer to sheepskin, calfskin, patent leather, and all similar goods of every class, which are the raw materials used in the manufacture of shoes and carriages.

On the other hand, we think that an additional tax should be imposed upon the articles under item 274, raw skins, because the shoemakers

will, in turn, protect the tanneries by creating a demand for leather through greater consumption.

In the same way an additional tax, amounting to three times the duty now in force, should be imposed upon items under 276 and 277, which comprise shoes for men and women, respectively. Up to the present time, shoes from the Peninsula have entered our ports free of duty, whilst our shoe industries are heavily taxed for the raw material imported.

If the old slow methods of prohibition are pursued, there will be no progress made in the industries of Porto Rico.

THE MANUFACTURE OF CIGARS.

Considering that of the 1,000,000 inhabitants of Porto Rico one-half are women and half of the other half are children and nonsmokers, we have still 250,000 smokers upon whom to base our calculations. Suppose that of these smokers only 50,000 smoke cigars, there still remains a body of 200,000 who smoke cigarettes and tobacco. Calculating the minimum of one package of cigarettes daily to each smoker, we have a daily consumption of 200,000 packages, 73,000,000 packages per annum. These figures agree with the number of packages imported from Havana if we deduct the consumption of cigarettes of home manufacture.

Taking as a basis 2,000 cigarettes manufactured daily by each workman, in order to manufacture 200,000 packages per day, 3,000,000 cigarettes, at 15 per package, it would be necessary to employ 1,500 workmen who would be exclusively engaged in this branch of the tobacco industry. To this calculation there must be added other employees—say 500 more workmen, occupied in separating, clipping, and preparing the tobacco, in boxing, packing, and in the other accessory manipulations.

It is necessary, therefore, for the manufacture of cigarettes in the country, to employ daily 2,000 workmen, which number might be duplicated in the probability that there would be some exportation.

We do not hide from ourselves the fact that machinery considerably diminishes the employment of manual labor. But this effect is not sensibly experienced when we take into account that not all factories are able to have machinery, and that the cigarette in use can only be manufactured by hand.

In the manufacture of cigars a greater number, perhaps, of workmen are employed.

There is no use to enter upon the details of this assertion, admitted by everyone and proved by the facts. It is sufficient to say that in those factories where both articles are produced there are more persons employed in the selection, preparation, and manufacture of cigars than in factories where cigarettes only are made.

From this data it will be seen that with a little protection afforded to this industry Porto Rico might decently maintain at least 8,000 workmen employed in the manufacture of cigars. Thanks to such protection, the cultivation of tobacco would greatly increase and the agricultural wealth of this product would receive notable encouragement.

From a careful examination of the foregoing you may assure yourself, without danger of falling into error, that in the balance of our agriculture the production of tobacco will have as much weight and

importance as that of coffee and sugar cane, which are now our most valuable agricultural products.

SALT MINES.

Porto Rico has a mine of wealth in its salt beds of Cabo Rojo. These salt mines cover, approximately, a surface of 1,200 cuerdas,¹ of which only one-tenth part is worked. But neither the country nor the Government knows what the salt mines contain; they are veritable gold mines. The portion now being worked produces sufficient salt to supply the needs of the island and leave a surplus of 300,000 quintals,² and if they are properly developed they would produce salt enough to supply Cuba and the United States of America, which countries do not produce the article and are obliged to import the same. This branch of industry owes the basis of its prosperity to the consumption in the island, and having this consumption guaranteed it would soon become sufficiently strong and prosperous to supply salt to the aforementioned countries, which are near to our ports. If to-day these salt mines are worth 350,000 pesos and afford employment to 200 laborers, to-morrow they might be worth a million pesos and employ a thousand men.

The causes of the actual decline of this industry may be summed up as follows:

The facility with which salt enters our ports from foreign countries and the Peninsula.

The enormous prohibitive duties in the United States and Canada, which make it difficult for our salt to find a market in those countries.

The fact that although we have good salt here, better and purer than that imported, the majority of the home consumers favor the salt from Spain. The low price of the article.

Generally the merchant vessels which enter our waters bring salt in ballast or to complete their cargo, and pay no import duties in virtue of the *sui generis* existing between Porto Rico and the mother country.

On the other hand, Porto Rican salt pays a custom-house duty in the United States of 6 cents, gold value, on each bushel—a measure equal to 70 pounds, more or less, resulting, therefore, in a tax of 9 cents per quintal (hundredweight). Under such a heavy burden it will be understood why our island is deprived of that important market for our salt.

It would be otherwise if there existed between Spain and the United States a broad and equitable commercial treaty, which would give an opportunity for the easy output of the products of the Antilles.

As a means of prosperity for the salt mines of Cabo Rojo and for the municipal district which depends upon them for its wealth, we propose the following:

First. Concessions in the commercial treaties with the United States and Canada, upon a reciprocity basis, which would admit our salt free of duty to those markets, or at least give it the maximum protection.

Second. Impose duty on salt from Spain equal to that of any other foreign importation of the article, with a maximum duty of 35 per cent fixed by the autonomic constitution.

¹ Equal to 8½ varas or Spanish yard measure.

² A quintal is equal to 1 hundredweight.

Third. Open the port of Cabo Rojo, now closed.

Fourth. Grant facilities to foreign and domestic ships to load with salt without compelling them to stop at Mayaguez before clearing.

Fifth. Exemption from cargo duty of ships loading with salt.

These are, in our opinion, the measures which will conduce to the freest development of which the salt industry of the country is capable.

We will conclude this task by showing that in our humble opinion if the tariff reform should protect in a decided and explicit manner the manufacturing industries which might exist in Porto Rico until the capital invested in them shall be guaranteed, there will be established in the island as an immediate consequence of such reform paper mills, breweries, cotton mills, and candle factories.

Upon these four industries studies and plans have been made, which only await the decisions of our governmental organizations for the required protection to be given to the industries of this region in order to be put into execution.

We have no hesitation whatever in asking exemption from taxes for industries of such importance. The statistics demonstrate as an irrefutable truth that little, very little, revenue accrues to our treasury from duties on raw material imported for manufacturing purposes. They also show that the sums derived from duties on imports on manufactured articles are insignificant, because the greater part of these goods come from Spain and are exempt from all duty by reason of their nationality.

Therefore to admit the importation of raw material free of duty for manufacturing purposes, and as a consequence of that concession cease to import manufactured products from the peninsula, because they are manufactured in the island, would not make any marked difference in the actual revenue derived from this source; and even though the revenue should decline somewhat, the loss would not equal the enormous surplus which accrues to it every year.

Besides, we believe that from the moment that the Spanish products have no other protection than the 35 per cent levied upon foreign products they would in turn contribute, as in justice they ought, to the revenues of the public treasury.

For these reasons we believe that a resolution to protect the industries of Porto Rico would not result in serious injury to the provincial treasury.

We have endeavored to fulfill the mission confided to us with the strictest impartiality, with the best desire to serve the material interests of Porto Rico, and to combine with the justifiable project for reform a demand for that of the tariff.

If we have failed in our object, the failure is due to our inability, but not to a lack of the best intention nor of our intense love and tenderness toward the noble and generous soil, which returns with interest the labor devoted to it.

A. CASALS,
ARTURO IDRACH,
I. AGUERREVERE,
JULIO E. PRATS,
J. CABRER,

Commissioners.

PONCE, April 8, 1898.

MANUFACTURE OF SOUP PASTES. ETC.

[Presented by Messrs. Casals & Besosa, of the city of Ponce, to the commission appointed to secure information for the projectors of a scheme to reform the tariff.]

This industry was established in Ponce in 1881. The production, at first very small, continued to increase from day to day, whilst the market price declined.

From 1884 it increased rapidly. The products of the vermicelli factory at Ponce made such a creditable name for their superior quality and cheapness that they almost completely superseded similar products imported from Spain and foreign countries and supplied the necessities of the island. Before that time the consumers in the island used very bad Catalan soup paste at 20 centavos a pound and 25 centavos for the Italian article. Since then the best quality of soup paste made in the island is sold at 12½ and 15 centavos a pound; and herein was the first advantage derived by the inhabitants of Porto Rico from the introduction of this industry.

To prove the excellent quality of the soup paste produced by the manufactory of Ponce it will be sufficient to state that at the famous international exhibition in Chicago the Soup Paste Factory of Ponce took the first gold medal in competition with the other countries. Besides it had other gold medals awarded to it in Porto Rico.

This manufacture reached the height of its success in 1894, when owing to the assistance of the laws then in force and the tariff guaranteed by the commercial treaty with the United States of America, the undersigned put up a large three-story building of stone and mortar and supplied it with all the modern improvements. It has a capacity for manufacturing 600 boxes of soup paste daily—a steam engine of 24 horsepower, a furnace and registers, and all other modern improvements known in 1894. This factory is the best and most important of its kind existing in Spanish territory. None of the soup-paste factories of Spain have the appliances that this has, nor can they manufacture 600 boxes of soup paste daily.

Who could have foretold that within four months after the opening of this fine factory a decree would be issued denouncing the treaty with the United States of America and at the same time compassing the ruin and extermination of the soup-paste industry of Porto Rico? Who could have said that there would be a depriving of work and bread to hundreds of workmen? From that time forward the factory has barely sustained itself, suffering many losses, in order not to abandon completely the home market to foreign and Spanish speculators and, besides, not to discharge the workmen who are expert in the practical knowledge which it requires many years to attain. Skilled workmen are not invented nor assembled when they are needed; they are trained at the expense of years and years of apprenticeship to labor.

We will conclude this report by inclosing a copy of an appeal made to the foreign minister, dated October 16, 1897, which we indorse in all its points, and which, like many others, sleeps the sleep of the just (is pigeonholed).

To his Excellency the MINISTER OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS:

Messrs. Casals and Besosa, manufacturers of soup paste (thickening for soup), established in the city of Ponce, island of Porto Rico, appear before your excellency and respectfully submit the following:

In February, 1894, under protection of the laws, they established a factory for the manufacture of soup paste, investing 40,000 pesos in building a factory three

stories high, a photograph of which we herewith present, in order that an idea may be had of the said industrial establishment.

Supplied with all the necessaries for the manufacture of soup paste, with modern steam machinery of 24 horsepower and all the modern apparatus used for this purpose in the principal manufacturing centers, we have in consequence a manufacturing establishment which does honor to Spain in the Antilles. There is none other, neither here nor in all the Spanish peninsula, which can compare with it, not only for its importance, but for the superior quality of its manufactures, which it has introduced into the market through several foreign and international exhibitions, in which it has been awarded for the excellent quality of its products, and to the glory of the nation, first premiums in the shape of gold and silver medals.

This factory, your honor, gave employment and bread to 100 laborers of both sexes. It also sharpened the intelligence of those people by teaching them a new industry, before unknown to them; it gave occupation to coasting vessels trading with other parts of the island; it contributed to the State and municipality large sums as taxes on manufactures and thousands of dollars in custom-house duties. The products of this factory acquired such fame for the quality and cheapness of its manufactures that from that time this article of prime necessity has been furnished to the consumer at almost half the price which it brought before the factory was established, and this is another benefit which this enterprise has brought to the island.

But how short was the satisfaction of seeing the progress of a West Indian industry!

Four months later, your honor, the annulment of the treaty with America reduced to naught our apparently well-founded hopes of success. The industry was annihilated, and on the horizon appeared a picture of the dark future which threatened the success of the projectors of this industry and portrayed the want and misery of the 100 unfortunate laborers who depended upon this industry for their livelihood.

The import duties on grease and American flour, which are the raw materials used in the manufacture of soup paste, were increased from 1 peso per 100 kilos to 5 pesos for the same quantity, thus making an increase in our daily expenditures of 80 pesos. And it was upon those raw materials that the manufacturers had based their hopes for profit from the business in which they had invested all of their small capital. Later the duties were reduced to 4 pesos per 100 kilos, but not even with this reduction was it possible to earn a loaf of bread for our children.

Thus a cloud settled over the smiling future which we had courted and the business in which we had invested our capital, believing ourselves under the protection of Spanish laws.

On several occasions, and to every minister who has presided over the foreign office, we have made appeals for protection for this industry and for the laborers who are to-day without work and food. Finally the big factory had to close, owing to the competition in the market of similar goods imported from foreign countries and from Spain; especially from the latter, from whence they enter our island free of all duties, while we have to pay heavy import duties on the grease which we import.

All the ministers and all the governors who have presided in turn over the respective offices, and to whom we have applied for a just compensation for our losses, have recognized our argument and our right to appeal for indemnity or for a tariff reduction which would put us in the position to sustain the competition of similar products imported into Porto Rico, but no one of them has considered himself sufficiently authorized to accomplish this act of justice.

The admission free of duty of grease, wheat flour, and unfinished boxes as raw materials for the manufacture of soup paste would justify, if necessary, an import duty on the soup paste, etc., imported from Spain which now enters free of all duty, while we are paying an exorbitant duty upon all our raw materials. An additional tax of 25 per cent over the tax now paid by the foreign article would be the only means of restoring the vitality and energy which this industry enjoyed before the rupture of the American treaty.

And while we are treating of an industry established and well known in the island, where two important factories exist, and are both closed, representing inert capital, two ruined families, and 200 laborers without employment—in a word, ruin, desolation, poverty—we would state that this condition arises from the little or no attention which has been paid to our just complaints, so often made to the officers of the Government. If ever a minister intended to cast a pitying glance upon such injustice and relieve so much misfortune by some saving measure, this intention never materialized, but was strangled in its birth by the

influences brought to bear by Spanish manufacturers, and only promises and still other promises of speedy relief reached us through our deputies.

Now that a liberal government presides over the destinies of Spain and a minister anxious to do us justice is seated in the foreign office, there is some guaranty of success for those of us who are hungry and thirsty for justice, and we again make our everlasting complaint and beg for redress and justice.

Therefore, and by virtue of the arguments here set forth, we beseech your excellency to grant the appeal which we make for redress or for modifications in the tariff such as in the opinion of your excellency may be deemed just and advisable, and enable our industry to return to active life and compete without loss with similar articles from foreign countries and Spain. These can be produced at home for less money, and there is no necessity for importing them, neither from Spain nor from foreign countries.

From the well-known rectitude of your excellency, we hope to receive the consideration and justice for which we make appeal from Ponce, October 16, 1897.

CASALS & BESOSA.
E. CORTADA.

HAT FACTORY.

[Presented by Señor Juan Cabrer, of the city of Ponce, to the commission appointed by the industrial club to secure information for the projected tariff reform relating to the manufacture of hats.]

Straw braids for the manufacture of hats are classified under the tariff as worked straw and pay a duty, under item 257, of 30 pesos per 100 kilos and an additional transitory tax of 10 per cent, making a total of 33 pesos per 100 kilos. As the greater number of hats used in Porto Rico are of coarse straw and heavy weight, we, the manufacturers of the island, are unable to compete with the imported hats, the high duties on the raw material raising the price to such a figure as to make it impossible for us to compete with the imported article.

In our opinion, these braids should be taxed, under item 256, at 3 pesos 20 centavos per 100 kilos, as raw material for hats, and not as manufactured straw.

It would be well if the braids were classified as first, second, and third class. First class would comprise braids of from 3 to 5 millimeters in width; second class, braids of from 6 to 8 millimeters wide, and third class, those of 9 millimeters and over. In this way each hat would pay a relative duty according to its value, and not as happens at present—that a hat of least value pays most duty, because it is heavier than a finer one.

In the classification of felt hats there is no provision for untrimmed and unironed hats, which should be rated as felt in strips and pieces, item 194, paying 18 centavos per kilo, and not as unfinished hats, for the following reasons:

Most of the felt hats imported in the island are woollen. The value of the forms for the manufacture of one dozen of these hats is 1 peso, more or less; the import duty on the same is 1 peso 25 centavos, plus the 10 per cent transitory tax, making a total of 137½ per cent. Besides, there is a duty on the ribbons, bands, linings, and other materials, such as stiffenings and dyes, which raise the price to 1 peso 75 centavos per dozen. Adding this to the 137½ centavos for the forms, makes a total of 3 pesos 12½ centavos—that is to say, 312½ per cent of the value of the forms.

The value of the finished hats is from 3 to 6 pesos a dozen—an average of about 4½ pesos per dozen. The import duty under item 409 is 3 pesos, plus 10 per cent transitory duties—\$3.30—making a total tax of from 73 to 74 per cent on their value.

The name "casco" (form) given to unfinished hats is not applicable. A casco is an untrimmed hat—that is to say, a hat without lining, ribband, and binding. The cascos (forms) bought by the hatters from the manufacturers are called, in French, "campana," and the houses which deal in these goods "manufacture de cloches pour le chapellerie," whilst the hat factories are known by the same name which we use in Spanish.

The foregoing, we believe, will explain the causes of the nonsuccess of the hat industry in the island, and we hope that the insular government will amend the errors of the existing tariff.

J. CABRER.

PONCE, P. R., *March 27, 1898.*

SOAP FACTORIES.

To the PRESIDENT OF THE INDUSTRIAL CLUB OF PONCE:

Having been asked to make a report enumerating the obstacles which paralyze the industry in which we are engaged and to offer practical suggestions which may conduce to its development and prosperity, we have the honor to comply with pleasure and to offer the following as the result of our experience through long years of labor:

Although this industry seems to be of little importance, it is without doubt one to which the attention of the government officials should be called in order to protect the province from the enormous contributions it makes to the foreign manufacturers who supply us with this article.

The consumption of soap in our country is immense, as is shown by the last statistics of imports.

In the past year, 1897, Porto Rico imported from Barcelona 30,060 boxes of soap of 1 hundredweight each, for which it paid 20 pesetas a box, making a sum total of 601,200 pesetas, which we expend annually through bills of exchange in order to procure this article for our necessities. The soap made in the island is scarcely used, in spite of the great economy exercised by the manufacturers in its production with a view of lowering the price and enabling our product to compete with the imported article. Notwithstanding these measures and the inferior quality of the soap with which we endeavor to compete in price, we have not succeeded.

The raw materials which we need in our manufacture are heavily taxed because similar manufactures coming from Barcelona enter our markets free of all revenue taxes and subject only to a transitory tax of 10 per cent, which is equal to about 15 centavos, more or less, for every 100 pounds or 15 pesos for every hundred boxes of soap of 1 hundredweight each.

Meantime the insular industry pays duties on the raw materials which it requires in order to manufacture 100 boxes of soap of 1 hundredweight each, as follows:

1,810 kilos (35 quintals) grease, item 292, at \$1.20 per 100 kilos.....	\$19.32
1,104 kilos (24 quintals) rosin, item 92, at 90 cents per 100 kilos.....	9.93
92 kilos (2 quintals) caustic soda, item 107, at 65 cents per 100 kilos.....	.59
Total.....	29.84
10 per cent transitory tax.....	2.98
Total.....	32.82

It is clearly seen that our soap industry pays for the raw material to manufacture 100 boxes of soap of 1 hundredweight each more than double the amount paid by 100 boxes of the same article manufactured in Barcelona.

What business can succeed under such circumstances? Who can stand the competition?

Nor should it be argued that we ought not to enter into this business because we have not the raw material. Rocamora and all the other large soap factories of Catalonia import rosin from North America, rough tallow from the Argentine, and paraffin and stearine from other foreign countries, and, notwithstanding, the soap industry of Catalonia is rich and powerful.

It is more economical to manufacture soap in connection with stearine or tallow candles, and in almost all factories where the business is carried on these two manufactures appear together. The same might be done in Porto Rico if item 121 of the tariff relating to "pacapua" (animal fat), stearine, wax, and sperm oil were allowed free entry instead of paying a duty of 4 pesos 50 centavos per 100 kilos.

If the articles under this item, as well as those under items numbered 292, 92, and 107, respectively, were declared free of duty for manufacturing purposes, and an additional tax placed on imported candles and soap, from whatever source, the soap industry of Porto Rico might improve its products, cheapen its goods, and enjoy prosperity.

The foregoing is the result of practical experience and careful study of this industry through long years of labor.

MANUEL HEDILLA.

AGUERREVERE BROTHERS.

PONCE, P. R., *April 9, 1898.*

TINWARE.

[By representatives of the tinware industry, on the requirements of said industry.]

The raw materials imported to give impulse to this industry are designated under the four items of the existing tariff as follows:

	Per 100 kilos,
Item 60. Unmanufactured tin	\$2.10
Item 80. Pig iron.....	11.00
Item 81. Bar zinc, rosin, etc.....	2.90
Item 82. Sheet zinc, nails, and wires.....	8.00

In the Latin republics of America this industry has achieved the greatest success to which it could attain. Everything in the way of tinware is manufactured at home, and nothing of the kind is imported. This is due to the free importation of the raw material for manufactures of all kinds, and amongst those which have had the greatest success is the tinware industry. In Central America it has made most progress, and large establishments have been founded there for the manufacture of this article.

If Porto Rico enjoyed free importation of raw materials for the carrying on of this branch of industry, no manufactured articles would be imported, but a preference given for the home products, in the assurance that they would be as well finished as the imported goods.

Raw materials, free of duty, would be an advantageous commercial concession to importers who wish to manufacture them.

Several importing houses of this city received from abroad zinc bath tubs and bracket oil lamps. Now they are supplied with the same articles manufactured in the country, as good and as handsome as those from abroad.

All utensils connected with this industry can be manufactured at home with the exception of one or two articles, which, on account of the lack of apparatus for the manufacture of the same, would not be profitable—such, for instance, as frying pans, large bowls or basins, tinned iron pots and saucepans, for the manufacture of which steam machinery is necessary.

If a tin factory should be established, protected by the tariff, there would be no difficulty in suppressing the importation of all these articles, and the necessary apparatus and machinery would be forthcoming.

FELIX S. ROJAS.

PONCE, P. R., *March 28, 1898.*

The undersigned, manufacturer of all kinds of chocolate, in the city of Ponce, invited by the Industrial Club to make a report upon the causes of the obstacles in the way of the progress of this industry, explains:

MANUFACTURE OF CHOCOLATE.

There are several chocolate factories of some importance in the island. They produce fine and delicious chocolates of various kinds and prices. Some fail and others sustain themselves, but none progress. Why? Because chocolate menier, Swiss, and other foreign chocolates, under the protection of the Peninsula, which is exempt from the payment of duty, enter the island with very low duties, under the present tariff, whilst the chocolate manufacturers of Porto Rico have to pay 14 pesos for every 100 kilos of cocoa imported from Venezuela or Trinidad.

But even without this duty on raw material, very little of which is imported, for Porto Rico produces a sufficient quantity of cocoa, and the product augments daily, the insular manufacture can not compete with the ordinary chocolate imported from the Peninsula, the greater part of which is of inferior quality and contains very little cocoa. If the directors of the board of health should look into this matter and analyze the product they would doubtless find that much of it is composed of cracker dust.

This is the reason why such fine factories, well furnished with machinery—such as that of Don E. Cortada, which has cost thousands of pesos—sleep the sleep of the just, hoping for the day when the industries of the country will be protected.

This industry needs free entry for the raw materials used in this business, and an additional tax upon similar goods imported from foreign countries as well as those coming from Spain.

And this is the petition made by the undersigned.

PABLO E. ARROYO.

PONCE, P. R., *March 29, 1898.*

The undersigned, manufacturers of carriages in this city, present the following report to the Industrial Club, in order that it may forward the same to the secretary of agriculture, industry, and commerce, so that in the discussion of the projected tariff reform the requirements of the carriage makers may be had in view:

CARRIAGE FACTORY.

This industry has been much depressed since it was established in Ponce. Many years ago Mr. Hicks, founder of the same, was very poor, but as his resources improved in Ponce he drew around him a hundred workmen to whom he taught the trade.

The annulment of the treaty with America in 1894, by virtue of which the duties on carriages and coaches had been increased, put a little life into this industry, and to-day there are two magnificent factories competing with each other in their superior workmanship of vehicles, as well finished as those imported, and stronger.

A carriage built in either of these factories, it can not be denied, is as elegant and as durable as any imported. Notwithstanding, many carriages are imported from the United States which ought not to be imported when we have such perfect and well-finished vehicles.

If the importation of carriages could be curtailed, instead of employing only a little over a hundred workmen, sufficient now to supply the necessities of the factories, the number could be doubled. This is what the country needs—workmen. Convert the laborers into artisans.

If the raw materials for this industry were imported free of duty we might be better able to compete with the importations from foreign countries. This, and a higher duty on imported carriages, would favor our industry and place us in condition to build large factories, to the honor and prestige of our island.

The articles imported as raw materials for use in this industry are as follows:

Skins.—Buffalo, morocco, patent leather, rubber or oilcloth of different kinds.

Wooden articles.—Felloes for wheels, spokes, shafts and poles for carriages, breeching hooks, splinter bars, crosspieces, linchpins for wheels.

Iron and steel.—Spring braces, axles (iron and steel), screws of various kinds, clamps, iron and steel tires.

Nickel-plated.—Compasses, lanterns, points for poles and splinter bars, buttons of various kinds, rods (*para ante pecho*).

Molds, fans lined with patent leather, fans (unlined), paints, and varnishes.

It is very necessary, furthermore, that manufacturers should be able to import the raw material which we need for our respective industries without paying tax as importers.

O. FLORENSAN.
JULIO M. BERNARD.

PONCE, P. R., April 8, 1898.

MANUFACTURE OF SOLE LEATHER.

MR. PRESIDENT:

We, the undersigned manufacturers of leather, established on the coast (*playa*) of this city, declare that the manufacture of sole

leather, in which business we have been exclusively engaged for over thirty years, instead of increasing as would be natural, diminishes from year to year for the following reasons:

First. The unpremeditated measure of monopolizing the mangrove trees of the province without any advantage to the revenue, thus obliging us for the past twenty years to seek, outside of the country, a material so indispensable to the tanning of leather as is the bark of the mangrove. It may be estimated that about 30,000 pesos at least have been expended by us, outside of the country, for the said material.

Second. Since 1893 we have been taxed 50 centoves of a peso for 100 kilos of tanning bark imported by us from abroad. This measure has been greatly to the detriment of the manufacture of sole leather already so costly.

Third. With our monetary system we have to strnggle with the speculators in raw hides, as they get a premium of from 60 to 70 per cent on goods in the markets of Havre and Hamburg, and from 20 to 30 per cent on those in the markets of the Peninsula, whilst we have to pay prices not in accord with the sales. There is not that valid and legitimate agreement which should exist between manufacturers in the island for the increase of price, because we are obliged to buy the raw materials such as mangrove bark and raw hides.

In view of the foregoing, and in order not to witness the decline of an industry so valuable to the country as is ours, we beg for use, free from all tax, of the mangrove bark on the coast of the province, where hundreds of laborers may earn their daily bread and sustenance for their families. We also ask for the suppression of that item in the tariff that taxes the mangrove bark which we import from Santo Domingo and Venezuela; and whilst our present monetary system obtains we think it logical that an export tax should be levied on raw hides.

This is the justice for which we plead.

BONGEOTS & BOISSEN.

PONCE, P. R., *March 4, 1898.*

MANUFACTURE OF LIQUORS.

TO THE PRESIDENT OF THE INDUSTRIAL CLUB:

The undersigned subcommission, appointed to report on manufacture of liquors, with a view to the advisability of reforming the tariff in force relating to the branch of industry which we represent, are of the opinion:

First. That the industry has no present need of greater protection under the tariff than that it now enjoys, and does not, therefore, ask for anything farther than that the existing tariff shall remain in statu quo, and that the transitory tax levied on the consumption of liquors, national and foreign, imported into the island shall remain in force.

Thanks to the aforementioned duties, and especially to the last, that on the consumption of liquors, which is the only tax on the productions from the Peninsula, they being exempt from all others, we have been enabled to develop the local industry in spite of the imports from Spain, and to compete with her, notwithstanding the advantage which she enjoys over the foreign markets, on account of the comparatively low rate of bills of exchange drawn on Spain. This of itself consti-

tutes at times a protective margin of from 40 to 50 per cent over foreign products, and is a great advantage. Should any future modification in the tariff suppress the tax on consumption, it would be impossible in future to sustain this branch of our incipient industry.

For this reason the subscribers believe it to be of the greatest importance that the taxes upon all classes of alcoholic drinks remain in statu quo. Should the tax on consumption be suppressed, as proposed, it would be necessary to augment the import tax to an amount equivalent to that of the tax removed.

Second. That for the purpose of further protecting their industry they beg to suggest the propriety of arousing the zeal of the custom-house officers to prevent the introduction, under the denomination of liquors, dutiable at a very low rate, of real alcoholic drinks and brandies which are subject to higher rates. This is done to evade the payment of tax on the higher grade of goods and is in detriment not only to the local industry, the raw material of which is alcohol and the common brandy of the country, but it is also an injury to the sugar-cane estates which produce these raw materials.

Third. That while no glass manufactories exist in the island, bottles intended for use in this industry be imported free of duty, and that this exemption of tax extend to seeds and such other raw materials as are used in the manufacture of liquors.

ARTURO IDRACHS.
J. M. SAAVEDRA.
DURAN Y COLL.
NARCISO VILARO.
JULIO E. PRATS.
I. CHARIDON.

PONCE, P. R., *March 23, 1898.*

SHOE FACTORY.

To the PRESIDENT OF THE INDUSTRIAL CLUB:

The undersigned, in compliance with the call inserted in the newspapers of this locality for manufacturers to furnish data as they consider advisable to satisfy the requirements of their respective industries, for the information of the projectors of a reform in the tariff, have the honor to submit:

That there exists a great difference between the import duties on shoes and the raw material for the manufacture of the same. The result of this is that shoes pay 100 per cent less than the raw materials, for which reason the manufactures of this country can not compete with the imported goods.

Opening the market free to the importation of raw materials, especially those from Germany, where the best class of goods at the lowest prices is procured, there is no doubt but that this industry will be put in condition to attract men of capital to invest money in it, build factories with machinery, and produce shoes which will compete in style, price, and quality with the imported article, and at the same time give occupation to a greater number of workmen, which of itself would be a source of wealth to the country.

JAIME HOMAR.
GABRIEL RIPOLL.
JAIME OLIVER.

PONCE, P. R., *March 31, 1898.*

MANUFACTURE OF CRACKERS.

Report made and presented by the undersigned, manufacturers of crackers in this city, to the commission of industries, appointed by the club to present a report relative to the needs of this industry in reference to the customs tariff as relates to our manufacture of crackers.

The causes which we justly believe are responsible for the languishment in the manufacture of all kinds of crackers in this country are principally due to the high tariff on flour—4 pesos per 92 kilos, or a sack of flour of that weight. Besides this a local tax is levied on the consumption at the rate of 2 pesos 30 centavos on the same quantity.

We would call attention to the duties imposed on crackers imported from North America, which are out of all proportion to those levied upon flour.

As to crackers imported from the Peninsula, they pay no custom-house duty whatever, but enter absolutely free of duty. These are the reasons why this industry has been prostrated to such extent that it is not now able even to manufacture the most ordinary kinds of crackers, which were the only tolerable means of subsistence of some laborers.

Thus, in order that this industry may prosper, it is necessary that the crackers imported from the Peninsula and foreign countries should pay an import duty in proportion to that of 6 pesos 30 centavos customs duty and tax on consumption, levied on a sack of flour weighing 92 kilos.

BESOSA BROTHERS.
ALRIZU & ARIAS.
BIGAS BROTHERS.
GARCIA & COLON.

PONCE, P. R., *March 23, 1898.*

TAILORS AND SHIRT MAKERS.

To the COMMISSION APPOINTED BY THE INDUSTRIAL CLUB:

The undersigned, tailors and shirt makers, present the following:

The large importation of shirts and ready-made clothing from Europe to this island, principally to Ponce and to the capital, is the reason why our industry languishes and declines, more and more, in detriment to our interests.

Notwithstanding the subscribers pay into the municipal treasury large amounts for the afore-named industry, the merchants pay very low duties upon shirts, ready-made clothing, collars, and cuffs, which they import from various points in Europe. This tariff regulation enables these merchants to sell their goods at a much lower rate than those manufactured here.

Our shirts and ready-made clothing can compete, with advantage as to quality and shape, with those imported, and for these and other reasons our industries should be protected and favored in every possible manner. With such protection the demand would increase, prices would be lower, and consequent gain would accrue to our manufacturers and workmen.

In order to obtain these results we beg that, in fixing the rates of duty under a new tariff, there should be borne in mind the above

explanation—that import duties on all classes of shirts, collars, cuffs, and ready-made clothing coming from foreign countries should be increased as much as possible.

We do not doubt that the board, having in mind our best interests, will favorably consider the present appeal and accord us what we ask.

F. ALSINA.
ROQUE SUAREZ.
SUCCESSORS TO PENZOL.
E. AUFFAUT.

PONCE, P. R., *March 28, 1898.*

CIGARS AND CIGARETTES.

To the COMMISSION OF MANUFACTURERS ON THE PROJECTED TARIFF REFORM:

This tobacco industry of Porto Rico until lately was in an abandoned condition, owing to great competition with similar products from Cuba and because there is an erroneous idea that the tobacco of that country is better than ours. But, as no error is lasting, our tobacco industry has arisen from its unjust prostration. This is due to the demand of our leaf tobacco from the sister island, where it is prepared in their factories with the same results as obtain with Cuban tobacco.

This, in conjunction with the improvement in making cigars and the practical skill introduced by Cuban and foreign cigar makers, has caused the tobacco industry of Porto Rico to emerge from its lamentable illusion that our tobacco was inferior in quality to the Cuban. Under the new system of cultivation already adopted in some districts of the island we have been able to prove that the tobacco of Porto Rico can attain equal excellence with that of Cuba and that our country has a mine of wealth in the production of the weed as aromatic, fine in texture, and as well colored as the best in the world; in fine, that the tobacco industry of our country may reach at no distant date equal development, importance, and fame as that of our sister island.

The importations to our island of cigars and cigarettes from Cuba approximate 1,500,000 pesos per annum, an amount adequate to insure the prosperity of our factories if the consumption could be supplied by the home industry. But the Cuban products enjoy free entry into the markets of Porto Rico, without the payment of any customs duty, and are only mulcted in the 10 per cent transitory taxes, which amount to 4 cents per kilo, while the sister island responds to those advantages afforded by our tariff by closing her ports against our tobacco because it is to her advantage to do so.

There are now five tobacco factories of more or less importance manufacturing cigars and cigarettes in Ponce. One of them, recently established, is run by steam power and possesses machinery and apparatus of the most improved kind up to the present. Together they give employment to 250 workmen and may be increased to thousands when the home industry is enabled to supply the consumption of the island and export its products with some advantage. This might be attained through commercial treaties made by our Government with foreign countries, above all with the United States of America and Canada, where our tobacco, in leaf and manufactured, pays an import tax almost prohibitive.

Our filling tobacco, crude, pays in the United States 35 centavos gold per pound; the wrapper unworked, 1 peso 85 centavos gold per pound, and manufactured cigars and cigarettes 4 pesos 50 centavos gold per pound, besides 25 per cent ad valorem.

The whole island seconds the movement just initiated in the tobacco industry. In Mayaguez and San Juan there are factories which have adopted the necessary improved methods, and there are over thirty factories of more or less importance, which are seeking industrial progress. Some of these are creditable establishments, known for the excellent quality of their manufactures. We estimate that there are thousands of cigar makers who now earn their living by the tobacco industry of the island, and this number might be greatly increased if under judicious protection the industry should reach the summit of success.

The more the tobacco industry of the country develops and does credit to itself the more advantage it will be to the farmer as a product of the soil. He will have to depend less upon foreign markets and can with greater confidence invest his time and capital in the cultivation of tobacco, feeling assured that he will be able to sell it in the island at a remunerative price.

It is our unanimous opinion, and we therefore waste no time in proofs, that in the production of tobacco, in leaf or manufactured, Porto Rico may aspire to a new source of wealth of great importance. It will give employment to thousands of laborers and cease to pay tribute to Cuba of nearly 1,500,000 pesos.

This will contribute to the decline in values of exchange in proportion as the product is quoted in the export value.

But in order that this flattering future should be realized and become a practical and evident fact it is necessary that all the protection which its well-known importance merits should be given it.

Tax the cigars and cigarettes imported from Cuba to our island in such amount as to give some advantages to the product of Porto Rico. In making treaties with foreign countries bear in mind the advantage of making concessions with such as will favor the importation of our tobacco, in leaf and manufactured.

These practical measures are, in our opinion, such as will be most efficacious in securing the development of the tobacco industry in the island and will guarantee the capital invested.

At the same time such tariff regulations as will encourage the cultivation of tobacco on a large scale will itself be a powerful factor in the increase of the agricultural wealth of the island.

JOSE M. BESOSA.
F. TORT & CO.
TORO & CO.
C. F. VAILLANT.

PONCE, P. R., *April 6, 1898.*

PROPOSED CHANGES IN SCHEDULES.

[Committee: Don Javier Mariani, Don Olimpio Otero, Don Domingo Felici, Don Jose Trujillo, Don Antonio Piza, Don Ernesto Moringlane. Subcommittee: Don Ramon Gadea, Don Antonio Yumet.]

OBSERVATIONS OF THE COMMITTEE.

The undersigned, representing the dry goods committee on the projected tariff reform, have the honor to present the accompanying report as the result of their labors concerning woven goods, perfumery, hats, umbrellas and parasols, preserves, liquors, and sewing machines.

Nothing is farther from the thoughts of the committee than the assumption of having completely fulfilled the difficult task confided to them, when the importance of the work and the short space of time in which they had to accomplish it is taken into consideration; but the undersigned believe that they have done all in their power to fulfill the noble and patriotic desires of the association, which, having greater duties to perform, put into such inexperienced hands as ours so difficult a task.

In the preparation of this modest work we have observed a tendency to excessive grouping and an evident fear of multiplying the items.

The latest statistics show that the importation of certain articles do not bear an adequate proportion to the number of similar articles in constant use in the island, and therefore many subdivisions, which complicate the tariff in force without advantage to the revenue, may easily be done away.

Another advantage of the mode of procedure adopted here is that in the future the doubts which now arrest every attempt made at the interpretation and appreciation of the tariff will not arise. These doubts often put the merchant at the mercy of the officials, or vice versa, and it frequently happens that the latter do not possess the qualifications necessary to fulfill conscientiously the duties for which they were appointed.

The foregoing suggestions appear trifling and unimportant when, from another standpoint, we think of the ease with which frauds are perpetrated.

On the verge of such an abyss—for we can call it nothing less—which we are bound to avoid at all hazards, it becomes necessary to remodel the tariff, as well as the actual necessities of the provincial treasury, so that they will bear a just relation to each other and to the social influence which every well-regulated tariff exercises upon the future of the commonwealth.

The products which are the subjects of our present investigation are, doubtless, among the most fruitful sources of revenue to the island. It therefore becomes necessary that the total amount of duties now fixed by the tariff should be collected; but there are some reductions absolutely indispensable on goods which are of prime necessity to the poorer classes, and which reductions would enable them to subsist under more advantageous circumstances.

We will not examine here the statistics of the past few years. It is sufficient to say that they show a flagrant contradiction of statements and figures with the actual facts relating to the import of textile goods and the intentions of those who framed the tariff in force.

This contradiction, from the moral and material force of which no one can escape, is the very point which must be cleared with firm and resolute hands. It is principally to this end that the authors of the projected tariff have given careful attention.

Without entering into unnecessary details, the undersigned believe that they have accomplished this purpose by subdividing their work in the form adopted.

They dare to affirm and to demonstrate clearly in the note given herewith that the projected tariff scheme, as drafted, relating to those articles which have been the object of their studies will give a larger revenue to the provincial treasury and that all classes of consumers will derive positive advantage therefrom.

The first object of every well-organized government, having at heart

the welfare of its people, should be to have a wisely regulated tariff, so that the most perfect civilization would not advise its absolute suppression.

J. MARIANI.
F. A. VENDRELL.
JOSE R. GONZALEZ.

PONCE, P. R., April 15, 1898.

NOTE.—From the statistics for 1896 and the custom-house receipts of the island the importation of certain articles comprised in this report is given, and estimates are made for future years in an equal amount. This estimate we have found to be erroneous, as our imports are constantly increasing. If the native products were accorded the maximum protection under the present autonomic constitution, there would still result a difference in favor of our project of 387,843 pesos 89 centavos, which sum might be at once applied to a considerable reduction of the enormous duties now imposed upon flour, rice, and other articles of large consumption.

REPORT ON DRY GOODS, FRUITS, LIQUORS, ETC.

Items.	Articles.	Proposed duty.
PERFUMERY.		
123 and 124.....	This item, gross weight, is valued at 72 centavos per kilogram. Sole duty..... per kilogram.	<i>Proor.</i> 0.20
COTTON.		
127.....	Cotton, raw, cotton waste, and cotton twisted in wicks for candles, valued at \$15.50 100 kilograms, only rate, gross weight, per 100 kilograms.....	2.50
128.....	Cotton yarn and thread, crochet cord and embroidery cotton, per gross weight (value of 100 kilograms, \$30)..... per kilogram..	.25
COTTON FABRICS.		
129.....	Cotton textures of all kinds, smooth or cross-barred, plain or figured, white or colored, fine or medium fine, light and heavy, up to 20 kilograms inclusive (approximate value per kilogram, 72 centavos)..... per kilogram..	.20
130.....	Textures of the above class over 20 kilograms (approximate value per kilogram, \$1.58)..... per kilogram..	.40
131.....	Cotton fabrics, felt, quilts, towels, and bed spreads (approximate value per kilogram, 91 centavos)..... per kilogram..	.25
132.....	Cotton fabrics, woven in counterpanes and the like, unbleached, white, colored, figured, and all coverlets (approximate value per kilogram, 58 cents)..... per kilogram..	.15
133.....	Cotton lace, edging, or simple sewing cotton in whatever article (approximate value per kilogram, 70 cents)..... per kilogram..	.15
134.....	Fabrics of cotton lace with an edge, with double edge, or without edge, on whatever kind of article (approximate value per kilogram, \$1.95)..... per kilogram..	.60
135.....	Tulle and lace of all kinds, including cardboard and paper lace (approximate value per kilogram, \$3.75)..... per kilogram..	1.00
136.....	Velvets and velveteens and the like, in pieces, ribbons, and suitings..... per kilogram..	.50

REMARKS.

- A. The fabrics under items 129 and 130, when figured, to pay a surtax of 25 per cent.
 B. Embroidered goods, in pieces or strips, to pay an additional duty of 50 per cent.
 C. Handkerchiefs, hemmed or seamed, not hemstitched, to pay an additional tax, over that levied on the texture to which it belongs, of 25 per cent.
 D. Readymade or partlymade clothing of materials comprised under items 129 to 136, to pay sur-tax of 50 per cent.
 E. Lace goods, under item 133, are held exclusively to mean such as are finished with a scalloped edge.
 F. Cotton goods mixed with silk exceeding 9 per cent, to pay an additional tax equal to the regular duty.
 G. Hemstitched handkerchiefs, to pay an additional duty of 50 per cent.
 H. Cotton tape, besides the prescribed duty, to pay an additional tax of 25 per cent.

Items.	Articles.	Pro- posed duty.
TEXTURES OF JUTE AND FLAX, ETC.		
		<i>Pesos.</i>
162, 164	Hemp, raw, hackled, or tow, abaca, manila hemp, aloë, jute, and other vegetable fiber (approximate value per 100 kilograms, \$12.50).....	1.00
165	Thread, pack thread, on spools, tackle and cordage of the same materials, and hempen twine (approximate value per 100 kilograms, \$31.80).....	8.00
169, 170	Textiles as above, mixed or unmixed with cotton, unfinished, smooth or crossbarred, although they may have colored stripes, such as pack cloths, bessian, empty sacks and similar goods, up to 5 kilograms, inclusive (approximate value per kilogram, 15 cents).....	.04
171	Fabrics as above, unbleached or partly bleached, with or without a mixture of cotton; smooth or twilled, such as nankeen, Irish linen, creas, osnaburg, drill, and other similar cloths, from 5 to 8 kilograms (approximate value per kilogram, 37 cents), per kilogram.....	.10
172, 174	Fabrics as above, of more than 8 kilograms (approximate value per kilogram, 96 cents).....	.25
175, 179	Fabrics as above, white or colored, plain, such as creas, long-lawn, and the like, up to 21 kilograms, inclusive; and all those crossbarred or twilled, such as German drill and the like (approximate value per kilogram, \$1.42).....	.35
180, 185	Fabrics as above; bleached, but over 21 kilograms (approximate value per kilogram, \$3.12).....	.75
186	Fabrics of linen lace or of linen and cotton, in all kinds of goods (approximate value per kilogram, \$6.75).....	1.50
187	Lace, edging, and netted goods of linen or mixed with cotton (approximate value per kilogram, \$10.20).....	3.00

REMARKS.

I. Fabrics under 169 and 170 ought to show the gross weight separately in order that they shall not be confounded with those under the item next to them.

J. Tape, linen, or linen and cotton mixed, to pay, besides the duty on the class of weave, an additional tax of 25 per cent.

Items.	Articles.	Proposed duty.
WOOL.		
		<i>Pesos.</i>
188, 190	Bristles, horsehair and other animal hair, human hair, manufactured and unmanufactured, and raw wool, per gross weight, per 100 kilograms.....	10.00
191	Woolen yarns of all kinds, wool, white or dyed, spun or twisted (approximate value, per kilogram, \$1.45).....	.40
WOOLEN FABRICS.		
192, 198	Carpets and coverings of all kinds (approximate value, per kilogram, 80 cents).....	.30
194-197	Felt textures and coverings or rugs and baize in all kinds of articles, although mixed with cotton, dyed or figured (approximate value, per kilogram, 75 cents).....	.20
199, 199	Woolen fabrics, mixed with cotton, whatever the weave (approximate value, per kilogram, \$1.60).....	.50
200-212	Similar tissues of pure wool (approximate value, per kilogram, \$3.70).....	1.00
213	Woolen tissues of lace or netting, pure or mixed with cotton, in all kinds of goods (approximate value, per kilogram, \$3.40), per kilogram.....	1.00

REMARKS.

K. Ready-made clothing of wool, or of wool and cotton mixed, even though only half made, to pay, besides the duty levied on the weave, an additional tax of 50 per cent.

L. The fabrics should be examined and appraised by measuring from the center the width of the goods, not including the selvages.

M. The fabrics under items 175-185, when figured, to pay an additional tax of 50 per cent.

Items.	Articles.	Proposed duty.
	SILK.	<i>Pesos.</i>
214, 215.....	Silk and waste silk, spun or twisted, in hanks and on reels, including the weight of the reels (approximate value per kilogram, \$3.75).....	1.25
216, 217.....	Textures of silk or with a mixture of other material, always whenever the proportion of silk is not inferior to that of the other material (approximate value per kilogram \$11.80), per kilogram.....	4.00
218.....	Textures of pure silk (approximate value per kilogram, \$17.80), per kilogram.....	6.00
219, 220.....	Laces, edgings, blondes, tulle, and the like of pure silk or of silk mixed with other material (approximate value per kilogram, \$12.80).....	8.00
221.....	Netted tissues of pure silk or silk mixed with cotton or other material (approximate value per kilogram, \$27).....	10.00

REMARKS.

N. Silk ribbons or ribbons mixed with silk and other materials to pay, besides the tax on the weave, a surtax of 50 per cent.

O. Clothing of all kinds made up with fabrics under the preceding items to pay a surtax of 100 per cent.

P. Handkerchiefs of silk or of silk mixed with other materials, besides the regular duty, to pay a surtax of 50 per cent when the handkerchiefs are hemmed or hemstitched.

Items.	Articles.	Proposed duty.
	SEWING MACHINES.	<i>Pesos.</i>
311.....	Sewing machines, gross weight 100 kilograms (approximate value per kilogram, 20 cents).....	5.00
	CANNED GOODS AND LIQUORS.	
337.....	Fish and shellfish, in oil or in other forms, in cans, including the weight of the immediate package, gross weight (approximate value per kilogram, 35 cents).....	10
347.....	Vegetables and garden products, pickles, preserves in vacuo, mushrooms, etc., including the weight of the immediate receptacles, gross weight (approximate value per kilogram, 20 cents), per kilo-gram.....	.08
357.....	Oil in jugs or tins, gross weight.....	.02
358.....	Oil in glass bottles, boxed, gross weight.....	2.50
359.....	Alcohol and brandy.....	.30
360.....	Liqueurs, cognac and other brandies in casks or in demijohns, per liter.....	.15
361.....	The same in bottles.....	.20
362.....	Beer and cider, natural or artificial, in casks.....	.03
363.....	The same in bottles.....	.03
364.....	Sweet wines of all kinds in casks.....	.10
365.....	The same in bottles.....	.15
366.....	Sparkling wines of all kinds.....	.50
367.....	Table wines, red or white.....	.03
368.....	The same in bottles.....	.15

REMARKS.

Q. The consumption tax on alcoholic liquors, sherry wines, beers and liqueurs should be removed.

R. The tax on receptacles containing the articles as above, whether of glass or of wood, to be removed.

Item.	Articles.	Proposed duty.
PRESERVED ARTICLES.		
371.....	Alimentary preserves, not otherwise mentioned.....per kilog.	Pesos. 0.10
374.....	Chocolates and candied sweets, gross weight.....do.	.15
BONNETS AND CAPS.		
402.....	Hats, of yarey or straw of Italy, India, rice straw, and Spanish straw, finished or unfinished (approximate value, \$3.75 to \$4 per dozen).....per dozen	2.00
403.....	Same, of jipijapa, Panama, or other similar straw.....do.	6.00
404.....	Same, of felt, wool, trimmed or untrimmed and unfinished.....do.	1.00
405.....	Same, finished.....do.	2.00
406.....	Hats, of felt or haired felt, of cloth, cashmere, satin, or plush, unfinished.....per dozen	2.50
407.....	Same, finished.....do.	5.00
TRIMMED HATS.		
	Hats, trimmed, for ladies and children, adorned with handwork, plumes, flowers, tulle, etc.....each	1.00
	Caps and berrets of all kinds, for men and children.....per dozen	3.00
UMBRELLAS AND PARASOLS.		
	Umbrellas and parasols of silk or mixtures of same.....each	.60
	Same, of other materials.....do.	.25

GLASS, PAPER, BOOKS, TOYS, ETC.

The undersigned committee, having fulfilled with pleasure the commission intrusted to it, has the honor to present its opinion. With very little previous knowledge of the subject, but with a will to accomplish the work, it has, as far as possible, endeavored to adjust the import duties to the requirements of the insular budget.

As will be seen, we have been able to follow an opportune and economic course with respect to the importation of such raw materials as are necessary to maintain the existing industries and facilitate the establishment of others. We have lowered the tariff on some articles in common use, especially by the middle and poorer classes. We have decreased the duties on paper of all kinds and manufactures, because it is the essential basis of a thousand mediums of intelligence and liberty, and we have absolutely put on the free list printed books of every description for the same reasons, which it is unnecessary to explain.

We have endeavored also to correct the classifications by reducing the number of items in order to avoid injurious and cumbersome complications.

In weights, in general, we have provided a greater allowance for tare, guided by experience, which proves that in many cases great loss is suffered by neglect to protect the cargo, as well on steamers as on lighters and wagons.

In toys we have made all possible reductions, considering them for the most part as a stimulus to children and, when properly directed, as a moralizing factor.

Allowance for tares on glass, porcelain, china, etc., has been increased, because we have observed that in many cases the breakage is greater than the allowance for tare now in force.

OLIMPIO OBERO.
E. G. MORINGLANE.
AMADEO GILOT.

PONCE, P. R., May 31, 1898.

Item.	Articles.	Proposed duty.
GLASS AND CRYSTAL.		
		<i>Pesos.</i>
11.....	Common hollow glassware, flasks, uncut per 100 kilograms.. Glass, flat, or pavements and window panes, tare, 50 per cent. Glass, packed in barrels, colored and flat, gross weight. For expediency we have made a larger average for tare, as experience has proved that there is greater loss by breakage than allowed for in the tariff.	2.00
14.....	Quicksilvered glass, large mirrors, including the frames, per 100 kilograms .. Same, without frames, per 100 kilograms .. Allowance for tare, 50 per cent. The reduction made has for its object allowance for the cost of packing.	17.50 8.00
14.....	Small mirrors, of all kinds and shapes, ordinary .. per 100 kilograms .. Tare, 40 per cent.	8.00
15.....	Glass, for optical purposes, spectacles, statuettes, jars, flower vases, and other similar articles for toilet purposes and house decorations per kilogram .. Tare, 40 per cent.	.30
	Wineglasses, goblets, and similar articles per kilogram ..	.80
	Glass chandeliers with crystal ornaments, do.....	.80
12.....	Glass in wineglasses, goblets, and the like in all shapes for domestic use, and lamps with glass stands, per 100 kilograms .. Tare, 50 per cent.	4.60
UTENSILS OF CLAY, EARTHENWARE, AND PORCELAIN.		
16.....	Clay tiles for floors and roofs, fire brick, etc. per 100 kilograms .. Tare, 30 per cent.	.45
17.....	Glazed clay tiles, square, for paving, do..... Glazed tiles for roofs, tare, 30 per cent.	.72
18.....	Clay in manufactures, hollow, glazed, or unglazed, for cooking and domestic utensils, per 100 kilograms .. Tare, 20 per cent.	.90
19.....	Flintware, fine earthenware, and gypsum statuettes do..... Tare, 40 per cent.	2.50
	NOTE. This reduction is made in order to encourage the use of these articles.	
20.....	White porcelain in all its applications, per 100 kilograms .. Tare, 40 per cent.	4.50
21.....	Painted or gilt china, a surtax of 50 per cent. Clay, faience, porcelain, and bisque in figures, jars, bas-relief, flower vases, and ornaments for toilet tables, houses, and other like uses; liquor cases and dishes for sweets, per 100 kilograms .. Tare, 30 per cent.	.30
PAPER AND ITS APPLICATIONS.		
<i>Cardboard.</i>		
229.....	Pulp or paste for the manufacture of paper.	Free.
229-225.....	Printing paper, white and colored, for topography or for stamping, per 100 kilograms ..	2.75
226.....	Writing paper of all kinds, in reams and folded, including the envelopes per 100 kilograms .. Surtax on envelopes, 50 per cent.	6.00
227-228.....	Books, bound or unbound, those printed in Spanish or other languages	Free.
229.....	Stamped paper, forms for invoices, tickets, cards, and similar objects, printed, engraved, or lithographed, in one color, per kilogram ..	.20
230.....	Paper, stamps, maps, and drawings per kilogram ..	.20
231.....	Chromolithographs, oleographs, etc., in three or more colors, on cards, tobacco packages, and other articles, per kilogram ..	.70
232-233.....	Wall paper on natural ground and printed on dull or glazed ground, per 100 kilograms ..	6.00
234.....	With gold, silver, etc. do.....	24.00

Item.	Articles.	Proposed duty.
PAPER AND ITS APPLICATIONS—continued.		
Cardboard—Continued.		
235	Sandpaper, white and ordinary wrapping paper, straw paper, blotting paper, thin yellow wrapping paper, parchment, per 100 kilograms.	2.00
236	Thin paper of common pulp for packing fruits, per 100 kilograms.	3.00
237	Music paper, lamp and fire screens, drawing paper, and other paper not in the tariff, per 100 kilograms.	4.00
Pasteboard and fine cardboard.		
238	Pasteboard and fine cardboard glazed and pressed in sheets, per 100 kilograms.	4.00
239	Same, cardboard in sheets, ordinary pasteboard articles, and those of stone cardboard in unfinished articles, per 100 kilograms.	1.90
240	Same, in finished articles, per kilogram.	.20
82	Thin sheets of tin and lead, per 100 kilograms.	3.00
NOTE.—Paper in all its applications being a prime element to facilitate education, we have endeavored to lower the tariff. Catalogues of all kinds, without commercial value.		Free.
MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS AND APPARATUS.		
250-251	Violins, violoncellos, double basses, viols, clarinets, fiddle bows, mouthpieces, hautboys, flutes, fifes, tercoolas, flageolets, etc., per 100 kilograms.	23.00
75	Musical instruments of brass, such as drums, trumpets, baritones, helicons, cornets, etc., per kilogram.	.30
86	The same instruments nickel plated, do.	.35
297	Pianos, grand, each.	100.00
298	Other pianos of from 5 to 8 octaves, do.	35.00
	Small pianos for practice, up to 4 octaves, do.	6.00
299	Harmoniums and organs, per 100 kilograms.	35.00
	Hand organs, do.	25.00
	Musical boxes, do.	25.00
300	Military musical instruments, drums, double basses, kettledrums, and cymbals, per kilogram.	.70
	Accordions, per 100 kilograms.	23.00
TOYS.		
396	Toys of all kinds, except those of tortoise shell, mother-of-pearl, ivory, gold, or silver, including mouth organs, per 100 kilograms.	20.00
378	Fans, with sticks of bamboo, cane, or wood, per kilogram.	.30
379	Same, with sticks of paste, bone, and horn, do.	1.00
380	Same, mounted on tortoise shell, ivory, or mother-of-pearl, do.	2.80
388	Fans of palm leaf, pasteboard, with advertisements, per 100 kilograms.	6.25
JEWELRY.		
82	Ornaments of gold, silver, platinum, in trinkets and jewelry, even if set with precious stones, pearls, and precious jewels and passamenterie of such metals, ad valorem.	8 per ct.
381	Trinkets and ornaments of all kinds in amber, jet, tortoise shell, coral, meerschaum, ivory, mother-of-pearl, and paste, and other similar materials, per kilogram.	3.75
	Same of whalebone, horn, gutta-percha, bone, paste, in imitation of the preceding classifications, and of other metals, whether or not gilded or plated, per kilogram.	1.00
NOTE.—The materials used in the manufacture of these trinkets are generally of such low price that they are excluded from group 381.		
82	Amber, horn, jet, whalebone, tortoise shell, coral, meerschaum, ivory, and paste, in the rough or cut, even in strips or sheets, per kilogram.	1.00
These are considered as raw materials.		
383	Amber, jet, tortoise shell, coral, ivory, and mother-of-pearl, manufactured, per kilogram.	5.00
384	Horn, whalebone, bone, and paste, manufactured, including tooth brushes, per kilogram.	1.00
86	Buttons of all kinds, except those of gold and silver, do.	.40
385	Walking sticks and umbrella and parasol handles, per 100 kilograms.	10.00

HARDWARE, LEATHER GOODS, ETC.

The committee appointed by the official chamber of commerce and the Industrial Club has the honor to propose the following reforms in the tariff of the island:

Glass or crystal lamps or chandeliers, under item 15, ought to be combined with item 12, at 6 pesos 50 centavos, and not 52 centavos per kilogram.

Machetes for agricultural purposes, of all kinds, should be appraised under item 307, at 1 peso 10 centavos per 100 kilograms, as agricultural implements.

Files, under item 48, should be appraised under item 58, at 3 pesos 75 centavos.

French or screw nails, so called, should be appraised under item 47, at 250 pesos.

Iron shovels, appraised under item 56, at 4 pesos 10 centavos, should be incorporated with spades, under 307, at 1 peso 10 centavos per 100 kilograms.

Iron hooks and hinges, which at manufacturers' price cost 1 peso 75 centavos per quintal, are appraised under item 56, at 4 pesos 10 centavos per 100 kilograms, and we think, therefore, that the duties should be reduced one-half.

Iron locks for doors, under item 57, at 6 pesos per 100 kilograms, should be appraised under item 56, at 4 pesos 10 centavos, as ordinary manufactures.

Common pins and hooks and eyes, appraised under item 62, at 1.50, should be appraised under item 78, as wrought iron, brass, at 30 centavos.

Scissors, under item 64, at 90 centavos, should be incorporated with item 48, at 11 centavos.

Knives and forks with handles of iron, whalebone, bone, or composition, appraised under item 55 at 40 centavos, this duty being more than the original cost, we beg that they be appraised under item 48, at 11 centavos.

Linseed oil, under item 88, appraised at 9 pesos 70 centavos, should be appraised under item 87, the same as cocoanut and palm oil, at 5 pesos, net weight only.

Varnishes, being of little cost and appraised under item 99, at 9 pesos, we think that the tax should be reduced to one-half, paying only net weight.

Paints, in powder, prepared, and inks, appraised under 100 and 101, should be taxed, instead of 2 pesos 90 centavos and 5 pesos 95 centavos, at 2 pesos 50 centavos per 100 kilograms, net weight.

Woven-wire bed springs, appraised under item 249, should be appraised as spring or wire beds, under item 53, at 2 pesos 85 centavos per 200 kilograms.

Leather belts for machinery, appraised under item 312 at \$4.90, and afterwards under item 288 at 47 centavos, we think that as those articles are only applicable to machinery used for sugar cane and coffee, they should only be appraised under 312 at \$4.90.

Saddles, straps, stirrups, and the like articles, for harness manufacture, not patent leather, should be appraised under 287 at 23 centavos, instead of under 288 at 47 centavos, because this duty is in proportion to the cost.

Tanned or dressed skins, patent leather, under item 272, at 80 centavos, should be appraised under item 271 at 45 centavos, because these

goods belong to the same class, and the fact of being varnished does not change the first cost.

Wagon sidepieces and rods for poles, spokes, felloes, and hoops for carriages, uncovered, we think should be appraised under item 248, at \$2.14, because the hoops and poles are similar to broom handles or clothes poles, and should be included under the same head, instead of appraising them under item 249, at \$9.50, which only applies to common furniture.

Carriage wheels, being of common wood, should be appraised under common furniture, to which class we think they belong.

All furniture of common wood, including wickerwork and bent wood, not veneered, though with cane seats and backs, should be appraised under item 249 as common furniture.

Buttons of bone and metal, appraised under item 386, at 75 centavos, is altogether too high a rate, and such articles should be appraised at 30 centavos per kilo.

The tare allowed on hollow glass should be increased to 70 per cent in place of 40 per cent.

JOSE TRUJILLO,
MARIANO VIDAL.

PONCE, P. R., *April 6, 1898.*

RULES, FINES, ETC.

The committee appointed by the official chamber of commerce and the Industrial Club has the honor to propose the following reforms in the customs tariff of the island:

Article 40.—Omit exception in regulation 3 "that textiles and opium can not enter to order" as other merchandise of lawful commerce.

Regulations 10 and 11.—Word in the following manner: "If ship-owners, supercargoes, or consignees notice on the countersigned manifest, presented by the captain, any error, they should notify the customs collector of the port, who will receive and amend the manifest within twenty-four hours after the arrival of the vessel."

Article 48.—Concludes as follows: "Unless said manifest shall have been amended within twenty-four hours of the arrival of the vessel." It should be edited to read: "At the expiration of twenty-four hours, more or less, after the arrival of the vessel, the captain must present a copy of the manifest, in Spanish, properly stamped, to the collector of customs, who will cancel said stamp by the affixture of a seal. The fact that the twenty-four hours limit may expire on a holiday shall be no hindrance to the presentation of the manifest. The captain of the vessel will also deliver, at the port of entry, the manifests of cargoes intended for other ports; these will be countersigned by the collector of customs and returned to the captain upon the clearance of the vessel."

Article 62.—Add: "When the fines and surtaxes imposed upon the captain shall exceed the value of the freight, the consignee will have the right to renounce the consignment and the custom-house will proceed against the vessel, by notifying the consul, if the vessel is foreign, and proceed to recover the liabilities incurred by the captain."

Article 63.—The consignee, if he thinks proper, may present one

declaration only to cover all the goods on the manifest, separating the merchandise to be forwarded to warehouses, and furniture or goods to be deposited, and he may request an extension of three working days instead of forty-eight working hours.

Article 65.—Omit regulations 10 and 11 provided for in Article 40.

Article 68.—All merchandise of lawful commerce, whether or not consigned to order, may be declared in transit for another part of the island, or for some place not in the island. The consignee should apply, in writing, to the collector of customs for transit before declaring the merchandise "for consumption." In such case the director or collector will file in the office a list of the merchandise declared in transit for another port. Omit the rest of Article 68.

Article 69.—Vessels may begin to discharge the cargo as soon as the consignee makes the required application, which must not be delayed longer than forty-eight working hours from the time of the arrival of the vessel. The collector, in cases that seem to him justifiable, may extend this time forty-eight hours longer.

Article 75.—Omit the last paragraph, referring to a vessel that has stopped at some foreign port and from the cargo of which packages containing opium and textiles are missing.

Article 87.—Section 4: The consignee shall ask for the opening and examination of packages of damaged goods, in order to judge of the allowance to be made on the same, in the payment of duties.

Article 101.—Omit the second section, which reads: "That the port to which the goods are consigned shall not be the same from which it sailed nor any of those at which it has stopped en route."

Article 103.—Transshipment will be allowed in all cases, even when the goods come consigned on the captain's manifest to some certain person.

Article 106.—Omit section 4 of case 6, which relates to the abandonment of prohibited merchandise.

FINES.

Total receipts from fines imposed shall be covered into the treasury; one-half of the same to be used for repairs and improvements of custom-house buildings and offices.

Article 149.—Case 1: Lower the fine to \$100. Case 2: Lower the fine to \$5 for each. Case 3: Lower the fine to \$10 for each. Case 4: Lower the fine to \$10 for each. Case 5: Any difference found in the weight, exceeding 10 per cent, more or less, of the gross weight, shall be fined double the amount of unloading duty, if the captain is found to have disregarded the stipulations relating to the manifests. Case 6: Omit. Case 7: Fix the fine at 10 pesos. Cases 10, 11, and 12: Fix the fine at twice the duty. Case 13: Double duty. Case 14: Lower the fine to 300 pesos. Case 15: Lower the fine to 10 pesos per package. Case 16: Double the duty in both cases. Case 17: Fix the fine at 800 pesos. Case 19: Double the duty.

Article 150.—Case 1: Fix the fine at 25 pesos. In other cases double the duties.

Article 151.—The fine for the presentation of the manifest beyond the limit of time specified will be 2 per cent on the duties imposed for the first eight days and 4 per cent for further delay. In other cases under article 151 the fine will be double the duty.

Article 153.—Case 1: Double duties.

Article 154.—Cases 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5: Ten pesos fine.

Article 156.—Case 1: Ten pesos fine for each package. Case 2: Double duty.

Article 157.—Case 3: Ten pesos fine per package or double duty.

Article 158.—Double duty.

Article 159.—Claims for unintentional errors made in the assessment of duties will be considered if presented before payment of the same; and if found valid, the appraisement will be amended by a second appraisement.

Article 160.—Omit the distribution of packages and turn the same over to the treasury.

Article 144.—The president of the board of arbitration will be the municipal alcalde. The president will have a casting vote in case of a tie.

When the merchant has failed to receive an invoice, he may ask for an examination of the goods, and in such case will pay 5 per cent additional duty.

E. SALAZAR.

C. ARMSTRONG.

E. G. MORINGLANE.

DRUGS, MEDICINES, ETC.

[Report submitted by the committee on drugs and pharmacy for the consideration of the commissioners appointed to advise on tariff reform.]

First. Medicinal elixirs, being pharmaceutical products, should not have a special item, and instead of appraising them under item 115 they should be included in item 116, to which they belong.

Second. It is neither just nor equitable that sugar candy, as entered in the tariff, should pay a duty which amounts to no less than 300 per cent more than the original cost, and we think that this article as well as sweet pastilles and gum drops, the principal ingredient of which is not medicine, should form a separate item under which the duty should be assessed at 6 pesos per 100 kilograms.

Third. Antipyrine, and other aromatic substances, being chemical products, it is a mistake of our tariff to class them under item 105, which included the alkaloids and their salts, with which the former are not allied; therefore, antipyrine and other products of that class should be appraised under 117, to which they properly belong.

Fourth. Item 88 should be included in 87, because the first cost of the oils, to which both items refer, is at about the same market rate as those appraised under 87.

Fifth. There is little equity in the appraisement of pharmaceutical products; on some articles the rate is as high as from 50 to 100 per cent, while on others it is as low as 25 per cent on the first cost. It follows, therefore, that many articles of equal cost can not be sold for the same price, and it is unjust that the wrappers, packages, etc., should be rated as high as the contents. As it is impossible to restrict the importation of specialties to which the public are accustomed, we propose to amend item 116 in such manner that the highest rate will not exceed 25 centavos per kilogram, and, like the former tariff, the products, to which said item refers, should be appraised at net weight.

Sixth. Item 115 should be included in 116, because capsules, pills,

and comfits are medicines which constitute first specialties, defined as wine, tonics, or sirups, etc., mentioned in the second.

Seventh. Item 115 has been erroneously interpreted by some of the customs employees. They have held that such articles as Pelletier capsules, from the mere fact that they are manufactured with an alkaloid, should be rated as alkaloid. For this reason it is necessary to give attention to the matter and show that the said capsules have a definite medicinal formula, that they belong under item 115, and such interpretation of the item can not be justified. Now then, as in the preceding paragraph, we ask for the incorporation of items 115 and 116, and we think that Pelletier capsules should be appraised under the latter.

Eighth. We consider the rate under 89, of 6 pesos per 100 kilograms on spirits of turpentine, as excessive. On account of the low price and extensive use of the article we think it should not pay over 3 pesos per 100 kilograms.

Ninth. We beg the suppression of item 94, so that all seeds, roots, and grains used in medicine may be rated under item 91.

Tenth. The frequent use of aniline colors has caused a notable reduction in the price of indigo blue and cochineal, for which reason these articles might be rated under item 98. We think, also, that articles now overcharged under item 102 should be rated under 98.

Eleventh. Alkaloids and their salts being overcharged in the appraisement (12 pesos per kilogram), we ask that the rate be reduced one-half.

Twelfth. Glue, gelatin, glycerin, and sealing-wax, being articles used in manufacture, and bearing in mind that all the protection which can be afforded to industry redounds to the benefit of the country, we think these articles should pay 3 pesos per 100 kilograms.

Thirteenth. Abolish items 113 and 114 and let the articles embraced in these items, along with borate of soda, be incorporated in item 107, to which class they belong.

Fourteenth. Perfumed vaseline should not be considered as perfumery; it is a very cheap product, and we think it should be classed under item 8 when in packages of 1 pound and over.

Fifteenth. Distilled waters, such as lettuce, lime, rose, etc., being only used in preparations put up in a pharmacy, should not be appraised under 116, as at present; these waters are very cheap and should not pay over 8 centavos per liter.

Sixteenth. Cod-liver oil, purified, is an animal product used in medicine. If its price were lower it would be within the means of many persons who now are deprived of its healing properties, and we think, therefore, that it should not be rated under item 116, but under 95, to which it legitimately belongs.

Seventeenth. Fluid extracts, the use of which has become so general, are solutions of solids, and therefore should be appraised under item 116, which refers to such articles, unless a reduction is made in the tariff of from 50 to 70 per cent.

Eighteenth. Essential oils, most used in pharmacy, are very heavily taxed under item 124, which also embraces fine perfumery. We consider this surtax unjust, and believe that a reduction of 50 per cent should be made on the duties now paid.

ANTONIO YUMET.
RAMON E. GADEA.

FOOD STUFFS, MACHINERY, ETC.

The undersigned, having been requested to report upon the principal articles of export embraced in the customs tariff of this island, and also upon the principal imports, such as provisions, lumber, coal, cement, machinery, etc., for the purpose of fixing a basis which, in their opinion, should regulate the projected tariff rates, and to suggest means of securing commercial treaties with certain countries, have concluded the duties accepted by them, and report:

I.—EXPORT DUTIES.

The principal articles of export produced in this island are as follows: Coffee, tobacco, sugar, and molasses; to which might be added salt, an excellent quality of which is produced in the salt mines of Cabo Rojo and Guanica. This last is an industry which is capable of great development if placed under favorable circumstances.

Products now exported through our custom-houses pay duties as follows, per 100 kilograms.

	Export.	Cargo.	Total.
Coffee.....	\$1.00	\$0.10	\$0.10
Tobacco.....	.22	.10	.32
Lumber.....	.15	.10	.25
Sugar.....	Free.	.07½	.07½
Molasses.....	Free.	.07½	.07½
Salt.....	Free.	.10	.10
Other products.....	Free.	.10	.10

The committee is of opinion that export and cargo duties on the products of the country should be entirely abolished; the more so because real estate contributes to the State 5 per cent of its revenue and to the municipality 7½ per cent, making a total of 12½ per cent. It follows, therefore, that all export duties collected are a great burden to the producers, who in years when the crops are short and the prices low find great difficulty in covering their expenses and paying the direct taxes.

Export duties are paid solely by the producer. The merchant, agent, or exporter, knowing the market prices of export articles, naturally deducts from the price of the goods paid to the farmer the export duties and cargo dues, which logically should not be part of the first cost.

The export and cargo duties paid by the producers of said articles in the year 1896 were as follows:

Cargo dues on sugar.....	\$44,081.00
Export duty on coffee.....	\$266,621.94
Cargo dues on coffee.....	20,682.00
	<hr/>
	293,284.00
Lumber, both duties.....	75.15
Tobacco, both duties.....	3,222.25
Molasses, cargo duty.....	10,963.00
	<hr/>
	351,624.40

If the present condition of the treasury of Porto Rico does not admit of the immediate abolishment of these duties, a gradual reduction might be made, beginning the first year after an agreement has been had, by abolishing the duties on all grades of sugar, lumber,

tobacco, molasses, salt, and other articles exported except coffee. In the second year the cargo duties on coffee ought to be abolished, and in ten more years the export duties might be abolished on this product at the rate of one-tenth part per annum.

II.—IMPORT DUTIES.

The articles imported, to which our report refers, are:

	Posos.
Wheat flour: In 1896 there was imported kilograms 15,400,000—import and unloading duties, at \$4.10 per 100 kilograms.....	631,400.00
Wheat: 318 kilograms, at \$3.25 per 100 kilograms, both duties	10.83
Corn: 50,000 kilograms, at \$3.25 per 100 kilograms, both duties	1,625.00
Corn meal: 30,000 kilograms, at \$4.10 per 100 kilograms, both duties ..	1,230.00
Pork and lard: 4,700,000 kilograms, at \$4.60 per 100 kilograms, both duties	212,200.00
Rice (hulled): 32,000,000 kilograms, at \$2.88 per 100 kilograms, both duties	896,000.00
Butter and beef suet (or grease): Of the 141,028 kilograms imported, 91,780 were from the peninsula. The total amount paid for duties on cargo and imports was	3,787.00
Jerked beef: 3,524,116 kilograms, at \$3.45 per 100 kilograms—cargo and import duties	86,841.00
Codfish and other salt fish: 86,369 kilograms, imported from Spain, exempt from import duty; 728,714 kilograms, imported from the United States; 11,974,462 kilograms, from English possessions. The two latter paid import duties at the rate of 80 centavos per 100 kilograms, which, with the unloading duty of 10 centavos per 100 kilograms, amounted to	128,675.00
Olive oil in tin cans:	
1,175,808 kilograms, imported from Spain, free from import duty: unloading duty	1,175.80
1,660 kilograms from other countries, at the rate of \$3.55 per 100 kilograms, both duties	74.04
Olive oil in bottles:	
13,640 kilograms, imported from Spain, free from import duties; unloading duty	18.04
6,304 kilograms, from other countries, at the rate of \$3.35 per 100 kilograms, both duties	337.26
Cheeses:	
16,098 kilograms, from Spain, free of import duties; unloading duty	16.00
311,872 kilograms, from other countries, at \$15.10 per 100 kilograms, both duties	47,098.00
Casks and hogsheads (for sugar and molasses, set up or not): 3,170,000 kilograms, at 28 centavos per 100 kilograms, both duties	8,876.00
Barrels, made or unmade: 174,000 kilograms, at \$2.24 per 100 kilograms, both duties	3,728.00
Lumber, common, in boards and other pieces: 38,000 cubic meters, at \$1 per cubic meter, plus 10 centavos for each 100 kilograms (transitory duty)	80,472.00
Lumber, planed or dovetailed: 5,652 cubic meters, at \$2.20 per cubic meter, plus 10 centavos per 100 kilograms	18,086.00
Mineral coal: 32,561,131 kilograms; import duties only, at 32 centavos per 100 kilograms	10,740.00
Cement: 878,943 kilograms. Of this number of kilograms 241,393 came from Spain, at 5 centavos per 100 kilograms, and 637,550 kilograms from other countries, at 50 centavos; both duties	3,827.00
Machinery for the manufacture of sugar: 1,587,166 kilograms, at 75 centavos per 100 kilograms; both duties	12,905.86
Machinery, apparatus, tools, and agricultural implements: 190,724 kilograms, at \$120 per 100 kilograms; both duties	2,497.00
Motors, boilers, etc.: 152,325 kilograms, at \$2.60 per 100 kilograms; both duties	4,106.25
Copper machinery and detached pieces: 12,490 kilograms, at \$15.10 per 100 kilograms; both duties	1,780.00

With regard to the articles above referred to, the committee are of opinion:

First. Import duties should be collected only on the net weight, deducting the weight of the inner or outer covering, as follows:

Meat; lard; unhulled rice, wheat, corn, and flour of these grains; jerked beef and codfish; oil and olives; cheese and butter.

The packing cases should only pay duties when they are likely to become of commercial value when empty, in which case these packing cases should be subject to duty under their respective items of the tariff. If the value of the packing case proves to be less than the duties assessed, and the circumstances justify it, a reduction of 20 per cent on the actual value in the island of the packing case should be made in the appraisement.

Casks, hogsheads, and barrels should pay duty per gross weight in the cases in which they come, according to the tariff.

As to mineral coal, cement, and machinery, motors, and boilers of all kinds, the committee think that, so far as the exigencies of the treasury of the island permit, the import duties should be reduced, and on food products the reduction should be made as low as possible. As far as preference is concerned it should be given to the articles cited by us as follows: (1) Wheat flour; (2) unhulled rice; (3) jerked beef; (4) pork and lard; (5) olive oil and olives in all kinds of packages; (6) cheese; (7) butter.

Codfish and other salt fish may continue to pay the same duties as at present.

We think that wheat and unhulled rice should pay half the amount of duty assessed upon wheat flour and hulled rice.

Casks, hogsheads, and barrels might be reduced 5 per cent of the present duty.

There is no reason why lumber and cement should not continue to pay the same duties as at present.

Machinery for sugar works and for other purposes, sugar estates and farms, including copper machinery and the like for similar purposes, ought in our opinion to be free from duties.

We also think that the same exemption should be accorded to other machinery, apparatus, and agricultural implements, as well as to mineral coal.

On steam engines of all kinds and boilers for generating steam we think there should be a great reduction in the tariff; the import duties should be reduced to about 25 per cent of those now paid. If still greater reduction were possible, we would agree to have it made.

As regards locomotives and material for railroads, we would reduce the duties to one-third of those now assessed.

We would also reduce by one-third the duties on copper machines and combinations not intended to improve agricultural products. (For this purpose we have asked that such articles be put upon the free list.)

Detached pieces of machinery of all kinds should be appraised under the items, respectively, to which the completed article pertains.

III.—TREATY WITH THE UNITED STATES.

If the North American Republic should concede a reduction of 20 per cent in duties on the importation of tobacco, sugar, molasses, and salt from Porto Rico, we might in turn concede to that country certain reductions in the tariff, so that the total amount would be approx-

imately equivalent to the reductions made by the United States on the products of Porto Rico.

A proper estimate of the reductions to be made might be arrived at by taking into account the difference in money values of the two countries, and a rate might be estimated and fixed until the standard is changed in some positive manner.

An account will be kept of the amount reduced each year, and for each dollar in gold of the sum total of duties reduced in the United States on the products of Porto Rico an allowance will be made here of 1.76 pesos. That is to say, if the total reductions made in the United States in one year on the imports from Porto Rico amounted to 100,000 pesos, the amount of reductions in our country would be 176,000 pesos on the products of the United States imported into Porto Rico.

A. This basis, referred to in the preceding paragraph, should be the initiatory work of the framers of the treaty, and every five years thereafter the proper reciprocal estimates should be made.

B. If the average of exchange should appreciably and permanently change, the consequent changes would be made in the rates of exchange, without loss of time, in order that the reciprocal arrangement might be effective and advantageous to both countries.

The treaty may be annulled by giving notice three months in advance of such intention, but during that time the tariff shall not be altered to the injury of the products of either country.

Until notice of annulment of the treaty be given the same shall continue in force, although subject to the changes indicated in Paragraphs A and B.

Porto Rico will reserve the right to make similar treaties with other nations, importing the products of the island, which will give it equivalent advantages. Such treaties will be based upon the same terms as those entered into with the United States.

IV.—RELATIONS WITH THE PENINSULA.

The reductions made in the tariff in Porto Rico on the products of the Peninsula should necessarily be compensated by proportionate reductions made in Spain and the adjacent islands on the products of Porto Rico imported by such places. The total reductions made by one country should equal or approximate those made by the other country, always keeping in mind the difference in money values whilst such difference exists.

The total amount of reductions made in the island of Porto Rico in favor of the products of Spain should be made in Spain and the adjacent islands in favor of the products of Porto Rico—such as on sugar, molasses, and coffee—in such manner that the said concessions could prove absolutely reciprocal. It would not be fair to continue our present rates, for whilst the products of Spain pay little or no import duties here, those of Porto Rico are heavily taxed in the Peninsula to the extent of being almost prohibitive.

There should be but one rate of customs duty for both countries, and not as it happens, that, under the term "consumption" or other similar terms, a surtax is levied upon the first import duties.

V.—DUES ON LOADING AND UNLOADING AND THE CUSTOMS DUTY ON CONSUMPTION.

The first two should be abolished and the third incorporated in the import duties.

With the foregoing we close our report, which is based upon careful and conscientious study of the points embraced in it. Nevertheless we are bound to consider the necessities of the public treasury if the circumstances demand certain modifications.

CARLOS ARMSTRONG.
J. M. MORA.
P. J. ROSALY.

PONCE, P. R., *April 14, 1898.*

HOW TO HELP AGRICULTURE.

The undersigned, commissioned to suggest measures which should, in the interest of agriculture, serve as a guide for drafting a new tariff and making commercial treaties to be celebrated with the United States and Canada, herewith submit to your judgment the following considerations:

This committee believe that it would be advisable to reduce considerably the import duties paid on provisions coming from those two countries.

The total imports from those two countries in 1894 amounted to the value of 6,290,218 pesos 35 centavos; of this sum the value of food articles was 4,376,257 pesos 73 centavos, or more than two-thirds of the whole amount. Based upon these figures, the reduction in the tariff would have to be considerable in view of the necessity for lowering the price of living in the island and bettering the condition of the poorer classes. But the subject is worthy of consideration, and the committee believe that such purpose might be used as an argument for obtaining from the Governments of the United States and Canada markets for such product of the island as sugar, coffee, tobacco, hides, live stock, fruit, etc., under more favorable conditions than those existing.

The committee also believe that, with the exception perhaps of the Peninsula, the United States and Canada are the natural markets for the products of the island, and nothing should be left undone to place this island in the most advantageous position possible with those countries.

With regard to tariff the undersigned believe that whatever tends to facilitate the cultivation and improvement of the products of the country, and the introduction of the same into foreign markets, with the least possible expense, should be exempt from duty. In this class would come agricultural implements, etc.

At this time, when the production of cane sugar is brought into competition with beet sugar, a product which enjoys a bounty of 1 peso 80 centavos, provincial money, for each 50 kilograms exported, and now that this bounty has so stimulated the production of beet sugar that it has almost driven cane sugar from the markets of the world, with a consequent decline in price, it has become necessary to retrace our expenses by investing less money in modern apparatus. During fifteen years of high prices the production of coffee in the world has almost doubled; from year to year the price has declined, and, from all appearances, will continue to decline year by year. Under these circumstances, the committee think that agriculture ought to be aided to sustain itself and should not be burdened with duties which, besides being unjust, are suicidal. Satisfied with this

view, the committee recommends the following as a basis for the drafting of a new tariff relating to these subjects:

(1) That machinery, spades, and mineral coal be exempt from duty, as they were in the tariff of 1882.

(2) That the import duties now paid on sacks, staves, and wooden hoops, from whatever source, be reduced 75 per cent.

(3) That loading and export duties paid on the products of the island should be abolished.

The undersigned believe that if the suggestions submitted are adopted, as well as those to be made by the other committees appointed to consider other branches, they will tend materially to improve the agricultural interests of Porto Rico, and, although perhaps not pertinent to the business in hand, the committee believe that they are in duty bound to point out that the natural market for the products of the island is that of the peninsula, to which we are united by the ties of history, race, religion, and customs, and that in order to bind still closer these ties of union between the mother country and this island a common interest should be encouraged.

It is not sufficient that our products enter the peninsula free of duty so long as taxes under the name of "consumption" are levied. Under this duty sugar pays 33½ pesetas plus 10 per cent and coffee 60 pesetas per 100 kilograms.

Such prohibitive duties place these articles beyond the means of the poorer classes and have a fatal tendency to drive away the export commerce of the island to other markets than Spain. This is shown by the following figures:

Total exports of coffee and sugar in 1894.

	Coffee.	Sugar.
	<i>Kilograms.</i>	<i>Kilograms.</i>
To Spain	5,598,284	13,781,281
To foreign countries	17,841,405	32,839,858
Total	22,909,689	46,621,139

We are all victims of this exorbitant tax. The people of Spain are, for the most part, deprived of one of the necessities of life on account of its artificial price. This island is deprived of its natural market where, at least, it should be protected, and the treasury is deprived of this source of revenue because the high prices caused by the tax curtail the importation and consumption of articles which, under a more liberal régime, would largely contribute to the finances.

The committee are of the opinion that for the good of both the mother country and Porto Rico the import duties on articles imported from this island into Spain, if not abolished altogether, should at least be considerably reduced.

And, Mr. President, in spite of their inadequacy for the task, the commissioners believe that they have fulfilled their task as representatives of the agricultural wealth of the country.

GUSTO CABRERA.
JOSE SERRA.
E. WELLENKAMP.
RAFAEL COLLAZO.
FELIX JAURI.
LUIS RUBERT.

THE TARIFF AND PORT CHARGES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 26, 1898.*

Mr. T. G. J. WAYMOUTH, of the house of J. T. Silva & Co., San Juan, P. R.:

Dr. CARROLL. I want to ask you about the customs. Do you understand that the same customs are levied now, practically, as were levied previous to the occupation of the island by the Americans, except that the duties collected from goods coming from Spain are precisely the same as those from other countries?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. That is my understanding of it.

Dr. CARROLL. Formerly you collected a very small tariff on Spanish goods?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. I have had an intimation that the business men of Porto Rico consider this tariff too high; that they would like a reduction of 50 per cent in it, and that that reduction ought to be made immediately; also that there ought to be a removal of certain port charges which are now in the nature of an embargo. Do you regard the rates now charged too high and onerous to the merchants and people of Porto Rico?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. I consider all the duties on machinery double what they ought to be—perhaps more than double.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that true of any other articles?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. Articles like flour pay too high a duty and I think most of them could be reduced without doing any harm to the island. There was formerly a heavy duty on American flour, so that practically it had to be shipped to Spain and from there reshipped to Porto Rico. Now, of course, it will come direct from the United States, but the duty is too high still. Formerly the duty was something like \$4 a bag; now I believe it is \$2 a bag.

Dr. CARROLL. You get it as cheaply as under Spanish sovereignty?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think of any other articles that ought to be reduced?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. I don't think of any at the present moment. I only have in mind now those principal things—flour, which is the principal article of consumption imported into the island, and machinery, which we need in order to develop our industries. To import a piece of machinery for grinding sugar or coffee you require to be almost a capitalist. It is very expensive, not only because of the freight charges, but because the duties are enormous.

Dr. CARROLL. Where has the island been getting its machinery from chiefly?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. They are getting it from England and France; also from the United States, but not so much for sugar plantations. They seem to prefer here the English mills for grinding cane.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the English cheaper?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. Yes; they get boilers from the United States; also telephones and telegraphs. The bridges of the island have been imported principally from Belgium. I think the tariff should be reduced about 50 per cent all round. I believe the increased importation which would result would compensate for the loss of revenue by the reduction.

Dr. CARROLL. You have also a duty on exports. Is it desirable to continue that?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. That is a question of calculation after you consider the budget. You will figure that the administration of the island costs so much, and then you can select such means of revenue as may seem most convenient and desirable to produce the amount required. The ambition of the people here is, however, that there should be free trade between the island and the United States.

Dr. CARROLL. Could you make up some of the necessary amount for purposes of administering the affairs of the island by some form of internal revenue?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. No; I think it would be unwise to have any more internal revenue.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think any of the present internal taxes should be wiped out altogether?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. I do, and I believe that will be necessary to build up the country.

Dr. CARROLL. We have a successful system of revenue tax adopted for the purpose of paying war expenses. Under this system a stamp is required to be put upon every telegram, bank check, deed, mortgage, contract, etc., which distributes the burden equally.

Mr. WAYMOUTH. That is just. Our internal-revenue law will have to be looked into, because, up to the present, it has been very loose.

Dr. CARROLL. Who can give me the most accurate and full information as to the stamp and other taxes that have been imposed, licenses, stamps on merchants' books of account, etc.?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. I will tell you how that is done. They generally divide the merchants into groups which they call gremios. The first gremio includes the bankers and importers and exporters; the second gremio would be importers who are not also exporters; then there would be a gremio to take in the coffee houses. The Government says we require so many thousands of dollars. This amount is divided among the various gremios, and each gremio is required to produce the amount assigned to it. The gremios call meetings and each gremio adjusts the amount to be paid by each person included in it, which amount is arrived at by taking the proportion of business that is done.

Dr. CARROLL. Who apportions the several amounts to the gremios?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. The secretary of the treasury.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the amount, as between the gremios, equitably apportioned?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. Not generally. The Government is only concerned with getting the money and does not care whether the apportionment is equitable or otherwise. The apportionment is changed from year to year.

Dr. CARROLL. Was there any tendency on the part of the Government to discriminate?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. No; they got the money where they could, but there was a tendency among the gremios to squeeze each other.

Dr. CARROLL. How was the collection of the amounts made—was it farmed out?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. After agreeing upon the amounts in the gremios the collection was made by the Spanish Bank.

Dr. CARROLL. There were revenues that were farmed out.

Mr. WAYMOUTH. Yes; stamp revenues.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it not a fact that a tax is collected on all produce of every kind brought into the city?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. Yes; that was another tax. I would like to speak of another matter. I refer to the port charges which are collected here under the new order of things. These charges are extremely heavy. They collect at the rate of 20 cents on each net registered ton; that is, 20 cents on vessels arriving from a foreign port and 2 cents on vessels arriving from any other port of the island. Vessels coming here to take on cargo—usually tramp vessels—run all around the island wherever there is coffee, sugar, or other cargo, and pick it up at the different ports. But if each vessel has to pay 20 cents a ton at the first port and 2 cents a ton at the others they will not be able to come to the island to look for cargo.

Dr. CARROLL. As a matter of fact, how do you ship your exports of coffee?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. There are several lines of steamers. There is a German line, and there is also a French line, of which our firm are agents here in Porto Rico. But these steamers won't be able to come to Porto Rico if these duties continue. This port charge is new. Formerly vessels arriving at any port in Porto Rico paid \$1 a ton on the cargo discharged.

Dr. CARROLL. Was that too heavy a charge, in your judgment?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. That was not complained of. If a vessel discharged, say, 100 tons, the charge would be \$100, but the steamship companies generally protected themselves by laying that duty on the importer of the goods. Consequently the vessel did not really pay that duty. For instance, a French vessel seldom brings more than 50 tons for Porto Rico. That would mean \$50 distributed among all the importers. But if a vessel of that kind had to pay 20 cents on its net tonnage—which is usually about 3,000 tons—the charge would be excessive. This 20-cent charge is new and is in substitution of the \$1 charge on cargo discharged.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it your opinion that there should be free trade between Porto Rico and the United States?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. Yes, absolutely free. I am an Englishman and am in favor of free trade altogether.

Dr. CARROLL. You believe that on principle; but aside from that do you regard it as proper and desirable that there should be no imposts on exports or imports between the United States and its own possessions? You are aware that Canada levies a duty on goods received from England.

Mr. WAYMOUTH. That is the Canadian idea. They do it in order that they may develop their industries side by side with the United States.

CHANGES DESIRED.

Statement by Señor MIGUEL L. ARSUAGA, of the firm of Sobrinos de Esquiga, San Juan.

The customs tariff and regulations for ports in Porto Rico, issued by order of the United States, contains this regulation:

Trade between ports of the United States and all ports or places in Porto Rico in control of the United States, and trade between ports and places in Porto Rico in control of the United States, shall be carried on in registered vessels of the United States and in no others.

For every passenger transported and landed in violation of this regulation the transporting vessel shall be subject to a penalty of \$800.

By the Spanish regulations all foreign vessels might take passengers to all ports of the island, as in some periods few steamers pass

by, and when rainy weather comes on the roads become almost impassable, making traveling over land very difficult and troublesome. For this reason facilities for travel by sea are important.

ENTRANCE AND CLEARANCE OF VESSELS.

Should any packages or articles named on the manifest be missing on the arrival of the vessel, the latter shall pay a penalty of \$1 per ton measurement, unless such deficiency shall be satisfactorily explained or accounted for.

It is rather strange that a big vessel should pay more penalty than a small one for the same fault. I think it ought to be even. A large ship may get more freight than a small one, but the proportion of missing goods is larger. There is the same question about the delivery of the manifests twenty-four hours after the arrival of the vessel.

TONNAGE DUES.

On each entry of a vessel from a port or place, except from another port or place in Porto Rico in possession of the United States, 20 cents per net ton.

On each entry of a vessel from another port or place in Porto Rico in possession of the United States, 2 cents.

Under this tariff all vessels have to pay according to their net registries, whether they bring much or little cargo. Formerly this charge was more reasonable. Then we paid \$1 on each ton of merchandise imported or exported, but now we have to pay generally or always more than what it should be, for vessels never discharge here half a cargo nor take half a load.

Besides, most of the steamers, or nearly all of them, with cargo for the island of Porto Rico call first at San Juan. Therefore we have to pay always 20 cents, and only 2 cents at the other ports. This is not equitable. We would be the losers if these regulations were carried out for any length of time.

Also some vessels come here in ballast for orders, they being cleared in like manner for another place in the island. However, they have to pay half of the said tariff, though they would have had nothing to pay under the old "landing charges."

CUSTOMS TARIFF.

This tariff is rather high in general, especially for a good many articles which we were accustomed to receive at a very low rate of duties, viz, 10 per cent for goods coming from Spain. This sudden and extensive change will affect very much the prices of the articles in the market and necessarily the consumers. A good many of them can not stand it very well, especially the poorer classes, and some of those a little better off. Most of the articles are necessary articles here, such as Spanish rice, onions, garlic, olive oil, beans and pease (garbanzos), potatoes, chestnuts, nuts and filberts, fruits, water-melons, grapes, raisins, wines, cider, dry goods, hardware, etc., and no doubt a reduction of the tariff by 50 per cent would have a very good effect on general trade and the people in the island. Otherwise they will suffer very severe consequences, for commerce is light and living will be high if goods must be sold at enormous prices. If we have to pay these high duties, workmen will require more wages. Consequently, it will make everything higher, contrary to the interest of all concerned. Most of the articles imported here can not stand an increase in price, for few people can pay more; and our exports are

so burdened with charges and meet so much competition in the markets that they can not bear any more expenses of production. I refer to sugar, coffee, tobacco, molasses, etc. On the contrary, it is recommended that charges on the same be reduced, so that we may compete favorably in the produce markets abroad, instead of obtaining very small profits or even suffering losses on most of the articles exported for consumption in America and Europe.

TAXES COLLECTED BY THE CUSTOMS ADMINISTRATION.

CONSUMPTION TAX ON BEVERAGES.

The consumption tax on beverages has been increased so much now that hardly anybody can take a drop of any liquid, especially of common wines, red or white, to which drink our people have been accustomed at meal times, however small the quantity. In future they will be deprived of these drinks. Beer is high, so also are other liquors, such as gin and hollands, cognac, brandy, etc.

Formerly the Spanish wines paid 10 per cent of the current duties, and the consumption tax on Spanish beverages was smaller than now; consequently selling prices were low and equitable. As a rule there is no excess committed in drinking in this island by any class of people.

Export tariff for the island of Porto Rico.

Coffee.....	per 100 kilograms...	\$1. 00
Wood.....	do.....	. 15
Tobacco.....	do.....	. 22

These articles and sugar are the principal productions of the colony, besides molasses, rum, etc., and though their exporting dues are not heavy, still it would be convenient to reduce them as much as possible or make them free, so that their exportation may be increased considerably, with great benefit to our agriculturists, tradesmen, etc.

MANUFACTORIES.

Besides the sugar, coffee, rum, and tobacco works, we have in the island some match factories, ice, electric-light, and gas works, etc. Also we have an oil refinery, which was built in 1890 and was very much helped by the Spanish tariff as an important industry in the country, the same as the match works, for it employs many workmen. All the materials of this oil refinery have been imported from the United States of America, also the engineers for erecting same, besides the coal required every year—about 1,000 tons—all the crude oil, acids, all necessary things for running the refinery, and thus giving employment to American vessels. In landing and taking to the refinery some benefit is afforded to lighters and lighter men. Labor is also required to ship the refined oil to the different ports of the island. Therefore it would be well to pay particular attention to the welfare of all these industries on which so many people live.

This oil refinery is called the "West India Oil Refining Company" and belongs to the "Standard Oil Company," of New York City, where all the capital invested is American. Consequently we hope it may continue working under tariff protection as heretofore, viz, fourteen-fifteenths of a cent (gold) per gallon on crude oil less than on refined oil.

In case the refinery should be obliged to close for want of tariff protection very few refined-oil importing houses would be benefited by it, and for each person benefited fifty would be the losers.

Formerly the prices of oil were higher, but owing to the erection of the refinery they went down, the consumers getting the benefit. It is very important to keep up the refinery.

PORTO RICO PRODUCE EXPORTS.

SUGAR.

It is a very important question for our agriculturists that sugar, molasses, and rum should be admitted free of duties in the United States, for the prices obtained for these articles for some years past have been so poor, after deducting the dues, freight, and charges, that very little or no margin is left for the producer. Any help in this way would be very much appreciated by all parties concerned.

COFFEE.

The prospects of our coffee going to the States are poor, on account of competition with the Brazilian grades, which are much inferior to and cheaper than ours; therefore it is desirable to have some protection for our article in the United States against other foreign coffees.

Porto Rico has been in the habit of supplying the Cuban markets with various kinds of coffee, but especially with the common or inferior qualities, and now we hear from Havana that they will be unable to buy our low grades if prices are not lowered a great deal; otherwise they will import from the United States and Mexico.

Our molasses goes to the United States and Canada, but prices obtained are not so good as they ought to be, considering the cost of production and charges. The reduction of duty is solicited as a good measure for this country.

Some bay rum is exported to the United States and other countries.

RUM.

No white rum is exported to the United States. If customs dues over there were not so high, it would be a good thing to make some shipments, as it is produced in fair quantities, but nothing profitable can be done under the present tariff. Most of the good grades of molasses are exported from this island and the balance is kept here for rum-making purposes, for the consumption of the colony.

TOBACCO.

The production of tobacco is an important industry. The leaf has been exported until now to Spain, Cuba, and Germany. For the future it is necessary to secure some good markets in order to avoid a heavy loss to this territory.

MAIZE.

We produce, too, a fair quantity of corn, which is sent to Cuba, the balance being used here for horses and mules. There are also some other productions in the island of less importance.

COASTING VESSELS.

It would be well, we think, to change the registry of coasting vessels and schooners from the Spanish to the American flag quite free,

without having to pay any customs duty for this change, as this island has become an American possession. For such an allowance by the Government at Washington small shipowners here would be exceedingly obliged.

SPANISH TARIFF NOT BASED ON SOUND ECONOMIC PRINCIPLES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., November 4, 1898.

Mr. MANUEL FERNANDEZ JUNCOS, a resident of the island forty years:

Dr. CARROLL. Have you any suggestions to offer regarding the tariff?

Mr. JUNCOS. It is very necessary to institute a new customs tariff. The present one does not follow any economic or scientific rule whatever. It puts a heavy duty on articles of food of the kind most required for the island's consumption and on the drugs most necessary in this island for the preservation of health. For example, the sulphate of quinine—without which 20 per cent of foreigners would die in this country before a great while, and many of us also, it being the principal medicine here—is subject to a duty of \$12 per kilo, and other useful medicines pay duty in proportion. A larger duty is levied on maps and educational appliances than on playing cards, which are instruments of vice. This tariff, it is fair to say, is our old tariff, which has been adopted by the new government.

I think that articles of everyday consumption should be placed at a much lower rate than they are at present, and articles of luxury should have a correspondingly heavy rate of duty. Under the Spanish tariff silk and diamonds paid a very heavy duty, but for seven years not a cent has been collected under these heads; every piece has been imported contraband. This also shows the unscientific provisions of the tariff. If the duty had been made reasonably low, people would not have been tempted to smuggle those articles, and their importation would have brought into the custom-house a substantial sum of money each year.

SPANISH TARIFF DUTIES EXCESSIVE.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., October 31, 1898.

Mr. ANDRES CROSAS, an American citizen, for many years engaged in business in Porto Rico:

Dr. CARROLL. Have you any fault to find with the present tariff and the new port charges?

Mr. CROSAS. Yes. We are as bad off as in the time of the Spaniards or worse, though I am positive that the Government of the United States will eventually fix the matter right. I have not lost hope. The Government is situated like a man who has moved into a new house. It always takes a couple of months before everything can be put in order.

In the matter of dry goods, for instance, all of it that came here from Spain paid little or no duty; the rest came from England and

France. When I was a boy I commenced life here as a clerk. I used to import American shoes here, and I was making money. When they found it out they put a high duty on American shoes.

You can not beat a Spaniard in some things. He won't invent for you a telegraph or a sewing machine or an electric battery; but a Spaniard will beat anybody inventing red tape to serve him in the accomplishment of some end. Spaniards have a great deal of diplomacy. When they really want to do a thing they will go over the Rocky Mountains to do it, and when they don't want to do it a little straw will stop their progress.

Dr. CARROLL. It has been suggested to me that about a 50 per cent reduction of the tariff would be a wise thing as a present measure of relief.

Mr. CROSAS. I think it would be.

Dr. CARROLL. General Brooke said he thought such a reduction might greatly reduce the revenues; but would it not increase the amount imported?

Mr. CROSAS. It would greatly increase the imports, and so make up the deficiency, and at the same time be a benefit to American manufacturers. I think, if we are admitted as a Territory, everything from the United States should be admitted here as domestic goods. That is another thing I happened to hear about that I want to mention to you. It appears that Nova Scotia has proposed to the United States to allow American vessels to fish and bait in Nova Scotia waters if the United States will allow the free introduction of her fish in Porto Rico. Well, allow me to inform you that the best market for codfish is the island of Porto Rico, and the people of Nova Scotia don't want to lose it. I can not but think it would be well to collect a small duty on Nova Scotia codfish, mackerel, and hake.

FAVORABLE TARIFF ON IMPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES.

STATEMENT OF SEÑOR ALRIZU, OF PONCE, P. R.

The tariff on imports from the United States should be 25 per cent of that levied on foreign imports. This measure is necessary in order to provide cheap food for our laboring classes.

The best producing lands of the island are taken by sugar and coffee plantations, thus leaving the poor lands to raise corn and vegetables for home consumption. Until the country gets roads to the interior, which will afford means of transporting cheaply articles of food produced there to the coast cities, the laboring classes must depend on imports for their food supply. Therefore the reduction recommended is a just and politic measure.

A WORKINGMAN'S OPINION ON THE TARIFF.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 4, 1898.*

Mr. SANTIAGO IGLESIAS. I think the Government should impose heavy duties on all luxuries, such as wines, and everything conducive to pleasure and vice, by way of recompense for low duties on food products imported for the benefit of the working classes.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you include tobacco among the articles of luxury?

Mr. IGLESIAS. Yes. I think the Government should impose protective duties on all manufactured articles so as to protect the embryonic industries which exist here at present for at least a certain term of years. After these industries are in shape to look after themselves they could enter into competition with other markets. I think, regarding custom-house matters, that the Government should allow the introduction of food stuffs at a very small duty to lower prices for the laboring man.

MEASURES PROPOSED.

STATEMENT OF MERCHANTS AND BANKERS OF MAYAGUEZ.

To abolish all export duties levied now on coffee and other products of the island. (This refers especially to coffee, because the coffee planters will not be favored by the high duties existing in the United States on foreign sugar and tobacco; also, the only markets for the lower classes of our coffee, Spain and Cuba, are probably lost forever, and any measures taken to support the coffee planters would certainly be highly appreciated.) To allow the manufacturers themselves to import their raw materials. (Under the Spanish law nobody could import unless he paid taxes to this effect, and the petition is made that all manufacturers shall be allowed to introduce raw materials, even if they are not licensed as importers.)

The foregoing proposals represent the views of 32 firms of Mayaguez, comprising all the large firms and most of the smaller ones.

LOWER DUTIES ON FOODSTUFFS.

STATEMENT OF ENRIQUE DELGADO, SAN JUAN.

The tariff should receive careful study. It must be remembered that the custom-house still produces a large income here; but as the budget will be greatly reduced, the tariff should be made to correspond so as not to burden the country uselessly. So as to cheapen living for the working classes, such articles as flour, lard, bacon, cod-fish, and others should receive all the reduction possible. Spanish products, such as are not produced in the United States, should also have consideration, as this would not prejudice commerce in the Union, and large quantities of Spanish goods are consumed here. Wines should not pay so heavy a duty as imposed under the provisional tariff, which imposes a heavy consumo duty as well as a duty of import. The consumo duty should be abolished and a duty imposed which would leave a margin of protection for the wines of the United States. Export duties, which bear ultimately on agriculturists, who are in need of help, should be totally abolished. On modifying the tariff to meet requirements of the budget it may be necessary to impose some duty on articles of prime necessity, in which case products of Porto Rico should be allowed free entry into the United States; or, if that is impossible, then sugar and tobacco should be favored as much as possible and other produce and products of the island allowed free entry.

The tonnage due of 20 cents on other than American ships is too high, especially as there is a lack of bottoms, and foreign ships can

not carry freight or passengers from here to the States or Cuba. If there were sufficient American shipping this tax would be natural and logical, but as it is it is only a hindrance to commerce, which is free in all countries, and especially in the American Union.

Attention should also be given to the heavy licenses under which merchants are suffering, which should be abolished. No other taxes should be imposed in the island but custom-house duties and taxes on urban and rural property.

THE TARIFF REVISED.

The Porto Rican tariff was revised by the Hon. Robert P. Porter, special commissioner to Cuba and Porto Rico, in accordance with the preceding recommendations, and promulgated by an Executive order issued January 20, 1899. Mr. Porter stated in his report accompanying the revision that the new rates were framed on a revenue-yielding basis of 15 per cent ad valorem, although it must not be inferred that all the schedules were uniformly 15 per cent.

SPECIAL REPORT OF THE COMMISSIONER ON THE NEW TARIFF.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *February 17, 1899.*

THE SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY.

SIR: The reduced rates of the new tariff, Class XII, comprising food stuffs, are recognized as of great benefit to the poor people. Rice and flour, two indispensable articles on every table, now pay low duties compared with those levied heretofore. Rice, on the gold basis at the rate of \$2 to \$1, paid \$1.85; it now pays 60 cents, a reduction of about 68 per cent. The old rate on flour, in gold, was \$2; it is now \$1, a decrease of 50 per cent. Pork comes in at upward of 40 per cent less; cheese at 60 per cent less; beans and pease at 56 per cent less; lard at about 25 per cent less. On the other hand, hams are increased from \$1.85 to \$3.50; bacon from \$2.25 to \$2.40, and butter from \$3.37 to \$4.20. The increase in building materials is a disappointment. It was hoped that a reduction would be made in these articles in order that the building of good houses might be stimulated. Cement, which is a very necessary article here, pays 60 cents now where it paid 25 cents. Galvanized iron pays 20 cents more; cast iron, in ordinary manufactures, 65 cents more, and other building materials have been slightly advanced, considering the change in the money rates. The removal of the duty of 55 centavos on native crude oil, and the increased duty on the refined oil from \$1.55 to \$4, calls forth some comment. It is believed, however, that the prices of oil will not be advanced. On the contrary, the agency of the oil refinery here has issued a circular announcing a reduction in price of oil from 1 to 17 centavos on 8-gallon, of from 10 to 18 on 9-gallon, and of from 20 to 40 on 10-gallon packages, according to quality. It is said that the oil refined here is not as good as that imported. The reduction in cotton goods is especially welcome. The great majority of the people wear cotton fabrics of a cheap class, and the decrease in price will be a boon. Woolen and silk goods will probably come more freely into use as the result of the cutting down of duties on them.

Following is a translation of some observations in a mercantile bulletin, prepared by one of the leading importing houses here, on the new tariff:

Business is not moving with the rapidity desirable, and we do not think there will be any real improvement until military government ceases and until a civil administration shall give a stable government and the legislation so necessary to inspire capital with confidence. The solution given to the money question, although incomplete, improves the situation as tending to introduce the gold standard in private transactions, already existing in State transactions, and helping to give stability to exchange.

The new tariff reducing, considering the duties on articles of prime necessity, betters the conditions of the poorer classes, who form the majority of our population, and the cheapening augments the consumption, thus increasing the volume of business.

The suppression of export duties is another of the improvements of the new tariff whose benefit requires no demonstration, and will relieve somewhat the losses suffered by the low price of coffee and the want of markets for our tobacco.

The maritime traffic in our ports has increased somewhat lately, owing mainly to the number of transports which enter and leave with troops and effects for the Government more than to merchant shipping, the amount of which has been reduced.

We miss very much by the consumption of goods by the troops and civil employees under the last Government. These are now supplied by the United States and pay no duty whatever, establishing an improper competition with merchants to their prejudice. For this reason the market is fully stocked.

HENRY K. CARROLL,
Commissioner.

FURTHER REVISION DESIRED.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

PONCE, P. R., *March 2, 1899.*

Mr. DORIA (mayor). I have a lumber yard and wood-working factory. I am very much astonished to see that free entry has not been granted in the new tariff for machinery coming from the United States.

Dr. CARROLL. It was not asked that agricultural machinery be free. We reduced it a great deal. We did not make it free, but we made agricultural implements free.

Mr. DORIA. Yes; but it is necessary that all kinds of machines should be free.

Dr. CARROLL. The duty on them has been reduced a good deal.

Mr. DORIA. This country especially needs to build up its industries.

Dr. CARROLL. The revision of the tariff was with that object particularly in view, and also to favor the poor classes with cheaper food stuffs and cheaper cotton goods, and of course we have had regard to the necessity of income from customs, so as not to cut off too much. We cut off the consumption tax; we cut off the export tax, the cargo tax, and we reduced the duty on food stuffs and on most of the necessities of life; but we had to retain a tax on machinery and other things, enough for the necessary revenue.

Mr. DORIA. In my opinion—and I don't wish to criticise the persons who drew up the tariff—the best way to assist the poor is to allow factories to spring up, as they give employment to a large number of people.

Dr. CARROLL. There is no question about that.

Mr. DORIA. I have been studying the tariff, and I think some items might have been retained; but on machinery the duty could have been cut off. Some items pay more than they did before; for instance, cement, which is indispensable.

Dr. CARROLL. I made representation about cement. It was not according to my recommendation that it was increased, but we found various conflicting interests to consider. For instance, the carriage makers wanted everything going into the construction of carriages brought in free, and at the same time they wanted the old duties on carriages increased, although the duty on berlins was \$350. If we had done what they asked we would have given enormous advantage to the carriage makers at the expense of the people. These things must be held in equilibrium.

Mr. DORIA. That is not protection. Protection means protecting the whole people.

Dr. CARROLL. The shoemakers and the carriage makers wanted us to let in leather free of duty and levy an embargo on the exportation of hides. You see they did not care anything about the interests of the tanners. So we had to decide between those conflicting interests.

Mr. DORIA. I have a shop in which there is considerable machinery, costing a great deal of money; and while it would not be an advantage to me to have machinery brought in free, I nevertheless would like to see it brought in free to enable people to start industries.

TARIFF.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

PONCE, P. R., *March 7, 1899.*

Mr. FELICI. There is a question in regard to the surcharges in the tariff that I want to speak of. I refer to paragraphs 117 to 174. Under the old tariff white cloths or calicoes or muslins or, in fact, any textile fabric was charged by weight, with a surcharge for print of colors and for manufactured articles made from these textiles. Under the new tariff these goods are paying an ad valorem duty, and the value taken for the basis of imposing duty would include the matter of printed, colored, or manufactured textiles; the surcharge really is a double charge and is not, therefore, proper.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they so rule in the custom-house on importations of that kind, as a matter of fact?

Mr. FELICI. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Then you pay more for printed muslins than you did before?

Mr. FELICI. The actual amount is less; but we pay a double surcharge and too much in proportion for the printed textiles. I think that in the condition in which the country now is the duty on flour should be removed altogether—on that one article only.

Dr. CARROLL. The price of bread has come down immensely; it is down to 4 cents in some parts of the islands where formerly it was 8 and 9 cents.

THE MONEY QUESTION.

PRELIMINARY REPORT OF THE COMMISSIONER.

In submitting the accompanying papers and interviews, I must explain that they were gathered upon a somewhat brief visit to Porto Rico, during which several other very important subjects were investigated. All classes are represented.

The metallic money now in circulation, according to the estimate of the Spanish Bank of Porto Rico, consists of about \$6,000,000. When the exchange of Mexicans for the colonial peso was made in 1895 the amount paid out was:

In pesos	\$5,561,000
In fractional silver	1,015,000
In copper coins	70,000
Total	6,646,000

It is estimated that upward of \$600,000 in coin was taken to Spain by Spanish soldiers when they left the island, the Government at Madrid promising to receive these pesos at par.

The fractional silver consists of 40, 20, 10, and 5 centavo pieces; the copper coins of 1 and 2 cent pieces.

The volume of paper money in use it is difficult to ascertain. Formerly the Spanish Bank of Porto Rico, which has a monopoly in the issuing of notes, had between \$2,500,000 and \$3,000,000 in circulation. But it is stated that recently the greater part of this has been retired. If \$1,500,000 be taken as representing this form of currency, we have a total of \$7,546,000 of native money in the island. It is impossible to say how much American currency is in circulation. It is intimated that the old dies for the pesos and 40-centavo pieces have been brought into use, and that new coins of these denominations are being manufactured and introduced as money. Evidently such a business would be profitable at the present price of silver bullion, with the peso bringing about 60 cents American.

The manner of exchanging the Mexican for the provincial system in 1895 was this: The Government fixed upon a date in December when it would receive at various convenient places in the island the Mexican dollars. The exchange was made by means of a "billete de canje," or exchange note, provided by the colonial minister of Madrid. To these notes were attached coupons. Each note and coupon bore the same number. As many of the notes were given out as Mexican dollars were offered, the coupons being retained. When these notes were presented they were paid with the new colonial pesos. A series (in my possession) of these notes, with coupons attached, showing that they were never used, are variously numbered from 4,729,378 to 4,729,514. Evidently considerably less than five millions of these notes were required. So little did the Government know of the amount of money in circulation in the island in 1895 that it was supposed that some \$20,000,000 or \$25,000,000 of new coins would be required to make the exchange.

Opinions on the currency question in Porto Rico are naturally divided into two classes, those favoring a high valuation of the peso and those favoring a low valuation. Those who have considerable amounts of cash or of credits feel it to be a matter of simple justice that the rate of exchange should not be fixed at a figure which would rob them of their capital and at the same time reduce the volume of money in circulation below the needs of the island. The managers of the Spanish Bank of Porto Rico, the only bank in the island permitted to issue paper money, asks for a high valuation for the peso, holding that an American dollar is worth only 33½ per cent premium over native money, and that the peso should be valued at 75 cents.

The Territorial and Agricultural Bank of Porto Rico, which loans money on mortgages by issuing bonds, mainly to agriculturists, agrees to this rate. As the peso is not redeemable in gold and is a

legal tender only in Porto Rico, and is therefore worth ultimately only its value as silver bullion, which is at present less than 40 cents, this proposition fixes its commercial rating at nearly twice its intrinsic value, and fixes it higher, too, than the average rate of exchange for the seven years ending with 1897. The average for those years, according to the table given by the bank, was 45.45. This period, it should be noticed, included three years when the exchange was very low, at a lower point than it has touched since. In 1895, the last year of the Mexican dollars, the average rate had risen from a little more than 21 in 1891 to nearly 68. Moreover, the colonial peso is of less weight and fineness than the Mexican peso, which it superseded. It would seem, therefore, that 75 cents is an extreme value to place on the colonial money, even with the prospect of an early fall in exchange, which is confidently predicted by some of the bankers.

It will be observed that the bankers, merchants, and agriculturists of Ponce and Mayaguez, large and prosperous cities on the south and west coast, have agreed with substantial unanimity on \$1.50 for \$1 American as an equitable rate. They unquestionably represent extensive money and business interests, though the capital is the financial center of the island. They propose that the peso shall be received for retirement at the value of 66½ cents American.

The borrowers, among whom the agriculturists must be considered as the chief class, ask for a low valuation of the peso for various reasons. The money they have borrowed has cost them dearly. The rate of interest has been high, ranging from 9 up to 24 per cent, and in many cases they have not really seen the money, but got the values in machinery, stores, and credits on debts. Those who borrowed of the Agricultural Bank got bonds, or cedulas, which brought from 80 to 90 per cent of their face value. The way of the borrower has been hard, unquestionably, particularly in the past two or three years. If, for example, he borrowed to pay for purchases made abroad, he not only paid a high rate of interest and had to submit to a discount of 10 per cent or more to get cash on his cedulas, but he had to pay a high rate for exchange. United States Consul Hanna refers to an instance where, in June last, when exchange rates were phenomenally high, owing to the war, a planter borrowed 10,000 pesos to save his estate. He agreed to pay 12 per cent interest on the mortgage, which is to run for five years. Mr. Hanna says that, according to the rate of exchange at that time, he only received in value from the bank about \$4,000. This is true, undoubtedly, if he was compelled to buy exchange; but if he used the sum to pay debts or make purchases in the island there could have been no such large percentage of loss, for insular prices were not increased to any very great extent during the brief war. If the money was used to pay debts, it was as valuable as it would have been in the previous year, when exchange was considerably less than half as high. If the money was used to pay for purchases abroad, the transaction was a ruinous one and must be set down as one of the hardships which war imposes upon a people the ultimate value of whose silver currency in the markets of the world is the price it will bring as bullion. The commercial value of the peso in the business affairs of the island has, it is claimed, been reasonably stable.

Those who ask that the peso be allowed a value of only 50 cents emphasize the disadvantages under which the borrower labors as an argument in support of their proposition. This disadvantage is due in part to the small volume of money, in part to the extremely limited

banking facilities, and doubtless, also, in some degree, to the risks which lenders assume in accommodating agriculturists. It would be hardly fair to charge all these disadvantages to the lending class. The colonial money has an ascertainable value apart from these considerations. If, for example, a banker lends to-day 10,000 pesos, no matter what rate of interest he bargains for, is he not entitled to have the 10,000 pesos back when the mortgage falls due? Suppose this sum to have been lent in 1896. The average rate then was \$1.56½ to \$1. Make it \$2 to \$1 now, and you take away from the lender \$1,410. It can not be right to rob, under process of law, by way of correcting abuses in private transactions. It is undoubtedly true that it would be unjust to compel those who have borrowed cheap pesos to pay in dear dollars, but it would also be an injustice to compel lenders to submit to the scaling-down process. The money of Porto Rico was worth to Porto Ricans in 1896 or 1897, or any other year, just what it would bring. On the one hand, the annual average of the peso never rose to \$1 American; on the other, it never fell to 50 cents. It will not be possible to find any rate which will not do more or less injustice to individuals, but an average can be reached which will do substantial justice to all classes.

The following table shows the equivalent values in Porto Rican and American money of the various rates proposed:

Porto Rican pesos for \$1 American.	Premium.	Equivalent of 1 Porto Rican peso in American money.
	<i>Per cent.</i>	
2	100	\$0.50
1½	75	.57
1½	66½	.60
1½	50	.66½
1½	33½	.75
1½	25	.80
1		1.00

The effect of the several rates proposed on the volume of circulation is indicated by this table, on the assumption that the amount of coin is \$6,000,000:

Ratio.		Percentage of reduction.	Volume of money.	Loss in volume of money.
Porto Rican.	American.			
\$2.00	\$1.00	50	\$3,000,000	\$3,000,000
1.75	1.00	43	3,420,000	2,580,000
1.66½	1.00	40	3,600,000	2,400,000
1.50	1.00	33½	4,000,000	2,000,000
1.33½	1.00	25	4,500,000	1,500,000
1.25	1.00	20	4,800,000	1,200,000
1.00	1.00		6,000,000	

The need of banking facilities, so as to bring borrowers in various parts of the island into closer connection with the lenders, is a manifest necessity. Capital is concentrated in San Juan, where the only two banks in Porto Rico engaged in regular banking business are established, and most of those who would borrow must make their way thither. If a system of banks similar to those which exist in all

parts of the United States could be introduced in the leading cities and towns of Porto Rico, facilities for getting money would be afforded to those compelled to borrow, the number of lenders would be increased, business transactions would be made easier, and money could be moved when and where it is needed with the least possible difficulty and delay. The use of drafts and checks and other forms of financial paper would also lessen the inconveniences of the limited volume of money in circulation.

Respectfully submitted.

HENRY K. CARROLL,
Commissioner.

WASHINGTON, *December 25, 1898.*

THE CURRENCY OF PORTO RICO.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 26, 1898.*

Mr. T. G. J. WAYMOUTH, of banking house of J. T. Silva & Co., San Juan:

Dr. CARROLL. Will you please state as clearly and succinctly as possible the condition of the currency question with special reference to the inconvenience and inconsistency of the two standards which at present exist in Porto Rico?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. Well, I think at present, owing to the introduction of American specie into this country, the state of affairs in the respect you mention is bewildering.

Dr. CARROLL. By specie do you mean gold?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. I mean all the American currency which has been imported and is continuing to be imported by American visitors to the country. Former conditions were bad enough, but we could then always calculate our exchange by the business that was done in the island and the competition between the bankers; but now every visitor is a banker, and if he can not sell his money at one price he sells it at another, and inasmuch as they are selling specie in some places at the rate of \$1, American currency, for \$1.75, Porto Rican currency, and in other places in the island \$1, American currency, for \$1.60 or even \$1.50, Porto Rican currency, it is impossible to calculate any exchange.

Dr. CARROLL. The rates of exchange vary from day to day, do they not?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. Yes; and the change is against the American money.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the cause of this change, in your opinion?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. I think it is caused by the fact that everywhere throughout the island Americans are offering their gold and other American currency in exchange for money of the country, so that the rate of exchange is falling.

Dr. CARROLL. What will be the outcome of this condition in money matters if it is continued for some time without remedial legislation? Will it drive the United States currency out of the market, on the principle that where two kinds of money circulate side by side the cheaper will prevail and the more valuable be driven out of circulation?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. I think the general result will be that the better money will exclude the worse money. There is no doubt about it.

Dr. CARROLL. But it is an axiom of financiers in the United States that where two moneys are in circulation, of different values, the poorer money will obtain the market, on the principle that the money of greater value will be hoarded or go out of the country, while people who have debts to pay will pay in the cheaper money.

Mr. WAYMOUTH. That is true; but the conditions are peculiar here. This is an island. Americans are coming here and bringing their money with them, so that the amount of American money in the island is increasing constantly. The Porto Rican currency—it must be taken into account—can not be driven out of the island, for the reason that it does not circulate anywhere else, unless it is given circulation in the United States or in Spain. If given circulation in the United States it will be remitted there, doubtless.

Dr. CARROLL. I will ask you if, in your opinion, it would not be well to have United States currency substituted for Porto Rican currency? You will be brought into closer relations with the United States in trade and otherwise, and would it not be convenient to have one medium of exchange only?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. I think so, decidedly.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you believe that your trade relations and financial relations with Spain will be less and less important as time goes on?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. Yes; I think so.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think that your merchants will be likely to import more and more from the United States?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. I think the United States will eventually be our only market for imports. There is no doubt about it. Everything will come from the United States except cloth, perhaps, and some kinds of dry goods, which will continue to be imported from England; except also ribbons and haberdashery, which will likely be imported from France. But the majority of articles for wear and food stuffs will all come from the United States.

Dr. CARROLL. The customs of your people here, the Porto Ricans, are pretty well fixed and have been for centuries. Will they take kindly to a different kind of goods coming from the United States or will it rather be the province of the merchants and manufacturers of the United States to produce the kind of goods that are used here?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. The law of fashion, as you know, has a great deal to do with that. Americans come here and wear certain kinds of goods. That will set the style and everybody will want the same kinds of goods in order to conform to the fashion. It is not the merchant who puts the goods on the market; it is the people who determine what he will have for sale. When I first came to Porto Rico, years ago, I could not get a pair of boots here, and there were no hats used by the ladies. Instead of hats the ladies had only what are called mantillas; but in course of time hats were introduced in the island, and that rule of change in styles holds good in everything.

Dr. CARROLL. Will you kindly describe the kinds and denominations of money you have?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. In Ponce they use a considerable amount of paper money of the Caja de Ahorros (savings bank). They are not exactly notes; they are in the nature of bills payable at a certain date, with coupons paying interest, but they are received the same as notes by merchants and others. They do not circulate in other parts of the island, however, and are unknown except in Ponce. In the interior of the island only silver and some copper are in circulation. The silver is in the form of pesos, 40-cent pieces, 20-cent pieces, 10-cent pieces,

and 5-cent pieces, and the copper is in the form of 2-cent pieces and 1-cent pieces.

I should explain that the bank here is not the same institution as the Bank of Spain in Madrid, but a different institution entirely. The Spanish Bank here has two branches, one in Mayaguez and one in Ponce.

Dr. CARROLL. I have been informed that paper money circulates only here in San Juan and in places where the Spanish Bank has established branches. Is that the case?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. No; paper money circulates, I think, all over the island, but it is not a legal tender. It is only good where a person is willing to receive it in payment.

Dr. CARROLL. On what basis is that paper issued by the bank—on its assets, on its silver, or what?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. They have \$2,500,000 in paper in circulation. They redeem that with silver. I think that their calculation is that they have in cash and bills payable (at not more than one hundred and twenty days) an amount equal to the deposits and to the bills in circulation. I will get for you a copy of the balance sheet issued by the bank on October 1, which, as I recall, shows substantially the condition of its finances respecting its paper money as I have stated it.

Dr. CARROLL. Suppose a merchant here had an account of \$500, for example, to settle with a merchant in Aibonito, would he send bank notes by post or would he ship the amount in silver?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. He would not do either. This capital is generally the bank of the whole island. People prefer, even in Ponce and Mayaguez, to have their money in San Juan, and the bulk of the large transactions is carried on by drafts at short sight, usually from three to fifteen days. The coffee and tobacco crops of the island are large and worth a great deal of money, and when the season comes on for the movement of these crops kegs of specie, each containing about \$5,000, are sent to different parts of the island where needed for that purpose.

Dr. CARROLL. How is it shipped—by express?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. No; we ship it by steamer in kegs, and there is considerable money moved in that way. Formerly—that is, up to 1895—we had Mexican silver, and it was the currency of Porto Rico. There were many different opinions prevailing here as to what was then necessary to be done, everybody asking to have that money redeemed. They tried to change the Mexican money into gold, and my idea was that Spain would never give us a gold dollar for the Mexican dollar, as she would lose about 50 per cent at that time, and she was not in a condition to lose that amount on this island. My idea was to raise the exchange to the par value of the Mexican money, which would have been sufficient to reduce the Mexican money to the value of gold, because you could not induce these people to pay out a dollar for 50 cents. If in reality my pound sterling is worth in London ten of the Mexican dollars, I would not be willing to sell it here for seven of them. Consequently, if the exchange were raised to the par value of the Mexican dollar, an equilibrium would have been established.

Dr. CARROLL. The ideal system, then, would be the system we have in the United States, all money resting on a gold basis, which would result in bringing this market into close relations with all the gold countries of the world.

Mr. WAYMOUTH. That is my idea about it.

Dr. CARROLL. The great problem here is how to change the Porto Rican system to the basis of the United States so as to do justice as nearly as possible to both debtors and creditors.

Mr. WAYMOUTH. Well, I think the best way is to take the middle course; that is, to take the figure in between the extremes of 2 for 1 and the least figure proposed. That would be about 1½ for 1. That is what the people in the southern part of the island seem to desire.

Dr. CARROLL. If that figure were decided upon, what act or order could accomplish that purpose with the least difficulty? It is evident that the order which has been given to the collectors of customs does not settle the matter, and the process of introducing money of the United States through visitors is going to be slow and will add to the confusion as the rate of exchange rises and falls.

Mr. WAYMOUTH. I will state how the Spanish Government accomplished the change. When they retired the Mexican money, they sent out a remittance of these dollars and named commissions all over the island who were directed to make the exchange, commencing at a certain day, 1 for 1; that is, to collect the Mexican and pay out the provincial. Spain made a great deal by that operation. She gave us an inferior money and deducted 5 per cent. We lost about 15 per cent of the purchasing value of the island's money.

Dr. CARROLL. Should the loss incident to the change be borne by the United States or in some way by the island? It would hardly be a matter of justice for the United States to have to bear it.

Mr. WAYMOUTH. Well, I don't think the loss would be great, because the amount of specie in the island is not very much. It was 6,000,000 pesos, but much has been taken away by the Spanish troops, and I don't believe there is more than \$5,000,000 of silver (Porto Rican currency) here now.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there much gold here?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. Very little. The little gold that is here consists mainly of Spanish five-dollar pieces, but there is very little of that.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it be wise for the United States in converting money to receive the pesos and subsidiary coin and stamp them so as to correspond to the dollar and subsidiary coin of the United States?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. No; I don't think it should be stamped. It should be taken to the United States and deposited in the Treasury, and silver certificates given just the same as if it came from California. I think that would be the best way. After all, there is not a great difference between the Porto Rican and American dollars.

Dr. CARROLL. But the American dollar rests upon the gold basis, which makes a great difference. Suppose we received your silver at its intrinsic value and issued our money on that basis, would that be satisfactory to the people of the island?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. I think it would be unsatisfactory. That would be to commit the same error we committed with Spain.

Dr. CARROLL. How do you settle your balances with Spain?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. That varies. They would not receive our silver. We generally calculate exchange in such cases on the value of gold in Madrid.

Dr. CARROLL. If you owed a balance to merchants in Spain, on what basis would you settle it?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. On the basis of Spanish silver in Madrid, because, in reality, Spain has no gold.

Dr. CARROLL. What about the value of silver in the two countries—Spain and Porto Rico—are the values the same?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. No; there is to-day a difference of 10 per cent, and a fortnight ago it was 16 per cent. In that time, therefore, it has fluctuated 6 per cent. The fluctuation was against Porto Rican money.

Dr. CARROLL. Now as to savings banks. How many are there in the island?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. The only one is the one in Ponce, so far as I now remember. I believe there is a small savings bank in this city among the common people, but I am not acquainted with it. They receive small amounts on deposit and pay a small rate of interest, the same as in the United States. I don't remember what the rate of interest is which they pay. They issue a sort of paper currency—I am referring now to the one at Ponce. They issue notes payable in twenty years, for instance; they are a kind of bonds.

Dr. CARROLL (producing a paper peso). Will you please explain when this paper was issued and for what purpose?

Mr. WAYMOUTH. This note was issued when the canje (exchange) was made by replacing the Mexican by the provincial money. This was a provisional note and is worth nothing now. It was issued by Spain and delivered here. It was never of value in Spain and was never in circulation. It was in the nature of a receipt which could be redeemed in Porto Rican money up to a certain date only. There were many who kept some of it as curiosities, but it has no other value now. After the date fixed they refused to receive it.

THE EXCHANGE OF THE CURRENCY.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 27, 1898.*

Señor PEDRO J. ARSUAGA, of the firm of Sobrinos de Esquiaga.

Dr. CARROLL. I understand that the really burning question here now is the currency question. It seems very inconsistent and inconvenient that there should be two standards of money, the relation of which is constantly changing in value, and I want to ask what in your judgment would be the best, quickest, and fairest way of settling this financial difficulty?

Mr. ARSUAGA. Having as a basis the provincial money, merchants are much upset in their calculations, exchange rising and falling 10 and 15 points a day, and they are unable to reckon with any certainty. The change from the old system to the present system of coinage was made in 1895. The Spanish Government thought at that time that there was about \$25,000,000 in circulation in the island, but they found on making the change that there was only about \$6,000,000. The general opinion here is that the colonial currency should be taken out of circulation, although there are some who think otherwise. My opinion is that to leave it in circulation would give rise to speculative dealing in money and to the false coinage of money.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think it should be retired as the Mexican money was retired in 1895?

Mr. ARSUAGA. It could be done in two ways: By emitting bills in the form of certificates of deposit, which should afterwards be exchanged for gold or American silver coinage, or by bringing such currency here in anticipation and exchanging it, as the Spanish Government

did, through the custom-houses in the various districts assisted by the Spanish Bank of Porto Rico. The greater part of the currency of the island is in this city (San Juan). There is some of it in the coast towns, but very little in the interior. As soon as money is taken to the interior for any purpose, it is usually brought back to the coast towns in payment of accounts with the merchants there.

Dr. CARROLL. In what shape is money taken to distant places; in kegs, or is paper money sent?

Mr. ARSUAGA. It is usually sent in kegs containing \$5,000 each.

Dr. CARROLL. How are these kegs shipped?

Mr. ARSUAGA. They are shipped by steamer to the nearest seaport, and from there the money is taken to the interior by carts or by horseback in small quantities as needed. The planters have their accounts in the seaport town most convenient of access and deposit their money there.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the cart in which the money is being transported guarded?

Mr. ARSUAGA. There is no necessity for that. We have a sugar estate in Carolina and send money to Cayey every Saturday to pay off our men, and we send it openly in a coach without fear of robbery. As regards the actual rate of exchange at which the substitution of one coinage should be made for that of another, as the amount in circulation is small, it is unimportant whether it is a little higher or lower. The importance of the question comes in with respect to outstanding liabilities. There are from forty to fifty millions of dollars of liabilities to be settled under old contracts, and the rate at which the exchange shall be made will greatly affect the creditor or debtor class, and that is what most interests the merchants here.

Dr. CARROLL. The Secretary of the Treasury told me that the rate that had been most recommended to him from Porto Rico had been 2 to 1 and that those who proposed that rate said that, while it would do some injustice probably to both classes, it would be fair to the largest number.

Mr. ARSUAGA. That, I think, would be too unjust to the capitalist and would be more than the debtor has a right to expect. On the other hand, I do not agree with the proposition made by some of the Ponce newspapers that the exchange be made dollar for dollar.

Dr. CARROLL. What is your opinion as to a fair ratio? Would 1 to 1.75 or 1 to 1.50 be equitable?

Mr. ARSUAGA. I think it should be \$1 gold for \$1.33 of our currency.

Dr. CARROLL. Who constitute the debtor class mostly in this island?

Mr. ARSUAGA. The real debtor is the agriculturist, who is indebted to the small storekeeper, who in turn is indebted to the larger merchants. By the agriculturist I mean the farmer.

Dr. CARROLL. If the exchange were made at \$1.50 or \$1.75 would it contract the currency so that it would not meet the needs of the island?

Mr. ARSUAGA. It certainly would contract the currency and the lending power of all the capitalists, because they would only have a proportionate amount of what they now have.

Dr. CARROLL. Has there been much fluctuation in the purchasing power of silver here?

Mr. ARSUAGA. In the five years previous to 1898 exchange averaged 45 per cent premium; in this year everything has gone up—the prices of merchandise and exchange.

Dr. CARROLL. Since the war?

Mr. ARSUAGA. Since the beginning of the war.

Dr. CARROLL. To what is that fluctuation due? Is it due to the market price of silver as a commodity in the markets of the world, or to what other possible cause?

Mr. ARSUAGA. Owing to peculiar local causes, and not to the fluctuation of silver in the markets of the world. Imports lately have been much in excess of our exports and people have been making use of their credits, especially country storekeepers and the agriculturists. Consequently the balance against the country has had to be settled, and that has sent exchange up.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the money rest on anything else than its intrinsic value?

Mr. ARSUAGA. The money does not owe its fluctuations really to any condition of the money market, because it is not guaranteed by Spain and is not received in Spain, but is a purely local money imposed by Spain, and circulates merely because we must have some medium of exchange.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there much gold used in this country?

Mr. ARSUAGA. No; except the gold being brought in by the Americans.

Dr. CARROLL. How much paper money is issued, and who issues it?

Mr. ARSUAGA. The Spanish Bank of Porto Rico had the sole right of emitting paper money. They had in circulation usually from \$2,500,000 to \$3,000,000, but lately they have retired the greater part of that.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that money accepted in all parts of the island?

Mr. ARSUAGA. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it not be convenient for merchants to remit to different parts of the island in that form rather than in silver?

Mr. ARSUAGA. Yes; they have done so.

Dr. CARROLL. An English civil engineer, now in this city, says that only those notes which have "Mayaguez" stamped on them in red ink circulate in Mayaguez.

Mr. ARSUAGA. That grew out of special circumstances. The Spanish Bank of Porto Rico has a branch in Mayaguez. When the American forces landed at Ponce, these bank notes went to the nearest point for exchange, which was Mayaguez, and the bank there, finding that it would not have sufficient metal to take up these notes with, if there was a very heavy run on the bank, provided against it by stamping some of the notes and announcing that it would not accept any notes not bearing the stamp "Mayaguez."

Dr. CARROLL. Would our fractional currency be convenient here?

Mr. ARSUAGA. It would be perfectly convenient and very desirable, especially in paying the laborers in the interior.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it be well to fix upon some date when the exchange shall be made in the money system—that is, when it shall commence and when it must be completed?

Mr. ARSUAGA. Twenty days were given for the last exchange. I think it highly important to fix a short term in which the exchange shall be made. The Spanish Government fixed a date when no one was expecting it, so as to prevent speculation as far as possible.

Dr. CARROLL. Was there speculation in spite of that precaution?

Mr. ARSUAGA. There was speculation. The importation of Mexican dollars was forbidden, but they were imported clandestinely.

Dr. CARROLL. Would the system of national banks which exists in the United States be suitable for this island?

Mr. ARSUAGA. I think it would be suitable and convenient, but I am inclined to doubt whether large capitalists would come here. I think the chief difficulty, however, in establishing such a system here is that, owing to the risk of loans in the island, which is much greater than that incident to loans in the United States, people would not be satisfied with the rate of interest which could be demanded under the laws of the United States. The Spanish Bank of Porto Rico last year paid a dividend of 15 per cent, but the reason that this bank was able to pay such a large dividend is that it has very little capital and issues about three times as much in notes as its capital. In other words, it operates on fictitious capital.

Dr. CARROLL. I understand the Spanish Bank of Porto Rico has a monopoly here.

Mr. ARSUAGA. Yes; in the matter of issuing paper money. I presume under the new state of things that monopoly will cease. If the Government does purpose bringing the monopoly to an end it should not hurry it; the bank should have a chance to call in its notes.

THE MONEY OF PORTO RICO SINCE 1800.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 31, 1898.*

Mr. ANDRES CROSAS, an American citizen, long in business in Porto Rico:

Dr. CARROLL. I suppose you have definite ideas on the currency question.

Mr. CROSAS. I have some ideas on that question; perhaps I am not in the right. This country has been cursed by currency systems from time immemorial. It appears that the Spaniards introduced here in the year 1800 a regular Spanish silver dollar; but this would always be remitted away from the island, resulting in a constant scarcity of change, until, in 1814, they established a paper currency. There was nobody responsible for this currency, which was called small hand-bills; and there was even a mutiny of the troops here because they were paid in this paper money, owing to which the captain-general then here promised to pay in regular Spanish silver, but very little of it was ever paid. Finding that the difficulty caused by the exportation of this Spanish silver continued, they deposited here a coin used in South America, made in a very rough way, and they made it obligatory by law to receive this coin, and at the custom-house they used to receive half in Spanish money and half in this macaquino coin. That was all that circulated here. This state of things continued until merchants and others got to be too smart. They would go to the United States, counterfeit this macaquino coin, and import it here through the custom-house as nails. I myself was a clerk in the custom-house in 1855, and I remember one day handling a keg of "nails" from the United States and the head of the keg broke out and out came the macaquino coin. It finally got to be so that people did not care much about collecting this money. It used to give them much trouble. Then there was an industry established by the jewelers here

in connection with this coin. They used to shear it off so as to make a certain percentage, and when a person would come to collect and be tendered some of these recently-trimmed coins he would say, "Your coins are bleeding yet." This practice finally reached such a stage that merchants would rather accept a "vale," which was a sort of promissory note, for so many dollars, and they used to exchange paper of this kind.

In 1857, without any notice whatever, the Spanish Government sent here a man-of-war with 81,250,000 in gold and silver, and announced that within four days exchange had to be made at $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent discount. Consequently the island lost by this operation one-eighth of its capital. The exchange was made, but on the third day there was not sufficient Spanish money to change what remained, and then they forced us to take any kind of foreign gold, giving us American five-dollar pieces, Mexican gold at \$16, and pounds sterling at 85. I was at that time a young boy and I had to collect some rent. I was offered payment in this money, and I said, "No; that is not Spanish money." I was trying to collect from a lady; she was not a saintly lady, and she had considerable influence. She sued me in order to compel me to accept the foreign money in which she wanted to pay the rent. I went to the court and tried to defend the suit, but I could soon see that she was getting the better of the argument, and I made a saucy remark to the effect that "ladies gained all lawsuits," and the judge promptly decided in her favor, so that I had to accept what she wanted to pay me. She paid me in American silver. As Spanish coin continued to go out of the country, American silver was being introduced, until finally the only coin current here was American silver with some Mexican and British gold—no Mexican silver.

The Spanish Government, which was always inventing some scheme by which to make money, decided not to accept this foreign silver except at a discount of 5 per cent. Consequently in paying the treasury an American silver dollar was worth only 95 cents.

This continued, I believe, until the year 1879, when, seeing that there was money in it, they decreed that the Mexican silver should be received here dollar for dollar for American silver, although I read in the price current in New York that the Mexican silver was worth only 80 per cent. They introduced a lot of Mexican silver here and exported the American silver, with the result that shortly American silver paid 1 per cent premium and gold from 2 per cent to 3 per cent. Mexican silver, which was nicknamed "galvanized iron," continued to come into the island until we got so much of it that it caused exchange to rise. This went on for some time, without any measure of relief being taken, until finally, all at once, the Government decreed the prohibition of the importation of any Mexican silver, contrary to the provisions of the tariff. At the same time it was decreed that all the silver in the island, in order to circulate here, must have a fleur-de-lis stamped on it. The result of this was that a great many people here got fleur-de-lis stamps made and stamped their money. I had a few dollars without the fleur-de-lis marked on them, and I mentioned the fact to a friend one day, and he said, "I have a die and will fix them for you." There were many dollars stamped that way. Then they passed a law that from and after that year—I think it was 1889—no coins of later date should be received, so that when a person collected a bill in Mexican dollars he would have to look at the date on each coin. It would take a person all day to collect \$5,000.

This state of things continued until, all at once, without consulting the people here, Spain decided to give us a new coin—this coin we have here at present, called the provincial dollar—at 5 per cent discount, although the provincial dollar is of less weight and fineness than the Mexican. There is now about \$5,000,000 of this coin in the island.

If this money is exchanged at a heavy discount, it will be a lash on those who have money. It would not make any difference to the laborer, because he will earn the same salary in gold and will buy on a gold basis; and it will make no difference to the property holder, because if he has a house renting for \$50, for instance, he would pass through one exchange, but the next month he would get \$50 gold. But to a merchant who has \$90,000 of this provincial money, as I have, an exchange at a heavy discount would be a severe lash. The last exchange in the money system here cost me \$14,000. That was a hard stroke.

I have thought of different ways in which the money system here might be changed to that of the United States, and I am of the opinion that a way in which it would not be hard would be the creation of a sinking debt. The exchange could be made dollar for dollar and then let the island pay annually interest on the difference between the value of the provincial money as thus fixed and what it would really produce. Let the people bear it as we have had to bear the expense of freeing the slaves here and many other things.

Dr. CARROLL. It does not seem, from your recital of the monetary history of the island, that Spain has lost very much from her transactions.

Mr. CROSAS. Spain had a nose that could always scent gold or silver. In the last exchange, in 1895, they made \$1,200,000 between the ministers. We were bound hand and foot; it was useless to complain.

Dr. CARROLL. It has been suggested by some importers here that a fair basis for the change in the currency here for that of the United States would be obtained by taking the average cost of exchange for the past eight or ten years; that is, about 66 per cent or 70 per cent.

Mr. CROSAS. But that would come pretty heavy on those who have money. It would suit those who are in debt, who are anxious to get out as well as possible. There are many who are in debt, and they are all for a big discount.

Dr. CARROLL. Have the Americans not brought in a great deal of money?

Mr. CROSAS. Yes, and I wish they had brought more—enough to “swamp” the provincial money; but it has not come in sufficient quantity for that.

Dr. CARROLL. Are business interests suffering much now on account of the fluctuations of the money standards?

Mr. CROSAS. Yes; in part because of these fluctuations, and in part because we do not know what is to be the policy of the United States toward the island. The ambition of the whole country is to become a Territory of the United States. They have no desire to be independent of the United States. They know well enough that they can not expand under a military government. They know that at present they can not be a sovereign State, and until they are far enough advanced to petition to become a State, they want to be a Territory. They are making strides in learning English, and the young people especially are all studying it.

IMPORTATION OF SPANISH COIN.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 1, 1898.*

MR. SASTERIA FRANCESA. I desire to make some suggestions in regard to the money question. The whole money question depends only on two kinds of persons. The question would have been settled long ago if it were not for the agriculturists, who believed they would lose an indirect premium by way of paying their laborers in silver money, which is not guaranteed by gold reserve on the part of the government, and have to sell their products afterwards to New York and Boston and Philadelphia for gold. Every merchant here and every private party wants the gold basis; that is the only genuine way for straight business. Those from the sugar estates are indirectly fomenting a genuine social movement here, because the Liberal party of Porto Rico is pretty well upset with this 50 cents a day matter. These laborers are paid in silver; they have to pay it out in buying what they want at gold rates; they see that they can make no living out of the money they earn, so they improve every opportunity for rows. Now, if these sugar estates in defending the silver question here to keep the money just as it is made a profit and put in their pockets the difference between the silver they pay out and the gold they receive, there would be at least one reason for explaining the position they take; but that is not the case, and the proof of it is simply this, that every time exchange has gone up here prices for refining sugar in New York have gone down, and every time exchange has gone down here prices for refining in New York have gone up. In other words, the sugar-estate owners in fighting for the stay of the unguaranteed silver are only doing a business profitable to the sugar trust in New York, which is the only one that profits by it, as its quotations are always in relation to the exchange of the island, by which means they can keep the culture of cane in the island in a state between living and dying. That is one side of it.

To make the money here a sound money, if the United States Government should announce that on the 1st of May every dollar of Porto Rican money would be taken in exchange for an American dollar, the exchange being paid up in installments of one-half American dollar a year for interest and principal by the island, all payments to be completed in four years, the island would pay the cost of the exchange from silver to gold without anyone suffering by it. The island has no debt whatever. Moreover, \$75,000, dedicated for many years to the payment of the silver bonds, is still in the treasury, notwithstanding that the silver bonds were all redeemed over six years ago. Moreover, there is no legal rate of exchange now established here. It all depends on a dozen houses who are endeavoring to keep the exchange up as high as possible, and if it were known that on a fixed day every dollar would be called in, exchange at New York would not exceed 25 per cent, which proves that the exorbitant rates now quoted here on New York are only fictitious and artificial.

There should be, if this course is pursued, a prohibition laid on the importations of any Porto Rican coin into the island until the exchange is made, this prohibition carrying with it a term of imprisonment and fine. This would prevent smuggling of Porto Rican coin into the island. The Spanish silver dollar differs from the Porto Rican dollar only in the words "Porto Rico" instead of "Spain," and a close

examination would be required to distinguish them. And, of course, if the Spanish dollar could be exchanged for the American dollar it would be a paying business. When the Spaniards were in control of the island and similar changes were made in the currency as is proposed in the case of the United States, Spanish merchants who were in favor with the Government could import prohibited coins with impunity. In fact, the Government here is said to have imported large quantities, so that the Spanish prohibition in such cases was a dead letter.

A PLEA FOR THE RATE OF 200 TO 100.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 1, 1898.*

MR. FELIX MATOS BERNIER, editor:

DR. CARROLL. What should be the policy of the United States respecting the currency question?

MR. BERNIER. The money question is a very perplexing one, because ever since the island was discovered its money system has been upside down and every aspect of it presents a vexed question.

Regarding the exchange of the present money for the money of the United States, opinions vary very much. There are some who think the exchange should be effected at the rate of 2 for 1; others who think it should be made at a premium of 50 per cent or 60 per cent, and others still who think that the colonial peso should be regarded as merchandise and an arbitrary value put upon it by the American Government. The merchants desire to give the colonial money as high a value as possible. The agriculturists, on the other hand, are desirous of fixing as low a value as possible, and these are the two chief classes who represent opposing interests in this matter of exchanging our colonial currency for that of the United States. My opinion is that the exchange should be made at \$2 colonial for \$1 American, and that is the opinion also prevailing among the agriculturists.

This question of exchange derives its importance chiefly from the consideration that there is a large amount of outstanding debts which will have to be liquidated at a more or less remote period in the future. I think that these ought to be settled at the rate I have suggested. The agriculturists, who constitute the debtor class, have been oppressed for years by the mercantile classes. The latter have already made their profit out of the agriculturists, and if the agriculturists are forced to pay their debts in gold which they have contracted in silver, as some have been suggesting, they will be completely ruined, and it will be years before the agricultural industry of the island can hold up its head again.

DR. CARROLL. What proportion of the population of the island—900,000—do the agriculturists constitute?

MR. BERNIER. I can not give you that in figures without first studying the matter, but they form an immense majority, as the land is divided among small owners.

DR. CARROLL. The majority of the debts contracted in the island, I suppose, have been contracted in the last ten years?

MR. BERNIER. Yes; nearly all of them in that time.

DR. CARROLL. Then, in making the exchange at 2 for 1, it would be charging a rate for exchange of about 100 per cent premium. Has

the rate of exchange, as a matter of fact, ever risen to that amount since these debts were contracted?

Mr. BERNIER. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it then be fair to the money class to make the exchange at that rate?

Mr. BERNIER. I think it would be completely just, because these merchants have not made loans to the agriculturists in cash, but in the form of goods, machinery, etc., and the profits on these transactions have been large, because the terms of credit in such cases have always been favorable to the merchants.

Dr. CARROLL. I do not ask these questions to express any opinion of my own, but to get at the basis of your opinion. I have been informed that every change in the currency of the country of the last hundred years has brought a heavy loss upon those who had money in large amounts and large credits.

Mr. BERNIER. You have been badly informed. The capitalists of the country have never suffered; it has been apparent but not real.

Dr. CARROLL. Who suffered the loss when the Mexican pesos were substituted by the provincial pesos? Spain is said to have made 5 per cent; who lost that 5 per cent?

Mr. BERNIER. The merchants did not lose, because they had made their preparations and made big speculations to offset the change. Those who lost were the working classes.

Dr. CARROLL. How did the loss fall on them? Did they get less or did what they got buy less afterwards?

Mr. BERNIER. The reason the poor classes suffered was because, when the exchange was made of colonial for Mexican silver, provisions rose in value. They earned the same salary, but that salary would not buy as much.

Dr. CARROLL. How was it that provisions rose?

Mr. BERNIER. Because the mercantile class has no conscience or honor. I do not feel competent to discuss that question, however, but I will mention the following incident in order that you may appreciate something of the mercantile life in this island. When the Americans took possession of Ponce I came over to Rio Piedras to await there the fall of the capital. I found on my way across the island that in the district occupied by the Spaniards, where they had no access to outside markets, rice was selling at 14 cents a pound, while in Ponce it was selling at 40 cents a pound. Kerosene oil and other things were selling in the same proportion as compared with Ponce.

Dr. CARROLL. During war times in our own country we frequently have those tremendous fluctuations in prices. It seems to be human nature that men everywhere will get all they can for what they have to sell.

Mr. BERNIER. The merchants here have always formed a sort of close corporation. There has never been any real competition in prices, and for that reason they have imposed the prices of their goods on the people.

Dr. CARROLL. Whom do you include in the class of merchants—those who have retail stores as well as those who have wholesale?

Mr. BERNIER. I refer to wholesale merchants only, because retail merchants are only dependencies of the wholesale dealers.

Dr. CARROLL. On what terms do retail merchants get their goods?

Mr. BERNIER. Most of the retailers pay cash for their goods or buy on short time, seldom longer than four months' credit being given.

Some have current accounts, but the longer terms are from retailers to consumers.

Dr. CARROLL. Then retailers must have considerable capital with which to carry on business?

Mr. BERNIER. Not necessarily; because the retail stores here carry only a small stock of goods and are not of great importance. They are important as a class, but not individually.

Dr. CARROLL. Would that class of retail merchants not suffer by the adoption of the ratio you propose, of 2 for 1?

Mr. BERNIER. I don't think so; because they are not people who hold large amounts of money.

Dr. CARROLL. Then you think the class who would suffer most comprises the wholesale merchants, shippers, and bankers?

Mr. BERNIER. I do not think they will have any ground for complaint, because they can not expect that the nominal capital they have on their books will be changed into a capital good all over the world.

Dr. CARROLL. In the case of a man who has \$10,000 in silver, with which he can buy \$8,000 in gold, if the Government makes the exchange at the rate of 2 for 1, would he not lose \$3,000 outright?

Mr. BERNIER. Out of that question springs another aspect. If the Government should say, "We do not recognize any money but our national money," what would the merchant do with his silver which circulates only here in the island?

Dr. CARROLL. I should say that silver is worth what it will bring. If it will bring so much gold, I should say it was worth that much.

Mr. BERNIER. But the colonial money to-day has no standing anywhere outside of this island; it belongs to no nationality, and I think the American Government has been generous to give it recognition as money. They do not accept it even in Spain.

THE AVERAGE OF EXCHANGE.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., November 3, 1898.

RAMON B. LOPEZ, editor of the *Correspondencia*, a daily newspaper of San Juan, P. R.:

Mr. LOPEZ. Turning to the money question, with your permission, I understand that the idea of the Americans is to establish the ratio of exchange at 2 to 1 with the idea of ruining the Spaniards, who will receive, in that case, on one-half of their outstanding credits. I think that the rate of 2 to 1 would be unreasonable. A rate between 60 and 70 per cent premium would be a just medium. I am neither a creditor nor a debtor, but let me add that this is a very important question and should have your first attention on arriving in Washington. The present uncertainty has paralyzed business. Merchants are not placing orders, because they don't know what they will have to pay for their goods.

Dr. CARROLL. Why do you suggest a rate between 1.60 and 1.70?

Mr. LOPEZ. Because it corresponds to the average of exchange for the past ten years. I got the result by finding the actual average from the data. I hope the United States will grant to the ports of

this island the same privileges as to domestic ports. This is very important, as shown by the following considerations: Printing ink costs 5 cents a pound in New York, but with the freight and duty it costs me over 20 cents a pound; another item, printing paper costs in the United States about 2 cents a pound, at which rate a hundred kilos would cost \$4.30 or \$4.40. That amount of paper in Spain costs \$9.60, and yet Spanish paper costs less laid down here than American paper. Why was that? Because Spanish paper costs 36 cents per 100 kilos as against 83.75 for American paper.

Dr. CARROLL. You pay the same to-day on Spanish and American paper.

Mr. LOPEZ. To-day American paper is cheaper, laid down here, than Spanish paper, but if we had free trade with the United States the rate would be still more favorable.

TIME OF EFFECTING CHANGE IN THE CURRENCY.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., November 5, 1898.

Dr. CARROLL. What is your opinion with regard to the currency, and how it should be settled?

Mr. MANUEL EGOZCUE, vice-president provincial deputation. As regards the financial question, I am not one of those who think the exchange should be made at par; neither do I think at as high a rate as some propose. I don't think it is just that the agriculturist and country debtor should have to pay in gold the debts he has contracted in silver. On the other hand, I do not think that those who are able to collect their debts by reason of priority of the debts when they fall due should be in a better position than those who have to wait a longer time, and the due debts of whose outstanding accounts do not accrue until after the exchange of standards. There is such a variety of opinion in regard to the matter that it is difficult to arrive at a fixed statement. It is not so much a question of five or six million dollars of currency in the island as of the sixty or seventy millions of outstanding liabilities due to us merchants by persons in the interior.

Dr. CARROLL. A number of persons here have fixed the amount of outstanding liabilities at fifty millions.

Mr. EGOZCUE. From fifty to sixty millions of dollars, perhaps, is right.

Dr. CARROLL. Who are the debtors?

Mr. EGOZCUE. The agriculturists.

Dr. CARROLL. And the creditors are the bankers?

Mr. EGOZCUE. Largely, perhaps chiefly; the merchants and private money lenders.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think the money of the United States should be substituted for the colonial money? Do you consider the change necessary?

Mr. EGOZCUE. I think it is necessary, but I think it should not be effected until after the forthcoming crop has been gotten in. This will take place in February, March, and April.

Dr. CARROLL. Why do you think it should be postponed until that time? The majority of the people who have been here seem to regard it as the most urgent question before the authorities at Washington

and think it should be given immediate attention. I should like to have your reasons in detail for recommending a delay in the exchange.

Mr. EGOZCUE. The reason I think the substitution of the currency should not be effected until the end of April is that the agricultural interests will be able to pay what they owe to the commercial interests without any difficulty as matters now stand, but if the substitution is made before that time they will be in very great stress to make the payments. Once that period is past, the American coinage can be safely introduced.

Dr. CARROLL. Then any time after February it would be safe to make this change?

Mr. EGOZCUE. Yes; because the accounts not collected then can not be collected until the next harvest.

Dr. CARROLL. Are these amounts large.

Mr. EGOZCUE. Quite large relative to the small affairs of the island.

EXCHANGE AND FREE TRADE.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

ARECIBO, P. R., *January 14, 1899.*

Mr. ADOLF BAHR and Mr. BERNARDO HUICY, members of the municipal council of Arecibo:

Mr. HUICY. I think that the question of the exchange should be left until it can be introduced at the same time with the question of free coasting trade.

Dr. CARROLL. I have a great many complaints that the two standards of exchange are paralyzing all business, and that everything will be at a standstill until the money question is settled.

Mr. BAHR. As regards the unstable value of the money, we have been passing through that all our lives. The merchant does not suffer from it because he regulates the prices of goods according to exchange. The difference is borne by the consumer, but the vital point is that the sugar and coffee producers who give employment to most of the laborers of the island would have to shut down if the change of money were effected without a free market in the United States being given at the same time.

Dr. CARROLL. How will it affect the coffee producers? They introduce their coffee now free into the United States. I can see how the sugar men would be benefited. The whole difficulty with the sugar producers, I understand, is that if the island goes to a gold basis they will have to pay their laboring men the same in gold as they have been paying in silver.

Mr. BAHR. Not having free coasting trade with the United States, they will not be able to get their provisions and stores at a less price than they pay now.

Dr. CARROLL. But the tariff has been greatly reduced.

Mr. BAHR. The planters can not count much on that. It will mean very little more than an increased margin for the merchant.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think that you will not be able to induce your peons to continue their work by explaining to them that they can buy as much with the gold as they could with the nominally larger amount of silver?

Mr. HUCY. We will have to try it, but the chances are that it will not succeed and they will strike, and strikes mean fires. There have been two instances here of that. On two estates they cut down wages 10 cents, and that same day the two estates were burned.

Dr. CARROLL. I can see the difficulty under which the sugar planters labor, and it is important because they employ more labor than any other industry in the island.

Mr. BAHR. Yes; they use 75 per cent of the labor, and they spend their money in the island.

Dr. CARROLL. What are the prices for sugar now?

Mr. BAHR. Three dollars and seventy-five cents for 46 kilograms at the ports of shipment for centrifugal sugar, and from \$2.90 to \$3 for muscovado sugar. The duty on the centrifugal in the United States is \$1.65 for a hundredweight of 96 degrees test, and on the muscovado, \$1.44.

Dr. CARROLL. Then, if duty were taken off the sugar, you would have a margin which would enable you to pay your employees in gold what you now pay them in silver?

Mr. BAHR. Yes; exactly.

THE INTERESTS AFFECTED.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

COAMO, P. R., *February 6, 1899.*

A MERCHANT. We think the form in which the exchange of money has been made is prejudicial.

Dr. CARROLL. To the planters, do you mean?

A MERCHANT. For the whole island.

A PLANTER. I don't think so.

Dr. CARROLL. Let us hear the merchant. Why do you think it prejudicial for the island?

The MERCHANT. I haven't facility for speaking.

Colonel SANTIAGO. I will answer, if you like. It is a question in which there are divided interests, and naturally there are divided opinions. I understand it would be convenient for some coffee planters that the rate should be as low as possible and also for some merchants, but I don't think it should be higher than from 60 to 70 per cent. I think agriculture will be benefited by the exchange at that rate, but merchants will suffer a certain amount of injury from it for the reason that several years ago their capital was in gold, and now they are coming back to gold again and will lose what they made in the meantime.

Dr. CARROLL. How do you make that out?

Colonel SANTIAGO. For instance, if a few years ago I had \$50,000 gold, that gold was exchanged into \$80,000 silver by edict of the Government. To-day it is brought back to \$50,000, and we have lost what we made meanwhile.

Dr. CARROLL. But the \$80,000 only represented \$50,000 gold.

Colonel SANTIAGO. The idea is that when I possessed the \$50,000 gold some years ago silver was at a premium, and to obtain silver I had to let the gold go. The gold left the country, and silver remained at par value with gold. But to-day gold is brought back and has a higher value. I am not blaming anybody; I am simply trying to explain why the merchant is the sufferer. The merchant is now bound to buy back gold with a depreciated silver.

Dr. CARROLL. What do you think the rate should be?

Colonel SANTIAGO. The lower the exchange is made in Porto Rico the less money there will be in Porto Rico, and consequently capital will be reduced in quantity.

Dr. CARROLL. There will be a less number of dollars, but more money when the purchasing power is considered.

Colonel SANTIAGO. We have about \$5,000,000 circulating medium. I understand from what I have read that a country requires about \$16 per head; that a dollar passes from hand to hand several times in a day. Under the present circumstances capital will come from the outside more to our prejudice than to our benefit.

Dr. CARROLL. What rate of interest did lenders of money get when the country was on a gold basis?

Colonel SANTIAGO. The same as now.

Dr. CARROLL. At what rate?

Colonel SANTIAGO. I have never charged more than 1 per cent.

Dr. CARROLL. What was the average per cent on the gold basis?

Colonel SANTIAGO. One per cent.

Dr. CARROLL. That is, 12 per cent a year. What has been the average rate of interest since 1895?

Colonel SANTIAGO. I can only speak for my house; we have charged from 12 per cent down as low as 8 per cent.

Dr. CARROLL. I think a very large percentage of the debts of the island have paid about 18 per cent.

Colonel SANTIAGO. They are so careless here about money matters that if I wished to give out \$100,000 in loans to-day, I could easily do it at 2 per cent. I don't do it because my conscience won't allow me to do it.

CHANGE OF THE MONEY SYSTEM.

OPINION OF THE SPANISH BANK OF PORTO RICO.

By Señor CARLOS M. SOLER, *Subgovernor of the Bank.*

The volume of metallic currency in Porto Rico is about 6,046,000 pesos.

Mortgages and private indebtedness amount to 16,000,000 to 18,000,000 pesos.

Acceptances, drafts, and other unpaid mercantile transactions reach 20,000,000 or 25,000,000 pesos. Aggregate, 36,000,000 to 43,000,000 pesos; six to seven times the amount of currency in circulation.

The peso has 1.730 more grams of silver of equal fineness than the American dollar, the important difference being that the latter rests on a gold basis.

The commercial rather than the intrinsic value of the peso should be taken as the basis of settlement.

The remarkable fluctuation in exchange has been due chiefly to the large amounts of money sent to Spain, causing a mercantile balance to appear against the island, notwithstanding the excess of exports over imports.

The average rate of exchange on New York in the last seven years was 45.45.

The unusual rates of 1897 and 1898 will be followed by a considerable fall in prospect of large crops.

In consideration of the interests of the island, which have suffered much, and of the limited circulation, which can not stand further reduction, the rate of exchange should be fixed at 75 cents American for the peso, or $33\frac{1}{2}$ per cent premium.

The change of currency should take place by December or January, and the American dollar should be substituted for the peso.

The retention of the peso at a fixed value in relation to the dollar would be inefficacious and dangerous, giving rise to variations between the official and commercial value and stimulating false coinage.

The exchange should be made in a brief period to prevent speculation, and the pesos should be retired, to be recoined or demonetized.

Without doubt one of the most difficult problems waiting for prompt solution is that of the change of the system of moneys in this island, if, as is to be supposed, the American Government wishes to find a solution which will harmonize with the interests of Porto Rico and the new metropolis and will prevent at all hazards disturbance of the equilibrium and economic arrangement sure to be brought about by the adoption of a hasty and ill-considered resolution.

The problem is difficult because of the impossibility of resolving it in such a manner as to satisfy the interests and aspirations of everyone. An exchange at par, for instance, of our money for the American dollar would assuredly benefit capital (above all, capital in actual cash) as represented by the creditor class, but would be prejudicial to the debtor class, who have contracted their liabilities in the money now circulating (represented mostly by the agriculturists), and would facilitate the removal of fortunes from the island, greatly to its detriment.

On the other hand, an exchange effected at a low rate—such as 30 or 40 cents American for a Porto Rican peso—would benefit unduly the debtor class of the interior, to the grave and unjustifiable prejudice of capitalists and creditors. This benefit to debtors, at first sight real, would really be inoperative, as the loss suffered by capital would necessarily cause a great contraction of capital and would to a great extent prevent the further granting of loans to the agriculturists, to our incipient manufactories, and to commerce.

If, then, a just and equitable solution be sought which will injure in the least possible degree vested interests, it becomes necessary to avoid extremes, such as a substitution at par or at a rate unproportionately low.

The fact should not for a moment be lost sight of that the gravity of the situation does not consist precisely in the exchange of the actual stock of money in circulation, as our circulation is an extremely limited one, as was proved when the present peso in circulation was brought here to replace the Mexican dollar which formerly was the money of the island. This fact was brought out when this introduction just referred to did not require a larger sum than \$5,561,000 in silver peso pieces, \$1,015,000 in fractional silver money, and \$70,000 in bronze; a total sum of \$6,646,000.

As this sum must still further be reduced by about \$600,000 pesos taken back to Spain by the Spanish troops, it will be readily understood that the mere substitution of the sum remaining, \$6,046,000, would not in itself constitute a serious difficulty in the resolution of the monetary problem. The difficulty of the question and the danger of serious prejudices which might arise from the system that may be finally adopted lie chiefly in the fact that the rate to be decided on will have an immediate and necessary influence on pending obligations.

The special conditions which have affected Porto Rico since the beginning of 1897 have had the effect of reducing credits on the island itself, and although this fact and the special well-known events of the present year have not had a little influence in reducing the amount of imports for 1898, we do not fear to state without exaggeration that existing mortgages and private indebtedness amount to sixteen to eighteen millions of pesos, besides twenty to twenty-five millions of pesos representing acceptances, drafts, and other unsatisfied mercantile transactions. These sums, representing a large quantity in proportion to the general wealth of the island, must not be lost sight of in the settlement of the question under consideration, especially when it is remembered that the disbursements they represent were made in colonial or Mexican money and, as regards the private and commercial obligations, were incurred during the last year or eighteen months, while, as regards the mortgages, they date from eight, ten, fifteen, or more years back, when exchange on New York fluctuated between 20 to 70 per cent premium, but never higher.

Having so far ascertained in what consist the difficulties of the problem, let us find how to resolve it.

The Porto Rican peso is of the same weight and fineness as the Spanish "duro," according to the decree of December 6, 1895, and as the Spanish duro, according to decree of October 19, 1868, is of 25 grams weight and 900 fineness, it results that the peso as silver bullion is superior to the American standard dollar, which is of the same fineness, but only weighs 23.730 grams.

As to intrinsic value, then, it is undeniable that the peso is worth more than the dollar. The real difference is that while the peso is and represents silver only, the American dollar is a fiduciary coin, because, being of silver only, it represents gold—thanks to the disposition ruling in the United States.

To resolve the problem on this basis would perhaps be defensible, but in our opinion would not be just, because it must be granted that the legal value of money is largely a conventional matter, especially when the greater part of the value depends on the stamp and not on the intrinsic value of the coin.

For this reason, without pretending to state that the intrinsic value of the money should not have some consideration, we consider that at the same time its mercantile value should be duly considered. And in our opinion this commercial value should be taken as the basis for the settlement of the question, as by mutual concessions on the part of debtors and creditors, capitalists, and agriculturists much could be done to effect a settlement without bringing on the island a frightful economic disturbance, which would result in the enrichment of one class, with the unjust pauperizing or ruining of the others.

It is true that Porto Rico has been an exceptional country with regard to its experiences of exchange. It is hardly possible to name any other land where oscillations so great and sudden have almost prevented foresight and calculation to such an extent that operations in exchange have resembled gambling rather than banking transactions. But as economic laws are as undefinable as are natural laws, the abnormal condition must be in part attributed to, firstly, the Mexican coinage; secondly, the colonial currency; and always to what may be termed absentee officialdom, which was represented by salaries, savings, and pensions, and which withdrew annually from the island in the form of bills of exchange a portion of the value of the production of the island, causing the "mercantile balance" to be

against us, when really it was in our favor, owing to the excess of exportation over importation.

Rates of exchange on New York.

Month.	Year.						
	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.
	<i>Pesos.¹</i>	<i>Pesos.¹</i>	<i>Pesos.¹</i>	<i>Pesos.¹</i>	<i>Pesos.¹</i>	<i>Pesos.²</i>	<i>Pesos.²</i>
January	21½	21	30	41	57½	50	58½
February	21½	22	28	44	62	48	61
March	20½	22	28	49	62	49	63
April	20	22½	32	50½	63	49	69
May	20½	25	32½	49½	60½	57	67
June	21½	26½	40	50½	71	60	67
July	21½	28	42½	52½	72½	59	69
August	21½	31	42	60	73	61	75
September	21½	31½	41½	61	70½	60½	74
October	21½	32½	41	54½	71	57	72
November	21½	29	42	55½	66	61	64
December	21½	31	42½	50½	58	62	68
Average	21½	26½	36½	52½	67½	56½	67½

¹ Mexican.

² Colonial.

In this résumé of rates of exchange those of 1898 have not been included, as those rates from April to September were, owing to the existence of war, merely nominal and at the same time capricious and arbitrary.

It will here be seen that in the period of the last seven years the average rate of exchange never exceeded 67½ per cent premium, and that in 1891 the rate did not exceed 21½, payable in Mexican dollars; without going back many years, it will be seen that the rate diminished by degrees, showing palpably how unjust it would be to fix the exchange at 2 for 1, as some people claim should be done. To give \$1 American for 2 pesos would be as unjust in its way as to require \$1 American for 1 peso.

The rate should therefore be found between these two extremes in order to be just and reasonable. The value of our peso can neither reach 100 cents American nor can it be worth less than 50 cents. In seeking this just limit, it should be observed that the average rate of exchange on New York was during the last seven years 45.45 per cent premium, as shown by the above figures. It should also be understood that the last year and the present one, owing to abnormal exceptions, have caused the rate to be higher.

According to the statistics of our custom-houses, the imports have diminished considerably, and this, in conjunction with the fact that the promising appearance of large crops of coffee and sugar, our two principal productions, makes it patent that our exchange market will soon be flooded by offerings of drafts on New York and London. These offerings not being counterbalanced, as in previous years, by the demand for drafts, the exchange market, following its natural course, would not be long in falling to rates perhaps lower than those of 1891 to 1897.

Still more. Always taking into account the statement made at the beginning of this volume, that the problem of the substitution of this money is a very complex one, in the treatment of which neither extreme should be touched, it may be added that our stock of circulating medium is extremely small and that after the blow received when the Mexican coin was taken out of circulation at a discount of 5 per cent, for which the country has never seen any return, the country can not

see with indifference another change nor suffer another and more serious mutilation of the capital in circulation.

For this reason it was stated that if in the exchange our money were received at too low a value, capital would receive a heavy blow, and although for the moment debtors would appear to be favored in proportion, this would be imaginary only—simply the contraction of capital—and lenders would no longer be able to continue loaning to agriculturists or business men to anything like the extent they had formerly done. Although we have no doubt that later on capital from outside will undoubtedly flow into the island and help reestablish our equilibrium, we are not among those who think that this help will come immediately nor, much less, free from the evils which absenteeism brings in its train.

For these and other considerations this bank considers that the valuation of our peso at 75 cents American gold, which is equivalent to a premium of $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent, is a rate harmonious to both interests, and will be found conciliatory to the different elements of our economical local life.

Once the rate fixed in a manner, to our way of thinking, precise and clear, it remains for us to express an opinion as to how the operation should be carried into effect, without any intention on our part of entering into details, the arrangement of which will be the duty of the Government.

In this matter we declare ourselves frankly partisans of a change quick and radical. We say immediate because of the damage to business caused by the paralyzation induced by the uncertainty of the present state of affairs, and to signify that in our judgment the settlement should not be delayed beyond December or January next, the period coincident with that of low-priced exchange, and radical because we wish the real effective substitution for once and forever of the American dollar for the colonial peso.

This last observation was suggested by an article seen by us in a New York paper, which states that perhaps the United States Government will limit itself to fixing an invariable relation of value between the dollar and the peso, keeping the last named in circulation at the prefixed rate. This solution, in our opinion, would be both inefficacious and dangerous—inefficacious, because this fixed rate would after a time become official only and conventional, and would soon be at variance with the commercial value of the money, giving rise to mercantile speculations; and dangerous, because as soon as the commercial and official rates differed, the latter being higher than the former, this difference would stimulate false coining even of pieces of the same weight and fineness.

We, therefore, are of the opinion that this question should only be settled after the most careful study, but that study should not be put off and delayed. Once the rate be settled, the exchange should be immediately effected; a short time only be given to retire from circulation the money now in use, to be either recoined or entirely demonetized.

As regards the effecting of the exchange by the simple means of never returning into circulation the pesos received through the custom-houses and other Government offices, the same being sent to the United States and substituted by American dollars, this plan would only increase our ills by diminishing our circulation and leaving uncared for the principal part of the problem, which is relative to the settlement of pending debits and credits.

So absurd does this proceeding appear to us that we will not even give it the honor of study or refutation.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 24, 1898.*

THE MOST EQUITABLE PLAN.

By L. M. CINTRON, merchant and sugar planter.

FAJARDO, P. R., *October 28, 1898.*

In view of the great discord existing between the various cities of this island as regards the value of American money, the premium on which fluctuates from 50 per cent to 100 per cent, and the value conceded to colonial money by the custom-house, the want of equilibrium constitutes great prejudice for some merchants and is the basis of enormous speculations by banking houses and importers of this island. The banking houses buy American money at 60 per cent and sell their drafts at 75 per cent, whereas importers buy American money at the same price and have it accepted in the custom-house at 100 per cent.

I think the most equitable and just plan which can be adopted is the following: Taking it for granted that existing obligations date back about five years, and that the rate of exchange during that period has fluctuated between 70 per cent and 125 per cent premium, at which, and sometimes a greater, rate commerce has mostly made its calculations, it would be equitable to fix the rate of 75 per cent for the liquidation of pending obligations and for the exchange of the circulating provincial money.

AMOUNT OF SILVER IN PORTO RICO.

By CARLOS M. SOLER, subgovernor of the Spanish Bank of Porto Rico.

The amount of coin in circulation in this country is notoriously too small in proportion to the number of its inhabitants and the amount of business transacted. This shortage can, of course, not be remedied artificially, but will tend to correct itself when the causes producing it have been removed. In spite of the fact that exports from the island have been of greater amount than its imports, there has not been the consequent influx of money which naturally might have been expected. On the contrary, the opposite has always been the case. The amounts collected for royal dues (*derechos reales*) and other forms of taxation have been remitted to the treasury in Spain. A force of about 5,000 soldiers has been paid from amounts collected in Porto Rico, and of these salaries a portion was always remitted both by soldiers and officers to their families in the Peninsula. Merchants in Porto Rico, the great majority of whom are Spaniards, have almost invariably returned to their native country when sufficiently enriched, taking with them their entire fortunes. I consider that the new régime will tend naturally to alleviate the scarcity of circulating medium, but some years will elapse before a just equilibrium can be established.

When in 1895 the central Government decided to retire from circulation in Porto Rico the Mexican dollar and substitute therefor the

colonial peso, which could only circulate in the island, it was estimated that at least \$30,000,000 would have to be coined to provide for the substitution. The finances of Spain at that time were not in a position to obtain and coin sufficient silver to effect the substitution, so a plan was decided on under which provisional certificates were issued against Mexican dollars paid in, which certificates should be redeemed as the colonial currency might be melted up and recoinced. All importation of Mexican dollars was from that date made contraband, but a large quantity was smuggled in by prominent merchants. The exchange was effected at dollar for dollar, less 5 per cent on the Mexican dollar, and to the great astonishment of everyone only about \$7,000,000 were offered for exchange, this being apparently the amount of coin in circulation. The provisional certificates were therefore at once redeemed, and the new currency became legal tender.

The exact amounts of colonial silver employed in this operation were as follows: \$5,561,000 in dollar pieces, \$1,015,000 in fractional silver, in addition to which \$70,000 in Spanish copper coin was introduced. It being cheaper to export this copper coin than to buy drafts, about \$20,000 of it was at once remitted by merchants to Spain before the authorities became aware of the fact. To avoid the complete depletion of the island of its copper currency, the remaining copper coins were punched, making them illegal tender in Spain, thus stopping their exportation.

The amount of coin has been further reduced by the estimated quantity of \$600,000, taken by the evacuating troops to Spain under special permission of the Spanish Government which will redeem them at par for Spanish currency.

I estimate the amount owing by merchants in this island to their creditors in Europe at not more than \$30,000,000. This is quite a liberal estimate, and is much less than in former years.

As regards rates of interest formerly prevailing, when this bank took over the business of its predecessors several years ago, the rate was 12 per cent minimum and 18 per cent maximum per annum. This rate lasted until 1878, but even now is frequent among private money lenders. Our official rate is now from 8 per cent to 9 per cent annually and private bankers' rates from 9 per cent to 10 per cent.

Our statutes allow us to advance money for terms of six months, but we have limited loans and discounts to a period of three months during these abnormal times.

I wish to press the following point, which should greatly influence legislation respecting the settlement of outstanding liabilities. Mercantile credits for goods have been given for periods of as long as two years. Some private loans on mortgage will not fall due for four, six, and even ten years.

The Hypothecary Bank has loans which will not mature for ten, fifteen, and twenty years.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 28, 1898.*

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 29, 1898.*

STATEMENT OF MR. KÖRBER, OF THE BANKING FIRM OF MÜLLENHOF & KÖRBER.

The substitution of United States coinage for the present colonial currency should be effected at the rate of 66 cents gold for \$1 Porto Rican. He bases his opinion on the average gold value of the colonial

peso since its introduction in 1895, ascertained by consulting the rates of exchange on the United States since that date until the beginning of the war or shortly before. Immediately before the war exchange rose violently, but that was caused by the lack of confidence of merchants in local banks, and all who could remitted their money to Europe, thus causing an immense demand for drafts. This fact should have no part in determining at what rate the money is to be exchanged for United States currency, being purely fortuitous and temporary. He thinks that existing obligations between debtor and creditor should be liquidated in gold, at the gold equivalent—as shown by the rate of exchange on the United States—of the amount in pesos owing at the date of contracting the obligation. Thus the debtor would not be called on to pay, neither would the creditor receive, a larger amount in gold than could have been purchased with the amount of the obligation at the date of incurring said obligation.

The question of settling outstanding obligations is of far more importance than the mere exchange of the 5,000,000 pesos of circulating currency, as unliquidated obligations between debtor and creditor are certainly not less in amount than 30,000,000 pesos, and do not exceed 50,000,000 pesos.

The substitution should be made as soon as possible, and, once determined on, only a short time should be allowed for the exchange to be made, to prevent speculation or hoarding of colonial money. Although as a private individual I should like at least fifteen days' notice before the exchange is intended to be made, and should also like to know in anticipation at what rate this will be effected, I think perhaps it would be wiser not to make the rate known until the actual moment occurs for making the exchange, although it may be said that everyone would be in receipt of the same information and theoretically no one would be favored thereby. On no account must any compromise in the character of the new coinage to be substituted be made—no coin with one face, as in the States, and the reverse some special design, but straightout American money. Otherwise exchange on foreign markets will continue a matter of speculation in the hands of bankers, as the coin would not be acceptable in the markets of the world in settlements of balances. Neither do I consider it desirable to introduce gold coin, as such would be exported by merchants to Spain to cover speculations in the rise and fall of that precious metal in the Peninsula. The money introduced should be silver and bills, which would serve the purpose of establishing the gold basis of the United States in this island, and, having the same guaranty as enjoyed in the United States, would of course pass for their full value, while not lending themselves conveniently for purposes of export specie speculations. Also a certain amount of subsidiary copper money must be introduced for the purposes of small traders and purchasers.

It is evident to every merchant here that exchange must soon fall greatly, thus appreciating the local and purchasing value of the peso and making more necessary the prompt substitution of United States currency. The reasons are threefold:

First. Merchants do not owe as much money in Europe as in former years, their credits having been curtailed since difficulties began to be anticipated between Spain and the United States, and also owing to the fact that they have been urged by their European creditors to cover their liabilities as much as possible. This they have done, and as a consequence are not such heavy buyers of exchange as formerly.

Second. The amount of exchange offering will shortly be greatly

augmented by drafts drawn against the sugar and coffee crops which will soon be harvested.

Third. The amount of merchandise imported has greatly decreased during 1898, owing to the war and its anticipation, making the balance against the island much smaller than in other years, and furnishing another reason for the small demand for exchange.

POINTS TO BE CONSIDERED.

STATEMENT OF FRITZE, LUNDT & CO., BANKERS, OF MAYAGUEZ.

Since 1885, when the importation of "Mexicans" was prohibited, exchange has been governed exclusively by the law of supply and demand.

The substitution of provincial pesos in 1895 was followed by a rise of exchange, due partly to a large issue of paper money and partly to the Cuban war and war in the United States.

A table of exchange on New York for the past nine years shows an increase in the yearly average from 21 in 1891 to 68½ in 1895.

The average in 1896 was 52½; in 1897, 67½; the highest, in 1898, was 125, in May.

The outstanding debts were contracted at various times, some when exchange was 10 to 20 per cent, and the latest when it was 40 to 60 per cent, scarcely any having been contracted at a higher rate than 60 per cent.

To reach a just basis the average exchange of eight or ten years should be taken.

If the change were made at 75 per cent or 100 per cent premium it would work the ruin of many firms and families.

All sales of property, all mortgages, and all business transactions have been based on values ranging from 20 to 60 per cent.

The currency in Porto Rico has been the Mexican dollar, with free import and export until 1885. In the said year import was positively prohibited, owing to the depreciation of silver abroad and with the intention of keeping exchange down. But the frequent and more or less important attempts at smuggling always influenced exchange to a certain extent. From this date our exchange was exclusively governed by demand or supply of money and drafts.

In February, 1895, exchange rose suddenly and fully 30 per cent within a few days, owing to the smuggling of \$600,000 Mexican silver; but it dropped down almost as fast when the momentary requirement of drafts was covered.

In December, 1895, our money was changed into the actual "peso provincial" or Porto Rico dollar, which is coined with the very same weight and fineness as the Spanish dollar and in actual silver value is worth about 1 cent less than the United States silver dollar.

This dollar was made with the intention of giving it free admission to Spain at a later date. It was not admitted at once, because it was not known what quantity of money existed in Porto Rico. Exaggerated estimates were the cause of this resolution. The value of this dollar for payments to the treasury, as compared with Spanish gold, was stipulated at 20 per cent.

After the Porto Rico money was put in circulation exchange continued very steady at about 50 per cent premium on New York, and

the scarcity of coined money justified the hope that exchange would gradually go down to 20 per cent; but the Banco Español de Porto Rico commenced to issue an unreasonable amount of paper money, which of course increased and deteriorated the actual money stock. The issue of this paper money, circulating with and not instead of actual silver, amounted up to \$2,580,000, and the silver to about five and a half or six millions. Thus the increase of our money stock amounted to 50 or 60 per cent.

Another reason for the upward tendency of our rates of exchange was the war in Cuba and the decrease of confidence resulting therefrom, culminating in a panic during the war with the United States.

As soon as peace had been declared confidence returned, both in Spain and Porto Rico, and furthermore, as the paper money will probably be withdrawn, its issue not being in harmony with American laws, our money will be much more solid, and exchange lower in consequence.

The following gives an exact statement of all quotations of exchange on the 1st of every month for sight drafts on New York since 1890:

Month.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.
	<i>Per ct.</i>	<i>Per ct.</i>	<i>Per ct.</i>	<i>Per ct.</i>	<i>Per ct.</i>	<i>Per ct.</i>	<i>Per ct.</i>	<i>Per ct.</i>	<i>Per ct.</i>
January	21	21	32	31	43	58	51	58½	72
February	21	20	33	28½	43	63	49	61	71
March	23	20	33	28½	49	64	50	63	73
April	24	10	33	32½	52	64	40	60	70
May	27	20	35½	33	62	67	48½	67	125
June	28	21	37	40	51	72	50	67	119
July	26	23	34	43½	53	73	58	69	119
August	20	23	32	43	54	72	61	75	115
September	14	23	32	42	64	71	61	74	80
October	16	22	33	41	61	71	57	72	75
November	16	21	29	42	53	67	61	64	66
December	18	20	31	42	56	58	62	68
Average	21½	21	27½	37½	52½	68½	55½	67½

NOTE.—Mexican dollars, 1890-1895; provincial money, 1896-1898.

It is almost unnecessary to add that the intrinsic value of a silver dollar has nothing or very little to do with its trade value, the best proof of this being a comparison between the United States dollar and the Spanish and ours. They are all of the same intrinsic value, but one is backed by a powerful nation and the others by a poor one.

The question of the change, of course, not only affects the coined money, but all floating debts, contracts, and mortgages are equally affected and must be liquidated at the same rate when they become due. It may be taken as certain that a great number of these were made when exchange ranged from 10 to 20 per cent, some when it was 20 to 40 per cent, some, the latest, when it was 40 to 60 per cent, and none or almost none at a higher rate of exchange than 60 per cent.

All those who owe large amounts claim the highest possible rate, in order to reduce their debts accordingly, and those who possess money or property of course wish to lose as little as possible and demand a low rate.

It will be difficult to find a basis to satisfy all concerned, and in order to prejudice as little as possible the interest of one and another the average of eight or ten years ought to be taken.

If the change were made at 75 or 100 per cent premium, many firms and families would be simply ruined, and this would be a very sad commencement of American legislation in our country.

All sales of property, mortgages, and business transactions are based

on the value of our money, ranging from 20 to 60 per cent. The rate of 100 per cent has never existed. Even during the war months almost no transactions were made at this rate, and the financial position of a country can not be judged by what occurs in the months of danger and panic.

MAYAGUEZ, P. R., *November 3, 1898.*

THE RATE SHOULD BE TWO FOR ONE.

By the successors to A. J. ALCAIDE.

This, we understand, is the most important of all questions, and the changing of our provincial silver currency for American currency must be done at once.

Till this is done everything will be in a state of disturbance commercially, the value of gold quoted at any price.

We propose that the change be made at 100 per cent premium—that is to say, what is commonly called two for one; for every Porto Rican dollar the holder to be given fifty cents American coin.

Fifty cents represents the average value between the intrinsic worth of the coin and the value it has reached here in the commercial transactions.

We also propose this measure for the easiness of the operation, which could be understood better by the working classes. It would settle the labor question, for bringing in this way the country to a gold basis the high exchange disappears, and of course everything will be sold cheaper—at almost half the prices of to-day for the necessities of life. Labor will naturally come down to its gold equivalent from the silver rates of to-day.

As between those who want the money to be taken only for its intrinsic value and the others, who want it to be changed at higher rates, we stand in the middle way, and recommend this solution of changing our currency for United States currency at what is commonly called two for one.

The operation of the exchange could be done in a week in all the island, and the difference resulting between the 50 cents value given to our coin and the net sales result of the silver in the United States could be charged to our budget, to be paid in five years—one-fifth each year.

We believe 100 per cent is a just and equitable rate.

Our foreign exchange has fluctuated in the last five years between 50 and 140 per cent premium. You will plainly see that 100 per cent premium is an average, and by it the solution of the problem is clearer and easier, and for that reason we take the liberty to propose it.

ARROYO, P. R., *November 4, 1898.*

OPINION IN MAYAGUEZ.

PROPOSAL OF THE BANKERS, MERCHANTS, AND PROPRIETORS OF MAYAGUEZ, P. R.,
NOVEMBER 5, 1898, THIRTY-TWO FIRMS BEING REPRESENTED.

To exchange our provincial money for American money at the premium of 50 per cent on same—i. e., to give a value of 66 $\frac{2}{3}$ cents, United States currency, to 1 peso—according to the resolution of the Creditoy

Ahorro Pauceno. Against this proposal only voted Mr. Martinez and Mr. Primitivo and Pedro Grau, who are of the opinion that the change should be effected without any more loss to the holder of our money than the real expenses for melting, recoinng, etc. We would therefore recommend that the greater amount of money be in gold and silver coin, because the great majority of the poor and laboring classes can not read, and besides, not being used in the interior to paper money, great difficulty would arise, especially at the beginning.

OPINION IN PONCE.

The bankers, merchants, and agriculturists of Ponce, at a meeting held November 5, by a vote of 14 to 2, favored the adoption of the rate of \$1.50 to \$1 in exchange of Porto Rican money for United States currency, allowing the peso to be worth 66 $\frac{2}{3}$ cents American. One of the dissidents wanted the exchange made at par, the other at \$2 for \$1.

THE AGRICULTURAL INTEREST.

STATEMENT OF J. C. MCCORMICK.

ARROYO, P. R., November 7, 1898.

I have been for many years engaged in mercantile pursuits in this part of the island and have a thorough knowledge of what in reality the greater part of the inhabitants desire.

The mainstay of this island is its agriculture, sugar, coffee, tobacco, and cattle; and if a personal canvass were taken, you would find them as a class opposed to the absurd propositions of half a dozen banks, money brokers, and exchange and wholesale merchants regarding the change of our Porto Rico dollars.

These parties, the holders of the Porto Rico dollars, are not petitioning for the public good, but for their sole personal benefit, and there is as much reason to change dollar for dollar as to change, as they desire, at 85 cents gold for each Porto Rico dollar, or 70 cents gold, or for any other rate that is not for its intrinsic value. Their wish is that the difference between the intrinsic value and 85 cents, that they wish the money to be changed to, should be paid by a tax to be levied on the island. For what reason should the island be taxed in order that two or three dozen men or mercantile firms who hold the Porto Rico dollars should be enriched? This would not be equitable nor just. It can not be that the whole island should be taxed and a burden laid on it in order that speculators who have worked for these ends should be enriched.

For months before the United States Army arrived in Porto Rico exchange on New York was from 100 per cent to 150 per cent premium. The sugar, coffee, tobacco, and cattle dealers, and, in fact, the whole island, bought their supplies on credit from the merchants at prices which covered these rates of exchange; and now that the coffee and sugar crop is coming in, the merchants, brokers, and banks have combined to depreciate exchange and get it down to as low a point as possible, so as to get back from all these planters their money which

they had put out at 100 per cent to 150 per cent; exchange at 50 per cent and even 40 per cent.

The greater part of the taxpayers in this island are the agriculturists, and it would be an outrage to change Porto Rico dollars at 85 cents or 70 cents United States currency and charge the loss to the island budget, as it would, in fact, make the agriculturist, who has paid or bought his goods at 150 per cent, pay again the difference of those dollars from their intrinsic value to 85 cents or 70 cents United States currency.

Another matter which should not be overlooked is that nothing is easier for unscrupulous people than to coin in Spain or some other foreign country the Porto Rico dollars, and what the profits would be if these dollars are given a value above their intrinsic one can not be calculated. It is an open secret that firms in this island were engaged in the smuggling of Mexican dollars when their importation was prohibited in 1885. So if a higher value is given to the Porto Rico dollar than its intrinsic one, we run the risk of the island being flooded with them, to the profit of unscrupulous people.

Lastly, it is against the principles of the United States Government to give a false value to a base silver dollar unrecognized by any government, and if we are Americans to-day we must be judged and governed by American ways and laws, and no juggling should be permitted with our Porto Rico dollars to the benefit of a clique.

EXCHANGE OF PORTO RICAN MONEY.

By Messrs. A. HARTMAN & CO.

We think it would be a most equitable course if the United States took up at once the Porto Rican currency at the rate of 50 cents United States currency for the Porto Rican peso, for this represents the average value between the intrinsic value of the coin and the value it has reached in commercial transactions. The loss entailed on the United States by this operation of giving 50 cents for a coin worth about 39 cents should be charged to the Porto Rican budget, payable in a certain number of years, say four years. This would also settle the labor question, as the working classes would then know what they are getting, which at present they can not know, owing to the constant fluctuations of the money markets. The peso should be taken up at once, so as not to give time for operations like those of 1886, when the importation of Mexican silver was prohibited and when it was smuggled into the island in large quantities. This would happen now if the United States recognized the Porto Rican peso for anything over its actual intrinsic value and did not take it out of circulation at once. The dies for said coin still exist in Spain, and coinage is a very profitable business. Certainly the Spaniards have no love for the Americans and they would not hesitate to coin large quantities of Porto Rican pesos, in full weight and fineness, when by that operation they would gain 10 to 11 cents gold per peso. There are certainly lots of Spanish firms in the island that would help their friends to carry on such a profitable business.

ARROYO, P. R., November 7, 1898.

THE RATE OF EXCHANGE.

By EUSTOQUIO TORRES, *Mayor of Guayanilla.*

One of the problems most affecting the country's welfare is without doubt the money question.

Although everyone recognizes the necessity of changing the circulating currency for another system which will remove the inconveniences presented by the present system, the form or manner of the "canje" is the subject of much discussion. Many are the formulas presented, which claim not to satisfy one party at the expense of another, but up to date none has been accepted as satisfying all interests. The generality of agriculturists of medium means, which class is the most numerous, and the small cultivators, all of whom, with but rare exceptions, have lived on credit, are in debt for large amounts. These see that if the "canje" is to be made at par, and they have to liquidate their obligations on this basis, they and the entire agricultural interests would be ruined. This being the principal source of wealth of the island, it is clear that its future should not be viewed with indifference, but should be well considered in the settlement of this most important problem.

After having heard and analyzed the different opinions offered on this subject, I think the solution most in harmony with all interests would be the exchange for gold at 70 per cent, demonetizing the provincial currency and recoining it with the American stamp and design.

GUAYANILLA, P. R., *November 8, 1898.*

THE AMERICAN DOLLAR FOR THE ISLAND.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 8, 1898.*

STATEMENT OF UNITED STATES CONSUL PHILIP C. HANNA.

It is my opinion that as soon as possible the American dollar should be made the basis of trade for this group of islands. For years past the constant fluctuation of the monetary unit of this country has greatly interfered with all internal and foreign commercial transactions among the merchants and people of Porto Rico. The peso, which is now the basis of trade, is a very uncertain quantity, and as long as the commerce of the island is builded upon so uncertain a foundation no commercial enterprise can be considered solid or substantial.

The wholesale merchant who buys his goods in the United States or Europe and is compelled to pay for them in gold or the equivalent thereof must sell these goods to the retail merchant for a much higher price than he could sell them for if there was a fixed and stable currency for the island. The term of credit has usually been six months in buying goods in foreign countries. During those six months no dealer can tell how much the peso will fluctuate. Since I have been in Porto Rico I have known the peso within the period of six months to have a value, as compared with American gold, of 74 cents and also of 37 cents—that is, at one time within the six months 1.35 pesos would purchase an American dollar, and at another time within the six months 2.70 pesos were required to purchase the same dollar. It is therefore plainly seen that merchants selling goods on long credits

must, in order to protect themselves against bankruptcy and ruin, provide for these great changes in the value of the peso. This country can never become American in the true sense of the term until the basis of trade is regular and fixed. It appears to be the unanimous cry from every part of this group of islands and from all classes of people that the American dollar should be made the basis of trade.

However, the old debts of the island must be taken into consideration. All mortgages, notes, and debts of the past in other forms are represented by pesos, and it would be an injustice to that class of people who are bearing the heavy burdens of debt which rest upon a very large part of the sugar planters and estate owners of the island, and who have borrowed cheap pesos, giving mortgages upon their estates as security therefor, if, when these debts become due, they were compelled to cancel them with a more valuable money than they received at the time the loan was made and the mortgage given. For instance, I have in mind a sugar planter who, in the month of June, was compelled to borrow 10,000 pesos in order to save his estate. The peso at that time had a value of about 40 cents as compared with American gold. He gave a mortgage upon his plantation for 10,000 pesos, payable in five years, at 12 per cent interest. It is plainly seen that the true value of what he received from the bank amounted to only about \$4,000, American money. There is a desire and a scheme on foot among the bankers and money lenders of the island to compel these men who are in debt to pay their debts in dollars when their debts become due. In the case of this sugar planter, in addition to his paying 12 per cent for five years, he would be compelled at the end of that period to pay \$10,000 for the \$4,000 he received, which would mean ruin to the planter and fatness to the banker.

I am of the opinion that the Government of the United States, in dealing with the financial question of this island, should carefully take into consideration the average value of the peso and should determine by law how much in American money a peso should represent as a debt-paying medium, and that all debts of the past which have been made in pesos should be canceled in pesos, even though pesos should not be continued to be coined and circulated hereafter. A very large number of the plantation owners are in debt and it would be an utter impossibility for them to cancel their peso debts with the same number of dollars or even with the same number of pesos if the peso should be allowed to be exalted and have a fictitious value of, say, from 85 cents to 95 cents American money, as the bankers of the island are suggesting. Debts made at a time when the peso only represented 40 cents American money should be canceled with 40 cents American money. I do not believe it to be to the interest of the island or of the United States to pay more for the Porto Rican peso than its actual bullion value. The only class who would receive a benefit by the United States declaring the peso to be worth 80 or 90 cents or more would be the rich men of the island, who have large amounts of money on deposit, and they are few in number and consist almost entirely of bankers who have grown rich in gambling upon the fluctuation of Porto Rican money.

If the United States should see fit to allow more than the actual bullion value for these silver pesos of Porto Rico, it is highly important that this coin be redeemed immediately, for should it become known that the United States had a purpose to pay more than the actual bullion value for the silver of Porto Rico, I see no reason why

millions of Porto Rican pesos could not be coined and shipped to this country from every part of the world. There are parties in Europe, undoubtedly, in possession of the same dies and minting machinery, and if they could sell these pesos in Porto Rico for 75 or 80 cents, which contain less than 40 cents' worth of silver, the temptation would be very great for them to engage in such a transaction. Similar things have occurred in South America with the coin of regular governments. At one time the Venezuelan peso, which circulated at par with Venezuelan gold and was considered the best silver coin of any of the South American republics, was counterfeited by European firms and the whole West India Islands were filled with Venezuelan silver money until the situation became so bad that the Venezuelan Government had to pass a law refusing the importation of Venezuelan silver coin, and even the coin which had been minted at their own mints was prohibited from entering the country. I apprehend that the temptation would be much greater in the case of Porto Rican coin, which is not the coin of any nation, but a special coin for the island of Porto Rico, and I doubt whether it would be held to be a crime for persons to mint Porto Rican pesos, provided they contained the same amount of silver.

I believe that the United States could take up the silver coin of Porto Rico, which at present appears to amount to less than 6,000,000 pesos, and remit these pesos for the special use of the island. On one side of the coin let it read, "One Porto Rican peso," and let that peso stand good for the debts of the past contracted in pesos; then, having determined the proper and true relation of this coin to American money, stamp on the other side of the coin the number of cents that this coin is worth in the money of the United States. For example, "United States of America, forty-five cents," or "fifty-five cents," or whatever amount the Government sees fit to pay for the coin. This would fix the relation of the peso to the American dollar and put a final stop to the fluctuation of the peso, and, at the same time, there would be in existence a kind of money with which to pay the old debts of the past.

For the temporary relief of the island I believe it important that the Government should order that all customs and other dues of whatever nature be collectible in American money only. This will greatly add to the volume of circulation in the island and will raise the American dollar to the place which it rightfully should fill. At the present time duties are collected in Porto Rican money instead of American money, which has the effect of making Porto Rican money first and American money second in the island. Since duties, under the existing order, must be paid in Porto Rican money, the supply of which is limited, it becomes an easy matter for the bankers of the island to corner the money market and charge the merchants whatever they may feel disposed to demand. If our Government should order that all duties be paid in American money, the supply of American money being unlimited, the American money market could not be cornered by the bankers; the American dollar would immediately be in demand, and there being no longer a special demand for the Porto Rican peso, the bankers would cease tying it up in their vaults and it would find its way into circulation and be employed in the local business of the island at its proper value, and, in my opinion, its rapid fluctuations would cease. This suggestion, however, is only made for temporary relief, my former suggestion being intended for permanent relief.

PORTO RICAN MONEY SHOULD BE RECALLED.

STATEMENT OF SEÑOR J. D. ABRIL.

AGUADILLA, P. R., November 10, 1898.

There is one question of great interest for the country whose solution is eagerly awaited and which is producing great disturbance in commerce, the artery of life in the towns. I refer to the exchange of our provincial money now in circulation, whose valuation with respect to the United States coinage is a matter which should be promptly settled. The meeting held in San Juan the 30th of October purposely abstained from passing resolutions on this matter, it being without doubt one of the most delicate questions, perhaps the most complex, among those whose immediate solution is necessary for the existence and future of Porto Rico. A scrupulous analysis of the question should be made in order not to disregard the many interests and so as not to induce a general crisis which could envelop Porto Rico in external bankruptcy, resulting not only to the grave prejudice of interests here, but in the United States and Europe, wherever our commercial relations extend.

The complexity of the question is not only in the material exchange of our six or seven millions of pesos now in circulation; if that were all, the problem would be simple and practicable. The real difficulty consists in the fact that the rate fixed for the exchange will form the base of the liquidation of the floating debt, or obligations due or falling due, balances of accounts current, and other similar and analogous acts and contracts which commerce and institutions of credit maintain with agriculturists and the people in general, and whose amount is estimated at about seventy to eighty millions.

The simple enunciation of these facts is sufficient to make understood the antagonisms which will immediately arise between creditors and debtors when the money question is broached. The first would like to see the exchange made at par or at a low rate, so as to leave his capital intact; the second would prefer the exchange to be made at as great a discount, so as to see reduced their obligations and unpaid contracts. For this reason agricultural interests, generally in a state of indebtedness and in numbers far exceeding the mercantile class, are crying out for exchange at a very high rate, while towns, where interests are inverse, sustain the theory that it should be effected at par or at a slight discount.

Congress in Washington should seek an equitable formula between these two antagonistic factions, so as to prevent discord and lawsuits.

When in 1879 Mexican dollars were imported here the gold basis was established *ipso facto*, and although that metal completely disappeared from circulation as a monetary unit, giving place to the Mexican dollar, all operations have been based on the gold standard. The two social classes, agriculture and commerce, who are the chief handlers of public wealth, have suffered or enjoyed equally the advantages or losses produced by the system; and while the importing merchant has had to pay his merchandise in Europe or in the United States at whatever rate of exchange was ruling, the agriculturist, on selling his produce, has obtained the benefit of the higher or lower rate quoted when making the sale. Therefore, neither of the two classes, to-day so antagonistic, can pretend to find in past rates of exchange a reason justifying the establishment of a rate for the "canje" prejudicial to the other.

Most persons studying this important problem take their stand on the rates of exchange in Porto Rico which have been quoted for American money, and some have taken an average rate covering a certain number of years. We think that those commit a great error, as the special nature of our money, which can only circulate in the island, prevents it being quoted in any of the markets of the United States or Europe, and it is clear that there can be no exact basis for determining the difference of commercial value of our money with that of the American which has to take its place.

On the other hand, the rates of exchange, former and present, for United States money have never been based on the value of our colonial money, but have obeyed only and solely the oscillations caused by demand and supply. Thus, for example, during the Spanish-American war, when our commercial relations were interrupted, exchange reached 140 per cent; whereas to-day, in spite of there being no exports to the United States and of the fact that the custom-houses admit American bank notes at 100 per cent for payment of import duties, there are houses drawing exchange on New York and other American centers at 66 per cent. What influence, then, does our money, which enjoys here a fixed and invariable commercial value, exert? Doubtless none at all.

The considerations above mentioned make it appear logical and just to call in the Porto Rican money and replace it by United States silver money, charging the difference existing in the intrinsic value of both to the general estimates of the island and adding likewise thereto the cost of transport and coinage.

It is certain that the antagonism existing between the two classes, creditors and debtors, would then disappear, as pending obligations would be liquidated at par without discount and without prejudice to any of the classes holding public wealth. The danger of a crisis, which an unconsidered solution, reducing by 50 per cent the value of our money with all the losses such would occasion, and whose scope it is difficult to predict, would also be overcome.

THE GOLD STANDARD.

STATEMENT OF ESCOTASTICO PEREZ.

CIDRA, P. R., November 10, 1898.

The system to be introduced should be that which, while not conflicting with the rights of the Union, should care for agricultural interests. The gold standard has been our dream for a long time.

It is very lamentable, especially among the agriculturists, owing to want of credit and means of support for their plantations [original says "refaccion," which means the advances made by merchants to be paid for at harvest]. This shows the necessity for the establishment of banks with branches in the departments to offer facilities to agriculture, the prime source of public wealth.

Unforeseen disasters of war and the death of credit make necessary an extension of time for payment of debts—by law, if not otherwise obtainable—in favor of country merchants, who were harder hit than those in the capital. This appears to be a measure of strict justice, and I do not understand why the merchants in San Juan have not already taken initiative in the matter.

OPINION OF THE BOARD OF COMMERCE.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *December 6, 1899.*

Ramon Garcia Saenz, secretary of the board of agriculture, manufacture, and commerce of Porto Rico, certifies that at the session held on the 6th of December, 1898, with the object of studying the best methods of effecting the substitution of coinage in circulation and the emitting of an opinion as regards the formation and application of a new tariff, after a full and fair discussion it was unanimously voted that the gold standard should be introduced immediately and a value of 75 cents United States currency given to the colonial peso, as that is the value of the coin, according to the opinion of this board. The substitution should be made without any charge whatever to the island.

The secretary of the interior, Dr. Salvador Carbonell, dissented and thought the value should be fixed at 65 per cent and the difference charged to the insular treasury, the difference being calculated on the bullion value of the peso, or say 41 cents gold.

UNIFICATION OF THE MONEY SYSTEM.

STATEMENT OF MAYOR CELESTINO DOMINGUEZ.

GUAYANA, P. R., *January, 1899.*

The first and perhaps the most important of the modifications to be introduced into Porto Rico is the unification of the money system with that of the new country by establishing the gold basis. As this is the foundation on which the prosperity of the island has to be built up, it must be done immediately, after which other economic problems can easily be solved, as living will be cheapened by one-half, and naturally the country will be freer to undertake all sorts of enterprises.

Many plans can be adopted for the purpose of carrying out this change, but it would be prolix to enumerate them. If it be taken into account that our provincial peso has, in commerce, a purchasing power of 100 centavos and that the government offices have also given it that value, it will be seen that its sudden reduction to the value of bullion would severely punish holders of the coin and that the banks would suffer. It must be remembered that our peso is equal in weight to the silver coin of the United States and superior in fineness; therefore it would not be just to make us accept the inferior coin at face value and the superior one at bullion value. I do not think that the new Government will follow the example of the late one, as great and wise nations do not make a speculation of their possessions, neither will a generous nation like the United States add another misfortune to our already long list.

My opinion is that there being so small an amount in circulation here, the Government could recoin it and charge the difference and expense to the funds of the insular treasury. One drop of water does not increase the size of the ocean, so our insignificant coinage would be lost in the enormous mass of American money like that drop in the ocean.

THE QUESTION OF EXCHANGE.

STATEMENT OF THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS OF THE TERRITORIAL AND AGRICULTURAL BANK.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October, 1899.*

When the Spanish Government fixed the value of the Mexican dollar in relation to that of the national money of Spain and changed it for the provincial peso, it incurred the obligation under the decree of 1895 of assimilating later on the colonial currency into the national currency. This obligation, made in good faith, could not have been avoided. In virtue of this assimilation it would have been possible at any time to convert the colonial currency into gold at a premium of 25 per cent or 30 per cent under normal circumstances, and this was the original and natural solution of our monetary problem, to be given effect later on. Having severed the relations with the old metropolis and forming now part of another nation, making necessary constant and important commercial relations, it is necessary to adopt one monetary system for both countries, so that business can be established and carried on without let or hindrance.

The necessity of the change of our monetary system being recognized, it would be well to see under what conditions it could be effected. If it were only necessary to make the material exchange of the small amount of money in circulation, we would advise that American money be substituted therefor, dollar for dollar, covering the resultant difference by means of paper money, which would enter into circulation at its full nominal value and would be taken up in a certain number of years by a charge on the budget of the island. By this means the country would be saved from a diminution of its circulating currency and would hold a greater amount of coinage with which to attend to the almost numberless undertakings necessary for the growth of its riches.

But besides the 4,500,000 or 5,000,000 pesos which exist in actual cash there are perhaps 30,000,000 pesos of debts, mortgages, etc., which have been contracted within the last ten years, and it would not be just to make the change at par, because this would oblige the debtor to pay in court the integral sum which he had received in silver and which was worth less with relation to gold at that time. It would not be just, either, to lessen the fortune of those who are holding actual cash, which would be done if the exchange were made as the intrinsic value of the peso, because this money, thanks to its special condition and the limited quantity of it coined, has always had a commercial value far above its intrinsic value as silver. With the object, then, of harmonizing the interests of the one with the interest of the other it appears just and equitable and convenient that the value of provincial money should be fixed with relation to the American money according to the commercial and not the intrinsic value of the first named as ascertained during the last ten years by reference to official exchange. The following will show the average rate of premium of gold over silver in the last ten years:

	Per cent.		Per cent.
In 1889	14	In 1894	48
In 1890	9	In 1895	57
In 1891	10	In 1896	46
In 1892	17	In 1897	56
In 1893	27	In 1898	63

Which gives an average for the ten years of \$34.20 for \$100, or an approximate value of the provincial dollar of 75 cents gold. It should

be taken into account that exchange has been much higher since the year 1875, at which time the Cuban revolution broke out and when many fortunes were removed from this country, owing to the unsettled state of affairs. Once accept this rate for the exchange of American for Porto Rican money, and it should be carried out in the following manner:

The 6,000,000 pesos in circulation to-day represent, at the rate of 75 cents gold, 4,500,000 American dollars. As at least 2,000,000 pesos of silver money is necessary for our small transactions, we would have this amount coined from the money at present in circulation, converting it into American money. We would then be left with 4,000,000 pesos to compensate for 3,000,000, which would have to be given in exchange for American gold. The 4,000,000 pesos sold at 40 cents would give \$1,600,000 gold. There would then be a deficit of 1,400,000 pesos, or, say, 1,500,000 pesos with the expense incurred in the operation.

This sum might be covered by means of a loan to the treasury, redeemable in a certain number of years. Outstanding debts would have a corresponding reduction made of 25 per cent of their value. The exchange should be made as soon as the Americans have possession of the country, for while this matter is left in abeyance business will be completely paralyzed, to the prejudice of everybody. The American Government should take note that any steps taken toward the settlement of the money questions of the island should be followed by other measures protecting its agricultural interests, sugar principally, which for many years has been suffering from a great crisis from artificial causes, which unfortunately will take a long time to disappear, and owes its continuance in Porto Rico to the premium put on its production by the silver currency, without which its cultivation could not have been carried on.

The freedom from duty in the markets of the new metropolis, the limitation of local taxation, good banking organization, which will offer the agricultural interests money at a moderate rate of interest—which measures, if adopted quickly, may still preserve the agricultural interests from ruin, which the change of coinage would otherwise produce.

UNIFORMITY OF MONEY SYSTEM.

STATEMENT OF RUCABADO & CO.

CAYEY, P. R., *November, 1898.*

The uniformity of the monetary system between this country and the metropolis is an urgent necessity. Perhaps, if there is a long delay in the substitution of money, we shall be subject to the introduction of more silver of the same coinage which is to-day in circulation, making much more difficult the operation which, under present circumstances, owing to the small amount of money in circulation, is comparatively easy.

THE AMERICAN DOLLAR PREFERRED.

By Señor ALRIZU, of Ponce, P. R.

The legal tender of Porto Rico should be the American dollar. A law should be enacted at once establishing this, and the peso should be exchanged at 2 for 1 in the treasury of each department. All

existing debts should be settled at that ratio. The exchange should be made in one month at the chief custom-house of each department, at the expiration of which time the circulation of the peso should be prohibited.

RATES OF EXCHANGE ON LONDON FOR BILLS FOR NINETY DAYS.

[Furnished by Mullenhoff & Korber, San Juan, P. R.]

Month.	1896.	1897.
January	\$7.75, \$7.20, \$7.35	\$7.70, \$7.67, \$7.65, \$7.70, \$7.80.
February	\$7.25, \$7.22, \$7.27, \$7.35	\$7.70, \$7.80, \$7.97, \$7.90, \$8.02, \$8.05, \$8.00.
March	\$7.37	\$8.07, \$8.10, \$8.15.
April	\$7.25, \$7.20, \$7.22	\$8.15, \$8.10.
May	\$7.30	\$8.10, \$8.15.
June	\$7.70	\$8.20.
July	\$7.75, \$7.30, \$7.72	\$8.40, \$8.50, \$8.45, \$8.40.
August	\$7.85, \$7.90	\$8.40.
September	\$7.77, \$7.90	\$8.30, \$8.27, \$8.25, \$8.20, \$8.10, \$8.05.
October	\$7.57, \$7.70	\$7.97, \$7.80, \$8.24, \$8.87, \$8.80, \$8.00.
November	\$7.72, \$7.60, \$7.80, \$7.85	\$7.90, \$7.95, \$8.00.
December	\$7.80, \$7.77, \$7.75, \$7.70	

Fixed value. \$5; \$7.75 consequently equal to 55 per cent.

THE FINANCIAL SITUATION.

By NINE RESIDENTS OF THE ISLAND OF VIEQUES.

[Translation.]

The financial state of the island is highly precarious. Porto Rico has passed through several severe economical crises, from which she has suffered most painfully.

The monopoly exercised formerly, and still exercised by the whole-sale merchants over the dawning agriculture of the country, has never permitted its development and prosperity.

These merchants, in their greed for lucre and insatiable avarice, mistook the road they should have followed in order to obtain the positive gains they wished for.

Agriculture, which is our principal source of wealth and livelihood, languished in the ratio that the merchant exploiters, absorbing and weakening it in its growth, filled their coffers with large sums of money, product of iniquitous speculations.

But the moment arrives where, prostrated and played out, without recuperative force, it was no longer a profitable victim for commerce; and then the crisis began to become more general.

Various other causes of not less importance have helped to bring the country to its present condition of prostration and downfall—before all, the fatal administration of the Spanish Government, which taxed landowners and industries heavily, with the object of maintaining vicious bodies of unnecessary bureaucrats, who stifled all initiative and stopped and impeded all generous and active impulses.

Again, the substitution of Mexican currency by that sent us in an evil hour by our old government—a currency which had no commercial value and is not current in any foreign market.

Add to this, among other causes which we omit, the heavy import duties formerly and still paid by our most important products in our principal market, the United States—duties which did and still do diminish the narrow profits obtained by our poor industries.

To better this afflicted situation a powerful lever is necessary—money; and above all, the establishment of banks.

The Agricultural and Territorial Bank of Porto Rico does not, neither can it, respond to the needs of the agricultural interests of the island, owing to want of funds. There is a need of banking establishments offering the guaranties and cash necessary to raise agriculture from its prostration and offering help to the agriculturists at a moderate interest. These banks, which would doubtless soon become the motive power of our wealth, would of a certainty earn large profits.

The establishment of agricultural syndicates would be a splendid help to the growth of the material interests of this country.

Establish banks and syndicates, implant modern and scientific methods, and Porto Rico, with its natural gifts and fertile soil, will become an emporium of wealth, offering a healthy livelihood to all social classes.

Our concrete opinion about the change of Spanish colonial money and substitution by United States currency is that it should be done as soon as possible and at 100 per cent premium. The colonial currency now in circulation should be called in at once in order to stop the speculation caused by the rate of 2 for 1 officially exacted, and that rate capriciously established by merchants for the admission of American bills.

But it is necessary to remember, as being of vital importance and interest, that the exchange of money systems and free coasting trade should be decreed at one and the same time by the American Government. The reason is simple. If the exchange preceded the free coasting trade, the small profits obtained by agriculture would disappear and the further ruin of this industry would follow.

LEOPOLD VENEGA.

A. V. RIEELSELY.

REGALADO BENITEZ.

J. BENITEZ.

ANTONIO DE ALDREY.

CHAS. LE BRUN.

E. BENITEZ.

(2 illegible names.)

ISLAND OF VIEQUES, P. R., *November 15, 1898.*

OPINION OF AGRICULTURISTS.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 1, 1898.*

We, the undersigned, sugar and coffee growers, cattle raisers, capitalists, agriculturists in general, owners of city property, merchants, and workmen, respectfully set forth:

That at the time of the occupation of this territory by the United States Army, commanded by General Miles, on the glorious 28th of July, the rate of exchange on New York was 150 per cent premium. In order to regulate administrative business the government issued the wise order that American currency should be admitted at the custom-house and in all official transactions at the rate of 2 for 1, or 100 per cent premium, with relation to the provincial money of Porto Rico, which rate of 100 per cent continues in force for all official transactions.

The banking houses and merchant money lenders, with insatiable greed and with their accustomed system of exploitation, without considering the disturbances of every class which might occur, and which unfortunately have occurred; without respecting the just indications of General Miles, and ignoring the general welfare of the country, did not hesitate in getting together, with often rare and honorable exceptions, to force a fall in the rate of exchange, and succeeded in producing a disorderly drop, until in a general meeting of shareholders of the Ponce Credit and Savings Bank, which institution is the mercantile barometer of that district, besides influencing mercantile matters in other districts of the island, they resolved, in connivance with the Spanish Bank and the Agrícola Bank of San Juan, to impose the rate of only 50 per cent premium as between the two moneys.

This unjust and inequitable resolution, this disproportion between the rate established by commerce and that ruling in governmental offices, the only tendency of which, at first, was to exploit the people shamefully, produced the fatal effects feared, and has been the cause of strikes, tumults, disorders, and several cases of conflict between the peasantry and some members of the troops, culminating in the shameful spectacle of a part of the press, either from gross ignorance or acting in accord with our eternal enemies, vilifying, unjustly, a whole army, toward which this country should feel nothing but eternal gratitude.

The wholesale merchants of Porto Rico, who, in miserable connivance with the previous governors of this land, were accustomed by every means in their power to impose their exclusive views to the prejudice of the producing classes, would like to follow the same paths during the new era, introducing disturbances and having in view solely the filling of their coffers. At this moment they have their agents out buying American money at 55 or 60 per cent premium, with the object of paying it into the governmental offices when it is received at 100 per cent.

The wholesale trade, which does not possess sufficient circulating medium to move the crops of the country and has for many years had recourse to the system of depreciating its own drafts so as to criminally lower the value of exchange offered to agriculturists (every 10 per cent drop in exchange represents approximately a loss to the coffee planter of \$2 per hundredweight, and to the sugar growers 37½ cents per kilogram—hundredweight), would not possess the vast outstandings which it does, but would rather appear as a debtor class if the number of years in which this accumulated loss has been pressing on the agriculturists (a debit not incurred in cash, but in supplies, sold at exorbitant prices; in some cases qualifiable only as usurious) were taken into account.

When the general economical disaster occasioned by speculative combinations, and not by the small amount of colonial currency in circulation, but by the iniquitous pretensions looking toward being paid in American gold the sums advanced by them with such enormous profits, aided by the depreciation of the money in which they should be paid, this wholesale trade, we repeat, wishes to-day to incline public opinion toward the change of provincial money for American gold, a currency which not three months ago they were clamoring to purchase at a 150 per cent premium.

But the Government of the Union, and especially its enlightened representatives in this island, will not permit that the working classes be longer victimized nor sacrifice the noble army of occupation. It

will be necessary to take steps for salvation, and for this purpose we submit the following solution for your consideration:

To beg the Government at Washington by cable to declare demonetized the Spanish provincial coinage of Porto Rico, making obligatory the payment of all official transactions, such as customs dues and taxes of all descriptions, in the United States currency with a corresponding reduction, deferring the date for the liquidation of all private debts incurred before the date of this decree until the Congress of the United States shall fix the ratio which shall rule between the provincial money in which the debts were incurred and of the legal currency of the United States.

We counsel the demonetization of this silver, as the laws of the United States prohibit its Government from acquiring new stock of this metal, and the resolution which we propose is urgent, as delay in the settlement of this question until Congress can definitely settle it would occasion serious difficulties which might produce conflicts in the island.

IMPORTANCE OF IMMEDIATE ACTION.

By ANTONIO SECOLA, *Salinas, P. R.*

The monetary system of to-day should disappear at once, not only as a measure of nationalization, but also because it is causing a profound disturbance in our economic life. The fluctuations of exchange are such that no contracts for future liquidation can be attempted. Without this we can not obtain assistance in other markets, and our economic existence must be languid and dragging. It is expedient to change at once our money for American currency. Everyone is agreed on this point, but all are not agreed on the rate at which the conversion should be made. Different ideas born of different interests contend, some for the change at par, others at 50 per cent. The generosity of the American Government, without serious prejudice to its Treasury, could adopt a mean conciliatory to all interests.

RATES OF EXCHANGE.

Señor FELIPE CUEBAS, collector of customs at Mayaguez, stated that although he was born in the island, he was an American citizen, becoming such in 1869. He was appointed to his present position by the insular government and was reappointed by General Brooke. He has a sugar estate near Mayaguez, called Hacienda Carmelita.

He expressed the opinion that the change in the currency should be made as soon as possible, though, undoubtedly, there was merit in the argument that it should be postponed until March next to allow the crops to be gathered and the returns used to pay obligations. He considered the rate of 2 to 1 too high; it would do injustice to the creditor and the capitalist classes. One and sixty-five one-hundredths or 1.75 to 1 he deemed much more just; it would be fair both to debtors and to creditors.

There had always been trouble in the island with silver money, and the change from Mexican to colonial pesos did not solve the difficulty. It was necessary, in his opinion, to establish the currency on the gold

basis. If sugar growers could get their sugar into the United States market free of duty they could afford to pay the laborer the same on the gold basis as they now pay him on the silver basis. An increased demand for sugar would result in increased production, and increased production would require more labor; the natural tendency of the laborer would be to demand his 50 cents a day on the new basis, and Mr. Cuebas believed that he would get it.

EXCHANGE ON THE BASIS OF INTRINSIC VALUE OF THE PESO.

Señor ENRIQUE DELGADO, San Juan:

The country is suffering greatly by reason of its silver basis for coinage ruling since some years back. Each time a change was contemplated formerly, opinions based on self-interest were heard, and nothing practical was adopted, the change usually prejudicing everybody. Owing to the lack of disinterested advice the Spanish Government in perplexity ordered the introduction of the colonial coin, the object being doubtless to know exactly the amount of floating currency. The amount exchanged did not reach seven millions, which shows that the national coin could have been introduced at once without causing great disturbance. Now that about one and one-half millions have left the country, the stock is reduced to about five and one-half millions. Now, as always, everyone has a distinct opinion as to the rate of exchange which should be adopted; one party thinks that 100 per cent premium for gold is the right figure.

It must be remembered that our exchange has never been in relation to the bullion value of the coin in circulation, but has been regulated by the demand for gold with which to pay debts outside the island. When war was declared exchange rose and continued rising as the blockade became effective and lasting, because we could not export our produce and merchants had to make their payments abroad even by cable. When the war ended and things became normalized again exchange fell in spite of our limited exports, and when things become really settled we shall see heavy fluctuations daily, and exchange will continue falling. For this reason it would not be right to give our peso its intrinsic value only. If the substitution is to be made at once an average of exchange must be sought during the last ten years, and it will be found not to pass 40 per cent premium, making a just rate of exchange 70 cents gold for 1 peso. The exchange can also be made by introducing American silver, which reduces the question to one of recoinage only, by giving an American dollar for a Porto Rican peso and charging the cost of coinage to the insular budget, to be paid in a period extending over five or ten years.

This would still leave the difficult question of obligations incurred to be dealt with. As some debts were incurred as far back as ten years, and others, such as agricultural mortgages, do not fall due until fifteen years, if the rate fixed is 100 per cent this would be to the debtor's benefit and would put a premium on nonpayment, whereas exchange at par would be an injustice to debtors and the working classes. In my opinion the rate of 70 cents per peso, the average of the last ten years' exchange, is the happy medium.

PRESIDENT'S ORDER ON THE MONEY QUESTION.

EXECUTIVE MANSION, *January 20, 1899.*

It is hereby ordered that on and after February 1, 1899, and until otherwise provided, all customs, taxes, public and postal dues in the island of Porto Rico shall be paid in United States money, or in foreign gold coins, such as the Spanish alphonosinos (centen) and the French louis, which will be accepted in payment of such customs, taxes, public and postal dues, at the following rates:

Alphonosinos (25-peseta piece)	\$4.82
Louis (20-franc piece)	3.86

It is further ordered that on and after February 1, 1899, and until further provided, the following Porto Rican or Spanish silver coins now in circulation in the island of Porto Rico shall be received for customs, taxes, public and postal dues, at the following fixed rates in United States money:

The peso	\$0.60
The medio peso30
The peseta12
The real06
The medio real03

It is further ordered and directed that out of the Porto Rican coins so received a convenient supply shall be retained and carried for exchange for United States money at the rate hereinbefore enumerated, namely, \$0.60 United States money for one Porto Rican silver peso.

It is further ordered that all existing contracts for the payment of money in the currency of Porto Rico may be discharged and paid in that money in accordance with the contracts, or in United States money at the relative value set forth in the above table, namely, for each \$100 United States currency, 166 $\frac{2}{3}$ Porto Rican pesos.

Bronze and copper coins now current in the island of Porto Rico will be received at their face value for fractional parts of a dollar, in a single payment to an amount not exceeding 12 cents (1 peseta).

WILLIAM MCKINLEY.

EFFECT OF THE PRESIDENT'S ORDER—REPORT OF THE COMMISSIONER.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *February 17, 1899.*

THE SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY.

SIR: The order fixing the value of the coins of Porto Rico has now been in operation long enough to indicate what its result is likely to be. The promise at first was that the hoarding of money, which had made it so difficult to borrow except on exorbitant rates of interest, would cease and exchange would vary little from the rate fixed in the order, but there seem to be powerful influences at work to keep the native money locked up. Drafts on the United States, for which there is always a demand, bring about \$1.64, but United States currency can not be exchanged at a better rate than \$1.60 to \$1.62. This makes a large margin for the operations of money dealers. I am informed at the custom-house here that very little of the native money is offered in payment of duties. So far only about \$300 in pesos has been paid in. Captain Buchanan says that importers purchase American cur-

rency in the market at \$1.60 to \$1.62, Porto Rican, and make a considerable margin of profit. There is still speculation, therefore, but the range is much more limited.

The small amount of money available for the uses of business is a serious obstacle to enterprise. All sections of the island, except two or three money centers, have an insufficient amount of cash. For example, it has been brought to my attention that a flourishing city and port, commanding a good deal of wealth, is unable to raise \$20,000 for its needs, though it has no debt, and all the city property was offered as security, together with the property of twenty of the wealthiest men. The native money is hoarded; this is the statement everybody makes.

One explanation advanced is that the banks are drawing in their notes in preparation for liquidation. The Spanish Bank of Porto Rico has been gradually contracting its paper currency, having withdrawn from circulation almost 50 per cent in the last six months. Formerly it had between two and three millions in circulation. According to its last report, dated January 14, it then had less than \$2,000,000. The insular treasury has a large surplus to its credit—about \$500,000—of which not more than one-twentieth is in pesos. The fact of hoarding is proved by the condition of the Savings Bank of Ponce, which has sufficient in cash, mainly silver, to pay all its deposits.

The continuation of the native money pleases the planters, especially those who raise sugar. They will use it to pay the peons as before, and believe that the labor question will not trouble them, for the present at least. If they had to pay their men in gold what they now pay them in silver, they say that the result would be a heavy loss on the year's crop. They are more concerned than coffee or tobacco growers because they are larger employers.

It remains to be seen, however, whether the laborers will or will not take advantage of the situation to demand that their wages be paid in United States money of the same amount. The peon has heard of the "strike," and, under the freer conditions prevailing since American occupation, may decide to see whether he can not use it to obtain larger wages. He has been receiving from 50 to 75 centavos a day, the higher price being paid for the more important positions in the mills.

The trades are everywhere overcrowded, and there are so many carpenters, masons, bakers, shoemakers, etc., that in some places they do not get more than six months' work a year, and for skilled labor their wages are very low. There is not, however, a surplus of peons, and planters often have to hold out inducements to keep men enough on hand to plow the land, to sow and cultivate the cane, and to harvest and grind it. Skilled workmen in the trades are forming unions or gremios for the advancement of their interests; but the peons do not seem to be ready for organization. They are more independent than the artisan class, for they live in the country, where fruit is plentiful, where fewer clothes suffice, and where they can put up bark houses on the lands of their employers or get them at very low rent.

Some of the coins described in the order fixing the rate of exchange are not known in Porto Rico. There is no medio peso. In the days when United States and Mexican silver coins were in circulation here the half dollar was so designated. When the great depreciation in silver began, these foreign coins disappeared and for some years there have been no 50-centavo pieces in Porto Rico. The peseta was the 25-cent Mexican or United States coin. The colonial 20-cent

pieces are now known as pesetas. The real, valued at 12½ centavos, is an imaginary coin, so far as Porto Rico is concerned. It is like the New York shilling. Even yet old merchants in that State quote prices in shillings, though the coin long since passed out of actual use. The medio real, like the real, is a memory. The silver coins of the island are the peso, the 40, 20, 10, and 5 centavo pieces. As to gold pieces, there are only a very few, if any, in Porto Rico. They have not been used in recent years, except by money changers to sell to those wanting to go to Spain or France. When the Spanish Bank of Porto Rico was founded, alfonsinos formed the basis of its capital. As rapidly as they found their way into circulation they were exported, and gold is seldom or never seen here.

Very respectfully,

HENRY K. CARROLL,
Commissioner.

BANKS AND BANKING.

THE BANKS OF PORTO RICO.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 31, 1899.*

RICARDO NADAL, of Mayaguez:

One difficulty which the coffee planter has labored under here has been the high rate of interest which he has been compelled to pay in order to obtain a loan. This rate has generally run from 1 to 1½ per cent a month, and much of this money loaned has been devoted to the purchase of new lands and the improvement of the machinery and outhouses for the laborers. The Spanish Government has left us what we call the Spanish Bank of Porto Rico, the Agricultural Bank, in the city of San Juan; the Caja-de-Horra, in Ponce, and the savings bank in Mayaguez, which afford very limited facilities to the agricultural classes, and which confine themselves in their transactions to the business community in the island. The Spanish banking law in force allows the free establishment of currency-issuing banks, with the only restriction that such institutions shall be supervised by a governor appointed by the Government, his compensation to be paid by the institution, and that the issue of circulating notes shall not exceed three times the amount of the paid-up capital. And yet, under such an enormous margin of profit, which permits the Spanish Bank, with a paid-up capital of \$150,000, to have in circulation over \$2,000,000 of this paper, the rate of interest still keeps up at 1½ cents a month. What a field for American capital and enterprise!

The banks in Ponce and Mayaguez above referred to ought to have the same right to issue circulating notes under the same general banking law, but owing to the perpetual privilege always enjoyed by the Spanish residents in this island and in violation of the general law the Spanish bank in San Juan has been the only bank allowed to issue such notes. And it should be stated that the institution was established with the stipulation in its charter that its cash capital was to be in Spanish gold, and yet nothing but Mexican silver was deposited as the cash capital of the bank, postponing the rights of the French institution, that was ready to establish a bank with \$2,000,000 in gold specie, only to serve the interests of the privileged class of merchants in San Juan. If this bank had lived up to its charter, the currency of Porto Rico would long ago have been established on a gold basis

and the present trouble would have been avoided. There is a great margin for enterprises of this kind, both as regards banks of issue and trust and loan companies, for the benefit of the agricultural community, if such banks were willing to lend money at a reasonable rate of interest and at long periods, which is a necessary condition for the improvement of present agricultural conditions. I believe the amount of outstanding liabilities covered by mortgage in the island is somewhere near \$45,000,000, which might easily be converted into long-period loans at easier rates of interest, greatly to the benefit both of the American capitalist and the Porto Rican people. The moment we have abundance of capital, easy transportation, and good and substantial laws, necessarily to come from the United States, the future of Porto Rico is assured.

THE AGRICULTURAL AND TERRITORIAL BANK OF PORTO RICO.

By VICENTE ANTONETTI, *manager*.

This bank was founded in September, 1894, on the model of the *Crédit Foncier* of France. Its nominal capital is \$2,400,000, divided into four series of 6,000 shares of \$100 each. Only the first series of shares has been sold, and therefore the bank has realized only the fourth of its nominal capital. This bank has the power to undertake all classes of operation, but principally its business consists in making loans at long terms with guaranties of first mortgages on real estate and emitting hypothecary bonds to represent these mortgages. These bonds are redeemable by yearly drawings, and those put into circulation up to this date have paid an interest of 7 per cent. The bank is careful to have a scrupulous examination made of the values of properties on which it lends money, and only advances up to 40 per cent of their value, so that it may be said that the bonds in circulation represent mortgages on assets which are two and one-half times as much as their face value. If the bank were granted permission to emit thirty times the amount of its paid-in capital of hypothecary bonds, it could circulate bonds to the value of \$18,000,000 on a paid-in capital of \$600,000. This would be done gradually, as loans were effected. Up to the present it has only emitted bonds to the extent of a million dollars, but the fact must be taken into account that shortly after the installation of this bank the Cuban revolution broke out and capitalists of this country retired what small amounts they had and were not content with 7 per cent, which these bonds offered, for which reason a free market was not created, and consequently the business of this establishment was simply paralyzed.

As soon as our bonds shall obtain a favorable market in the United States, this establishment will be able to attend to all the business offered to it which it may consider it convenient to undertake, and it will be a powerful help to the agriculturists of this country. These bonds constitute a security of the first class, and this statement is proven by the fact that, in spite of the crisis which this country has passed through, the payment of the coupons and the redemption of the bonds has not been neglected for one moment, but to its credit it may even be said that the coupons have been paid in three months, before they were due. The Spanish Government, understanding the importance of this institution as an aid to agriculture, and being convinced of the absolute guaranty of its bonds, admitted these bonds

as security for all classes of transactions. The American Government will doubtless confer upon this institution the same favor, allowing these bonds to be deposited as security against the emission of notes. Estimating the present value of the property in Porto Rico at \$100,000,000 (it is really worth much more), the Agricultural Bank can attend to operations to the extent of \$40,000,000.

This establishment is without doubt one of the most important for the future of the island, and therefore the attention of American capitalists should be called to its bonds. As a general rule, the bonds of hypothecary banks rival in value those of the best state bonds.

SAN JUAN, P. R.

NEED OF BANKING FACILITIES.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 31, 1898.*

Dr. CARROLL. What are the special difficulties under which the agriculturists labor now in the island?

Dr. SANTIAGO VEVE, of Fajardo. In the first place, they are almost without means, except a few rich ones, to give impulse to their business. They need more capital, and they are therefore obliged to incur liabilities secured by mortgages, and must pay high rates of interest on the money they borrow.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the minimum rate?

Dr. VEVE. From 7 per cent to 8½ per cent annually. Private money lenders charge sometimes as high as 12, 15, and 18 per cent annually. I know of one mortgage which carries interest at 24 per cent per annum.

Dr. CARROLL. Why is it that capital commands so large a percentage? Is it due to the small amount of currency in the island or is it due to taking capital out of the country to Spain, or to what other possible causes?

Dr. VEVE. The commercial houses here form guilds. Some of them devote their attention to advancing money on sugar estates, some on coffee, and some on cattle ranches, and it is an understood thing between them, more or less, that such and such rates of interest shall be required. Owing to the lack of competition and the small amount of capital available the agriculturists are completely at the mercy of these business houses.

Dr. CARROLL. Would the establishment of banks in most of the cities and larger towns of the island distribute the capital more generally and therefore lower the rate of interest?

Dr. VEVE. Yes, naturally. Because at once there would be established competition. There would be, also, an increase of capital, because such banks would bring in new capital into the country. This would tend to enhance the values of the estates themselves, because a loan secured by a mortgage on the estate would not be so serious an encumbrance, owing to the smaller rate of interest.

Dr. CARROLL. Where a person desires to borrow money is it necessary for him to go to San Juan to get it?

Dr. VEVE. With the exception of two or three towns, in which business houses have established themselves and do a banking business (which houses do not lend money to agriculturists whose credit is not thoroughly established), the people of the island have to go to San Juan, borrow money from the banks or from the merchants, and allow themselves to be bound down by the onerous conditions of these

lenders, who usually lend money at two or three months. Loans of this class are of practically no use to agriculturists, but they take them sometimes to tide them over temporary difficulties.

SAVINGS BANKS.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 28, 1898.*

Dr. CARROLL. I would like to ask you about savings banks. I understand that savings banks issue notes payable at a certain date.

Mr. ARSUAGA, of Sobrinos de Esquiaga. Such a bank exists in Ponce, but it is a private affair and its notes are not obligatory, and they do not circulate outside of the city of Ponce and that neighborhood. The notes issued by this bank are called *sestas*.

There has always been in Ponce a certain amount of antagonism against the Spanish Bank of Porto Rico. They wanted a branch established in Ponce, but the bank did not see its way clear to establish one there, because several merchants were engaged in private banking business and they considered that their interests would not be sufficiently attended to to make it pay. Owing to the feeling engendered by this refusal on the part of the bank to have a branch at Ponce, its notes have not had circulation there.

Dr. CARROLL. What is meant here by hypothecary banks?

Mr. ARSUAGA. It is an agricultural bank here in San Juan, and has employed in its operations from two to two and one-half millions of money.

Dr. CARROLL. What kind of money?

Mr. ARSUAGA. The bank, when it made a loan to an agriculturist, paid half in money and half in *cedulas*, which were hypothecary notes issued by the bank on the security of the mortgage taken from the agriculturist himself. Consequently, an agriculturist borrowing \$20,000 would get \$10,000 in money and \$10,000 in hypothecary notes. These notes he had to sell in the open market at the fluctuating price, which was usually about 90 per cent of their face value, so that on a loan of \$20,000 the agriculturist really receives only \$19,000.

Dr. CARROLL. What are the different kinds of money in circulation in the island?

Mr. ARSUAGA. In addition to the silver, say about \$6,000,000, there are the bank notes issued by the Spanish Bank of Porto Rico, the promissory notes issued by the savings bank, and the *cedulas* issued by the hypothecary banks. The hypothecary *cedulas* of the agricultural bank do not circulate as money, however, and therefore have no effect on the amount of money in circulation. They are simply bonds secured by mortgage on the estate whose owner borrows the money, and they do not pass from hand to hand. These *cedulas* are worth to-day from 80 to 85 per cent of their face value.

Dr. CARROLL. Have there been any abuses in connection with the operation of such banks—any losses suffered by those who have given mortgages?

Mr. ARSUAGA. They opened accounts current with merchants and used the money which was deposited in accounts current by making loans at long periods, and when they were called on to settle their accounts current they could not do so. The bank, however, was in a solvent condition and resumed operations by mortgaging its building, and confidence is beginning to reappear. Its shares are going up again.

MORE BANKING FACILITIES NEEDED.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

ARECIBO, P. R., *January 14, 1899.*

Mr. ADOLF BAHR and Mr. BERNARDO HUICY, members of the municipal council of Arecibo:

Mr. BERNARDO HUICY, councilman: Considering that agriculture is the principal source of our wealth, I think that if free coasting trade is not given at the same time the money question is settled the agricultural interests of the island will be ruined.

The question of roads is a most important one, as there are estates in the center of the island which have to pay as high as 75 or 80 cents a hundredweight over a distance of 20 miles.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that to the railroads or by the railroads?

Mr. HUICY. To the railroads. The agricultural interests are in a very precarious state. Most of them are under mortgage to merchants, who are not satisfied with collecting a heavy rate of interest—at least from 12 to 15 per cent per annum—but stipulate in their mortgages that the owner of the estate shall sell to the money lender his produce at a price which is usually below the market price. It would be very convenient if an American syndicate should come here and take over these mortgages at a lower rate of interest. Their money would be safely invested, because the estates offer ample security, and they could grant longer terms than are being granted by the present money lenders.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the Agricultural Bank at San Juan make such stipulations?

Mr. HUICY. The Agricultural Bank has no real capital that is worth speaking of. If you wish to make a loan through that bank, they don't give you a loan in cash, but require you to take what they call cedulas, which have no fixed market value and have to be sold in the market at such a price that the interest resulting is still higher than that exacted by the money lenders.

I desire to urge the importance of some concession being granted in the entrance of sugar into the United States. If we can not get free entry, we should at least have some rebate made, especially as the sugar industry is the most important one and gives employment to labor from the 1st of January to the 31st of December. The sugar planters manage to exist to-day, owing to the premium on gold, but if they have to pay their labor in gold they will be irretrievably ruined.

THE KIND OF BANKS REQUIRED.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

UTUADO, P. R., *January 17, 1899.*

DON LUCAS AMADEO, planter:

A mere inspection of this country will show you that it is weak in economic forces, principally through want of means of communication. Its productions have not received the development that they should have received, owing to the want of credit establishments. The agriculture of the country dates from the beginning of this century only, although the island has been colonized four hundred years.

Its development took rise from the granting of free commerce, which was denied before. Under the protection of these laws of free commerce there came into the island some foreign and also some Spanish houses to undertake business enterprises. These houses had credits in Europe, with which they were able to assist the agriculturists and aid in the extension of agricultural interests. Owing to the high quality of our sugar, which is superior to the Cuban sugar, the trade of this country had a big impulse and our sugar found in the United States a ready market, as a result of which the country went ahead rapidly.

When the manufacture of sugar came to be better understood in other countries—in Cuba, and the United States itself—our country lost its prestige, and the crisis began coincidently with that period. Since that time our country has lived from one crisis to another, and it has rapidly gone down hill. Latterly, owing to the good intentions of certain people, a few banks have been founded. Of these banks the Spanish Bank of Porto Rico in the last few years has assisted considerably the agriculture of this country. Later the Agricultural Bank, which institution is called upon to play an important part in this country, was established. This bank last named has not had the results that should have been obtained from it. As a bank of agriculture is not really a bank, but an institution which borrows money for the purpose of lending it, and that can only be carried into effect when a perfect financial system exists in the country, and as such a condition did not exist as yet in the country when this bank emitted a certain portion of its cedulas and absorbed the small savings of the country, it has to suspend its operations because there is no more money in which to deal. With the Savings Bank of Ponce, it completes the list of banking institutions in the country.

It is to be understood that this country works with far too small a circulating medium for its needs. It is supposed that \$6,000,000 is the amount of the circulation, but this is not the case, as private hoards and money held in the vaults of the banks amount to more than \$2,000,000, reducing the circulating medium to between three and four million dollars. This scarcity of actual coin has given rise to the barter system, transactions being represented more or less by goods, causing every little agriculturist to establish on his estate a small store so that he can dispense with the need of money. The country has been living in this condition since 1873, when foreign credit was retired from the island, and the natural result is that the small benefit derived by the agriculturist from this system has been growing smaller and more dearly purchased, owing to the fact that the merchants in the chief towns have to take into account the extra risk that they are running in acting as bankers as well as merchants. The low price of sugar has also contributed to the ruinous state of our agriculture.

Dr. CARROLL. May I ask one question at this point? Why is it that the price of Porto Rican sugar has fallen, when Cuba, which produces so large an amount of sugar, has produced almost none during the last few years, owing to the war?

Mr. AMADEO. The sugar crisis is a universal one. Europe has more than supplied the deficiency caused by the Cuban war.

Another circumstance concurrent with the previous one is that a series of bad coffee crops has served to accentuate the crisis. This is attributed to climatic changes which you well know are taking place

all over the globe. Planters, drunk with the success of high prices and large crops of former years, have doubled, trebled, or quadrupled their plantings, but with the result that these estates, four times as large as they previously were, have not given equal results to the small estates.

Dr. CARROLL. The establishment of banks in different parts of the island would bring the borrower and lender together, and would make possible the general use of checks, which would practically increase the circulating medium.

Mr. AMADEO. I consider that the present banking laws of the United States are the reason why money has never been so cheap in the United States as in Europe. These laws curtail the power of the banks to issue money. The banks there are not allowed to operate with a larger amount of money than their actual capital, which is not advantageous.

Dr. CARROLL. There is not the elasticity in the system that there should be, but there are plans to remedy this lack.

Mr. AMADEO. The want of elasticity—you have used the right word—is what causes the frequent failures of the small banks of the United States.

Dr. CARROLL. We have not had many failures. When we have had them, they have been of a disastrous character; but there is no loss to those who hold the notes issued, because they are guaranteed.

Mr. AMADEO. You should modify the system so as to increase elasticity.

Dr. CARROLL. That is the opinion of our financiers in the Treasury Department. More than one has called the attention of Congress to the necessity of it.

Mr. AMADEO. If in the United States they think it necessary to introduce an improvement, where there is great capital and facility for obtaining money, how necessary it is to have a better system here. I think the banks here should be allowed to circulate at least three times the value of their capital.

Dr. CARROLL. Then how would you secure these notes?

Mr. AMADEO. History has never given an instance where it has been necessary to redeem notes to an amount which crippled the banking institution, except in one instance, namely, the Bank of Glasgow, which was ruined through gross mismanagement. That could happen anywhere.

Dr. CARROLL. But in the history of the United States, during and before the civil war, when we had a system of State banks, there were so many failures that it was hardly possible to circulate the notes of any bank outside of the immediate neighborhood of that bank, and every merchant needed to keep a bank-note directory, so that he would know what banks had failed. The people of the United States are very much afraid to go back to anything like that.

Mr. AMADEO. That can hardly be construed as an argument, because it was an unusual time, because State bonds even were an uncertain quantity. Greenbacks were worth nothing and State bonds were worth but little more.

Dr. CARROLL. There were no greenbacks then. They appeared during the war.

Mr. AMADEO. History has shown us that the intervention of the state in banking matters has, except for the purpose of merely protecting the people, met with no beneficial results. These matters ought to be

left to private initiation, with a certain amount of protection and regulation by the Government. This country being one of paupers, I think banks should be allowed to increase their circulation beyond the point at which Federal banks are allowed to go. Before the establishment of the Federal banking system there was more freedom in the banking laws of the United States, and that system proved beneficial to the country. The United States is still in need of banks. It needs Territorial and agricultural banks. There is one just starting in New York. This lends money in the shape of bonds quotable in all the money markets, and such banks ought to be established in all the cities of the Union. That has helped the development of Germany very much. The economic condition of this country is very good, but the financial system is bad. There are immense values in property, but there is little floating money to meet the debts which are owing there. I consider that the Government of the United States ought to work to get a place on the stock exchange for the cedulas which will represent the landed property in Porto Rico, that they make the cedulas a medium of exchange, the same as money, and they would not be subject to much fluctuation.

Dr. CARROLL. That seems to be hardly a matter for the Government, but rather a matter for private enterprise, because the stock exchange has the right to list or not list stocks and bonds as it desires.

Mr. AMADEO. I think there is just where the Government ought to come in. In its beginning it had to assist small States to prosperity, and it should do the same for us by bringing such a proposition to the attention of the proper parties. Before this country was given its autonomy, before the war, I had prepared a financial plan, which was to borrow money on values in the island, and to facilitate the placing of the securities which should represent these values. A portion of them were to be placed with the banks here, so that they could assist the agriculturist, these banks to have their financial representative in New York, just as the French colonial banks have their agents in Paris. These agents could attend to the leasing of these cedulas, and the rest of the loan could be applied to the construction of roads all over the island.

Dr. CARROLL. Both States and municipalities in the United States are accustomed to go into the market to raise money when they need it. Municipalities of the far West bring their bonds to the New York market and get what they can for them, and those bonds are taken notwithstanding the fact that there are few municipalities in the United States that have not already a heavy burden of debt.

Mr. AMADEO. That is all right in the United States, where there is money, but the Territorial Bank requires immediately the loan of \$1,000,000, and where is it going to get it?

Dr. CARROLL. When it becomes a part of the United States, why should it not go into the New York market the same as municipalities or States of the United States go into the market?

Mr. AMADEO. Before that time comes about it will die of hunger.

Dr. CARROLL. I think there is a great deal of vitality in Porto Rico yet.

Mr. AMADEO. Porto Rico, as you say, has considerable vitality, but I will compare it, with the permission of Dr. Cordova here, to a young man who has lost much of his blood and is in a state of paresis. Suppose this were a meeting of Porto Ricans who had got together to raise a loan, we should find the situation would be this: We would

know exactly what we wanted the loan for, but not one of us would be able to say how we were to get the money. The world to-day is only coming to understand the principles of cooperation, and what Porto Rico needs is to bring into cooperation those forces and influences and measures which shall supply the things that are needed for our advancement.

Once having realized the conversion of the money, money conditions being properly regulated, and facility being given to the introduction of capital here, judicial proceedings of foreclosure being suspended for one year so as to enable agriculturists to make use of the capital which would flow into the country, it would even be in order to take certain measures, such as the assistance of the Agricultural Bank. And if the Government should dispose of \$1,000,000, more or less, collected from the custom-house, I do not see any reason why it should not facilitate or assist the Agricultural Bank with its money. If it should do so, the bank would then be able to lend the agriculturists sums of money up to the value of 40 per cent of their estates, and establish in the United States an agent who could attend to the quoting and leasing of their stock.

Dr. CARROLL. Is 40 per cent the limit set?

Mr. AMADEO. Yes; 40 per cent is the rate, and forty years is the time. The Agricultural Bank, with another million dollars of capital, could undertake these operations and could make the cedulas of quotable value in the markets of New York and Europe, and I think that the employment of public money in that direction would do the country at this present moment more good than on roads, because it would fortify the production of the country, and this production would be the basis on which to levy for the construction of roads.

The proceeding that I am advocating now is not in any way a new one. In the United States it has never been made use of, owing to the powerful force of initiative which governs that country; but in Europe, from the democratic Switzerland to the imperial Russia, the governments have created agricultural banks and endowed them with large capital to carry on their business. I also see no reason why the Spanish Bank should not be equally assisted by allowing it to continue its note circulation.

Dr. CARROLL. Would you continue the Spanish Bank as a monopoly?

Mr. AMADEO. No; I don't sanction any monopoly for any bank; but it would be a good thing for the country, and until the arrival of new capital if the bank were allowed to emit notes up to the limit which it did previously some relief would be afforded.

Dr. CARROLL. Could it do that without embarrassing confidence in its solvency?

Mr. AMADEO. Up to the present the bank has always attended punctually to the redemption of its notes. The circulation of paper currency does not really depend upon the amount of money it represents. It depends upon the confidence with which the people accept it, and as they have always accepted it up to the present, I see no reason why it should not continue to be accepted with the same confidence. These measures taken together would enable us to tide over present difficulties until new capital should come in; but if it did not come, we would be able to go after it, because we would have something to offer for it. I recommend strongly that these measures be taken, because we are in a state of crisis, and not only so, but on the brink of a destructive liquidation.

AGRICULTURAL BANKS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

UTUADO, P. R., *January 18, 1899.*

Mr. JUSTO A. MANDEZ MARTINEZ and Mr. JUAN VIVO, a delegation from Lares, the former second assistant alcalde of Lares and the latter vice-judge of the same district; both are coffee planters.

Dr. CARROLL. As you perhaps already know, I am visiting the island with the object of investigating the condition of agriculture, of labor, and of the municipalities particularly, and I desire from you, as representatives of Lares, such statements respecting the interests of that city as you may feel inclined to make.

Mr. MARTINEZ. We thank you for your good intentions, and wish first to tell you that our efforts are directed in the interests of agriculture; that we wish for the establishment of agricultural banks. In the next place, for the better working of our municipal governments, we desire the most ample municipal autonomy. We also desire modifications of custom-house duties and the exchange of money.

We wish to emphasize particularly that if agriculture is not assisted and encouraged, agricultural commerce will fall and the arts and industries will suffer. Agriculture is the life of this country. We wish you to understand also that we agriculturists who have our small debts are obliged to give our crops over to the merchants. There is no competition among merchants, and they can put their own price on the crops; whereas we have to take the provisions we consume at the prices demanded by the merchants, as we can not go to the other districts, not having credit there. In that respect also we are at the mercy of the merchants. Therefore we earn almost nothing from our labor. The merchant is the one who makes the profit out of our work. This state of things would be prevented if we had agricultural banks which could take upon themselves the business of lending money to the agriculturists. This would enable the agriculturist to sell his crops when the prices are highest.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you refer to the retail merchants in Lares or to the exporters in the coast cities?

Mr. MARTINEZ. We mean the exporters. If there were banks, we could go and buy where we could get provisions cheapest, and could sell where we could get the best prices. We are completely in the hands of the merchants, and that has brought agriculture to its present state of ruin—to such a state of ruin that suspension of judicial proceedings is necessary.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the planters being pressed by the merchants for their debts, both mortgage and floating?

Mr. MARTINEZ. Yes; and something must be done, because agriculture can not continue under present conditions. To take 1 hundred-weight of codfish to our estate to give to our peons we have to pay 1½ quintals of coffee. How is it possible for the agriculturist to do that—pay 12 per cent per annum interest and pay off what he owes at the same time? If it is within your province, I think you ought to take some steps to suspend judicial proceedings before the agriculturists are brought to complete ruin. Owing to the ruinous state of the agriculturist the working classes are in a state of deprivation, with no hope and no means of subsistence, and the day will come when they will declare themselves in open revolt. I think, if possible, something ought to be done in the way of road building to give them employ-

ment. That would at least give them some little hope of earning a livelihood for the time being.

Dr. CARROLL. If the creditor takes possession of the estate, it will be worth nothing to him unless he works it, and in that case the new owner would give work to the laborers.

Mr. MARTINEZ. Doubtless what you say is correct. A few years ago we were in a better position, owing to the high prices of coffee, but to-day we are utterly helpless to give work to our peons. We have hardly money enough to continue the working of our estates.

Dr. CARROLL. To what is the present low price of coffee due?

Mr. MARTINEZ. One of the reasons is that our largest market, Spain, has declared a heavy duty against us, considering us a foreign nation. We have not a single important market now.

Dr. CARROLL. How about Cuba?

Mr. MARTINEZ. Cuba affects more the tobacco market. We used to send only about 5 per cent of our coffee crop to Cuba, and that the worst grades.

Dr. CARROLL. What duty did Spain formerly charge on importations of coffee from Porto Rico?

Mr. MARTINEZ. I do not know exactly, but it was a very small amount.

Dr. CARROLL. It was very large on sugar.

Mr. MARTINEZ. That was to protect the sugar of Andalusia, in the south of Spain. We pay to-day \$10 per 100 pounds to get our coffee into Spain.

Dr. CARROLL. There is no duty on it in the United States.

Mr. MARTINEZ. Our coffee is not known there. There is no market for it. Within a couple of years we hope they will know it in the United States.

Dr. CARROLL. You ought to endeavor to introduce it there, inasmuch as it is a free market.

BANKS, SAVINGS BANKS, AND FINANCIAL CORPORATIONS.

STATEMENT OF JOSE AMADEO, M. D.

PATILLAS, P. R., *March, 1899.*

A few years ago the efforts of a few thinking men, headed by Julian Blanco, founded the Banco Agrícola, which was favored by the plethora of Mexican silver. The retirement of this and the Cuban war, which induced want of confidence, slowly undermined its usefulness, and latterly the approach of the American fleet completed the work.

The Spaniards, principal owners of the wealth of the country, withdrew their capital from circulation, refused loans which formerly they had proffered, exacted the immediate payment of loans, and thus created a difficulty for the sale of securities which has been highly prejudicial. To this add the fall in the rental value of property, want of assistance in moving the crops, and their consequent loss. We know of a case where, for want of \$300 for cultivation, a landowner lost crops of the value of \$4,000.

And worse still, we are foreseeing the foreclosure of obligations which for want of circulating medium have not been liquidated. To such an extent is there a shortage that in some districts the custom of barter has been had recourse to, as in primitive times.

If no extension is granted, if unfortunately seizures and auction sales become prevalent, many families will be ruined.

As the invasion and change of government are the part cause of the economic disturbance, it is their duty to protect, with their laws and capital, this fertile region of the Tropics.

The Spanish Bank and the Ponce Savings Bank, which only loan at three months, are of little service to farmers, although in their sphere of action they have been of some use.

There is great need, therefore, of facilitating the establishment of banks of emission and savings banks, mutual societies, cooperative and insurance, and other similar corporations, which will assist in the welfare and aggrandizement of the country.

No country can be prosperous without the existence of fiduciary and personal credits, which assist the mobilization of securities and constitute an additional source of wealth for the use of the community.

If Spain had applied a portion of its useless war budget, since its initiation, to the work of assisting the productiveness of this island, her flag would not have suffered such a sad fall.

A million people satisfied with their nationality and with natural defenses are invincible.

POSTAL, TELEGRAPH AND TELEPHONE SERVICE.

THE TELEGRAPH.

There are about 400 miles of lines for telegraphic purposes in the island of Porto Rico. The operators employed by the United States are enlisted men of the Signal Service, under Lieut. Col. William A. Glassford, chief signal officer of the island.

The Morse system of transmission is made use of in place of the less effective system that was employed by the Spanish postal service, which combined the telegraph system with the postal system previous to the occupation of the island by the United States—October 18, 1898. The following is the list of the telegraphic stations in Porto Rico, made in July, 1899:

Adjuntas.	Carolina.	Juana Diaz.	Rio Piedras.
Aguadilla.	Cayey.	Lares.	San German.
Aibonito.	Ciales.	Las Marias.	San Juan.
Arecibo.	Coamo.	Los Banos.	Utua.
Arroyo.	Corozal.	Manati.	Vieques.
Baranquitas.	Fajardo.	Mayaguez.	Yabucoa. ²
Barros.	Fajardo Light. ¹	Naguabo. ³	Yauco.
Bayamon.	Guayama.	Ponce.	
Caguas.	Humacao.	Playa de Ponce.	

At all of the above towns operators from the Signal Corps of the Army are stationed. Commercial business thereat is handled at the rate of 20 cents United States money for 10 words or less, and 2 cents for each additional word over 10; address and signature are included in the count. Commercial business is transmitted by heliograph at the rate of 40 cents for 10 words or less, and 4 cents for each additional word over 10. Telegrams are sent between Fajardo and the

¹ Substation of Fajardo.

² Telephone substation of Humacao.

³ Substation of Humacao.

isle of Vieques by means of the heliograph. The French railway management have petitioned the Government for permission to open its telegraph stations to the public.

CABLE.

The West India Panama Cable Company now has four cables from the island of Porto Rico, one east and one west from both Ponce and San Juan. There are three persons employed at the Ponce office and four in San Juan. There has been a gradual reduction of rates for these cables from \$1.85 a word in January, 1898, to February 15, when the rate became 75 cents a word between San Juan and New York.

The cable company works in connection with the military telegraph lines for inland towns. The apparatus used is the mirror galvanometer. This company own a steamer for repair work, with a crew and working force of 53 men.

THE TELEPHONE.

There are three telephone exchanges in the island of Porto Rico, namely, at Ponce, San Juan, and Mayaguez, and there are but few private telephone lines in use at other places. The exchange at San Juan had in April, 1898, 292 subscribers and employed 9 persons. Rental on telephones for hotels is \$10 per month; for stores, \$6; for private residences, \$4 in native money.

In the Ponce exchange there are 200 subscribers, 8 persons are employed, and the cost per month of telephones is \$6 in town and 50 cents additional for telephones out of town, in native money.

The Mayaguez system comprises about 100 subscribers. The monthly rent for telephones here is \$5 for commercial houses and \$4 for private residences. Five persons are employed.

GOVERNMENT CONTROL OF THE TELEGRAPH.

STATEMENT OF MAYOR EUSTOQUIO TORRES.

GUAYANILLA, P. R., *November 7, 1898.*

"*Comunicaciones.*"—Under this heading are understood postal and telegraph service.

When the United States Government took possession of the island and suppressed several of the stations formerly open to public service, their absence was deeply felt. Owing to the want of good roads, the telegraph has come to be a principal factor in commerce and a means of communication with foreign parts.

It is thought that if this service is given over to a private corporation only the principal towns will be given the use of the wires, many towns, such as this, being left in isolation, as the expense would not cover the maintenance of a station. It would be convenient, therefore, that the Government take charge of this important service in the form established before—that is, in connection with the post-office. In this way, in most of the towns, one employee could easily take charge of both posts and the two services together would produce far more than the cost. Thus public funds would suffer no harm and the entire country would reap the benefit of this necessary institution.

THE POSTAL SERVICE.

Under Spanish rule there were approximately fifty post-offices in the island of Porto Rico. These were combined with the telegraph system of the island, and were under the supervision of an official having the title *administrador general de comunicaciones*, which represented what would be termed postmaster-general. Señor Odaviano de Herrera y Cisneros was the last occupant of this office.

The post-office, now under the supervision of Mr. Elliott, who is also postal agent at Ponce, comprises twenty offices now in operation at chief towns in the island, and in each instance under the management of an American postal agent; but in the larger offices, where there are numbers employed, the native post-office clerks are found working side by side with Americans.

Of the twenty post-offices now in operation there are ten offices which are money-order post-offices. United States postage stamps are sold throughout the island, and the number of post-offices will increase, as new contracts are being perfected daily for carrying the mails. There is a railway postal service, where railroads afford the possibility of such a service, and the insular mails are running very smoothly; but the mail service with the United States was for some months quite irregular. There are all together about fifty persons employed in the postal service of the island of Porto Rico, the several offices being made a part of the city post-office at Washington, D. C., being simply branches of the Washington office. This condition is, however, only temporary, and in time the service in the island will be a regular service distinct from the present dependence upon Washington.

The post-office at the capital, San Juan, was opened and went into full operation at noon of October 19, twenty-four hours after the formal occupation of the island by the United States.

The postal agent having direction at San Juan is H. K. Van Alstyne, who is assisted in his duties by sixteen clerks, a part of whom are native Porto Ricans.

List of post-offices in Porto Rico, April 1, 1899.

Adjuntas.	Comerio.	Las Marias.	Rio Grande.
Aibonito.	Canavanas.	Luquillo.	Rincon.
Arroyo.	Cidra.	Loiza.	San Juan.
Anasco.	Corozal.	Mayaguez.	Santurce.
Aguadilla.	Ceiba.	Morovis.	San Sebastian.
Arecibo.	Dorado.	Manati.	San German.
Aguada.	Fajardo.	Moca.	Salinas.
Aguas Buenas.	Florida.	Maunabo.	San Lorenzo.
Bayamon.	Guayama.	Maricao.	Santa Isabel.
Barceloneta.	Guanica.	Naranjit.	Sabana Grande.
Barros.	Guayanilla.	Naguabo.	Toa Baja.
Barranquitas.	Gurabo.	Penuelas.	Tallaboa.
Cabo Rojo.	Humacao.	Ponce.	Trujillo Alto.
Carolina.	Hatillo.	Playa Naguabo.	Utuado.
Caguas.	Isabela.	Patillas.	Vieques.
Coamo.	Juana Diaz.	Piedras.	Vega Alta.
Cayey.	Juncos.	Punta Santiago.	Vega Baja.
Camuy.	Lajas.	Quebradillas.	Yabucoa.
Ciales.	Lares.	Rio Piedras.	Yauco.

MORE TELEGRAPHIC FACILITIES.

[Statement of Señor DR. GASTANBIDE.]

YAUCO, P. R., *November 10, 1898.*

Postal and telegraph stations should be established in every town and village in the island without exception, and of an official nature, without reference to private lines which may be granted concessions, if it is thought convenient. Frequently one or two telegraph wires are not sufficient to cope with the general service of the island. There should be a tendency to establish telephonic connection between all towns of any importance. To put an end to the abuses which have been the subject of complaint, postal employees should be laborious and honest.

PUBLIC LANDS AND MINES.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 29, 1898.*

Dr. CARBONELL (secretary of the interior). My department has jurisdiction over the granting of concessions and the sale of Crown lands, and I wish to call your attention to the fact that the Spanish Government in December last sold just outside the port here 9,000 square meters of land for \$216—land which is worth \$180,000. Although that title is registered here, it can be set aside. The register who formerly held this office, and who held it at the time this land was sold, has gone to Spain, taking with him a fortune of \$200,000.

Dr. CARROLL. Did he have control of the selling of the property?

Dr. CARBONELL. He registered the property wrongly and in contravention of existing laws.

Dr. CARROLL. Why was the property sold for such an extremely small amount? Was some official of the Government a beneficiary?

Dr. CARBONELL. The property was put up at public auction, but no one knew anything about the auction but the man who bought it in, and that was a business between the purchaser and the intendencia.

Dr. CARROLL. He must have paid more for it privately.

Dr. CARBONELL. Yes; doubtless he did. According to the Spanish law sales of public property can not be had without the approval of the board of military engineers, and that was not obtained, for which reason the deed of the property so sold can be set aside and the United States take possession of the land in question.

Dr. CARROLL. Were these lands previously rented by the Government?

Dr. CARBONELL. No.

Dr. CARROLL. The Government got no income from them?

Dr. CARBONELL. I do not know as to that.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you know how much of Crown lands remain?

Dr. CARBONELL. That is a question impossible to answer, and made impossible by the express act of the retiring Government. There existed archives relating to the whole of the public lands, and these had indexes, but since the Spaniards have gone the indexes have disappeared.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the Government own the mines of the island?

Dr. CARBONELL. Yes; the State is the owner of the mines.

Dr. CARROLL. Does it rent them?

Dr. CARBONELL. It cedes them to a person, and reserves so much per ton of the ore. Placer mining is free for any person who desires to work such mines.

Dr. CARROLL. Has a general survey been made of the mineral resources under the direction of the Government?

Dr. CARBONELL. It has been completely abandoned; it is not even known whether there exists gypsum ore.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there deposits of coal in the island?

Dr. CARBONELL. There is a very inferior class of lignites.

Dr. CARROLL. There are plenty of stone quarries?

Dr. CARBONELL. Yes; even marble. Native copper has been discovered in a free state; also silver.

Dr. CARROLL. Then it is hardly known what the mountains really contain?

Dr. CARBONELL. No. It is the opinion of an intelligent geologist here that by following the River Luquillo you would arrive at the vein which naturalists say must exist before there can be washings.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it the law here in the island that where minerals are found, whether under a man's house or elsewhere, they belong to the State?

Dr. CARBONELL. The owner of the land has a right only to its superficial soil.

Dr. CARROLL. Then, if there are large mineral resources, they might be developed and thereby greatly increase the revenues of the island?

Dr. CARBONELL. There is a very rich phosphate of lime deposit. At one time these deposits were worked and the product sent to Germany. They took it chiefly from the Mona Island, but even in this island there are very important deposits.

MINERAL RESOURCES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 2, 1898.*

Mr. FRANCISCO T. SABAT, deputy collector of customs at San Juan:

Mr. SABAT. In the district of Cabo Rojo are saline deposits, both natural and artificial. By artificial I mean that in some cases the ebb of the sea water has been obstructed and the salt deposited by evaporation. These are the property of the company which acquired them from the Spanish Government and which now works them.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any coal produced in the island?

Mr. SABAT. A vein of coal of a poor quality has been discovered, samples of which are in the engineers' museum here, if they have not been taken away by the Spaniards. There are copper mines in Naguabo, iron mines on the top of Yunque Mountains, which have not been worked because, apparently, the product is not a desirable one from a commercial point of view. There is also placer mining in the river Corozal and in Luquillo. The mines in Luquillo were worked under Isabel II and Maria Christina of Spain, but the parties to whom the concession was made abandoned the mines because they got very little gold out of them.

Dr. CARROLL. What coal is used here?

Mr. SABAT. The coal used here is brought from Philadelphia and Cardiff. It is bituminous coal.

Dr. CARROLL. What does it cost in the market here?

Mr. SABAT. I do not know, but just before the war it went up to \$15 a ton. Only charcoal is used in private houses.

Official list of mines in Puerto Rico.

[Prepared for Harry K. Carroll, commissioner, by Señor Cruz Castro, director of agriculture.]

Name of mine.	Acres.	Mineral.	Barrio or ward.	Municipal district.	Proprietors.	State of mine.	State of titles.
Consuelo.....	55, 560	Salt.	Pedernales	Cabo Rojo	Narciso Llauri.	Being worked	Lapsed.
Maria.....	1, 804	do	Guánica	Yauco.	do	do	do.
Tres Hermanas.....	2, 323	do	Marecas	Salinas	Santiago Blanch Playa	do	do.
Parake.....	1, 708	do	Canales	Ponce	Francisco Castilloneña	do	do.
Comunidad.....	1, 627	do	Guánica	Yauco.	Juan Sepulchre	do	do.
Revancha.....	4, 454	do	Los Llanos	Cabo Rojo	Pio Martinez.	do	do.
Carmen.....	2, 219	do	Yeguas	Salinas	Anaceto Caballero.	do	In litigation.
Monerrate.....	1, 879	do	Aguirre	do	do	do	do.
Ponceña.....	1, 922	do	Canales	Ponce	Juan Cortada	do	Lapsed.
Perseverancia.....	3, 843	do	San Antonio	do	Lauri Lloria y Ca.	do	do.
Caborrojeña.....	18, 226	do	Boqueron	Cabo Rojo	Alberto Peto.	do	do.
Carmelita.....	3, 504	do	Guánica	Yauco.	Engenio Guenard	do	do.
San Pedro.....	270	Calcareous phosphate.	Las Cuevas	Trujillo Alto	Jalán Billao.	do	do.
San Juan.....	276	do	do	do	Jorge Hasi	do	do.
Maria.....	243	do	Pueblo Viejo	Bayamon	Ramon Misan	do	In litigation.
Rosario.....	278	do	Boqueron	San German	do	do	do.
Portuna.....	148	do	Monte Grande	Cabo Rojo	Alfredo Colado.	do	do.
Buenavista.....	148	do	Llanos Tuas	do	do	do	do.
Bracero.....	148	do	do	San German	do	do	do.
La Ceiba.....	206	do	Las Arriba	do	do	do	do.
Catalina.....	236	do	do	Isleña (Caja de Mertos.	do	do	do.
Carmela.....	246	do	do	do	do	do	do.
Monerrate.....	256	do	do	do	do	do	do.
Tala.....	264	do	do	do	do	do	do.
Rosario.....	266	do	do	do	do	do	do.
Maria.....	266	do	do	do	do	do	do.
Linda.....	266	do	do	do	do	do	do.
Florida.....	266	do	do	do	do	do	do.
Puntilla.....	148	do	do	do	do	do	do.
San Luis.....	148	do	Arenales Bajos	Isabela	Felipe Alfaro	do	Lapsed.
Asaripana.....	148	do	do	do	Fulgencio Garcia	do	do.
Casualidad.....	148	do	Las Boquillas	Manati	Miguel Arsuaga	do	do.
Laberinto.....	148	do	Arenales Bajos	Isabela	Felipe Alfaro	do	do.
Isabela.....	148	do	do	do	do	do	do.
Grado.....	148	do	do	do	Joaquin Alarcon	do	do.
Trabajo.....	148	do	do	do	do	do	do.
Confianza.....	148	do	Las Boquillas	Manati	Miguel Arsuaga	do	do.
El Trabajo.....	206	do	Arenales Bajos	Isabela	Joaquin Alarcon	do	do.
Joaquín y San José.....	236	do	San José	Ponce	Jose Sanchez Vides	do	do.
Eloisa.....	62	Iron.	Collores	Piedras	Jose Santisteban Fuenla	do	do.
San Miguel.....	62	do	do	do	Pedro Santisteban Chavarrí	do	do.

[illegible]

Official list of mines in Puerto Rico—Continued.

Name of mine.	Acres.	Mineral.	Barrio or ward.	Municipal district.	Proprietors.	State of mine.	State of titles.
Rosita.....	30	Galena.....	Carmen.....	Guayama.....	Arturo Aponte.....	Not worked	Lapsed.
Esperanza.....	148	Carbonate of lead.....	do.....	San German.....	Estanislao Banksqui.....	do.....	Do.
Mojacasebe.....	94	Artificial salt.....	Bonateron.....	Cabo Rojo.....	Alejandro Colbero.....	do.....	Do.
Monserate.....	141	Chloride of sodium.....	Bosada.....	Salinas.....	Pedro Santisteban Chavarri.....	do.....	Do.
Brigida.....	37	Silver.....	Guzman Arriba.....	Rio Grande.....	Jose Ramon Latimer.....	do.....	Do.
Puerto Rico.....	30	Silver and platinum.....	do.....	Corozal.....	Daniel Hogan.....	do.....	Do.
Washington.....	74	Hard coal.....	do.....	do.....	Antonio Diguowity.....	do.....	Do.
Valentina.....	30	Carbonate of copper.....	Rio.....	Las Piedras.....	Jose Santisteban Fruela.....	do.....	Do.
Enena Suerte.....	148	Bituminous clay.....	Cidral.....	San Sebastian.....	Jose A. Mendez.....	do.....	Do.
Ernestita.....	37	Silver and gold.....	Rio Blanco.....	Naguabo.....	Argueso y Miner.....	do.....	Do.

SAN JUAN, June 29, 1899.

MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT.

MUNICIPAL DISTRICTS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 28, 1898.*

Mr. MANUEL F. ROSSY, lawyer:

Dr. CARROLL. Do the districts here correspond to counties in the United States?

Mr. ROSSY. No; a municipal district, as it is called here, consists of a certain portion of territory in which there is included a certain number of houses; that is the base of the municipality. There are 70 municipal districts in Porto Rico—the largest of about 56,000 inhabitants and the smallest of about 4,000. These districts are quite distinct from what are called the judicial districts of which there are, I think, 11. Each of the 70 municipal districts has its municipal government, and these as a whole are subject to the provincial deputation.

Besides the division of the island into municipal and judicial districts, it is also divided into 7 military districts, which are: San Juan, Arecibo, Aguadilla, Mayaguez, Ponce, Guayama, and Humacao, at the head of each of which there was a military commander.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the composition of the municipal government?

Mr. ROSSY. The actual state of affairs in municipal and provincial government is the old one. They did not have time to get down to that before the war broke out. They had elections in February and March and war broke out in April, and municipal government remained as it was under the old régime.

Dr. CARROLL. What was the former municipal government?

Mr. ROSSY. The old system, which is at present in force, has a municipal council elected by all persons residing in the municipality, and is composed of members called councilors, varying in number from 9 to 24, according to the importance of the municipality. Once elected, they met and named their mayor, unless the Governor-General should wish to name the mayor, which he could do, but the person so named by him had to be one of the councilors.

Dr. CARROLL. What was the term of the councilors and mayors?

Mr. ROSSY. The councilors remained in office four years, half of them being replaced every two years. The mayor held office for two years.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the mayor intrusted with large powers?

Mr. ROSSY. Mayors had a twofold official character. As delegates of the Governor-General they received orders in regard to political government; as heads of the municipalities they executed the mandates of the councilors and had by virtue of their office certain powers over priests, vigilantes, and other matters of a purely local character, which they exercised at discretion.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the highways controlled by the municipal government or by the provincial?

Mr. ROSSY. Roads are divided into two classes—one class called municipal roads and streets, and the other called provincial roads. The former are those within the immediate limits of the municipality, and provincial roads are those which connect the municipalities. Provincial roads are under the jurisdiction of the provincial government.

Dr. CARROLL. Can you inform me in regard to the schools of the municipalities?

Mr. ROSSY. The schools are governed under a law promulgated by one of the captains-general, and also by the school law of the new autonomous government. It is a provincial matter. The naming of teachers is under the immediate jurisdiction of the secretary of fomento. In respect to financial matters, such as payment of salaries, repairs of school buildings, etc., the schools depend upon the municipality.

Dr. CARROLL. Do the mayors direct the municipal police, municipal fire department, and similar municipal matters?

Mr. ROSSY. They have charge of the police. There are further boards, called local boards, whose duties include the inspection of schools and education generally. They are named by the mayors of each municipality.

Dr. CARROLL. Who prescribes the text-books?

Mr. ROSSY. Formerly they were prescribed by the governor-general, but they are now prescribed by the secretary of fomento.

Dr. CARROLL. Have the mayors also powers of magistrates to hear and determine cases of any kind?

Mr. ROSSY. Absolutely none.

THE TAKING OF THE CENSUS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 1, 1898.*

Dr. FRANCISCO DEL VALLE, mayor of San Juan:

Dr. CARROLL. How was the general census of the island taken for the year 1897?

Dr. DEL VALLE. The census was taken in December of that year, in the following way: Printed statements were sent to each person containing instructions as to how to fill out the census blanks, but a great many people in the interior did not understand these blanks and had no one to show them, besides which the native peasant always has had the idea that anything in the shape of printed paper from the Government meant additional taxes. Most of them try in their returns to diminish the number of persons in their family, hoping thus to diminish the anticipated tax. I hand you now a note as to the number of inhabitants of this city in the years 1846, 1857, 1860, 1877, 1888, and 1897, and also a description thereof. Also a note as to the inhabitants of the various departments, as taken the 22d of March, 1888.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any schools or asylums for deaf and blind persons here?

Dr. DEL VALLE. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any native insurance companies?

Dr. DEL VALLE. There was a native life insurance company, run on the assessment plan, but after being in existence for a short time it failed.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any fire insurance company?

Dr. DEL VALLE. Only foreign companies—English and American.

Dr. CARROLL. Do people generally take out insurance on their buildings?

Dr. DEL VALLE. A good many do, but not so many as in the country districts, because here the buildings are all brick, and in the country they are of wood.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you often have serious fires in the city?

Dr. DEL VALLE. As a general rule fires here are much less common than in other cities of the island. Those which have taken place have been usually in the neighborhood of the warehouses. There was one a short time ago in a warehouse in Tetuan street.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any asylums or almshouses or other provisions made for the poor of the city?

Dr. DEL VALLE. There is one, the expense of which was borne by the municipality, for poor of both sexes, situated in Puerto de la Tierra, and also one situated in the same suburb supported by a religious order called the Sisters of the Poor.

Dr. CARROLL. About how many inmates are there?

Dr. DEL VALLE. From 90 to 100.

Dr. CARROLL. Are orphaned children cared for by religious orders?

Dr. DEL VALLE. There is only one building of that description, called the Beneficiencia, which is a provincial building for the whole island. Other buildings of that class are absolutely necessary to take charge of children who are on the road to prostitution and perdition because they are absolutely abandoned.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that the only one in the island?

Dr. DEL VALLE. It is the only one. There is an institution conducted by the society called San Ildefonso, but they take in only about 25. That is in San Juan.

Dr. CARROLL. Have the results of the census been tabulated?

Dr. DEL VALLE. No; they have not.

Dr. CARROLL. Under whose direction was the census conducted?

Dr. DEL VALLE. There was a very complicated arrangement. There was a central board formed, a provincial board, and a departmental board, each to look after its own work, but the work was interrupted by the war.

Dr. CARROLL. Under whose direction is the census?

Dr. DEL VALLE. The Secretary of Government.

Dr. CARROLL. What about the morality of the city of San Juan.

Dr. DEL VALLE. As to that, this city must be considered as a large place in proportion to the other towns of the island. There is a fair amount of prostitution, but with regard to other vices not so large as might be expected. There is much drunkenness here, though; there is a good deal of vagabondage, and, as I suggested before, a great abandonment of children. Only to-day the police in their rounds have picked up quite a number of children, who, when asked where they sleep, answered, "In any doorway we can find." When asked what they eat, said, "Whatever we can get hold of."

Dr. CARROLL. What are the causes of the abandonment of children?

Dr. DEL VALLE. They are usually illegitimate children, and when the mother dies they are left without a roof. They sometimes beg of a neighbor to take them in, and sleep wherever they can find a corner; but just as frequently they have no other shelter than what they can find, and as there are no asylums besides the one mentioned, these children are rapidly becoming criminals.

Dr. CARROLL. Do parents abandon their children?

Dr. DEL VALLE. Not in the sense that they cast them out, but they do in the sense that they don't educate them or care much for their development.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they not love their children?

Dr. DEL VALLE. Yes; even to the extent of allowing them to misbehave with impunity.

Dr. CARROLL. Then, is not the abandonment of which you speak due more to their ignorance than to any other cause?

Dr. DEL VALLE. Yes; that is the cause.

TOO MANY MUNICIPALITIES.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 2, 1898.*

ANDRES CROSAS, merchant:

Mr. CROSAS. The island of Porto Rico, small in size, has seventy-two cities or municipalities, and every municipality has a mayor, secretary, and common council. It is a terrible expense to the island to sustain this common council in every village. We can not stand it. The result of it is that taxes are very heavy indeed. These municipalities are patterned after those of Spain. In some of the smallest of them they have eight or nine persons in the council, which costs small villages like Dorado from \$14,000 to \$18,000 a year. I see that in the States they are divided into counties, and in the more central villages you have the different authorities to attend to justice; but this island, being small, is divided into seven military districts, and at the centrally located town, or town of most importance, we should have the seat of the court. About fifteen mayors would be sufficient for the whole island, instead of seventy-two, as we have now. I think that these departments, which are equivalent to counties, would be sufficient. There is a ridge of mountains running through the center of the island from east to west, and I think it might be divided in such a way that the northern part should be divided into so many central places, and then it would not be necessary for people to go over the mountains. That would be convenient, in my estimation. The present division into departments does not take into account counties at all. Sometimes they stretch over the counties.

There are many buildings which belong to the province, and of course in the municipalities there are buildings which are municipal property; but this evacuation commission that has met here has had no one to inform it properly regarding the properties and to whom they belong. In fact, the public does not know what has taken place. It has been as closed as the door of a lodge within the commission. It is feared that the Spanish commissioners have made it appear that certain property belonging to the State, or otherwise, was national property. For instance, there is a military hospital that was a donation by a Good Rule we had here to the municipality, and the municipality kept it out. When they thought fit, the military pounced on it, took it away from the municipality, and then extended it. But the original land belonged to the municipality. In the same way, there is a hospital next to the palace Santa Catalina, called the Concepcion. That is a municipal hospital which was built by donations from the citizens here for the purpose of providing medical attention for poor women. I fear that as that building is next to the palace it has been made to appear that it was national property of Spain. That was not the case.

THE AMERICAN PLAN.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

ARECIBO, P. R., *January 14, 1899.*

DR. CARROLL. What are you most interested in? People here speak generally of the matters which most concern themselves.

DR. GUILLERMO CURBELO (physician). The question of general administration. The system here needs to be Americanized, and to do that properly the Spanish centralization system should be abolished. As it is now, the government is embodied in the secretaries, who try, by putting their own people in office, to prepare for the future elections as they did before. Not only alcaldes, but judges and members of the municipal councils are named by the secretaries of the government. Even school teachers are appointed by them, and cases are common in which those possessing influence have gone to the capital, and by bringing that influence to bear on the secretaries, or the friends of the secretaries, have secured positions which they were in no way competent to hold.

Another point is that we should be granted municipal autonomy as you have it in the United States.

Another matter is that of the police, who are appointed by the mayor and not by the judicial body, as in other countries. As the police are friendly with everybody and know everybody, they are not able to comply with their duties. I think that the military authorities should give us a military police administration and teach the people to obey the laws, as the Spanish system of "He who has money is able to do what he likes" is apparently in force, and will likely continue in force for some time. Naturally they should try to get policemen who can speak Spanish, or, if sufficient Americans who speak Spanish can not be had, put some natives on the police force.

Another reform is needed in the management of the office of the escribanos. Things go on in their offices pretty much as these functionaries want them to. One man, for example, wounds another in an unlawful attack upon him, the wound is perhaps cured in four or five days, still the intention of harm is there, but if the aggressor stands well with the escribano of the court and makes his position firmer by a little "greasing," he can get out. The escribanos all over the island are a lot of bandits.

DR. CARROLL. How do they profit by this system?

DR. CURBELO. For instance, I wound a man and am arrested. I see the escribano, give him a sum of money, and the whole matter is disposed of. Owing to the immense amount of work the judges have to do, they sign a paper without looking at it, depending upon a clerk to present the papers requiring signature. The clerk puts in a paper he wants signed along with fifty or sixty others and the judge signs it without knowing what it is.

The schoolteachers are the same who held under Spanish rule, when it was sufficient to have a recommendation from the Spanish party, without regard to competency, to obtain a position. We are in the same position to-day. The schools are very badly administered. The board of public instruction here, of which Mr. Jauregui is a member, held a public examination recently, and only one school was found to be even passably fair. The children in the other schools seemed to know nothing at all.

DR. CARROLL. Is the trouble due to the teachers?

DR. CURBELO. Yes; they don't trouble themselves about teaching.

Dr. CARROLL. Was it not generally true of the teachers, where they were Porto Ricans at least, that they were very faithful to their duties and sometimes taught for months without receiving any money?

Dr. CURBELO. That happened right through the Spanish administration. The Spanish authorities appointed them for their vote, and having appointed them, seemed to think that that finished their obligation to them. This municipality is bankrupt, the same as other municipalities in the island to-day.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you mean that the municipality is in debt?

Dr. CURBELO. That it is both in debt and without funds. They pretend to make savings, but what they really do is to charge the business interests with heavier taxes in order to give more places to their friends and adherents.

Dr. CARROLL. I understood that there was no insular debt and no municipal debt in the island.

Dr. CURBELO. The municipalities owe salaries to their employees for months back.

Dr. CARROLL. But they have no bonded debts, I suppose?

Dr. CURBELO. This municipality has a contract debt for building an aqueduct. A Spanish engineer said it would cost \$60,000, but they have since found it would cost \$90,000, and are unable to get the balance with which to finish it.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it be a good thing to finish it?

Dr. CURBELO. When that estimate was made the alcalde was one of the partners of the house of Rosas & Co., and is now in Spain. This alcalde, who was in partnership with the engineer of public works, agreed or found it necessary, or pretended to find it necessary, to take the water for the aqueduct from a point which would require a turbine, whereas they could have taken it at a point lower down, where no turbine would have been required. They did that because they had a plan for building an electric plant. They had the town spend \$20,000 for a dam which otherwise they would have had to build for their own account. That was why the work resulted so expensively. They wished to install the electric-light plant at the expense of the city. After they had the waterworks they could produce the electric-light plant for \$8,000. The house of Rosas & Co. here is the sole cause of the poverty of this city. The members of the firm are millionaires. Mr. Figaros is one of the partners, although he gives it to be understood that he has only a power of attorney to manage the business of the firm here. He has a large capital, too, of his own. This house earns more than any other in the island. It has a credit balance each year of between three and four hundred thousand dollars. They have ruined this city by resorting to every means possible to prevent other merchants from going ahead.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they have trouble with their men on the plantations?

Dr. CURBELO. They can do nothing to their men now, but in Spanish times they were the absolute bosses of the whole district. Men did not dare lift their heads to complain. They are very good citizens now and very quiet—oh, very good and quiet!

Dr. CARROLL. What are your reasons for desiring an enlargement of the powers of municipal government?

Dr. CURBELO. For the reason that as these alcaldes at present depend for their positions on the central power, they have to please those in office at the capital, and as they have a number of relatives in all these districts, the mayors have to create offices for them and take them whether they want them or not. Another reason for auton-

only is that the municipalities can not incur certain expenses, while the secretary in San Juan has that power.

Dr. CARROLL. Has the secretary power to inaugurate works without reference to the will and judgment of the municipality itself?

Dr. CURBELO. Yes, practically. He sends the municipality a plan, with his indorsement, to the effect that it would be convenient, and the municipalities always adopt plans sent to them in that way.

Dr. CARROLL. I suppose that the secretary means by such indorsement that it must be done.

Dr. CURBELO. That is the Spanish way of giving an order—that the convenience of the political party requires that you do this and that.

Dr. CARROLL. I notice that the municipalities of Porto Rico are very much extended. For instance, this of Arecibo includes much more than the city proper. There is a larger population outside the city limits and within the municipal district than in the city itself. I want to raise the question whether it would not be in the interest of home rule by the people to divide these municipal districts and have a number of municipalities where there is now but one.

Dr. CURBELO. I think not.

Dr. CARROLL. It is the policy of the United States to encourage the organization of hamlets, towns, and villages, as well as cities, for several reasons. In the first place, in order to give home rule to small aggregations of people; second, to encourage people to take part in their own government, so that they may, by participating in village government, come to have an intelligent understanding of the basal principles of civil government.

Dr. CURBELO. Please allow a question. Do you think that in a country like this, where hardly anyone knows how to read and write, people would be able to govern themselves? And in this municipality there are probably not more than 12 men who know anything about city government.

Dr. CARROLL. That is a difficulty, no doubt, but it is a difficulty not unknown in the United States. There are sections where the people are illiterate, but it does not follow that because a man can not read or write he is not intelligent and has not a large amount of civic virtue.

Dr. CURBELO. That is in the United States, not here among Spanish people.

Dr. CARROLL. I have known members of rural boards of school trustees who were themselves unable to read or write, and yet who were anxious that their children and other children over whom they had supervision should have the largest facilities for acquiring an education and who were public-spirited men.

Dr. CURBELO. They were Americans.

Dr. CARROLL. A third reason for this in the United States is the fact that a group of houses forming a small hamlet will have few public requirements compared with a large collection of houses compactly built in the municipality, and the wants of the villagers will be so few that their officers will be few and their public expenditures will be small, so that their taxes will be extremely light.

Dr. CURBELO. That is all right. The reasons are good, but that is in the United States. Here you can not get the people to live even in little villages, because the estates are large and the people will not come together. Some of them who own little parcels of land, not large enough to get a living out of, yet do not want to go into a village, because, they say, people quarrel when they get together.

Dr. CARROLL. That is also the condition in the United States. In the cases of persons living separately in that way they are formed into townships and have a very simple government, but they all take part in it and are interested in it.

I am not making an argument for such a system here; I am simply trying to set out the advantages it has to American eyes, with a view to getting your opinion as to whether such a system can be introduced in a gradual way into Porto Rico.

Dr. CURBELO. Conditions of life here are not the same as in the United States. There are three classes of property holders here—those who have large estates, those who have only small estates, and those who live on a borrowed piece of land on which they are working, and who, the day they cease to work for the owner of it, take up their household effects and depart. The latter class is the most numerous.

Dr. CARROLL. Then the vast majority of the population of the island consists of the peasant or laboring class?

Dr. CURBELO. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. The middle class here, then, is very small.

Dr. CURBELO. Very small and very poor, and even the people who are called rich are not so in fact. A people numbering a million with a circulating medium of only 5,000,000 pesos can not be other than poor.

Mr. JAUREGUI (druggist). I am in favor of American institutions in every sense of the word. I think that the system of township government you have described is worthy of trial.

Dr. CURBELO. If it were done on the American plan, it would be feasible, but if on the Spanish plan, where everybody wants to create posts, it will end in a fiasco. For instance, in Hornigueros, by a vote of 32 to 2, the municipality was consolidated with that of Mayaguez, which shows that the people there at least do not want to have a separate governmental existence.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it not true that the suddenness with which the people have been set at liberty has led them to wish to exercise it in some way or other, and may not the trial of plans which have worked elsewhere lead to the settling upon some one that would be permanent and satisfactory; that is, to reach permanency through experiments of that kind, just as when a boy is thrown on his own resources he has to try for himself?

Mr. JAUREGUI. Up to the present we have suffered from the mistakes and vices of the Spaniards, but now that we belong to another system, of greater freedom, we think we ought to have that system here. If we have to learn all over again, we will do so, but we can not learn without having the system introduced, and we will learn to walk as the child does, falling down many times, but persistently trying again until it learns to walk.

Dr. CARROLL. I think that every experiment with regard to the management of schools and municipal government that has ever entered into the mind of man has been tried in the United States.

Mr. JAUREGUI. We will have to do the same thing here.

Dr. CURBELO. The first thing to do here is to teach the people to respect the law.

Dr. CARROLL. I am asking the questions which I have put to you, gentlemen, everywhere I go, because as the island is to have a new government it is a question whether it ought to have these other things also, or whether you should have a new insular government

and continue the rest of the system practically as it is. I am asking these questions for light as to the opinions of the people of Porto Rico.

Dr. CURBELO. I have spoken with persons of intelligence here, and find that they understand very little about the American system. I have told them of the American township system in which, when they have not money enough to pay for police, some volunteer to act as police, and when they have not money enough to furnish lights the people put out lights. People here can not understand how a little town can manage for itself. The centralization system of government here is fatal to any aspirations to self-government. I will cite you an instance which will show how accustomed the people are to being bossed. When the Americans arrived an officer sent word to the mayor of one of our towns and said he wanted the use of a hospital, and directed the mayor to clear it out ready for use. The mayor straightway, without raising any objection or making any explanation as to the situation, removed all the patients from the hospital, although some were at the point of death. That would not have happened in the United States.

Dr. CARROLL. When I first came down here it was with the general idea of maintaining things as I found them as much as possible, and, while giving Porto Rico a new form of government, to use the system as far as might be as it now exists; but the more I inquire about it, the deeper I go into the subject, the more does it appear to me that when the government is changed for a new one there should be a pretty thorough change in the system; not, perhaps, a radical change, but the introduction of those features, at least, which the leading men of the island think it worth while to try.

Dr. CURBELO. The island requires a thorough change in its system of government.

MUNICIPAL AUTONOMY.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

UTUADO, P. R., *January 17, 1899.*

Señor R. MARTINEZ, alcalde of Utuado:

Dr. CARROLL. I would like to have something from you as to what measure of municipal autonomy municipalities in the island ought to have.

The ALCALDE. We think that it is of the greatest importance that we should have the right to dispose of our own money, to form our own budgets, and to attend to our own roads, without the intervention of anyone at the capital. It sometimes happens that we have disturbances of the peace, when we find it necessary to appoint ten or twelve extra policemen. To do this we have to prepare a petition and send it to headquarters, and it takes ten or twelve days to get it approved. In the meantime we are unable to suppress a disorder, which, if we could attend to it ourselves, we could vote on the increase of the police force and suppress the disorder at once. We frequently want to make a road—for instance, from here to Ciales. To do so we have to send in a long document, and it takes, perhaps, six months before it is returned, and perhaps it is finally refused. There would be no danger in empowering the ayuntamiento to raise and appropriate money for these municipal needs. Should the ayuntamiento

exceed its powers and attempt to do anything which would prejudice the interests of the taxpayers, they are on the spot and could make their claims, and they would know where to go and get attention if they thought the municipality was going outside of its sphere. Moreover, as the council is composed of the high-rate payers, they would not be apt to do anything which would injure rate payers, as they would be the first to suffer by such an injury. You must also take into account that it is not the municipality that prepares the assessments and budgets. They call everybody in who has an interest in the matter, and they fix the rate between them. I think the whole country would gain considerably by granting municipal autonomy.

Dr. CARROLL. In the United States the cities have self-government, but within certain limits. Their proceedings are usually under charters, which limit their power, for instance, to contract debt. I suppose that such a limitation would be practicable in the island of Porto Rico.

Mr. SIEJO. I think it convenient if such a charter should include the power to borrow money.

Dr. CARROLL. Yes, but within certain limits. Cities in the United States are allowed to borrow a certain per cent of their taxable property.

Mr. SIEJO. They would not want to borrow 2 per cent on the value of the property here.

Dr. CARROLL. Another provision that they have generally in the United States lodges in the hands of the governor power of removal of the mayor of a city when cause is shown therefor on trial before the governor or before a commission.

The ALCALDE. We have that also.

Dr. CARROLL. Sometimes also a veto power is given over the mayor's power of removal of the head of the department of public works or of the fire department or the police department. That is simply to prevent unjust removals for political or other reasons.

The MAYOR. I think it is a good measure. I think there should always be a certain brake in the hands of the governor to prevent acts being taken from personal or political motives to the injury of public officials.

Dr. CARROLL. The subject of municipal autonomy is an important one.

Mr. LUCAS AMADEO. I am a radical in that. I aspire to municipal autonomy as it exists in the United States. The question is hardly discussable. There can be but one side to it. The principle is fundamental.

Dr. CARROLL. There is no doubt in my mind if the people will go to that extent.

Mr. AMADEO. Everything that is fundamentally true in government should be instituted. The people are waiting and are ready to accept anything that has had a trial.

Dr. CARROLL. I understand that the opinion of the island inclines more and more to the adoption of American institutions generally, not including the penal and civil codes, because the people seem to think that with a few changes those may stand; but that in all other matters, including methods of judicial procedure, American institutions should be introduced.

Mr. AMADEO. In what we call substantive laws—that is, laws which declare the rights of people—we have very good codes, but our secondary laws, which govern the administration of the codes, are not in

proper relation to the codes themselves. They do not work out the honest meaning of the codes.

Dr. CARROLL. And are too complex, are they not?

Mr. AMADEO. Yes; and give rise to twisted meanings and bad faith in their operation.

(Note.—Dr. Carroll here explained at length the municipal system of the United States.)

Mr. AMADEO. The system of subdivision of governmental powers, which gives to every community the administration suitable to its position and requirements, is just what I find so admirable in the municipal life of the United States, serving as it does as a school in government, as these different degrees of self-government are participated in by the people.

Dr. CARROLL. You are using the same argument that I used in Arecibo to show them the value of our system, which they seemed to regard as impracticable for this island.

Mr. AMADEO. Everything that is good appears to me to be possible. Only the bad appears impossible. Our commercial code is splendid, but our hypothecary law is bad and errs on the side of too much stringency on the debtor. Speaking of our laws, I have always said that they are founded on a scientific basis, and are, therefore, acceptable; but there is a tremendous hiatus in the police laws. There is no system of police laws covering municipalities. We may say that we live without municipal regulations of any description, and that is a wide field for work, because, as you understand, the police come into daily contact with the people, and the influence of police and police laws over the people is one of very greatest importance. In the organization of the courts there is also great room for improvement. Municipal judges in most of the municipalities are machines of public destruction, instead of being dispensers of justice. They are posts sought for and solicited because of the illegal methods of those holding them; they give larger returns than any business. In the courts of first instance are nests of parasites. The country has suffered from a horde of shysters who live by trying to get property owners into litigation, and this despicable practice has been protected by the ignorance of the judges and their venality. I think that the position of a judge should be made a responsible position, and that could be accomplished in the first place by electing them to office.

Dr. CARROLL. Would you give them long terms?

Mr. AMADEO. To-day the tenure of judges is considered a guaranty of their independence. In England the greatest normality has been obtained in this direction, but the judicial system there is too expensive; there is too much luxury about it. There they have striven to prevent all possible corruption of the judges by giving them salaries which put them beyond want. I think judges should be elected by the people, but not by universal suffrage. I am not a partisan of universal suffrage. Candidates should have their names posted and should be subjected to a prior criticism by the people at large.

Dr. CARROLL. In the United States we have a campaign between the nomination and election.

Mr. AMADEO. In the United States are the judges named by the executive power, or elected?

Dr. CARROLL. In some States they are appointed, and in some others elected. In the Federal courts they are appointed for life or good behavior.

Mr. AMADEO. One thing you have to guard against to-day is atavism.

Judges have inherited Spanish ideas. It is necessary also to pay special attention in order to secure the honest and clear administration of justice, because without that the wealth of the country can not increase. That is the basis of everything. It is also the basis of public dignity.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think that the introduction of the jury system as we have it in the United States would be of advantage here?

Mr. AMADEO. Yes; that is one of my fundamental principles.

Dr. CARROLL. What conditions would you lay down for the exercise of the franchise.

Mr. AMADEO. Those who know how to read and write or who are taxpayers.

REFORMS DESIRED IN LARES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

UTUADO, P. R., *January 18, 1899.*

Mr. JUSTO A. MANDEZ MARTINEZ and Mr. JUAN VIVO, a delegation from Lares, the former second assistant alcalde of Lares and the latter vice-judge of the same district.

Mr. MARTINEZ. We hope the government will supply municipalities with teachers who understand both Spanish and English, so that they will not have to bear the expense of supporting an English teacher.

Dr. CARROLL. It would be difficult to get such teachers at once. It would require time.

Mr. MARTINEZ. In the country there are a great many men who, although they do not hold professors' diplomas, understand both languages, and would be very useful in that way. Although they have no diploma for teaching English, they can teach the language. The general wish is that children who have had no education should be sent to school and should be given an opportunity of learning English at the same time they learn other things.

Dr. CARROLL. Could peons send their children to school if free schools were furnished?

Mr. MARTINEZ. The law should oblige them to do so.

Dr. CARROLL. I understand from statements made by representatives of the laboring classes in Arecibo, that their rate of wages has been so low that they have been compelled to put their children to work at as early an age as 8 years and could not send them to school for that reason.

Mr. MARTINEZ. The people of Lares desire the removal of all employees who belonged to the armed forces of Spain; that is, to the volunteers. We have two very objectionable ones there at present. We also want more economy in the municipal budget. We have too many employees in the municipality and want the number cut down.

Dr. CARROLL. Can you particularize?

Mr. MARTINEZ. The necessary employees are a mayor, a secretary, and a depository of municipal funds. As it is they have a first clerk, second clerk, third clerk, and from sixteen to twenty others, besides the necessary officers I have named. The population of Lares is 22,000 in the whole district. Eight employees is all they can possibly need to carry on the whole municipal business.

Dr. CARROLL. You do not include in that the chief of police and of the fire department?

Mr. MARTINEZ. I only refer to the employees in the office at the alcaidia. I think we have too many policemen, however; we only want about ten or twelve.

Dr. CARROLL. What do you pay the policemen?

Mr. MARTINEZ. We have thirty, to whom we pay \$10,000 a year.

Dr. CARROLL. Has not the city power in itself to reduce the number of policemen?

Mr. MARTINEZ. No; the approval of the central authorities is required.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you want any change in the methods of municipal taxes?

Mr. VIVO. As it is, taxes are unfairly distributed. We would prefer an indirect tax, so that everybody would have to pay according to what he consumed. Some taxpayers are protected to the prejudice of others. They name the board of assessors according to the caprice of the alcalde or boss of the district, and he favors his own friends.

Dr. CARROLL. How many are there in the board of assessors?

Mr. MARTINEZ. Six. I think it would be to the great benefit of the country if all the alcaldes who were named by the Spanish Government were removed and new ones elected by the people. At present the people are more inclined to occupy themselves with politics than with good government, because most of them are opposed to the present alcaldes.

Dr. CARROLL. When do the next elections occur for members of the common councils?

Mr. MARTINEZ. Under the present law they should occur next month.

Dr. CARROLL. General Henry proposes to grant municipal autonomy and allow the councils elected by the people to choose their own alcaldes; and if he does so, then you have the remedy in your own hands.

Mr. MARTINEZ. We fear that if these elections take place things would be so manipulated by the alcaldes that we would remain as we are.

Dr. CARROLL. The thing to do is to organize to carry the elections in the interest of good government.

Mr. MARTINEZ. If the law as it is now is enforced, it is all right; but if elastic, so that offenders will be allowed to escape, we will be in a bad predicament. With regard to notarial fees and fees of the clerks of the courts, I would say that that is another thing that contributes to the ruin of the country.

Dr. CARROLL. Please explain.

Mr. MARTINEZ. Notaries have no tariff, or if they have, do not stick to it in Lares. The other day, on a document involving \$6,000, I had to pay \$200 to have it executed. The notaries will not give receipts for the amounts they are paid; so they always have a legal way of escape.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you only one notary in Lares?

Mr. MARTINEZ. Only one, who acts for two towns.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you made complaint to the government at San Juan in reference to these matters?

Mr. MARTINEZ. No; we have never done so, because when we have made complaint the complaint has never been listened to.

Dr. CARROLL. Could you not make complaint before the judge of first instance?

Mr. MARTINEZ. Up to the present we have never attempted to make a complaint, because it would have been useless to do so.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it not in the power of the court to compel notaries who have taken illegal fees to disgorge?

Mr. MARTINEZ. In bringing an action it would be necessary to prove the amount paid, but the notary does not give a receipt with which this could be done.

Dr. CARROLL. Why not pay in the presence of a witness and take the witness to court?

Mr. MARTINEZ. I think now we will take these matters more into our own hands. Heretofore we have been unable to do so. The plan of the city, showing the lands belonging to it, was lost by accident. Certain rich men there, who are favored by the central government and by the alcalde, have taken possession of considerable property and have closed up all but one of the means of entering the town. It is not possible to prove anything, because they have lost the plan. Other people have asked permission to build houses on municipal land, but as these rich men have built up their houses other people have been refused. In this municipality they give a man two months to build, but in lares they put a wire fence around the lot without building on it, and keep other people from doing so. Here in Utuado, if the lots are not built up within two months, they are passed over to somebody else.

HOW ONE MUNICIPALITY IS CONDUCTED.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

CAMUY, P. R., *January 20, 1899.*

JOSE DE JESUS, owner of agricultural property and owner of a stage line:

Dr. CARROLL. What do you wish to speak about particularly?

Mr. DE JESUS. The question of municipal administration. I wish to speak only for the interest and good of the town. Here, as in all the towns, there are two parties. They are not both represented in the municipality. The result of that is that the persons holding power are not persons to administer big offices in the way they should be administered. No question is ever put up for discussion. Everything is approved unanimously, even when it is prejudicial to local interests. We lack the means for obtaining a state of government which would tend to the progress of municipal affairs. There are too many employees. A town of this size can be well served by an alcalde, a secretary, and a clerk. All the other employees are super-abundant.

Dr. CARROLL. How large is the district?

Mr. DE JESUS. From 11,000 to 12,000. Even in the Spanish times we never had more than three employees, and that was considered a full number, although, as you know, their business methods take a voluminous form of words.

Dr. CARROLL. Has this increase taken place since the American occupation?

Mr. DE JESUS. When the Spanish left. It has not been the direct action of the Americans, but these people were put in as soon as the Americans came. The alcalde has given employment to all his family. Two nephews and a young man who is going to marry a niece, and they have raised the salaries more than 50 per cent. The alcalde

received \$70 before; now he receives more than \$100. His name is Laurentino Estrella. The clerk before earned \$25; now they have two clerks, at \$40 each. The depository of public funds was paid before 5 per cent of the amount collected; they pay him now \$50 a month without reference to what he collects. Before there were two policemen, at \$25; now they have six for the city, earning \$30 or \$40, and they are absolutely useless. They don't serve the town in any way.

Dr. CARROLL. Who is responsible for the increase in the number of employees and salaries?

Mr. DE JESUS. You can not exact responsibility from anybody, because the matter is brought before the municipality and approved with unanimity.

Dr. CARROLL. Is not the consent of the secretary of government necessary?

Mr. DE JESUS. They are approved by him before they are passed. It is by his instigation that those measures are taken. He does not care about the interests of the country, but only of the party which he holds together and increasing the number of places to give to his friends. And we to-day feel the weight of the burden on us, and therefore we complain. He simply lives on his salary and does not care about the sufferings of his countrymen. He does not have to take the plow in his hands as I do. That is all I have to say.

Dr. CARROLL. Are you a member of the council?

Mr. DE JESUS. No. They have been very careful not to admit me to the council. They only take into the council persons who will allow the alcalde to do what he likes.

Dr. CARROLL. Is anything being done here to carry out General Henry's order to tax liquor and tobacco?

Mr. DE JESUS. Yes; and I have to make an observation about it. The order was to cover the deficit caused by the abolition of the consumption tax. There was no consumption tax here. Every expense was covered in the ordinary way. They have raised this liquor and tobacco tax higher than they should have done to cover an old deficit, which was caused by maladministration and, worse than that, speculation. I would be the first to applaud them if they would collect even a larger amount than they required to build schoolhouses, but they have used this power to collect more money to cover some malversations. They do not pay employees in money, but in vales, and they go and collect these vales in the mayor's store. The money earned by employees should be given to them to spend wherever they wish. The alcalde makes it appear that he does it to relieve the misery of the people, but it means a percentage for him. The school-teacher here is paid in vales also.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you know of anyone here who would like to be heard?

Mr. DE JESUS. There are two people who represent the town here. The mayor represents the alcaldia, and I represent the rest of the people. You hear the alcalde and form your own judgment. You can believe according to impressions you form. I have said nothing that I can not prove. I bring no political passion to the discussion of it. I am only a workingman. I am worth from \$15,000 to \$20,000, and I have made it by my own efforts.

NOTE.—A message was sent to the mayor's office advising him that the commissioner was in the town and would be pleased to hear him. The messenger was informed that the mayor was not in town.

BAD MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

AGUADILLA, P. R., *January 21, 1899.*

ADRIAN DEL VALLE. The municipal administration in the island to-day is of the worst description. Towns like this, for example, are in a state of despondency—even worse than that. They form a budget for \$40,000, but there is no way of getting that amount, as the people have not that amount to pay. We wish the power granted us to raise loans. We owe small amounts. For instance, this municipality owes only \$16,000, which is small. We own property sufficient to give good guaranties, and if we could borrow we could give good security and pay off these loans without great effort. Why should we not have the right to borrow money at 6 per cent when they are willing to lend it at that rate in the United States?

Dr. CARROLL. Have not you power to raise a small loan for temporary use?

Dr. CASSELDUC (the mayor). None whatever.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it be likely that if this power were granted some municipalities would overwhelm themselves in debt?

Mr. DEL VALLE. First give the municipality proper power, and then honest and well-wishing men will be brought to the front. With such men there would be no danger. Why should they have 20 individuals to form a council in this city? Ten would be quite sufficient.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there 20 or 24?

Mr. DEL VALLE. There are 20 here. In some places they have 24. By having a less number it would be possible to find men better fitted for the position. The people never make a mistake when they can elect their representatives freely.

Dr. CARROLL. Now, about the roads. That has been mentioned as one of the most important subjects, and it seems to me to be one of importance to Aguadilla. Have you road experts here? Has a careful estimate been made at any time recently as to the making of a good road from here to Lares?

Mr. DEL VALLE. Do you mean a broad road?

Dr. CARROLL. What kind of a road do you want?

Mr. DEL VALLE. A broad road. The last contract let out by bids for making a road was for \$16,000 a kilometer.

Dr. CARROLL. Can a good permanent road be made for that amount?

Dr. CASSELDUC. Yes.

Mr. DEL VALLE. Naturally on that contract the contractor would make a profit. Such contracts are put up at public auction, and the contract is awarded to the person bidding the lowest amount.

Mr. —, secretary of the council; Mr. L. TORREGROSA, a lawyer, and Dr. CASSELDUC, mayor of the city.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you endeavored to carry out the order of General Henry in respect to taxing wholesale liquor and tobacco dealers?

SECRETARY OF THE COUNCIL. We are occupying ourselves now with that question.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any difficulty in imposing the additional taxes proposed?

Mr. TORREGROSA. This municipality will have no difficulty.

Dr. CARROLL. In one or two municipalities they have said that this tax was impracticable. Then you do not find it so here?

Dr. CASSELDUC. No; I think the people will drink and smoke, no matter what the price may be.

Dr. CARROLL. Is this a large district?

Dr. CASSELDUC. There are 13,000 or 14,000 in the entire district, and about 8,000 in the city proper.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think a municipality should include so large a rural territory under its jurisdiction?

Dr. CASSELDUC. Our plan here, I think, resembles much the plan in the United States of dividing up the States into counties.

Mr. TORREGROSA. With regard to the system of public instruction, the centralization system is still in force, just as it used to be. Municipalities have absolutely no initiative in the matter of education. This town formerly supported three schools for males and three for females, and one school in each of the rural districts. All three of the male schools are to-day without teachers. One of them is being attended to by an interim teacher. The ministry of fomento has not taken any resolution on the question of naming teachers for the remaining schools.

Dr. CARROLL. Why is that? Has it not teachers to appoint? Haven't teachers been recommended to it from the municipality?

Mr. TORREGROSA. One of the teachers was taken from here and given a school in San Juan. One of the teachers in Mayaguez changed with another teacher here. But although the one from here went to Mayaguez, the Mayaguez teacher would not come here, as he is a Spaniard.

Dr. CARROLL. How long have these vacancies existed?

Mr. TORREGROSA. Six or seven months at least.

Dr. CARROLL. Were they brought promptly to the attention of the secretary of fomento?

Mr. TORREGROSA. He must have known about it, because he is the person who has charge of the subject. I do not know whether it is a question of saving or simply a case of letting the matter drift that the teachers have not been named. Unfortunately, the town council is composed of nullities who do not know anything about municipal affairs or anything connected with it. Last night they took measures among themselves to get rid of the present alcalde, who is a man of worth. To show you the extent of their ignorance, I will mention an instance. General Henry asked the mayors, when they met him in consultation, as to whether or not they were willing to have kindergartens established in their district. Dr. Casselduc presented the matter to the council, and one of the members said, "We have no gardens here that could be used for any such purpose." The alcalde had to explain to them what it meant.

Dr. CARROLL. Were the members of the council elected or appointed?

Mr. TORREGROSA. You have to understand the politics of the country to be able to comprehend how it is possible to form such a town council. The persons who belong to a certain political party are interested in naming the most ignorant persons, so as to have them as easy tools, and persons of any degree of culture or education have to refrain from taking part in the city government for that reason.

Dr. CARROLL. You need a reform, then, beginning from the top down.

Mr. TORREGROSA. When General Henry called the meeting of delegates, I was one of those who attended, and I asked to have an interview with him. General Henry requested a list of persons who would be suitable for the council, and I made out a list, giving him names of persons of both shades of political opinion.

Dr. CARROLL. General Henry has the matter under consideration,

and he desires to have the council divided politically, both in Aguadilla and elsewhere, but it takes a little time to make such reforms. Practically, at present you have no schools here that amount to anything.

Mr. TORREGROSA. We have none, and what is specially necessary here is a couple of schools taught by lady teachers for our children. We wish to introduce the teaching of the English language in the district, and as soon as the proper persons get into the municipal council that will be the first thing they will do. The municipality can support schools if it wishes to.

Mr. ROBERT SCHNABEL. One thing we want especially is a police force, particularly a country police. The country is full of marauders. After they got tired of burning estates, they commenced assassination and all sorts of mischief. Every now and then these things occur. Some of those who went to the justice to make complaint were not attended to because the greater part of the judges, as well as the mayors, are in complicity with these lawless people, and it is hard to say, but it is true, the chief trouble is politics. Captain Mansfield can confirm this. At Pinas some of these outlaws took charge of an estate and drove off the manager. He applied to the mayor, but the mayor would do nothing. The matter was then brought to the attention of Captain Mansfield, who said the mayor must attend to it and give protection, otherwise he, Captain Mansfield, would consider him an accomplice. You would naturally think that the mayor would have resigned then, but he did not. He yielded to Captain Mansfield and sent the police. This town council is as bad as you can imagine, and they were all put in office by political preference. We applied to General Brooke for protection against attacks of marauders, but he said, "You must defend yourselves," and that was all the consolation we got.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think that there should be a considerable degree of liberty for the cities?

Mr. SCHNABEL. Not at present. The people are not educated sufficiently for that; they have given proof of it. They got autonomy from Spain, and there was fighting all around.

MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT IN MAYAGUEZ.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

MAYAGUEZ, P. R., *January 24, 1899.*

Mr. MANUEL BALSAC, secretary of the council since last May and an employee of the office for twenty-five years, and Mr. St. Laurent, mayor:

Dr. CARROLL. I would like to ask a few questions further regarding the composition of the municipal government. I want to get an idea of the constitution of a municipal government with all its bureaus. Is there a department of wharves or department of the plaza?

Secretary BALSAC. There used to be port works in the city over which the mayor had jurisdiction, as a board of port works, but since that board was dissolved in May there is none, and nobody has jurisdiction at present.

Dr. CARROLL. Do the titular doctors constitute a board or a separate department?

Secretary BALSAC. The three titular doctors do not constitute a separate department, but report individually and directly to the secretary. The two hospitals are under the department of charities. The house of refuge for the poor is also a part of public charities.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the care of prisons also under the municipality?

Secretary BALSAC. There is a prison which is used for the purpose of receiving prisoners from what is called the prison district, comprising several municipal districts. That is managed by a separate board, of which it happens that the mayor is the head.

Dr. CARROLL. Then you have also a municipal jail?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. In the police barracks we have a place of detention, but only for twenty-four hours.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there committees for all these departments?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. The council is divided into six committees, which divide up this among them, with the exception of the district prison, which has a separate committee.

Dr. CARROLL. What are these six committees called?

Secretary BALSAC. The first is the committee of estimates; then the committee of instruction, the committee of public works and adornment, the committee on charities, the committee on health, and the committee of police.

Dr. CARROLL. I notice that there is a park down by the theater. Is that a public park?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. That comes under the committee of public works and adornment. There is another small one behind the custom-house.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it the intention to introduce trees in those parks to afford shade, as is the custom in America?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. We have a project for making this street into a boulevard, planting trees and making broad sidewalks, but have not been able to carry it out for want of funds.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any other city in the island that has a project for a park like that?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. I think Ponce has. If Mayaguez could borrow the money it desires to, we could greatly embellish the city. There is a space beyond the barracks which it is intended to use for a park.

Dr. CARROLL. How many members are there in the council?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. Twenty-three, the mayor making twenty-four.

Dr. CARROLL. How often does the council meet?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. Every Monday at 8 o'clock. If a quorum is not present, a meeting is held on the Wednesday following.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the members of the council here general taxpayers?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. Yes. I should explain in reference to our meetings that on Monday a quorum consists of one-half the number of members plus one, but if we do not get a quorum on Monday and must hold the meeting on Wednesday the quorum is whatever number may be present.

Dr. CARROLL. I would now like to ask your opinion as to what changes are desirable in the matter of municipal administration to make it more effective?

Mr. ST. LAURENT, mayor. Our aspiration is to have an ample municipal autonomy, so that everything relating to local life can be attended to by us without having recourse to the central government. It has been our constant struggle with Spain to decentralize the government. For instance, the municipality of Mayaguez has not the power to name one of its own teachers. We nominate a teacher, but have to send

the name to headquarters. We think there would be no harm in a provision requiring municipalities to notify headquarters of the appointment of a teacher, but not for the purpose of confirmation. I think taxation should be left to the municipal authorities. The custom is now under the Spanish law for the amount to be named at headquarters, and we have to procure that amount whether we are able to or not.

Dr. CARROLL. You mean the state taxes?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. I mean that each municipality should name the amount that it should pay to the state for the state government.

Secretary BALSAC. The municipalities want to have their taxation absolutely free from state control; that the state should support its government by custom-house receipts and should have no right to impose on municipalities, as such, any direct taxation; that the state should collect its taxes independently of municipalities.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it increase the effectiveness of municipal government to divide the municipal districts so that the city of Mayaguez, for instance, should have control simply over the city proper, leaving the rural districts to organize into various forms of rural government—into villages, hamlets, as the case might be?

Secretary BALSAC. Mayaguez has no dependent villages. Outside of the city proper this municipal district consists entirely of agricultural holdings without any aggregations of population.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it not be proper, then, that the agricultural interests should form a rural government of its own, to be known as townships, as in the United States. These township organizations are very simple, and while they have the necessary functions their economy of management is such that a very small rate of taxation is required to meet their expenses.

Mr. ST. LAURENT. How would the city sustain itself?

Dr. CARROLL. By its own inhabitants. By taxes upon the property within its own limits.

Mr. ST. LAURENT. A large number of those living in the country have the advantages of the city. I have my estate in the country, but I live in the city.

Dr. CARROLL. I don't see how that affects the matter. You are an absentee landlord.

Mr. ST. LAURENT. The workingman pays absolutely nothing.

Dr. CARROLL. But there are planters who live on their estates, are there not? Such a division would result in the decrease of the amount these would have to pay, because now they pay for the fire department, for the police department, and for streets, the advantages of which are nothing to them.

Mr. ST. LAURENT. They also pay for the hospital and for the vicinage roads, in the benefits of which they do participate.

Dr. CARROLL. But they can have them for themselves and relieve you of that.

Mr. ST. LAURENT. Later on. It appears to be a good idea, because it is a very just one. The principal thing is to bring these people together into groups.

Dr. CARROLL. In the United States we have rural districts, just as you have, where the houses are 2 miles or more apart, and yet in a township 4 or 5 miles square there will be an aggregation of houses which will form a government of simple form which will look after the roads, after the elections, and after such matters as concern them. It is said that people who have never exercised responsibility are not fit

to exercise responsibility and that they will do very foolish and unwise things; but on the principle that after a child is burned it will avoid the fire such people will learn by their mistakes.

Secretary BALSAC. I consider the idea a very fine one, but I don't see how it can be brought into practice without other improvements being introduced.

Dr. CARROLL. I am not proposing an argument for it with a view to imposing it upon the people of Porto Rico, but I am making the statement I do so that you may fully understand it, as I want to get your judgment as to whether this system, which has been used in the United States, could be introduced gradually into Porto Rico for the benefit and gradual education of the whole people.

Mr. ST. LAURENT. It could be implanted here, with certain modifications, until the people congregate more in the country districts.

Dr. CARROLL. I laid this idea before Don Lucas Amadeo, and he thought it an excellent idea and one which ought to be implanted in some way in Porto Rico. He regarded it as an excellent educational project to instruct people in the manner and ways and principles of civil government.

MAYAGUEZ, P. R., *January 24, 1899.*

DON GENARO CARTAGENA:

Dr. CARROLL. You are president of the department of public works, I understand.

DON CARTAGENA. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. What is included in that department?

DON CARTAGENA. Streets, roads, buildings, and the aqueduct.

Dr. CARROLL. What public buildings have you?

DON CARTAGENA. The alcaldia, the market, theater, slaughter-house, and the plazas.

Dr. CARROLL. Not the custom-house?

DON CARTAGENA. No; nor the office of the captain of the port.

Dr. CARROLL. No public school buildings?

DON CARTAGENA. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Not churches?

DON CARTAGENA. I don't know about that.

Dr. CARROLL. Nor a cemetery?

DON CARTAGENA. Yes; it cost \$14,000, and I suppose it belongs to us, because it was built with money of the municipality.

Dr. CARROLL. Any other public buildings?

DON CARTAGENA. I know of none.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the aqueduct of which you speak?

DON CARTAGENA. It is to bring water to the city; but is in a very bad condition. There are four reservoirs.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the source of the water supply?

DON CARTAGENA. A river about 6 kilometers distant from the city. It is a very small river in the mountains.

Dr. CARROLL. How is the water gotten into the reservoirs? Is there natural descent?

DON CARTAGENA. There is a dam to hold back the water, and that causes it to flow into the reservoir.

Dr. CARROLL. How large are the reservoirs?

DON CARTAGENA. I don't know.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any attempt made to filter the water?

Don CARTAGENA. Up to the present they don't filter the water. We are considering now whether to build more reservoirs or to put in filters.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the water considered reasonably pure?

Don CARTAGENA. Not in the rainy season. Two days after a rain the water gets turbid.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any contamination, so far as you know, of the water supply in the river above?

Don CARTAGENA. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the reservoirs protected from contamination?

Don CARTAGENA. Two are open and two are closed. They take care that they are not contaminated.

Mr. FEDERICO GATELL, a member of the council and of the board of health. It is in a bad condition in this respect, that the water does not bring down any foreign substances other than earthy matters. There are no foreign bodies thrown into the water. The last American engineer who was here spoke of the matter and offered to make free plans for the establishment of a filter, and the municipality offered \$10,000 to carry it through; but he went to Ponce and nothing has since been heard from it. We have no good engineer in our own in the city. We wish to better the condition of the aqueduct. We understand that it is an absolute necessity for the town to have an abundance of pure water.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the streets piped so as to carry water to all the houses?

Mr. GATELL. Yes; but the water supply is not sufficient. When we water the streets the houses have not enough.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the size of the main?

Mr. CARTAGENA. Those that come to the reservoirs are 12 inches in diameter, and the others are 7 and 9. They are iron pipes.

Dr. CARROLL. Is any charge made to the residents for water, or is it free?

Mr. CARTAGENA. Pipes leading from house to house of one-quarter inch cost \$4 a year; a half-inch pipe, \$8, and 1-inch pipe for factories, \$100 a year.

Dr. CARROLL. In the rainy season there is plenty of water, I suppose.

Mr. GATELL. There is never an absolute failure of water.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the dry season?

Mr. CARTAGENA. From now until May. The rest of the year we have plenty of water.

Dr. CARROLL. What other sources are there?

Mr. CARTAGENA. That is one of the questions we want an engineer to study.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any waste of the water during the rainy season?

Mr. CARTAGENA. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Some houses let the water run all the time. It seems to me, if you have no other supply, you might economize by having meters and compelling people to pay by the amount of water that runs through.

Mr. CARTAGENA. All that is under consideration now.

Dr. CARROLL. I suppose it would cost a great deal, though, to put in the meters.

Mr. CARTAGENA. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any sewers in the city?

Mr. CARTAGENA. Very few.

Dr. CARROLL. Where do the sewers empty?

Mr. CARTAGENA. In the river.

Mr. GATELL. I have applied to the municipality for permission to purchase a couple of odorless carts to remove waste matter. Mr. Estenache, of Ponce, wishes to obtain the contract to sewer the city, but as that is a slow and expensive matter, I would like to introduce these carts here to serve in the meantime.

Dr. CARROLL. The question I asked was about the sewerage.

Mr. GATELL. Few houses—for instance, this on the plaza—have made their own sewers, and their pipes discharged in one of the barrios. They have taken them down to a ravine, and everything falls into that.

Dr. CARROLL. I understand that the sewage is exposed. Is anything done to deprive it of its noxious character?

Mr. CARTAGENA. The water from the river washes the matter into the sea.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it communicated to the river?

Mr. CARTAGENA. It is a gulch. It is not a river.

Dr. CARROLL. Of course that is below the water supply?

Mr. CARTAGENA. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any habitations in that neighborhood?

Mr. CARTAGENA. None at all.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the condition of the health of the city?

Mr. GATELL. Very good.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you have any epidemics here?

Mr. CARTAGENA. In the year 1856 we had cholera.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you have yellow fever?

Mr. GATELL. There used to be cases among the Spanish troops.

Dr. CARROLL. You have malarial fevers?

Mr. GATELL. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Does smallpox ever become epidemic here?

Mr. CARTAGENA. Very seldom. Such cases are removed far from the city. They are usually of a mild character.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there much mortality among children?

Mr. GATELL. No. The civil registrar keeps record of the deaths, and causes of deaths, and we will give you last year's record. This year has probably the greatest number of deaths of the century. These records will show also the ages.

Dr. CARROLL. I have asked no questions about the condition of the streets because I can see for myself that they are kept clean. I would now like to ask a few questions more of the president of the board of public works. How much money yearly is expended on the streets and roads of the district?

Mr. CARTAGENA. We have this year \$5,000 for the streets and \$5,000 for the roads which lead to the city, not including vicinage roads. We have only been in control of these matters for a few months.

Dr. CARROLL. What important roads lead out of Mayaguez?

Mr. CARTAGENA. Two roads, one to Aguadilla and one to San German. The macadamizing of the road to Añasco reaches only to the River Añasco. We have nothing to do with that. The State pays for it.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the State roads in fair condition, or do they require much to be done?

Mr. CARTAGENA. They are in fairly good condition.

Dr. CARROLL. I would like to ask some questions of the mayor. What departments are there in the city government of Mayaguez?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. The alcalde's office, the secretary's office—the secretary being the chief clerk—the department of public instruction, municipal taxes department, charities, police, hacienda, cattle brands, public library—perhaps the best in the island—municipal architecture, and the accountant's office. In this office is the depository of municipal funds.

Dr. CARROLL. Then, what is the hacienda?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. The hacienda is for the fixing of the rates and the collection of the taxes. We have an emergency hospital, which comes under public charities; police barracks, which belong to the department of police, and we have three titular doctors. These doctors do not hold meetings, but are called upon when needed. We have also a fire department. The bureau of architecture is under public works. All the city councilors are divided into commissions, and each commissioner undertakes the supervision of his respective work. They serve gratuitously. We have also a general hospital and houses of refuge for the poor.

Mr. RICARDO RIVERA. The laboring class is in a very poor condition, owing chiefly to the poverty of the agriculturist, who is not able to assist him to rise. The country requires assistance, especially in the matter of the money exchange. The agriculturists of my district wish the exchange made at the rate of two for one. We would also like to have the municipalities of Las Marias and Maricao added to the municipal district of Mayaguez.

Dr. CARROLL. Why do you wish to have these municipalities added to Mayaguez?

Mr. RIVERA. Because they are burdened with a horde of employees whose only work consists in collecting their salaries.

Dr. CARROLL. How would it do, instead of annexing these municipalities to Mayaguez, to dethrone these municipalities as such and constitute in their places simple governments by towns or villages, which require very few employees and incur very few expenses? This would be a most economical way of conducting rural government.

Mr. RIVERA. That is just what I would wish to avoid. I believe in centralizing the government, as they have it in Spain. I think they should remove the officers from these small municipalities of Las Marias and Maricao and bring these places under the municipality of Mayaguez. We want this because it would be very much better than any other government, however simple.

Dr. CARROLL. You planters who live in rural districts, assuming that your district were annexed to this, would have to pay for the care of these streets, for the lighting of these streets. You would have to pay for the fire department and for many of these things in the city, the benefits of which you do not enjoy. There are many things necessary in a city which are not needed for scattered houses.

Mr. FAJARDO, of Hormigueros, stated that the people of that town applied to General Henry for an opportunity to hold an election to decide whether they should be annexed to Mayaguez; that the election was conducted under the superintendence of Major Cooper; that it resulted in 198 in favor of annexation and 2 against it; that in the municipality there were 115 who could read and a somewhat larger number who were taxpayers; that the 2 who opposed annexation were the son of the alcalde and the son of the secretary; that the municipality had a large number of employees, and that its expenses amounted to \$12,000 a year.

Mr. MANUEL BADRENA, ex-United States consul at Mayaguez:

Dr. CARROLL. Why is Mayaguez so much more thrifty, with wider streets and finer buildings, than other cities in the island?

Mr. BADRENA. At the time of the exchange of the Mexican money there were many rich men here and we have had good mayors.

Dr. CARROLL. Did the insular government discriminate against Mayaguez in any way because there were few Spanish houses here?

Mr. BADRENA. No.

Dr. CARROLL. They say in Aguadilla that it did there.

Mr. BADRENA. I do not believe it.

Dr. CARROLL. They say they never could get any money for the road to Lares, and that by reason of the failure of the government to take action Arecibo was built up at the expense of Aguadilla.

Mr. BADRENA. That depended on who represented the municipality in the Porto Rican congress. People are very fond of mixing politics with these matters. The Liberals are in power here—in fact, everywhere in the island. They are in power because they know the tricks and can carry the elections. They had to send four deputies to San Juan from this district. These had to be elected on the same day and at the same hour in six different towns. The Radicals were sure that out of the four they would get one or two, but they published the record of the election when they had arrived at the result in these towns. They left the town of Lares to level up the number of votes. When they found the votes were against them, they made up false returns there, so as to make up the difference. That is what we call in Spanish a "political stew."

MUNICIPAL AFFAIRS IN SAN GERMAN

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN GERMAN, P. R., *January 26, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. How long have you been alcalde?

Mr. FELIX ACOSTA (mayor). Seven or eight months. I was the vice-alcalde in the old days. I have virtually been alcalde for a year and a half.

Dr. CARROLL. How many councilmen are there?

Mr. ACOSTA. Twenty-one. The number is not complete, but I have seen in the papers that the others have been named. They are proposed from here and named at the capital.

Dr. CARROLL. Have the ones that have been proposed been appointed?

Mr. ACOSTA. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Have the present councilmen been members very long?

Mr. ACOSTA. A little more than a year.

Dr. CARROLL. Is any attention given in the choice of councilmen to party affiliations?

Mr. ACOSTA. A month ago, in the captain's house (Captain Goldman, United States Army), we called eleven of one party and eleven of another, and this delegation decided to set aside party differences. They took steps for a celebration and we held a big meeting in the theater, in which the whole town celebrated the disappearance of political differences. There are six or seven Liberals, six or seven Radicals, and six or seven of the old Unconditional party forming the present party.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you a good class of people in the council?

Mr. ACOSTA. They try to pick the best men of the city and country districts.

Dr. CARROLL. How many inhabitants are there in the city proper according to the last census?

Mr. ACOSTA. Nearly 5,000.

Dr. CARROLL. How many in the municipal district?

Mr. ACOSTA. About 20,000.

Dr. CARROLL. What are the chief industries?

Mr. ACOSTA. Sugar, some coffee, and tobacco.

Dr. CARROLL. Not much coffee?

Mr. ACOSTA. Small coffee farms only.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the amount of your annual budget in the municipality?

Mr. ACOSTA. It was \$52,000, but we have lowered it about \$10,000, so that it is now approximately \$42,000. It has been lowered by reason of the removal of the consumption tax.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you reduced your expenses any?

Mr. ACOSTA. When I came here there were seven clerks. I have only allowed three to remain. We have reduced expenses.

Dr. CARROLL. Mr. Mayor, you said the budget was formerly \$52,000, but has been reduced to \$42,000.

Mr. ACOSTA. I spoke then offhand. I have the budget here and want to give the exact figures. The total of the budget is \$51,960 for the current year, from which is to be deducted \$4,084 as not applying to the municipality, but to prisons. In all, there has been a reduction of \$10,000, and there is to be a further reduction.

Dr. CARROLL. How much of the total amount is for streets?

Mr. ACOSTA. I will give you the items one by one:

Repairs to the alcaidia and other municipal buildings	\$500
Construction and care of roads, bridges, and cart roads	1,500
Tools for the road	100
Streets, drains, and everything concerning streets	600
Implements for cemetery	15
Police	3,160
Schools:	
Salaries	5,640
Materials	1,174

One gratuity was made by the Spanish Government, which paid for an assistant teacher. There are, in all, 13 teachers and 13 schools.

Dr. CARROLL. How much is spent on the fire department?

Mr. ACOSTA. We have no fire department.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you any charities?

Mr. ACOSTA. We pay \$1,500 in salaries for the services of three titular doctors; \$1,300 for material, such as alms for the poor, medicines, and the sustaining of the poor and the hospitals. The amount is insufficient for these purposes.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you a city hospital?

Mr. ACOSTA. We have to pay for each sick person a half dollar in the hospital here.

Dr. CARROLL. What is meant by this item which appears here as back royal dues of something over \$2,000?

The DEPOSITARY. This is an amount the municipality has been owing for several years to the royal treasury of Spain, and it is being claimed now. The treasury department in San Juan is still trying to make us pay it.

Dr. CARROLL. How was the debt contracted?

The DEPOSITARY. The municipality was obliged in former years to collect the state taxes, and as there was difficulty in collecting them, when the municipality remitted what it had collected the amount fell short of the total assessment, which was charged up against the municipality, although the municipality had no interest in these taxes and derived no benefit from them.

Dr. CARROLL. For what purpose is the secretary of the treasury at San Juan claiming this amount?

The DEPOSITARY. I don't know for what reason, but as he has to approve this he wants the amount paid.

Dr. CARROLL. When was the demand for this first made?

Mr. ACOSTA. Less than two months ago. Mr. Cuebas, of the Mayaguez custom-house, acting under orders from the capital, made the demand.

The DEPOSITARY. When the demand was made for this amount we said that we did not see how we could owe this money, as it was a debt to the royal treasury of Spain. We have received no reply to that.

Dr. CARROLL. And you have not forwarded the money to them?

Mr. ACOSTA. No; most certainly not.

Dr. CARROLL. Does this municipality owe anything to the provincial deputation in addition to this?

Mr. ACOSTA. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the school expenses all paid up to date?

Mr. ACOSTA. We owe only for the current month.

Dr. CARROLL. When was the last contribution paid for the support of the church?

Mr. ACOSTA. We never paid that. It was paid from the insular treasury.

Dr. CARROLL. How were these debts due to the provincial deputation contracted?

Mr. ACOSTA. The amounts that were levied on the municipality were not always covered, and this is the sum of the deficiencies. All the municipalities together owe the deputation, perhaps, \$100,000, but it owns buildings worth, perhaps, \$1,000,000, built from money contributed by the municipalities, so that really the deputation is the debtor.

Dr. CARROLL. I notice that in some years the deaths exceed the births.

Mr. ACOSTA. We had two successive years an epidemic of smallpox and typhoid.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. Not all the births are inscribed.

Mr. ACOSTA. All the marriages are.

Dr. CARROLL. What changes, if any, do you think should be made in the municipal government to make it more effective?

Mr. ACOSTA. Full municipal autonomy; liberty to name our own councilmen and officers.

Dr. CARROLL. I find that that sentiment is unanimous; everywhere they say the same thing.

Mr. ACOSTA. We don't want to have to submit our officers for approval of the central government for everything.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any complaints here about assessments for taxation?

The DEPOSITARY. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you any suggestions to make with regard to the management of prisons?

Mr. ACOSTA. We have asked permission of the central government to put the prisoners at work on the roads.

Dr. CARROLL. Are all prisoners put together in the same prison?

Mr. ACOSTA. Yes; they all go together.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it not possible that those put in for first offenses might be inoculated by older criminals?

Mr. ACOSTA. Very likely that is so; but as we have no other place, we have to put them there.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you any prisoners?

Mr. ACOSTA. Forty-odd.

Dr. CARROLL. For what offenses, principally?

Mr. ACOSTA. Assaults.

Dr. CARROLL. Many for petty thieving?

Mr. ACOSTA. Yes; quite a number.

Dr. CARROLL. None for very serious crimes?

Mr. ACOSTA. That kind does not come here, but to the capital, and there were four who committed murder and have been sent to the capital.

Dr. CARROLL. Are those arrested here for serious offenses imprisoned here until their trial?

Mr. ACOSTA. They remain here until they have been sentenced by the audiencia. When the audiencia sentences them the judges themselves designate the prisons where they are to serve out their sentences.

MUNICIPAL FINANCES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

CABO ROJO, P. R., *January 27, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. Have you anything to say, Mr. Mayor, with reference to municipal government in the island?

The MAYOR. I think it would be preferable to allow the municipalities to act on their own authority and on their own responsibility, without having to depend upon the permission of anybody outside of the city.

(The hearing was interrupted for a few moments, some hats being brought in for examination. The commissioner, desiring to buy one, offered a \$5 bill, which the hat owner was unable to change. On applying to the alcalde, he said that there was not money enough in the city treasury to change that amount.)

Dr. CARROLL. What is the matter, Mr. Mayor, with your city treasury?

The MAYOR. This is one of the towns most punished by the war. We also had an epidemic of smallpox, and had to apply to the insular government for assistance.

Dr. CARROLL. It seems to me that this is not so well kept a town as others I have seen. The streets are not clean, and things are not in good order. Your vicinage road is not as good as others. I should think the city would suffer by leaving these affairs in such a condition.

The MAYOR. It is all due to the want of money. To economize this year it has reduced the amount for street cleaning and everything else relating to good municipal government. Consequently anybody in the mayor's chair has a difficult position to-day.

Dr. CARROLL. It seems to me it would be well to exercise your economy somewhere else and keep your streets in good order, because that indicates thrift, and makes strangers think there is some thrift and some management.

The MAYOR. If I had money, I could put things in good condition. As it is I find myself with folded arms.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you done anything in this city to carry out the spirit of the order of General Henry removing the consumption tax?

The MAYOR. The tax on meat and bread has been already taken off. This city is the one, perhaps, in which meat is sold the cheapest in the island. I think the price of bread will also fall.

Dr. CARROLL. When was the tax taken off?

The MAYOR. On the 5th of this month, when the circular was issued.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you taken any steps to levy additional tax on dealers, wholesale and retail, in liquors and tobacco?

The MAYOR. The adjustment and distribution of the tax is being attended to now.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you anticipate any difficulty in collecting that tax?

The MAYOR. I don't think so. The people of the town are very good. No matter how much they object, they will pay.

Dr. CARROLL. How many retail dealers are there?

The MAYOR. There are fifty-five.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there many wholesale dealers here?

The MAYOR. No; we have dealers who will sell a sack or two of rice, but I don't call that wholesale.

Dr. CARROLL. I refer to liquors.

The MAYOR. Only the cane growers, who sell rum by wholesale. There are eleven dealers in the municipal district of Cabo Rojo. There are thirteen wholesale dealers. There are twenty-two tobacco workers. By tobacco workers I mean to say the men who make the tobacco into rolls for export. They will suffer loss caused by the difference between the internal-revenue tax and the consumption tax of \$4,200.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you reduced your budget?

The MAYOR. The budget was \$29,000; we have reduced it to \$24,000.

Dr. CARROLL. About how many clerks have you here?

The MAYOR. Our office force, in addition to the alcalde, is 1 secretary, 2 clerks, 1 depository of funds, 1 chief of police and 7 policemen, 2 employees to look after the consumption tax, 2 police for the alcaldia, 1 for the municipal judge, 1 clerk for the municipal judge, 1 attendant at the hospital, 1 janitor for the alcaldia, and 1 watchman for the cemetery. We have a poor system of lighting and a poor system of cleaning.

Mr. RAMIREZ. I bring some information in writing.

Mr. PAGAN. I desire to say something to clear up an opinion that might be formed from the document of Mr. Ramirez in reference to salt—that although the poor people used to work the salt mines here, the Government sold the salt mines to the present owners on public sale for \$200,000. It was paid by the present owners.

Dr. CARROLL. How much tax is paid to the municipality and to the insular government by the salt works?

Mr. PAGAN. Up to the present we have enjoyed a right, granted by the Madrid Government, that these mines should be free from

taxes for ten years. This year \$1,500 has been assigned by the municipality; nothing to the insular government. We pay a mining right every year of \$60 to the insular government upon each mining claim.

Dr. CARROLL. How much was paid last year?

Mr. PAGAN. I know that 77 pesos was paid as a municipal tax. This year it will be 1,500 pesos for the municipality.

(The official budget was subsequently produced, which showed that the amount of tax assessed against the salt industries was 1,200 pesos instead of 1,500 pesos, as stated by Mr. Pagan.)

Dr. CARROLL. How many inhabitants are there in the city of Cabo Rojo proper?

The MAYOR. About 3,000; the whole municipality contains 18,000.

Dr. CARROLL. What kind of road is there from here to the port?

The MAYOR. It is a second-class road.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it in as bad condition as the vicinage road out here?

Mr. ORTIZ. It is in a worse condition.

Dr. CARROLL. What would be the use, then, of having a port made of Cabo Rojo if you can not get your products to the port?

The MAYOR. We would undertake that, because the owners of the salt mines would want to get it in good condition.

Dr. CARROLL. How much do you think it would take to put the road in good permanent condition?

The MAYOR. From \$1,000 to \$1,500. It is very short. Possibly it would require \$2,000.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that a municipal or a state road?

The MAYOR. A municipal road, but it is considered as a cart road.

The Spanish Government, however, never took any pains to make it what they called it.

MUNICIPALITIES AND SCHOOLS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

FAJARDO, P. R., *January 31, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. How many members are there in your council?

The MAYOR. Fifteen constituted the council, but there are three vacancies.

Mr. BIRD. I think Fajardo has too many councilors.

Dr. CARROLL. You have municipalities within this municipality, have you not?

The MAYOR. We had, but they asked for annexation and now form but one. Before that they had separate administration.

Dr. CARROLL. They don't have an alcalde now?

The MAYOR. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any other towns in this municipality except Luquillo?

The MAYOR. Ceiba is here, although it is only a small collection of houses.

Dr. CARROLL. Are these towns represented in your council?

The MAYOR. Ceiba had three, and one of them resigned. Luquillo has not at present, but has named one who will probably be accepted.

Dr. CARROLL. About what is the amount of your annual budget?

The MAYOR. Thirty-seven thousand six hundred dollars. We owe a

portion of that, \$2,600, on account of the annexation of Ceiba, which was an old deficit that town had. We paid \$2,600 toward the district prison, which is atrocious; also a back debt of \$900 to \$1,000 to the provincial deputation; we have 15 schools, costing \$7,255; to-day they cost more than \$8,200.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you sufficient accommodation for the children of the municipality?

The MAYOR. If all the children went to school, we would not have.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there room for all who want to go?

The MAYOR. If it were a question of wanting to go to school, not one-tenth part of those who do go would attend school. They are compelled to go. There are many fathers of families who, although they might want to send their children to school, are unable to do so because of the great distance and bad roads. The government should take some steps to bring into the cities, or nearer the cities, these people who are spread over the district, and it would then be easier to compel children to attend.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the schools provided with good teachers?

The MAYOR. According to the old law they are fully up to their requirements, but they do not measure up to modern ideas.

Dr. CARROLL. How much is annually appropriated for the police department?

The MAYOR. Five thousand eight hundred and thirty-four dollars. A portion of this amount will be reduced, as this estimate covers the creation of a rural police which has not been created yet. This item was intended to cover any deficiency caused by the removal of the troops, and as the colonial police are being formed we will be able to reduce this amount. There are now 11 policemen altogether.

Dr. CARROLL. How much of the amount goes to streets?

The MAYOR. Fifty dollars only.

Dr. CARROLL. How much goes to the roads?

The MAYOR. Eight hundred dollars. Bridges and culverts, \$100.

Dr. CARROLL. That is very insufficient, of course, both for streets and roads.

The MAYOR. It is very little and insufficient owing to the fact that this locality is ruined by reason of the sugar crops and everything else failing to bring in the amount they should. We can not collect sufficient money to attend to these things. The most eloquent data that can be given you at this point is that among the three towns of Ceiba, Luquillo, and Fajardo there used to be twenty-five cane mills; to-day there are only twelve. Thirteen have died, and among them the richest in the municipality.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you any state road here?

The MAYOR. Yes; as far as Rio Grande. From Fajardo to Ceiba the road is in quite good condition, but municipalities like Rio Grande never take any care of roads.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you anything to say with regard to municipal government?

The MAYOR. I am satisfied with everything as it is because at the head of affairs in the capital we have men of great talent who know the needs of the country and are inclined to attend to them.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think municipalities should continue as they are, and that it is well to have the government at the capital revise and supervise the acts of all municipalities throughout the island and approve or disapprove as they like?

The MAYOR. I think the municipalities should have their own sphere of action and should be autonomous, and should be accountable for their acts directly to the people of the municipality; but I think the old government in the capital should continue.

Dr. CARROLL. It is not a question of the continuance of the insular government. The question I am trying to get at is the relation of the insular and municipal governments.

The MAYOR. I am in favor of municipalities being able to collect and dispose of their funds as they want. I don't consider that the insular government has any right to impose on them the amount of funds they are to collect, or the number of schools, for instance, that shall be established.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think the municipality should have absolute control over the employment and dismissal of teachers, for example?

The MAYOR. That is my desire and the desire of all my councilors. We want complete power to remove and appoint our employees.

Dr. CARROLL. Then you want a measure of municipal autonomy?

(A recess was here taken until 2 o'clock in the afternoon.)

Mr. ANTONIO BARCELO. As regards municipal autonomy, the insular government has already presented to General Henry a plan of municipal autonomy with which the municipalities would very generally be satisfied. As regards the schools, I don't think the municipalities should have direct intervention, especially as no two municipalities agree exactly as to school systems, and there would be a want of uniformity if they could all do as they pleased in the matter. All expenses occasioned by public instruction should be borne by the state, and not by the municipalities. These are the only two points on which I wish to make comment.

Mr. BARCELO. There are some municipalities here so poor that they would not be able to attend to school matters as they should. I think that by having a central plan by which so many schools have to be provided per so many inhabitants there would be uniformity, and the system would work better.

Dr. VEVA. I am with you completely in your suggestions, when once the Territorial law or other civil law may be granted us. Meanwhile, under the old Spanish laws, which have never been removed, but which with all their drawbacks are still in force, we can do nothing, because the state is in a condition of abject misery. One of the most important and transcendental matters of the island is public instruction. That which we have, and which comes from the old Spanish system, is bad. It never did and never will give good results. This system is to be removed and replaced by another, but as this replacement means the spending of large sums of money and the municipalities, ruined as they are, will not be able to raise those sums, the money will have to be found in some other quarter.

Dr. CARROLL. That is clear enough.

Dr. VEVA. To-day there is no money to be gotten anywhere. It is impossible to collect the \$37,600 to-day which forms the budget of this town. It can only be collected by taking away the people's property.

Dr. CARROLL. I understood that the budget was to be reduced.

The MAYOR. Even with that reduction it will not be possible to collect the amount, though during eight years of my mayoralty I have never had to execute against anyone, but I have had to collect the 2 per cent fine for failure to pay taxes within the time prescribed.

MUNICIPAL AFFAIRS IN VIEQUES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

ISLAND OF VIEQUES, P. R., *January 31, 1899.*

A PLANTER. We used to have a free port here in the time of the Spaniards, because the customs receipts did not pay expenses and the island prospered very much. There is no importing here at all. We buy altogether from San Juan. In this island we have asked for trial by jury, but have been told that it can not be given until it is general throughout Porto Rico. There is very little criminality here.

Dr. CARROLL. You will have to wait until the new government is established. About what is the amount of your budget?

Mr. JACOME. Twenty-one thousand four hundred and twelve dollars.

Dr. CARROLL. The municipality includes the whole island, I presume?

Mr. JACOME. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. How much of that \$21,412 do you spend for police?

Mr. JACOME. One thousand five hundred and sixty dollars.

Dr. CARROLL. How much for schools?

Mr. JACOME. Three thousand nine hundred and eighty dollars. There are six schools.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that all you need?

Mr. WOLFE. They are very poor schools and our system is a very bad one.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any money due the insular government for back taxes?

The SECRETARY. We don't know the amount, because the liquidation committee of the deputation has not given us the balance sheet yet.

Dr. CARROLL. How many members are there in your council?

Mr. JACOME. It is constituted by thirteen, among which are three vacancies. I consider that number excessive.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it difficult to get good men to serve at the council?

Mr. JACOME. Very difficult.

Mr. WOLFE. There are many foreigners here, mostly French and English. We have been obliged to take men who, under the law of the United States, should not sit in the council. Men without capacity.

The SECRETARY. We have two members of the council who can not read or write.

Dr. CARROLL. I understand, then, that it is difficult to get men for the council?

Mr. WOLFE. If they would admit others, we have men here who would serve.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you mean men who are not citizens?

Mr. WOLFE. Yes; but persons who are willing to become citizens.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. We want good schools here and better communication. We get our mail from Humacao. It should come from Fajardo. The mail is brought here in a sailing vessel, and as there is a trade wind between Fajardo and Vieques we always got the mail on time when it came from Fajardo. We want the American system of schools here.

Dr. CARROLL. The way to get things is to continue to make representations.

Dr. CARROLL. How about the health of this place?

Mr. WOLFE. Very good. The troops are all well and regret leaving here.

Mr. MOURAILLE (a rich planter who has been thirty or forty years in the island). We want free trade with the United States. With that the island would be very prosperous. We have nobody here who understands law, and they have to send judges from outside. As to administration, we can settle with ours here.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you a system of registration here?

Mr. MOURAILLE. No; we register at Humacao.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that not very inconvenient for you?

Mr. MOURAILLE. Very inconvenient. We would like to have complete separation from Humacao.

Mr. DUTAL (a druggist). The present system is very inconvenient.

The MAYOR. One of the needs here is municipal autonomy in all questions of administration. We ought to have also a different system of judicial administration here. We find it difficult to get witnesses to go to Humacao, because the expense is considerable, as well as the inconvenience. We ought to have a certain amount of judicial independence here, except in cases of capital crimes. At least, we should be able to dispose of our own minor cases.

Dr. CARROLL. You have your own municipal judge have you not?

The MAYOR. Yes; but his jurisdiction is very limited. He has to inform Humacao of every step he takes, and has to send all prisoners to Humacao.

Dr. CARROLL. Is this a port of entry?

Mr. WOLFE. It is now. It has been such for about a month.

Dr. CARROLL. Have any steps been taken to impose the liquor tax of which General Henry dealt in an order in which a part of the consumption tax was renewed.

The MAYOR. We had it already in our budget before the order came out. When the consumption tax was removed we had nothing with which to make up the deficiency and we have asked permission to tax all prime necessities coming into the island at 5 per cent.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any distilleries here?

Mr. WOLFE. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. How will the planters feel about having internal revenue established here as it is in the States?

Mr. WOLFE. All that is necessary they can support. I don't think it is required, because I think the country can pay its own way if we can get the duty off of sugar.

THE MUNICIPAL BUDGET OF HUMACAO.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

HUMACAO, P. R., February 1, 1899.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the population of the city of Humacao proper?

Mr. JOAQUIN MASFERRER (mayor). Five thousand; the population of the entire district is 15,000.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the amount of your annual budget?

Mr. MASFERRER. Fifty-four thousand dollars this year. The last one was \$60,000.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you have much difficulty in collecting your taxes?

Mr. MASFERRER. Yes, considerable; the situation of all the taxpayers is a rather hard one.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you taken any legal proceedings to collect taxes?

Mr. MASFERRER. Not yet.

Dr. CARROLL. What part of the \$51,000 is set apart for schools?

Mr. MASFERRER. Eight thousand four hundred and seventy dollars, distributed among eleven schools.

Dr. CARROLL. Are these schools fully equipped with teachers?

Mr. MASFERRER. Yes; some of the schools are being taught by interim teachers. This will continue until March, which is the month for the naming of permanent teachers.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the average salary paid each teacher?

Mr. MASFERRER. Five hundred and sixteen dollars.

Dr. CARROLL. Are teachers permitted to collect fees from scholars?

Mr. MASFERRER. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they make any report to the municipality of the amounts collected?

Mr. MASFERRER. No; these amounts are considered to be theirs.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it not be better to give them a sufficient salary and abolish all fees?

Mr. MASFERRER. Very much better.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you have any difficulty here in getting good teachers through the fomento?

Mr. MASFERRER. The present plan for the selection of teachers is a very bad one.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it not be better to allow the secretary of fomento or superintendent of public instruction to lay down the qualifications to be required of those desiring to become teachers, to give proper certificates to persons possessing those qualifications, and then allow each municipality to select its own teachers and dismiss them whenever it found it necessary to do so?

Mr. MASFERRER. Such a plan is what the municipalities desire. They wish to avoid the influence and favoritism of the capital and be able to select the teachers they know are suitable for the needs of the municipalities.

Dr. CARROLL. What amount of the budget is set apart for streets?

Mr. MASFERRER. One thousand dollars.

Dr. CARROLL. How much for roads?

Mr. MASFERRER. Two thousand dollars for three roads.

Dr. CARROLL. That is not a large amount.

Mr. MASFERRER. It is not sufficient even for repairs. We spent more on that little piece of road we passed over between here and the playa.

Dr. CARROLL. Are your streets generally paved?

Mr. MASFERRER. No.

Dr. CARROLL. In the United States, when it is desired to have the streets paved the city proposes to property owners along the line that if they will raise a certain sum by subscription among themselves toward macadamizing the streets, the city will raise the rest. Usually the citizens have to raise in that way only about half the amount, and the system works very well.

Mr. MASFERRER. Persons here on building a house are obliged to put down the sidewalk only the first time; after that they have nothing to do with it; from that time on the municipality has to attend to it.

Dr. CARROLL. In the United States property owners are required

not only to put down the first sidewalk, but to keep the sidewalk in condition, and that relieves the city of considerable expense. If the city is vigilant it secures thoroughly good sidewalks, and it is a just measure.

Mr. MASFERRER. Here there are a great many poor people owning property, and that measure would work great hardship. I tried it in one case and had to give them the material.

Dr. CARROLL. How much is set apart for police?

Mr. MASFERRER. Under the old rule the municipality had only fifteen policemen, but there were twenty orden publicos and eight of the Guardia Civil. But as these bodies have been done away with, the municipality has had to replace them by twenty-five policemen. The amount set apart at present is \$10,000.

Dr. CARROLL. That seems a large sum in proportion to the whole. I presume there are some special reasons for it. Have you had many disorders in this district?

Mr. MASFERRER. Absolutely none.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that due to the vigilance of your police, to the good order of the people, or to what?

Mr. MASFERRER. To the good order of the people. The troops and the people have fraternized, and there has been no disorder of any sort among them. I want to state that this municipality owes \$6,766, to its employees chiefly. For the purpose of raising this amount we were depending on the consumption tax, but this tax having been abolished we have no means of paying this debt.

Dr. CARROLL. But you have now a tax on retail and wholesale dealers in liquors and tobacco.

Mr. MASFERRER. That is not sufficient to recompense.

Dr. CARROLL. Haven't you a great many retail dealers here? There are in all other towns.

Mr. MASFERRER. There are not many here—28 only—and they can not afford to pay more than we already impose. Some will cease to sell because of the new tax. This debt of \$6,766 has nothing to do with the present administration. We are managing to cover our expenses at present by our budget. When I took charge of the office I found only \$2 in the cash box.

Dr. CARROLL. Is any part of this debt owing to the treasury at San Juan?

Mr. MASFERRER. We still owe the provincial deputation \$2,000.

Dr. CARROLL. What is included in this amount of \$6,000 under the head of beneficencia?

Mr. MASFERRER. The salaries of two titular doctors and one student, the subsistence of patients in the hospital, rental of the hospital buildings, and petty expenses, such as laundry, clothing, etc.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you more than one hospital?

Mr. MASFERRER. There is one hospital supported by the municipality and one house of charity supported by private ladies, who are granted a subvention of \$400 by the municipality.

REDUCTION OF EXPENSES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

YABUCOA, P. R., February 2, 1899.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the annual amount of the budget in round numbers?

Mr. MARTORELL (mayor). This year it is \$31,000, but next year we

will reduce it to \$21,000. We found it when we took possession of the alcadia. We had a deficit of about \$5,000 to cover.

Dr. CARROLL. Was that due to the provincial deputation?

Mr. MARTORELL. No; it was on account of back taxes not collected.

Dr. CARROLL. What do you owe to the deputation?

Mr. MARTORELL. Nothing.

Dr. CARROLL. What are the other items of the budget?

Mr. MARTORELL. Beneficencia, \$3,893, which includes pay of doctors, medicines, and supplies for hospital, besides general hospital expenses, and a subvention of \$400 to a charitable society. The amount for police is \$2,976; for public instruction, \$5,033.

Dr. CARROLL. How many schools are there?

Mr. MARTORELL. Eight. All are supplied with teachers, though some of them are interim teachers.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you believe that when the new government is established for Porto Rico the powers of municipalities to govern themselves should be enlarged?

Mr. MARTORELL. I believe in municipal autonomy.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there anything you would like to say in addition to what is contained in the paper you present?

Mr. CINTRON. The question here which is of vital importance is that of exchange of the money.

Dr. CARROLL. That has already been settled.

Mr. CINTRON. According to the rate at which the exchange is fixed will result the prosperity or ruin of the country, owing to the sugar industry.

Dr. CARROLL. The peso will be worth 60 cents, American, under the rate decided upon.

Mr. CINTRON. Does it simply give the Porto Rican currency that value, or does it remove the Porto Rican money?

Dr. CARROLL. That has not been announced.

REDUCTION IN EXPENSES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

ARROYO, P. R., *February 3, 1899.*

A gentleman from Maunabo:

Dr. CARROLL. How large a place is Maunabo?

Mr. ———. A district of 5,000 or 6,000 only. It is one of the smallest municipalities in the island, both as to area and number of inhabitants.

Dr. CARROLL. How many members have you in your council there?

Mr. ———. Twelve, including the mayor.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you get good men to serve in the council?

Mr. ———. We have too many members in our council. They change frequently, and I think they should be reduced to six—seven with the mayor.

Dr. CARROLL. How many barrios are there?

Mr. ———. Six or seven.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it not be well to have one elected from each barrio?

Mr. ———. In some of these barrios of 500 people there is not one person who can read and write. So, naturally, if that system were adopted, you would have a number of men in the council who could not read.

Dr. CARROLL. Would the majority of men selected be fit men?

Mr. ———. I understood you to suggest that there should be one from each.

Dr. CARROLL. That was my suggestion. It seems to me that there must be some intelligent men in the barrios. I have known men in the United States who could not read or write and yet who made excellent public servants.

Mr. ———. Yes, I don't doubt that; and sometimes they are better citizens than those who can read and write.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it your idea that the mayor should be elected by the people and not by the council?

Mr. ———. No; I think that the town should elect the council and the council elect the mayor. I think in these small towns the mayor could be selected for two or three months from among the town councilors and change about and get no salary.

Dr. CARROLL. The experience in the United States is that it is well to put the responsibility on one man; that where you have a council of from six to a dozen men, it is difficult to fix responsibility, whereas if you have a mayor, and give him power, you can hold him responsible. It seems to me that some such system here in Porto Rico would be good for the government of the municipality.

THE MUNICIPAL AFFAIRS OF ARROYO.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

ARROYO, P. R., *February 3, 1899.*

The secretary of the Ayuntamiento of Arroyo produced an official copy of the municipal budget for the current fiscal year for the inspection of the commissioner. It showed the following:

Total budget, \$16,540. For police, \$2,860; for public instruction, \$2,310, distributed among three schools; materials for the hospital and care of the poor, \$2,300; administration expenses of the alcaldia, \$3,720; streets and roads, \$600. The municipality owes nothing to the provincial deputation.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you a prison?

SECRETARY. We have a detention place only. Our prison is at Guayama, and we pay \$800 a year as our contribution to the support of that. We are now making complaint about the amount; we think it exorbitant; we only send five or six prisoners there a year.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you any municipal debt?

SECRETARY. One thousand dollars is owing to employees. Besides, we owe \$2,700 additional to the prison.

Dr. CARROLL. Are you having any difficulty in collecting taxes this year?

FEDERICO E. VIRELLA (vice-alcalde). There are always some bad payers, but we have no special difficulties; we do not have to proceed against anybody.

Dr. CARROLL. Under what title is the public property of Arroyo held? Is it a matter of record in the books of registry?

Mr. VIRELLA. The only property we have is this house; it has not been registered yet, as we have not paid the last installment on it.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it not possible to register property until it is entirely paid for?

Mr. VIRELLA. That depends on the arrangement made at the time of purchase.

(One of the gentlemen present at the hearing refuted this state-

ment, claiming that property could be registered always when purchased, whether paid for in cash or by installments.)

Dr. CARROLL. What guaranty have you that you will get title when all the payments are made?

Mr. VIRELLA. The receipts of payment which we have will constitute a right.

THE MUNICIPAL JUDGE. The municipal judge and the secretary are working without salaries.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. Owing to the fact that they are not paid, we don't get the service we ought to have.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they receive no fees at all?

THE MUNICIPAL JUDGE. Yes; but they do not amount to \$25 a month.

Dr. CARROLL. That ought to be changed.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. An aspiration of Arroyo is to see military government disappear and civil government at once instituted.

Dr. CARROLL. Congress must first enact legislation with regard to the installment of a new civil government for Porto Rico, and Congress will not be able to take action until next winter; but I hope the people of Arroyo and throughout the island will exercise a large degree of patience, assured that General Henry, who is now in command at San Juan, desires only the best interests of the people of Porto Rico and is reforming the laws as rapidly as defects in them are brought to his attention.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. The whole island is satisfied with General Henry. We think he is the right man in the right place.

NOTE.—The last census of Arroyo showed 276 houses and 1,504 inhabitants.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the present method of municipal government entirely satisfactory to the island, or do you think that when the new government shall be inaugurated from Washington, the system of municipal government should be changed somewhat?

Mr. VIRELLA. I think it should be changed; we should have municipal autonomy.

THE MUNICIPAL DISTRICT OF GUAYAMA.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

GUAYAMA, P. R., February 2, 1899.

At the request of the commissioner, Mr. Celestino Dominguez, mayor of Guayama, produced a copy of the municipal budget, which showed the following, among other items:

	Pesos.
Total of the budget.....	59,500
Salaries for management of ayuntamiento:	
Mayor.....	1,300
Secretary.....	1,000
An employee.....	600
2 clerks, at \$300.....	720
1 clerk.....	340
1 clerk.....	180
1 porter.....	240
1 accountant.....	420
1 depositary.....	900
1 clerk attendant.....	90
Total.....	5,790
Municipal police.....	3,600

There are 9 policemen, including officers.

Public instruction:

Salaries	5,360
Materials	3,696
	9,056

There are 10 schools altogether, with an equal number of teachers.

Beneficencia (including 3 titular doctors, 1 student, 1 man in charge of the hospital, 1 veterinary, besides subventions and supplies) 6.950

Streets and roads:

Vicinage roads 1,000

Streets 1,000

For the repair of the church 50

Dr. CARROLL. Are you indebted to the provincial deputation?

Mr. DOMINGUEZ. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Any arrears in royal dues?

Mr. DOMINGUEZ. No; the amount I first gave as the total of the budget will be reduced. Several items have been removed which will reduce it.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you a new budget formed?

Mr. DOMINGUEZ. No.

Dr. CARROLL. What will the amount be for the year as reduced?

Mr. DOMINGUEZ. For 1898-99, from July to June, \$51,272. During the war the Spanish soldiers were quartered here to a considerable extent; and as they had no money, the municipality had to attend to their needs, which cost us about \$100 a day.

Dr. CARROLL. I suppose the \$1,000 spent on roads hardly represents your needs.

The DEPOSITARY. This municipality has to take care of only 8 kilometers of road, which are in perfect condition. The others are state roads. We have plenty of rural roads, but they are not in very good condition.

Dr. CARROLL. How is it with the hospital? Is the city hospital under the control entirely of the municipality, or is it managed by the church in part, as in some other cities?

Mr. DOMINGUEZ. It is entirely under civil control.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it in good condition?

Mr. DOMINGUEZ. It is in fair condition; it is a wooden building, large enough to take care of the people of the town. We have a project for a new hospital. A gentleman left \$14,000 for a hospital, but he left the money to his wife for her life, and when she dies we will use the money for that purpose.

Dr. CARROLL. In San Juan I was told there were only two civil hospitals in all the island, but I find that nearly every town has one. Guayama, I believe, is the seat of the judicial district, and you have the district jail here?

Mr. DOMINGUEZ. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. How many prisoners are there in it?

Mr. DOMINGUEZ. Forty-nine or fifty. The largest number we have had is 80.

Dr. CARROLL. How many of these are serving out sentences and how many are detained awaiting trial?

Mr. DOMINGUEZ. Twenty-five are serving out sentences, and the rest are awaiting trial.

Dr. CARROLL. At Arroyo to-day the municipal authorities made a complaint about the amount assessed for the care of this prison; that, although they have on an average only four or five prisoners here, they are assessed about \$800.

Mr. DOMINGUEZ. You must not believe that. That figures in their budget, but they haven't paid for several years. When the estimate for the prison is formed, they call all the alcaldes from the different towns which have to contribute, and they agree as to what each shall pay, and when they go home they go home satisfied with the amount assessed. They have been granted delay, and two representatives came up from Arroyo yesterday to ask a further stay of five years. They collect the tax for it, but it filters through their fingers somehow. What brought those gentlemen here yesterday was the fact that this city had an embargo laid on the municipal receipts of Arroyo, and they came up to have it taken off. They have lost their credit with this municipality, and yet they come asking for five years' further time. Here is the petition that they brought us. [Mr. Dominguez showed the Commissioner a petition, purporting to come from the authorities at Arroyo, asking for a delay in the payment of the prison dues.] The substance of it is that the undersigned councilors, commissioned for this object, have the honor to submit to your consideration the following proposition for the payment of the debt for prison expenses up to the year 1898-99: The council of Arroyo undertakes to make payment to the prison board of its share of prison expenses in five terms in the form below, and goes on to propose five amounts of \$540, interest to run at the rate of 6 per cent.

Dr. CARROLL. What is their proportion per year, on an average?

Mr. DOMINGUEZ. Arroyo pays \$954. The other towns of the district pay as follows: Guayama, \$2,114; Barranquitas, \$692; Maunabo, \$842; Patillas, \$1,034; Cidra, \$587; Cayey, \$1,518; Salinas, \$926; Aibonito, \$787; total, \$9,584. We estimate on 90 prisoners daily. That is the number we used to have under Spanish rule. When there was a political row, we had as high as 500 in prison at one time, and that was quite frequent. The trouble with Arroyo is that it has a large staff of employees and pays much more out than it can possibly get in.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the amount you have stated as the total for prison expenses represent merely the cost of keeping the prisoners, or does it include, as well, the expense of trial?

Mr. DOMINGUEZ. It does not include the expense of trial, but only the cost of keeping them, and covers the items of food, medicines, clothes, services of doctor and turnkeys, and everything connected with the prison. Every month we give the prisoners a change of clothing.

Dr. CARROLL. In what condition is the prison here?

Mr. DOMINGUEZ. There is no sickness in the prison now except slight infirmities, such as colds. The sum of \$2,000 is required to put the closets in a sanitary condition. They are a center of infection. We tried to get the towns of the district to contribute an amount for the purpose, but the only town that paid its contribution was Guayama.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you any accommodation for the separation of prisoners? For instance, young prisoners that come in for minor offenses and perhaps for the first time. Are they herded together with the old offenders?

Mr. DOMINGUEZ. Yes. We have four cells in which we put the prisoners convicted of serious crimes, but they are all practically together. Of course, the women have a separate place.

Dr. CARROLL. The apartment assigned to women in the jail in Humacao was horrible. They said they could not help themselves, because they had no other place to put them.

Mr. DOMINGUEZ. We have preferential apartments, which we sell to persons able to pay for them.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you make an annual appropriation for the poor? I did not notice that in the budget.

Mr. DOMINGUEZ. No; we do not.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you any institution for the care of the insane?

Mr. DOMINGUEZ. No; we send them to the madhouse at the capital. About every ten years we have a case. We are people of brains here.

Dr. CARROLL. Do the municipal judge and his clerk receive any salary?

Mr. DOMINGUEZ. No.

Dr. CARROLL. How are they maintained?

Mr. DOMINGUEZ. They live on what they collect from the litigants according to a tariff. The municipal judge here is a private gentleman who lends his services gratuitously and leaves his fees to his clerk.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it not be better in all these cities to have a municipal judge with a salary, and a clerk to be provided for in the same way, and fines and fees, if any, to be collected and paid into the municipal treasury?

Mr. DOMINGUEZ. That would be better. Then justice would not be exposed to the spoliation which it now suffers in the island—not here in Guayama now, but in other cities of Porto Rico. The priests, since they have been denied state support, are making a practice of charging as high fees as they can get. They charge \$32, where they can get it, for going to a house to perform a marriage.

MUNICIPAL AUTONOMY DESIRED.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

COAMO, P. R., February 6, 1899.

At the request of the commissioner, Mr. Segundo Bernier produced a copy of the municipal budget of Coamo, which showed, among other items, the following:

Total amount of budget, \$29,000, reduced by revised estimate to \$27,365; administration expenses, \$5,169; police, \$3,100; public instruction, \$4,766; other night schools and beneficencia, \$4,134; public works, \$641. Of this amount \$200 was for streets and \$440 for roads.

Dr. CARROLL. Of what does the municipal property of Coamo consist?

The SECRETARY. The cemetery, the slaughterhouse, the hospital, and 200 cuerdas of land on which the city is built.

Dr. CARROLL. Then the municipality owns the site of the city?

Mr. BERNIER. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that all the property?

Mr. BERNIER. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any changes you would desire in municipal government?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. Yes; we should have self-government. The municipality should be as free as they are in the United States, without any kind of supervision.

Dr. CARROLL. What do you mean by municipal autonomy?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. A government of the people and by the people.

Dr. CARROLL. In what measure?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. To the full extent.

Dr. CARROLL. Without any reference at all to the insular government?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. Where civil supervision is proper it should be exercised.

Dr. CARROLL. For instance, would you give the cities unlimited power to issue bonds and create debts?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. Yes; giving also full power to determine every question within their spheres.

Dr. CARROLL. Then you would probably soon have a state of bankruptcy in all the cities of the island.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. No. They would have to keep within the restrictions which the law would require.

Dr. CARROLL. Then you do want limitations?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. Yes, certain limitations.

Colonel SANTIAGO. These gentlemen have already said more or less what I wanted to say, but I will go into it a little more in detail. I understand by your question and your suggestion that a state of bankruptcy might soon result from full autonomy; that the people to-day are not in a condition to accept autonomy.

Dr. CARROLL. No, not at all; but in the United States and other countries municipal autonomy is generally coupled with a proviso in the charter to the effect that the city shall not contract indebtedness beyond a certain percentage of the value of the property of the city, so that it shall not place itself too heavily in debt.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. I think that the only way the people could choose their form of government would be by collecting together the men of the country and taking their vote.

MUNICIPAL PROPERTY.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

AIBONITO, P. R., February 6, 1899.

Mr. CABALLER (mayor). The total of the budget is \$22,157; the estimated receipts, \$20,888. You will see there is an estimated deficit of \$1,269.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there no debts prior to the year 1898?

Mr. CABALLER. Yes, amounting to \$5,504, which is due on the construction of barracks and the lodging of troops.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the amount devoted to school purposes?

Mr. CABALLER. Three thousand six hundred and seventy-two dollars, including salaries and materials. There are six schools.

Dr. CARROLL. How much for police?

Mr. CABALLER. Seven hundred and eighty dollars.

Dr. CARROLL. How much for beneficencia?

Mr. CABALLER. Two thousand three hundred and ninety-eight dollars.

Dr. CARROLL. How much for streets and roads?

Mr. CABALLER. Four hundred dollars for streets; nothing for roads.

Dr. CARROLL. What city property is there?

Mr. CABALLER. A municipal house which is in a state of ruin, for which reason it is to be offered at public auction; a butcher shop and slaughterhouse.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the title of the public property entered upon the records?

Mr. CABALLER. No; it is not; and I don't think it can be, because the buildings stand on land which was given to the town by legacy. The municipality does not own the land; it only owns the public buildings standing on it. The land belongs to the people as a whole. We distinguish between the municipality and the people.

Dr. CARROLL. If you wanted to raise money on bonds, you would have to show title to the property, would you not?

Mr. CABALLER. We would register the property if we could.

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. I think the title could be registered, and from a sale of the lands on which houses are built the municipality would be able to purchase a new municipal building. The city owns the entire land within the city limits. A benevolent person some time ago deeded 10 acres of land now occupied by the city, but somebody, for personal reasons, probably, put the deed in his pocket and it was lost. The municipality, not having absolute title to this property, measured off 10 acres of land and directed that anybody holding property within those limits should be allowed to build houses on it, but that the land should remain the property of the city. The only restriction placed on the building of these houses was that they should conform to certain architectural rules.

Dr. CARROLL. Then it is only a matter of tradition that this land belongs to the municipality?

Mr. CABALLER. Yes; it is not founded upon any documents.

Dr. CARROLL. Can you prove that the land belongs to the municipality before a court of justice?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. According to the Spanish law twenty years of quiet possession constitutes title, and it is easy to prove that the municipality has been in quiet possession for that time.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you a sufficient number of public schools to accommodate all who wish to be educated?

Mr. CABALLER. No; we have not. In the rural districts we have only two schools.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you not sufficient funds to inaugurate other schools?

Mr. CABALLER. We are completely ruined. You can see by the estimates that we have no money whatever.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you reduced your appropriations for schools this year?

Mr. CABALLER. No; we have not altered the amount for that object.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you generally good schools?

Mr. CABALLER. We have one elementary teacher, who is among the best in the island. We have another in the country district, who does honor to his profession. There is another whom I do not know about.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the expenses of the schools paid promptly?

Mr. CABALLER. We owe the lady teacher for three months of last year.

Dr. CARROLL. I suppose there is no possible way at present for raising more school taxes.

Mr. CABALLER. It is impossible at present. We have a deficit of more than \$4,000.

Dr. CARROLL. How has the modification of the consumption tax affected the city's income?

Mr. CABALLER. We have covered the difference by taxing liquors.

Dr. CARROLL. Has there been any objection made on the part of the liquor sellers or tobaccoists because of the tax?

Mr. CABALLER. At first some few of them complained a little, but

they have been able to convince themselves that it is best for the general interests.

Dr. CARROLL. Are many cigars manufactured here?

Mr. CABALLER. No; there is no cigar factory here.

Lieutenant GONZALES. There were some here who made a living from cigar making on a small scale. Now that there is a high tax, such men are out of work.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there many?

Lieutenant GONZALES. I have met four or five.

Dr. CARROLL. Why do they not form themselves into a company or association?

Lieutenant GONZALES. I advised them to do that, but they have not wit enough to do it. Furthermore, on account of these men not being able to manufacture tobacco, the producer comes to town and he can not sell his tobacco except to the big dealer, so that the producer loses and the small manufacturer loses. I have had a number of talks with poor men and all have stated the same thing. I think it was poor policy to put on that tax. Besides, they say the big manufacturers make their own price for labor, because there is so much labor in the country and so many men are out of work. I know the Spanish language, and I hear a great deal. The big manufacturers have not raised the price of cigars in Cayey, while here they have raised the price 1 and 2 cents. Of course this all goes to one man.

Mr. CABALLER. We wish you to take to the President of the United States our thanks for his idea of sending a commissioner to find out the needs of the country, and I wish to say also that you must not think the country is really an immoral one. In a large city a man walks in with a woman on his arm, and nobody knows whether she is his wife or not, but here everybody knows what is going on. This is a very peaceable country. Although we have not had in this district a rural court, there has not even been a case of chicken theft.

Dr. CARROLL. If you could have the present system of municipal government recast, in what form would you have it?

Mr. CABALLER. With the greatest amount of decentralization, so that the people here might enjoy the most ample autonomy it would be possible to give them. I believe that the basis of the liberty of a nation lies in the autonomy of its towns.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it be well to reduce the number of members in the council?

Mr. CABALLER. I don't think it necessary. The greater number of intelligences which get together to legislate, I think, the better.

Dr. CARROLL. They claim in nearly all the cities I have visited that they can not get all the members of the council to come together.

Mr. CABALLER. That has been a general fault, not owing to the character of the Porto Ricans, but owing to the difficulties which the former government put in the way of gathering. Whatever course they might resolve on was contravened by the central powers at San Juan.

Dr. CARROLL. You would have the mayor elected by the people, would you not?

Mr. CABALLER. I think so.

Dr. CARROLL. Would you make the term of the alcalde one or two years?

Mr. CABALLER. I think two years, as constant renewals bring party passions into play.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it not be well to elect one councilman from each barrio, so as to have general representation?

Mr. CABALLER. I think it would be difficult for that to be inaugurated, as some of the barrios are at a great distance, without any roads at all, and councilmen would not be able to attend.

Dr. CARROLL. I suppose you will have roads under the new régime?

Mr. CABALLER. I think the ruined state of the country will render it a long time before that could be brought about unless the American Government, from its own Treasury, attends to it.

Dr. CARROLL. You already have a large amount of money in your insular treasury, and it is the purpose of General Henry to use much of it in constructing and rebuilding roads. Don't you think it well that taxpayers, even though they live in the rural districts, should be represented in the council, as they are taxed heavily?

Mr. CABALLER. I think so. They have representation. Every barrio has a representative here.

Dr. CARROLL. It would be well, then, to have one elected from each barrio?

Mr. CABALLER. Yes.

MUNICIPAL BONDS AND ACCOUNTS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

CAGUAS, P. R., *February 27, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. What is the public property here, Mr. Mayor?

Mr. SOLA. The municipal property consists of the municipal house; another building we had built for a hospital, which the troops are now occupying; the slaughterhouse, and a piece of land outside of the city which can be used for a cemetery; the cemetery and the chapel, which were both constructed by the municipality; a house in which they sell meat; the church, which was constructed by the municipality, and the plaza.

Dr. CARROLL. Is title to this property recorded?

Mr. SOLA. No.

Dr. CARROLL. It is customary here, I believe, to register municipal property.

Mr. SOLA. The town limits are inscribed.

(The municipal budget for the year 1898-99 was shown to the Commissioner. It contained, among others, the following items: Total of the budget, \$53,960.47; administration salaries, \$5,608; materials, \$1,686; police, \$3,780; schools (nine in number), \$5,954; beneficencia, including two titular physicians, one assistant, and one veterinary, \$4,450; roads, \$800; streets, \$500; sidewalks, \$200; plaza, \$50; prison, \$9,950.)

Dr. CARROLL. There is an item here for interest, of \$3,024.74.

Mr. SOLA. That is on a debt of \$7,137.

Dr. CRUZ. As an honest man, I protest against that debt. The \$3,024.74 represents interest and a part of the debt.

Dr. CARROLL. How was the debt contracted, and for what purpose?

Mr. SOLA (brother of the alcalde). This is not a loan; it is an issue of bonds. We have a portion of the bonds in our safe now.

Dr. CRUZ. I ask that the document relative to it be brought out, that you may know what it is.

Mayor SOLA. The money was not obtained from anybody. The bonds which were to be issued are in the safe.

Dr. CARROLL. Then why are you paying interest and a part of the principal?

Dr. CRUZ. They have recorded it illegally as money received, whereas it is their own paper which they have.

Mr. SOLA. A portion of the bonds have been issued for salaries and to creditors of the municipality. Really they are only in the form of promissory notes.

Mayor SOLA. The amount of the debt was \$7,137; \$4,270 of that loan has been placed.

Dr. CARROLL. Was the money raised on those bonds used for municipal purposes?

Mayor SOLA. This amount has not been sold, but has been given to creditors of the municipality. The municipality owed money and gave these bonds.

Dr. CARROLL. When were they prepared?

Mayor SOLA. Nearly three years ago.

Dr. CRUZ. This loan was really made to cover a deficit in the treasury for money badly spent.

Dr. CARROLL. Was it ordered to be issued by the ayuntamiento?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. It was under the old régime, when everything was done by favoritism from the capital.

Dr. CARROLL. Why do you not cancel the bonds you have not issued?

Mayor SOLA. They figure in the municipal accounts as money, because they were put into the municipal safe as money. The people would not accept them, because they denied their legality.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any power in the municipality to cancel those in the safe which have not been issued?

Mayor SOLA. Only with the consent of the government.

Dr. CARROLL. Has the council asked the government to allow that to be done?

Mayor SOLA. No; the reason they are in the safe is that they were created to cover a deficiency and have to be considered as money.

Dr. CARROLL. You have here an estimate of three thousand and some odd dollars. Is that to cancel the bonds with?

Mayor SOLA. Yes; when we pay them we destroy the bonds.

Dr. CRUZ. I wish you would ask for the statement of the cash, in order that you may see how it is. It is all wrong. I have here a copy of a petition I prepared to the municipality asking for correction of the accounts. No attention has been given to it. One thing is this loan which has been referred to. It is illegal.

Dr. CARROLL. Was it not ordered by the insular government?

Dr. CRUZ. It was ordered by the Spanish Government.

Dr. CARROLL. If it was ordered by the Spanish Government, was it not legal? Was it not ordered in proper form?

Dr. CRUZ. It was not ordered in proper form.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. It was a muddle to cover up the beer that General Macias used to take.

Dr. CRUZ. Some other debts for which this loan was contracted have already been paid, and there is a voucher of their payment in the archives of the municipality. They have been twice paid.

Dr. CARROLL. Mr. Mayor, is that true?

Mayor SOLA. My reply is that I have been two months here as alcalde, and what took place before then is not my deed.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you looked into this debt?

Mayor SOLA. No. But I have protested against everything that was badly done.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you believe that that debt was illegally contracted?

Mayor SOLA. I believe that the expediente which was drawn up for contracting this loan was not legal.

(The secretary of the ayuntamiento handed the commissioner a statement of accounts which had been sent for by the mayor at the request of Dr. Cruz.)

Dr. CRUZ. That is not the document that is called for.

(The secretary then brought another document, which Dr. Cruz stated was the one he had referred to.)

Dr. CRUZ. You will see from this account that there is a deficit of \$5,000.

The DEPOSITARY. I am a new depositary. On taking possession I made a statement showing that there was a deficit of \$5,662.25—money that I ought to have found in the municipal treasury, but which was not there.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you made an investigation in regard to it?

The DEPOSITARY. Not yet.

Dr. CARROLL. Did you call on your predecessor for an explanation?

The DEPOSITARY. It is not my duty to do that.

Dr. CARROLL. Has no attempt been made by the municipal council to call upon the former depositary to explain the deficiency and, if it is a real deficiency, to make it good?

Mayor SOLA. We called on him to do so and he said he required a certain time to make it good. We gave him the time he asked for, but he has not made it good yet.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the depositary under bonds for the faithful performance of his duty?

Mayor SOLA. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Have the bonds been returned to you yet?

Mayor SOLA. The bond is not worth a cent.

Dr. CARROLL. In case there is not a bond, then criminal proceedings would lie, would they not, unless he could explain the accounts and the reason for the shortage?

Mayor SOLA. If he does not turn over the money which the municipality placed in his hands to take care of for it, he is subject to an action.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the ayuntamiento intend to take action in this case speedily?

Mayor SOLA. Yes; he has promised the municipality to make payment of the amount by a certain day, and the council is waiting to see whether he does or not.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the date?

Mayor SOLA. The date has already fallen due. I asked him to-day if he had everything ready, and he said that he had not; he would be able to arrange the matter in about three days.

Dr. CARROLL. Has this been reported to the present secretary of state?

Dr. CRUZ. A memorial was sent to the old government about all of these accounts which are wrong, but up to the present nothing has been done about them. There is another matter I wish you to take notice of. I wish to direct your attention to the amount which has been added to the budget for the year 1898-99. You will see that \$26,475.14 must be added to the \$53,960.47 to get the total of the current budget. I would like to have you inquire in regard to this additional amount.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the explanation of this enormous addition to the budget?

The SECRETARY. It represents deficits and salaries which were not met by the old budget.

Dr. CARROLL. Why were they not inscribed in the old budget?

Dr. CRUZ. They are amounts they did not dare put in the old budget, which they have put in the new.

Dr. CARROLL. I am not getting any explanation of this large additional budget. I would like to understand it.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. These are amounts not paid.

Dr. CARROLL. Why were they not put in the other budget?

(No one offered any answer to this question.)

Dr. CARROLL. When was the original budget made and adopted?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. May 14, 1898.

Dr. CARROLL. When was the additional budget adopted?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. February 17, 1899.

Dr. CARROLL. Now, why did you add all this before the end of the year when you had estimates amounting to over \$50,000?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. These were amounts from 1897-98 which were not paid.

Dr. CARROLL. Then why were they not put in here?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. Because the present budget was made before the end of the preceding fiscal year.

Dr. CARROLL. What was the amount of the budget in the previous year?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. Forty-five thousand six hundred and forty-six dollars, of which \$20,000 was not collected.

(The secretary produced a copy of the law and pointed out the paragraph providing that unpaid amounts in the budget should form a part of a new budget to be prepared in the course of the following year.)

Dr. CARROLL. Was the total budget \$45,646 last year?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. Yes; but there was an additional budget of \$9,282, making the total about \$55,000.

Dr. CARROLL. Then not much more than half of that was collected?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. The amount includes what was not collected and what was not paid. In other words, whatever is unliquidated is transferred to the new budget.

Dr. CARROLL. It is a very strange way of making an additional budget. That is more than half as large as the original budget. Do you expect, Mr. Mayor, to collect the whole budget, including the additional amount, this year?

Mayor SOLA. It is not possible to do so. The taxes are very heavy, and taxpayers are almost ruined.

Dr. CARROLL. Is this not a bad method, increasing the debt in this way? Last year the shortage was \$9,000 and now it is \$26,000.

Mayor SOLA. It is not only bad, it is ruinous.

Dr. CARROLL. What method of taxation would you propose instead of this?

Mayor SOLA. That would be a question for the ayuntamiento to study and prepare a plan for.

Dr. CARROLL. As nearly as I can understand, your shortage is between \$35,000 and \$40,000?

Mayor SOLA. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Then the prospect is that you will have a very large debt at the end of the year?

Mayor SOLA. The taxpayers can not pay the taxes. They are too heavy for them.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you tried to economize in the formation of the additional budget?

Mayor SOLA. We have proposed economies aggregating between \$9,000 and \$10,000.

Dr. CRUZ. One thing that tended to increase the budget this year was the war. The Spaniards hired carriages and quarters for the soldiers here, and there were various expenses connected with these.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you estimate that the new system of land taxes which has been issued by General Henry will result in more or in less returns?

Mayor SOLA. I think it will give less.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you been able to make up what you lost on the consumption tax by the tax on liquor and tobacco?

Mayor SOLA. No; we have lost on that.

Dr. CARROLL. What suggestions would you make, Mr. Mayor, as to amendments in the present form of municipal government? I should like to know whether you consider that the present system of municipal government is entirely satisfactory, or whether you desire changes, and if so, of what character.

Mayor SOLA. I think they ought to have as much autonomy as is consistent with justice.

Dr. CARROLL. What are the advantages and disadvantages in that respect of the present system?

Mayor SOLA. The municipalities at present can not form their budgets to meet their expenses. They are not free to make their budgets as they desire.

Dr. CARROLL. Are you constrained in that respect by the insular government?

Mayor SOLA. At present we make our budget under specific laws which we have had to follow under the Spanish Government. Under the new government we think matters are much improved.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the insular government require you to make a budget larger than the mayor and the council think necessary?

Mayor SOLA. No; I consider the insular government has tried to have us send in our budgets as small as possible.

Dr. CARROLL. I understood you to say that you wished larger liberty for the municipalities in the making of their budgets. For what reason?

Mayor SOLA. We wish to have more power in the matter of assessing taxes, so as to make taxation fall fairly on all classes.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. For twenty years this town has had a disastrous administration. Each year the estimate grew larger and larger, owing to the mismanagement of the corporate body, which was too small for our needs, and to the want of vigilance and allowing this body to do as it liked. When the moment arrived for the granting of autonomy by the Spanish Government, this district was completely shorn, being heavily in debt and without a cent in its treasury. Then the complications with the United States began, and things became graver by reason not only of the war, but also of the confusion which prevented the municipality from attending to its own affairs. The municipality had no time to collect its money. It was not proper that the municipality should have been saddled with expense connected with the war, but the Government put it on us. This is the reason of the critical position of the town to-day. The way to better the situation would be to obtain a loan and apply it to running purposes. In the meantime inquire into past accounts and put the responsibility for them where it is due. There exists a need of such responsibility both in the government offices and here in the city, and when the time comes to make use of it, it will be used.

Mr. SOLA. I as a councilor think that full local autonomy should be given to the municipalities in all matters which do not conflict with state government.

Dr. CRUZ. I wish to know whether they understand by autonomy decentralization. We have autonomy already, but I want it decentralized. If there is to be proper autonomy, the councilors should do their work in a proper way. I beg that if legislation be taken on this matter and decentralization is granted, responsibility be exacted from all the councilors for their acts. We are not so much in need of laws as of good administration. I find that the municipal bookkeeping is too complicated. There are ten or twelve books kept—so many that if a person wants to find anything at a moment's notice it is impossible to get it. I desire liberty, but liberty in the right sense. Responsibility should be exacted from everyone, and I think that no citizen's rights should be trampled on.

Dr. CARROLL. Who is the bookkeeper?

(The bookkeeper who was present at the hearing stated in reply to the commissioner's question regarding the system of bookkeeping in vogue that he kept the books by chapters and double entry. Every chapter has its articles and every article has its account. For instance, we credit the mayor with the whole amount of his salary and debit him as he draws.)

Dr. CARROLL. This gentleman (Dr. Cruz) says there are so many books that it is impossible for anyone to find out in a moment anything about the accounts. He says there are ten or twelve books kept.

The BOOKKEEPER. There are five books.

The SECRETARY. We are under another obnoxious law. Under chapter 4, article 138, of the municipal law, bookkeeping for the municipalities is the same as that adopted for the royal treasury.

Dr. CARROLL (to the bookkeeper). In your judgment are there more books kept than are necessary to keep the accounts straight?

The BOOKKEEPER. I think only necessary books are kept. That may be because I am accustomed to the present system.

Mr. JOSE JULIAN AVAREZ, municipal judge:

Dr. CARROLL. There is, I believe, no salary allowed to municipal judges?

Judge AVAREZ. No.

Dr. CARROLL. What fees are allowed by law; or is it an entirely honorary office?

Judge AVAREZ. There is a tariff of fees, but it is so insignificant that the judges always leave it for their secretaries, who also have no salaries.

Dr. CARROLL. Are fees allowed for registering births, deaths, and marriages?

Judge AVAREZ. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Why are the births not fully reported?

Judge AVAREZ. The chief reason is that the mother or father has to bring the child and ask for inscription, and he has to do this within forty days after the birth occurs, and as the distances are sometimes very great, neither the mother nor the father frequently is able to come. I think anyone should be allowed to report a birth. For example, the doctor who officiates at the birth. It should not be confined to the doctor, however, for, as a matter of fact, it is hardly ever that a doctor attends these country births.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there a penalty for failure of the mother to have the child registered after forty days?

Judge AVAREZ. If it comes after forty days have expired, they have to prepare an expediente, and there is a fine from \$5 to \$10.

Dr. CARROLL. Does not that prevent the inscription of many births that otherwise would be inscribed?

Mr. AVAREZ. Yes; that, together with the fact that the father or mother is obliged to come to report it.

Dr. CARROLL. In your judgment, what would be a better system in order to get full reports of births?

Judge AVAREZ. I think the first thing would be to send out circulars to the commissioners; second, to enable inscription to be made on the report of any person duly authorized; and third, that the method of inscription should be brief. The law requires that the inscription be put in in duplicate, and it is very long.

MUNICIPAL AUTONOMY DESIRED.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

CAYEY, P. R., *February 23, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. What is the population of Cayey?

Mr. MANUEL MUÑOZ. The population of the entire district is between 14,000 and 15,000. The population of the town itself is from 3,000 to 4,000.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the amount of your budget?

Mr. MUÑOZ. Thirty-six thousand dollars. The budget for next year will not exceed \$22,000 or \$23,000.

Dr. CARROLL. Does that include the additional budget?

Mr. MUÑOZ. The additional will be from \$2,000 to \$3,000.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that made up of amounts not collected last year?

Mr. MUÑOZ. About \$700 of extra expenses and nearly \$3,000 of uncollected amounts.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the amount for police?

Mr. MUÑOZ. One thousand five hundred dollars.

Dr. CARROLL. For public instruction?

Mr. MUÑOZ. From \$8,000 to \$9,000.

Dr. CARROLL. How much for streets?

Mr. MUÑOZ. From \$600 to \$700.

Dr. CARROLL. Does that include roads?

Mr. MUÑOZ. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you a fire department?

Mr. MUÑOZ. No.

Dr. CARROLL. How much is allotted to beneficencia?

Mr. MUÑOZ. Three thousand dollars.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you have a department prison here?

Mr. MUÑOZ. No, we send our prisoners to Guayama.

Dr. CARROLL. How much do you pay for the maintenance of prisoners in Guayama?

Mr. MUÑOZ. One thousand five hundred dollars.

Dr. CARROLL. How many prisoners do you have there usually?

Mr. MUÑOZ. From sixteen to twenty.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that not a large amount?

Mr. MUÑOZ. No.

Dr. CARROLL. What city property have you?

Mr. MUÑOZ. The cemetery, the clock tower in front of the church, a house used by the parish priest, a slaughterhouse, and a butcher shop in very bad condition.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you a plaza?

Mr. MUÑOZ. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. I want to ask you, in view of the future government to be given to the island of Porto Rico by the United States, what system of municipal government you would suggest, whether a system having more autonomy than the present one, or whether the present system of municipal government is satisfactory?

Mr. MUÑOZ. We want complete decentralization.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think each city should be given a constitution, or charter, within the limits of which it ought to be entirely free to transact its business without any reference to the insular government?

Mr. MUÑOZ. I think so.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. I don't agree with the mayor in that.

Dr. CARROLL. What is your reason for differing?

THE GENTLEMAN WHO HAD DISSENTED. The state of education is not sufficiently advanced for the people to understand their own rights.

Mr. LUIS MUÑOZ. I believe that under a territorial or any other form of government the municipality should be allowed all the decentralization and liberty which the constitution of the government allows. But, as to giving municipalities charters, either they would all be alike, in which case it would not be necessary to give charters, or they would be unlike, and in that case there would be conflicts between the various municipalities.

Dr. CARROLL. It does not so work in the United States. We have different classes of cities and appropriate legislation for each. Cities are autonomous there in that they have the right to decide how many policemen they want, how many fire engines, whether they will have their streets paved with blocks or whether they will have the asphalt system, whether they will raise money by bonds for an aqueduct or reservoir, and all that sort of thing, within certain limits, the constitution of the city prescribing generally that they shall not contract a debt greater than a certain percentage of the taxable property within the limits of the city. They have the absolute right also, within certain limits, to make their own budgets.

Mr. LUIS MUÑOZ. That is what we understand by municipal decentralization, and that is what we all want. We want the greatest amount of power for the municipalities consistent with a connection with the insular government. But I think one municipal law or charter for the whole of the island would be well, in order that all the municipalities should be governed by the same charter.

Dr. CARROLL. Some have interests of one kind, and some of another. Would one charter fit all of the municipalities?

Mr. LUIS MUÑOZ. I think one law could be made to fit all, but where there were differences they could make their own regulations.

Dr. CARROLL. For instance, San Juan has a council of 24 members. If you provide the same law for all the cities, Cabo Rojo and Vega Baja would have to have the same number, and they probably could not get enough men to transact the public business.

Mr. LUIS MUÑOZ. No; the municipal law to-day provides for that. It is according to number of inhabitants.

Dr. CARROLL. Then you could not have one law for municipalities

of all sizes. Do you have any trouble, Mr. Mayor, in collecting taxes this year?

Mayor MUÑOZ. Yes; much trouble.

Dr. CARROLL. What is that trouble due to?

Mayor MUÑOZ. Owing, in the first place, to the war; in the second place, to the low prices of products, and in the third place, to the want of markets. Our market for second-class coffee used to be Cuba, which has laid a heavy duty on coffee. Our first-class coffee used to go to Spain, which has laid a prohibitive duty on it.

HOW A LARGE CITY IS MANAGED.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

PONCE, P. R., *March 2, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. What is the amount of the budget of Ponce for the economic year?

Mr. JULIO ROSICH (municipal accountant). The total of the budget is \$287,624. The additional budget has not been made yet.

Dr. CARROLL. What does the additional budget amount to, generally?

Mr. ROSICH. The total comes to about \$360,000, with the additional amount.

Dr. CARROLL. Will the additional budget be larger than usual by reason of failure to collect taxes last year?

Mr. ROSICH. No. This year has been one of the best, but the additional amount belongs to last year. This budget is not closed until the 31st of December. We have not begun collecting taxes for this year at all, because the assessments were not approved at San Juan until to-day.

Dr. CARROLL. Have the authorities at San Juan changed the figures any?

Mr. ROSICH. No. They have approved the budget without change.

NOTE.—The total for salaries is \$23,620, of which the mayor receives \$3,500 and the secretary \$2,000. There are three head clerks at \$1,000 each.

Dr. CARROLL. The municipal judge gets no salary, I suppose?

Mr. ROSICH. No; but the municipality furnishes the judge a house and pays his clerk.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you only one municipal judge here?

Mr. ROSICH. Only one.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the difference between the two classes of policemen referred to in the budget?

Mr. ROSICH. One is what you would call detectives, and the other the police proper.

NOTE.—The total for police is \$31,048; for urban police, who attend to municipal property, \$5,580.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you no rural police?

Mr. ROSICH. No.

NOTE.—For the fire department, \$7,400; for public lighting, \$20,000, paid to the electric-light company; the plays, \$25,000; cleaning and watering the streets, \$12,500; public instruction (salaries), \$22,970. There are 47 schools, including 3 kindergartens.

Dr. CARROLL. Who is the chairman of the school board?

Mr. ROSICH. The alcalde.

NOTE.—The amount for library purposes, \$750; beneficencia,

\$42,930. This amount includes the expense for one municipal health officer, who receives \$1,500; three doctors, who receive \$1,000 each; one doctor for the playa, \$1,200; one doctor for the emergency hospital, \$1,000; besides, there are several assistants; for the Tricoche Hospital, \$18,930.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that a civil hospital?

Mr. ROSICH. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that the one which was founded by private charity?

Mr. ROSICH. Yes; the man who left the money for the purpose bore the name of Tricoche.

Dr. CARROLL. How is that endowment administered?

The SECRETARY. The money is employed in the aqueduct—that is to say, the money was used in constructing the aqueduct, and the water rates are employed by the municipality in keeping the hospital up.

Dr. CARROLL. Then this \$18,913 is for keeping the hospital up?

Mr. ROSICH. The amount received from the aqueduct is in the other part of the budget as income, and is a much smaller amount than that which we allowed to the hospital. The ayuntamiento took the money to construct a part of the waterworks, and at the same time undertook to sustain the hospital with whatever amount of money might be needed. I would like to have you go and see it. It is the best hospital here. The appropriation for the madhouse is \$2,494.

Dr. CARROLL. How many inmates are there?

Mr. ROSICH. Fifteen or sixteen. This provision for the madhouse is a matter which properly belongs to the insular government; but the municipality, seeing that the insular authorities did not attend to it, has taken it up itself.

Dr. CARROLL. Is fifteen or sixteen about the average number of inmates?

Mr. ROSICH. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there a resident physician?

Mr. ROSICH. No. It is a very poor institution and is poorly equipped.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that the only insane asylum in the island?

Mr. ROSICH. No; there is one in the hospital, which is a general one for the whole island. These people are waiting their turn to be able to get in. There is also here a smallpox hospital, with an appropriation of \$3,343. This hospital has no resident physician, either.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there many patients there now?

Mr. ROSICH. There are forty-nine.

Dr. CARROLL. Are they all from this municipal district?

Mr. ROSICH. Yes. They have been putting up some sheds for them, as they have not sufficient accommodation.

Dr. CARROLL. Has the system of vaccination been used here?

Mr. ROSICH. Yes.

NOTE.—Other items of the budget were as follows: Aggregate of amounts given to poor people who can not go to the hospital or take their children there, \$500; sundry amounts for charity, including medicines, vaccine virus, etc., \$4,000; public works (architect), \$1,500; one assistant, \$480; one porter, \$360; vicinage roads and bridges, \$3,230; springs, water pipes, and street watering, \$1,000; streets and plazas, \$9,000; prisons, \$32,818. Of this last amount \$13,175 is for the construction of a new prison. The expenses of the city as a departmental prison district are \$17,343; sinking fund for the debt, \$9,000. This last debt is a municipal debt of \$9,000, which they set aside for building the new prison, and now they are taking it back. Census expenses, \$2,000.

Dr. CARROLL. When was that taken?

Mr. ROSICH. Last year.

Dr. CARROLL. Was it a municipal census or an insular census?

Mr. ROSICH. Municipal.

Dr. CARROLL. What did that census show the population of this district to be?

Mr. ROSICH. Forty-nine thousand.

NOTE.—A further item in the budget for various objects under the name of subventions was \$3,060.

Dr. CARROLL. Does this result of the census referred to correspond to the insular census of 1897?

The SECRETARY. It is the same thing.

Mr. ROSICH. We have an amount of \$7,184 due to the provincial deputation. The expense of collecting the taxes is \$6,000.

Dr. CARROLL. Has Ponce a sewerage system?

Mr. ROSICH. No. We have a system of pipes only from the Tri-coche Hospital and the prison, which join together and go on to a hacienda near here.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the source of the water supply? Is it artesian wells?

Mr. ROSICH. The River Portuguese.

Dr. CARROLL. You seem to have a good supply.

Mr. ROSICH. Yes; plenty.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it considered to be fairly pure water?

Mr. ROSICH. The aqueduct is not filtered, and the water comes down somewhat impure. When the river rises in the rainy season, it brings down turbid water, and each family filters for itself. We have a project already accepted for constructing a filter in the waterworks.

Dr. CARROLL. How many fire engines are there?

Mr. ROSICH. We have no steam fire engines; we have three hand engines.

Dr. CARROLL. You don't have many fires here, I understand.

Mr. ROSICH. We have quite a few; but the water comes down with a great deal of force, and we can put out a fire easily.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the firemen paid?

Mr. ROSICH. No.

Dr. CARROLL. The city furnishes all the apparatus and the houses, I suppose?

Mr. ROSICH. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you a list of the municipal property?

Mr. ROSICH. We have no inventory of it.

Dr. CARROLL. I mean of the public buildings.

Mr. ROSICH. The municipal property consists of the cemetery, which is also registered; the municipal building, registered; the aqueduct, registered; a building lot on which we are building another school; the civil hospital, registered; the insane asylum, registered; a smallpox hospital, with the lot on which it stands, registered; an asylum for beggars, for which the municipality gave the lot and which is under the management of several ladies. We have also the market place, the slaughterhouse, the custom-house shed on the Playa, a lot on which the cholera burying ground was established, the fire department building, the kiosk, the plaza, and 13 cuerdas of land, where we are going to build the new prison. I think that completes the list.

Dr. CARROLL. This is the only city I have found where they have any property registered. What are the sources of municipal income?

THE SECRETARY OF MUNICIPALITY. Municipal lands, \$360; niches in the cemetery, \$1,000; aqueduct, \$8,301; supplying water to shops, \$300; duty on tonnage discharged, \$50,000; stands in the market, \$3,897; cattle brands, \$400; permission for bulking in the city, \$750; licenses for public balls, \$10; for authorizing municipal documents, \$400; fines, \$837; municipal tax on meats (has been abolished), \$8,012; amount to take place of tax on meats, \$8,012 (liquor tax); renting butcher stands, \$4,626; from other municipalities on account of prison expense, \$3,313; expenses for prisoners sent by the state to the Ponce prison, paid by the state, \$14,802; the commercial tax, \$10,000.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the nature of that tax?

THE SECRETARY. It is the tax on those who did not appear as merchants before, but since the formation of the budget have declared their intention of opening stores. General tax, which is collected in the district, \$174,625. This last is a tax on agriculture, on merchants, and on manufacturing.

Dr. CARROLL. That is a tax on incomes?

THE SECRETARY. It is a direct tax. You will see that most of the taxes of this municipality are direct taxes. Under the new territorial tax we have to give 50 per cent of that to the state. That will leave us 50 per cent short.

Dr. CARROLL. Your income, however, will be larger, because it is on a different basis, and the insular and municipal taxes will be levied together, whereas this represents only the municipal tax, and does not represent what the insular government raises by tax, as I understand it.

THE SECRETARY. No. This will be reduced from \$60,000 to \$70,000, according to the new tariff.

Dr. CARROLL. Then the insular tax will also be reduced, will it not?

THE SECRETARY. That does not interest us. We have nothing to do with the insular tax.

Dr. CARROLL. Yes; but in the other cities we have visited the proportion has been 5 per cent for the insular government and 7½ for the municipal. Now it is share and share alike.

THE SECRETARY. The new law has fixed 8 per cent of the income as the maximum. We can tax up to 8 per cent—4 for the state and 4 for the municipality. The amount given here represents 24 per cent; that is six times as much as the law allows us to collect.

Dr. CARROLL. How could the people stand that?

THE SECRETARY. The reason is, the returns they have made of their property were not true returns.

Dr. CARROLL. How does General Henry's order in relation to the land tax affect the municipality?

THE SECRETARY. It ruins the municipality.

Dr. CARROLL. Under that system you can calculate from the number of cuerdas exactly what the revenue will be.

THE SECRETARY. In Porto Rico, especially in the district of Ponce, an assessment has never really been made, and the returns made by interested parties are always incorrect.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you made an estimate yet as to how much will be received by the land tax?

THE SECRETARY. No.

Dr. CARROLL. The land will have to be classified first?

THE SECRETARY. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you receive 50 per cent of the income from the land tax?

The SECRETARY. Yes. The new order is an injustice to the municipality. Under the old law it received 75 per cent of the direct tax. Now it will receive only 50 per cent.

Dr. CARROLL. There has been an order issued recently with regard to the taxation of houses in the cities?

The SECRETARY. Yes; but the city gets only half of that.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that a reduced tax?

The SECRETARY. Yes, it is much lower.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think the land tax is a mistake?

The SECRETARY. It is badly divided. The municipality should have at least 75 per cent. At the last session of the council we asked General Henry to allow us to receive the whole of the the tax on town property. There has been no reply to that yet. I consider that this budget is much too high. It is an excessive budget. Direct taxes in Porto Rico have never given a good result. The assessors have assessed the tax badly. They have no stable basis for making the assessment, and have assessed as they pleased.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it not be well to have taxes levied on land on the basis of its value, instead of income derived from it, so that land that was bringing no income would contribute to the taxes?

The SECRETARY. Yes; I think so.

Dr. CARROLL. Then, for state purposes, in order that there might be equal taxation, there might be a state board to decide whether the assessments that had been made were equal in all districts, and if not to equalize them?

The SECRETARY. I think your idea is not only correct, but I believe it is indispensable.

Dr. CARROLL. It is the system on which we levy and collect taxes in the United States, and it works better than any other system.

The SECRETARY. Here it would be even more satisfactory, because it has been a practice here to hide wealth in every possible way, and the State for one hundred years has been laboring under the disadvantage of not knowing the value of property.

Dr. CARROLL. If there is going to be a great shortage in the lugresos, you will, of course, have a large deficit at the end of the year?

The SECRETARY. Not in this year, but owing to the orders that have come from headquarters without any consecutive plan—one without reference to the others—there is no ayuntamiento in the island that can make a budget with any certainty that will hold.

Dr. CARROLL. Will you receive enough from the liquor and tobacco taxes to make good the deficit caused by the removal of the consumption tax on meat, flour, and bread?

The SECRETARY. We will be able easily to collect as much if we do not get any orders from San Juan.

Dr. CARROLL. All the other municipalities have replied that they can not collect this liquor tax and said that it was onerous.

The SECRETARY. Ponce has already collected nearly all of it and digested it.

Dr. CARROLL. You are on the safe side, then. When was the city property registered?

The SECRETARY. At different periods. Some of it still remains to be registered.

Dr. CARROLL. For what purpose was registry sought? Was it for the purpose of issuing bonds?

The SECRETARY. Yes; and so that it could not be taken away from us.

Mr. ROSICH. Ponce has several other properties; some, for instance,

that it has had to buy in at tax sales. We are gradually getting a list of these properties and registering them piece by piece.

Dr. CARROLL. Has the city of Ponce any bonded debt?

Mr. ROSICH. Yes; we issued a loan, and a portion of it remains unpaid, but we have all the bonds in our safe, because we have accepted them as security for different purposes.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the bonds for official good behavior?

Mr. ROSICH. No; for the due discharge of contracts by contractors.

Dr. CARROLL. They will have to be paid back again when the contracts are completed. What is the amount of the debt?

Mr. ROSICH. About 7,000 pesos.

Dr. CARROLL. I understand that other municipalities have no power to contract a bonded debt.

Mr. ROSICH. The law allows all municipalities to issue loans if they keep within the statutes found in the municipal law and special decrees that have been issued.

Dr. CARROLL. Are these loans limited in amount?

Mr. ROSICH. The limit is the municipal capital with which they can answer for the payment of the debt. They had to get the Governor-General's permission, however. The special reason why we are registering our property is that we have a project to raise a new loan to complete some of our public works. The waterworks are valued at \$200,000 and produce an income of \$9,000 a year.

Dr. CARROLL. Above expenses?

Mr. ROSICH. Yes; they sell the income by auction.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the tax on the use of water?

Mr. ROSICH. It is so much per diameter of pipe. Five dollars per year for a fourth-inch pipe and \$20 for a half-inch pipe.

Dr. CARROLL. Patrons can then use all the water they want?

Mr. ROSICH. Yes; there is no sort of meter. Our object is to allow the whole town to use water.

Mr. LUIS PORRATA DORIA, mayor of Ponce:

Dr. CARROLL. I wish to ask you, Mr. Mayor, some questions with reference to municipal government and the changes you would like to have made. It seems to me that this is an extremely important subject for the future of the island, and I want to get all the information I can upon it, and the opinion of those who occupy the mayor's chair, as you do, as to the points in which the present system needs to be amended.

Mr. DORIA. The new orders being issued are going to place the municipalities in a very difficult position as regards their receipts. A great many taxes are being suppressed, and there are no other means being furnished to enable them to cover the deficits thereby caused. Commerce is complaining and crying out against the tax on unloading into the municipal warehouses, and we will have to remove that, although it will mean a loss of \$50,000.

Dr. CARROLL. That is not the 10 per cent tax, is it?

Mr. DORIA. No; it is a special municipal tax. Whether the goods go into the warehouse or not, they have to pay the tax all the same. There is no reason for the tax; it was imposed with the consent of the merchants and is really illegal.

Dr. CARROLL. The consumption tax has been removed, and also the cargo tax of 10 per cent in the revision of the tariff; that is a relief to merchants and importers.

Mr. DORIA. We would have to remove it. Several towns, like Yauco

and Juana Diaz, imported through Ponce, and they will not pay it. To make up for these taxes suppressed, Ponce will have to get out of liquor and tobacco about \$200,000.

Dr. CARROLL. Perhaps you can reduce your expenses.

Mr. DORIA. Every day the expenses of the city are larger. In order to clean the streets, to light them properly, to increase the police force—we have only 50 men, which is not more than half enough—Ponce should really have a budget of \$500,000. Every day they are taking away our sources of income, and I don't know where we will get the money from. To make Ponce a civilized city it requires a system of drainage and sewerage, and we would require a loan of at least \$1,500,000, and a sinking fund to pay interest would require an income of \$100,000.

Dr. CARROLL. Why not lay down the pipes and charge the property owners for each connection so much per annum?

Mr. DORIA. But we have to have the system before we can make those charges.

Dr. CARROLL. You can raise the money by bonds and the charges to owners will pay the interest, and gradually you will pay off the bonds.

Mr. DORIA. Nothing here is used for the purpose it was originally built for. For instance, the insane asylum was formerly the slaughterhouse. In this city hall we have a public library, the mayor's office, the emergency hospital, and have no offices fit for the purposes for which they are employed. As regards the sewerage, we are laboring under the difficulty of not knowing how to dispose of the sewage. They would have to take it a long way, and that would greatly increase the expense.

Dr. CARROLL. Could you not take it out to sea?

Mr. DORIA. The municipal architect, who is a competent engineer, and I are studying everything that is requisite to make Ponce a modern city. For instance, the leveling of the streets. The streets are not level, and until they are level they can not be guttered. We are going into every requirement for Ponce. We will put in the form of a pamphlet our conclusions in the matter, and, when printed, I will send you a copy, and also a copy to General Henry.

Dr. CARROLL. What is your opinion as to autonomy in municipal government?

Mr. DORIA. It is necessary. It is the only way in which municipalities can attend to their necessities. It is an absolutely indispensable measure and must come soon. Municipal autonomy is a sequence of individual liberty, and, as you know, the greatness of the United States is owing to the autonomy of its municipalities. Each municipality knows its own requirements, and should be able to attend to them without intervention of the central government.

Dr. CARROLL. I wish you would give me an idea, Mr. Mayor, of the disadvantages of the present system of municipal government.

Mr. DORIA. Up to the present we are still working under the old municipal law, which is a very deficient one. Owing to the war and lateness in granting autonomy, the insular congress was not able to change the legislation for the municipal government. I will give you a statement of a concrete case that presented itself to-day about the slaughter of oxen for public food. Under the old legislation, pregnant cows were allowed to be slaughtered, and purveyors were committing abuses. As alcalde, I found myself in a very difficult position. I did not know just how to bring these people to justice, because they

defended themselves by showing me the old law. I had to have recourse to the health board, which is to-day a military board. Formerly it was a civil board, and the mayor was at the head of it. This board issued an order that cattle in that condition should not be slaughtered.

Dr. CARROLL. That was the question that caused the resignations of the council in San Juan.

Mr. DORIA. I, with that experience before me, instead of looking for trouble, looked for a way of getting out of it. To-day the purveyors came to me and complained about the board of health. I said, "Gentlemen, I am very sorry, but this is an administrative board." In that case, if the municipality had been autonomous, it could have resolved the matter without referring it to anybody. This is only one case in thousands which present themselves.

Dr. CARROLL. What I understand you want for the city government is the power to initiate and carry out, without reference to the state, those things which concern only the municipality, and do not conflict with the state. If you wish to add, for example, ten policemen to your force for a month or two, you want the power to do so without referring the matter to San Juan?

Mr. DORIA. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. With regard to your council, you have 30 councilors, I understand.

Mr. DORIA. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Is not that too many?

Mr. DORIA. Yes; not half of them come to the meetings. The alcalde is always alone in the management of the municipality.

Dr. CARROLL. How many barrios are there in the district?

Mr. DORIA. There are many of them; I don't remember the number.

Dr. CARROLL. How many are there in the city?

Mr. DORIA. There are five.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it not be well for each barrio to have a representative?

Mr. DORIA. Yes; that is the rule, but the alcalde has to do everything himself.

Dr. CARROLL. Are any of the members of your council from the rural districts?

Mr. DORIA. No; all are from the city. If they lived in the country, they would never come in to the meetings.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it or would it not be well to have the municipalities divided—instead of having a rural district within a municipality, to have a rural government for the rural districts, separate from the municipalities?

Mr. DORIA. In every barrio, there is a representative of the alcalde, called a comisario, who is a sort of police justice.

Dr. CARROLL. But a good many ordinances you make for the government of the municipality itself have no reference to any needs in the rural district. Why would it not be well, therefore, to have a different kind of government for the municipal body? The farmers don't want any sewers or electric light.

Mr. DORIA. Yes; you are quite right in that. We make the countrymen pay for what they don't enjoy. That is one of the things we could arrange on an equitable basis if we had municipal autonomy. Besides the ayuntamiento, we have what we call the municipal board, composed of thirty members, who, together with the thirty members of the ayuntamiento, form an assembly of sixty, which considers matters concerning the whole district.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that board composed of persons from the country barrios?

Mr. DORIA. From all over the district; they are picked by lot. One of the duties of this board is to approve the budget.

Dr. CARROLL. Which they do, I suppose, merely as a matter of course.

Mr. DORIA. Generally. The board can not remove any item from the budget formed by the ayuntamiento, but it can increase or decrease the amounts. It can not take away the amount entirely, in other words, but can only say that an amount is too large or too small.

Dr. CARROLL. If they can decrease it, can they not practically take it all away?

Mr. DORIA. Yes; they can bring an amount down to such a small sum that the item would be practically suppressed.

Dr. CARROLL. Are your barrios in the city about equal in population?

Mr. DORIA. No; some of them are more populous than others.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it not be well to have members of the council elected by barrios—that is, make the barrios as nearly equal in population as possible—and then have the members elected by them, instead of the method now in vogue? That would be a representative system. That is the way it is in the United States. You would then have the mayor elected by the whole municipality, and have the councilors elected for a two year-term, and if there are 12 members, have half of them elected every year. Have the mayor elected for two or three years, unremovable except for cause, so that his responsibility shall not be to the council, but to the people of the whole district.

Mr. DORIA. At present the town elects these councilmen. The whole town has a voice in the matter. The council, from among its number, elects the mayor.

Dr. CARROLL. That makes him responsible to the council, when he ought to be responsible to the people generally. Would it not be better, in your judgment, that the mayor should be elected by the people, without any reference to the council, and let him serve as the mayor of the whole district, and as the representative of the people direct, without election by the council?

Mr. DORIA. I think that would be better.

Dr. CARROLL. In what other respects would you amend the present system?

Mr. DORIA. What has already been referred to embraces the essential things; other things are details.

Dr. CARROLL. In the United States municipal officers are elected generally by the people; also municipal judges, district attorneys, or fiscals, as you call them here, the city treasurer, and nearly all of the chief officers of cities. In some cases they are appointed by the mayor.

Mr. DORIA. I think that as everything emanates from the people all public offices should be elective by the people.

Dr. CARROLL. In New York the council, president of the council, the judges of the various courts except of the police courts, the district attorney or fiscal, the commissioner of jurors, the city chamberlain, the city treasurer, the coroner, and the sheriff are all elected by the people, but the police justices, the chief of police, the commissioners of various departments—for instance, of public works, parks, etc.—are appointed by the mayor.

Mr. DORIA. I am in accord with that. I will study the matter of

municipal government, and see if there are not other points to give you.

The Rev. Z. VALL-SPINOSA. I hand you a book with reference to prostitutes, showing the system by which they are licensed and examined here. This book has the stamp of the United States upon it, and I think it is a shame that such an institution should be given such recognition.

DIVISION OF MUNICIPAL DISTRICTS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

YAUCO, P. R., *March 6, 1899.*

Mr. LUIS CIANCHINI, vice-mayor of Yauco, stated the object of the commissioner's visit to Porto Rico.

The commissioner then called for a copy of the municipal budget. An official copy of the current budget was produced, showing the following estimates:

Administrative expenses:	
Salaries	\$9,096
Materials	1,619
Police	2,806
Detective force	210
Public instruction:	
Salaries (16 teachers)	6,684
Materials	3,374
Benevolencia:	
One doctor	\$1,800
One janitor	300
One student	240
Miscellaneous, including medicines, alms, etc	2,800
	5,140
Roads	3,000
Streets	1,500
Total for public works	7,400
Prison (prison district of Ponce)	1,316
The municipal judge receives no salary, but is provided with a house or office.	
For new hospital which is being built here	3,000
Uncollected taxes for account of the State (being the sixth of ten yearly installments)	1,041
Total of the budget of expenditures	63,809
Additional budget of expense	3,830

Dr. CARROLL. What public property have you?

Mr. CIANCHINI. The city hall, the church, slaughterhouse, the butcher shop, the hospital, and all city lots; also all the land on which the town of Guanica is built.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you get any rental from these lots?

Mr. JOSE G. TORRES (a councilman). The city grants the lots gratuitously to people who will build on them. The same is true of the lots in Guanica. We have in project the sale of these lots.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the municipality own the market place in front of the alcaldia?

Mr. TORRES. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. What about the cemetery?

Mr. TORRES. That is also municipal property.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you own a casa parrochial?

Mr. TORRES. No; the casa parrochial here is a private house.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the city property registered?

Mr. TORRES. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Including the church?

Mr. TORRES. The land, the city hall, and the butcher shop are registered, but the church is not registered.

Mr. MEJIA and Mr. TORRES:

Dr. CARROLL. I presume the city has no bonded debt.

Mr. MEJIA. It has none.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you have any difficulty in collecting the additional tax on liquors and tobacco authorized by the Governor-General when he removed the consumption tax?

Mr. TORRES. It produces less than the consumption tax.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any complaint on the part of the merchants against the imposition of this additional tax?

Mr. TORRES. On the contrary, they prefer to pay it on liquors and tobacco rather than on articles of prime necessity.

Dr. CARROLL. Has it compelled any dealers to go out of business?

Mr. TORRES. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any distilleries in this district?

Mr. TORRES. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they complain of the additional tax?

A GENTLEMAN. They pay a license fee only, because they are all agriculturists.

Dr. CARROLL. Mr. Mayor, what changes would you like to have made in the form of municipal government?

VICE ALCALDE OF YAUCO. We want to have municipal autonomy.

Dr. CARROLL. What measure of autonomy?

The VICE-ALCALDE. The free administration of our local matters, such as building whatever municipal structures we wish to, making our own budget, etc.

Mr. MEJIA. The tale is told of a king of France who went to a village once and said: "What can I do for this village?" And they said: "The best thing you can do is to let us alone."

Dr. CARROLL. You think that is what ought to be done for the cities? Nevertheless you would consider it well that in the charter given to municipalities there should be some limits placed upon their powers?

Mr. MEJIA. Every town should have the same system. There should be administrative autonomy. For instance, we should have the right to form our own budget, which should be submitted to the taxpayers for approval and not to headquarters.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think it well that the number of members in the council should be reduced in many cases?

Mr. TORRES. I think that should be done. In Yauco, for instance, most of the wealthy men are foreigners and can not form part of the council, and it is difficult to get up a representative council outside of these men unless the number is limited.

Dr. CARROLL. You would, of course, expect the people to elect the councils?

The VICE-ALCALDE. Certainly.

Dr. CARROLL. How many barrios are there within the town proper of Yauco?

The VICE-ALCALDE. Two only: the north and the south.

Dr. CARROLL. Do the districts or barrios outside of Yauco have any representation in the council?

The VICE-ALCALDE. Some have.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think it well that municipalities should be limited generally to the territory occupied by the population proper and not take in large sections of the rural districts?

Mr. MEJIA. It can not be.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it not a fact that those who live in the rural districts and have their interests there nevertheless have to pay taxes for your street lights, for your aqueduct, for your fire department, for your police, in the maintenance of which they have no interest? Would it not be fairer to organize a government for the rural districts and have a separate government for the town?

Mr. TORRES. That could not be. At present there are barrios with 1,000 inhabitants, and we can not find a man fit to name as a comisario who can read or write.

Dr. CARROLL. That is a bad state of affairs, but in the United States we have different kinds of government adapted to the needs of different localities. The people who live in rural districts and do not want the things they have in the cities are not taxed as much. They have to raise money chiefly for the care of the roads and for the public schools and have very few expenses beyond these. Consequently they have a government suited to their needs and also to their pocket-books.

Mr. TORRES. Such a system would be impracticable here, owing to the want of education.

Dr. CARROLL. We find in the United States that the formation of these small rural governments acts as a school in politics, so that people in a small way learn the art of government, and especially of self-government, and from administering these small affairs they come, in time, when the community grows and the population reaches to a considerable number, to be educated up to the point of having a higher form of government—that of a town or city even—and these small rural governments are considered, therefore, excellent schools in governmental matters.

The VICE-ALCALDE. In the United States everybody knows how to read and write.

Dr. CARROLL. No; many do not.

The VICE-ALCALDE. But a large proportion.

Dr. CARROLL. We have many there who do not know how to read and write, and yet we find by experience that they often make good public officials. I have known such men on school boards who have made efficient public servants. The first requisite of good citizenship is that the man should have the public interest at heart, and if he is a good, honest man he can do service in some position. Furthermore, if you have these rural governments men will have an aspiration to fit themselves for such positions.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. Not only are the people in the country towns ignorant about municipal government, but the people here in the city are also, because we were never allowed to have a voice in municipal government. We are capable of taking a share in the government because we have education, but I don't think rural governments should be started at once. There should first be started schools in the country.

Dr. CARROLL. It has been stated that there are barrios in which no one can read or write.

Mr. TORRES. Yes; those who can read and write are foreigners.

Dr. CARROLL. How do they get comisarios in those barrios?

Mr. TORRES. If they can find a man who can read and write, they name him. Mr. Mejia, who lives in one of those barrios, can tell you about them and the condition of the people.

Mr. MEJIA. In the barrio where I live there are twenty or thirty who can read and write. It has about 1,000 inhabitants. They removed from there the only school there was in the barrio and now nobody is learning.

Dr. CARROLL. Why did they close the school in that barrio?

Mr. TORRES. The municipality can only sustain six or eight rural schools, and as there are twenty-four districts, they move the schools about.

Dr. CARROLL. Don't you think that if the district were divided up so that the district of Yauco were limited, the country people would see to it that they had schools for their children? I think they would.

Mr. TORRES. I don't think so, because here it is necessary to force the parents to send their children to school, and if left to their own initiative I don't think they would take any steps at all.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the compulsory law enforced here? You have not accommodation for half the children of Yauco, have you, if they all wanted to go to school at one time?

Mr. MEJIA. For that reason we have asked the state to take schools under its charge.

Dr. CARROLL. That is just my point. The compulsory law amounts to nothing unless you have schools for the children to attend. I am not criticising the conditions here.

Mr. TORRES. In this district, or in some districts, there are some two or three hundred children that ought to go to school.

Dr. CARROLL. I am not criticising the town at all for the provision or lack of provision it makes for education. I am asking these questions to get at the facts. We have a compulsory law in our own country, but if that law were enforced we would not have accommodation for all the children in many cases. I think you must have considerable help from the insular government in order to make your schools what they should be and in order to establish more schools; but it is my belief that a different system of government throughout the island would contribute to that result; that towns like this should have a government of their own and should be set off from the rural community; that rural communities should have a government of a much simpler cast, that would cost much less. Now, with regard to the question whether the people of a barrio or several barrios together in the country districts are capable of self-government. The same question comes into view with regard to the people of the island, and when I was asked this question in the United States I said the only way to determine whether people are capable of self-government is to place the responsibility upon them, and when the responsibility is placed upon them they usually rise to the emergency. I believe the people of this island are competent for self-government, and I believe that it is true of the people of your barrios in some measure.

Mr. MEJIA. I think the country people are not sufficiently educated or instructed to conduct their own affairs.

Mr. TORRES. The few educated people who can govern would naturally be chosen by the free vote to conduct the government.

Dr. CARROLL. If this system of government of which I am speaking were established, it would be in conjunction with what is known as

county government in the United States. In the county are gathered a number of municipalities, towns, and townships, and the authorities of the county government exercise supervision to a certain extent over the governments which are under them; and if such a system were adopted here, it would be necessary to have this county government, and the officials of the county government would instruct the officials of the township government in the art of governing, so as to prevent them from making any serious mistakes.

MR. MEJIA. I think that in each barrio a council could be formed consisting of the comisario and three or four members who can administer their local affairs under supervision of the head municipality.

DR. CARROLL. That is what we have in the United States in township government under a different name.

MR. TORRES. The powers of such districts would have to be very limited in that case.

DR. CARROLL. Certainly; because their needs would be very limited.

MR. TORRES. If they had to have a system of employees and book-keeping, such as this municipality has had, it would be impossible.

DR. CARROLL. No; their needs would be very simple.

MR. TORRES. Would they have to collect and apply their own taxes?

DR. CARROLL. Yes; but under the supervision of the county board of taxation.

MR. TORRES. Then, what income would this municipality count on?

DR. CARROLL. On the income from the property within its limits.

MR. MEJIA. How would we pay our alcalde's salary, our titular doctor, our hospital, our police?

DR. CARROLL. Ought not the people of the city pay for the things which they enjoy exclusively?

MR. TORRES. What would the barrios do if they had no titular doctor?

DR. CARROLL. Have their own titular doctor.

MR. TORRES. At present we have only two doctors for the entire jurisdiction.

DR. CARROLL. Several of the barrios could join together and have one doctor between them. It is not necessary that every barrio should be changed to a township.

CONDITION OF MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT.

STATEMENT OF MANY CITIZENS.

ISABELA, P. R., *February 15, 1899.*

The ayuntamientos drag on an ephemeral existence. They are nearly all insolvent and can not cover their liabilities, being unable to fulfill their mission or comply with their duties as required by law. This condition, in our opinion, is owing to centralization in government, to which they were subjected by the Spanish monarchical rulers.

The government must put the municipalities in the way of governing with complete liberty, allowing them to nominate or remove all employees paid out of municipal funds, and giving them free action in matters relating to roads, schools, budgets, police, and everything affecting local matters. With this freedom of action and without having to submit voluminous documents for superior approval, which

system has always prevented all initiative, both personal and collective, the ayuntamientos will be able to attend to their duties and carry on things as they should be done. For these reasons we think that the Government should declare in force for the whole island the memorial treating of ayuntamientos approved by General Henry, who began his term of government by calling an assembly to inform him about the needs of the island, with the object of remedying them in so far as possible.

POPULAR ELECTIONS FOR MUNICIPAL OFFICERS.

STATEMENT OF JOSE M. ORTIZ.

MAUNABO, P. R., *February 24, 1899.*

(1) The immense majority of the municipalities of Porto Rico are bankrupt and can not support the burdens weighing on them, and it would be well to relieve them of these so that taxpayers may note the benefits of a change of régime, which would act as a stimulus in fomenting work.

(2) Autonomy for cities as a governmental basis, with the modifications suggested by persons of competent judgment in this country.

(3) Municipalities, municipal judges, and governmental bodies to be chosen by popular elections. Municipalities to name their alcalde and president.

(4) That the maintenance of district prisons pass to the charge of the state.

FEWER MUNICIPAL DISTRICTS.

STATEMENT OF DE GAZTAMIDE.

YAUCO, P. R., *November 20, 1898.*

Civil administration can be left in the hands of municipalities and municipal boards, but the number should be reduced. To become an alderman or member of a board the following qualifications should be exacted: Two years' residence; to be of age; knowledge of reading and writing, and being a taxpayer, either governmental or municipal. Municipalities to be conceded complete autonomy in local matters, and local boards to be chosen by popular election of all the persons in the district able to write and read and who pay taxes. Employees to be permanent, only to be removed for cause, and vacancies to be filled by competition in which preferent rights be, first, for the most competent; second, length of service.

A LIMITED SUFFRAGE.

STATEMENT OF ESCOLASTICO PEREZ.

CIDRA, P. R., *November 10, 1898.*

I think that mayors, judges, and municipal corporations should be elected by all ratepayers, whatever quota be paid, and by those knowing how to read and write, and no one else. Public offices, especially in the schools, should be filled by competitive examination, in which

virtue and merit should be vigorously exacted. Municipal accounts should be clear and simple; the estimates should be drawn with economy, and taxation, with the exception of a few easily collected items, should be levied on one general article of assessment. There should be municipal autonomy.

MUNICIPAL AUTONOMY.

STATEMENT OF TWENTY MERCHANTS AND PLANTERS.

YAUCO, P. R., *March 6, 1899.*

Municipalities need complete autonomy in order to develop freely. They must be able to fix their own budgets of receipts and expenditures according to their local needs and means without outside interference of any sort, and with no other fiscalization than that of a board of the largest taxpayers. They must also be allowed to undertake all classes of public works, making the necessary contracts for loans for that purpose.

In this district we limit ourselves to asking for the opening of the port of Guanica for export and import, as it is one of the best of the island and is the natural port of the largest coffee-producing district, which exports 60,000 hundredweight of coffee and large quantities of sugar, and would obtain the exports of the neighboring towns of Sabana Grande, Lajas, San German, and Guayanilla, and would acquire the importance it is entitled to.

REFORMS IN MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT.

GUAYANILLA, P. R., *November, 1899.*

Municipal administration needs a special study. Towns should be allowed to participate in the control of their own interests. Until the present time the ayuntamientos have not really been the administrators. Composed of an excessive number of members, almost entirely political doctrinaires rather than public servants, they have converted the administration into a field of battle, thus prostituting their high office, and have given ear only to the initiative and pressure of the captain of the majority in this strange struggle. This captain, being the most resolute and sagacious, has been elected president, and he himself fixes his salary, which he takes care shall be sufficient to enable him to live decorously and give his whole attention to his object, thus constituting him a political agent. It is customary to bring into the body of these councils not the best class of persons of the locality, nor the persons whose prestige and attainments make them fit for the position, but political bosses, who can at any given moment bring the greatest amount of grist to the political mill. These personages, who in some cases can neither read nor write, and pay hardly any taxes, and have no practical experience of public affairs, are usually the most active in political struggles and are well in with the authorities of the district. These recommend or disapprove and pass on measures, enforcing obedience from the other members, and at the end of the economic year are rewarded by having their property assessed at a low valuation. Between the alcalde and his employees there is generally a familiarity or secret understanding

that he shall be the head of the economic family and they his willing agents.

Members of a city council, which is everything but representative, always fall in with the alcalde's views on all important measures and give their votes as he directs. Notwithstanding this, there have been occasions when alcaldes have announced measures before a vote has been taken on them and have fallen out with a member of the minority who has not countenanced the proceeding.

How is it possible that the municipalities shall have prosperity in such hands? Councilors in excess, ayuntamientos which do everything but attend to public business, and alcalde who bosses the community and manages everything his own way—these are the three principal spokes in the administrative wheel.

We think that six or seven councilors are sufficient to manage the affairs of a district like Guayanilla, with 8,000 inhabitants, but they should fill the conditions of prestige, morality, education, or capital, and concern for public welfare. To name a greater number is to insure failure or to deprive other boards, such as those of education, health, etc., of the needed members.

If the alcaldes were nothing but presidents of the boards of aldermen, charged to carry out their motions, if the alcaldes were not politicians, but gave their services gratuitously, as do the aldermen, doubtless we should see the positions filled by independent persons of some standing, who would not be terrorized by the threat of removal, and who would attend to public affairs as if they were their own business.

To conclude, we want fewer members in the city council, men of known worth and unpaid alcaldes, and until this is provided the plague spot will remain.

Up to the present the employees have been named for one of two reasons only—political affinity or relationship or business convenience. Merit has had to hold aloof. There should be a law to stop unjust nominations and unjust removals. A law is needed which shall exact merit, honesty, and promotion by turn, and which would not set a premium on political adherence to one or the other party, and requiring a strict responsibility for the fulfillment of duty. At present it is not possible to exact any of these conditions from employees, as they are not sure of their positions nor of their daily bread. Up to now for every affair there has been named an employee; for each sheet of paper a pen; all tending to waste public money.

Reduce the number of public servants, divide and organize the work and offices, and it will be seen that few and good men, well paid, can do the work to-day neglected by an army of dissatisfied and ill-paid clerks. Why should a small town like this need more than a secretary at \$2 daily and an assistant at \$1 daily?

Who would be a better depository than one of the council, by monthly turns?

The question of police is the most important and should have your attention. To be a public guardian, a policeman should be an honest, firm, and kindly man. Unfortunately, here we have as policemen men who have been in prison and are political servants of the mayor, and who carry out his orders in such a way that there seems no remedy for us but to emigrate, as some who have been constantly persecuted have already done. Let the police be well paid, but make them responsible for the least abuse or excess, and above all only name men of respectability and firmness for such important positions, who,

instead of terrorizing and becoming political instruments, will really be public protectors. Otherwise it would be better to emigrate than lose all liberty of action or expose oneself to outrage and insult.

Everything that can be said about taxation is both irritating and scandalous. As until now all taxation is based on the information of the taxpayer himself as regards his income and rests on the good faith of his declarations, the result has been that the returns are hypothetical. As the revising board is named by the alcalde and council, these, under the conditions aforementioned, constitute a family party. The poor peasant, who has to pay, falls a victim to the collector, who sells his estate when he can not satisfy the excessive quota assigned him. Working his farm, he has no time to attend to these matters and trusts in the alcalde to do him justice; but the alcalde, together with his board, only sees that his henchmen are protected at the expense of the others. We even have known it to happen that when the experts named did not attend, the municipal employees have themselves acted as experts in valuation.

If it is impossible to do away with direct taxation, then let the property in each municipality be properly assessed for purposes of taxation. Until this is done there will be neither justice nor equality in the application of taxation.

We will also say a word about the officials who are appointed to collect overdue taxes by forced sales. They themselves name the valuers and lend themselves to all sorts of immorality in carrying out their task.

The government should, in the matter of education, look into two things—the teachers and the material used in schools. In the cities inspection is possible. In rural districts, where population is scattered, the teachers are obliged to become instruments of the dominating power and to allow things to pass unquestioned that should be suppressed. The distance of one house from another makes the attendance of pupils extremely difficult. Besides, the school material used is far from perfect and is often entirely wanting.

The situation of the poor in respect to sanitation is lamentable. Badly fed, living on the ground in huts, without assistance in case of sickness, the spectacle presented is moving. Only in the large towns have sums been set aside for charitable purposes, and only in them can the poor find a bed and medical assistance in case of need.

But in small towns like ours, where large sums are voted for employees, feasts, extra allowances, etc., our poor pass their periods of sickness in their huts, far from medical attendance, both owing to the causes named, their numbers, and the distance at which they live.

Is a remedy to be sought? In which case, less feasts, less politics, fewer squandering municipalities, more economies, and a sum set aside each year for charities and hospitals.

As roads are the life of a town it is natural that ayuntamientos should give them some attention. As our country is essentially agricultural, there is no doubt that if it were covered by a network of roads it would become rich and flourishing. This town, for instance, although traversed by a good central road, has no roads to its points of production. The bad roads, or rather paths, are the cause of the produce seeking other outlets, depriving this locality of its legitimate benefits. It is therefore necessary that money should be furnished to construct our vicinage roads, and that the ayuntamiento should vote the amounts required for their repairs.

We will not close without stating that the late order of the government respecting the liquor tax has been wrongly interpreted. General Henry wished to diminish the vice of drunkenness, so common in the country, but he did not wish to lay a tax on the producer, who already pays taxes in the general scheme of land taxation. Why, then, have our authorities taxed both the producer and the retailer? Can not our ayuntamiento understand that not having done this in other towns, the producers of those districts are in a position to undersell the producers of this district, and the retailers consequently buy their supplies outside, to the great prejudice of our locality?

If it is wished to wipe out political rancor, to unite the Porto Ricans, and finish once for all old enmities, it is logical that until the first elections take place both elements be given equal voice and equal benefits in the regeneration. It is not logical to give the ayuntamientos over to one party and to allow the other ingress only when some vacancy occurs.

Is peace sought? Is politics to be exterminated? Then name an equal number of both parties to the city councils and an American delegate with a voice, but no vote, as a representative of the Government, and it will be seen how quickly success will follow the step.

If this is done, the naming of the new members of the councils should not be left to the present councilors, or they will do as they have done already—name nonentities from among their political opposites, men not able to oppose their selfish plans.

GUAYANILLA, *March, 1899.*

PRISONS AND CHARITIES.

MUNICIPAL CHARITIES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 1, 1898.*

Dr. CARROLL. Do the municipalities have a poor fund?

Mr. ROIG. There is always a hospital, sometimes an asylum, but that is in charge of private parties. There are asylums in only a few places. A custom here is to go around and beg.

Dr. CARROLL. Is not that bad policy? In the United States we have asylums for the deserving poor.

Mr. ROIG. Yes; we used to do that in Humacao. There is an asylum in Ponce, one in San Juan, and one in Arecibo.

Dr. CARROLL. I have been told that when a young girl loses her parents her relatives and friends will join together to take care of her. One furnishes her clothes, another supplies her food, and another educates her.

Mr. ROIG. That is usually done. The people here are not miserly. They do not care much for money. Many of the people who go about begging are idle people who could work just as well as not.

HOSPITAL IN SAN JUAN.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 4, 1898.*

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any civil hospitals here in addition to the military hospital?

Mr. ZARATE (secretary of the board of health). There are none. The military hospital was built by a former bishop here by the name of Cos, who handed it over to the military authorities with the stipulation that thirty beds should be reserved in it for civil patients. As can be imagined, this limited accommodation is insufficient, and the beds are the subject of much competition. Up near Morro Castle an old shanty has been built for hospital purposes, but it does not deserve the name of a hospital. The building at present in use as a prison was originally constructed for a hospital, but sanitary experts decided that it was so placed that easterly winds would blow germs of infection from it into the city, and hence it was not used for hospital purposes.

Dr. CARROLL. Do the military hospitals publish annual reports showing the number of deaths, the various causes of death, the number of patients, etc.?

Mr. ZARATE. They do not publish anything.

Dr. CARROLL. I have a report for ten years, giving the number of patients each year, the number having certain diseases, and the total number of deaths, but it does not show what were the causes of the deaths.

Mr. ZARATE. They kept a record of the number of patients admitted and certain data regarding the deaths, which became a part of the military record, but it was never published. The military authorities of Spain took this record away with them, so that it is to-day impossible to get the facts regarding the causes of the deaths in the military hospital unless they can be obtained from the manager of the cemetery, who would have to go over the record of deaths one by one.

HOSPITAL IN AGUADILLA.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

AGUADILLA, P. R., *January 21, 1899.*

Dr. CASSELDUC (mayor of Aguadilla). We have a civil hospital here of twelve beds. I have two American soldiers there now; one, Mr. O'Connor, from Newark, N. J., who is very ill. At first he had typhoid fever, and then pneumonia, so that one of his lungs nearly disappeared, but now he is getting along and I hope to get him in shape so that he can be sent back to the States. The hospital is a great thing for the poor here, though it is difficult to maintain it.

PRISON REFORMS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

AGUADILLA, P. R., *January 21, 1899.*

Dr. CASSELDUC, mayor of Aguadilla, and Mr. TORREGROSA:

Dr. CASSELDUC. There is another very important question to be touched on—that of prisons. The expense of keeping up the prisons

is too high for municipalities. There should be State institutions. The system here in Porto Rico consists in having a prison in the chief town of the district, and these prisons receive the prisoners from all the small towns lying within the district. The result of this is that the number of prisoners lodged in these prisons is far greater than the capacity of the prison to receive them. The prison here that was built for 50 has 160 inmates. It is for the prison district, and other municipal districts lying within it are supposed to send their contributions for its support, but they never send any.

Dr. CARROLL. Why do you not make a rule that when prisoners are sent here you will not receive them unless the municipality from which they came pays for them?

Dr. CASSELDUC. When the judge says, "You take this prisoner," we have to do it. The judge resides here, and they must be tried in Aguadilla, and then they go to the head court in Mayaguez.

Dr. CARROLL. I think one important reform for Porto Rico is to have the powers of the municipal judges enlarged so that many cases which are now required to go to Mayaguez may be tried in the municipal districts. Here in Porto Rico on some slight suspicion they put a man into prison. And when the man has stolen a few bananas or some little thing, he is put in jail and kept there ten months, sometimes, without trial.

Mr. TORREGROSA. There are prisoners here who have been detained three or four months before trial, and when tried their offense was proved to be a mere misdemeanor.

Dr. CARROLL. That must be remedied. When a man brings a false charge against another, he should be brought to justice for it.

Mr. TORREGROSA. One of two things must be done—either the municipalities must be given power to sustain their own prisons or else the 11 prison districts of the island must be sustained by the State, and in that case collect the tax for their maintenance and not leave it to the municipality.

Dr. CARROLL. That is right; but it seems to me that there ought to be common jails in every municipality for the detention of prisoners found guilty of misdemeanors, and in addition to that jails for the detention of prisoners guilty of more serious crimes.

Dr. CASSELDUC. They have jails for such misdemeanors.

Dr. CARROLL. I mean that the powers of municipal courts should be enlarged to cover additional cases that are really too small to go to the criminal court. There would be fewer sent to Mayaguez and other places where you have criminal courts, and then, instead of confining the criminal courts to San Juan, Mayaguez, and Ponce, I think there should be one in each district, because your means of travel are very much restricted, and it is a hardship for witnesses or for a man who is pressing a criminal charge against another to have to go such long distances as are now necessary, and not only pay his own way but lose his time. For instance, a man living on the border of Arecibo, at Gobo, told me of the case of a man who stole a horse from him. He went first into Arecibo, and there found that the case would have to go before the judge in Utuado, because the crime was committed in the district of Utuado, and the judge in Utuado had to prepare a brief of the case to send to Mayaguez, where this man will have to go to press the charge. It ought to have been tried in Utuado.

Mr. TORREGROSA. The municipality spends at present from \$25 to \$28 a day to give the prisoners food, and naturally at the end of the month they have not money enough to pay their employees.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it true that the judge of first instance does not have trial powers?

Mr. TORREGROSA. He only has power to prepare a case, and for that reason he is called judge of instruction.

Dr. CARROLL. Why not have a court of first instance to try the less serious cases in the districts where they are committed?

Mr. TORREGROSA. That would be a fine thing for the town.

Dr. CARROLL. I do not see why it can not be, and allow an appeal. You don't need more judicial commissioners, it seems to me, but to have the powers better distributed; or you might have a circuit court for trying these, as in the United States, where judges who have power to hear and determine cases travel around and hold courts periodically and dispose of criminal cases. Is there any provision in your law for releasing on bail?

Mr. TORREGROSA. There is a system of allowing persons out on bail, except for the gravest of crimes; but the system does not work, owing to the venality of the clerks. The system is very much mixed up. Very often a person is imprisoned for four or five months for a crime of no consequence.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there no writ of habeas corpus?

Mr. TORREGROSA. No.

Dr. CARROLL. That is considered the palladium of American liberties.

Mr. TORREGROSA. The question of prisons should be attended to, as it is one of great importance.

Dr. CASSELDUC. It is a source of great misery here.

Dr. CARROLL. What provision would you make for the temporary reform of it during the military régime?

Mr. TORREGROSA. Either of the two I have mentioned before, namely, that the state should take charge, or each municipality be allowed to have its own prison and attend to it.

Dr. CARROLL. That would not be really a reform. Great injustice is done by keeping people in prisons for two or three months without a hearing in cases of a trivial character.

Mr. TORREGROSA. I would recommend, then, simply to give the judge of first instance power to take cognizance of small cases that are not absolutely criminal.

Dr. CARROLL. What is done in the case of persons who are witnesses and whose testimony is regarded as of great importance? How are they detained and how is their presence secured when necessary in a case?

Mr. TORREGROSA. That is another question of highest importance. When the court at Mayaguez requires a witness, it cites him, and if he happens to be a poor man he naturally can not afford to undertake a journey from here to there, and he avoids it.

Dr. CARROLL. His expenses ought to be paid in such cases, together with his witness fee.

Mr. TORREGROSA. That should be done; but the state should do it, for the same reason it supports the judges and the high court.

Dr. CARROLL. Of course, if it is a state case; but in the police court it should be done by the city.

Mr. TORREGROSA. I think the whole system of courts should be under state control. I consider that as the state to-day collects a direct tax—for instance, as a pharmacist I pay \$50 to the state in addition to my municipal taxes—the state ought to spend that money for state purposes or leave that amount to be spent by the municipality. In the latter case, the municipality could attend to these matters.

think that the custom-house tax and direct taxes should be collected only for federal purposes; that all other taxes should be used for the purposes for which they are collected—that is, the municipalities collect for municipal purposes only.

GAMBLING.

[Hearing before the United States Commission.]

MAYAGUEZ, P. R., *January 24, 1899.*

DON CARTAGENA and Mr. ST. LAURENT, mayor.

NOTE.—The following was read from the Penal Code, Title VI, articles 354, 355, and 356:

That bankers and owners of gambling houses in which enters luck or chance shall be punished by major arrest and fined from 625 up to 6,250 pesetas, and in cases of repetition by that of major arrest in its greatest degree to correctional imprisonment in its minimum degree and double fine. The players who shall meet in such house shall be punished by major arrest in its minimum degree and fined from 325 to 3,250 pesetas, and in cases of repetition with major arrest in its minimum degree and double fine. The conductor and seller of lottery tickets or unauthorized raffles shall be punished by major arrest in its minimum degree and its medium degree, and a fine from 325 to 3,250 pesetas. Those who make use of fraudulent methods in play or in raffles to secure their winning shall be punished as swindlers. Money or effects and instruments used in play or raffles are to be confiscated.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they proceed against gamblers severely?

DON CARTEGENA. Yes; after the feast days, if the police give information about it.

Dr. CARROLL. There was a great deal of gambling going on last night in the market place. How long will that continue?

DON CARTEGENA. During the feast; it has been the custom throughout the island for many years on feast days to do that.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you have any cockpits here?

Mr. CARTAGENA. Yes; they are allowed by the city. There is no law against them. They pay a tax.

Dr. CARROLL. How many have you in this city?

Mr. CARTAGENA. Only one.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it the expectation that the council will continue to license that?

Mr. CARTAGENA. I don't know.

Mr. ST. LAURENT. We are in a difficult position to-day—neither one thing nor the other. We are still under the Spanish law, and there is nothing in that to prevent it.

Dr. CARROLL. Why do you permit gambling on feast days and not on others?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. It is the custom to celebrate the feast in each city. As far back as anybody can remember it has been the custom in these celebrations to allow small gambling, such as you saw here last night. The council determined this year to have nothing to do with the feast; but a committee of townspeople called on the council and asked permission to carry it on as usual. I went to the colonel in command here and explained the matter to him, in order to avoid responsibility. The colonel said to me, "Let them do as they are accustomed to do so long as there is no disorder. We do not intend suddenly to do away with old established customs. As long as order is preserved the people may continue their old methods. Little by

little the introduction of American customs here will show these people what they should do and what they should not do. I do not wish to interfere in any way." The gamblers pay the expenses of the feast.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any objection in your mind to this way of celebrating the feast day?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. The council unanimously objected to it. It is composed of men who do not gamble; but the townspeople this year were very much in favor of holding the traditional feast, and the councilmen, wishing to bring some money into the city and wishing, at the same time, to raise the spirits of the people a little, allowed the feast. The people have been very much depressed, owing to the poverty that exists. I expect next year, when we shall have become a part of the American Union, to take such steps as may be necessary to compel the people to follow the usages of the American nation.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it the general feeling among Porto Rican people that these games are not on the whole objectionable?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. They do not think, nor do I, that there is any real harm in raffles for a package of hairpins or a pot of pomade.

Dr. CARROLL. But all the games I saw last night were for money.

Mr. CARTAGENA. It is our custom, which dates back hundreds of years. Last year they had a roulette table in the open plaza. This year they have moved it from the plaza. It is quite possible to prohibit this thing, because if you tell these people there must be no gambling of any description, there will be none. We have not opposed the feast this year, so as not to make ourselves unpopular. The whole town seems to desire it, and as we are here in office on uncertain tenure we did not wish to stop it. Besides, the country people bring in their daughters to dances, and neighboring towns bring in a certain amount of business, and the merchants for that reason like the fad.

Dr. CARROLL. But no one objects to the dances.

Mr. ST. LAURENT. Yes; but we can not have the dances without the gambling, because they are paid for by taxing the gamblers. The band of the Fifth Cavalry has cost us \$300; the firemen's band has cost also \$300; the fireworks have cost \$500. A ball which they are going to give in the theater will cost at least \$500. The five balls to be given will cost in all, \$800. They will include a masked ball, a children's ball, a people's ball, and a workmen's ball.

Dr. CARROLL. Has any attempt ever been made by the city authorities to prevent the school children from taking part in this gambling?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. They have never taken any steps, because they do not consider that this gambling is vicious. Women also gamble, but after the period of the feast gambling is prevented altogether. When once the feast is over there is absolutely no sort of gambling allowed. We allow it now for two reasons: First, because the colonel did not oppose it; and secondly, because Ponce had held its feast and this city did not wish to be behind.

PRISON CONDITIONS IN HUMACAO.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

HUMACAO, P. R., *Fbruary 1, 1899.*

Mr. JOAQUIN MASFERRER, mayor of Humacao:

Dr. CARROLL. How many prisoners have you in your municipal jail?

Mr. MASFERRER. Eighty-odd. They belong to the judicial district, or rather to the prison district; not alone to Humacao.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you an audiencia here?

Mr. MASFERRER. No; we go to San Juan.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you have to send prisoners up there for trial, together with witnesses?

Mr. MASFERRER. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. You have a judge of first instance and instruction here?

Mr. MASFERRER. Yes. He will be present at the hearing today.

Dr. CARROLL. Does this municipal district have to pay all the expenses of the prison or are they divided?

Mr. MASFERRER. All towns pay their proportion.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any abuses of right or privilege or justice in the arrest and imprisonment of persons?

Mr. MASFERRER. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Are persons allowed to be arrested on secret charges?

Mr. MASFERRER. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Then it is different in this district from what it is in others that I have visited. I have had testimony that persons have been arrested on secret charges in other districts, the cause of the arrest not being communicated to them. I think it would be well before arresting a person to inform him for what reason he is arrested.

Mr. MASFERRER. In the time of the Spaniards the abuse was very common.

Dr. CARROLL. Are your prisoners all kept together without respect to the nature of the offense committed by them?

Mr. MASFERRER. Yes; the only separation is according to sex, except that we have a room, called a preference room, which is devoted to prisoners who do not wish to be in the same quarters with the rest and for which the prisoners have to pay.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you make any difference as to the age of the prisoners—keeping youthful offenders apart from older criminals?

Mr. MASFERRER. We haven't sufficient room in the prison to make such a distinction.

Dr. CARROLL. You recognize the importance of keeping first offenders apart from old offenders in order that they should not be inoculated by the vices of the older ones?

Mr. MASFERRER. Yes; but we haven't the means of separating them.

(At the close of the hearing the commissioner inspected the prison, which is in the basement of the alcaldia and is the prison for the entire prison district, comprising Humacao, Fajardo, Naguabo, Vieques, Yabucoa, Juncos, and Piedras. It contains three departments—that for male prisoners, another for female prisoners, and a preference department, as it is called, for those who do not wish to be quartered with the others and can afford to pay for better quarters. There are now ninety prisoners in all, among whom are three women. The female quarters are dark, unhealthy, and totally unfit for human habitation. The women are taken out daily for exercise. Those serving sentence and those undergoing trial are all in prison together, and no difference is made between persons guilty of grave crimes and those guilty of slight offenses; and no distinction is made on account of age—old and young, hardened criminals and first offenders, all being shut up together. The mayor claims that this is one of the best prisons in the island. The men's prison is in better condition, as to air and space, than the women's, but the drainage is defective, and the place is filthy and the smell unbearable. No uniform dress is adopted, most of the prisoners wearing the clothes they wore when arrested.)

Dr. CARROLL. Are you familiar with the condition of the prison here, both the part for men and the part for women?

Dr. PABLO FONT. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you consider the prison in good sanitary condition?

Dr. FONT. No; it is not in good condition.

Dr. CARROLL. Will you please state the condition in which you found the prison and your opinion of it?

Dr. FONT. There are too many prisoners for the room assigned them. They are huddled too closely together. There was a project to build a modern prison, but it was dropped for want of funds.

Dr. CARROLL. What is your opinion of the drainage in the men's department?

Mr. MASFEKKER. Permit me to say that it is so bad that a few days ago I called in a competent person to see what could be done in the matter. He drew up plans for improving the drainage, but I have not been able to carry them into effect for want of funds.

Dr. CARROLL. I would like to know if Dr. Font does not regard the effluvium which comes from the prison dangerous not only to the prisoners, but to the keepers and to the people of the town generally?

Dr. FONT. Naturally so; and for that reason the alcalde tried to take steps to better the condition of the prison.

Dr. CARROLL. Is not the air charged with germs that might develop typhoid fever or other diseases?

Dr. FONT. Yes; that is also the case.

Dr. CARROLL. There seems to be no particular odor about the women's department; but is it not too dark and in other ways unfit for the incarceration of women?

Dr. FONT. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. What amount do you consider necessary to make the prison sanitary?

Mr. MASFEKKER. We have the lot, and we estimate that \$12,000 would be sufficient to put up a building that would be adequate. This sum was collected under the old government for that purpose, but the money has disappeared from the treasury.

PRISON CHARGES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

AIBONITO, P. R., *February 6, 1899.*

Mr. MANUEL CABALLER, mayor of Aibonito, and Mr. ———, municipal judge:

Dr. CARROLL. Where are the headquarters of this judicial district?

Mr. CABALLER. Guayama.

Dr. CARROLL. You send your prisoners to Guayama?

Mr. CABALLER. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. And you pay for the support of the prisoners you send there?

Mr. CABALLER. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the charges large?

Mr. CABALLER. Yes. We pay much out of proportion to the number of prisoners we have sent from here. With the amount we pay we could keep our prisoners in a hotel.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you looked into the matter to see why it costs so much?

Mr. CABALLER. I have only been in office six days and have not looked into it.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it not the custom for the several alcaldes in the district to get together and agree as to the amount that shall be apportioned to each municipality in the judicial district?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. This district pays \$3,000 state taxes, and on that amount they base the amount this district is to pay for prison duties.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there no auditing of the accounts of the prison on the part of the municipalities which contribute?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. I went there. They presented the account and said: "This contract was let at auction. Here is the amount; and this, that, and the other thing were done, and here they appear," and all the alcaldes could do was to say, "All right."

Dr. CARROLL. It seems to me that the municipalities ought to look into it. They are spending large amounts for the keeping of a few prisoners.

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. Beginning the 1st of July next, the state will take the prisoners under its charge; consequently there will be no need for it.

PRISON AND HOSPITAL ACCOMMODATIONS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

COAMO, P. R., *February 6, 1899.*

Dr. JUAN TRUJILLO, a physician of Coamo:

Dr. CARROLL. Is there a city hospital in this city?

Dr. TRUJILLO. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the condition of it?

Dr. TRUJILLO. Good.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you all the supplies and accommodations that are needed?

Dr. TRUJILLO. No; the town being a poor one, it is not able to keep up more than a certain number of beds.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there a jail in the city?

Dr. TRUJILLO. Yes; the municipal jail.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it a part of your duty to visit the jail?

Dr. TRUJILLO. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the condition of the jail as to sanitation?

Dr. TRUJILLO. It is not a prison possessing good hygienic conditions, but as few prisoners only are in it, the matter is not serious.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the general health of the city?

Dr. TRUJILLO. Good.

Dr. CARROLL. What are the principal diseases?

Dr. TRUJILLO. Intestinal diseases and a few cases of typhoid fever.

Dr. CARROLL. What are those intestinal diseases caused by?

Dr. TRUJILLO. The chief reason is the heat; another reason is the unhealthy condition of the town; but now that other measures are being taken, I think an improvement will be felt.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you have any cases of smallpox?

Dr. TRUJILLO. Up to the present we have had none.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you have consumption?

Dr. TRUJILLO. Yes; it is a very common disease here.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the cause of that?

Dr. TRUJILLO. Bad alimentation, the general misery of the poor, and the irregular way of living.

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE OF COAMO:

Dr. CARROLL. How many prisoners are there now in the municipal jail?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. Two.

Dr. CARROLL. For what offenses are they imprisoned?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. One is there for disrespect shown to the judge and the police authorities, and the other for assault.

Dr. CARROLL. What was the case of disrespect?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. I had a horse in my grounds, taking care of it for a man in the country. Another man took it out and rode it about the town, and on undertaking to get the horse from him, he used blasphemous words. The case will go to Ponce for trial.

MURDER OF AMERICAN SOLDIER.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

CAGUAS, P. R., *February 27, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. I want to ask a question or two about the killing of an American soldier here a few days ago.

Dr. JIMINEZ CRUZ. I don't believe that this affair in any way was induced by the people. I believe that the man who committed the assassination is a criminal. I know him and know his character. The affair had nothing to do with politics. Several days before this event happened I heard certain people say that they were tired of the conduct of some of the soldiers; that they had had enough of it, owing to their drunkenness, but this happening has nothing whatever about it which indicates any feeling against the Government.

Mr. SOLA. When the military proceedings were instituted, witnesses stated that the soldier was invited into the Workmen's Club and that the assassin entered and killed him, treacherously, from behind. The man who committed the crime was not a member of the club and had never been in there before.

Dr. CARROLL. Had he strong reason for bitter feeling against that particular soldier, or against any soldier here?

Mr. SOLA. It is not known whether he had any motive or not. He is a man whose hand has been against everybody.

Dr. CARROLL. Has he been captured?

Mr. SOLA. We have done everything we could to catch him, but have not been able to do so.

Dr. CARROLL. I am not here to investigate that matter at all, but I wanted to ask a few questions for my own satisfaction.

Dr. CRUZ. I wish to put on record that this deed does not in any way represent the feeling of the people for the soldiers. The soldiers and the townspeople have been very friendly and have mingled together up to the present.

Dr. CARROLL. It seems to be a very strange affair, because your people are generally so peace loving. I hardly know how to find an explanation for it.

Dr. CRUZ. I have just been informed that the soldier who was killed was making love to the girl with whom this man who assassi-

nated him was keeping company, and that the assassin had followed him until he got an opportunity to kill him. This assassin is a man of bad conduct and has committed other felonious assaults. I have attended, as a doctor, to the cure of persons whom he has assaulted and shot with a revolver. It is a gain to society that he should disappear.

Dr. CARROLL. Is he a white man?

Dr. CRUZ. He is a young mulatto and the son of a blacksmith. His antecedents are not good; his mother is half demented and a drinker.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you had any other murder here in recent years?

Dr. CRUZ. This was the first in many years. There have been quarrels and wounds, but no murders.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the prevailing crime in Caguas?

Dr. CRUZ. Quarrels, abduction, and blows given in quarrels.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you mean the abduction of girls under age?

Dr. CRUZ. Yes; with the girl's consent.

JOSE BOADA, president of the gremio of workmen of Caguas:

Mr. BOADA. In the name of the club which I represent, I come to repeat the protest which I have already made to the colonel here, and to offer our assistance, if necessary, and to make the government understand that we did not wish to be impressed by what certain Spanish persons here residing told us with regard to the troops, for which reason these same Spaniards wish to make bad blood between us and the American troops. The young man who committed this murder is not a workman; he is not of us, nor is he with us. I wish one of the witnesses to speak, because I was in the country at the time and am not personally acquainted with the facts.

Mr. JUAN DIAZ, a member of the gremio of workmen:

Dr. CARROLL. Were you present when this affair occurred?

Mr. DIAZ. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Will you give an account of what you saw and heard?

Mr. DIAZ. There were six of the club there that night, around a table, reading our regulations. An American soldier came upstairs, entered into the club, and asked permission to sit down there, which was granted, and he sat down. He asked what the place was, and we told him it was a club, and he took his hat off. One of the members of the club, thinking the soldier came up under the influence of drink, went down to the street to look for an officer. The criminal came up the stairs, through the door, and committed the act.

Dr. CARROLL. While the man was absent looking for the officer?

Mr. DIAZ. Yes, while he was absent.

Dr. CARROLL. Then what did the criminal do; leave immediately?

Mr. DIAZ. Before the act was committed I got up and asked the criminal what he wanted, and he said, "I have come here to stick a knife into this soldier." I tried to prevent him, but I didn't have time.

Mr. CARROLL. Did the soldier know that he was there?

Mr. DIAZ. It seems to me that he did not know, because his back was turned—the assassin stepped up behind him.

Dr. CARROLL. Did you try to arrest the man then?

Mr. DIAZ. Yes; I tried to catch him, but it was all the work of an instant. As soon as he did it he ran away.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you know the man; had you seen him before?

Mr. DIAZ. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. What was his trade, if any?

Mr. DIAZ. A coachman.

Dr. CARROLL. He was not a member of your club?

Mr. BOADA. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Was he in the habit of associating with members of the club?

Mr. BOADA. None of the townspeople associated with him; he was not the friend of anybody.

Dr. CARROLL. Who tries to connect the club with this act? Is it any person you know of, or is it simply rumor?

Mr. BOADA. It is rumor, and is not directed against the club in particular, but against the working people as a whole, and is started by those who are annoyed by the fact that we have a liberty we did not have before.

Dr. CARROLL. Is your club private?

Mr. BOADA. No; it is public.

Dr. CARROLL. I heard a report to-day on the street that this soldier was asked into the room of a secret club, and was stabbed by one of the members of the club. I am very sorry the deed should have occurred where your club meets, but I don't see any fact connecting the club with the act, except the fact that the crime was committed in the same place where your club meets.

Lieutenant ——— (Forty-seventh New York Volunteers). There had been a meeting there Wednesday night before. I immediately got their papers and made a thorough search. We took everything there. It is a casino of the better class of the workmen. It was reported that he had been invited in there and had been seen with this man, but I know that the assassin's name was not on the roll of the club.

Mr. BOADA. We wish to have the effects of the club returned to us, although after what has happened we do not mean to have it continue in the same name nor in the same house.

PRISON CONDITIONS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

PONCE, P. R., *March 2, 1899.*

Mr. LUIS PORRATA DORIA, mayor of Ponce:

Dr. CARROLL. I would like to see the prison this afternoon.

Mr. DORIA. There is a refrain here that says "If anything is bad, it is the prison."

Dr. CARROLL. I understand there is no division in the prison except as between the sexes.

Mr. DORIA. It is anything but a prison. All the criminals are in together, unless we get a dangerous person, and then we put him in a cell. We have a plan for a new prison, but we lack the money to build it.

Dr. CARROLL. Other municipalities in this judicial district will contribute?

Mr. DORIA. They are required to contribute, but they do not do so.

Dr. CARROLL. At Arecibo they imprison the insane, I understand, with criminal offenders.

Mr. DORIA. Here we do not. Here we have an old slaughterhouse, as I told you, which we turned into an insane asylum. Everything here has to be done over.

Dr. CARROLL. When you get autonomy you can undertake all these reforms.

DISORDERS IN PORTO RICO.

(Hearing before the United States Commissioner.)

SAN JUAN, P. R., October 28, 1899.

Mr. MANUEL REYES RUIZ, mayor of Quebradillas, called at the office of the United States Special Commissioner for Porto Rico and was interviewed by the special commissioner.

Mr. RUIZ. There have been about fourteen burnings in my district of houses belonging to Canary Islanders, owing to the fact that these gentlemen during the Spanish rule tortured the people there and imprisoned about thirty-five of them. In their business transactions the Spaniards robbed the Porto Ricans. For instance, if a Porto Rican bought goods to the amount of \$200, the Canary Islander would charge it up as \$300. Canary Islanders are ultra-Spanish. The result of this robbery was that the Canary Islanders gradually appropriated the property of the native Porto Ricans, so that while some of them arrived there with a hundred dollars, in a few years they became capitalists. Prior to the war it was generally stated that these Spaniards had threatened in case war should be declared to tie us to the tails of their horses and to drag us to the nearest port to get us out of the country; they also threatened to tie us together by our mustaches and use us as beasts of burden to draw them to the water when they wished to take their baths.

At election time they put the civil guard at all the entrances of the towns and made us produce our cédulas, or documents, and used every possible means to prevent Porto Ricans from exercising their right of suffrage. They threatened the laboring classes that they would torture and imprison them if they dared to cast their votes. They sent to my little town 150 troops to inspire the people with fright and thereby prevent them from voting. That was the municipal election before the installation of the autonomous government. Since the autonomous government has been in effect elections have been without a show of force.

Dr. CARROLL. What was the result of the election where force was employed?

Mr. RUIZ. In spite of the soldiers and the threats my party refused to be terrorized and carried the election, but in previous elections they absolutely desisted from voting, as the authorities made use of double ballot boxes, pretended to take people to the voting room and instead took them to prison and made it appear that they had voted by the substitution of false ballots, whereas they really had not done so.

Dr. CARROLL. I understand that they have one ballot box for one purpose and a second box for another and that they had voters deposit their ballot in the wrong box in order that they might be counted out.

Mr. RUIZ. There was in each booth only one box, but this had a false bottom. The Governor-General would direct the mayor as to what persons should be elected, and the returns of the elections invariably conformed to this direction. This was accomplished by false ballot boxes and terrorism.

Dr. CARROLL. How has it been since the American occupation?

Mr. RUIZ. When the Spanish troops left after the occupation, vengeance entered, and I believe that the only hope for the peace of this country is to make the Spaniards clear out. Fourteen or fifteen of the worst ones have left Quebradillas and have gone to Aguadilla. Several of them want to return, but the people of the village will not permit them to do so. Those who behaved properly under the old régime have not been molested in any way. Owing to the atrocious treatment the natives received from some of these men their desire has been to kill them; and if they have not done so, it is because they have been unable to get hold of them. Since the occupation by the Americans things have quieted down in my section, and the American soldiers are welcomed as friends and saviors.

Dr. CARROLL. Has there been any trouble since the occupation?

Mr. RUIZ. No; but I am not sure there will not be if the Spaniards remain, as the people do not want them there.

Dr. CARROLL. Are they merchants?

Mr. RUIZ. They are storekeepers and agriculturists, and all of them were volunteers of the Spanish army.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any plantations in your vicinity?

Mr. RUIZ. There is a little sugar, coffee, tobacco, and smaller productions.

Dr. CARROLL. Has there been any retaliation against the proprietors of those plantations by the laborers?

Mr. RUIZ. That has been the greater part of the trouble there.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the condition of the peons?

Mr. RUIZ. They work twelve hours a day for 2½ reals, with rations, which consist of salt codfish and plantain.

Dr. CARROLL. Do the proprietors take care of the families of their peons?

Mr. RUIZ. No; only of the peons themselves.

Dr. CARROLL. Did they give them lodging?

Mr. RUIZ. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Did they pay the peons by checks?

Mr. RUIZ. Some of them gave half the wages in provisions out of their stores; others gave all the wages in provisions, and still others gave all in money.

Dr. CARROLL. Did the plantation owners have any power over the peons to hold them?

Mr. RUIZ. No.

Dr. CARROLL. There has been recently no system of slavery of laborers on account of debt?

Mr. RUIZ. No; I know of none.

Dr. CARROLL. The peons were free to leave the proprietors at any time?

Mr. RUIZ. Yes; they had that liberty. The laborer of this island is by nature very humble, and besides that he has always been in fear of the Spanish volunteers and the civil guard; consequently, he used to go to work and at the end of the day or week, according to what arrangement he had made, would receive his pay, and would go back the next day to work for the same owner, partly because he could not get more wages elsewhere and partly also because he feared that some complaint might be made against him. There are both black and white peons, but there are more white.

Dr. CARROLL. How many people are there under your jurisdiction?

Mr. RUIZ. About 6,000. The so-called bandits are afraid of the American troops, and knowing there are troops in Camuy they will

not go there, and I am afraid they will come to Quebradillas. The so-called bandits are Spaniards and a few native Porto Ricans who are naturally bad; but the greater part are Spaniards who have deserted from the army and prisoners whom the Spanish released. I caught two of them a few days ago myself and put them in jail. I could take care of the bad natives if the Spaniards were not there. Recently a party of 700 natives organized to burn some property in my district, and I personally was able to restrain them. All the disorderly acts which have occurred in that district were committed before my election. I was elected by the people, and have been continued by the Americans in office.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 9, 1898.*

A delegation representing the banking, mercantile, industrial, and other interests of the district of Ponce visited the office of the commission to present the conclusions arrived at by a meeting of representatives of those interests in Ponce. The delegation was instructed to lay particular stress upon the following paragraph:

Before we close the present information we desire to state here that the condition of affairs in the interior of the island can not be tolerated any longer. Bands of assassins that have been for the last two months burning and killing have caused such consternation in the country that it is now unsafe to travel, and the banks and merchants have practically closed business with the interior. If the present situation continues, there will soon be a complete paralysis of business, which can not but be immensely detrimental to the credit and prosperity of the island. As no apparent steps have been taken to stop such vandalic acts, we earnestly request you, in the name of the inhabitants of Porto Rico, to ask the President, Mr. McKinley, to give immediate orders to stop it.

On being questioned respecting these acts the members of the delegation declared that the refusal of the bankers to grant loans to the agriculturists in the interior was due to the destruction caused by the marauders, and that the merchants for the same reason would sell to country storekeepers for cash only.

On being asked whether the condition of the currency was not in some measure responsible for this stoppage of business the delegation admitted that it might have some effect, but insisted that the chief cause was the depredations committed by these midnight bands.

On being urged to make representations to Maj. Gen. John R. Brooke, military commander of the island, they said they had already done so some days previously, and General Brooke had said he would do what he could. They said his plan was to station troops at towns, so that they could protect these centers of population; but, in their opinion, the towns were in no danger; it was the planters who were suffering, and the trouble was that by the time the troops could be secured from the towns, the marauders had made their attacks and escaped. The delegation stated that they believed that travelers were not safe from these banditti. Before the Spaniards left the island they opened the doors of jails and let many prisoners loose. These were among the banditti, and probably also some farm laborers who hold a grudge against their former employers. They said that the feeling at Ponce was that this matter was most urgent and should be attended to at once.

Dr. MANUEL F. ROSSY, a lawyer, and editor of *El Pais*, and a prominent political leader in the island, in submitting the conclusions of the congress of Porto Ricans, of which he was president, for

transmission to Washington, made the following statement at the office of the commission, November 9, 1898:

There are towns where as many as twenty-two estates have been destroyed, and in many cases the coffee crop has been ruined. The owner of a large coffee estate has sent his family to Mayaguez and has himself come to San Juan because of his fear of visitations from the banditti. In four days there have been seven murders. Three of the victims were Spaniards, one a Frenchman, and the rest wealthy Porto Ricans.

At Yauco, in the southern part of the island, a mob visited a coffee estate owned by a Spaniard from the Balearic Islands. They found the man in the parlor, and killed him in the presence of his wife and daughters. To whom, however, they offered no insult or injury. Later they met his major-domo and cut off his ear and nailed it to a tree. These mobs seem to strike specially at Spaniards from the Balearic and Canary Islands, who are very much hated.

In the opinion of Dr. Rossy, those who commit these depredations are in part of foreign and in part of native birth. Some of them are Frenchmen, some Italians, a few Spaniards, and a large number natives. The Spaniards were mainly deserters from the Spanish army. A band of marauders captured near Arecibo was led by a Spanish captain of the Alfonso regiment. He was a deserter from the Spanish army. The purpose of these bands, which in some cases number almost a hundred, is loot and revenge. This is made clear from the fact that they do not offer any indignity to women. They are generally armed with revolvers, machetes, and clubs.

A mob took from one estate near Barceloneta over 100 head of cattle, but the owner got most of them back because the bandits could not make way with them. They killed two or three of them for immediate use and had to abandon the rest.

Some of those who do not want to work have joined these bands. One of those who surrendered had been a member of the guardia civil.

Dr. Rossy had been informed that in the district of Camuy on the north property had been destroyed worth \$100,000.

As Mr. Rossy is an editor, he was asked why he did not give the particulars of these crimes in his paper and why so little was found concerning them in other papers, particularly of the capital. He was informed that it was one of the chief functions of the press in the United States to call repeated attention to abuses in order that a remedy might be applied, and he was asked whether he did not think that if the details were given in the press of all these attacks on life and property the authorities would be in a better position to cope with the difficulty. He stated in reply that he did not think it would do any good to publish these matters.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 20, 1898.*

Father SHERMAN, United States chaplain, stated to the special commissioner for the United States to Porto Rico that he had been staying a short time previously with a friend on a hacienda between the lines of the United States and Spanish troops. One night an attack was made on the estate. The proprietor, his son, and a number of others armed themselves to defend the property. The proprietor was a Spaniard. Father Sherman did not believe that the men who made the attack were bandits; they were former laborers who took this oppor-

tunity for revenge. They had worked hard for the proprietor for years and had been paid in brass checks which they had exchanged for goods at the company's store. They were almost starved, while the proprietor had saved out of the estate \$30,000 a year. Those who made the attack were not bandits, but men who regarded themselves as having been defrauded of the just income of their labor.

Señor FILIPE CUEBAS, collector of customs at Mayaguez, said that acts of incendiarism reported from the interior of the island were entirely new to Porto Rico, and he hoped and believed that the state of terror reported as existing in some of the districts would not last long.

Mr. A. ARGÜESO, of Humacao, vice-mayor of that municipality, also engaged in the mercantile business there, and an exporter of sugar, made a statement to the special commissioner for the United States to Porto Rico on the 13th of November.

He stated that the chief sufferers from the marauders in the island are coffee planters, many of whom owe large amounts of money. In some cases where injuries amounted to \$200 representation would be made by the owners of the estates to their creditors that their property had been ruined, and on the basis of this statement an extension of the time of payment would be asked and granted. There is not, in the opinion of Mr. Argüeso, very much of real disorder. What there is is instigated chiefly by desire for personal revenge. As a usual thing it is the proprietor or manager who is attacked, while the property is very little injured or not injured at all. There had been no disturbances at Ponce, none at Humacao, and none, in fact, in the eastern part of the island. There had been some at Yauco among the coffee planters and in the western portion of the island. He had no doubt that these disturbances could be easily put down.

Comparison of criminality between Cuba and Porto Rico for 1862.

	Cuba (population 1,200,000).		Porto Rico (population 300,000).	
	Number.	Proportion.	Number.	Proportion.
Homicides.....	180	1 to 7,161	8	1 to 75,000
Assaults.....	647	1 to 1,739	117	1 to 5,120
Robberies.....	161	1 to 7,453	38	1 to 15,789
Thefts.....	1,592	1 to 753	284	1 to 2,112
Suicides.....	343	1 to 3,498	48	1 to 12,500

Crimes in Porto Rico in 1864 and 1865.

	1864.	1865.
Crimes against religion.....		4
Crimes against public order.....	88	106
Crimes of falsehood.....	21	18
Crimes against the public health.....	1	1
Gambling and raffles.....		3
Crimes of public servants in the course of their employment.....	37	25
Crimes against the person.....	243	230
Crimes against honesty.....	50	49
Crimes against honor.....	22	14
Crimes against liberty and security.....	28	27
Crimes against property.....	572	527
Acts not constituting crimes.....	109	165
Total.....	1,231	1,169

Penalties imposed.

	1864.	1865.
Death by garrote	1	1
Penitentiary, without privilege of going out occasionally	1	1
Penitentiary and stripes, with privilege of going out occasionally	9	3
Penitentiary, without stripes, and with privilege of going out occasionally	35	25
Imprisonment in the puntilla (San Juan) and stripes		7
Imprisonment in the puntilla, without stripes	392	312
Banishment, not affecting offspring		1
Banishment	10	2
Penitentiary, correctional punishment		2
Imprisonment in the jail	85	65
Imprisonment in jail, with right to be ransomed	111	96
Confinement in the beneficencia	1	11
Stripes	12	19
Warned against repetition of offense, and released	15	5
Fined	56	17
Released on ground of imprisonment suffered pending sentence	132	136
Released with warning against repetition of offense	22	18
Temporary suspension of sentence	231	247
Final suspension of sentence	231	114
Pardoned	167	146
Freshly pardoned	136	114
Total	1,641	1,340

*DEPARTMENTAL JAILS OR PRISONS.***REPORTS FROM ALCAIRES, OR KEEPERS.****THE DEPARTMENTAL JAIL AT SAN JUAN.**

At the end of the year we have 10 female prisoners, 2 of these sentenced to cadena, or perpetual imprisonment, 1 for the crime of parricide and the other for that of homicide, another to thirty-seven years' imprisonment for homicide and poisoning, another to fourteen years for infanticide, another to twelve years for homicide, another to three years for adultery, another to two years and four months for assault, and 3 whose cases are pending—1 for double infanticide, another for attempted infanticide, and the other for theft.

Of the men, 29 are sentenced to terms of minor imprisonment, ranging from four years to a month and a day, 13 for theft, 5 for robbery, 8 for assault, 3 for rape, and the remaining 117 are for pending causes and are awaiting sentences for various crimes already mentioned.

The penalty of death is imposed according to the existing code, and in the various instances when it has been imposed it has occurred on the Campo del Morro, in this city, or in the town where the crime was committed.

In respect to the food which is furnished the prisoners, it is quite good. It is composed of pease and beans, alternately, with potatoes, rice, bacon, butter, and meat, and four days in the week a half a pound of bread, furnished by Juan Perez, all cooked and prepared for eating, and a plate for each prisoner, for which is paid 18 cents. Clothes are furnished the prisoners as they may need them; light, whitewashing, and painting of the building and other necessary matters the auxiliary junta of the prison is charged with providing. It is composed of individuals of the ayuntamiento, who are a vice-president, who is always the alcaide, now Ramon Patron, besides four vocales, a secretary—all without salary—and a clerk, who receives 300 pesos a year. This junta prepares its budget annually, which it distributes proportionately among the towns which compose the district, such towns being the capital, Rio Piedras, Carolina, Loiza, and Rio Grande,

besides the prisoners from the audiencia, who come from the jurisdictions of Humacao, Caguas, and Vega Baja, whose expenses were paid until the present by the provincial deputation.

There are at present employed on salary a first chief or director, José Perez y Gonzalez, who receives \$800 a year; a second chief or director, Jaime Alsina Gonzalez, who receives \$400 a year; a Dr. José Maria Cueto, who receives \$420; an assistant doctor for the hospital, Luis R. Cordova, at 480 pesos; a chaplain, José Martinez Ortiz, at 360 pesos, and four turnkeys, at 300 pesos, besides a female turnkey, at 300 pesos, which amount is satisfied from the budget already mentioned, as also the rent, which is paid to the municipality for the jail building, namely, 1,500 pesos annually.

The jail building, which is the property of the municipality, was constructed for a hospital in the year 1877, the contract for its construction having been taken by Juan Bertoli for the sum of \$149,800, which contract he was unable to complete, for which reason various repairs were required to prepare it for a prison in the year 1889. Its dimensions are 110 meters front, 55 meters deep, and 16 meters high, consisting of two floors—a lower and an upper—and a subterranean department, fairly large, in the eastern side and two courts connected on the southern side, each of which measures 38 meters from north to south and 32 meters from east to west.

The building has been occupied as a jail since May, 1889, without possessing suitable conditions for that purpose. The prisoners have their departments, or galeras, on the upper floor, where they are during the day and night in want of space where they may be able to breathe the pure air or see the rays of the sun. On the lower floor there are large compartments for women on the eastern side, with the hospital on the western side. The front is occupied for quarters of the employees. The parts occupied by the prisoners do not possess conditions of safety, but, owing to the lack of good gratings and doors, escapes of prisoners occur frequently. Neither do they possess hygienic conditions, on account of lack of windows for ventilation and because of the fact that the prisoners are constantly in their departments, where they eat, sleep, wash their clothes, and have their closets.

In respect to the capacity, if well arranged the building would accommodate from eight hundred to a thousand prisoners, but with the bad distribution which exists there is no space for anything; so that in the year 1896 to 1897 there were constantly from 400 to 500 prisoners, all very much crowded on account of the bad distribution of the departments which they occupied.

In spite of the poor hygiene there has been very little sickness, which was attended to by the assistant doctor or student, under the direction of the titular doctor.

In respect to the present system, the only thing I am able to say is, that if the rules should be fully complied with it would be fairly good, but as they are not fully observed the manner of caring for the prisoners leaves much to be desired. The prisoners occupy themselves absolutely with nothing, and do not seek distraction in work or amusement.

All classes are together, those sentenced and those awaiting sentence, and they occupy themselves only in vice. It is supremely important to have established industrial shops to give employment in something which would improve them and teach industries, knowledge of which a greater part of them lack. There should be a professor of

instruction, and they should be obliged to learn to read and write and be instructed morally, a respect in which they are quite lacking. All these matters are provided in the prison regulations, but on various occasions when it was desired to establish industries in this penal institution they were suppressed in consequence of the criticism of the press of the country.

JOSE P. Y GONZALEZ, *Alcaide*.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *January 1, 1899.*

THE VEGA BAJA JAIL.

The jail of the village of Vega Baja was completed July 4, 1888. The cost of its construction was 4,600 pesos, and the annual expense of maintaining it is about 1,400 pesos. The building measures 15 meters front by 20 deep and 5 high, outside measurements. It is divided by a passageway 8 meters in length by 2 in width, having at the sides two rooms, one for the hall of justice and the other the preference room. The hall of justice is $8\frac{1}{2}$ meters in length by 5 in depth. There are, besides, 4 compartments for prisoners, 2 bartolinas (cells), 2 privies, and a court and aljive in the interior. The galeras measure 6 square meters of floor and $4\frac{1}{2}$ meters high; the bartolinas, 3 meters. All persons sentenced to greater or minor imprisonment or to correctional imprisonment are confined in this prison. The total number of prisoners during the year 1898 was about 405, and there are now remaining about 31. The employees of the prison comprise an alcaide, who receives 500 pesos annually; a turnkey, who receives 250 pesos; a nurse, 150 pesos; a doctor, 300 pesos, and 2 assistants, 24 pesos. The death penalty is never imposed here. The meals consist of rice, potatoes, beans, meat, and other articles.

P. GIMENEZ, *Alcaide*.

VEGA BAJA, *December 27, 1898.*

THE ARECIBO JAIL.

The present jail of the district of Arecibo was completed for occupancy in 1867, and took the place of a former building of old construction. The jail occupies the greater part of the space under the consistorial house, so that it can not be ascertained what was the cost of the part occupied for that purpose. The entire building cost 30,000 pesos. The average expense of maintaining the prison is 720 pesos and its original capacity is over 90 prisoners.

All persons are imprisoned here who are sentenced to penalties ranging from minor to correctional imprisonment. The number of prisoners during the year 1898 was 777, and there are at present for all offenses 163 prisoners. There are two employees who are badly paid, an alcaide who receives 500 pesos, and a turnkey, 250. The death penalty is not imposed in the jail.

The food consists of coffee or ginger in the morning, two messes daily, one at 10 in the morning and another at 4 in the afternoon. The first mess is composed of 4 ounces of meat, 5 ounces of rice, with

necessary condiments, and a plantain, or its equivalent in similar products of the country. The afternoon meal is similar, and these two meals are varied from day to day with codfish, rice, beans, and food plants of the island.

The condition of the jail is always good when there is not, as at present, an excess of prisoners, which is proved by the fact that no epidemic has ever broken out in it.

GERARDO MENDES Y MARTINEZ.

DECEMBER 30, 1898.

THE UTCADO JAIL.

The jail of Utcado was founded the 9th of November, 1896, and took the place of the municipal depository (which existed formerly), when the judge of instruction was appointed to sit in this city. The building which the jail occupies is private property, the annual rental of which is 600 pesos, paid from the funds of this municipality. In the budget of expenses for the prison the sum of 3,000 pesos is assigned, but there is at present an expenditure of 20 to 26 pesos daily, due to the excessive number of prisoners, who are sustained at 20 cents each.

The building is composed of two stories, with 5 compartments, 3 small rooms which serve as dungeons, 3 privies, and a corral, or court, which measures 9 meters 3 centimeters in length by 7 meters 5 centimeters in width, with a capacity for 140 prisoners. All persons are imprisoned here who have a sentence to serve—those who suffer provisional imprisonment and those sentenced governmentally. There have been imprisoned during the current year in this prison 856 persons, and at present there remain 139 persons. There is an alcaide, with an annual salary of 500 pesos; a turnkey, with 300 pesos; 2 watchmen, with 240 pesos each; a barber with 96 pesos, and a servant, or peon, to carry water to the prisoners, with 120 pesos annually. Since the creation of the jurisdiction of instruction in this city no proceeding whatever has been taken which would lead to the imposition of the death penalty.

The meals which are furnished to the prisoners consist of coffee in the morning, a breakfast of rice, codfish, and plantain at 11, and at 5 in the evening a meal of rice and meat sometimes, and at other times of rice and beans or pease.

Titular doctors are obliged to visit the prisoners, the medicine being furnished free, and there is also a barber to cut the prisoners' hair.

NICOMEDES VIRNET.

UTCADO, December 28, 1898.

THE MAYAGUEZ JAIL.

The jail of the judicial district of Mayaguez was founded in the year 1879 and substituted a prior jail which existed in the street floor under the municipal building. The building at present occupied by the jail was formerly used as the slaughterhouse of this city, and its transformation for its present purposes cost a little over 9,000 pesos.

The annual cost of maintaining the jail is on the average 8,180 pesos, which includes, in addition to the usual expenses of the prison,

the cost of caring for sick prisoners in the hospital. The capacity of the prison is about 200 prisoners, but owing to the recent burnings and robberies in the country there is a larger number of prisoners than ever before seen here. All classes of prisoners prior to sentence, and those sentenced to greater and correctional imprisonment are confined here, and during the year 1898 the number of those imprisoned was 1,365. On the 31st of December of that year there were, for all offenses, 227 prisoners, which is an extraordinary number. The prison has 4 employees, the alcaide, who receives a salary of 60 pesos a month; a subalcaide, who receives 40; a turnkey, receiving 30, and an assistant, 20. The death penalty has never been imposed in this prison.

The meals consist of coffee in the morning, a mess of meat, rice, potatoes, bacon, and vegetables at 11 o'clock, and another similar to this at 5 o'clock in the afternoon. The food of the sick is regulated according to their condition and need.

There are no printed prison regulations; there is only a manuscript copy, of which similar copies exist in other prisons. This prison has, besides the dungeons and bartolinas (cells), a hall of justice, a hospital accommodating 20 persons, a bathroom, a kitchen, two large courts, and two small ones. These two last belong the one to the department for women and the other to the department of preferences. According to the opinion of persons capable of judging in the matter, this prison does not possess the necessary conditions for an establishment of this kind, and should be supplanted by a system of cells and one more in harmony with principles of hygiene and morality.

EDUARDO TEXIDOR.

JANUARY 5, 1899.

THE SAN GERMAN JAIL.

The construction of the jail of the district of San German was commenced in 1837 and a building of two stories was completed in 1844, the upper floor being designed for the municipal corporation, and is used to-day by the ayuntamiento and its dependencies; the lower floor for the jail and the residence of the employees.

In 1872 the construction of an addition to the upper floor over the lower space was undertaken. In this addition two rooms were set apart for prison purposes under the name of rooms of preference. These rooms are distinct, the daily sum of 25 cents being the estimated receipts from these rooms as a prison income. The new building was commenced and completed in 1844 and cost 16,300 pesos, according to the data found in the municipal archives. The amplification of this was constructed in 1872, at a cost of 6,000 pesos. The public plot and tower over the upper establishment cost 3,000 pesos. In the year 1897-98, from the 1st of July until the 30th of June, inclusive, the cost of maintaining the prison amounted to about 2,495 pesos.

The building measures in length 27 meters, in width 17 meters 15 centimeters, and in height 14 meters 18 centimeters, according to data taken from the original expediente.

All classes of prisoners are confined here, as is the case in other prison departments. When once sentenced the governor of the province fixes the prison in which the sentence shall be served, and he designates always for that purpose the prison of the department in

which the crime was committed. There is also in connection with the prison the municipal depository for trifling misdemeanors. Where a person commits a crime of the serious character of those indicated in the code, meriting superior punishment, the sentence is served in the provincial presidio in the capital, without respect to the district in which the crime was committed.

The number of prisoners confined in this jail during the year 1898 for all offenses was 420, and at present there remain in the prison 34. There are two employees of the prison, an alcaide and a turnkey, the first receiving a monthly salary of 45 pesos and 5 for expenses, and the second 25 pesos. There are 4 pesos set apart for assistants as a monthly gratification, 1 peso for each. Owing to the fact that the turnkey must be capable of taking the place of the alcaide in case of his sickness or absence, there should not be the difference in the two salaries which exists.

Prior to the year 1845, according to data, there were cases in which the tribunals imposed the penalty of death, some criminals being executed by the garrote and others by the gibbet. In some cases the sentences were executed by the military authorities in this place. From 1845 to the present no data are known which show that the death penalty in any form has ever been imposed.

The food of the prisoners consists of rice, meat, cereals, potatoes, wheat bread, or tubers. The supply of this food is let by contract annually.

The preference rooms, situated in the upper floor, are very close to the office wings of the ayuntamiento. They are lacking in privies in their interior, those imprisoned being obliged to go outside of the room, but within the same building. These circumstances and the form of the building make it possible for those imprisoned to be in continual relation with those employed and transient. Those of the lower floor improve the opportunity by means which those in the preference rooms facilitate. It is desirable to avoid these relations, to avoid also the necessity for the extraordinary vigilance of the employees of the jail.

There should also be rooms for female prisoners with interior subdivisions for cases of sickness. There should also be proper hospital facilities.

The jail in the lower floor is subdivided into 12 rooms in the form following: Two for the office and sleeping room of the alcaide, 1 for the turnkey and a hall of justice, and 4 situated in the front of the prison. In the rear, 8 rooms, 1 for the municipal depository, 1 used as a storeroom, which is that to-day set apart for women, 3 for prisoners of all classes who do not comply with the requirements for preference. Every hall contains 10, 14, or 18 individuals. Two rooms are set apart for persons confined in comunidad and one for punishments in the interior of the building. There is only one closet for the entire building.

During the day all prisoners are together in the court of the prison, situated in the middle of it, including those imprisoned for slight offenses and for the first time and those for grave offenses who are there for the second or third time. For this reason, instead of the prison being correctional, it causes bad ideas to be inculcated in undisciplined minds.

There is a cistern for drinking water situated in the court of the prison.

There is in this prison a manuscript copy of regulations, the original of which should be found in the jail of the capital at San Juan,

dated the 20th of March, 1866, approved by Marchessi. According to the opinion of some learned persons, the regulations ruling in this prison are not in conformity with present laws. For this reason arises a necessity of reforming it or substituting another for it.

SALVADOR LUGO,
Interim Alcaide.

SAN GERMAN, *December 31, 1898.*

THE GUAYAMA JAIL.

The jail of the judicial district of Guayama was founded in 1870, at a cost of 14,443 pesos. The expenses of maintaining the prisoners during the year reaches the sum of 5,748 pesos 75 centavos. It is 18 meters in front, by 26 in depth, approximately. There are admitted to this prison offenders who commit all classes of crimes and misdemeanors. Only those sentenced to greater arrest and correctional imprisonment serve their sentence in it, and those against whom slight penalties have been imposed by the municipal judge. During the present year there have entered into the prison for different crimes and misdemeanors 860 persons, counting both sexes, and at present there are 29 prisoners.

The employees are the alcaide, who receives an annual salary of 500 pesos; a turnkey, who receives 250; a doctor, who receives 300, and a barber, who receives 96.

The death penalty is not imposed here.

The meals which are furnished to the prisoners consist of meat, bread, rice, codfish, beans, pease, and vegetable products, such as plantains and other crops of the country, and coffee. The regulations which govern this prison and which serve as a practical guide of the alcaide in the discharge of his duties were made by the criminal audiencia of Ponce in 1877.

FRANCISCO LOPEZ.

GUAYAMA, P. R., *December 30, 1898.*

THE HUMACAO JAIL.

The jail in the judicial district of Humacao was established in 1849, at a cost of about 15,000 pesos, and the annual expense for its maintenance is 5,840 pesos. It accommodates 100 prisoners. All who commit offenses in this city or district are imprisoned here, of whom, during the year ending to-day, according to the records, there were 1,143 persons, and there are to-day remaining 89 persons. There are three employees, namely, an alcaide, who receives 500 pesos annually; a subalcaide, who receives 400 pesos, and a turnkey, 300 pesos. The death penalty is not imposed here. There is a project for enlarging the jail, as its capacity is too limited.

J. MARIANO REGES,
• *Interim Alcaide.*

PRISON STATISTICS.

TABLE I.—*Penal population, census of 1897.*

Department.	Number of prisoners.	Department.	Number of prisoners.
San Juan.....	799	Guayama.....	58
Arecibo.....	48	Humacao.....	57
Aguadilla.....	24		
Mayaguez.....	42	Total.....	1,101
Ponce.....	53		

1 Evidently the entire number of prisoners in all classes of prisons, including municipal jails.

TABLE II.—*Summary of crimes according to race—Presidio at San Juan.*

Crime.	Race.			Total.
	White.	Mixed.	Black.	
Murder.....	2		2	4
Homicide.....	49	46	18	113
Robbery.....	47	50	14	111
Theft.....	19	28	10	57
Forgery.....	2			2
Incendiarism.....	5		1	6
Swindling.....	2	3		5
Violation.....	1	4	1	6
Abduction.....	1			1
Ofensa de obras.....	1			1
Insult to superior.....	1			1
Various crimes.....	1			1
Total.....	131	131	46	308

TABLE III.—*Length of sentence by periods of years—Presidio at San Juan.*

Period.	Race.			Total.
	White.	Mixed.	Black.	
1 to 5 years.....	25	32	10	73
5 to 10 years.....	41	32	13	87
10 to 15 years.....	42	33	16	91
15 to 20 years.....	18	14	6	38
20 to 30 years.....	5	5	1	11
30 to 36 years.....		2		4
Total.....	128	130	46	304
Less than 1 year or for life:				
5 months.....	1			4
2 months.....	1			
9 months.....		1		
Life (22 years old).....			1	

TABLE IV.—*Departmental prison of San Juan.*

PRISONERS DURING THE YEAR 1898.

	Received or dis- charged during month.	Total.
January 1. In prison		248
Received during month	107	
Discharged during month	98	
Increase		9
February 1. In prison		267
Received during month	62	
Discharged during month	91	
Decrease		29
March 1. In prison		228
Received during month	88	
Discharged during month	102	
Decrease		14
April 1. In prison		214
Received during month	106	
Discharged during month	81	
Increase		25
May 1. In prison		289
Received during month	82	
Discharged during month	85	
Decrease		8
June 1. In prison		298
Received during month	78	
Discharged during month	66	
Increase		12
July 1. In prison		248
Received during month	38	
Discharged during month	66	
Decrease		18
August 1. In prison		290
Received during month	45	
Discharged during month	62	
Decrease		17
September 1. In prison		213
Received during month	94	
Discharged during month	114	
Decrease		20
October 1. In prison		199
Received during month	85	
Discharged during month	89	
Decrease		54
November 1. In prison		189
Received during month	66	
Discharged during month	66	
Increase		10
December 1. In prison		149
Received during month	64	
Discharged during month	47	
Increase		7
		158

TABLE V.—*Inmates under sentence.*
AGE AND RACE.

Race.	12 to 20.	20 to 25.	25 to 30.	30 to 35.	35 to 40.	40 to 50.	50 to 62.	Total.
White	4	13	5	3	3	1	1	30
Mixed	4	11	6	2	2	2	2	27
Black	2	3	1	1	2	3		12
Total	10	27	12	6	5	6	3	69

TABLE VI. CRIMES BY RACE.

	White.	Mixed.	Black.	Total.
Theft	6	8	4	18
Wounding	10	10	7	27
Robbery		2		2
Swindling	2	3		5
Violation	1	1		2
Homicide	4	1		5
Abduction	5	2		7
Accomplice	1			1
Not given	1		1	2
Total	30	27	12	69

TABLE VII.—LENGTH OF SENTENCE.

	Years.								Total.
	1.	2.	3.	4.	6.	7.	12.		
White.....	3	8	3		2	1	1	16	
Mixed.....	5	6	1	2			1	17	
Black.....		2		1				3	
Total.....	8	16	4	3	2	1	2	36	

	Months.								Total.
	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	
White.....	1	5	1	3	2				12
Mixed.....	1	3	2	3	1	1		1	12
Black.....	1	5	1		1		1		9
Total.....	3	13	4	6	4	1	1	1	33

TABLE VIII.—RACE AND AGE.

	Years.							Total.
	12 to 20.	20 to 25.	25 to 30.	30 to 35.	35 to 40.	40 to 50.	50 to 60.	
White	8	14	14	11	3	5	1	56
Mixed	8	20	21	7	6	4	8	77
Black	8	5	1	3		2	2	21
Total	22	45	36	21	8	11	11	164

TABLE IX.—SUMMARY OF PRISONERS.

	Under sentence.		Awaiting trial.	Total.
	Months.	Years.		
White	12	16	56	84
Mixed	12	17	77	106
Black	9	3	21	33
Total	33	36	154	223

Males	219
Females	4
Total	223

THE SYSTEM OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

THE COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 28, 1898.*

Mr. ANTONIO ROSELL, director of the Collegiate Institute:

Q. When was collegiate education established in the island?—A. On November 1, 1882.

Q. How was it supported?—A. By the government.

Q. What is the system of administration?—A. It is under a director and secretary of institute. The accounts are approved by the secretary of the interior.

Q. What is the length of the terms?—A. From October to June, June being occupied with examinations.

Q. Is the institute open to nonresidents?—A. Yes; open to all.

Q. What is the character of entrance examinations?—A. The second class of primary scholars are eligible.

Q. What are the courses of study?—A. There are five successive groups, as follows: First group, Latin and Spanish (first course), universal geography, and English; second group, Latin and Spanish (second course), geography and history of the United States, and English; third group, arithmetic and algebra, general elements of literature, universal history, and English; fourth group, geometry and trigonometry, psychology, logic and moral philosophy, English, and French or German (single course); fifth group, physics and chemistry, natural history, agriculture, and English.

Q. What diplomas are given?—A. Bachelor's degree (after the French fashion).

Q. On what conditions are degrees granted?—A. On completion of the course and a final examination.

Q. Is the institute open to both whites and negroes?—A. It is open for any color or sex.

Q. What advantages are given graduates in government service?—A. Preference is given to graduates.

Q. What text-books are used?—A. No selected text-books; instruction is given by lectures.

Q. What languages are taught?—A. English, German, French, Latin, and Spanish.

Q. Is music taught?—A. No.

Q. Are religious exercises held?—A. Not now. There is a course in moral philosophy.

Q. Is the library at the disposal of students?—A. The library is at the disposal of the teachers.

(It was further stated that many of the books in the library are French publications; that the pay of the teachers is \$125 per month; all, including the director and secretary, received an extra sum of \$16 annually, termed a "gratificación;" that the ideas which enter into the management were adopted from the French; that about 200 pupils attended last year; that fees are charged as follows: Matriculation, \$10; tuition, \$15 per year; diploma, \$25; for the government, \$25; printing, \$2.50, and \$4.25 for the stamp tax on the diploma.)

SCHOOL IN SAN JUAN.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 29, 1898.*

The Commissioner, accompanied by the interpreter and stenographer, visited the public school for small boys in Cristo street, San Juan, and the following is a memorandum of the visit:

The school consisted of one room, in which there were 29 small boys, ranging in age from 8 to 13 years. The room was on the second floor, front. It was fitted up with a number of maps—one showing the two hemispheres, two maps of Europe, one of Spain, one of Asia, one of Africa, another of North and South America, and a map of Porto Rico. There were also charts for the purpose of teaching arithmetic, cases of insects, numerous moral maxims, a small desk of primitive manufacture, and several tiers of rough benches for the children. On two opposite walls were crucifixes.

When the Commissioner's party entered the school a blackboard exercise was in progress, the pupils being instructed in the rules of proportion, and the problem in this branch of arithmetic was being worked out by a boy of 12 years of age.

Two male teachers were in charge of the school.

The room was about 16 by 20 feet, with a ceiling about 15 feet high. The children were all clothed.

During the visit a reading lesson was given in Spanish. Six boys were called before the teacher's desk, and each read in turn from a reading book, the exercise read being selected by Mr. Solomon, the interpreter of the Commission.

Dr. Carroll asked to whom Porto Rico belonged, and received a very prompt and emphatic answer from the boys, who shouted, "Estados Unidos." He then requested those of the boys who could do so to point out the United States on a map which hung before them of North and South America, having the political divisions indicated on it, and very promptly the boys scampered to the map and placed their fingers triumphantly on the United States.

THE PUBLIC-SCHOOL SYSTEM.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 29, 1898.*

• Dr. CARROLL. Will you kindly explain, Mr. Secretary, what your office is and what your duties are as secretary?

Dr. CARBONELL. I am secretary of the interior (fomento). The salary of my office is \$8,000 a year.

Dr. CARROLL. How long have you been in this office?

Dr. CARBONELL. About three months.

Dr. CARROLL. Were you in the ministry previous to that time?

Dr. CARBONELL. No, sir.

Dr. CARROLL. Were you appointed by Captain-General Macias?

Dr. CARBONELL. Yes, sir.

Dr. CARROLL. Will you kindly state in outline the system of public instruction here in Porto Rico, which I understand comes under your department?

Dr. CARBONELL. The previous system of instruction in this island could not have been worse. Since General Brooke has been in command here the secretary has asked permission to change somewhat

the system here, so as to bring it into conformity with the American plan of education. We have three schools—two of them being normal schools, one for males and one for females—and the institute, which is for men. These schools grant the degree of "bachelor."

Dr. CARROLL. I would like a general outline of the system and when it was established.

Dr. CARBONELL. We have normal schools for ladies, and we have a normal school for men and have 551 public schools paid by the municipalities—that is, ought to be paid by the municipalities, but usually are not. The school system here is a very old one, except that the normal schools were introduced in 1894.

Dr. CARROLL. I would like first to get at the number and character of the primary schools as they were established previous to the war; the part that the State took in the government of them as well as in the support of them.

Dr. CARBONELL. There were 551; they were paid by the municipality, but payment was frequently neglected. The municipalities lately have dared to suppress several schools, which they have no right to do, as they are still under the old Spanish law.

Dr. CARROLL. Did the old Spanish law require that a public school should be established in every community?

Dr. CARBONELL. Yes; a school for every certain number of inhabitants was required under that law.

Dr. CARROLL. What were the terms of admission to that school?

Dr. CARBONELL. It was compulsory that the boys should go to the boys' school and the girls to the girls' school.

Dr. CARROLL. What was the earliest age at which they entered the school?

Dr. CARBONELL. About 8 years.

Dr. CARROLL. Parents sent them at an earlier age if they wished to, I presume?

Dr. CARBONELL. In San Juan and Ponce they had what they called "the orphans' school," where orphans as young as 4 years were taken in and cared for and instructed.

Dr. CARROLL. As a matter of fact, what was the youngest age at which children were accustomed to go to the public schools?

Dr. CARBONELL. The parents in better condition sent their children when they were about 5 years old, but poor people very seldom sent them before 8 years of age.

Dr. CARROLL. In the United States the laws of the States differ, but generally the educational age is between 5 and 18, and in some cases 21. If a person remains beyond the age of 18 or 21, in many places he is expected to pay, and children below the age of 5 are not received, except, perhaps, in kindergartens. Is there no provision here for a minimum and a maximum age?

Dr. CARBONELL. At 16 or 17 they have to leave.

Dr. CARROLL. Has the government provided buildings for these schools?

Dr. CARBONELL. They have few—very few—and generally they have been only rented by the government.

Dr. CARROLL. How is the money for the support of the schools gathered; by special tax, or is it paid from the revenues of the province?

Dr. CARBONELL. The three superior schools are paid by the government out of the general budget, but the other schools are paid by the municipalities in which they exist. As the municipalities are to-day short of money, they have suppressed some of the schools.

Dr. CARROLL. Did not the municipalities levy a special school tax?

Dr. CARBONELL. The municipalities also had their budget, and in that budget was included an amount for the payment of teachers, for the hire of buildings for school purposes, and for their school needs.

Dr. CARROLL. Are fees charged the parents under any circumstances?

Dr. CARBONELL. Fathers who were in a position to do so usually gave something to the school-teachers, but that was absolutely a gratuity. There are no fees established by law.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the children required to furnish their own school supplies, such as text-books, paper, pens, ink, etc.?

Dr. CARBONELL. It is obligatory on the municipality to supply books and all school materials and also the prizes given at the end of the school year, but they never do so, and frequently the school-master is obliged to pay for these things out of his own pocket.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there a governing board in each municipality for the schools?

Dr. CARBONELL. There is a board of public instruction, of which the mayor is president.

Dr. CARROLL. How large is it, and how is it appointed, and for what term of years?

Dr. CARBONELL. It usually consists of the chief men of the villages, such as the priests, the doctor, and the lawyer, but there is no special limit to the number. When one leaves another is appointed.

Dr. CARROLL. What are the special duties of this board?

Dr. CARBONELL. To attend to the complaints of the teachers of the children, of the children as against the teachers, or the parents as against the teachers; to be present at the examinations; attend to the methods of teaching in the schools (which they do not do), and to make a report to the secretary of instruction here at the capital (which they also do not do). There were during the Spanish rule also two inspectors of education, whose duties required them to travel all over the island, looking into the general aspect of the schools. They also had the power of examining any school that they wished to, also the accounts of the school. These posts have been abolished, and I am now awaiting orders from the American Government for their reestablishment.

Dr. CARROLL. Who selects the buildings where the schools are held?

Dr. CARBONELL. This same board of education which I have referred to.

Dr. CARROLL. What are the hours of the daily sessions of the school?

Dr. CARBONELL. From 8 to 11 and from 2 to 5, and during the hot season they have diminished the hours of the afternoon session.

Dr. CARROLL. How many days in the week?

Dr. CARBONELL. Every day except Sunday and feast days.

Dr. CARROLL. Are all the feast days excepted?

Dr. CARBONELL. At present the only feast days are those recognized by the United States, together with the special feast day of the patron saint of the town. Formerly all the feast days were observed. There were 40 of them in the year, the number of which was afterwards reduced to about 15. There are also the vacations.

Dr. CARROLL. What are the vacations?

Dr. CARBONELL. The Christmas holidays, extending from the 23d of December to about the 3d of January; the Easter holidays, holy

week from Wednesday to Saturday, the day of resurrection, and fifteen days in July after the examinations.

Dr. CARROLL. Then you have a school year of about eleven months. In the United States generally the months of July and August are vacation months, and the term begins in most cities the first Monday in September and ends the latter part of June, and then there is a holiday of about ten days at Christmas. Good Friday also is a holiday; also Washington's birthday, and in some cities Lincoln's birthday; Decoration Day, Labor Day, and Thanksgiving Day, and there is no school on Saturday.

Dr. CARBONELL. Professor Harrington, of the weather bureau here, has promised to give me an exact statement of the days observed as holidays in the schools of the United States, and I intend to introduce them here.

Dr. CARROLL. In many places in the United States the contract with the teachers is for two hundred school days in the year. Are there no rules respecting the minimum amount of clothing which children should wear in order for admission to schools?

Dr. CARBONELL. No. In some places children go without clothes absolutely.

Dr. CARROLL. Are children of both colors admitted without distinction?

Dr. CARBONELL. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Do many of the colored children attend school?

Dr. CARBONELL. Yes. They have colored teachers for both sexes.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there separate schools?

Dr. CARBONELL. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Do parents raise objection to this?

Dr. CARBONELL. No; none whatever.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there generally one teacher to each school?

Dr. CARBONELL. Only one. In the superior schools there is frequently an assistant to the schoolmaster, who is also a graduated master or teacher.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there no woman teachers?

Dr. CARBONELL. Yes; both in the superior and elementary schools.

Dr. CARROLL. Are they eligible to appointment to any school, male or female?

Dr. CARBONELL. No. The schools for boys have male teachers and the girls' schools have lady teachers.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the curriculum of the primary schools?

Dr. CARBONELL. Reading, writing, arithmetic, very much religious teaching, and history.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the religious instruction given by the teacher?

Dr. CARBONELL. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. I notice that the people here are very fine writers. There must be a great deal of attention given to that.

Dr. CARBONELL. Writing has received quite a large amount of attention in our schools, but I have reduced it, as I regarded it unnecessary to devote so much attention to handwriting. They used to give three years to it, but I have changed that to one year.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the length of the curriculum in the primary schools?

Dr. CARBONELL. There is no rule about that. Sometimes a child is in the primary school because it happens to be the school nearest his home.

Dr. CARROLL. Are they promoted from the primary to the secondary schools?

Dr. CARBONELL. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the range of studies in the secondary schools?

Dr. CARBONELL. Arithmetic, algebra up to quadratic equations, geometry, elementary trigonometry, logarithms, elementary physics and chemistry, elementary philosophy, general and Spanish history, which I have changed into the history of the United States, universal geography, and Spanish geography, which I have changed to the history of the United States.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it the purpose of the secondary schools to prepare for the institute and for college?

Dr. CARBONELL. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the institute here confer degrees?

Dr. CARBONELL. Only the "bachelor" degree, which is the degree that entitles a person to enter the universities.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you a university in the island?

Dr. CARBONELL. No; our students ordinarily go to Spain or France, sometimes to the United States.

Dr. CARROLL. Who prescribes the text-books in use in the primary and secondary schools?

Dr. CARBONELL. Formerly the Captain-General. Now I do so.

Dr. CARROLL. What do you include in the higher schools?

Dr. CARBONELL. They include the institute and the normal schools. The normal schools are for the purpose of granting teachers' diplomas, entitling persons to teach in both elementary and higher schools.

Dr. CARROLL. How long a course is prescribed in the normal school?

Dr. CARBONELL. Four years.

Dr. CARROLL. What else is taught besides pedagogy?

Dr. CARBONELL. Religion and morals, by a priest. But that has been suppressed. That is a special course; it has a certain code which forms the basis of instruction and is taught by the priest. A course in moral philosophy has been substituted. Universal history and Spanish history have also been included in the course, but I have changed that to United States history; the same with respect to geography, the Spanish language, the English language, covering a term of four years; also the French and the German languages. It is left to the pupil to choose between French and German.

Dr. CARROLL. Is Greek or Latin taught?

Dr. CARBONELL. Yes; in the institute.

Dr. CARROLL. Is this instruction to teachers furnished free?

Dr. CARBONELL. They have to pay an entrance fee—\$2.50 for each subject they take up.

Dr. CARROLL. They pay their own living expenses?

Dr. CARBONELL. They live outside—not in the school.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they promise to teach in order to be admitted to the privileges of the school?

Dr. CARBONELL. No; teaching is not required from them. As a rule, most pupils enter the normal schools with the idea of obtaining the diploma of the teacher, even if they do not desire to teach.

Dr. CARROLL. Where are the normal schools located?

Dr. CARBONELL. There are only two, and they are located in San Juan.

Dr. CARROLL. How many pupils obtain diplomas annually, on an average?

Dr. CARBONELL. I can not give that information, as I have been here only three months.

Dr. CARROLL. Do some go to the university to qualify themselves further?

Dr. CARBONELL. Formerly teachers went to Spain to obtain the diploma of normal professor, but some do not. Spaniards come from Spain with the title already competent to fill the post of professor here.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it required that every teacher in the public schools shall have a diploma?

Dr. CARBONELL. That is absolutely required.

Dr. CARROLL. Is any subsequent examination held after they begin their professional life?

Dr. CARBONELL. They are never subjected to any direct examination, except inasmuch as the inspection of the schools is an examination of the teachers at the same time. Spanish tyranny, unfortunately, under Captain-General Sanz, gave an order for the removal of all native teachers, male and female, and substituted soldiers and common women from Spain, about twenty-two years ago, and unhappily there are three of these women to-day in this city. They have not resigned, because they have expressed their willingness to swear allegiance to the United States.

Dr. CARROLL. How are teachers removed?

Dr. CARBONELL. In case of complaint against any teacher the board of education of each village prepares what is called a document, in which it sets forth the merits of the case, and which goes to the secretary for final adjudication.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any difficulty in maintaining discipline in the schools?

Dr. CARBONELL. We have no difficulty in that line.

Dr. CARROLL. The children are generally docile and very quick to learn?

Dr. CARBONELL. Yes; but generally, and more especially in the country districts, children attend school very irregularly; sometimes because of rain and sometimes because their parents keep them at home to work.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there no compulsory law respecting school attendance?

Dr. CARBONELL. There is no real compulsory law; that is, the parents are not fined for not sending their children to school.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there accommodation for all the children?

Dr. CARBONELL. There would not be if they all went to school.

Dr. CARROLL. Are primary and secondary schools opened in the morning with religious exercises?

Dr. CARBONELL. In the primary schools they are opened with prayer.

Dr. CARROLL. A written prayer?

Dr. CARBONELL. With "Our Father," "Ave Maria," and the Creed.

Dr. CARROLL. How is the religious instruction given—by means of the catechism?

Dr. CARBONELL. Yes; the catechism used was written by Father Rapilda, in which they have modified the sixth commandment. Instead of the words "Do not commit adultery," they have "Do not commit an act opposed to morals."

Dr. CARROLL. What is the purpose of it?

Dr. CARBONELL. The idea is not to give the children ideas above their years. Text-books vary here constantly. Sometimes the government sends over a teacher who has written a book, and in order to give the book a sale an order is made that his book be used. The professor of Latin in the institute wrote a book which is sold for \$4, and the professor of philosophy the same, and these books had to be used

by order of the government. Under my ministry I have recommended that there should be no text-books at all; that the instruction should be purely oral, and that the pupils should take notes from the teacher, leaving the right in the pupil to buy any book he might desire.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it your idea that English should be introduced into all the schools at once?

Dr. CARBONELL. Yes. I would like to get permission to adopt the plan used by the Germans in Alsace-Lorraine—that is, to bring here lady teachers who do not speak a word of Spanish to teach small children the English language in the schools. This plan worked very well in Alsace-Lorraine, and I believe it could be successfully employed here. If I am authorized to do that, I will bring teachers here.

Dr. CARROLL. Do your teachers generally understand English?

Dr. CARBONELL. They are all learning it now, but few speak it. Everybody, in fact, is studying English.

Dr. CARROLL. It would seem to me that the first desideratum for the island in the matter of schools would be comfortable buildings, built purposely for schools, conveniently arranged and well ventilated.

Dr. CARBONELL. Our idea has been to build such schoolhouses in accordance with modern ideas of convenience and sanitation. In many of the schools here there are no laboratories or closets.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it not be well also that in the normal schools the teachers should be taught the principles of hygiene?

Dr. CARBONELL. We are just about to name some new professors and I shall include that branch in the two normal schools. I was president of the Society for the Protection of Intelligence, and we brought that institution up to a standard which has never been approached in the island. We have graduated eminent teachers of both sexes. We taught according to the methods of the superior schools of France, where I myself was educated.

(Hearing before the United States Commissioner.)

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 1, 1898.*

PEDRO CARLOS TIMOTHÉE, a native of Naguabo, P. R., and educated in San Juan:

Dr. CARROLL. How long have you been a teacher?

Mr. TIMOTHÉE. Twelve years; in public and private schools.

Dr. CARROLL. Are you now in a primary or secondary school?

Mr. TIMOTHÉE. In a primary school; but besides, I have classes in secondary work privately.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the range of years for children in the primary schools? At what age do they normally pass into the secondary classes?

Mr. TIMOTHÉE. There is no fixed age, but it is usually about 9 years of age.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the children divided into grades in the primary schools?

Mr. TIMOTHÉE. That is a matter which rests with the teacher. The pupils are usually divided into several sections, according to their ability, but that is arbitrary. The largest number of sections is three.

Dr. CARROLL. What are those three sections?

Mr. TIMOTHÉE. They depend upon the age of the pupil and the state of the pupil's knowledge.

Dr. CARROLL. What studies would you include in the lowest grade?

Mr. TIMOTHÉE. They study the same in all three, but the quantity varies.

Dr. CARROLL. Then you have no graded system?

Mr. TIMOTHÉE. No. Teachers in Porto Rico have not had the liberty of implanting modern methods, because school regulations have prohibited that altogether.

Dr. CARROLL. Why do I find so many teachers imbued with the idea of progress? Is it that they have got it from books from the United States or France or other foreign systems, or how?

Mr. TIMOTHÉE. When they are going through their studies they are made acquainted with the methods used in foreign countries—it forms a part of their studies—but when they come to practice they find themselves so hedged in by arbitrary rules that they have no freedom to pursue methods which they have learned.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the teachers as a class imbued with these progressive ideas?

Mr. TIMOTHÉE. The teachers living in the larger towns and those who have lately completed their studies are all imbued with ideas of progress, but those who have been teaching for twenty years or so are somewhat more conservative and retroactive.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the first, most pressing need of the schools of Porto Rico?

Mr. TIMOTHÉE. They have many urgent necessities, but the most important is the creation of kindergartens in every town to prepare children for elementary education later on.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you consider the provision of public buildings large enough to accommodate all the children of the district, built complete, with all sanitary appliances, an important need?

Mr. TIMOTHÉE. So urgent do I consider it that for three years I have been advocating it in the press constantly. I consider also of urgent importance that the intervention of priests and Sisters of Charity should cease in the schools, as they do not benefit.

Dr. CARROLL. Have they interfered to any considerable degree with the teaching?

Mr. TIMOTHÉE. The state having granted them a protection which it has not granted the school-teacher, they have been a hindrance to education, because they exercise a great deal of influence over the women of the country, and that has always been used against the influence of true education.

Dr. CARROLL. Have they been in the habit of coming into the school and taking up much of the time of the school in catechising the children?

Mr. TIMOTHÉE. As a rule the curé attached to the municipal board of education in each town used to go to the schools and examine the children. He was a superior officer as compared with the school-teacher, and he and the teacher were nearly always in disaccord.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you consider that religious instruction in the schools should be discontinued, and that the scholars should be simply instructed in morals?

Mr. TIMOTHÉE. I think that religion should be removed from the schools altogether, and lessons of pure morals instituted.

Dr. CARROLL. I visited recently a school of small boys in Cristo street, where I saw a collection of moral maxims. Is that collection strictly moral, or is it also religious?

Mr. TIMOTHÉE. Religion forms a part of some of the maxims.

Dr. CARROLL. To an objectionable extent, do you think?

Mr. TIMOTHÉE. Religion does not enter into them with much weight.

Dr. CARROLL. What other urgent needs do you think the public schools have?

Mr. TIMOTHÉE. I will name them one by one. In the first place, the establishment of gymnasiums for the boys to exercise in; (2) the establishment in the country barrios of schools for girls or mixed schools, where, up to the present, only schools for boys have been established; (3) better methods for elementary instruction in drawing; (4) the salaries of the teachers should be in proportion to the amount of work they have to do—in some schools teachers have as many as a hundred boys, and yet have no amount allowed them for assistant teachers, with the result that they have to neglect their work; (5) the establishment of public libraries by the municipalities; (6) the establishing of schools for adults in every city and town are very necessary; (7) the establishment of a school of fine arts; (8) the establishment of a business school, schools of agriculture and other technical subjects; (9) while not within the province of the Government, perhaps, yet there should be formed in some way an organization among the teachers, male and female, so that they can meet and exchange ideas from time to time; (10) I think it very necessary to establish here a school for blind and deaf-mutes.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there such a school here?

Mr. TIMOTHÉE. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there an industrial school here?

Mr. TIMOTHÉE. No, except in one school, where there is some technical teaching of agriculture, but it amounts to very little. There is one school also which makes some pretensions to teach arts and industries. Formerly there were schools in the departmental prison, all of which have been closed. It is not only necessary that they should be reopened, but that schools should be established in the presidio. The presidio is a prison in which prisoners are completing their terms as distinguished from a carcel, in which prisoners are confined temporarily. It would be advisable that the government of the schools should not be too much centralized; that municipalities should be able to legislate on their own school matters and be accountable to the district supervisor, and these supervisors to the central committee at the capital. There were formerly two inspectors of public schools, who, owing to the bad state of the roads, have not been able to make inspections of the schools. It would be well that there should be an inspector in each district or county. There is one other thing I would recommend, and that is that all teaching should be done by professional teachers. Teachers of technical subjects were not usually professional teachers. Laymen do not take the same interest in their work, since it is not their profession.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the tenth item in the second chapter in the estimates of the provincial deputation, called "Society for the Protection of Intelligence?"

Mr. ZARATE, of the institute. This is a private society to which anybody may belong by paying a dollar a month, which has for its object the sending of promising youths to foreign countries for their education. The municipality, thinking well of this society, made it a grant of 1,000 pesos yearly, and there are to-day in Porto Rico many men with professions who owe their education to this worthy and useful society.

EDUCATION ABROAD.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 4, 1898.*

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any demand in Porto Rico for a university for the granting of degrees other than the degree of bachelor of arts?

Mr. ZARATE. I think Porto Rico is too small to support a university. As a private individual I should be delighted to see one established here, so that my son could be educated without being separated from me.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think young men will go to the United States for their education in science, medicine, and other professions?

Mr. ZARATE. It is natural that they should go there; for one reason, that the United States is so much nearer than Europe, and because to-day the greater number of our doctors and engineers hold their diplomas from institutions in the United States.

SCHOOLS AND BAD ROADS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

ARECIBO, P. R., *January 14, 1899.*

Mr. ADOLF BAHR and Mr. BERNARDO HUICY, members of the municipal council of Arecibo:

Mr. HUICY. As regards public instruction, owing to the bad state of our roads and the difficulties which children have in reaching schools situated at some distance from where they live, it is not possible to extend the benefits of public instruction to all the people. It would also be impossible for us to undertake to bring children into the centers to educate them, because we would then have to provide them with necessary subsistence, and we have not funds sufficient so to do. It would be well if the United States should arrange some plan by which the present state of things in our interior districts could be bettered as regards education. It may be said that only 14 per cent of Porto Ricans can read and write.

Dr. CARROLL. How many schools are there in this municipal district outside of Arecibo proper?

Mr. HUICY. Nine.

Dr. CARROLL. Are they pretty widely distributed, so as to afford accommodation to most of the children?

Mr. BAHR. They are very badly distributed. Our barrios are sometimes very extensive. In a barrio there is only one school, which makes long distances for the children to go to school, and for that reason some children are forbidden to go at all. In some cases fathers, without excuse, do not send their children to school, and I think there should be a law making attendance in such cases compulsory.

Dr. CARROLL. How would it do to provide stages in these sparsely settled districts to take the children to school in the morning and home at night?

Mr. BAHR. I think we could do it in a different way. Instead of one school establish five schools, and instead of placing in them what are called here professors have young ladies, who, for a small salary, say, \$20 or \$30, would live among these people and be able to teach

at least reading and writing and the rudiments of arithmetic. That would be easier for the children, because they would have the school nearer, and easier for the teachers as well. It is a question of distribution. Until now the government has required that our teachers should be persons with titles. That should not be obligatory; all we need is to get a person who knows enough to teach the elementary subjects.

Dr. CARROLL. How many would you have instead of nine?

Mr. BARR. We could have thirty.

Mr. HUICY. We understand that perfectly; but twenty-five schools means a large additional expense, and, although we have the wish, we haven't the means.

HOW TO IMPROVE THE SCHOOLS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

ARECIBO, P. R., *January 14, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. What is your opinion as to the best way to improve the system of education?

Dr. CURBELO (a physician). It is, first, to oblige all the schools of the town to be in one building, instead of having several school buildings, as they have here, where it is impossible to inspect and control the attendance of children. I think there should be one building for boys and one for girls. That would make it possible to keep track of pupils better. I think that teachers for the schools should be brought from the United States.

Dr. CARROLL. That would do, perhaps, for a compact city like Arecibo, but for Ponce I should think there would have to be more schools. Would you have buildings made expressly for schools?

Dr. CURBELO. Yes, that ought to be done.

Dr. CARROLL. It seems to me that that is about the first step to be taken.

Dr. CURBELO. They should begin at once to teach English in the schools.

Dr. CARROLL. There are plenty of teachers in the States who would be glad to come down here and introduce the system they have there of teaching. It seems desirable, does it not, that there should be established more than one normal school for the training of teachers?

Dr. CURBELO. I think one would be sufficient in this city.

Dr. CARROLL. Yes, but there is at present only one in the island, I understand.

Dr. CURBELO. That was not really a normal school, although they called it a normal school, because if the pupils were friends of the professors they would get their titles whether they knew anything or not.

Dr. CARROLL. Could that be said also of the collegiate institute?

Dr. CURBELO. It could be said of any school with a Spanish teacher, because it can be readily understood that a teacher with a high degree of proficiency would not come to this country, leave his position in Spain, and expose himself to the dangers of this climate for the poor recompense that is offered. Moreover, they are as backward in the art of teaching in Spain as they are here.

Dr. CARROLL. A great many have spoken in favor of a compulsory system of education to compel parents to send their children to school. According to representations made here, a great many people are too

poor to buy clothing for their children, and how in such a case could they send them to school, and how could they get along without the wages which those children earn after they become 8 years of age?

Dr. CURBELO. You must distinguish between education in the city and education in the country districts—two things quite different. In the city everybody, even if he has not sufficient to give his children proper food, has at least enough to clothe them sufficiently well to send them to school. These little children, 7 or 8 years of age, whom you see on the streets selling dulces, should not be allowed to do that at the expense of their education, but the old people should be granted concession to sell, and the children sent to school. The poor people, instead of asking for charity, should be selling these dulces.

Dr. CARROLL. What would you do with the blind and infirm? Would there not have to be houses for them?

Dr. CURBELO. These classes of people do not like to go into houses of charity. They prefer to live with their relatives and to indulge in vices which they can cover up in that way.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there asylums here for orphans, for the aged and infirm, for the blind and the crippled?

Dr. CURBELO. There are two houses of that description in the island; and with regard to orphans, you must take into account that this is a kindly disposed people. When a parent dies and leaves orphaned children, there are always some who are ready to take the children under their care. As regards instruction in the country, that is a problem for which I can find no solution. They live so separate, one from another, that I do not see any way of getting them to school.

Dr. CARROLL. A proprietor in San Juan told me that one of the troubles of the peons was that they were addicted to certain vices, largely due to their lack of intelligence. He said that one of these was gambling; that whatever the peons may have left Saturday night, they are in the habit of gambling away, and that they have certain vices which he believed could be cured together with these. If he is right in that, it becomes an important question how the children can be educated.

Mr. ALFRED SOLOMON. If you can prevail upon the owners of estates to make the peons live on the estates, and not employ those who have to walk 3 or 4 miles to work, the owners would lose nothing, and the peons would become more sociable and form nuclei of small villages, in which schools can be gradually established. If a few owners at a time could be induced to undertake this system, others would follow.

Dr. CURBELO. There is such a system in Lares, where they have a school.

Dr. CARROLL. Does it work well there?

Dr. CURBELO. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. What estate is that?

Dr. CURBELO. The owner's name is Arana.

PRIMARY EDUCATION AND MORAL INSTRUCTION.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

UTUADO, P. R., *January 18, 1899.*

Mr. LUCAS AMADEO. Now as to the subject of education and instruction. Really I have nothing to say about that, because the Americans are past masters in education, and are the creators of great

educational plans. Not being a master mind, I will leave the technical part to those who understand it better, but I would insist on the further diffusion of elementary instruction—I mean by that primary education and moral education—showing the child what his rights are and what his obligations are; also elements of rural and political and agricultural economy. That would be my plan for the primary education of this country, because it is suitable to the conditions existing here. The fault of our system of secondary education is that it produces a horde of so-called writers, who use it for no better purpose than to consume ink. They are really a plague to society. They obtain a superficial knowledge of everything, but not a sufficient knowledge of anything to earn a living. They take to politics and writing as a means of earning a livelihood and become a nuisance to the country; therefore we have a small army of politicians here whom we would be pleased to lend to any country that wants them. I would take measures to stop the further creation of these dainty literateurs, and turn education in the direction of useful arts. This country is more in need of men who know some trade.

Dr. CARROLL. That is becoming more and more the difficulty in the United States. Those who become educated desire to go into what they regard as the dignified professions and leave the trades.

Mr. AMADEO. Instruction must be modified. That is the only remedy.

Dr. CARROLL. We have industrial schools, and we are teaching more and more various arts and industries.

Mr. AMADEO. Make the term of the course from the liberal professions a harder one, so as to limit the output of professional men.

Dr. CARROLL. We are doing that.

Mr. AMADEO. Bachelor's degrees have been conferred on men here who did not know how to write a letter.

SUPERFICIAL CHARACTER OF INSTRUCTION.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

MAYAGUEZ, P. R., *January 23, 1899.*

The commissioner visited a school for young girls in the Mendezvigo street. A lady teacher was in charge of the school, who stated that she had 130 pupils, with one assistant teacher paid by the municipality, and two other assistants, one of them her sister, whose remuneration she attends to herself; that there are two departments, the primary and the superior; that the school was intended to be a superior school, but as there were comparatively few scholars application was made to the board, which directed that children should not be kept out on account of grade, so there are two grades in the school; that there are 96 poor children. The others pay for their tuition.

The TEACHER. By the 96 poor children I mean those who come in by ticket from the municipality. Some of the others are poor, but were unable to get the ticket from the municipality, but I have let them come in anyway. It is a public school, but before children can be entered in it they have to go through certain forms, such as getting the curé's signature, and as it was very difficult, and permission was sometimes refused, I have taken some without that formality.

Dr. CARROLL. Then it is not a free school?

The TEACHER. They still have to go through the same steps to get in.

Dr. CARROLL. The secretary of fomento in San Juan told me that the schools were free; that no fees were charged to scholars.

The TEACHER. We have authority to take pay pupils. I have to pay \$60 for this house, and the municipality only gives me \$40 and some odd cents for the rent.

Dr. CARROLL. Then you apply some of the money you receive from the pupils to the expenses?

The TEACHER. Yes; and also for the purchasing of materials which the poor can not buy. As regards school furniture, we are completely unprovided with it. For several years we have been trying to get it, and they have been asking for numerous lists of what is needed, but it has all ended there.

Dr. CARROLL. Are other schools similarly situated?

The TEACHER. It is the same in all the schools. I have to spend some money from my salary on school furniture, and I have told my sister that we can not go on in this way, as we will not have enough left out of the salary to live on.

Dr. CARROLL. How many months of school do you have in the year?

The TEACHER. There are fifteen days' vacation twice a year.

Dr. CARROLL. Then you teach every month in the year?

The TEACHER. Yes. From 8 to 11 in the morning, and from 1 to 4 on every day in the week except Sunday.

Dr. CARROLL. What do you teach, besides sewing, to the children in the superior department of the school?

The TEACHER. General and sacred history, grammar, arithmetic, geography, universal history, geometry, health, natural history, and drawing.

Dr. CARROLL. I should be glad if you would ask them simple questions in geography.

The teacher called upon a class of 15 girls of the superior grade and questioned them one after the other as follows:

The TEACHER. Into how many parts is the terrestrial globe divided?

ANSWER. Five parts—the five continents.

The TEACHER. Into what is geography divided?

ANSWER. Into astronomical, physical, and political.

The TEACHER. What is the universe?

ANSWER. The conjunction of bodies which forms infinite space.

The TEACHER. What do you understand by a star?

ANSWER. Every one of the luminous points we see in the firmament.

The TEACHER. What are these stars divided into?

ANSWER. Into fixed and moving stars.

The TEACHER. What do you understand by fixed stars?

ANSWER. Those that have their own light and which appear to be always stationary.

The TEACHER. Can you give me the name of any of the fixed stars?

ANSWER. The sun.

The TEACHER. What do you call the sun with all its stars and other satellites?

ANSWER. The solar system.

The TEACHER. Can you tell me the number of stars.

ANSWER. It is unknown. To the unaided eye more than 5,000 are visible, but to the telescope more than 100,000,000 are known.

The TEACHER. How are the fixed stars divided?

ANSWER. Into sixteen magnitudes.

The TEACHER. Of these sixteen magnitudes how many are visible to the sight?

ANSWER. Up to the seventh magnitude.

The TEACHER. How many are visible to the telescope?

ANSWER. The rest of them.

The commissioner here asked the privilege of putting what he regarded as simple questions in geography to the class.

Dr. CARROLL. Where is Germany?

ANSWER. In Europe.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the capital of Germany?

ANSWER. Berlin. (The girl who answered was prompted by the one next to her.)

Dr. CARROLL. Where is Spain?

ANSWER. In Europe.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the capital of Spain?

ANSWER. Madrid.

Dr. CARROLL. Where is Italy?

ANSWER. In Europe.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the capital of Italy?

ANSWER. Rome.

Dr. CARROLL. Where is the United States?

The TEACHER. The study of the United States belongs to a course which has not been taken yet. They have only studied the astronomical part of geography and Europe.

Dr. CARROLL. Where is Turkey?

ANSWER. In Europe.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the capital of Turkey?

ANSWER. Constantinople.

Dr. CARROLL. Where is the capital of Turkey situated?

(Question not answered.)

Dr. CARROLL. Where is Austria?

ANSWER. In central Europe.

Dr. CARROLL. What country is on the north of Austria?

ANSWER. Germany.

Dr. CARROLL. What is on the south of Austria?

ANSWER. Italy.

Dr. CARROLL. Where is Porto Rico?

(No answer.)

Dr. CARROLL. Is Porto Rico in Europe?

(No answer.)

Dr. CARROLL. What country is north of Porto Rico?

(No answer.)

Dr. CARROLL. What country is south of Porto Rico?

(No answer.)

Dr. CARROLL. What is Porto Rico?

ANSWER. An island.

Dr. CARROLL. What is Porto Rico surrounded by?

ANSWER. The Atlantic Ocean.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it surrounded on all sides by the Atlantic Ocean?

(No answer.)

Dr. CARROLL. Where is Cuba?

(No answer.)

Dr. CARROLL. Is it east or west of Porto Rico?

(No answer.)

Dr. CARROLL. To what country does Porto Rico belong?

(One little girl said New York, but others answered correctly.)

Dr. CARROLL. To what country did Porto Rico belong last year?

ANSWER. Spain.

Dr. CARROLL. Will the teacher please ask a few questions in arithmetic? Tell the girls not to be afraid. I am not here to criticise them, but to ask them a few questions with a sympathetic interest in them.

The TEACHER. How do you reduce numbers to their prime factors?

ANSWER. To reduce a number to its prime factors, you divide the given number by one of its simple divisors. The quotient thus obtained is divided again by one of the primary divisors. This is continued until a primary quotient results, which is divided by itself.

The TEACHER. Take 98, for example. By what would you divide it to get the prime factors?

ANSWER. By two.

The TEACHER. Why by two?

ANSWER. Because it terminates in an even number.

The TEACHER. That gives what result?

ANSWER. 49.

The TEACHER. And then you divide by what?

ANSWER. By 7 and then by 7 again.

The TEACHER. Now 36. By what do you divide that?

ANSWER. First by 2, then by 2, then by 9.

The TEACHER. How do you find the greatest common divisor by means of the decomposition into simple factors?

ANSWER. After dividing the number into its common factors, the sum of all the common factors is taken.

The TEACHER. What is the common factor there [referring to the prime factors of 98 and 36]?

ANSWER. Two.

The TEACHER. Which is the greatest common factor?

ANSWER. Two.

The TEACHER. I have \$30. Some poor people come to us, among whom we divide \$84. What amount remains of the \$30?

(This example was worked out on the board, the 20 and 84 being reduced to fractions with common denominators, subtracted in that form, and the result changed to a mixed number.)

Dr. CARROLL. I want to ask a few questions in simple addition, and would like to have the pupils answer them quickly. How much is 5 and 5; 15 and 12; 13 and 13; 27 and 27; 30 and 19; 3 and 12; 19 and 6; 18 and 17?

(Correct answers were given, but not as rapidly as is usual with pupils who have been well trained in mental arithmetic.)

THE SCHOOLS OF MAYAGUEZ.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

MAYAGUEZ, P. R., *January 24, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. What municipal moneys have been expended the past year for schools in this municipal district?

Secretary BALSAC. Twenty-three thousand dollars, approximately.

Dr. CARROLL. How is that amount divided? How much for teachers?

Secretary BALSAC. Sixteen thousand dollars, and \$7,000 for rents, books, materials, and other supplies.

Dr. CARROLL. How many schools are there in the city itself?

Secretary BALSAC. Seven.

Dr. CARROLL. How many are there in the municipal district?

Secretary BALSAC. Twenty-four.

Dr. CARROLL. How many teachers are employed in these schools?

Secretary BALSAC. There are 24 professors—1 for each school—and 5 assistants, making 29 in all.

Dr. CARROLL. They receive, then, on an average, \$551 a year for each teacher. Some get more than that, do they not?

Secretary BALSAC. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the minimum salary?

Secretary BALSAC. The minimum salary is \$300. Such low salaries are paid usually to rural teachers.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any arrears of payment of teachers in this district?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. No.

Dr. CARROLL. How many days are usually occupied by the scholars in a year?

Secretary BALSAC. The whole year, with the exception of two periods, one after the examinations in August of about twenty days, and one after New Year's of an equal length, and the 52 Sundays. During the warm season the sessions are only held during the morning.

Dr. CARROLL. Are any fees collected of parents?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. All who can do so pay.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that collected by the teachers?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the professor in such cases required to report the amount collected?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the professor allowed to expend that money as he sees fit?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. Yes; absolutely. It is his own property. The money they receive from the municipality is supposed to be for the teaching of poor children only.

Dr. CARROLL. Then it is only regarded as part salary?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it be well, in your opinion, that the schools should receive much larger appropriations and that all this should be abolished?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. I think that should be done.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it your opinion that it would be well to have separate buildings for the schools, built purposely to have the natural conveniences that schools have in the United States and elsewhere?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. I think so. We have building lots for that purpose, but not having funds we have been unable to construct them. We think the number of school buildings should be diminished and the schools centralized in a few buildings.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the school board exercise any jurisdiction over the employment of teachers?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. No; the council does.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the council have the right to employ and discharge teachers, or does it simply have the right to nominate to the secretary of fomento?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. It simply nominates.

Dr. CARROLL. Ought there not to be a school board in every city, who should have entire control of all these matters, without the necessity of applying to the secretary of fomento for permission to employ or discharge teachers?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. Yes; there should be. As Mayaguez was taken by the Americans before the capital, we took advantage of that to name our own teachers, because we had Spanish teachers we did not want. The secretary of fomento subsequently confirmed these.

Dr. CARROLL. Should there be in every municipal district a superintendent of instruction, whose business it should be to visit constantly the schools in each district to see that the school laws are applied; that proper instruction is given the children, and proper facilities; and to supervise in a general way the duties of the teachers and the conduct of the teachers?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. Yes. I consider that a very correct measure to take, and we have already considered the matter among ourselves.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think it would be well that proper facilities should be afforded for the instruction of children; that it should be made obligatory for them to attend a minimum number of days every school year?

Mr. ST. LAURENT. That is the law already, but you have to take into account that the peasants live so isolated that it is quite impossible to make them conform to the regulations.

Dr. CARROLL. I suppose the rural schools for that reason are not kept open as many days in the year as the city schools.

Mr. ST. LAURENT. That is probably the case. The schools are open every day, but they don't have a full attendance.

VISIT TO ANOTHER SCHOOL.

MAYAGUEZ, P. R., *January 24, 1899.*

The commissioner visited an elementary school for girls, called the School of the Divine Providence. The ages of the pupils ranged from 6 to 14 years.

Dr. CARROLL. We visited a superior school yesterday, but it also had primary scholars. Why are these two schools so close together?

The TEACHER. The reason this is so near is that the other is a superior, while this is an elementary school. The pupils from this school pass to the other.

Dr. CARROLL. But the other has more elementary scholars than superior scholars.

The TEACHER. In my opinion it is a very bad arrangement. The elementary scholars ought to come here first. Any elementary pupil can get into this school if she has the necessary ticket from the alcalde. This ticket gives the name of the scholar, her address, etc.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any fee charged here?

The TEACHER. Not in this school, but there is in the school you visited yesterday.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the reason for the distinction?

The TEACHER. Wealthy persons generally send their children there and pay for their tuition. I sometimes have children of wealthy parents who pay.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they pay at their own option, or do they receive additional facilities for their children?

The TEACHER. None at all. The reason that some parents send their children and pay for their instruction is that they don't care to have their children mingle with children of color.

Dr. CARROLL. Where were you educated?

The TEACHER. I was born in Italy, but was educated here.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you been in the normal school in the capital?

The TEACHER. Yes. My diploma is that of the superior school. I have taught school fifteen years.

Dr. CARROLL. What do you teach the smallest of these children?

The TEACHER. The alphabet; how to write figures and syllables. We are in absolute need of all kinds of supplies.

Dr. CARROLL. Will you give the pupils an exercise in reading?

The reading lesson was given from a small primer. In the course of the reading lesson the word "arbolus" occurred, and the commissioner asked the little girl who read it what its meaning is. She was unable to answer. The commissioner interrupted another of the pupils to ask the meaning of the word "cinco" and was told in reply that it meant "cinco pesos." A similar question was put by the commissioner as to the word "canario," and he was told correctly that it was a bird, and a further question as to its color was answered correctly.

The school consisted of 18 very small children, whose average age was perhaps 7, and 26 larger ones, whose average age was somewhat higher. The room in which the school was held was square and about 15 feet long, its ceiling about 10 feet high. The older children are taught doctrine, and when the commissioner inquired regarding this study the teacher said that she was at a loss to know whether the study was obligatory or not. The further exercise was conducted as follows:

The TEACHER. What is a verb?

ANSWER. A word which denotes action.

The TEACHER. What are the stages of the verb?

ANSWER. Five—voice, mode, tense, number, and person.

The TEACHER. What is meant by the voice of a verb?

ANSWER. There are two voices, active and passive. One denotes action and one denotes being acted upon. In Spanish there is no passive voice.

The TEACHER. What is mode?

ANSWER. The general manner in which the classification of verbs is expressed.

The TEACHER. What is conjugation? Give to the verbs their designations and the changes which they undergo.

ANSWER. We have three conjugations in Spanish, which are: the first terminating in *ar*, the second in *er*, and the third in *ir*.

The commissioner pointed to a sentence in the primer and asked one of the pupils to indicate a verb. The article "el" was pointed out. On asking a second pupil the adverb "pronto" was pointed out. A third pupil was then asked to point out a noun, which was done correctly. The commissioner then asked that a vowel be indicated, which was also correctly done. In like manner an adjective was correctly pointed out. Still another of the pupils was asked to point out a preposition in the sentence, "I have put a basket of apples on the table." She answered, "a basket of apples." Another pupil answered the question correctly. A sentence was pointed out by the Commissioner commencing with the words "la niña" and he asked that a noun be pointed out. One of the pupils answered that the noun was *la niña*. When further asked which of the two words "la" and "niña" was the noun, she replied "la."

Dr. CARROLL. Do you drill the pupils in the parts of speech with a view to teaching them the value of verbs, adjectives, etc.?

The TEACHER. Yes; but in the fifteen years I have never become accustomed to visitors, and always get nervous, and my nervousness seems to be transmitted to the pupils.

Dr. CARROLL. I understand that perfectly. I have very seldom known teachers who did not get a little nervous when visitors came in, for fear the pupils would not do as well as they desired them to. If I had any criticism to make, it would be the criticism I have to make on all schools in the island—that is, too much attention is given to theoretical education and too little to the practical.

The TEACHER. The first misfortune of our schools is that the school-teacher is treated without any consideration. They have no moral power with the pupils.

Dr. CARROLL. Have they any power over the pupils to discipline them?

The TEACHER. None at all. If I should impose any punishment on a child, the father would go at once to the *ayuntamiento* and I would very promptly receive a document from that body about it. The child would know all about that and I lose all influence over the child. That is what always happens.

Dr. CARROLL. What do you do with incorrigible children?

The TEACHER. I write the parents not to send them. I really have no power to do that, but I do it.

Dr. CARROLL. Who has power to do that?

The TEACHER. The *junta* (school board).

Dr. CARROLL. Does the board ever exercise it?

The TEACHER. However, I can not complain. The girls here are very good girls.

FAVORITISM.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

CABO ROJO, P. R., *January 27, 1899.*

Mr. RODRIGO RAMIREZ (a clerk in a business house). Education is completely abandoned here. Most of the teachers have no titles. We want titled school-teachers.

Mr. PAGAN. As a member of the board of instruction, I wish to rectify that statement. Two of the schools having become vacant, the board of education, by virtue of the powers conferred upon it, nominated two persons whom they considered competent to fill the places until the minister of instruction should open the examination for two teachers to be sent from the capital.

Mr. RAMIREZ. This gentleman [pointing to a person who was present at the hearing], who possesses a title, has tried to get a school for quite a long while, but without success. They have given it to a man who had no title. The gentleman to whom the school has been given is a relative of the alcalde, and that is the reason it was given to him. This gentleman has a title and is in a better position to fill the place.

(The teacher who had been referred to said: "For forty-two years I have had a title, and they won't give me a school.")

Mr. RAMIREZ. Mr. Pagan is also a relative of the alcalde.

Mr. PAGAN. Although I am a relative of the alcalde, that does not prevent me from speaking the truth. I am a member of the board of education, and I have no knowledge that this gentleman (the teacher previously referred to in the hearing) ever applied for a school. The clerk just now informs me that his petition was put in a few days ago and immediately sent to the capital for action.

The TEACHER. I have here a receipt of a petition dated January 4, 1899.

Dr. CARROLL. When were these places filled by substitutes?

Mr. PAGAN. Three or four months ago.

Dr. CARROLL. When did this gentleman make application for a school?

The TEACHER. The 4th of January.

A SECOND TEACHER PRESENT. I had a school temporarily, but they took it from me and put in a person who has no title at all.

Dr. CARROLL. What was the reason for the change?

Mr. PAGAN. The law exacts that a teacher shall have a knowledge of universal geography, and in spite of this gentleman's title we did not consider that he had a sufficient knowledge. The gentleman we put in his place has a title of "bachelor," though not a schoolmaster's title, and we considered him better fitted to fill the position.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the present teacher a native of this place?

Mr. PAGAN. Both gentlemen are.

The SECOND TEACHER. Although I may not have the capacity which this gentleman says I have not, I have opened a private school and have 57 pupils of the best families of the town. Having been so many years a school-teacher and possessing the proper title, to be removed from my position and replaced by a mere boy without titles of the profession is a proof that there has been favoritism and personal considerations in the matter.

Mr. RAMIREZ. I would like to take you around from house to house to prove that every position given here has been given by a clique.

Dr. CARROLL. I would like to ask Mr. Pagan if these applications have been sent to the minister of instruction for approval?

The SECOND TEACHER. I asked for the position of schoolmaster, and the council gave it to me, but the board of education turned me down for personal reasons. The former teacher was a Spaniard, and I was put in as an interim instructor.

EDUCATION FOR GIRLS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

FAJARDO, P. R., *January 31, 1899.*

Mr. GEORGE BIRD (ex-consul of the United States, at Fajardo). I think that the schools in Porto Rico ought to educate the women. The reason Porto Rico is so far behind is that native women from the country have not been educated, and of course have not had impressed upon them the necessity of giving education to their children. I think the rural schools should be served by women instead of men. The people in the rural districts live scattered in the mountains, and there will have to be small schools at frequent intervals which will accommodate the few children. You can get women to work for a smaller sum than men, and women can take both sexes, whereas parents will not send their girls to school and trust them to male teachers.

Dr. CARROLL. How much would they require?

Mr. BIRD. I think if you teach them only elementary subjects—arithmetic, geography, and grammar—you could get women in the island who would do it for \$15 or \$20 a month.

Dr. CARROLL. What do you pay male teachers?

Mr. BIRD. Twenty-five dollars. For that amount you can not get a competent man, and that is why the schools do not give any result. Not receiving much salary, the teachers could be allowed to live in the schoolhouses.

Dr. CARROLL. Don't you think that the first thing in order to put the schools on a proper foundation is to provide proper buildings for them?

Mr. BIRD. Yes, in the cities; but in the country it is not possible, because the rural population is scattered.

Dr. CARROLL. But you will have to have some place for the children, and while you won't have such a costly one as in the town, you ought to have public buildings for your public schools. I think that is a fundamental principle.

A SCHOOL IN ARROYO.

The commissioner attended a session of the Collegio de San Bernardo, a public school in Arroyo, February 3, 1899. The principal teacher of the school, Mr. Henry Huyke, conducted exercises in geography, grammar, and arithmetic.

The first exercise was one in geography. He drew a rough outline of the northern coast of South America, and questioned the children, all of whom were boys ranging in age from 8 to 15, as to the geographical features of the continent of South America. The questions, all of which were asked and answered in the English language, called

for the capes, rivers, political divisions, location of countries and cities relatively to each other, comparative sizes of the countries, etc. The teacher then extended the map, adding Cuba, Porto Rico, and a general outline of the United States. Questions were asked about Porto Rico, its capital, and principal productions, and then about Cuba in like manner. The names of the States of the Union were then given by groups, together with the names of their capitals and their locations, the names of the principal cities, which were stated to be New York, Philadelphia, Chicago, St. Louis, Boston, and Buffalo, and their locations, respectively. Boundaries of various States were given rapidly, as called for, and one boy stepped to the blackboard on which was drawn the map used in the exercise, and, beginning with the capes on the coast of Maine, named all the capes on the coast line of the United States, indicating with a chalk mark the location of each and naming, at the same time, the State on whose coast the cape was located. The book used in teaching geography was prepared by Professor Huyke himself, in three parts, written in Spanish and English and used by the professor in manuscript.

An exercise in arithmetic and grammar then followed. Professor Huyke wrote upon the blackboard the following:

I has buy 37½ quintals of sugar in \$140. What ist the price of 54½ quintals?

The professor asked if the sentence as written was correct grammatically. He was promptly told by one of the boys that it was incorrect. Another boy stepped to the board and changed "has" to "have" and stated the reason for the change; another stated the principal parts of the verb "to have," told what kind of a verb it is, and explained the use of auxiliary verbs. It was then asked whether, with the change made, the sentence was correct. A chorus of voices said no, and the word "buy" was changed to "bought" and the reason for the correction stated. The word "at" was then substituted for "in" and the word "is" for "ist," and reasons given in like manner. The principal parts of a large number of verbs were then called for in rapid succession, and were correctly given. An exercise then followed showing that all the boys had been thoroughly trained in the use of nouns. Many nouns were named and parsed and grammatical rules stated with facility. An exercise was given in the formation of plurals of nouns by means of the blackboard. General rules were called for as to various classes of nouns and illustrated by examples. Exceptions to the general rule for the formation of plurals were written by the professor on the blackboard in such a way as to make it appear that they followed the rule; these, such as "man," which was written "mans;" "goose," which was written "gooses;" "mouse," which was written "mouses;" and "penny," which was written "pennys," were promptly corrected and stated to be exceptions. An exercise followed in the use of the indefinite article, distinguishing between cases where the article "a" should be used, and when "an" should be used. Reasons were given for the use of "a" before "knife," "an" before "hour," "a" before "useful," and numerous other illustrations.

The example in arithmetic was then solved by the boys in four different ways on slates, and correct answers very promptly given.

The entire exercise given before the commissioner was characterized by great eagerness on the part of the boys to answer questions, and when given an opportunity responded with evident pride and satisfaction in their knowledge of the subject at hand and their ability to tell about it, and all about it, in the English language.

MORE SCHOOLS NEEDED.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

COAMO, P. R., *February 6, 1899.*

MR. HERMINIO SANTELLA. The number of schools here is very insufficient. This is not only true of Coamo, but of the whole island.

DR. CARROLL. I would like to have you speak for Coamo only.

MR. SANTELLA. In this district of from 12,000 to 14,000 people there is only one school for girls, and in the town only one for boys. I think mixed schools should be established, to be taught indiscriminately by male or female teachers. The town is too poor to attend to this matter and will not be able to charge its budget with the necessary amount to keep up the schools. I think, therefore, the government should intervene in the matter. It would be advisable to have here a male and a female teacher for the teaching of English, in order that the language may be more widely spoken. Since the Americans took possession of this town, I and several friends have gotten together to try to bring here an English teacher, but have not been able to get one. The school where I teach I have an attendance of 80 pupils a day. We have only 10 square varas in which to seat the pupils. All of our buildings where we have schools are deficient in hygienic conditions. It would be advisable to have only one school building in the town at which two or three hundred children could attend, and have the classes taught by several professors or lady teachers, instead of having several small schools.

DR. CARROLL. I think these school matters will very shortly be attended to. You won't be able to get all the reforms you want all at once, but they will come very soon and in a gradual way.

EDUCATION AND MORALS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *February 9, 1899.*

REV. A. J. McKIM (agent of the American Bible Society). In meeting the difficulties which surround the education of the children and the moral education of the people, we are constantly met with denials of their immorality and assertions of a comparatively elevated condition in the capital. That is certainly true if reference is made only to the wealthy classes, but it was the poor to whom our Saviour preached the gospel, and our laws are made to protect and develop the resources of the poor, since the rich are well able to care for themselves. School facilities are scarcely adequate for a population so large as that of San Juan. The conveniences for education are extremely limited, no suitable houses having been provided, but only tenement houses being adapted to this purpose. Since the coming of General Eaton the schools have taken on a new life, and on the 6th of February, with American flags, they assembled in the principal square of the city to swear allegiance to our country. Let us hope that they may in due time be prepared to appreciate the value and dignity of American citizenship.

POOR PAY FOR TEACHERS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

PONCE, P. R., *March 2, 1899.*

JUAN CUEVAS ABOY (a school-teacher for eighteen years). Schoolmasters are badly paid here. I earn \$60 and house rent. This bad payment of the schoolmasters causes them to be looked on as social inferiors. They do not hold the social position they should. Any other employment is thought more of than that of the schoolmaster. They have to teach from 50 to 60 children, which is too many for one man. We wish to have the number of pupils limited by law, as in the United States. It is also very necessary that education shall be gratuitous and obligatory. In short, we wish the status of the schoolmaster to be improved, and in that way the Government can improve the status of the citizen. We were not paid for month before last until the 14th of last month, and up to the present we have not been paid for the month of February. Out of the \$60 I receive I have to pay an assistant \$15 a month.

RURAL SCHOOLS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

PONCE, P. R., *March 2, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. I suppose the schools are about equally divided between boys and girls?

Mr. ROSICH. They are very unequally divided. A great defect is that in all the rural districts there are no schools for girls.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there no girls that want to be educated?

Mr. ROSICH. That is where the great defect is. There are fourteen rural schools, but none for girls. This year we have started three girls' schools as against fourteen boys' schools.

The SECRETARY. The difficulty is with the teachers. The low salaries do not admit of a lady teacher going out, because if she is single she has to take her family and live out there, whereas a man can go alone.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the salary paid a lady teacher in the country?

Mr. ROSICH. Twenty-five pesos a month, and 6 pesos for a house, and a peso or a peso and a half for office expenses.

Dr. CARROLL. That is very small, is it not?

Mr. ROSICH. It is hard to see how they can live at all on that amount. The rural teachers have not the same sources of income as the town teachers have. The town teachers get fees from rich people, but in the rural districts there are no rich people.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it against the law or custom for men to teach girls?

Mr. ROSICH. So much so that it would be very severely criticised. The law of public instruction contains a statement to the effect that it is not allowed; but nothing is thought of a professor going to a house and giving private lessons.

Dr. CARROLL. You have only one school building, I believe, that the city owns.

Mr. ROSICH. One, and one being constructed.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the one you have a large one?

Mr. ROSICH. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the whole of it occupied for school purposes exclusively?

Mr. ROSICH. The teacher lives there.

Dr. CARROLL. How many superior schools have you?

Mr. ROSICH. One for each sex.

Dr. CARROLL. You have no normal school?

Mr. ROSICH. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any superior classes in some of the other schools?

Mr. ROSICH. Only in the private schools. The system of superior instruction has not given results here, and the press and the public are always crying out for its abolition.

The SECRETARY. The poor people only want a mere elementary education for their children, and then want to send them to work. The rich people send their children to the institute.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the municipality encourage and support to any extent private schools?

Mr. ROSICH. Occasionally subventions have been given to private schools in order to enable them to give secondary instruction to some of the pupils.

Dr. CARROLL. Can you tell me how many scholars there are in the public schools of the district?

Mr. ROSICH. We get a report every three months, which I will send for.

Dr. CARROLL. What have you to say as to the capacity of the teachers? Are they generally good teachers?

Mr. ROSICH. In the rural schools they are quite poor, but you can not get any better teachers for the salary paid, which is the salary of workmen only.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think it would be well that the city should entirely control the schools within its limits, that a larger amount of money should be appropriated to their support, and that the fee system should be abolished and suitable salaries given to teachers?

Mr. ROSICH. I have always been in favor of the proposition that when education is made obligatory it ought to be entirely gratuitous.

Dr. CARROLL. It seems to me that there might be a larger appropriation made from the insular treasury to the public schools and that the hiring and dismissal of teachers, the hiring of houses, and that which pertains to the management of the schools should be in the hands of the municipality.

Mr. ROSICH. Yes; your idea is a very good one.

Dr. CARROLL. Of course there would be a general supervision on the part of the board of public instruction in the department of fomento. For example, the board ought to give certificates to teachers as to their qualifications, and after teachers get these certificates they ought to depend upon the municipalities for their employment and the terms of their employment.

Mr. ROSICH. Yes; if the municipality had certain limits imposed upon them, such as not being allowed to name a teacher who had not a title and, when once employed, not allowed to remove the teacher without cause.

Dr. CARROLL. That is according to the rules which prevail in the United States. Teachers there are hired for the school year and can not be discharged before the end of the school year except for cause. They may be reengaged or not for another year. In other words, their contract is by the year.

Mr. ROSICH. At the end of the year what happens? Are they without employment?

Dr. CARROLL. They are generally reengaged; but if not efficient, they are not reappointed, and they go to other schools of less importance, where perhaps the salary is less, so that they are seldom without employment.

(The report on attendance sent for by Mr. Rosich was brought to the attention of the commissioner at this point.)

Mr. ROSICH. This is the December report, and shows a total of 2,543 pupils of both sexes.

Dr. CARROLL. Is this the average attendance or the number on the roll?

Mr. ROSICH. This is the number who are entered on the roll. The report shows an attendance of 1,646. There are schools where there are 60 on the rolls and only 20 attended.

REFORMS SUGGESTED.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

PONCE, P. R., *March 3, 1899.*

Mr. EDUARDO NEUMANN. The municipalities here have large sums in their budgets for the purpose of renting schoolhouses. It would be wise for them to contract with building societies in the United States to construct a suitable schoolhouse in each district, and the sums set aside in the budgets for renting could be applied to the payment of the interest on these loans and could be reduced considerably. Several of the country schools are very badly conducted, owing to the fact that the teachers do not possess a sufficient degree of intelligence or morality to enable them to carry out their work as it should be done. These masters, as a rule, accept their positions as a means of livelihood, not as a vocation. They were the favorites of the Spanish Government, which gave the positions in exchange for votes and not because of fitness for the places. This point deserves the close attention of the Federal Government, because of the 900,000 inhabitants of Porto Rico, 600,000 live in the country and are scattered; and if they do not receive proper education, the work of civilization will be very much retarded. The scattered way in which the people live is one of the reasons why education is not as widespread as it should be. I think that the Government should construct extensive schools in all the districts in which to take a certain number of pupils as boarders, to prevent the children from being employed as they are at present; that is, the teachers send them out to get coffee and tobacco and make use of them as workers instead of attending to their education. If they could not take all the children in, they could take some in for a year and then let them give place to others; they could all then get some of the benefit. In towns like San Juan, Mayaguez, and Ponce they should also add a department of trades and arts, teaching the children also the elements of agriculture—how to cure tobacco and how to cultivate coffee, giving them a knowledge which will be useful to them in the struggle for existence later on.

As regards secondary education, the concentric system should also be employed, although, under the American system, the schools will take another form. It would also be convenient to extend night schools for adults, in which they could be taught subjects useful to

them in their daily life, such as drawing, geometry, and other technical subjects. The present boards of education should be abolished. They are usually composed of storekeepers and men who know nothing about education. In their place boards should be constituted from teachers and professors, people who understand teaching, and all matters of education should be referred to them. The present boards are useless. There should also be an inspector-general for the whole island, and under him department inspectors who would report to him.

I have been teacher for more than twenty years. I understand the system of education in the United States, which is a mixed one, being derived from the French and German systems. I have also read the works of pedagogy of great masters, principally the works of Manning. What this country is suffering from to-day is the confusion in the plan of education, the want of uniformity. The different grades of education are not perfectly marked out. One of the disadvantages of the system is that there are too many pupils to a school; there should not be more than 25 or 30. With regard to the teaching of orphans, it has been in the hands of Sisters of Charity. I think, however pious and good and useful they may be in the hospitals, they do not possess the necessary educational faculties. I think it would be very wise to establish kindergarten schools here, in San Juan, and in Mayaguez for the present, these three being the chief towns. There should be a good school of this description in each of these cities.

From that I will now pass on to elementary schools. Since the year 1880, when General Despujols issued a decree, education in this town has improved somewhat, although it has not arrived at a satisfactory basis yet, notwithstanding that the teachers think it has. One of the greatest obstacles to proper educational service is the fact that from 80 to 100 pupils are frequently crowded into one school, which is against all rules of pedagogy. The plan of the studies is more theoretical than practical, and the schools are not held in buildings adequate for their needs, and instruction up to the present has been based upon the Catholic religion, which should disappear entirely from the schools. These could be substituted by Sunday schools, under charge of the various fathers of families or of the priests connected with these churches.

A limited number of schools, under the direction of competent teachers from the United States, should be established for the teaching of the English language, so that the pupils themselves in a few years would be able to give instruction in that language.

The text-books used are quite deficient according to modern ideas and methods. They consist of questions and answers. The text-books now used in the United States could be translated into Spanish and brought here for general use. These books are written after the Comenius system or the concentric system, very much in vogue at present in Germany. The Comenius system is Austrian.

Elementary instruction should be divided into three classes, and children should know how to read easily before being admitted into elementary schools. Children going into the elementary schools are classified wrongly here. They are made to take up the whole of the programme at once, whereas by classifying elementary instruction in three grades, they could be taught the simplest course first, a little higher course next, and the third still more amplified until they had gone over the entire elementary course. I am not going to make a programme for education now, but I think that only practical sub-

jects should be taught in elementary schools, and this opinion is in accord with what Mr. Spencer, the great sociologist, has written.

Superior schools have given very poor results in this country. They are not really superior schools, but only amplifications of elementary schools. These schools should be replaced by the magnificent system employed in the city of Boston at present. High schools are also very deficient. It is the custom here to confer the bachelor's degree on a pupil who, when he leaves the schools, can hardly write a letter.

MORAL EDUCATION.

STATEMENT OF MR. P. SANTISTEBAN Y CHARIVARRI, SPANISH MERCHANT.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 28, 1898.*

Civil administration is a branch most difficult to deal with satisfactorily in a country whose social customs have not yet arrived at the acquisition of a complete moral education. Nevertheless this can be taken in hand with some hope of success if it is possible to bring into communities people who are now living isolated in the mountains, following the immoralities induced by their uncivilized condition of living and the vices of vagabondage, gambling, etc.

There should be established primary schools and workshops where the poor might learn a trade and acquire the habit of industry.

For civil and judicial positions only the most industrious and honest citizens should be chosen. These, at the same time, should be in an independent position so as to be able to exercise their duties with a greater degree of independence. The civil government should have a confidential delegate whose duty should be to preside over the municipalities if these are to be granted universal suffrage as distinguished from a limited suffrage.

To conclude, this country, which has owned slaves, requires, perhaps more than any other that its inhabitants should be given some sort of education to enable them to understand their duties to each other and to themselves. The principles of domestic economy and of moral public and private life should be taught.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION.

STATEMENT OF CELESTINO MORALES.

GURABO, P. R., *November 7, 1898.*

Education in this island is obligatory and free for the poor classes, who take advantage of it in relatively small numbers. The government which to-day rules us would exercise a paternal rôle over the moral and intellectual progress of this people by applying the form and means used in the United States for the same object, justifying thus the granting to us of all the favors extended to its citizens there. Given the case here of a mother of a family who, having no means of support or method of gaining food for herself or her children, uses the labor of these for that purpose to the prejudice of their education, the doubt arises in the mind of the inspector, who should apply the law, whether the education be of greater importance than food. There is great need of workshops where those being educated may learn a trade, so as to provide them with the means of earning a livelihood for themselves and their families. There are many schools consecrated to the teaching of the Roman Catholic religion to the prejudice of other schools. This evil should be prevented by the establishment of free worship.

SECULAR EDUCATION.

STATEMENT OF ANTONIO SANCHEZ RUIZ.

AGUADA, P. R., *November 12, 1898.*

Worthy of consideration above all other points is that of schools, if it be considered that good habits and morals are synonymous with good education and social culture and that the absence of institutions of instruction would in a short time disrupt that society. Therefore I opine that schools should be instituted even in the most hidden corners of the province, dividing among the rich and poor the bread of intelligence so as to form worthy and illustrious citizens who one day would help to create the material happiness of the country. I think that to this end instruction should be entirely lay and destitute of all religious flavor; that the obligation of education shall not continue, as now, a pure formula, but that infractions by persons obliged by law to guard the moral and material well-being of childhood be punished. Taking into account the delicate mission of the teacher, exemplary conduct, polite morals, and morals above suspicion should be exacted from him, so as to fit him to instill his pupils with respect for law, authority, and their superiors and making them understand their reciprocal duties and rights. On the other hand, the charges bearing on the municipalities are so heavy that it would be well for the state to take care of institutes and superior and elementary schools, leaving to the municipalities the care of auxiliary and rural schools only. Owing to the lack of funds, these municipalities frequently can not settle their accounts with the teachers, and this is a motive for the noncompliance of many of these functionaries with their duties.

The system of education should be absolutely nonclerical and obligatory. Morality and good habits should be exacted from teachers.

VILLAGE ORGANIZATION.

STATEMENT OF MAYOR CELESTINO DOMINGUEZ.

GUAYAMA, P. R., *January, 1899.*

As 80 per cent of the people of Porto Rico do not know how to read or write, and as education does not seem to have got out of the towns, while the greatest number of inhabitants live disseminated in the mountains, making the teacher's task a difficult one, it seems to me that the government should form nuclei of villages in each precinct (*barrio*), assisting the peasants to remove their dwellings and grouping them around a central building to be built on a chosen site. This building should have boys' and girls' schools and schools for adults after working hours. The same teachers can instruct both adults and children. Unless the government makes education free and obligatory and sees that attendance is strictly enforced, it is sure to fail, owing to the indifference of the peasantry. It must appoint inspectors to attend to these matters and establish fines for their noncompliance. The peasantry of Porto Rico is intelligent, sober, and will respond to the efforts of the government. If they have been called lazy, the accusation is an unjust one. A walk through the country will show them working on the cane fields, coffee plantations, and roads. Hardly an acre of land is to be seen uncultivated. Besides, a small island like this,

which has paid a budget of five millions, and perhaps double the amount, for municipal taxes, can not have other than an industrious population. The greater number of families living on the highlands eat no meat, but live exclusively on vegetable diet. This has produced the disease called "anæmia," which is almost universal, and which makes them appear lazy—a title by no means deserved. As regards the town schools, the laws ruling in the United States should be applied, and attendance be made compulsory.

SCHOOL REFORMS.

STATEMENT OF JOSE M. ORTIZ.

MAUNABO, P. R., *February 24, 1899.*

(1) The contracting of loans by the island—if its resources permit—payable by sinking fund and for long periods, for the construction of schools, hospitals, and other public buildings in all the towns of the island, modern methods to be employed in their construction, form, distribution, and sanitary conditions.

(2) Prohibiting teachers and their families from living in school buildings. Among other evils resulting from the practice is that of the families taking for their private use the best rooms set apart for teaching.

(3) Gratuitous and compulsory system of education. More pains in its diffusion, especially in rural districts, and better attention to the needs of education of females, until now much neglected. The creation of schools of arts and trades, with teachers of intelligence at the head of each department.

(4) Installation of a polytechnic school in the capital of the island.

(5) Careful revision of the course for bachelor of arts, the suppression of the Latin course, and in its place the introduction of three or four terms of some living language; also a course in sociology.

AMERICAN SCHOOLS.

STATEMENT OF MANY CITIZENS.

ISABELA, P. R., *February 19, 1899.*

Public education is, in this country, expensive and deficient. If in some towns the schools are well served, in the majority they do not recompense the towns for the immense sacrifices they impose on the ratepayers. Education in Porto Rico is still submitted to the slavery of religious fanaticism, which makes it necessary to forbid religious teaching, substituting for it moral teaching and physical development—in a word, all the reforms called for by modern progress. It would be an act of justice to oblige the municipalities to pay the teachers' salaries, leaving them the right of naming or removing the teachers when not complying with their duties. As the lamentable financial state of the municipalities does not allow of their duly extending and attending to the schools, it would be well if the Government would take under its charge all the elementary schools until the municipalities have got onto a satisfactory footing again. This would give the Government an opportunity to constitute the schools

on the basis of the American system, which has produced such beneficial, moral, and material results. Rural schools should disappear, as they have not given any results nor have they compensated the money spent on them. Education should be declared free, and the municipalities should offer premiums to the teachers who make the best showing at the year's end.

TABLE I.—*Schools of Porto Rico.*

[By the secretary of the interior.]

Schools of the North district:	
Public	258
Private	25
Total	283
Schools of the South district:	
Public	252
Private	16
Total	268
Total in the island	551
Scholars attending schools of the North district:	
Boys	9,942
Girls	4,657
Total	14,599
Scholars attending schools of the South district:	
Boys	9,132
Girls	4,207
Total	13,339
Total of the island	27,937
Annual expenditure for schools of North district	\$167,347
Annual expenditure for schools of South district	164,020
Total annual expenditure	331,367
SCHOOL POPULATION OF THE ISLAND.	
North district:	
Boys	31,141
Girls	29,649
Total	60,790
South district:	
Boys	34,224
Girls	30,681
Total	64,905
Total of the island	125,695
Children of school age	125,695
Attending school	27,938
Total not attending school	97,757
SAN JUAN, P. R., November 1, 1898.	

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

TABLE II.—Statistics in detail.

Municipal district.	Superior.		First elementary.		Second elementary.		Auxiliary.		Rural.		House rents.	Expenses.		Registry.		Attendance.		Salaries to teachers.	Gifts to teachers.	Re-wards.
	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.		Em- broid- ery.	Books.	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.			
Arecibo.	1		1	1	1	1	2	1	6		\$1,448	\$96	\$300	511	208	276	147	\$2,280	\$300	\$50.00
Albion.					1		1		2		1,180			207	124	151	141	2,481		25.00
Aguadilla.	1		2	1	1	2	1	1	5		1,116	72	200	384	170	135	84	5,200	250	40.00
Arroyo.			1	1					1		268			107	45	80	35	1,200	120	48.75
Aguada.					1		1		4		300	12	50	191	72	115	65	2,520	148	20.00
Ahasco.			1	1	1			1	3		324	30	100	205	106	189	65	2,520	490	55.00
Agua Buenas.					1				3		504	12	50	146	54	90	71	2,860	200	50.00
Adjuntas.					1				4		490	24	100	160	84	157	70	1,160	130	50.00
Bayamon.			1	1	1		2	2	3		900	106	200	250	123	178	97	2,720	180	25.00
Barros.					1				3		408	12	100	145	60	87	40	1,860	300	30.00
Barranquitas.					1		2	2	2		240	18	50	151	81	114	55	1,560	240	30.00
Barceloneta.					1				3		600	30	50	161	130	110	60	2,400	180	50.00
Comerio.			1	1	1		1		5		312	12	50	156	71	94	45	2,160	240	50.00
Ciales.					1				3		252	24	60	120	53	113	43	1,830	130	40.00
Cidra.			1	1	1		1		3		452	24	60	120	53	113	43	1,830	130	40.00
Cebu.					1		1		3		264	36	60	60	52	94	44	1,620		20.00
Cabo Rojo.			1	1	1		1		4		480	48	75	272	98	182	75	2,420		25.00
Corozal.					1				3		432	48	80	267	49	160	34	1,860	240	40.00
Cannay.					1				3		432	30	120	179	44	113	12	1,860	120	20.00
Caguas.			1	1	1		1		4		528	120	175	306	162	246	147	3,765		30.00
Carolina.					1		1		4		576	40	150	182	136	119	95	2,400		25.00
Cavey.			1	1	1				5		180	48	150	241	183	235	175	3,540	120	125.00
Coamo.			1	1	1				7		612	24	250	364	60	363	49	3,300		50.00
Dorado.			2	1	1		2	1	1		765	42	50	63	66	43	50	1,050		25.00
Fajardo.			2	2	1		2	1	2		1,020	86	246	397	196	226	156	4,080	160	70.00
Guayama.					1				4		1,972	270	500	594	152	220	102	4,600		25.00
Gurabo.	1		2	2	1		1		3		528	24	100	165	116	116	87	1,860		50.00
Guayanilla.					1		1		3		588	24	100	165	116	116	87	1,860		50.00
Hormigueros.					1		1		3		276	12	40	50	42	42	80	1,200	48	100.00
Rio Grande.			1	1	1		1		3		870	36	50	164	90	135	80	2,700	300	50.00
Rafico.					1				3		820	20	100	131	40	136	40	2,220		13.00
Rumaco.					1		1		3		1,404	45	60	388	149	212	115	5,480		40.00
Isabela.					1		1		4		1,462	34	96	234	101	124	64	2,820		40.00
Juana Diaz.					1		1		5		1,764	96	250	306	151	236	116	5,160	60	100.00
Juncos.			2	1	1		4	1	3		1,864	15	80	241	94	153	75	2,460		30.00
Lajas.			1	1	1		1		3		240	12	50	211	26	130	21	2,180		25.00
Lares.					1		1		4		792	72	200	331	155	315	108	3,540		50.00
Las Marias.			1	1	1		2		6		866	24	75	270	37	114	20	3,000		50.00

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION—Continued.
TABLE II.—Statistics in detail—Continued.

Municipal district.	Superior.		First elementary.		Second elementary.		Auxiliary.		Rural.		House rents.	Expenses.		Registry.		Attendance.		Salaries to teachers.	Gifts to teachers.	Re-wards.
	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.		Em-broid-ery.	Books.	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.			
Loiza.....			1	1			1		3	1	\$338	\$150	\$225	245	83	100	45	\$2,130		\$30.00
Manatí.....			2	2			6	5	4		768	150	200	349	177	250	115	3,400	540	50.00
Mayaguez.....	1	1	3	3			1		4		3,320	54	600	896	654	544	442	12,400	1,788	150.00
Maunabo.....			1	1			1		1		284	126	100	135	60	96	43	1,240	240	50.00
Morovis.....			1	1			1		4		354	30	100	210	59	100	30	1,020	90	50.00
Moca.....			1	1			1		4		214	100	100	184	49	137	30	2,100	130	25.00
Maricao.....			1	1			1		2		316	24	60	125	44	95	35	1,560	280	40.00
Naranjito.....			1	1			1		2		232	12	20	105	62	71	48	1,540		40.00
Naguabo.....			1	1			1		3		232	20	50	108	127	153	85	1,540		30.00
Pedrocas.....			1	1			1		3		340	36	150	191	117	150	85	2,320		50.00
Ponce.....	1	1	4	4	1	1	3	3	16	3	7,842	300	1,000	1,100	832	965	611	16,572	280	150.00
Patillas.....			1	1			1		3		261	90	25	138	40	125	53	2,000	225	50.00
Piedras.....			1	1			1		2		240	26	60	137	79	112	35	1,350	144	30.00
Quebradillas.....			1	1			1		3		240	12	45	112	26	112	23	1,350	120	30.00
Rincon.....			1	1			1		3		480	24	125	307	123	195	45	3,130	54	75.00
Rio Piedras.....			2	2			1	1	4		372	40	140	267	228	225	45	2,850	240	30.00
San German.....			1	1			1		4		504	100	412	303	278	155	155	4,380	400	100.00
Sabana Grande.....			1	1			1		3		450	100	100	232	702	270	70	1,350	600	200.00
San Juan.....	1	1	5	5	1	1	1	1	6		6,288	480	1,000	236	752	573	515	1,350	600	200.00
San Sebastian.....			1	1			1		6		420	38	100	94	67	108	40	1,000	158	50.00
Salinas.....			1	1			1		1		528	72	100	171	46	111	32	2,340	240	30.00
Santa Isabel.....			1	1			1	2	1		216	24	54	145	50	111	42	1,500	120	30.00
Ton Alca.....			1	1			1		2		200	24	54	118	98	82	53	1,500	120	30.00
Ton Buja.....			1	1			1		2		220	36	75	118	98	82	53	1,500	120	30.00
Trujillo Alto.....			1	1			1		2		480	140	300	302	205	170	121	3,120	160	150.00
Utuado.....			1	1			1		6		480	72	40	202	57	146	35	1,350	90	50.00
Vega Alta.....			1	1			1		4		672	72	150	227	127	138	140	2,350	240	50.00
Vega Baja.....			1	1			1		4		432	40	50	114	107	114	157	2,350	240	50.00
Vieques.....			1	1			1		3		840	45	200	222	150	172	104	5,390	384	40.00
Yabucoa.....			2	2			2		7		1,824	50	400	517	295	424	235	6,540	144	100.00
Total.....	7	4	48	38	55	59	52	34	222	5	35,176	4,175	11,010	16,801	8,754	11,906	6,403	224,507	11,726	3,717.75

SUMMARY.

Superior schools:		
Boys	7	Rents for all school buildings
Girls	4	Expenses for embroidery materials
First elementary:		Expenses for books
Boys	48	Expenses for writing utensils and gifts to teachers
Girls	38	Expenses for rewards for teachers
Second elementary:		Expenses for teachers' salaries
Boys	55	Total expenses
Girls	50	
Auxiliary:		
Boys	52	
Girls	34	
Rural:		
Boys	222	
Girls	5	
Total schools	524	

REGISTERED SCHOLARS.

Boys	16,801	Average attendance:
Girls	8,734	Boys
Total	25,535	Girls
		Total

\$56,173.00
4,178.00
11,000.00
11,720.00
3,117.75
234,561.00
310,311.75

11,900
6,403
18,303

TABLE III.—Additional summary.

Number of primary schools.....	516
Private schools in addition.....	26
<hr/>	
In the coming academic year there will be in this form:	
Principal.....	28
First grade.....	76
Second grade.....	194
Rural.....	317
	<hr/>
	615
Districts with schools (among which there are some with one school for girls and another for boys).....	273
Academies, seminaries, and other educational institutions:	
Seminary for the priesthood.....	1
Provincial institute of secondary education.....	1
Provincial institute R. R. Escolapios (Reverend Escolapian Fathers).....	1
College of M.M. del Corazon de Jesus (Mothers of the Heart of Jesus).....	1
Infants' School.....	1
College of San Ildefonso.....	1
School of Arts and Industries.....	1
Private Academy of Drawing.....	1
Normal School of Girls.....	1
(This is in the capital. In the other towns there are some infant schools. There is also a kindergarden in the capital and another in Ponce. In the capital there is a pedagogic museum which is now being formed.)	
Number of children attending the schools.....	19,000
Public-school teachers in active service.....	516
Teachers retired on pensions.....	12
Funds for education in the bank.....	\$5,164.29
To be collected.....	40,000.00
The Spaniards took away.....	34,147.30
Sum of money for schools for the year 1899.....	213,630.00

No school has modern supplies. The furniture is only medium, where the school is furnished, but there are some which are in want of everything.

Number of schoolhouses.—Only four or six towns have schoolhouses.

Graduate or collegiate teachers.—If this means teachers with titles, there are 800, more or less.

Technical schools.—There are none.

NOTE.—To the funds for education, which are in the bank, should be added the sum received to-day from the municipality of San Juan (\$340.87, American currency).

BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Porto Rico, June 7, 1899.

Private instruction.

Municipal districts.	First elementary.		Second elementary.		Auxiliary boys.	Attendance.		Official appropriation for—	
	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.		Boys.	Girls.	Per-sonnel.	Material.
Arecibo.....		1			1	7	49	190	
Añasco.....	1	1				29	58	600	
Adjuntas.....					1	20			
Barros.....				1			37		
Caguas.....			1			30			
Cayey.....			1			106		300	168
Coamo.....			1	1		42	28		
Fajardo.....			1			16			
Juana Díaz.....				1			28		
Lares.....			1			5			
Mayaguez.....			1		1	103			
Ponce.....			4	1		189	28		
San Juan.....		1				79			
San Sebastian.....			1	1		18	14	240	
Utledo.....			2	1		64	21	300	
Total.....	1	3	13	6	3	697	273	1,620	168

SUMMARY.

First elementary schools:	
For boys.....	1
For girls.....	3
Second elementary schools:	
For boys.....	18
For girls.....	6
Auxiliary schools:	
For boys.....	3
For girls.....	0
Total schools.....	28
Official appropriation:	
For personnel.....	\$1,620
For materials.....	168
Total.....	1,788
Average attendance:	
Boys.....	697
Girls.....	273
Total.....	970

BUREAU OF EDUCATION, *San Juan, P. R., March 17, 1899.*

TEXT-BOOKS GENERALLY IN USE.

Grammar: Real Academia Española.
 Arithmetic: Martínez García, Monclova, Emiliano Díaz, Ollero, Comas.
 Geography: Paluzio (Universal), Corton, and Janer (Porto Rico).
 Reading: Juanito, Fábulas, Manuscrito.
 Christian doctrine: Gil Esteves.
 History: Fleury, Calonge.
 Geometry: Vallín and Bustillo.
 Agriculture, industry, and commerce: Regulez.
 History of Spain: Ibo Alfaro.
 Writing: Sistema Garnierd.
 Hygiene: Del Valle Atilés.
 Elements of physics: Julian Lopez Catalan.
 Elements of natural history: Julian Lopez Catalan.

BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
San Juan, P. R., November 1, 1899.

THE CHURCH AND CHURCH PROPERTY.

THE CHURCH AND THE STATE.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 27, 1898.*

Father JUAN PERPIÑA É PIBERNAT, ecclesiastical governor and capitular vicar of Porto Rico. I begin by stating that the expenses of the church have been borne by the state and the people of this island since the discovery of the same. Part of these expenses were formerly met by tithes and the first fruits under the old Israelitish plan. What was further necessary in case these tithes did not meet the expenses of the church was supplied by the government. In addition to this, municipalities gave \$25 a month to each priest in their immediate jurisdiction. This state of affairs continued until the royal cedula of 1858, which decree, I think, though I am not sure, was given for the district of the Cathedral and San German, and was later extended to all the districts. By this royal order and subsequent dispensation gifts were created for the chapters and the parishes. This royal decree of 1858 abolished tithes and first fruits and made the government take

under its charge the entire pay of the clergy. When I came here in 1860 the bishop was in receipt of either \$18,000 or \$20,000 per year, I am not sure which. The last bishop, who recently left the island, had a salary of about \$10,000, that amount being arrived at by gradual diminution from the amount first mentioned. The ecclesiastical judge attached to the bishop's court is in possession of, or was in possession of, \$2,500 per year, and the fiscal officer attached to the bishop's court was in receipt of \$3,000 annually. The bishop's secretary has never received anything, but the bishop rewarded him by other means in his power, such as appointment as a prebend. This is in contradistinction to the custom adopted in France, where these officers get salaries. In virtue of Article VIII of the royal decree previously referred to, the dean of the chapter is paid annually \$3,000. The dignitaries of the church (a special class) have received \$2,500 each annually.

Dr. CARROLL. Who are included in the class of dignitaries?

Father PERPIÑA. There are three cathedrals or bishoprics—one is in Cuba, one is in Santiago, and one is here. None of them are in possession of a full complement of dignitaries or members of the chapter.

Dr. CARROLL. Are Porto Rico and Cuba in the same ecclesiastical province?

Father PERPIÑA. No; Santiago de Cuba is a metropolis in church matters.

Dr. CARROLL. With what province is Porto Rico connected?

Father PERPIÑA. With none.

Dr. CARROLL. Is Santiago the metropolitan see of this ecclesiastical province?

Father PERPIÑA. Santiago is the headquarters to which all ecclesiastical matters are referred as the metropolitan of this island. The number of church dignitaries here is three. I should add here that Santiago has an archbishopric. The three dignitaries are the dean, the archdean, and the canon (chantre); it is he who attends to the singing. Canons receive \$2,000. There are five canons—two who are elected without competitive examination and three who are elected by competitive examination. The competitive canons are the penitentiary, who attends to punishments; the lectoral, whose duty is to explain the holy writings, and the magistrado, who has under his charge matters concerning preaching. The penitentiary has charge of confessions and all matters pertaining thereto, with special powers of confession conferred upon him by the bishopric and the Pope—that is, he has higher powers of absolution than any other priest. The examinations for these posts are very severe.

The racioneros and half racioneros—that is to say, priests who have not canonical rights, but are only concerned in the administration of canonical matters—receive the salary of \$1,500 a year each. There are four of them. The half racioneros get \$1,200 each.

The parishes are divided into *entrado*, which means "entrance;" *ascenso*, which means "ascendancy," and *termino*. The parishes of *termino* are usually vicarages—that is to say, the priests in charge of them have charge over other priests in the vicinity. The *termino* vicars are all paid \$125 a month in pesos. The *ascenso* parishes were paid 75 pesos a month and the *entrado* 50 pesos a month.

Dr. CARROLL. Did they have houses also?

Father PERPIÑA. I will speak of that later.

There are a great many parishes which have their own parish houses, paid for by the people of the parish and which belong exclusively to

the parish, and I wish here to prefer a complaint to the representative of the United States with reference to the town of Dorado. A rich man there by the name of Lopez built a church and a parish house and presented them to the parish, which facts can be proved and are generally known by everybody. The mayor placed there by the American forces has taken possession of the house and turned out the priest in charge.

Dr. CARROLL. Out of the church and house?

Father PERPIÑA. From the house alone; but you will understand that this is private property and no one has the right to turn the priest out of it, and I protest against the same. My protest has already been made to the priest himself at Dorado, but not to the central power here.

Dr. CARROLL. I have no administrative powers here in the island whatever. I think it would be well for you to call the matter to the attention of General Brooke, who has full authority to attend to the matter.

Father PERPIÑA. The royal cedula referred to has become, by reason of existing circumstances, a fatal thing to the church—that is, the present occupation of the Americans has made the working of that cedula fatal, and I will give you the reason. As has been shown, this royal cedula deprives the clergy of their titles and first fruits and other small means of income which they had from the mayors of the different towns, and also took away from them the right of collection of fees for the administration of sacraments, and they are now absolutely without means of income of any kind whatever. The fact of the United States absolutely not recognizing the clergy, and wishing to establish immediately the separation of the church and the state, has left the clergy without any means of support. The people of the different parishes all over the country, having been accustomed to regard the priests not as ministers of God but as employees of the Government, are not now disposed to make them payments for the administration of their office, and this state of affairs leaves them without bread.

I, as head of the church, would have advised the United States to establish a separation between the church and state, because that is its Constitution, but not immediately and suddenly as it has done. The Catholic Church is destined to take care of the morals and the good conduct of the people of this island, and if their means of subsistence is taken away suddenly, I will have no clergy to look after the spiritual welfare of the people, and I consider that such a state of affairs will result in the moral degeneration of the people of the island. I, as head of the church, wish to beg of the commissioner that he recommend that the payment of the clergy be continued until such a time as a bishop could be brought here to the church and the church constituted under new auspices. This payment need not take the form of salary, but could be made as a sort of gratuity. I propose a plan under which that can be done, namely: That the municipalities take the place of the state and they pay out of their funds such salaries or gratuities as the Government may desire the clergy to receive; that in case the municipalities do not care to do this, the state can take it upon itself to do so—this measure being only temporary, as before stated. I am inclined to fear that if the municipalities are asked to contribute to the church they will refuse to do so. I respect the Constitution of the United States because Catholics have to respect the reigning power, but I think a plan might be arranged until a permanent eccle-

siastical government could be introduced here. I, as head of the church, will not consent that the municipalities, if they should make donations to the clergy, make them in the form of salary. We will accept them only in the form of gratuities; the church does not want to be dependent upon the municipalities. I think it is unnecessary to say that church property, including the buildings and the land, will remain the property of the church. I take that as an understood thing. From time immemorial the property of the church has belonged to the church. In most cases the churches have been built by the people, though now and then the state has helped in the erection of church buildings, but I understand that such property will be respected.

Dr. CARROLL. I understand from Father Sherman that the property is not held by the church, but is vested in the municipality, and that there is no way by which it can be confirmed to the church.

Father PERPIÑA. Father Sherman is mistaken; such is not the case.

Dr. CARROLL. How then is the title to church and parochial houses held—by trustees or otherwise?

Father PERPIÑA. The church has no title in the sense of documents; it has always been an understood thing that these properties belong to the church.

Dr. CARROLL. Was not the property bought of some one?

Father PERPIÑA. Most of the lands held by the church were gifts, and the people who gave them did not bother about giving written titles. Most of the churches in the island were built on ground granted by the government. The government would say to a church, on the establishment of a new town, "We will give you such and such a plot of ground in the middle of the town and you build a church."

Dr. CARROLL. Would not such a proposition, or decree, on the part of the governor be evidenced by some writing?

Father PERPIÑA. Much of this property has been held by the church for several hundred years, and a paper lasts a hundred years and is then dust. Moreover, everything in the way of gifts to the church has been done in good faith without documentation.

Dr. CARROLL. Then is not the title to some of the church property still in the original donors as a matter of record?

Father PERPIÑA. I do not know anything more about the question than this: A pious man would say, "Here is a piece of land; I make you a present of it; build a church." There may still exist some documents, but who knows where to find them?

Dr. CARROLL. I apprehend no difficulty in the confirmation to the church of the property given to it, unless some of the heirs of the donors should make a legal claim, in which case it would be a matter for the courts. It would seem to be advisable that the church should inquire into its title so far as possible with the view of having it confirmed in a legal way. It will not be the purpose of the United States to confiscate, for any purpose, property which rightfully belongs to the church.

Father PERPIÑA. I will leave that matter for the bishop who comes here to attend to. I could not undertake it without launching myself into an overwhelming sea of perplexities; moreover, such a work would require the services of a secretary, and I have no money with which to pay one.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the municipalities likely to lay claim to these buildings as municipal property?

Father PERPIÑA. I have no fear of that at all, unless some persons

from wrong motives look for opportunity to open unjust suits against the church. I do not anticipate such troubles, however.

Dr. CARROLL. Why have the municipalities ceased to pay the amounts you have referred to to the clergy?

Father PERPIÑA. That was a payment made before the royal cedula was published. That decree wiped out all payments of that kind and salaries were then paid out of the custom-house receipts of each district. The island is divided into a certain number of districts and the clergy have been paid from the custom-house of the district.

Dr. CARROLL. Do the clergy receive fees, matrimonial and others?

Father PERPIÑA. They are not allowed to receive any by law, but there have been abuses. Where these abuses have become known the clergy have been punished.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there no matrimonial fee?

Father PERPIÑA. Yes, but it is very small; any report to the contrary is false. When people have come to ask the sacrament of marriage or baptism and said they were unable to pay for it, the same has been performed gratuitously, at least in my time, and as far as I know.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there a considerable number of civil marriages here?

Father PERPIÑA. All marriages are solemnized by the church. We do not recognize anything as marriage which is performed in any other way. A person who is a Catholic is married always by the church; if not married by the church he is not married at all, as we view it.

Dr. CARROLL. Are many persons living here in the relation of marriage between whom the church ceremony has never taken place?

Father PERPIÑA. Many, many, many.

Dr. CARROLL. Are they generally negroes?

Father PERPIÑA. Yes; they are generally negroes. There are also married people who have two wives and live together like Moors. This is a very immoral country.

Dr. CARROLL. Are those persons outside the pale of the church?

Father PERPIÑA. Yes; the church would not bury such a person in consecrated ground.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the church have parochial schools?

Father PERPIÑA. No; previously in some small parishes where there were no schools the government allowed the clergy to establish parochial schools, but since the introduction of general education the schools have been taken out of their hands. They have only their system of schools for the education of young men for the priesthood.

Dr. CARROLL. Has it been the policy of the church to raise up a native priesthood?

Father PERPIÑA. The tendency of the bishop has always been to form the clergy from among the people themselves.

Dr. CARROLL. Are many of the present clergy natives of the island?

Father PERPIÑA. Before the coming of the Americans to the island the priests were nearly all from Spain, for the reason that the natives appear to have no desire to take up clerical matters. It would be greatly to the interest of the bishops if they should educate their priests from natives, because foreign priests are always desiring to go back to the Peninsula.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there colored priests?

Father PERPIÑA. That is forbidden.

Dr. CARROLL. Forbidden by whom?

Father PERPIÑA. By the clerical constitution of Spain. There are,

however, some persons who have colored blood in their veins who are in the priesthood, but they are persons who pass as white.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the colored people allowed the benefits of the sacraments on the same basis as the whites?

Father PERPIÑA. In that respect there is perfect equality.

Dr. CARROLL. What was the reason for the discrimination against colored men in the priesthood?

Father PERPIÑA. I do not know the reason, but for myself I do not consider it desirable to see colored men with priestly robes administering the sacraments, and if I were a bishop I would never ordain a colored man.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there a race prejudice that would prevent it?

Father PERPIÑA. There is none. There has always been, though, a breach between the colored and the whites since the emancipation of the slaves in the island. I think the colored people have been conceded many more liberties than they should have received, and what they have not been conceded they have taken.

Dr. CARROLL. How many services are held in the parish churches? Are they held only on Sundays, and if only on Sundays, how many services a day?

Father PERPIÑA. That is a question that can not be answered in the way it is asked. The church is open every day. On Sunday there is only one mass, but anyone desiring a special mass can have it celebrated by paying for it. On week days there are two masses; the mass on Sunday, however, is a more solemn mass. The church is open all day.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there a sermon every day?

Father PERPIÑA. There is no rule about that; sermons are not preached as a matter of course. The magistrado preaches the lenten sermon. Sometimes a man provides in his will for certain services for a particular church, and that money is invested to pay the priest for the purpose named. San Francisco Church has several such provisions for services, and consequently has more sermons than others.

Dr. CARROLL. What are the principal ecclesiastical days of the year?

Father PERPIÑA. Our ecclesiastical days are not peculiar to the island, but are the same as those indicated in Catholic books everywhere. I think they are the same precisely as those observed in the United States.

Dr. CARROLL. I have been told that the women were very faithful to the church, but that the men seldom attended the sacraments or the confessionals.

Father PERPIÑA. As is generally the case in other places—for instance, in France and Spain, the woman is more generally religious than the man; but it is not true that the men of Porto Rico are entirely indifferent to religion or that the women do not try to influence the men in religious matters. There are men here who are extremely pious and good Catholics.

Dr. CARROLL. What about the positions left vacant by those priests who have gone to Spain?

Father PERPIÑA. As soon as it may become known that the clergy will be supported I can fill the parishes. The Spanish Government took from the Dominican and Franciscan monks, who were established here, in the year 1837 the property which they then held, and instead of selling this property to private individuals they rented it and have been receiving the rental or interest from those who hold the property.

I think that these rentals should no longer be paid to the Spanish Government, but should be paid to the church to which they belong.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the properties extensive?

Father PERPIÑA. Those sold outright were extensive, and as to them there is, of course, no remedy. I can not give the particulars of the property nor the amounts that have been paid; all I know is that they are the property of the church. You should inquire for a list of the property which paid censo, formerly belonging to the Dominican and Franciscan monks.

The budget of worship for 1897-98.

[Collated by order of the Vicario Capitalar.]

CATHEDRAL CLERGY.

	Pesos.
1 bishop.....	9,000
1 dean.....	3,000
1 archdeacon.....	2,500
1 "chantre" (music).....	2,500
1 penitenciario (discipline).....	2,000
1 secretary.....	2,000
1 magistral.....	2,000
2 canons, at 2,000 pesos each.....	4,000
2 racioneros, at 1,500 pesos each.....	3,000
2 half racioneros, at 1,200 pesos each.....	2,400
Assistant clergy.....	6,000
For music.....	4,000

42,400

PAROCHIAL CLERGY.

12 cures serving in parishes de termino, at 1,500 pesos each.....	18,000
21 coadjutors perpetual for the same parishes, at 600 pesos each.....	12,600
12 sacristans for the same parishes, at 150 pesos each.....	1,800
17 cures for parishes de ascenso, at 1,000 pesos each.....	17,000
17 coadjutors perpetual for the same parishes, at 600 pesos each.....	10,200
17 sacristans for the same parishes, at 150 pesos each.....	2,550
59 curas de ingreso, at 700 pesos each.....	41,300
13 coadjutors, at 600 pesos each.....	7,800
59 sacristans for 59 parishes de ingreso, at 150 pesos each.....	8,850
1 priest in charge of the church of Santo Domingo in San Juan.....	480
1 coadjutor in San Juan.....	360
1 priest in charge of Our Lady of Balbanera.....	500
1 priest in charge of the Church of the Carmelite Mothers.....	600
Maintenance of congregation of missionaries.....	6,000

128,040

NOTE.—The foregoing estimates are not an exact statement of expenses, as some of the positions therein mentioned were always unoccupied, in which case the amounts not paid remained in the royal coffers.

ECCELESIASTICAL JUDICIARY.

	Pesos.
1 judge.....	2,500
1 fiscal.....	1,700
	4,200

NOTE.—When either of the two officers above mentioned are in enjoyment of other ecclesiastical salaries, they can only claim one-half of the salaries reserved as above.

The bulget of worship for 1897-98—Continued.

EXPENSE OF BULLS.

Appropriation to the commissary of indulgences	850
Appropriation to the notary	270
	<hr/>
	620
Conciliar Seminary	3,000

CATHEDRAL AND PARISHES—MATERIAL.

Appropriation for expense of material for the cathedral	3,000
Appropriation for 12 parishes "de termino," at 300 pesos each	3,600
Appropriation for 17 parishes "de ascenso," at 250 pesos each	4,250
Appropriation for 59 parishes "de ingreso," at 200 pesos each	11,800
For expense for the church of Santo Domingo	500
For expense for the church of Carmelite Mothers	200
	<hr/>
	23,350

ECCLESIASTICAL JUDICIARY—MATERIAL.

Expense of office:	
Secretary for judge	75
Secretary for fiscal	60
	<hr/>
	135

SUMMARY.

Amount required to meet expenses of the clergy for one year, salaries and supplies:

	Pesos.
Cathedral clergy	42,400
Parochial clergy	128,040
Ecclesiastical judiciary	4,200
Expense of bulls	620
Conciliar seminary	3,000
Cathedral and parishes—material	23,350
Ecclesiastical judiciary—material	135
	<hr/>
	201,745

CLERICAL FEES.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 28, 1898.*

PEDRO PIZÁ, a Catholic priest, sought an interview with the commissioner with the object of ascertaining how he could disclaim allegiance to the Roman Catholic Church. He volunteered the following statement:

The Catholic Church has been much neglected on the part of the clergy. All the church property and buildings have been left in a state of poverty and disrepair. With respect to preaching, priests have not complied with their duties, and consequent indifference has resulted on the people's part. To show that the people are not inherently indifferent to religious teaching, I can state that when I took over the parish of Utuado a maximum attendance at the two daily masses was fifteen persons. When I left the parish, the minimum attendance was a hundred persons.

In spite of the law of 1858 the clergy has continued to collect heavy fees for the celebration of sacraments, leading to their nonobservance

by the country people in general. The fees collected have averaged about as follows:

Matrimony:	
Simple service.....	\$10.00
More elaborate service.....	16.00
Burial:	
Simple service.....	14.00
More elaborate service.....	22.00
Masses.....	1.00

These rates have been further increased, according to the ability of the person interested to pay.

SUBVENTIONS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 4, 1898.*

Señor Don JOSE LOPEZ Y ORTIZ DE ZARATE, an official of the institute and secretary of the board of health:

Mr. ZARATE. I have brought you a statement of what the state paid to the clergy of the island. As regards the fees charged by the clergy, it is impossible to give that. I paid a wedding fee of 16 pesos when I was married.

Dr. CARROLL. The secretary of the treasury, Mr. Blanco, stated that these fees had been abolished by law and that the priests had no authority for making such charges.

Mr. ZARATE. The fees are illegal. All functions of the church were supposed to be administered free of every charge, but many abuses have been committed, which have produced numerous complaints, but these complaints have been pigeonholed.

Dr. CARROLL. To whom were the complaints made?

Mr. ZARATE. To the central ecclesiastical authorities.

Dr. CARROLL. Can you give us any information regarding the property of the church—that property particularly which the church may have acquired by will or otherwise in recent years?

Mr. ZARATE. The church is the owner of a large amount of property in this and other cities of the island. Several properties are still under obligation to pay what is called censo, which is a charge on the property usually contracted by the free will of its original owner, who would leave the property to his heirs subject to this annual charge. The clergy continue collecting this. The church also owned several agricultural estates, notably in San German, where the church owned an estate called the Porto Coeli; but when the state took over the responsibility of maintaining the clergy, the lands belonging to this estate were nearly all sold to private parties.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you any idea of the income that the church receives from its investments and the annual dues you have referred to?

Mr. ZARATE. I have not; but I will see the ecclesiastical collector and try to get a statement of it.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you know what convents there are in the island?

Mr. ZARATE. There is only one to-day; it is under the charge of the Carmelite nuns and is situated in San Juan in front of the cathedral.

Dr. CARROLL. How is that supported; by charity?

Mr. ZARATE. They are very poor; we may say they have hardly

any funds. By an unforeseen accident the funds were carried off to Spain.

(Dr. Carroll at this point directed the attention of Mr. Zarate to an item in the budget of the provincial deputation providing for the payment of certain Sisters of Charity, and asked him to state the purpose of it.)

MR. ZARATE. This is salary paid by the municipality to twenty-three Sisters of Charity, at 18 pesos a month each, for their services in the beneficencia and the insane asylum.

DR. CARROLL. What is the seventh article of the first chapter of the third division of fomento in the estimates of the provincial deputation?

MR. ZARATE. This is a pure business matter and a scandalous robbery. The amount of 12,940 pesos was paid to the Escolapian Fathers for the management of a college situated in the suburbs of San Juan, known as Santurce. In addition to this amount, each pupil paid 25 pesos a month to the priests for instruction.

DR. CARROLL. Why are they called Escolapian Fathers?

MR. ZARATE. Because they belong to the order of San Jose de Calasans, which founded this society of Escolapian Fathers.

DR. CARROLL. What is the eighth item, called "Secret Heart of Jesus?"

MR. ZARATE. It is an amount of 3,000 pesos paid by the municipality of San Juan to uncloistered nuns who manage a girls' school, in which each pupil pays from 35 to 40 pesos a month for instruction—also a piece of robbery. The municipality was obliged, in case the number of pupils did not come up to the regulation number, to pay out of its treasury such a sum as would complete the amount that they would otherwise have received.

DR. CARROLL. Was this in pursuance of a contract that this amount of 3,000 pesos should be paid?

MR. ZARATE. Yes; the Government pledged it.

REAL ESTATE OF THE CHURCH.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., November 7, 1898.

MR. MANUEL DE CANEJA (CANONIGO LECTORAL). I have been directed by the vicar-general, in view of my having been secretary of the bishopric for twenty-three years, to come here to answer questions relating to his office.

DR. CARROLL. The information furnished by the vicar-general and this gentleman (Señor Zarate) has been so full that I have but few additional points to be covered. I asked Mr. Zarate the other day a question which he preferred some one else should answer, respecting what property the church has received by will and otherwise in the last few years.

MR. CANEJA. Real estate is not possessed to-day by the church, with the exception of the church buildings and parish houses in the various parishes of the island. What real estate was possessed formerly by the church was taken possession of by the government, and property to-day owned by the church and dedicated to pay the interest on holy works, such as charities, alms, etc., is in the form of censos, or mortgages, on real estate.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you any idea as to the amount of income from these sources annually for the entire island?

Mr. CANEJA. I wish it to be thoroughly understood that the amount collected from these mortgages is not, strictly speaking, income for the general use of the church, but is in the form of legacies willed by persons who have desired, for instance, to have certain masses celebrated on anniversaries of their death, or sermons, or some form of religious celebration maintained. These amounts are collected separately by each clerical district; for instance, that of the cathedral, perhaps amounting to \$3,000. To give you the total amount I should have to refer to the documents of each clerical section, as most churches have their own income, although small, from these sources.

Dr. CARROLL. There is, then, no invested fund or property from which the church receives income?

Mr. CANEJA. No. As I said before, there are parish houses which in most cases belong to the parish church, but not in all cases. These are chiefly of stone, but sometimes of wood, and were built in most cases by subscription of their respective congregations, or by general donations, in which the municipalities sometimes lent a hand. The censo is the right of the church to collect a dividend on the income of certain houses. This, as I have said, has usually been acquired by will and is a right which is a permanent charge upon the property. The owner of the property subject to the censo, on the sale of the same, sells the property subject to that charge. This is perpetual unless the interested party wishes to redeem the same.

Dr. CARROLL. Which can be done, presumably, for a sum agreed upon?

Mr. CANEJA. It must be for the exact amount which was deeded. This censo, although perpetual with regard to the church, is not perpetual with regard to the owner of the property affected by it—that is to say, he can have it transferred from one property to another—and it is common for owners of houses subject to censo to apply to the bishop to have the tax removed from one property to another. Should the property proposed constitute a due guaranty the church never refuses to make the transfer. When the amount of the censo is accounted the church does not consider it is entitled to hold the sum realized for its own uses, but has to invest it again in some form, so that it will produce an income by which to respect the will of the testator.

Dr. CARROLL. I would like to ask in whom the titles of churches and parochial houses is vested?

Mr. CANEJA. As the parish priests have lived continuously in the parish houses since their construction without title, the title thereto can be considered one of possession only and not of documentation. As regards the churches, the hypothecary law of Spain in one of its paragraphs expressly prohibits the inscription of churches; consequently the title of these is also one of possession only.

Dr. CARROLL. I would like to ask what services are held regularly on Sunday? What are the usual services at the cathedral?

Mr. CANEJA. When the church was at its full enjoyment of powers here, with its various officials, the celebrations of the holy sacraments were conducted with full pomp and magnificence, and 12 masses were sung every Sunday. Owing to the reduced number of the clergy now officiating, most of them having gone away on account of lack of means of support, not more than three masses are celebrated, of which only one is sung. To-day the solemn mass is sung accom-

panied by the organ only. Formerly it was sung accompanied by musical instruments and a choir.

Dr. CARROLL. Do the people commune at the high mass or only at the two stated masses?

Mr. CANEJA. They can partake of the sacraments at any of the masses they wish, but they usually prefer to do it at the early mass, as the sacrament has to be celebrated while fasting, and no one cares to fast longer than is necessary. We priests have to do it as a matter of duty, except on Holy Thursday, when everybody participates in the sacrament at the holy mass held at 10 o'clock.

Dr. CARROLL. About how many communicants are there under the present régime.

Mr. CANEJA. Communion is celebrated in various churches in San Juan, the churches of Santa Ana, San Jose, San Francisco, the church of the Carmelite Monks, the chapel of the San Franciscan Order, the chapel of the Beneficencia, the chapel of San Ildefonso, the chapel of the Orphanage, the chapel attached to the hospital used by the order called Siervas de Maria, the chapel of the arsenal, Christ Church, the Santa Rosa Chapel and Cemetery, the chapel of the cemetery, and the chapel of the prison. Those are the principal ones. It is impossible to give you an idea of the number of communicants of all of them.

Dr. CARROLL. I simply was inquiring about the number at the cathedral.

Mr. CANEJA. There are from one to two hundred a month there, but a larger number in the churches of San Jose and Santa Ana, because of the larger number of priests attached to them.

Dr. CARROLL. How often are confirmation services held?

Mr. CANEJA. We don't have them, because the bishop is not here. When he was here he held confirmation services in a parish every Sunday, and as he paid his visits through the island, remaining four, five, or eight days in a town, he conducted those ceremonies.

Dr. CARROLL. I would like to ask about baptism. I suppose it is universal in the island?

Mr. CANEJA. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it performed at the house where the child is born or in the parochial houses?

Mr. CANEJA. In the churches. Under very strict laws it is compulsory for baptisms to be performed in the churches, the exceptions being those of utmost necessity or the approach of death.

MARRIAGE FEES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

AGUADILLA, P. R., *January 21, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. According to the returns I have received from the municipalities, the number of illegitimate births is almost equal to that of legitimate births. How do you explain that?

Mr. TORREGROSA (a lawyer). That is of very remote origin. It dates from the time of slavery. It is owing a great deal to the pernicious influence and example given by the slaveowners, who, when they saw a good-looking colored girl, would take her for their own purposes and the people gradually imitated that. In the country districts you will find that condition very general. Another reason

is the apathy of the clergy, who never take journeys into the country, who never preach moral precepts to the people, and who never take any interest in the home life of the people. The people could easily have been taught, as they are docile.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they ever hesitate to get married because of the fees?

Mr. TORREGROSA. That was also one of the reasons.

Dr. CARROLL. What are those fees? I understand that they are all illegal, but that the clergy have been accustomed to charge them in spite of that fact.

Mr. TORREGROSA. They used to create difficulties on purpose to be in a position to smooth over difficulties afterwards and collect more for the marriage.

Dr. CARROLL. In Utuado they told me the fees generally charged were about \$6; seldom less than that.

Mr. TORREGROSA. Here they charge as high as \$16.

Dr. CARROLL. I suppose it is almost impossible for the poor to raise that amount?

Mr. TORREGROSA. Yes; quite impossible.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the people here generally interested in the church; are they quite faithful to their church duties?

Mr. TORREGROSA. Among the men of the country generally there is a state of almost complete indifference. The women, however, are more pious. In this city, especially, the women are noted for their piety.

CHURCHES AND CEMETERIES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

MAYAGUEZ, P. R., *January 24, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. Under whose control is the cemetery as to sepultures; to whom is application made?

Don CARTAGENA (president of board of public works). To the municipal judge. If any person not a Catholic is buried there, the cure opposes it.

Dr. CARROLL. Where does the priest want people who die outside of the Catholic Church to be buried?

Don CARTAGENA. There is a separate part for Freemasons and Protestants. It is a part of the cemetery, but it is not consecrated.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the priest oppose the burial of persons in ground not consecrated?

Don CARTAGENA. No. The part where the Protestants are buried is in a very bad condition.

Dr. CARROLL. Has the municipality taken any steps looking to the secularization of the cemetery?

Don CARTAGENA. Not yet. They have not allowed Freemasons to be buried there, but in the cases of Masons who have left money, their friends have had them buried in the Catholic portion. Anything of that kind can be arranged with money.

Dr. CARROLL. How many churches are there in this city?

Don CARTAGENA. One here, and another being built by private persons.

Dr. CARROLL. How many cures are there?

Don CARTAGENA. Four.

Dr. CARROLL. How are they supported now?

DON CARTAGENA. I don't know.

DR. CARROLL. Probably by voluntary support, as they get nothing from the municipal budget.

DON CARTAGENA. Absolutely nothing.

DR. CARROLL. What fees do they have?

DON CARTAGENA. They ask fees for marriage, burial, and other offices.

DR. CARROLL. When the cure gives a license for sepulture, does he charge for it?

DON CARTAGENA. He does not give the permission. The municipal judge does that.

DR. CARROLL. Does the license for burial cost anything?

DON CARTAGENA. Nothing.

CHURCH PROPERTY IN HUMACAO.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

HUMACAO, P. R., *February 1, 1899.*

DR. CARROLL. How does the title of municipal property appear?

MR. MASFERRER (mayor). It is registered as the property of the municipality.

DR. CARROLL. What appears as property of the municipality besides the *alcaldia*?

MR. MASFERRER. The city hall, valued at \$25,000. The church was built by the people, but was taken by the Spanish Government according to its custom. It is not registered, but belongs to the municipality. The same is true of the custom-house. It was built by private parties—merchants and others—and taken by the Government.

DR. CARROLL. Is there any record of that?

(No one present could answer the question.)

MR. MASFERRER. The church is valued at \$45,000. The municipality also owns the plaza principal, which cost \$10,000; another building, used as a meat market, valued at \$8,000; another building, used to-day as barracks for the American soldiers, valued at \$20,000; also a building used as a slaughterhouse, valued at \$3,000; a building used as a smallpox hospital, valued at \$3,000; the cemetery, which has a wall around it and a deadhouse, valued at \$5,000 (not registered); a building lot worth \$300. That is all of the municipal property.

DR. CARROLL. How was the church built?

MR. MASFERRER. The municipality in its annual budget would assign a sum in the nature of a special municipal tax, and all were required to pay it.

DR. CARROLL. Who owned the site of the church?

MR. MASFERRER. It was municipal property. The whole of the city district was the gift of a lady, according to tradition, for the formation of the city. We have no documents to substantiate the tradition, but it has never been disputed.

DR. CARROLL. Have the courts recognized that tradition in cases involving questions of title?

MR. MASFERRER. Yes; for more than sixty years it has been an accepted fact.

DR. CARROLL. How long ago was the church built?

MR. MASFERRER. About the year 1870.

Dr. CARROLL. Would there be any objection on the part of the people of this town to having the title of this property made over to the church?

Mr. MIGUEL ARGUESO. I think not. The building was erected for use as a Catholic church and should be used for that purpose.

Mr. ANTONIO ROIG. As the Catholic church in the island is rich and the city of Humacao poor, I think the church should be sold to the ecclesiastical authorities.

Mr. ARGUESO. If the ecclesiastical authorities should refuse to purchase, we would be left with a church building on our hands with nobody to attend to it, and so would lose the benefit of worship here.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think it would be fair to the church to compel it to pay for a building constructed for its purposes exclusively and which it has used without payment of rent for many years? I would like to have the general opinion here in regard to that.

Judge FULLADOSA. The church here was built by the people and for the people, as Catholics, when there were no other religions here. It is not possible to transfer it, nor can it be used for any other purpose.

Dr. CARROLL. I think a legal way can be found by the United States to settle this matter. It may be a cause of trouble. This church building seems to be neither church property nor municipal property. The control of it seems to be somewhat vague. It would seem to me that all this class of cases should be settled. I am not a Roman Catholic myself, but it is my opinion that the churches should be confirmed to the church, because they were built for the Catholic Church and for Catholic worship, and unless the title rests exclusively in the municipality it ought to be confirmed to the church. That is my opinion in regard to the question.

Mr. ROIG. Who will attend to the repair of the church if it is transferred?

Dr. CARROLL. That would be a matter for the church; if not repaired it will fall down and the people can not use it. Of course, if the title of the property is conceded to be in the municipality and it is not transferred to the Catholic Church, the city ought to exact some responsibility about its being kept in repair.

A GENTLEMAN. The municipal council has no power in the premises; it can neither sell the property nor give it away.

Judge FULLADOSA. The church was built for the Catholics, for their use, and I think they should attend to its repairs. After a while the council may change and a Protestant become a member of it, who might object to the municipality contributing to pay for repairs to the church. As to transferring the title, I do not think it could be transferred to any society or corporate body.

Dr. CARROLL. What do you think ought to be done?

Judge FULLADOSA. I think that Catholics ought to pay for the repairs of the church, as I have said, and if they fail to do so the property will have to fall.

Dr. CARROLL. But the title of the property ought to be vested somewhere.

Judge FULLADOSA. The building does not belong to the municipality as a municipality, but to the municipality as a Catholic body, because it was built under Catholic laws for Catholics.

Mr. THOMAS ORTERO. The church belongs to the 15,000 people of the district and they only can resolve the question.

Dr. CARROLL. If the municipality bought it and paid for it by taxes,

I should say it belonged to the municipality. You can not distinguish between a Catholic and a non-Catholic municipality.

A GENTLEMAN. Those who helped to build the church did not do so because they wanted to; the object of providing for Catholic worship did not enter into it at all. A tax was levied and all had to pay it.

Judge FULLADOSA. My point is that when the church was built the people paid their assessments without protest; consequently they acceded to the levy.

A GENTLEMAN. With respect to the fact that there was no protest, it would have been regarded little less than treasonable for anyone to have protested.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any casa parrochial?

Mr. MASFERRER. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the title to the cemetery registered?

Mr. MASFERRER. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Who administers it?

Mr. MASFERRER. The municipality in conjunction with the priest.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you taken any measures to provide for the burial of non-Catholics?

Mr. MASFERRER. The municipality has asked the authorities at San Juan for the secularization of the cemetery. At present we have a little ground apart from the cemetery in which we bury persons who are not Catholics.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the consent of the curé necessary in order to bury a person in the cemetery proper?

Mr. MASFERRER. Yes; his permission is necessary.

CHURCH PROPERTY IN YABUCOA.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

YABUCOA, *February 2, 1899.*

Mr. MARTORELL, mayor of Yabucoa: The title of the church property in Yabucoa is not vested in the municipality, but in the state. The property has always been used for public worship, and the church should be given the title of it, if possible. This can not be done by the municipality, but may be done by the state.

CHURCH PROPERTY IN GUAYAMA.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

GUAYAMA, P. R., *February 3, 1899.*

Father BALDOMERO MONTANES (the parish priest of Guayama):

Dr. CARROLL. As the special commissioner of the President of the United States, it is important for me to inquire into the church question, as into all other questions relating to the condition of the island, because the church question, at present, is more or less complicated with the state question. Under the American idea church and state are separate, but there is a property question involved here which is a very important one, and in every municipality to which I go I am taking testimony with reference to it. Have you been rector here a number of years?

Father MONTANES. For twenty-one years I have been parish priest; five years parish priest here, and then I was transferred to another district, and this last time have been here four years. I have been in Mayaguez, Cabo Rojo, Caguas, and Aguadilla.

Dr. CARROLL. You are familiar with the history of this building, I suppose?

Father MONTANES. No; because there is a great deficiency of data. This church dates its first construction back to the last century. After that it was destroyed and was replaced by a provisional chapel built of wood. In the year 1872 this building was finished and dedicated to public worship. The building is menaced with deterioration owing to a leak in the roof, which should be repaired. I gave the apostolic delegate this information, which I sent him on request.

Dr. CARROLL. They told us at the city hall that money from the city treasury built the church and therefore they felt that the building belonged to the municipality and not to the church.

Father MONTANES. I do not claim that it belongs to us as a body, because under the Spanish law church property belongs to nobody, but to religion. Under that law, even if a private man builds a church, from the moment it is built and consecrated to Catholic worship, he loses his ownership over it.

Dr. CARROLL. In what code is that found?

Father MONTANES. I can not inform you where that law is found.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it in one of the codes, or is it part of the Spanish religious constitution?

Father MONTANES. It will be found in the canonical law, but in Spain that law forms a part of the State law. A short time ago an official in the capital gave certain instructions about the cemetery, and he quoted the same law that I am speaking about as upholding the position. He even quotes foreign law and United States law to make good this principle. The capitular vicar, who is our chief to-day, gave those instructions.

Dr. CARROLL. They didn't claim at the city hall that they wanted to use the church for any other purpose, but that if they are to turn it over to the church, while they would not want back all that they had put into it, they would ask a portion of it.

Father MONTANES. What is the municipality? It is a body representing the people, and if the people are Catholics it represents Catholics.

Dr. CARROLL. Under the Spanish law, but not under the law of the United States.

Father MONTANES. In the municipality are two or three enemies of the church, beginning with the alcalde, who call themselves Catholics.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the mayor's reason for enmity toward the church?

Father MONTANES. He is a freethinker. He likes liberty of thought and boasts of it.

Dr. CARROLL. Is he in the communion of the church?

Father MONTANES. He is considered a communicant of the church until the church formally expels him, but as to his ideas he is not really a communicant. He and two or three other councillors originated the idea of renting the church and the cemetery. This town is in exceptional circumstances, owing to the war. In this town more soldiers died than in any other, and per force of circumstances they had to bury them here, and the mayor was the person who gave the authority to bury them. If the Catholics of Guayama were what they

ought to be, they would already have taken other steps than they have taken.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you hold that the repairs of the church should be made by the municipality?

Father MONTANES. It should be paid for by the Catholics, and as the ayuntamiento represents Catholics, it should pay for the repairs.

Dr. CARROLL. No; the municipalities are now under the control of the American Government, and the American idea with regard to state and church is now in force in this island.

Father MONTANES. Haven't the ayuntamientos been elected by the people?

Dr. CARROLL. But what the people might do as Catholics and what they might do as municipalities are separate things under the present government.

Father MONTANES. Suppose we, as Catholics, to-day got together to elect a Catholic ayuntamiento. Whatever may happen from now on, at least up to now everything has been Catholic. We can only guide ourselves by what has been. In that light we can only look upon the property of the church as being Catholic.

Dr. CARROLL. But if the property belongs to the church—and I am not in a position to discuss that—it seems to me to be the duty of the church to keep it in repair, and not the duty of the municipality.

Father MONTANES. Yes; as soon as it is formally declared to be the property of the church.

Dr. CARROLL. But in the meantime you are occupying it, and it is to your interest to keep it in habitable condition.

Father MONTANES. Are the ayuntamientos not able to subvention the church for repairs?

Dr. CARROLL. If they keep a church in repair, they would expect to charge rent for it. It seems to me important that this church property question should be settled now. In course of time there will be an influx of Americans here; some Americans are Protestants and some are Catholics, and the population of this town will be a mixed population, and if this question is not settled there will be heard voices of objection to allowing the Catholics to occupy the church. You stated, when we were in the church, that the average number of persons at masses was 32. That, of course, is a very small number in a municipal district that embraces 15,000 people. How do you account for it?

Father MONTANES. Although there is laxity, the fact that every Catholic in the country, when he comes to die, wishes to receive the Catholic sacrament, proves that they are not apostates. There is an immense amount of indifference and coolness, but, as I say, when it comes to the deathbed they always want the rites of the church. Even the free thinkers themselves, when they are going to die, call for the priest.

At the Alcaidia:

Dr. CARROLL. You speak of appropriating \$50 for repairs to the church. Is the church property in the name of the municipality?

Mr. DOMINGUEZ (mayor). It is municipal property and is in the inventory, but it is not registered, because it has not been customary to register public property. The church was built in 1873.

Dr. CARROLL. Was it built by funds from the municipal treasury, raised by assessment?

Mr. DOMINGUEZ. The church was built by the surplus of the municipal budget every year and the collection of old taxes which had been considered uncollectible. The people were asked whether the

surplus should be used for church purposes and they agreed to use it in that way.

Dr. CARROLL. What is proposed now as to the settlement of the title of church property? Are the people willing that the title should be made over to the Catholics?

Mr. DOMINGUEZ. We have not taken that matter up yet, and I can not tell you what the feeling will be. I think when the matter is treated of in the council they will not consent to make a present of the church to the ecclesiastical body.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you regard this as distinctly municipal property, or was it not turned over to the state, the state making appropriations for the support of the church?

Mr. DOMINGUEZ. I consider that the church belongs to the municipality as long as we have it in our inventory. The clergy have never registered it, and the hypothecary law says that until a better title is shown, it is the property of the party having some form of title.

Dr. CARROLL. This church question will be an important one when Porto Rico passes completely under the control of the United States, which makes separation of church and state necessary, and I have been inquiring as to what is the best way in which this question of church property should be settled. As the churches were built, in all instances, for the Catholics and Catholic worship, and were intended for people who worship that way, it would seem that the buildings should belong to them. If the property is retained as municipal property or under municipal management, as non-Catholics increase the question may arise as to whether the church should be allowed to use the property, and it seems to me that the question should be settled as soon as the new government is established.

Mr. DOMINGUEZ. In that case, we will have to take the voice of the meeting and the vote of the council, and inscribe the property.

Dr. CARROLL. There is no question as to your right to hold the building or whatever belongs to you. The question might arise in the future as to the use of the building or the amount of rental that should be charged, and non-Catholics might say that they have as good a right to it, a part of the time, as the Catholics, and so a great deal of contention might arise.

Mr. DOMINGUEZ. This is a Catholic country, and the municipality does not wish to interfere, for the present, with the functions of the Catholic priest; but we mean to assert our right to the property, and we want the right to mortgage it, if we so desire.

Dr. CARROLL. You make a very small appropriation for the church. I suppose that is because it is a municipal building and you feel that you ought to do something for it; but would it not be well, in carrying out the spirit of separation between church and state, to compel the occupants to pay that amount by way of rental?

Mr. DOMINGUEZ. This budget was made while the Spaniards were in possession, and next year there will be no amount. They will have to attend to it next year.

Dr. CARROLL. How much would the municipality require to be willing to transfer the property to the Catholic Church? Would they require all they had put in it, or a nominal amount which would represent the interest of the city?

Mr. DOMINGUEZ. I think they would dispose of it at a large reduction to settle the question. Thirty thousand dollars, I think, would be acceptable. It would be \$30,000 we never reckoned on, and we could use it.

CHURCH PROPERTY IN ARROYO.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

ARROYO, P. R., *February 3, 1899.*

Father MONTANER, Mr. VIRELLA, and others:

Dr. CARROLL. How is church property held in Arroyo?

Mr. VIRELLA. It was constructed by the people.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the title to it inscribed in the records?

Mr. VIRELLA. No; these buildings were all turned over to the state, and the state has them under its charge.

Dr. CARROLL. Was it built by taxation?

Mr. VIRELLA. No; by popular subscription.

(The curé of Arroyo was present at the hearing, and Dr. Carroll questioned him as follows:)

Dr. CARROLL. With your permission, I would like to ask you a few questions. When was the church built?

Father MONTANER. It was begun in 1852 and finished in 1856.

Dr. CARROLL. Who owned the lot on which it was built?

Father MONTANER. Don Rafael Cintron.

Dr. CARROLL. Did he make it over to the municipality, or to the state, or to the church?

Father MONTANER. He made the donation for church purposes. The whole history of it is in the archives.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you been asked by Archbishop La Chapelle for information regarding the title of the church property?

Father MONTANER. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. You say the property was transferred to the state. Was that about the time of the royal decree abolishing tithes and providing for the support of the church from the state treasury?

Father MONTANER. Yes; the church passed to the state as a result of that order.

Dr. CARROLL. Then the church really holds the title to the property?

Father MONTANER. There is no title in the sense of a written title.

Dr. CARROLL. What has been the tradition with regard to the ownership of the church property? Was it regarded as belonging to the state, to be administered for the church, or was it otherwise?

Father MONTANER. The tradition is that the lot was given to the people to build a church for Catholic worship for Catholic people in the island. The fact that the state took possession of it does not make any difference, as, when the state took possession, it bound itself over to take the responsibility of sustaining the cult for which the church was built.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you understand it to be the general desire of the people of Arroyo that this property should be confirmed to the Catholic Church for its own purposes and uses?

Mr. VIRELLA. The wish of the people is that the church should be confirmed to the church for the purposes of Catholic worship.

Dr. CARROLL. If you leave it an open question, it will cause a great deal of difficulty in years to come, when Protestants may settle here, and, perhaps, become members of your city council. It seems to me better that this church question should be settled at the same time that the new government is instituted. If it was intended for the Catholic Church, let it be confirmed to the Catholic Church. What I desire to know is whether there would be any very great objection among the people of this municipality to this course?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. I think that the church should be confirmed to the Catholic people, not to the municipality, for the reason you have stated.

ANOTHER GENTLEMAN. What about repairs to the church property?

Dr. CARROLL. I think, if confirmed to the Catholic Church, it, the church, will have to take care of repairs. If it does not, it will fall. I don't think the municipality can assume any responsibility with regard to the repairs of the church.

FATHER MONTANER. If the people let it go to ruin, let it go to ruin.

SECRETARY OF THE AYUNTAMIENTO. I wish to remark that the clock in the church tower was bought by the municipality and not by the church.

Dr. CARROLL. Then I would suggest that the church return it to the municipality, and let the church run on its own time and not on the time of the municipality. Have you two cemeteries here?

SECRETARY. We have only one, but it is divided into two parts—one part for Catholics and the other for persons who are not Catholics. The cemetery was built by the municipality, and we wish it to be common property for the burial of anybody and everybody, without regard to religious matters.

Dr. CARROLL. But that would conflict with the Catholic idea concerning the burial of people in consecrated ground, would it not?

SECRETARY. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Then they would consider it a desecration to have non-Catholics buried in consecrated ground.

FATHER MONTANER. The cemetery has a great number of private tombs; and if non-Catholics are buried there, these tombs will be rendered useless, because, according to the idea of Catholics, to do that would be a desecration. The municipality has recently set apart a portion of ground for non-Catholics.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that portion as desirable as the Catholic part?

Mr. VIRELLA. It is about the size of this room. It is too small; and if they put up another mausoleum there, it will fill up the whole space.

Dr. CARROLL. I suppose the municipality can add to it?

Mr. VIRELLA. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the Catholic portion have a great deal of unused space now?

Mr. VIRELLA. No; it is all full.

CHURCH PROPERTY IN COAMO.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

COAMO, P. I., February 6, 1899.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the church also public property?

Mr. SEGUNDO BERNIER. The church belongs to the state.

Dr. CARROLL. How was the church built?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. The money was obtained from the city estimates, but was raised by a levy, the same as any tax. Some of it was obtained by diverting money raised for the purpose of an aqueduct.

Dr. CARROLL. To whom did the land belong on which the church was built?

Mr. BERNIER. To the town.

Dr. CARROLL. How long has the church stood there?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. Some years ago all the municipal documents were destroyed, and we have no records now.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the municipal property registered?

Mr. BERNIER. No.

Colonel SANTIAGO. When I was mayor we prepared a document for the purpose of registering the municipal property, but the city hall was burned and that document was burned with it.

Dr. CARROLL. Then, there is no title to the church property?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. It was a legacy. The land was a legacy for the purpose of founding a city. The city has some documents on which to found its title. The city has been owner of the land for two hundred years and more. It was founded in 1616.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the city charge the occupants of the land rental?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. The land is divided into three classes and the lots are put up at auction. Those who bid the highest rent them. Where houses are built on the lots the city charges no rental.

Dr. CARROLL. Then, those who have the houses and have title to the houses may hold the land forever?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. Yes; but the municipality reserves the right of taxing the land if it wishes.

Dr. CARROLL. The municipality would have the right to do that, as a municipal corporation, whether it owned the land or not.

The MAYOR. That right never has been taken advantage of.

Dr. SUAREZ. I do not think the facts regarding the legacy have been accurately stated. Fifty acres comprise the legacy, and the remaining 150 acres were purchased.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it the general desire of the people of this town that church property shall be confirmed to the church by the United States Government?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. No; let it remain the property of the town.

Dr. CARROLL. There is a difficulty about that. Under the policy of the United States there is entire separation between church and state, and while the people of Coamo are all of one way of thinking, perhaps, with regard to religion, it seems to me the question should be settled.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. It being the property of the people, I don't think it should be given to the church, but should be reserved for the Catholics of this district.

Colonel SANTIAGO. That is a good idea.

Dr. CARROLL. How can the municipality hold church property? If it is the property of the municipality it is secularized, and you must be prepared to lend it not only to the Catholics but to anybody else who comes in, just as you do your theater.

Mr. MANUEL BETANCES. The church can belong to the municipality the same as any of its other buildings, with a right to lend it to the priests for Catholic worship, charging a rent or not, as it sees fit. At all events, the church belongs to the people and should remain the property of the people.

Mr. DASSALACQUE. The great majority of people here would view with pleasure an income from the church property in the way of rental or otherwise.

Colonel SANTIAGO. The church was built by the Catholics, and I think that constitutes a very good reason why it should belong to the Catholics.

Dr. CARROLL. That is my own idea, but I think you will have to settle it now; otherwise it will become a bone of strife and contention here when your town comes to be settled by those of different faith or of no faith. If the town continues to hold church property, or the

church continues to be the property of the people, who will pay for the repairs made upon it?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. In case it belongs to the municipality, the municipality will pay for the repairs.

Dr. CARROLL. In case the municipality does not get any rent for it, what then?

COLONEL SANTIAGO. I think the church should be vested in a society or trustees, as they have in Europe. This society in Europe is called succession of such and such a church.

Dr. CARROLL. In other words, it takes a private and voluntary basis?

COLONEL SANTIAGO. Yes; and such a society has always been formed here to look after the interests of the Catholic religion.

Dr. CARROLL. What object is to be obtained by reserving the title of the property to the municipality?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. None at all; and my opinion is that the municipality should sell the church to the Catholic succession.

Dr. CARROLL. You would not expect in that case to get the full value you have expended on it, would you?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. We would try to get the most we could out of the succession.

Dr. SUAREZ. I don't think the municipality can remain owner of the church, for in that case it would have to repair the church, and in spending the public money it might be spending the money of some one who might not agree to such a use of the church.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. I think that as the church was built for and has belonged to the Catholics for more than one hundred years, it should be turned over to the church. By that I don't mean that it should be turned over to the Catholic priests. They have spent no money on it, and done nothing for it. A priest may come to-day and go to-morrow, but the people remain, and the people should have the title to the property. Moreover, I think it would be a profanation to church property to make it a part of municipal property and charge rental for it.

Dr. CARROLL. For the church to hold it as such it would be necessary, of course, under your laws, for it to be incorporated.

Colonel SANTIAGO. The society I referred to is not legally constituted yet.

Dr. CARROLL. I understand that; but I understand that for a number of people to hold property it is legally necessary for them to be formed into a corporation.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. The members of such a society would have to draw up their rules and regulations, and have them approved by the government.

CHURCH PROPERTY IN AIBONITO.

[Hearing at the alcaidia before the United States Commissioner.]

AIBONITO, P. R., *February 6, 1899.*

Mr. ———, municipal judge, and Mr. MANUEL CABALLER, mayor of Aibonito:

Dr. CARROLL. By whom is the church property held?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. In 1887 the Spanish captain-general started a subscription here to which the town gave \$15,000, and persons from other districts also subscribed; the state made up the difference, and the church was finished two years ago.

Dr. CARROLL. Was the quota of the town raised by subscription or by taxation?

Mr. CABALLER. The church cost \$34,000, of which the state gave \$12,000 from the state treasury. The rest was raised by subscription.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the title to the property inscribed?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. No; it is not.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it the general wish of the people of Aibonito that the property should be made over to the church?

Mr. CABALLER. I think it is, as the people have been brought up Catholics, and are fervent Catholics.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any dissent to that expression of view of your alcalde?

(There was no one present who dissented, and all appeared to be in accord with the alcalde in that view.)

Dr. CARROLL. I think that ought to be done.

CHURCH PROPERTY IN PORTO RICO.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *February 10, 1899.*

The Very Rev. Father JUAN PERPIÑA É PIBERNAT, capitular vicar of the diocese of Porto Rico:

Dr. CARROLL. After having seen you before, I went to the United States and made a preliminary report to the President, in which I touched upon the question of church property here and recommended that unless a title of record was shown by municipal or other corporations, the church property of the island should be confirmed to the Roman Catholic Church. I have, since my return, visited the leading municipalities of the island, and in most cases I have inquired into the matter of church property.

Father PERPIÑA. We have had from time immemorial the right of possession—that is, we have owned the church by possession, and that is sufficient alone to confirm our claim.

Dr. CARROLL. I found that the claim of the municipalities to this property rests on the money of the city that was put into its erection and into the repairs of the church buildings. It was claimed in every case that the people of the town had built the church. It was admitted that it had been built for Catholic worship, and, as nearly as I could understand the matter, when churches were built and dedicated they were turned over to the state, and the state allowed the church to use them for church purposes.

Father PERPIÑA. Not to the state, but to the Catholic Church.

Dr. CARROLL. I did not understand that the title was made over to the state, but that the state and church being combined and the state providing for the care of the priests, the state exercised in that way a certain control over this church property.

Father PERPIÑA. I have finished here, and I won't go into this matter; you must go into it with the delegate. They have deceived you completely. In one word, this is a matter for the delegate, and I wish you to argue it with him or to place it before him. My argument is the following: The churches were turned over to the Catholic Church; they have used them from time immemorial, and therefore they belong to the church. I wouldn't credit the information of certain persons,

because they have probably misinformed you, especially as the present ayuntamientos are bad. A Catholic Church from the moment it is consecrated and blessed by the Catholic clergy belongs by that fact alone to the church.

Dr. CARROLL. I told the alcaldes that I had recommended that the property should be transferred, and asked them if they were willing to have it transferred, and they said they were.

Father PERPIÑA. It does not matter to me whether the ayuntamientos are willing or not to turn over the churches. The moment the churches were blessed, that moment they became ours without the right of anybody to intervene. The same is true of the cemeteries. General Henry recognizes the fact that the blessing of the cemeteries made them church property, and has turned them over to the church.

Dr. CARROLL. If the municipalities, which are the only corporations which claim the churches, are willing that they should be turned over to the Catholic Church, it makes the way of the United States to the solution of this property question easier than it otherwise would be.

Father PERPIÑA. There might be some bad municipalities that would not want to do that, and they have no claim whatever to assume authority to say yes or no. Why open this question at all? The treaty of peace confirms to the church all their property. From the moment the treaty was signed, we are by that fact owners of the church property.

Dr. CARROLL. There are two views of that. There are those who hold that what was the property of the state could not be the property of the church at the same time, and that this is state property and not church property.

Father PERPIÑA. I advance two arguments. One is that the moment a building is consecrated by a Catholic priest the building belongs to the church. Otherwise we would never want to have it consecrated. We have another argument, which is the law of possession. Who will take away our property, which we have held from time immemorial? The titles of the cemeteries and churches are not registered because the hypothecary law prohibits the registering of titles of any church property and that with a view of exempting church property from all classes of taxation. How could we register titles if it were contrary to law—if the law prevented it?

Dr. CARROLL. Have you had no registration in the case of any church property?

Father PERPIÑA. No; no class. The mortgages on church property—the censos—were registered because they were in the form of mortgages on property. The law directed them to be registered.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that a provision of the civil law?

Father PERPIÑA. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Under the head of registration of property?

Father PERPIÑA. Yes.

CHURCH PROPERTY IN CAGUAS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

CAGUAS, P. R., *February 28, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. Why do you include the church among the parcels of municipal property?

Mr. SOLA. Because it was built by municipal funds.

Dr. CARROLL. When was the church built?

Mr. SOLA. In the year 1830.

Dr. CARROLL. Has it always been considered as municipal property?

Mr. SOLA. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you always paid for the expense of repairing?

Mr. SOLA. Always.

Dr. CARROLL. When the concordat between the Pope and Spain went into effect, was this property not transferred to the state for church purposes?

Mr. SOLA. I can not answer that.

Dr. CARROLL. I have understood that the church property generally was regarded as belonging to the insular government, and that the church was allowed to use it for the purpose of public worship.

Dr. CRUZ. There is a provision of law by which the governments of the municipalities were ordered to take possession of the property out of the hands of the priests.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it the desire of the people of this municipality to control the church property, or would you fall in with a proposition to transfer to the Catholic Church all churches of the island?

Dr. CRUZ. No. The municipality should control it as municipal property. That is the sentiment here.

Dr. CARROLL. Under the laws of the United States church and state are entirely separate, and it would hardly be proper for a municipality to control the church. It might rent it or it might sell it, but in our country the church and state are kept entirely separate, and it seems to me that as all these churches were built for Catholic worship it would be well to transfer the property to the church, so as to separate between church and state.

Dr. CRUZ. It could be rented.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. I think it ought to be ceded, but we don't want the church to belong to the priests.

Dr. CARROLL. Would you be willing to have the church transferred to a board of trustees to hold the church in this place for the purpose of Catholic worship exclusively?

(This suggestion of the commissioner seemed to be received with general approval.)

Dr. CRUZ. We don't want Rome to have a hand in it.

Dr. CARROLL. You see there is a difficulty about having a municipality continue to own and manage church property. The time may come when there may be people in the municipality opposed to Catholic worship, and then a strife might arise as to the possession of the church.

Dr. CRUZ. We are satisfied with your plan, but they have been trying to make the people believe that the treaty of peace will turn the churches over to Rome; that is, Rome as represented by the priests. But we want it understood that the people built the churches and they should have the title to them. The same thing can be said with regard to the cemeteries which have not been secularized, and conflicts are arising every day. They were built by the people and ought to belong to the people.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you a cemetery for non-Catholics?

Dr. CRUZ. No. The municipality should establish one.

Dr. CARROLL. The cemetery ought to be secularized, in your judgment?

Dr. CRUZ. We want to invite your action in this direction.

Dr. CARROLL. I understood that General Henry has issued an order that none but Catholics shall be buried in consecrated ground, and I

understand that all the ground within the walls of your cemetery is consecrated ground. Is that so?

Dr. CRUZ. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Then, if the cemetery were secularized, how would you satisfy the Catholic conscience, which would regard it as a desecration to bury anyone in consecrated ground who did not die in the Catholic faith?

Dr. CRUZ. The municipality should prepare another plot of land and dedicate it for that purpose.

Dr. CARROLL. In the cemetery at San Juan they bury both Catholics and Protestants in the same ground.

Dr. CRUZ. That should not be, because that gives rise to conflict.

Dr. CARROLL. How would it do to allow the Catholics to consecrate the grave of everyone who dies in the Catholic faith, and leaving the rest as unconsecrated ground? That would meet the difficulty, would it not?

Dr. CRUZ. If it would not give rise to conflict.

Dr. CARROLL. That is the rule in Mexico.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. They can take a cemetery and divide it, putting a door between the two parts.

Dr. CARROLL. The complaint is made in San Juan and other places that the provision made for non-Catholics is not at all satisfactory. In San Juan it is outside of the walls, and in a place where, it was stated to me the other day, it was "not fit to bury a dog." If this cemetery were secularized, how would you administer it? Would you require that a certificate from the priest, for example, be furnished in the case of persons who die in the Catholic faith, or how would you proceed? How are you going to distinguish between the bodies? The present method is, as I understand it, for the municipal judge to give a certificate of burial, which is indorsed on the back "Ecclesiastical burial" by the parish priest, if the deceased is a Catholic. Would you want to proceed in that way?

Dr. CRUZ. I do not think that would be necessary.

Dr. CARROLL. Now, then, would you distinguish between Catholics and non-Catholics?

Dr. CRUZ. I think the statement of the family would be sufficient. Then if they wanted to ask the priest to perform the ceremony, they could do so.

Dr. CARROLL. Then you would not inquire particularly whether a man was a Catholic or not?

Dr. CRUZ. We are not fanatical, and while we are Catholics, we don't want to be controlled by priests. The priests, instead of facilitating things, put every difficulty in the way of everything they can.

CHURCH PROPERTY IN CAYEY.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

CAYEY, P. R., *February 28, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. Who owns the church property?

Mr. MUÑOZ. The church was constructed by the municipality a great many years ago.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it held by the church or the municipality, or by neither?

Mr. MUÑOZ. It belongs to the religion.

Dr. CARROLL. Then the city does not claim it?

Mr. MUÑOZ. Yes; everybody is claiming it, but the parish priest has taken it.

Dr. CARROLL. Has he the title to it?

Mr. MUÑOZ. No; he has no title.

Dr. CARROLL. Does it appear at all in the office of the register?

Mr. MUÑOZ. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Has the municipality been in the habit of appropriating money for the repairs of the church?

Mr. MUÑOZ. Yes; as can be proved by the minutes of the municipality.

Dr. CARROLL. Do the people of this municipality desire that this property should be confirmed to the church, under the laws of the United States?

(Several answered in chorus: "No; it should be held by the people.")

A VOICE. The cemetery, too.

Dr. CARROLL. You know that under the Constitution and laws of the United States church and state are entirely separate; and if the municipality were to continue to hold and manage church property, it might give rise to dissension. I presume you are all of one faith now, but in course of time it may be that there may be among you those who are not Catholics, and there might arise, therefore, strife and contention between the Catholics on the one hand and the non-Catholics on the other; and the non-Catholics might say, "If it is public property, we have a right to enjoy our share of it." Wouldn't it be better to have this question settled at once and have this property made over to the church, if you like?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. There are many here who are not Catholics, and they have contributed the same as others to build the church.

ANOTHER GENTLEMAN. This question can not be settled in such an offhand way; the comparatively small number of persons at this hearing can not be presumed to represent the majority opinion in the town.

Dr. CARROLL. That is true; but I want to get an idea of the public opinion, and I am asking these questions in every place I go. In most places they say they are willing to have the property transferred to the church. It may be, in some cases, that the people would like to have something paid by the church for the church property.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. At present the great majority of the people are Catholics.

ANOTHER GENTLEMAN. You have to take into account that the Catholic religion was a religion by force. It was not permitted not to be a Catholic, and there were a great many people who were Catholics who are now freethinkers; there are a great many freethinkers here and a great many Free Masons also.

Mr. PLANELLAS. This is a matter in which there has been a mistaken view taken; the subject is not one of belief, but one of right. The church was built for Catholic rites, and it must belong to the priests.

Mr. LUIS MUÑOZ MORALES. I agree with Mr. Planellas that the church was built for the Catholic clergy and should be turned over to the clergy, but I think that hereafter only Catholics should be taxed for its repairs; to-day all are taxed.

Dr. CARROLL. I am clearly of the opinion that the municipality ought not to pay for repairs to the church unless it charges rental for the church. If church property is to be enjoyed exclusively by the church, then let the church pay for repairs. I find in nearly all the

municipalities which I have visited that they have stopped that appropriation; they no longer make an appropriation for the repairs of the church.

Mayor MUÑOZ. The same is true here.

Dr. CARROLL. How is it about the cemetery?

Mayor MUÑOZ. We have made a claim that the cemetery should be continued as municipal property.

Dr. CARROLL. In other words, you desire to have the cemetery secularized, so that everybody can be buried in it without regard to what religion he may have professed?

Mayor MUÑOZ. Yes.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. With the cemetery the question is different. It was built with municipal funds, representing the people, whereas the church was built by funds representing the Catholics.

Dr. CARROLL. Are persons of different faiths buried in the cemetery at present?

Mayor MUÑOZ. Yes; we have a small plot in the cemetery for people who die out of the Catholic faith.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it within the walls of the cemetery?

Mayor MUÑOZ. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. In San Juan, it is said, a great deal of complaint has been made because non-Catholics are buried outside the walls of the cemetery.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. How about the tower, if the church is turned over to the church?

Dr. CARROLL. Was it dedicated with the church?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. As the priests bless everything, I don't know.

Mayor MUÑOZ. I wish to call attention to the fact that we had a shutter made to keep the rains from injuring the clock, and the parish priest has refused to let us put it up.

Dr. CARROLL. Then, evidently the parish priest considers that the tower belongs to the building and the building to the church, and not to the city.

Mayor MUÑOZ. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Well, I rather think the claim of the priest is good; that is, at common law. I don't know how it would be under Spanish law.

A LAWYER PRESENT. It is the same under the Spanish law.

Dr. CARROLL. How about the parish house?

Mayor MUÑOZ. The priests also claim that that is theirs.

Dr. CARROLL. How was it built?

Mayor MUÑOZ. With municipal funds.

Dr. CARROLL. Not by voluntary contribution?

Mayor MUÑOZ. No; we have a document here which shows that it was bought outright with municipal funds.

Dr. CARROLL. Are you charging any rent for it?

Mayor MUÑOZ. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Who keeps it in repair?

Mayor MUÑOZ. I don't think it has ever needed any repairs; the priests have never asked for any.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the property inscribed in the records?

Mayor MUÑOZ. The municipality has no property inscribed.

Dr. CARROLL. What disposition is it proposed to make of that property—to sell it to the church?

Mayor MUÑOZ. The town generally wishes a school to be constructed there.

Dr. CARROLL. Was that building ever consecrated?

Mayor MUÑOZ. No.

Dr. CARROLL. I think, without doubt, it is the property of the municipality.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. There exists a note in the minutes that the municipality acquired the house for the purpose of allowing the priest to live there, and the house has always been known as the parochial house.

ANOTHER GENTLEMAN. You must also consider that the town has been a Catholic town by force.

Dr. CARROLL. I would like an explanation of just how the funds were raised for the church?

Mr. LUIS MUÑOZ (a lawyer and notary). Toward the end of the last century the church was constructed with funds raised by public subscription and gifts of materials. The tower was built in the same way—not by municipal funds. I think, as I said before, the church property should be turned over to the church, and the tower, as forming a part of the church, should go, too, with the building itself. The parish house was also built by subscription. Once there was some question about it, and the city tried to obtain rent for it from the priest, but private influence intervened and the rent was not paid.

Dr. CARROLL. It was stated here that the house was bought outright with funds from the municipal treasury, and not by subscription.

Mayor MANUEL MUÑOZ. The house was bought with municipal funds.

Dr. CARROLL (to Mr. Luis Muñoz). Do you agree with the mayor?

Mr. LUIS MUÑOZ. Yes; I accept the correction. In that case the municipality can retain the property as its property and resolve later what it will do with it.

CHURCH PROPERTY IN PONCE.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

PONCE, P. R., *March 2, 1899.*

Mr. LUIS PORRATA DORIA, mayor of Ponce:

Dr. CARROLL. One important question that must arise here under the Constitution of the United States, which requires separation of church and state, is that of church property. I want to get all the light I can on that subject, so as to be able to solve the question. These churches were doubtless built for Catholic worship. This is the only place in the island, I find, where church property is registered as municipal property. I had supposed that the best way to solve this question was to have the church property turned over to the Catholics for occupancy and use. Would that, in your judgment, be the best method in order to prevent strife in the future, when the municipalities come to have bodies divided in faith, between Catholic and non-Catholic, and when the non-Catholics may say they have as good right to use the churches as the Catholics? Would it or would it not be well to remove all contention and strife in the future by turning over to the Catholic Church the churches in the island, thus making the property Catholic property?

Mr. DORIA. I will say in the first place that I favor the absolute separation of church and state. The actual building is the exclusive property of the city of Ponce, and it has absolute right to require that it be handed over to the municipality to do with it as it likes. For

that reason the municipality has had it inscribed; but to-day we have to meet the tenth clause of the treaty of peace, in which the United States binds itself to recognize the church and church property, and the Catholics to-day advance the theory that everything that has been consecrated by the church is church property. Certain members of the council have already tried to bring the matter up, but I have put it aside so as not to give rise to dispute and trouble at present. If it had not been for the treaty, my first desire and wish would have been to remove the church from where it is and with its materials pave the streets of Ponce, and that Catholics who desire to have a church of their own should build one for that purpose. The municipality might give them a site on which to build it, or they could find their own site. I, as alcalde and president of the council, finding the church registered as municipal property, will not hand it over to anybody.

Dr. CARROLL. Perhaps the council might vote to transfer it.

Mr. DORIA. That is a matter for them. As regards the cemetery, we are in the same situation. I have found the solution to that question. I have charged the architect to find a site for a new cemetery, and will close the old one as being unhealthy.

Dr. CARROLL. The municipality has the right to engage in the cemetery business, but not in the church business.

Mr. DORIA. The church is claiming that the cemetery is theirs because they threw a little holy water on it. They have no right to the one or the other.

Dr. CARROLL. If you construct a new cemetery, then, I suppose you would not have it consecrated?

Mr. DORIA. No; for if they threw holy water on it they would claim that, too.

Dr. CARROLL. They might consecrate Catholic graves; that would be all right.

Mr. DORIA. If anybody wants a grave consecrated, let him have it consecrated. If I have to give the church up, the land on which it stands belongs to the municipality and the church will have to take the building somewhere else. I am not hostile to the church, because it baptized me—not with my permission, it is true, but it did baptize me nevertheless. The church is an eyesore to the town.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there more than one church here?

Mr. ROSICH. There is one Catholic and one Protestant church. There are two chapels, one in the beggars' asylum and one in the Tricóche Hospital, in both of which they have a daily mass.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the church dispute the title of the municipality to the church?

Mr. ROSICH. Not at present, because it is registered.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the purpose of the municipality with reference to that church? Is it to continue to own it?

Mr. ROSICH. We have not taken any action on that. We allow the church to use it free of rent.

Dr. CARROLL. Who pays for the repairs?

Mr. ROSICH. Before the municipality paid half and the state paid half, but to-day nobody pays for it. I think the municipality has a perfect right to say that the church must get out or pay rent.

Dr. CARROLL. I have understood from lawyers in San Juan that under the concordat of the Pope with Spain church property could not be inscribed.

Mr. ROSICH. The property of the municipality in this instance is clearly founded, and not like that in other towns where there were donations.

Dr. CARROLL. Was it built with funds of the municipality?

Mr. ROSICH. I don't know.

The SECRETARY. The church is not registered. They have a document in the registrar's office awaiting registry, and they have sent us these bills for the cost of the registration. We sent these bills to the central government, and the authorities there relieved the municipality from the necessity of paying the registration fee. The registrar has never refused to register the property. These six amounts stated here are for the Catholic cemetery in the playa, the Catholic Church, the Tricoche Hospital, the civil hospital, and the Protestant cemetery. The amounts are \$379, \$598, \$156, \$81, \$13, and \$4.

Mr. ROSICH. The order came from General Henry allowing us to have this property registered without paying for the registration.

Dr. CARROLL. When was the church built?

Mr. ROSICH. It is a little difficult to say, because the church is a very old one, and here in Porto Rico they used to build the church first and the town afterwards. I think it was built about the first of this century.

Dr. CARROLL. I suppose you have an expediente stating how it was built?

Mr. ROSICH. No; there is none.

Dr. CARROLL. It is a matter, then, simply of tradition how it was built?

Mr. ROSICH. Yes.

(The secretary produced a paper, which the commissioner examined. It proved to be an order from the secretary of government stating that according to General Henry's order the municipality need not pay the registration fee.)

Mr. ROSICH. According to this the property must have been registered already, as I had supposed it was.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the cemetery controlled entirely by the city?

Mr. ROSICH. In secular matters it is, but not in spiritual matters. That is to say, the priest can say who is to be buried there, and the municipality digs the graves and rents niches; but the priest has the right to refuse burial in the cemetery. If the priest does not turn up to object, however, they bury them there anyway. In the playa there is no priest, and they bury anyone in the cemetery there.

Dr. CARROLL. I understand that non-Catholics have been buried in the consecrated cemetery. Several years ago there was an Englishman buried here under the auspices of the British consul, in accordance with an order from the Governor-General.

Mr. ROSICH. Yes; he was an English doctor.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the wish of the people here regarding the cemetery? Do they wish to have it secularized or are they satisfied to have a division between Protestants and Catholics in burial matters?

Mr. ROSICH. I don't presume to interpret the opinion of the town, but the present burial ground has been denounced by the health department, the military and the civil, and I think the proper thing would be to build a necropolis outside of the town and bury persons there without respect to religion.

Dr. CARROLL. And let the Catholics have their graves consecrated, instead of the whole cemetery?

Mr. ROSICH. Even separating a portion of ground for them, if they like.

Dr. CARROLL. The dead would not fight over it, whatever you do.

Mr. ROSICH. Mentally balanced men don't believe that the quarrels of life go beyond the grave.

CHURCH AND STATE.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

PONCE, P. R., *March 4, 1899.*

Dr. VIDAL. I understand that at present with regard to religion we are under the American law, permitting everybody to worship as he likes, but not giving to anybody the right to give public evidence of his religion. Nevertheless, religious processions are held in the city, and soon we will be at the end of Lent and the plaza will be crowded with people. It makes a tremendous propaganda for a certain religion at the expense of others. The public plaza is reserved exclusively for the use of the clergy on that occasion, and no carriages are allowed to pass.

Dr. CARROLL. What do they do there?

Mr. CORTADO. They conduct services in their church and require the greatest silence, and the whole object of this is to be able to collect charities for the Catholic Church.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you mean on Good Friday and Easter?

Dr. VIDAL. The whole of holy week. Many times during feast days the troops occupied the plaza to allow the free passage of the religious processions. I am neither one thing nor the other. I am a freethinker.

Dr. CARROLL. I would like to ask, for my own information, what a freethinker is?

Dr. VIDAL. I believe only in the religion of science, the religion which explains scientifically the creation of man.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you believe in the existence of God?

Dr. VIDAL. According to what you call God. If by God you mean the universe, yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you believe in the Scriptures as a revelation?

Dr. VIDAL. Absolutely not.

Dr. CARROLL. Then a freethinker in Porto Rico means about the same as a freethinker in the United States. Are there many freethinkers in Porto Rico?

Dr. VIDAL. All men that have studied at all are freethinkers, and most of the doctors studied in France and got their ideas there.

CHURCH PROPERTY IN YAUCO.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

YAUCO, P. R., *March 6, 1899.*

Mr. TORRES and others:

Dr. CARROLL. Is the church looked upon as belonging to the municipality or to the church?

Mr. TORRES. As belonging to the city; but we do not know what is going to be done about it.

Dr. CARROLL. When was it built?

Mr. TORRES. In the year 1851.

Dr. CARROLL. From what funds?

Mr. TORRES. The old church had \$6,000, and the balance of \$3,000 was obtained by a special tax imposed through the municipality.

Dr. CARROLL. Was that in the nature of a tax or of a public subscription?

Mr. TORRES. It was an enforced contribution. The people were taxed and compelled to pay their proportion of the \$3,000.

Dr. CARROLL. Then the municipality has an interest of about \$3,000 in the present property. Would the town probably be willing to transfer the church property to the church, to be held and used by the church exclusively?

Mr. TORRES. The people would not mind doing so if they were given some recompense.

Dr. CARROLL. Would you expect to have the \$3,000 returned to you?

Mr. TORRES. I think it would be necessary to consult everybody first.

Mr. CIANCHINI. I believe the town would grant it for nothing. The neighborhood is Catholic, and I think there would be no opposition.

Mr. TORRES. That is not my opinion in the matter.

Dr. CARROLL. What about the cemetery? Is that also claimed by the church?

Mr. TORRES. There are two cemeteries here—one exclusively for the burial of Catholics and the civil cemetery for other persons. They both belong to the municipality; the people paid for them.

Dr. CARROLL. Where is the civil cemetery situated? Is it a part of the other cemetery, or is it distinct from it?

Mr. TORRES. They are divided by a wall.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it equally eligible with the Catholic cemetery?

Mr. TORRES. The Catholic cemetery is larger. Each has a separate entrance.

Dr. CARROLL. At San Juan a great deal of complaint has been made because of the provision made there for the burial of non-Catholics. The non-Catholic part is outside of the wall, next to the sea, and is not a nice place for burial at all.

Mr. FRANCIS MEJIA (ex-mayor of Yauco). A great many of the municipalities have asked for the secularization of the cemeteries, and a general order was issued saying that the clergy had to intervene. This municipality has written to the government, asking to be relieved of the necessity of attending to the repairs and cleansing of the cemetery.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you had any answer to that?

Mr. MEJIA. Not yet.

Dr. CARROLL. The usual procedure, I believe, is for the municipality to issue the permit of burial, and then, in the case of a Catholic burial, that is indorsed on the back by the cure.

Mr. MEJIA. That is the procedure here.

INSCRIPTION OF CHURCH PROPERTY.

[Correspondence between the registrar of Ponce and the secretary of justice.]

To the SECRETARY OF JUSTICE.

HONORED SIR: I beg to submit to you the following matter in consultation. Your decision, to a certain extent, will be equivalent to an alteration of the existing law, which, apparently, should have no place in current procedure.

The ayuntamiento of this city asks for the inscription of the parish churches and cemeteries of the town and playa (port), as being their property.

Paragraph 2 of article 25 of Hypothecary Procedure (Reglamento Hipotecario) prohibits the inscription of Catholic churches.

I am thereby placed in a difficult position. The aforesaid prohibition was originated by the constitutional rights granted by Spain to the Catholic religion. That right being now abrogated and replaced implicitly in this island by the constitutional rights of the Republic, which grants freedom of worship, I, as registrar, am of the opinion that the Catholic churches, in merely civil relations, have been divested of their special character and can be granted inscription in the registry, as can the cemeteries. I do not, however, feel authorized to put my opinion into practice without first submitting the matter to your superior knowledge.

JOSE SASTRAÑO BELAVAL,
Registrar of Property.

PONCE, P. R., *April 8, 1899.*

THE REGISTRAR OF PROPERTY, *Ponce:*

SIR: I am of the same opinion as yourself respecting the matter referred to above.

There is no doubt that churches dedicated to Catholic worship are subject to inscription, such as article 2 of the hypothecary law determines, notwithstanding the prohibition established in article 25, paragraph 2, of the rules of procedure you mention.

Where a state religion (such as existed in Rome and which gave rise to the precept in question) exists, churches dedicated to the official creed (*res sacrae*) can not be made the subject of a contract, being understood to be "*extra commercium*." Therefore, not being subject to contract, they are not subject to registry.

Spanish legislation accepted the principle of Romanism and its necessary consequences, excluding Catholic churches from things subject to registry. The paragraph quoted is a logical confirmation of Article II of the Spanish constitution, which declares the Roman Catholic to be the religion of the State.

But the Constitution of the United States forbids the establishment of any state religion, causing, therefore, those churches to lose their legal condition of "*res divini juris*," and allowing of their inscription, as well as that of churches of any other denomination. You can therefore proceed to inscribe them, following the procedure prescribed in article 26 of the aforementioned regulations.

II. DIAZ NAVARRO,
Secretary of Justice.

PORTO RICO, *May 12, 1899.*

CHURCH AND STATE UNDER AMERICAN RULE.

OPINION OF THE SECRETARY OF JUSTICE.

Honorable BRIGADIER-GENERAL,
Commander in Chief of the Department.

SIR: I have the honor of reporting on the petition of Señor Perpiñá, capitulary vicar and head of the Catholic Church in this island.

This gentleman bases his request on General Orders, No. 1, series 1898, which says: "Provincial and municipal laws in so far as affect.

ing the determination of private rights of individuals or property, shall be maintained in force when not incompatible with the change of conditions brought about in Porto Rico, in which case they can be suspended by the governor of the department;" and, on Article VIII of the Paris treaty of peace, which declares that the cession of Porto Rico by Spain to the United States shall in no way prejudice the title or rights attributed by custom or law to the peaceful possessors of every class of property in the provinces, cities, public and private establishments, civil or ecclesiastical corporations, or any other corporate body which had the legal standing necessary to acquire such property or rights.

Both these dispositions are founded on a principle of international law subscribed to by all nations, accepted by the English and American courts, and explained and sustained by the famous author, Marshall, with remarkable clearness.

The principle is the following: When a territory is occupied by virtue of cession or conquest, the laws governing private interests shall continue in force, but, on the substitution of the sovereignty of the conquered nation by that of the conqueror, the political laws governing the sovereignty of the former shall ipse facto give place to the laws governing the sovereignty of the latter.

In Porto Rico the official character and remuneration of the functionaries of the Catholic religion as employees of the states is founded on article 11 of the Spanish political constitution, declaring that faith to be the religion of the Kingdom.

This principle gave rise to the concordat between the Spanish Government and Rome, and necessarily made provision for the salaries of the clergy through the budget law, itself a law of public or political character.

By virtue of that principle of international law previously quoted, and as the Constitution of the United States does not admit of employees for purposes of religion, those dispositions were all virtually derogated from the moment that the American flag floated over this island.

It is quite evident, therefore, that General Brooke, on issuing General Orders, No. 1, and the Paris Commission, on drawing up Article VIII of the peace treaty, in no wise intended to give them the scope which Señor Perpiñá's interpretation of them supposes.

Neither General Brooke nor the Peace Commissioners could have had the intention of establishing principles contrary to the American Constitution. Their declarations that vested interests should be respected can only refer to purely civil or private interests.

Perhaps the argument might be advanced that as the United States Government has collected the income, the expenditure thereof should be for the object set forth in the budget.

This does not hold, as owing to the change of sovereignty the expenses of administration have been considerably reduced, the amount originally appropriated by the budget for the payment of the clergy having, together with the rest, suffered considerable reduction.

It must also be taken into consideration that as soon as the clergy were divested of their character of state officials, they were released from the obligations which they formerly were under to the state, which no longer exercises intervention in matters of clerical organization, discipline, or service.

The suppression of obligations carries with it the suppression of corresponding rights.

It is my opinion that the Catholic clergy are not entitled to receive official salary or emolument from the moment that the United States assumed sovereignty over the island.

Very respectfully,

HERMINIO DIAZ,
Secretary of Justice.

PORTO RICO, *June 1, 1899.*

CONDITION OF THE CHURCH.

STATEMENT OF MR. P. SANTISTEBAN Y CHARIVARRI, SPANISH MERCHANT.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 28, 1898.*

In this country the Roman Catholic religion predominates. Formerly the Catholic Church here was the owner of great wealth, which produced sufficient income to sustain its cult, to build religious edifices, endow charitable asylums, establish schools of instruction in the arts, establish gymnasiums, etc., for the poorest class of people. Since the Spanish Government took over all its wealth and in exchange paid the expenses of worship and the clergy, Catholic institutions have diminished and indifference and atheism have increased in proportion. This is prejudicial to healthy principles of morality, industry, and other qualities which should be the basis of the culture of the people.

The Spanish Government on relinquishing sovereignty over this island has left the church throughout the island without means of support and as the clergy to-day own no property which produces income, as they previously did, the greater portion of the interior towns will remain without priests and their inhabitants be exposed to the consequences of a country without religion to hold their consciences in check. Subscriptions and charity for the maintenance of religion in this country would not reach a sufficient amount during the first ten years to support the clergy, as want of habit of giving alms to God's temples makes this source of income a doubtful one.

RELIGIOUS LIBERTY.

STATEMENT OF MAYOR EUSTOQUIO TORRES.

GUAYANILLA, P. R., *November 7, 1898.*

It is evident that the Porto Rican people, perhaps in name, or perhaps as a consequence of Spanish dominion during which the church was part of the state, is essentially Catholic. For many it will perhaps be a matter of grave import that the new Government differs from the previous one on that point, and it may be the work of several years and much hard labor for missionaries of other faiths to uproot beliefs so long rooted and sustained by habit and tradition.

Nevertheless, I venture to assume that persons of the highest culture in the island—generally Free Thinkers—will receive with goodwill the principle of religious liberty which separation of church and state brings about. But to conciliate all opinions it would be well to allow those municipalities in which the majority of the parishioners vote to sustain the church from its municipal funds to do so, provided the majority of the governing body so votes also.

LIBERTY OF WORSHIP.

STATEMENT OF ESCOLASTICO PEREZ.

CIDRA, P. R., *November 10, 1898.*

As in the United States, so in Porto Rico, liberty of worship and for everyone to search for and contribute to religion according to the dictates of his conscience.

SEPARATION OF CHURCH AND STATE.

STATEMENT OF ANTONIO SANCHEZ RUIZ.

AGUADA, P. R., *November 12, 1898.*

Absolute separation of the church from the state. The Catholic religion may be conserved without failing in the respect, owing to other religions compatible with true Christianity, and which may guarantee liberty, equality, fraternity, work, and progress as symbolized by the stars of the American flag.

SELF-SUPPORT FOR THE CHURCH.

STATEMENT OF MAYOR CELESTINO DOMINGUEZ.

GUAYAMA, P. R., *January, 1899.*

No person of any degree of education in this country, if asked his opinion on the matter, would deny the great advantages of a separation of church and state. The clerical power in every country in the world has been a drag on progress, and nobody ignores the fact that Spain owes her decadence to this. The nations at the head of civilization and progress to-day are those where liberty of conscience is permitted. In this island the clerical influence has been so powerful, so strong, and so oppressive that when the American troops arrived everyone thought that their influence would be destroyed, and rejoiced accordingly. The hunger for liberty was so great that the country has seen and will see with pleasure the disappearance of clerical influence, which has weighed on our intelligence and our feelings like a sheet of lead. It is necessary that the clergy be relegated to their churches if they have them, and that they live on what their congregations care to give them. They must not have any interference in cemeteries or marriages, and although we do not ask that they disappear from the country, which is Catholic, we do require that they play no other part than that filled by them in the United States.

SUPPORT OF CHURCH BY MUNICIPALITIES.

STATEMENT OF JOSÉ M. ORTIZ.

MAUNABO, P. R., *February 24, 1899.*

(1) Absolute separation of church and state; liberty for municipalities to support the religion they choose, to the extent their means may permit; also that of dismissing ministers they are not in accord with.

(2) State not to be allowed to favor, directly or indirectly, any religion; nor to grant subventions to educational institutions directed by clergy, religious bodies, or members of mystic orders.

(3) Put an end to superstitions and religious fanaticism, without failing to respect real religious beliefs and worship.

THE CEMETERY IN SAN JUAN.

The cemetery of San Juan is situated at the base of Morro Castle, just outside the city wall, and is reached by a winding passage, under the wall, in the form of a tunnel. There are three divisions in the cemetery, two of which are reserved for Catholic burials, and the third, lying nearer to the sea, for the interment of non-Catholics. One of the Catholic portions of the cemetery, a comparatively recent addition, lies adjacent to the tunneled passage; the other is separated from this by a gate, and the Protestant division is reached by passing through a second gate in the stone wall inclosure, which extends along the entire sea front of the two Catholic divisions. In the newer Catholic portion graves and pantheons are sold outright, while in the other, with the exception of the burial corridor, in which niches may be sold in perpetuity for the interment of persons who have died from a contagious or infectious disease, graves and niches are rented according to a fixed tariff. Both the Catholic and the non-Catholic portions of the cemetery belong to the municipality.

Upon the death of a person, a permit of burial is obtained at the city hall, and the body is interred either in a grave or niche. At the expiration of five years of interment, a notice is sent to the personal representatives of the deceased calling their attention to the fact that that period has expired, and calling upon them for instructions as to their desires regarding the continued sepulture of the deceased. If the family do not buy a grave, or lease one, in response to that notice, the keeper of the cemetery is directed to remove the body and put it in the huesera, which, in San Juan, is a space about 10 feet square, in one corner of the cemetery, surrounded by a stone wall, without a roof. The bones consigned to the huesera are thrown into it in a heap, and when this is full, or it is deemed convenient to make room for more, a deep pit is dug in the cemetery and the contents of the huesera dumped into it. This practice of disinterment has been common throughout the island, and the keeper of the San Juan cemetery informed the commissioner that the ground had been used over and over again for sepulture, and that it was customary to take bodies out of unrented graves at the end of two years.

The following was the tariff in force for the economic year 1897-98 in San Juan:

For sale in perpetuity of graves for two bodies	\$200
For sale in perpetuity of each lot or family pantheon	300
For sale in perpetuity of a lot for one burial	150
For each niche of the burial gallery, in which a person who has died of an epidemic or contagious disease may be buried, the alienor losing all actions and rights	200
Rental for five years of each niche of the basement of the chapel	75
For each year's renewal of said rental	25
Rental for five years of each niche of the gallery	30
For each year's renewal of said rental	10
For each railing, with or without a tomb	10
For every tombstone over a grave, of whatever class	5

The municipal authorities informed the commissioner that the receipts from sales and rentals barely met the necessary expenses of maintaining the cemetery.

The tariff for sepulture in the cemetery at Ponce in force during the economic year 1896-97 was as follows:

For the sale of a niche.....	\$80
For the rent of a niche for five years.....	20
For ground sold for pantheons, per square meter.....	12

THE LAW AND CUSTOMS OF MARRIAGE.

AVOIDING MARRIAGE.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

UTUADO, P. R., *January 18, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. Is it not true that, while a great many live together in the marriage relation without having had any ceremony performed, they are generally true to each other and a man has one wife and a woman has one husband while they both live?

Mr. LUCAS AMADEO. It is very frequently the case that there are no ties of any kind, and the man goes his way and the woman goes her way and the children go their way. Very often a woman has children by several men, to none of whom she was married.

Dr. CARROLL. That is true even in the United States, without reference to marriage.

Mr. AMADEO. This country has broken away from the old restraining influences of religious bodies; morality has never been taught here, and the people have been without any restraining influences either of morality or of religion, and being without such influences the people have acquired habits of vice to which they were at one time strangers.

Dr. CARROLL. To what special reason was it due that the church ceased to exert its influence over the masses in that respect?

Mr. AMADEO. It is a product of the century. This century has been tending more and more to free thought in religious matters. In countries where the church has an iron grip on the people, and at the same time teaches them morality, the masses have not degenerated much, but in this country, where the church has to a large extent lost its grip because of the degeneracy of the times and because morality was never taught, the masses have degenerated. The movement started with the French Revolution.

Dr. CARROLL. But the church has never ceased its teachings respecting marriage. It has always, on the contrary, frowned on such relations as exist here between many of the people.

Mr. AMADEO. Fifteen or twenty years ago living in concubinage was punished by law and by the church; but as during the time since then the imported priests have been of the worst description, they have relaxed their attention in that direction, and the municipal government has taken no cognizance of it.

Dr. CARROLL. What punishments did municipal governments mete out for such offenses?

Mr. AMADEO. The church used to denounce persons living in that condition to the municipality, and the municipality used to oblige them to marry and legitimatize their families.

Dr. CARROLL. I would like to ask what special disadvantages do the children that come from these relations, and are recognized as illegitimate, stand under before the law.

Mr. AMADEO. In the first place, they do not inherit, but under a new statute, if they are recognized by the parents or by the father, they do inherit to a certain extent.

Dr. CARROLL. What provision, if any, should be made under the new government respecting these classes? Should they be legitimized or should the law really take no cognizance of the matter?

Mr. AMADEO. That must in no way be done. It would be to put a premium on illegitimacy, and it is necessary that the family should be constituted legally, either by the church or by the state.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it be well to have a law that where persons who have lived together shall marry their children already born should be legitimized?

Mr. AMADEO. That is now the law.

REASONS FOR DECLINE IN MARRIAGE.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN GERMAN, P. R., *January 26, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. I notice from the statistics of marriage in this district, just handed me, that there has been a decrease in the last few years in the number of marriages. What is the cause of it?

Mr. ACOSTA (mayor). The general misery of the people. There was so much of it that no one would take on further responsibility.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the outlook, then, for your future population?

Mr. ACOSTA. They get married on their own account now. They find it cheaper and more convenient.

Dr. CARROLL. How much does it cost to get married?

Mr. ACOSTA. It used to cost \$12 or \$16, but was not supposed to cost anything. If persons wanted to be married at night, they had to pay, but not if married in the daytime. To-day the priests charge because they have no salaries, but, as formerly, do not charge anything in the daytime.

Dr. CARROLL. Have there been any civil marriages here?

Mr. ACOSTA. Four or five in the last few days.

Dr. CARROLL. How much does that cost?

Mr. ACOSTA. Eight or ten dollars.

Dr. CARROLL. Has that always been the fee charged?

Mr. ACOSTA. Every marriage costs, if performed during office hours, from \$4 to \$6, but at night they have to pay more.

Dr. CARROLL. What do the clergy charge now?

Mr. ACOSTA. According to the ability to pay.

Dr. CARROLL. Were there any civil marriages before the 1st of December last?

Mr. ACOSTA. When the civil-marriage law was first introduced here there were seven couples who took advantage of the law. These civil marriages took place only because the church put an impediment in the way. The people as a whole are not accustomed to civil marriage. In one case the parties were too nearly related, and the priest asked \$50 to remove the difficulty. As they did not wish to pay that amount, they got married civilly.

ECCLESIASTICAL AND CIVIL MARRIAGE.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

HUMACAO, P. R., *February 1, 1899.*

Mr. JOAQUIN MASFERRER, mayor of Humacao, and Mr. SALVADOR FULLADOSA, judge of first instance and instruction:

Dr. CARROLL. Have there been any civil marriages here?

Mr. MASFERRER. Very few.

Dr. CARROLL. In case of civil marriage is it required that the parties to the marriage shall present their baptismal certificates?

Mr. MASFERRER. Yes.

Mr. FULLADOSA. According to the present law, those who wish to be married civilly have to deny that they are Catholics.

Dr. CARROLL. I want to get at the facts in regard to civil marriage, with a view to having it made open to all who wish to be married that way. I am told that it is the custom in some places for the curé to charge a considerable sum to get a certificate in such cases.

Mr. FULLADOSA. The charge is 1 peso. That is one of the rights of the church. They have charge of the records, and charge 1 peso for making a copy.

Dr. CARROLL. Why is it necessary to have baptismal certificates in order to marry two persons?

Mr. FULLADOSA. To enable the official marrying them to ascertain for certain the ages of the contracting parties and whose children they are.

Dr. CARROLL. Age generally speaks for itself.

Mr. FULLADOSA. Also to show whether or not they are related within the prohibited degrees of consanguinity.

Dr. CARROLL. The church can marry or refuse to marry whom it will, but the state has its own rules of consanguinity and there will be no appeal to any ecclesiastical authorities as to questions of that kind.

Mr. FULLADOSA. The law as it exists at present does not allow cousins to marry; consequently, if cousins wish to marry here, they have to pay heavily for a dispensation. There has been no modification of that law. In the civil register we have a record of births, deaths, and marriages, and certificates can be obtained there if the date is subsequent to 1884, that being the year in which the civil register was instituted, so that persons born since 1884 do not have to go to the curé for a certificate of birth.

Dr. CARROLL. Why would not a declaration of the time of birth, witnessed by persons who are cognizant of the fact, be sufficient for civil marriage?

Mr. FULLADOSA. That is done here by what is called an expediente.

Dr. CARROLL. I am asking with a view to an order making that sufficient. Such an order would render civil marriage free in fact as well as in name.

Mr. FULLADOSA. That would be a good reform.

Dr. CARROLL. I suppose the great majority of people wish to be married under church auspices, but some prefer civil marriage, and if the church lays any obstacle in their way it should be changed.

Mr. FULLADOSA. To-day the women are most opposed to innovations; men accept innovations very easily, but as soon as all hindrances are removed I think everybody will accept the new order.

Dr. CARROLL. Very often people fail to get their rights except

through competition, and if civil marriage is made free the church will remove the obstacles, as it will desire to marry more than the civil justice.

Mr. FULLADOSA. Very likely.

VIEW OF A PRIEST.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

GUAYAMA, P. R., *February 3, 1899.*

Father MONTANES:

Dr. CARROLL. I want to ask a few questions with regard to the subject of marriage, which is an extremely important subject in this country.

Father MONTANES. I consider it of immense moment, as concubinage is a sore in the country, and is putting an end to family relations.

Dr. CARROLL. Everywhere I have gone I have received testimony to the effect that the failure of many people to marry is not due to their unwillingness to marry, but is due to the obstacles which the church lays in their way. It is asserted by them that the poor people are unable to pay the fees which are necessary in order to have a religious marriage.

Father MONTANES. The Free Thinkers mostly have told you that. It is not true. It is true that there are certain exigencies, but that does not depend on the priest, but on canonical regulations. For example, they have to present their baptismal certificate so as to show their age, if they have been born in a different district; then they have to produce the consent of the parents, according to their age; then they have to satisfy the priest as to their knowledge of Catholic doctrine, so as to enable him to know whether they are in a fit state to enter into Catholic marriage; then the bans have to be proclaimed three successive Sundays; then they exact the confession, as the Catholic religion considers marriage a sacrament. They have to confess to prepare themselves, and this constitutes the great obstacle with the Free Thinkers, so much so that several have married civilly, so as not to have to confess. These are the obstacles. If the parties seeking marriage are related, they have to get a dispensation from the bishop. The bishop can charge them or not, as he sees fit.

Dr. CARROLL. The poor people complain of the money it costs; not of other obstacles.

Father MONTANES. It costs them now because we have no other means of living; but before we charged them nothing for any of the sacraments. Now that our salaries have been taken away, we have to have some means of livelihood.

Dr. CARROLL. I had a great deal of testimony from persons who said they had paid considerable fees, and had to pay them in order to be married through the church.

Father MONTANES. In Guayama you can ask the people, one by one, and you will not find one who has been charged. I have been here fourteen years and have never charged a marriage fee, and I am not the only one. Unfortunately, there have been exceptions to this rule; there have been those who have charged.

Dr. CARROLL. It will be the policy of the new government to make the way to marriage of persons who are entitled to marry as easy as

possible, and try to persuade those who are living in concubinage to contract marriage, if not by church rites, then by civil rites. I want to ask if it is true, as I have heard, that such civil marriages have been denounced from the pulpit of this church as not marriages at all, but simply as concubinage, and that persons contracting such marriage have been threatened with excommunication?

Father MONTANES. They are considered by the church as living in public concubinage, not because we may think so, but because the Pope, who is our chief, has so commanded. You must understand that all Christians, not only Catholics, but also Protestants, we consider under the Pope's order, because we look upon Protestants as forming a part of our church who have simply seceded from it. The Catholic who marries civilly is not considered out of the church, but is considered an apostate, except he repents. He can not be conceded Catholic burial or any of the other rites.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the attitude of the church toward those who do not marry at all, but live together in concubinage?

Father MONTANES. The Catholic Church has its rules about that, but the number living in concubinage is so great that the rules have not been applied. Most of these people, before they die, receive the sacraments and so show themselves repentant.

Dr. CARROLL. It seems very strange to Americans, who are shocked to find the scandalous state of things down here—so many living together without any contract of marriage at all—that the church in its attitude should seem to favor those who live without marriage at all, and to denounce in its offices those who contract civil marriage. It seems to us better that there should be civil marriage than no marriage at all.

Father MONTANES. No; there is this immense difference, that he who lives in concubinage commits no other sin than having unlawful connection with a woman, whereas he who lives in civil marriage has committed the tremendous crime of apostasy of faith. Catholics consider faith above morals.

Dr. CARROLL. I am afraid, reverend father, that those of your own church in the United States would not agree with you upon this point. I am sure Father Sherman would take a far different view, and while he would hold to the necessity of religious marriage—and I will say that the great majority of American people are married that way—still he would say it would be better for people to have a civil contract of marriage and live together in that way than to live together without any marriage.

Father MONTANES. Yes; in the United States that may be, because in countries which are non-Catholic and do not accept the Council of Trent the marriage system is different. In Catholic countries a marriage which is not celebrated by the parish priest in the presence of two witnesses is illegal, whereas I understand that in England and the United States that is not the case.

Dr. CARROLL. But I am speaking of the attitude of the Catholics in the United States.

Father MONTANES. As regards faith, it is the same; but as regards rules, it is different. The Pope could issue an edict that a certain form was valid in one part of the world, and a different form was valid in another part. Father Sherman would have to do the same here, because all Catholics in every part of the world have to conform to the mandates of the Pope. The civil law requires that after all the steps have been taken for civil marriage the municipal judge shall name

a priest to be present, but he doesn't do it. The municipal judge has put obstacles in the way of civil marriage. Formerly the certificate of marriage issued by the church was valid in any part of the world, but since they got, after a great deal of difficulty, a concession uniting civil and religious marriage, there has been no end of trouble. They are asking still more—that the certificate of the priest shall not be valid, but only that of the civil register.

OBSTACLES TO MARRIAGE.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

GUAYAMA, P. R., *February 3, 1899.*

DR. CARROLL. Have there been any civil marriages in Guayama?

MR. VERGNE (clerk to municipal judge). There have been a few. There have been none since the American invasion. Such marriages could only take place between non-Catholics.

DR. CARROLL. In such cases do you require an expediente?

MR. VERGNE. Yes. The expediente covers the baptismal certificate, consent of the parents, certification of the civil status of the parties contracting, and the petition of the parties.

MR. DOMINGUEZ (mayor of Guayama). I wish to call your attention, as special commissioner, to the importance of introducing the civil marriage system of the United States as soon as possible. The state in which the people of the rural districts live constitutes a sore on the civilization of Porto Rico. We want the right to marry people without any papers of any description.

DR. CARROLL. That is just why I want to get these facts preparatory to making recommendations for the purpose of simplifying the marriage law and rendering it free from any great amount of expense.

MR. DOMINGUEZ. A priest has declared from the pulpit here that civil marriage is concubinage, and they excommunicate from the church all persons contracting civil marriage as if they were under a curse from heaven. By this means they prevent the poor people from marrying except by the church, which means \$10 or \$12 for the priest.

DR. CARROLL. Do they denounce those who live in concubinage, without any marriage at all?

MR. DOMINGUEZ. They smooth over that as much as they can.

DR. CARROLL. What does it cost usually to have an expediente for civil marriage prepared?

MR. DOMINGUEZ. From \$8 to \$10. The priests put all sorts of obstacles in the way of granting the baptismal certificate to persons who wish to marry civilly.

DR. CARROLL. I have had much testimony on that point, and I want to hear all that is to be said.

MR. DOMINGUEZ. As the civil register dates from 1885, everybody at present must go to the priest for the baptismal certificate. It should be allowed alcaldes, municipal judges, and other judges to perform marriage in order to spread marriages over the island.

DR. CARROLL. I intend to recommend to General Henry that he issue an order making the way to civil marriage an open one to all persons and free so far as possible from cost.

MR. DOMINGUEZ. Such an order should allow alcaldes, notaries, and all persons with magistrates' powers to perform the marriage ceremony. I could marry 400 people here who are to-day living together without

any ceremony of marriage. I will do it, and it will not cost anybody a cent. More than that, I will send police out to get the people to come into town to be married, so that they will know that they can be married. If you will oblige the civil register to inscribe the marriages that I celebrate, I will celebrate them.

DOCUMENTS OF A CIVIL MARRIAGE.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

ARROYO, P. R., *February 3, 1899.*

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE and the PRIEST.

Dr. CARROLL. Have there been any civil marriages contracted here?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. Four since July.

Dr. CARROLL. What cost is incurred in civil marriage?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. From \$4 to \$6 for the expediente.

Dr. CARROLL. What is an expediente?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. It is the document in which the parties give an account of themselves and ask permission to marry.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you require couples to present baptismal certificates?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. What does it cost to obtain these baptismal certificates?

The PRIEST OF ARROYO. It costs a dollar, as provided by the law; but if the judge wants a certificate for use in criminal proceedings, it is furnished him without any charge.

Dr. CARROLL. There is a civil register, I understand, of births, deaths, and marriages.

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. It is claimed in some cases that excessive charges are made in giving these certificates, so as to prevent the carrying out of civil marriages.

The PRIEST. The price is fixed by the ecclesiastical law at \$1.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. I was lately charged a dollar and a half.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it a dollar for the man and a dollar for the woman—that is, \$2 for each couple?

The PRIEST. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. It costs \$4 additional for this document?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Why is it necessary to have so many documents?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. The existing law requires it.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it not be better to have the existing law modified so as to make it easier for people to get married?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. It would be.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. I was recently commissioned by the judge to look into the matter of the records. I went to the civil register and was struck by the immense majority of deaths over births recorded there. I applied to the priest, and he said that many are baptized in the church who are not inscribed in the civil register.

The PRIEST. The books are open to anybody who wants to look at them.

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. According to the present law, when the period of forty days' passes after the birth occurs, and the birth is

not inscribed in the civil register, the parent has to form an expediente and pay a fine, and as they don't want to pay the fine they avoid having the birth recorded at all. There are mothers who bear children who have not a cent and can not pay the fine. If it were not for this fine, everybody in the island could be inscribed.

The expediente necessary for civil marriages consists of, first, a birth certificate; second, the document asking permission to be married; third, the parents' permission to allow their children to be married; fourth, a document from the judge in which he says he knows of no former marriage of the interested party; fifth, a restatement of intention to marry; sixth, the bans which have been published; seventh, a document stating that the former document has been published; eighth, the document in which the celebration of the marriage is set forth; ninth, the bans which were posted on the wall.

(An expediente of this kind was shown to the Commissioner. It consisted of 22 pages; comprising 14 documents.)

Dr. CARROLL. When I first came to the island I had a long interview with the capitular vicar of Porto Rico, in which he touched, among other subjects, upon the matter of morality in Porto Rico. He said it was greatly to be regretted that there were so few marriages.

The purpose of the present government of Porto Rico is to facilitate marriage, and if it is true that the church, in some places, puts impediments in the way of marriage by requiring large fees, then it is proper that there should be civil marriage. It seems now that there are impediments in the way of civil marriage. In Humacao I was informed that in a marriage between a lieutenant and a native lady the price demanded by the priest in charge there was 100 pesos; that objection was made to that amount, with the result that the amount was gradually brought down to 65 pesos.

The PRIEST. The present ecclesiastical law requires the priest to see that the two parties contracting marriage have been baptized, and they charge only \$1 for that. There is a similar charge for the proclamation of the bans, and if they are married at 7 in the morning the marriage is performed free. Persons who wish to be married at inconvenient hours have to arrange for it, and have to pay \$16, or one ounce of gold.

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. Civil marriage can be effected at any hour the couple desire.

Dr. CARROLL. I understand that the fashionable hour for a marriage in Porto Rico is in the evening, and that the poor people like to be married at the time other people are married.

The PRIEST. The morning hour is fixed by the ecclesiastical government to allow parties marrying to receive the benefit of all the sacraments first, and if they marry at a late hour at night, or other hour which is not convenient for them to take part in all the ceremonies required by the superior church government, they pay something for it. These gentlemen are all residents of this town and know what has been the administration of the priest who is now here.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. The general rule here was for both poor and rich to get married at night.

Dr. CARROLL. In that case would it not be well for the church to change its rule and follow the wishes of the people? Of course the church ought to marry the people.

The PRIEST. These things are fixed on superior orders and we obey them. My books are open to inspection, and I invite inspection to see if they are not kept as they should be.

WHY SO MANY AVOID MARRIAGE.

[Hearing at the alcaidia, evening session, before the United States Commissioner.]

AIBONITO, P. R., *February 6, 1899.*

Mr. ———, municipal judge; Mr. MANUEL CABALLER, mayor of Aibonito; and Father MANUEL QUINTANA, parochial priest:

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any people living here in the marital relation without marriage?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. Very many. From July up to date I have not registered a single marriage in the whole district.

Dr. CARROLL. Why is it that they prefer to live in that relation without marriage?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. I will inform you about that. We are all Catholics up to the present, but the church has put obstacles in the way of marriage. When couples go to be married, the priest says you must pay so much for this document, and so much for the other, and if the peasant wants to be married at night, according to the custom of the country, as he usually does, the priest charges him for that also. As municipal judge, I charge for drawing up the expediente. I charge because I have no salary.

Dr. CARROLL. How much do you charge for it?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. A dollar and a quarter for each party; that is, \$2.50 for both. As I have said, I think the reason so many people live together without marriage is because of the charge made by the church; but as the priests receive no salary now, I hardly see how they can do otherwise.

Mr. CABALLER. I think the main cause is not the fault of the priest here, but of the superior ecclesiastical authorities, because in the country districts most of the people are related to each other. If they want to get married, they must get over that obstacle of relationship by forming an expediente and getting permission from the high ecclesiastical authorities, who charge considerable sums for the requisite permission.

Father QUINTANA. I protest against what the municipal judge has said—that I charge for publishing the bans. In the twenty-six years that I have been here I have never charged anything for publishing bans and have always married for nothing when I have been able to do so; that is, when there were no obstacles calling for special dispensation. I have even gone so far as to spend money to enable the parties to dress sufficiently well to come to the church to get married. As regards marrying them at night, it is true I have charged for that, but a small amount as compared with what is charged in other parishes. I charge from \$8 to \$10.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you charge for giving baptismal certificates?

Father QUINTANA. Yes; \$1.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you always charged that?

Father QUINTANA. Only since my salary was cut off.

Dr. CARROLL (to the municipal judge). What do you charge as a civil fee for the birth record?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. Nothing.

A VOICE. Half a dollar.

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. The person who registers a birth is under the obligation of making a written statement, witnessed by two persons, to the effect that the child is the son or daughter, as the case may be, of such and such persons. The clerk usually makes a charge of half a dollar for this.

MR. CABALLER. As the municipal judges and their secretaries have no salaries, they try by other means in their power to earn a dollar decently. The clerk of the justice has a printed form, and when a countryman comes to inscribe the birth of a child they tell him he has to pay half a dollar, without giving any reason whatever.

DR. CARROLL. The better way would be to have a salary for the judge and secretary and abolish all fees.

MR. CABALLER. I think so. I think that would be best for the country.

DR. CARROLL. I desire to ask Father Quintana a question or two, with his permission. Of course you consider that persons living together in the marital relation, without marriage, and raising families is very bad. Have you taken occasion to exhort your people as to the importance of having marriage celebrated?

FATHER QUINTANA. Yes; very much.

DR. CARROLL. If a great number of such persons are restrained from marrying on account of the fees, would it not be well for the sake of the church and for the sake of morality to marry them without charging them anything?

FATHER QUINTANA. I will marry them for nothing. I have always been disposed to do so and will do so now; but they prefer to live in a state of concubinage.

DR. CARROLL. It will be the policy of the American Government to facilitate in every possible way the contracting of marriage bonds; and if there are any difficulties in the way of civil marriage, the Government will, I think, remove those difficulties by making civil marriage easy and costless.

FATHER QUINTANA. We will do the same as to marriage.

DR. CARROLL. If that were generally known in this community, would not many couples present themselves to you for marriage?

FATHER QUINTANA. The whole town knows it, and I have preached it openly.

DR. CARROLL. The mayor of Guayama told me that if he had the power to celebrate marriage, he would do so free, and could marry 400 couples.

THE MUNICIPAL JUDGE. I will undertake to present 100 couples to-morrow if they can be married free. Our laws require us to announce the bans three times; and unless that is removed, we would have to observe it.

DR. CARROLL. That would not be an obstacle, would it?

FATHER QUINTANA. According to the civil law, they also have to proclaim, and if there is any relationship, they also have to apply to headquarters to get a dispensation. We haven't the laws here that they have in France permitting people to marry civilly and then by the church.

DR. CARROLL. If this gentleman (the municipal judge) will clear the way by proclaiming the bans and the couples are not prohibited from marrying by reason of relationship, will you marry them free?

FATHER QUINTANA. I have to make the proclamations in the Catholic way.

THE MUNICIPAL JUDGE. I can give the Father a list of the people who want to have the bans proclaimed. He can then proclaim the bans, and those who really want to be married can be married, and those who will not need not.

FATHER QUINTANA. I think the judge is not competent to force people to get married. If they will not get married, no one can force them to.

Dr. CARROLL. The judge does not propose to force them.

Father QUINTANA. All right; but I will examine the people to see if they are really willing. If they are not, I will send them away.

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. I will call on them and say, "You are living in a state of concubinage. Would you not like to legitimize your children?"

Father QUINTANA. I would marry them immediately if I could dispense with the proclamations.

Dr. CARROLL. Suppose the capitular vicar gives you the power to do that?

Father QUINTANA. I would do it at once. Send me power to allow them to marry without proclamations of any sort. Up to the present the people have shown themselves unwilling to be married civilly. They want to be married by the church.

Dr. CARROLL. And I think the church should seek means of having them married.

Father QUINTANA. I think so, too. I don't wish for anything else than to have such a commission. I hope they will be willing to be married. I have always been preaching to them that they ought to get married, but they have hitherto preferred to live in concubinage.

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. As regards civil marriage, I am willing to marry people without any cost whatever.

Father QUINTANA. As regards the church, I stand in the same position.

BETTER LAWS DESIRED.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

COAMO, P. R., February 6, 1899.

Dr. CARROLL. Have there been any civil marriages in this district?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. There were four or five some years ago.

Dr. CARROLL. Have there been none recently?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. No.

Dr. CARROLL. What is necessary in order to contract civil marriage?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. The parties must renounce the Catholic religion, for one thing.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. No; I think that is not true.

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. Yes, it is true.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you had any notice of an order modifying that provision?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. No.

Dr. CARROLL. In order to perform a civil marriage you require an expediente, do you not?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. What papers constitute that expediente?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. The petition of the contracting parties. The edict is published eight days twice. On the termination of the bans, if there are no parties opposing the marriage, it is celebrated. If there is relationship between the parties the minister of justice has to be applied to for a dispensation. The expediente must also have the consent of the father and mother, although the contracting parties may be above the legal age. If the father should refuse consent and the parties are above legal age, the judge may give consent within three months.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the average cost of these expedientes?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. Nothing at all.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there no fees charged for the expediente?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. A fee of 40 cents is charged for the inscription after the marriage is celebrated.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the papers constituting the expediente prepared without cost?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. We can not collect anything.

Dr. CARROLL. But you do, don't you?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. It is natural that the contracting parties should make some present.

Dr. CARROLL. But you have had only a very few marriages of that kind, I understand. Are there many people living in the marriage state without having had a religious or civil marriage performed?

(There was a general chorus of "Many, many," from those present at the hearing in response to this question.)

Dr. CARROLL. What is the reason for it?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. The reason is the opposition of the priests and the obstacles they put in the way of people getting married. For instance, a dollar for the clerical notary, a dollar for the mass, a dollar or more for the priest himself who celebrates the marriage, and if two relatives wish to get married, they often have to pay thirty or forty dollars to purchase a dispensation. Moreover, the priests teach that civil marriage is the same as heresy, and peasants do not get married civilly for fear of religious consequences. The priests charge according to the position of the parties seeking marriage and according to the hour at which the marriage is celebrated.

Dr. CARROLL. Then fees have only been charged since the American occupation?

AN ELDERLY GENTLEMAN PRESENT. They have been charged all my life—as far back as I can remember.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. Another reason, which I consider the principal one, is the lack of education among the women. They are not educated and have no moral force of character, and consequently are easily persuaded into living that way.

Dr. CARROLL. In these cases where people live together without marriage are they not generally true to each other?

(There were a number who answered in the affirmative, and they seemed to express the unanimous opinion of the many.)

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. This state should not be looked upon as one of prostitution.

Dr. CARROLL. If civil marriage were made free and easy, would people generally avail themselves of it?

(This question was answered by a general chorus of "Yes.")

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. The difficulty here about civil marriage is the fear entertained by a great many people that when they die they will not be buried in consecrated ground.

Dr. CARROLL. What would be the attitude of the church toward these civil marriages, probably?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. In my own house a priest who was fond of acts of charity had an altar erected and married eighteen or twenty couples there.

Colonel SANTIAGO. I think that the present state of affairs will continue here until the rigid laws of the United States on this subject are brought into force. Rigid laws in defense of women are required. The laws here do not protect the women, and such laws as there are

are not enforced in the judicial offices. If free marriage were introduced here, I venture to say that everybody would take advantage of it. There would of course be some exceptions to this, because under the lax laws here, which have favored persons in doing what they wanted to, some have taken women that they could not bring into their own social life, and consequently would not marry them if they had the opportunity to do so.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the state of the law with respect to children of these illegitimate unions?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. They are registered in the name of the parent who brings them, or in the name of both parents, if both are present.

Dr. CARROLL. The question I had in view was what disadvantages such children stand in under the law. For instance, the law of inheritance.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. They can only inherit the fifth part of the estate. Should the child be declared the child of a mother having property, he has equal rights with other children; but being declared the child of a father having property, he inherits only the fifth part. The child can be acknowledged by either parent as his or her child, but after the child has arrived at the age of maturity he has to give his consent to such recognition to make it legal.

Dr. CARROLL. If recognized by both parents, does it make him legitimate in the eyes of the law?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. Yes; with a very slight difference.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *February 10, 1899.*

The Very Rev. Father JUAN PERPIÑA É PIBERNAT, capitular vicar of the diocese of Porto Rico:

Dr. CARROLL. At Aibonito, in the interview with the alcalde and others, the priest was also present, and the question came up, as it has in other places, about matrimony, and I wish now to bring that question to your attention in case you care to hear it. I called for the number of civil marriages that had been celebrated there in the last few years, and it appeared that there had been only a few of them, and they told me that a large number of couples were living together without any sacrament of marriage whatever.

Father PERPIÑA. That is false.

Dr. CARROLL. The question arose there about obtaining dispensations for the marriage of about 40 couples in that district. The priest said he would gladly marry these people free if he were allowed by the authorities to do so.

Father PERPIÑA. How could that man have made such a false statement?

Dr. CARROLL. There are people living together who are not married.

Father PERPIÑA. What is the dispensation required for?

Dr. CARROLL. The priest said that one of the obstacles was that some of them were related and that he could not, under ecclesiastical laws, marry them without a dispensation. He said that he would gladly marry the couples if the ecclesiastical authorities in San Juan would permit him to do so.

Father PERPIÑA. The dispensations come from Rome, and that is why they cost money. The church tries to place an obstacle in the way of relatives marrying, so as not to make it a common occurrence; but for poor people who are not relatives no charge is made. For the rich we charge; why shouldn't we?

Dr. CARROLL. They stated that in a country district like Aibonito most people were related, and that the law of the church made it difficult for these people to marry, and therefore they were living together without marriage.

Father PERPIÑA. It is false.

Dr. CARROLL. The priest told me so.

Father PERPIÑA. It is false. I am going to write to the priest that he is not to tell lies. For each one they would have to make an expediente; they have got to go into particulars before dispensations could be granted. Then they have to take it before the notary, and they will have to pay something for it. I have expenses here which I have to cover.

Dr. CARROLL. Every individual case, thou, would have to stand by itself?

Father PERPIÑA. Each person would have to present his genealogical tree, so that we could see whether the dispensation could be given; but I want you to understand that dispensations are never refused to anybody for want of money. I am astonished that that priest has made that observation, as he has never sent a request for a dispensation since I have been here. Those dispensations or applications should go to Rome; if they go to Rome, they would cost \$20 more. Sixteen to eighteen dollars is the cost of a dispensation here. The most expensive are those dispensing with the bans. In Rome it would cost them from \$100 to \$200.

Dr. CARROLL. I found so many people living in the various municipalities without marriage that it seemed to me it constituted a case to which some sort of remedy should be applied, and it will be my duty to recommend that some way out of this difficulty be found, and, if in no other way, it should be found through the establishment of civil marriage on an easy and free basis.

Father PERPIÑA. The Spanish Government never assisted the church in any way in effecting marriages. The Spanish Government could have prevented this state of concubinage if it had had a mind to.

Dr. CARROLL. In what way?

Father PERPIÑA. By punishing the parties. I ask, how did the Roman emperors prevent it? By making marriage compulsory and punishing people who lived in concubinage.

Dr. CARROLL. Has the church no punishment for concubinage?

Father PERPIÑA. Spiritual punishment only. All those who die in that state are refused burial in consecrated ground.

Dr. CARROLL. Are they not absolved if they confess their sins? I am told they usually receive the sacrament of extreme unction and die good Catholics.

Father PERPIÑA. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Well, that is not a punishment, if they know that at the last they can confess and be forgiven.

Father PERPIÑA. The church would not condemn anybody. What are we going to do? Can the church allow them to be damned? If they made me civil governor here, I would prevent every case of immoral living. In the time of the Cæsars there were two laws, one which gave premiums to persons who got married at the right age for

marriage and the other which punished persons who did not get married at the right age. Why didn't the Spanish Government have similar laws, punishing concubinage? If the United States will help the Catholic Church in doing away with concubinage, it can be done away with.

Dr. CARROLL. I don't know how we can do it except by opening the way to civil marriage and abolishing the heavy requirements that are now laid upon civil marriage, so that persons who are living together as man and wife may, without great cost or any cost at all practically, have a civil marriage performed.

Father PERPIÑA. From our point of view, civil marriage is concubinage.

Dr. CARROLL. It is not the point of view of the United States at all nor of the law generally. Nevertheless, the great majority of marriages in the United States are performed by ministers—religious marriages, Catholic and Protestant.

Father PERPIÑA. The Catholic Church can not allow civil marriage; it does allow, and even advises, civil register of marriages. Catholics when they marry civilly are from that moment non-Catholics. I wish you to understand that the Catholic Church does not wish that for lack of money there should be concubinage; if the people are able to pay anything, they should do so, because priests can not live on air.

Dr. CARROLL. That is true, and yet one of your priests asked an American lieutenant, who married a Porto Rican girl in Humacao, \$100, and the lieutenant finally got him to accept \$65.

Father PERPIÑA. Particular cases don't establish general rules.

Dr. CARROLL. It is only fair to say that they have told me the same story in many places—that the charges made were obstacles, and chief obstacles, in the way of getting married.

Father PERPIÑA. It is not true. They wish to live in that state; they don't wish to marry. If they wish to get married, let them prepare their expediente with the terms required, and they can be. As a proof that we don't charge much, I have never been able to get rich. My income is about \$50 a month, and never more than \$100. At present the ayuntamientos are bad ones, put in by Muñoz Rivera. They are bad, very bad, and they are working against the church.

OBSTACLES TO CIVIL MARRIAGE.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

CAGUAS, P. R., *February 27, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. Have there been any civil marriages here within the last few years?

Municipal Judge AVAREZ. Very few. A great obstacle to civil marriage has been that the civil register has been in existence only eight years, and persons wishing to marry civilly have had to get their certificate of baptism from the church, and the church has put every possible obstacle in their way.

Dr. CARROLL. What are those obstacles?

Judge AVAREZ. Refusing to give the certificate except upon the payment of large sums of money. As the law requires the production of this certificate or the certificate of a physician, they frequently are able to compel payment.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the largest fee you have known to be charged?

Judge AVAREZ. Fifty dollars, and even that with difficulty.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there many persons living here together in the relation of husband and wife without marriage?

Judge AVAREZ. Quite a large number.

Dr. CARROLL. Why is that?

Judge AVAREZ. Owing to ignorance.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any obstacles in the way of church marriage?

Judge AVAREZ. The priests, when they hear of people living in that condition, should call the people and counsel them, advising that they should get married and leave the state of concubinage.

Dr. CARROLL. I would like to ask the mayor a single question. I understand there are a great many people who are living together who are not married. Why, Mr. Mayor, do they live in that state? Is it because of any obstacles in the way of matrimony?

Mayor SOLA. It is owing to two reasons—want of education and want of money.

Dr. CARROLL. Does it cost much to get married?

Mayor SOLA. Not a great deal; but 6 or 7 pesos is a great deal for poor people. The priests to-day are asking as much as 3 pesos for a baptismal certificate.

Dr. CARROLL. Suppose the law were changed so as to allow all persons, without regard to religion, to avail themselves of the privilege of civil marriage, and suppose that alcaldes and municipal judges were empowered to perform the ceremony, and suppose it were a provision of law that no charge should be made for such marriages; that no previous notice should be required; that certificates of consent and age should be required only of minors; that a marriage certificate should be required to be given, stating all the facts of the case and executed by the person performing the marriage ceremony in duplicate, one copy given to the contracting parties and one copy sent to the municipal judge for inscription and filing—would that facilitate civil marriage, in your judgment?

Judge AVAREZ. Very greatly; it would be a good reform.

Dr. CARROLL. I have recommended that such an order should be issued by General Henry. It provides that the marriage certificate shall give the name and address of each of the contracting parties, the names and addresses of their parents, as far as possible, and the places and date of birth. If the parties are minors, the fact that permission was given by a parent or guardian or relative, the certificate to be signed by two witnesses as well as by the contracting parties; a certificate also for minors, stating also their names and ages and the permission of father, guardian, or relative.

The SECRETARY TO THE MUNICIPAL JUDGE. Then it will be necessary to form an expediente.

Dr. CARROLL. No; the minister of justice will furnish these blanks to the secretaries of the municipalities, by whom they will be given to all persons authorized to perform the marriage ceremony; also to those contemplating marriage.

(The books of the judge's secretary were here produced, showing the inscription of births, deaths, and marriages. The commissioner examined the inscription of the death of a person residing in Vega Baja. It was stated that he was a bachelor; then went on to give a description of the people who came to ask for the inscription; then

followed a description of the deceased; then a statement regarding his property and as to his dying intestate, the place where and when buried, and other details. The whole occupied 2 pages.)

Dr. CARROLL. Is this in legal form?

Judge AVAREZ. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Are these books used for that purpose?

Judge AVAREZ. We give a certified copy when wanted.

(The inscription of a birth was examined, which occupied 3 pages of the book.)

Judge AVAREZ. This inscription of birth we have to copy into another book. This second book is unnecessary. We have a pile of them rotting in the vaults.

MORAL EDUCATION NECESSARY.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

CAYEY, P. R., *February 28, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL (to the municipal judge). Have there been any civil marriages here recently?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. Not during the six months that I have been municipal judge here.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the people who are living together as husband and wife generally married?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. There are many who live together without the ceremony.

Dr. CARROLL. Why do they so live?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. I attribute it to the fact that most of these people have very little money, and the priests exact considerable sums to marry them.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the largest sum asked of a couple, to your knowledge, as a marriage fee?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. Sixteen dollars.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. It cost me \$16.

Dr. CARROLL. These large fees have been charged only since the American occupation, I suppose?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. No; before that.

Dr. CARROLL. The capitular vicar said it was against the law of the church and against the law of the land to charge such fees, and that there was no case that he knew of where there had been a fee charged for marriage.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. That is the way history is written.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it true that the priests marry free many poor people who get married in the morning?

Mayor MUÑOZ. Those who get married at the morning mass he usually does not charge anything; those who marry at other times are charged according to their standing.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it not the fashion here to get married in the evening?

Mayor MUÑOZ. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. And the poor want to be married at the same time as others?

Mayor MUÑOZ. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. If the priest marries free of charge in the morning, why don't those who live together and are not married go to him at that time?

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. The people who are living in concubinage don't get married because nobody is married free. They say they don't charge for the marriage ceremony, the joining of hands, but they charge for other things; they charge \$1.25 each for the baptismal certificates, \$1 each for the bans, and 50 cents for the joining of hands. Nobody can be married free.

A LAWYER OF CAVEY. I think that this is not the only reason that the poor do not get married. I believe that owing to the fact that marriage is indissoluble by law the poor people are unwilling to accept the responsibility of keeping a wife and children.

Dr. CARROLL. Do the men often leave the women with whom they have lived in that way? Is it the rule?

The LAWYER. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Then it can not be the reason.

The LAWYER. I believe it is a very logical reason. They don't want to undertake the obligation. There are quite a number of cases.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it the rule here that those who do not get married want the privilege of leaving their families when they get tired of them?

The LAWYER. I think that is the general rule.

Dr. CARROLL. Do the other gentlemen present think so?

[NOTE.—This question was greeted by a general response in the negative by those present.]

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. I think the generality of people who do not marry live in the country districts, and it is for want of education and instruction; but in the towns it is rare to find people who are living in that relation.

ANOTHER GENTLEMAN. Everybody here will agree with me in saying that the reason the people live in the state of concubinage is that the lack of funds prevents them from getting married, and as proof of that, when the bishop pays a pastoral visit and marries for nothing, they come into the towns and get married in great numbers. The civil law of marriage also requires a payment from poor people, and an amount, too, that is not within their power to pay. This is the root of the whole evil.

Dr. CARROLL. If a law were promulgated permitting civil marriage to be performed by the municipal judges, abolishing the need of baptismal certificates and charging no fees—making it absolutely free—is it your opinion that a great many people would come and be married?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. I think so.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think the charge of 1 peso by the municipal judge or alcalde, if he chose to charge it, would be an obstacle?

The MUNICIPAL JUDGE. The civil judge has never charged anything, but couples have been obliged to ask for baptismal certificates, which have cost them \$1.25 each.

Mayor MUÑOZ. I think education would contribute greatly to abolish concubinage. I think, also, that divorce for legitimate reasons should be allowed; marriage should not be indissoluble, as now.

Dr. CARROLL. Your civil code provides for divorce, does it not?

A LAWYER PRESENT. It permits a separation, but not complete divorce.

Dr. CARROLL. Not for adultery?

The LAWYER. Not even for bad treatment.

Mr. LOUIS MUÑOZ. I think that the measure you have just mentioned will go far toward settling the difficulty; but there will be

another difficulty if they do not have to present any document as to the status of the parties. One of the contracting parties might be married already; you would not have anything to prove his freedom to marry. That is the object of the expediente.

Dr. CARROLL. We don't have anything of the kind in the United States, but it is well understood that when a man commits bigamy he is subject to arrest and trial as a criminal, and there is a heavy punishment.

Mr. LUIS MUÑOZ. I think that that is all right. In the Spanish law there is also a criminal responsibility imposed. Under the civil law marriage produces effects, whether legally contracted or not, and this might give rise to trouble.

Dr. CARROLL. I don't see how you can prevent that under any system.

Mr. LUIS MUÑOZ. The Spanish law makes it harder for a man to get married, because he has to prove by document his right to do so. There might be a case of false documents, but it would be rare.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it not better to make it easier to marry for those who have the right than to make it hard for those who abuse it, and have many living together without marriage?

Mr. LUIS MUÑOZ. I think the fee system should be abolished, but I think the people seeking to marry should be obliged to prove their status before the alcalde or judge.

Dr. CARROLL. I have been given to understand that the very fact of requiring so many steps to be taken was one of the obstacles to marriage. I was shown in Arroyo an expediente of 22 pages and 14 documents in one marriage.

Mr. LUIS MUÑOZ. The law could correct that abuse the same as the other.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think that the fee of a dollar would stand in the way of a great many marrying?

Mayor MUÑOZ. No. I am of your opinion that if criminally inclined persons want to get married two or three times they will do so anyway.

VARIOUS REASONS ASSIGNED.

(Hearing before the United States Commissioner.)

PONCE, P. R., *March 3, 1899.*

Mr. ISIDORIO URIATE Y ZALAZER, municipal judge:

Dr. CARROLL. Have there been many civil marriages here?

Mr. URIATE. Very few. I have been in this position since the invasion and was named by General Wilson. I have not celebrated any civil marriages in that time. I was sick five or six days, and there was one civil marriage performed in my absence. I have put that in the notes I will give you.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there many people living together here who are not married?

Mr. URIATE. Yes; quite a few.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the cause of that?

Mr. URIATE. I think it is owing to the poverty of the poor and to the fact that they do not understand their duty to society. They have not much money, and are unable to attend to their education, and know no better. It is not a crime with them. I think it is owing to

slavery also, because it was to the interest of slave owners in the old days to multiply slaves.

Dr. CARROLL. Is this chiefly among the poor people and among the colored people?

Mr. URIATE. White people of the better classes do not suffer from this at all.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think the cost of marriage has anything to do with preventing people from getting married?

Mr. URIATE. Yes; it has a great influence.

Dr. CARROLL. Is ecclesiastical marriage costly?

Mr. URIATE. It is a sort of speculation with the priests. They used to ask fees that would amount to as high as forty or fifty dollars.

Dr. CARROLL. That was before the invasion?

Mr. URIATE. Yes. To-day I think they will marry people for anything they can get, if they see that they have the competition of the civil marriage. If people wanted to get married at 11 o'clock at night the fee was \$35. That was for poor or rich.

Dr. CARROLL. Of course the poor could not pay that?

Mr. URIATE. No; of course not.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it be well, in your judgment, to make civil marriage freer; for instance, to dispense with the baptismal certificate?

Mr. URIATE. Yes; the present law requires, in order to celebrate marriage, that the parties should present their baptismal certificates and certificates showing that they are single, and the church naturally puts all the obstacles it can in the way to giving these certificates.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it not be well to make civil marriage so free that you would require certificates only in the case of minors and the permission of their parents?

Mr. URIATE. Yes; but there is one thing about that. To be able to certify to the age of minors it is necessary to go to the priests; that is the only way they can prove it.

Dr. CARROLL. They need not prove it exactly. They can get a certificate from a physician or some one who knows the age approximately.

Mr. URIATE. Yes; but it could not be done under the law as it exists at present.

Dr. CARROLL. But the law could be changed.

Mr. URIATE. Yes; that would be well. It would give much better results. Every marriage, too, costs from ten to twelve dollars for the expediente, and with great delay also, because the bans have to be posted for fifteen days.

Dr. CARROLL. That is unnecessary, is it not, in the case of persons who have arrived at the age of maturity?

Mr. URIATE. I think that in the city three days would be sufficient, and there need not be public notices published, but only notices in the press for three days.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it necessary to give any notice at all? The man comes to be married, say, is 30 years old and the woman 25. Is it necessary to give to the public any notice that they are going to be married?

Mr. URIATE. It is done with the purpose of not allowing the authorities to be taken by surprise. People might be married who are already married.

Dr. CARROLL. That happens under any law.

Mr. URIATE. According to the Catholic Church, civil marriage is regarded as no marriage at all.

Dr. CARROLL. Births are not fully reported are they?

Mr. URIATE. No; births are not fully inscribed. The law only gives them forty days, and if they do not report within forty days a fine is imposed upon them for their neglect. For this reason they don't present themselves. The mother has to bring the child herself, and in some barrios the road is so bad it is impossible for the mother to bring the child.

Dr. CARROLL. This is not necessary, is it?

Mr. URIATE. I think that the parents should come to the register themselves; but the law only allows forty days, and to make a woman undertake a difficult journey within forty days after giving birth is wrong.

Dr. CARROLL. Would it not be well to allow the comisario, in case the barrio is distant, to send a certificate?

Mr. URIATE. Yes; it would give much better results. I think the comisarios should have registers and send the reports to the municipal judge every fifteen days.

Dr. CARROLL. And the fines should be limited, should they not, so as to encourage women to report their offspring.

Mr. URIATE. It is ridiculous to impose a fine on poor people.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the fine?

Mr. URIATE. I can not say; I think it is left to the discretion of the judge. I have never imposed any.

Dr. CARROLL. It is a dead letter, is it not?

Mr. URIATE. What happens is that the parents make false reports of a child's age. They declare it of less age than it really is, and that may affect its civil rights later on—in case of a legacy, for example. I was sitting yesterday and to-day hearing misdemeanors. I think they ought to be attended to by the mayor. For instance, a boy with candies was told to move on. He would not do so, was arrested, and brought before the municipal judge.

Dr. CARROLL. It seems to me that the municipal judge ought to have a salary.

Mr. URIATE. We receive nothing. I have to attend to the court to the prejudice of my own business.

Dr. CARROLL. The duties of municipal judge in this district must be very onerous.

Mr. URIATE. Yes; there is very much work connected with the office, and in case of necessity the municipal judge has to take the place of the judge of first instance, which puts more work on him.

THE TARIFF OF FEES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

YAUCO, P. R., March 6, 1899.

Mr. TORRES, Mr. MEJIA, and others:

Dr. CARROLL. Have there been any civil marriages in Yauco?

Mr. TORRES. There have been some.

Dr. CARROLL. Very few, I suppose.

Mr. TORRES. Yes, very few.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there many people living together who never had the ceremony of marriage performed?

A GENTLEMAN. Two-thirds of the people here live that way.

Another GENTLEMAN. Not so many as that.

First GENTLEMAN. You go up into the mountains and you will see that it is so.

Mr. CIANCHINI. The proportion stated is a little exaggerated, but I think it amounts to one-half.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the reason for this state of things?

Mr. TORRES. The want of education among the people.

Mr. MEJIA. The priests were accustomed to charge ten or twelve dollars for marriage, and many persons who wished to get married would say, "We will not pay that; we will live together without getting married."

Dr. CARROLL. That charge of fees has been only since the American occupation?

NOTE.—This remark of the commissioner was greeted by a general chorus of "noes."

A GENTLEMAN. Such charges have been made ever since the island was an island.

Dr. CARROLL. It was contrary to law?

A GENTLEMAN. The church had its tariff of fees.

Dr. CARROLL. Yes; but since 1851 all such fees have been abolished.

Mr. MEJIA. If people got married in the daytime the priest did not charge for the ceremony, but he collected for the bans and for the dispensation to marry.

Dr. CARROLL. Why is it that more people do not resort to civil marriages?

Mr. TORRES. The majority of the people are Catholics.

Mr. MEJIA. When people wish to get married civilly they have to go to the priest for their baptismal certificates and he puts every obstacle in the way of giving them and tries to make the people believe that they are committing a sin in getting married that way.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they urge the people to get married?

A GENTLEMAN. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. What objections do the Catholics offer to civil marriage?

A GENTLEMAN. The priests oppose it because they are deprived by it of the money they are able to collect when persons are married under church auspices. They only preach about it in the church, however; not outside.

A GENTLEMAN. If the priests were to marry free of charge, nearly everybody would get married.

Dr. CARROLL. Suppose the power were given to the alcalde and municipal judge to marry people, and that such marriage should be free of charge, and that most of the present requirements should be abolished, would that open the way to civil marriage?

Mr. CIANCHINI. I think the whole root of the trouble is lack of education here.

A GENTLEMAN. I think nearly all of them would marry if the present obstacles were removed; at least 90 per cent would do so.

Dr. CARROLL. It is in contemplation to abolish the provision requiring baptismal certificates and also the provision requiring banns or previous notice; only to require a certificate in the case of minors, stating their ages and the permission of their parents, and to issue a certificate of marriage. Would such a provision as that, in the judgment of the people here, increase civil marriage very much?

(There was an immediate and general response in the affirmative.)

Dr. CARROLL. Is it important that the ceremony should be performed without any charge, or would a charge of 1 peso be proper?

Mr. SANTIAGO VIVALDI. It should be done for nothing. Those half-naked people would not come down to be married if anything were said about cost.

Mr. CIANCHINI. Even a peseta would frighten them away.

Mr. VIVALDI. I think the comisarios and school-teachers should be obliged to spread the notice of such free marriage around, and that the law should oblige people to marry.

CONDITION OF THE LABORING CLASSES.

THE LABORING CLASSES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., November 1, 1898.

FELIX MATOS BERNIER, of Ponce, P. R.:

Dr. CARROLL. What is the social condition of Porto Rico?

Mr. BERNIER. The social state of Porto Rico is a pitiable one, owing to the want of attention under the Spanish authorities and the isolation in which the country people have always lived. It is necessary for the salvation of the workingman of this country that a system of compulsory education should be instituted, but it should be made practicable, so that it can be enforced.

As regards religion, the people are nearly all utterly indifferent. They have never been taught properly religious dogmas, because their education, I think, has not allowed them to grasp the real meaning of religion. I mean that it would have been labor wasted. Very few are fanatical, but all are susceptible of religious instruction.

Dr. CARROLL. I suppose they are all inclined to the Catholic Church?

Mr. BERNIER. They have absolutely no religious criterion; they simply don't care.

Dr. CARROLL. They know nothing of Protestantism, for instance?

Mr. BERNIER. They are susceptible of being molded completely. As a general rule they have ill feelings toward the Catholic Church, which I consider a great advantage in their favor.

Dr. CARROLL. Are they superstitious?

Mr. BERNIER. No; not at all.

There has been a great deal of complaint on the part of the peons because of the wages they have received; but some of this is unreasonable. Many agriculturists have treated their help with fairness. Some of them, it is true, have taken advantage of their ignorance and committed abuses in the payment and treatment of the laborers. The general rate of wages, without regard to the form in which they are paid, has been about 50 centavos a day, and in a great many cases the peons are furnished with houses. In the lowlands in a great many instances owners of sugar estates have paid as low as from 31 to 36 centavos, which I consider unjust, because in the lowlands peons have more needs than those living in the mountains. I think that when the exchange is made the laborer will be perfectly satisfied if he receives 50 cents in the new money and is allowed to share in personal liberties, which for him will be a great event. This question is so

extensive that it is not possible to reduce it to a few remarks. But the real protest of the country as a whole has been against the Spanish institutions in the country—the privileges which have always been conceded to natives of Spain and the assaults and abuses, direct and indirect, with which they have treated the working classes here. The working classes of this country are so submissive and easily satisfied and humble that they could have lived contentedly under almost any other government than that of Spain, whose laws were never carried out as they should have been. I think that the country should have a police force imported from the States while educating certain elements among the young men here to understand their opportunities and duties in that respect.

Dr. CARROLL. What do you think of the civil guard?

Mr. BERNIER. I think that the civil guard should be suppressed and that a new body of comisarios should be created, with a certain number of men under them to protect life and property in their respective districts. For the purpose of this body it would be necessary to choose men of calm judgment, unbiased by any political party. One of the reasons of Spain's failure is that she sent a civil guard here among whom were men who were at the disposition of certain property holders, who made use of them to exercise undue pressure over their workmen for their own private ends.

Dr. CARROLL. Were they not a well-trained body of men?

Mr. BERNIER. In the physical sense of the word they were fine men and well disciplined, but in another sense of the word they were a cancer upon the country.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the unfortunate condition of the laboring classes due to the oppressive power of the few?

Mr. BERNIER. I think it is due, in the first place, to the neglect of the government, which has taken no notice of the working class, and, in the second place, due to the conditions of life under which they live—the want of social privileges. I think it is also due in part to the owners of estates, who have looked upon them simply as instruments of work, but have taken no cognizance of them as human beings.

Dr. CARROLL. I suppose that owners of sugar estates differ—that some have been kind and considerate, while others have been oppressive?

Mr. BERNIER. Yes; some of them have looked after their working-men well.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that a matter, in your judgment, to be remedied by law or by bringing about better conditions?

Mr. BERNIER. To a certain extent it is a matter of legislation, because legislation can bring about better conditions; but it is not a condition that can be legislated for directly.

Dr. CARROLL. What are the hours of labor?

Mr. BERNIER. From the rising to the setting of the sun. The peons themselves say that their hours begin and end with the opening and closing of the cecilianna, a flower that opens and closes with the sun, which is usually understood to mean from 6 to 6. In a few parts of the island the hours of labor are from 6 to 5.

Dr. CARROLL. How long a time are the men allowed at noon?

Mr. BERNIER. From 12 to 1.

Dr. CARROLL. The hours for agricultural laborers in the United States are even longer than those. They begin work sometimes as early as 4 o'clock in the morning.

FOOD OF THE POOR.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 2, 1898.*

Mr. FRANCISCO T. SABAT, deputy collector of customs in San Juan.

Dr. CARROLL. What are the chief kinds of food used?

Mr. SABAT. Fresh meat, wheat bread, dried codfish, rice, beans, all classes of poultry, and all classes of tropical fruits. The poorer classes of the country eat jerked beef, fried plantains, and sweet potatoes; seldom fresh meat. Without exception they all use coffee. Sometimes, in the cold season, instead of taking coffee, they use ginger tea, the root being produced in this country. The people in the cities take more or less the same classes of food—more or less, as people in other countries do.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the principal clothing used in the country?

Mr. SABAT. The country people of the poorer classes, owing to the neglect to which they have always been subject on the part of the government, and also to the effects of slavery, which was abolished in 1873, seldom wear anything but a shirt and a pair of pants made of a mixture of cotton and jute of the cheapest possible description. They rarely wear shoes. They wear straw hats of native manufacture. People in the cities dress as people do in other countries, except that they select as thin materials as can be found.

Dr. CARROLL. In the country most of the children go naked, do they not?

Mr. SABAT. In the country it is more or less customary among the poor people, having little children, to allow the little children to go about without clothing, but it is contrary to law to allow it in the cities. The fact that children are seen in that condition in the cities shows how the essential laws have been neglected.

Dr. CARROLL. What classes of houses are found in the country districts?

Mr. SABAT. The poor people in the country districts make their houses upon four uprights, usually trunks of trees, and cover them outside with dried thatch, roof and all. These houses are almost without furniture, and the people sleep without mattresses of any description. In the city, as well as in the country, with few exceptions, there are few houses which have glass. With glass the houses would be suffocating. The class of persons who are in a good position—that is, not rich, but in moderate circumstances—live well here. In the city and in the rural districts most of the agriculturists who possess any capital have their comfortable houses on their estates, well furnished in proportion to their means; they partake of good food and, in fact, lead quite comfortable lives. It is only the poor people who live as miserably as has just been described.

ARTISANS OF SAN JUAN.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 4, 1898.*

A committee of workmen, representing various gremios, or workmen's societies, of San Juan, called upon the commissioner at his office. The committee consisted of the following-named persons: Santiago

Iglesias, president of the Federation of Gremios of San Juan; Facundo Valencia Ramos, representing the painters; Jose Antonio Gimenez, representing tinsmiths and bookbinders; Jose M. Figueras, representing cigar makers; Rosendo Rivera, representing printers; Estanislao Sesman, representing masons; Hernando Torres, representing bakers; Norberto Quinones, representing dock laborers; Hilario Diaz, representing barbers; Esteban Rivera Nunez, representing shoemakers, and Benigno Lopez Castro, a professor of elementary instruction, representing small planters and day laborers.

Mr. IGLESIAS. I represent specially the gremio of carpenters. To tell you about all the wants and aspirations of my gremio I should have to speak at great length. What I will say is that our chief object has been to obtain for each of its members the greatest amount of education possible and to facilitate the means of using boys, 15 years of age, who wish to enter the workshops. Under the new institutions we shall find this much easier, because we understand that in the United States the greater part of the forces of the Government are directed to the propagation of instruction for its workingmen, and the new form of government will itself take care of that, through municipalities and the insular government. As regards education, we shall not have to give so much attention to that.

As I said before, that is a municipal matter: but, as regards technical instruction, that will occupy our attention more closely, as we have here no huge buildings in the way of factories in which youths can acquire such an education, and, unfortunately, tradesmen and artisans are obliged to work in competition with each other. We shall have to direct our attention especially to the economic side of our trades, as that has been at a very low ebb. Wages have ruled from \$1 to \$1.50 a day. There have been some exceptions of \$3 for a day's work. I am speaking for my own gremio. The average wage has been \$1 or \$1.25. I am sorry to say that but few members of our gremio have had an opportunity of acquiring a thorough knowledge of the trade.

Dr. CARROLL. There is, then, a considerable amount of unskilled labor in your gremio?

Mr. IGLESIAS. From an artistic point of view, they have not acquired the excellence they should have, but most of their work does not require a great deal of artistic excellence. At any rate, the work they have done has yielded a great profit to those for whom they have worked, and has always been worth more than they have received. The work required in this country is of a solid character. We are anxious to obtain technical schools for the broader education of our members, and we also require that public buildings shall be built in such a way that they will stimulate workmen to excel in their particular branch and shall not be made the instruments of speculation for the persons having them in charge.

As regards the hours of labor, we require that they should be shortened, because in this climate, where the sun undermines a man's constitution, we have been working ten and eleven hours a day, with only an hour for dinner. It is quite a common thing for a man to go to work in the morning without having time to take his coffee. In the middle of the day they leave off work at 11 o'clock and go home to a dinner which the scarcity of their means does not allow to be sufficient to keep up their strength. They work until sunset in the winter. In San Juan and in many parts of the island it is quite a

common thing to see debilitated specimens of humanity who have been brought to that estate by overwork and improper food.

Dr. CARROLL. Of what does the staple food of the workingman consist?

Mr. IGLESIAS. Rice, beans, and codfish. That is, for the generality of them. There are a few who can eat meat; but meat costs at present 30 and 35 centavos a kilogram, and there are few who can afford that luxury. As regards our homes, the situation is simply appalling. Owing to the heavy rents, workmen are reduced to the necessity of living in a niche—you can hardly call it a room. This, of course, contributes to the unhealthiness of the workmen.

Dr. CARROLL. How do the prices of labor and of food and other necessities of life now compare with those before the war?

Mr. IGLESIAS. Before the war rates of wages averaged about \$1.25 or \$1.50, colonial money; but to-day the tendency is to pay us our wages in gold, for which reason, as long as the difference exists, we are earning a premium of 60 per cent over our former wages. This is noticeable on public and military works, and we have made representations to master workmen that we shall hereafter require them to pay us in gold.

Dr. CARROLL. You are satisfied with the present arrangement; is that what you mean?

Mr. IGLESIAS. Whatever complaints we make do not in any way have relation to the American Government or its representatives. Whatever we suffer under the present administration is the fault of persons of Spanish origin who are very near the Government, who are very deficient in education, and whose idea is to advance their own interests at the expense of the island.

Dr. CARROLL. I do not get your meaning. Do you mean that you get more now than before the war?

Mr. IGLESIAS. Some get more, but not all.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you pay more or less now for rice, sugar, and the things you are in daily need of than you did before the war?

Mr. IGLESIAS. Some cost as much, and some are lower.

Dr. CARROLL. Taking the things you have to buy, all in all, are you paying as much now as before the war?

Mr. IGLESIAS. The general result is more.

Dr. CARROLL. Does child labor enter into the labor question to any great degree?

Mr. IGLESIAS. Yes; it does. There is no law preventing children of 15 from entering into competition with adults, and the heavy work they are called upon to do annihilates the child in a short time.

Dr. CARROLL. Does prison labor enter into competition in any way with the labor of the gremios?

Mr. IGLESIAS. Formerly it did so, but to-day prisoners are not allowed out of prison, and we don't fear them any longer.

Mr. RAMOS. The gremio of painters suffers from all the causes enumerated by Mr. Iglesias; also from the low rate of wages received. As the painters did not know what the American Government would pay, they stipulated for wages at the old rate, but they found out afterwards that some were being paid \$1.50 in gold, and they all now want to get that rate. Some are receiving that amount and some are not. As regards education, the painters also are in sad need of betterment in this line. What we need is a technical college of instruction. We also require, as workmen, better food and lodging.

Mr. GIMENEZ. I represent three branches, those of tinsmith and

silversmith, of whom there are very few, and of bookbinder, a class of workmen spread widely over the country. The pay of bookbinders is not made daily or weekly, but monthly, and it is very rare for a bookbinder to earn as much as \$25 a month, provincial money, the usual rate being from \$15 to \$18. As you can understand, that is too small an amount. No single man can live on it, much less a married man with a family. As regards other matters, what Mr. Iglesias has said will cover my views also.

Mr. FIGUERAS. I represent the cigar makers, whose industry has been one of the most unjustly treated branches of labor, for it is an accepted axiom that the laborer should receive at least one-fourth of the selling price of the goods on which he works, and I can say that we do not. Take, for instance, a cigar that is retailed at \$30 a thousand. We ought to receive at least \$7.50 for our labor, but we receive only \$6.25. That is with respect to small sizes. In fine work and larger sizes of cigars, those, for instance, which are sold at \$110 and \$120 a thousand, we are only paid \$20, which is less than the proportion in the preceding case. Owing to these circumstances the cigar makers have asked the owners of factories to raise their rates of wages in relation to the retail prices of the cigars they work on. The workers on the fine grades of cigars—skilled workmen—never earn more than \$1.25 a day, and as they usually have families, this is utterly insufficient for their support. The workers on the lower grades seldom earn more than 80 cents a day.

Dr. CARROLL. How long has it been since you received one-fourth part of the selling price of the cigars?

Mr. FIGUERAS. In the year 1882 I was working with others in a factory called "The Two Antilles." We struck, and the owner of the factory issued a notice in which he called us back to work and promised to give us 25 per cent, as we demanded. This was paid for some time, but there was a gradual return to the lower prices.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the lower prices you are receiving now due in any way to the overcrowding of the trade?

Mr. FIGUERAS. There are really too many workmen; and when the employers haven't much work, they give out to their men a certain amount of tobacco to work up; and as the men do piecework, they divide this up among themselves and each takes his share of it. That is one of the reasons they can never make a sufficiently good living, because where they might otherwise earn \$2, they have to divide up with their fellow-workmen and earn only a dollar apiece.

Mr. RIVERA. I represent compositors. Our gremio is in a very backward condition, which fact I attribute to the high duties levied by the Spanish Government on type brought into the country, such type never having been manufactured here. Nevertheless, I am of the opinion that there are typesetters here who are able to compete with any typesetters in the world as regards the quality of their work. What prevents us from turning out fine work is the lack of good materials. As regards the wage question, I think the rates paid here for typesetting are criminal. We think the Government ought to establish schools to enable us to study English gratuitously. There is only one establishment in which typesetters have work all the year round. The owner of it began with nothing, and everything he has to-day he has earned at the expense of his workmen.

Dr. CARROLL. How do you work, by the day or by the line?

Mr. RIVERA. The pay for three lines, composed and distributed, is 14 cents.

Dr. CARROLL. What wages can typesetters earn per week on an average?

Mr. RIVERA. The average is \$5 or \$6 a week.

Dr. CARROLL. How much do you consider it necessary for a man to have in order to have a degree of comfort?

Mr. RIVERA. About \$15 a week.

Mr. SESMAN. I represent masons and bricklayers. As regards the general aspects of our trade, what Mr. Iglesias has said applies to our trade. With high prices for food and low wages, we are in a very bad situation. There are a few masons who can earn as much as \$1.25 a day, but they comprise only about one-tenth of the masons; others earn less.

Dr. CARROLL. How many days do you work in a week?

Mr. SESMAN. Six days, as in all the gremios.

Mr. IGLESIAS. In the office of the Correspondencia the printers work every day in the year, except Good Friday. The bakers work every day.

Mr. SESMAN. The employers of labor exploit labor in every way possible, exacting from it more than it can do. They do not take a man's intelligence into account when they come to fix wages; it is merely a matter of paying for so much brute force. I will cite you an instance in connection with my trade. Take 3 meters of wall, for example, for which the contractor would receive \$9.25; of this the laborer would get only \$4.75.

Dr. CARROLL. Does any of the rest go for materials?

Mr. SESMAN. That simply refers to the work; not to the materials.

Dr. CARROLL. Does not the contractor furnish the materials?

Mr. SESMAN. Yes; but he has a different arrangement for that.

Dr. CARROLL. Does he make that amount out of the labor alone?

Mr. SESMAN. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Then I should think there would be a great many contractors.

Mr. SESMAN. There are a great many.

Dr. CARROLL. That ought to bring down the prices.

Mr. SESMAN. It isn't a question of competition, for there isn't a great amount of work, and the necessities of life force us to take work at any terms offered by the contractors.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the illustration you give represent the rule or the exception?

Mr. SESMAN. It is the rule.

Dr. CARROLL. Was it a government building to which you referred?

Mr. IGLESIAS. The Spanish Government, in building its fortifications and public buildings, would let the work out by public auction, but would fix the prices of labor, and other builders and property owners would guide themselves by the prices fixed by the Spanish Government.

Dr. CARROLL. Was Mr. Sesman referring to a government building?

Mr. SESMAN. No; not to any building in particular.

I have nothing further to say, except to add that what I can earn is not enough to live on.

Dr. CARROLL. How much do bricklayers get a week?

Mr. SESMAN. Nine dollars.

Mr. NORBERTO QUINONES. I come here to speak in behalf of the lightermen. There is a company owning lighters here which employs us, and we are supposed to work on shares. It is nothing more than

a supposition, as virtually we don't do so. On the arrival of a vessel, the company sends out lighters and agrees to pay the men who work them a portion of the amount received from the consignees of the cargo—usually a quarter—but we don't get that, and on dividing up among ourselves we have to make allowance for the fact that some perform more work than others. This state of affairs is very unsatisfactory. This division never gives enough at the end of the week to pay for decent subsistence. We have to work without the use of any sort of mechanical appliances to assist us in the work; everything is done by bodily strength. We have to take our meals in a hurry, because we are required to work continuously in loading or unloading a vessel. Should any of us injure himself, such as fracturing a limb, the lighter company does not assist us. One of our chief complaints is that we have no fixed hours of work. We have to work at any hour we are called on, beginning at 5 o'clock in the morning. Our boss, who is paid more than the rest, makes us work like dogs. Among the lightermen there is hardly one who knows how to read or write. As a class, they are without education of any sort.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they begin at an early age?

Mr. QUINONES. Sometimes as early as 8 years old. They begin by cleaning out the boat and assisting in rowing it to and from the vessel. As their strength increases they assist in the heavier work.

Dr. CARROLL. How many lighter companies are there?

Mr. QUINONES. Three; Arsuaga, Cheveste Successors, and the widow of Cabrera.

Dr. CARROLL. Do these companies work with a common understanding between them as to prices?

Mr. QUINONES. Yes; they work in harmony.

Dr. CARROLL. Are they under government supervision?

Mr. QUINONES. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the captain of the port not supposed to have some superintendence of these matters?

Mr. QUINONES. Yes; he is supposed to, but he neglects his duty.

Dr. CARROLL. Do these companies pay any tax upon their income or upon their work?

Mr. QUINONES. They pay an impost on the lighter—so much a lighter.

Dr. CARROLL. Have the lightermen ever made any complaint to the captain of the port?

Mr. QUINONES. We were always complaining, but as justice was only a theory we never got any remedy. If we did not work, there were always men who could be had who would work.

Mr. TORRES. There is very little to be said about the bakery business. In San Juan there are five bakeries, but the number of bakers is greater than there is need of. They divide the work among themselves, a portion of them working some nights and the rest other nights. Bakers work night and day here. Kneaders earn \$3 in twenty-four hours. The peons who work at the board make from \$2 down to \$1.50.

Dr. CARROLL. Everybody in this island eats bread, as I understand it, and if there are only five bakeries in this district of 30,000 people, it would seem that it would be a lively business for the bakers. They make excellent bread.

Mr. TORRES. It is a good business. Counting the bakery at Puerta de la Terra, a suburb of the capital, there are six.

Dr. CARROLL. Why don't the bakers share with the workmen? They are workmen themselves, are they not?

Mr. TORRES. They are not workmen themselves. At 10 o'clock at night they turn over the key of their bakery to their foreman and go to sleep. As in other trades, the man who doesn't work makes the money and the man who does work gets very little.

Dr. CARROLL. Does it require much capital to start a bakery?

Mr. TORRES. I estimate that with \$500 and a couple of barrels of flour a small bakery could be commenced.

Dr. CARROLL. Then is it not the thing for the journeyman baker to start a bakery himself?

Mr. TORRES. The reason why the bakers are in such a poor position is that under the old government any such thing as a meeting to better their conditions or request an increase of wages would be regarded by the government with disfavor, so that they were never able to get together to improve their situation.

Dr. CARROLL. The Government of the United States allows the utmost freedom for men to meet, talk about matters of common interest, and concert plans for their mutual advantage.

Professor CASTRO. I am going to tell a story which will illustrate why workmen did not get together under the old government. In 1893, when Porto Rico had a reciprocal tariff with the United States, a bag of flour could be brought in and sold at from seven to eight dollars. I was astonished to see that bread was sold, nevertheless, at 9 centavos a pound—what was supposed to be a pound, but what was really only 10 ounces. I tried to find out the reason for this, and found that only two bakeries were working and seven had closed. I found that these two bakeries had monopolized the business and were paying the others sums of from \$60 to \$150 not to work. I was determined to break up this monopoly, and I founded, in company with some companions, a society called the Cooperative Workmen's Society. After more than a year's existence, during which time, with a minimum payment of \$25 a month, we managed to save up \$1,000, we started a bakery. As soon as we had it started and offered the public bread at 6 centavos a pound—full 16 ounces—the two bakeries which had been monopolizing the trade began to cut prices until finally they commenced to give it away. I was determined not to give in, and worked day and night. I kept it up for two years, but the work was superior to my strength. I not only had to struggle against the bakeries which had been in operation, but also against those which had closed, because the moment I started to work the two established bakeries stopped paying to the others. At the end of two years, because of intrigue against me and because the public did not respond as it should have done, the company retired me and put somebody else in the place. The new men did not work day and night as I did, and the result was that the company soon ceased to exist. I got into further trouble because the two companies against which I was struggling started a suit against me as an anti-Spaniard, and I don't know how I managed to get out of the suit as I did. All steps toward initiative were wiped out by the Spanish Government. I was at that time a schoolmaster, not a baker, and that was one of the reasons why they brought the suit against me. I was not an enemy of Spain, but I was an enemy of monopoly.

Mr. DIAZ. I represent the gremio of barbers. All I have to say is that they suffer more or less the same ills that have been referred to—the high prices of provisions, the low remuneration of barbers, and

high rents. I represent the barbers in this evening's committee only. I am not a barber myself and can not give you details.

Mr. NUNEZ. The shoemaker's trade has been one of those most exploited, owing to the fact that materials have been very high and shoes very cheap—that is to say, shoes brought in from Spain have been allowed special advantages, and have been imported at a price which allows of their being sold at a much lower figure than those made here. On the other hand, materials have been heavily taxed. Another thing from which we have suffered was the practice of some gentlemen who were not really in the shoe business taking contracts for supplying shoes, instead of these contracts being given to shoemakers. There have been instances where teachers of the normal school have established shoemaker shops in their private houses in order to comply with contracts taken by them.

Professor CASTRO. My profession is that of a school-teacher, but as this is a manufacturing center and not an agricultural one, there does not happen to be a representative of the agricultural interests here, and Mr. Iglesias has commissioned me to take that charge upon myself.

Agriculture in this country is at a very low ebb, not because of the soil, which is most fertile, nor for the want of natural resources, but because of the want of funds and because of the rudimentary methods employed by agriculturists.

Dr. CARROLL. What opportunities have you had to acquaint yourself with agriculture? Have you worked at it or consulted with agriculturists?

Professor CASTRO. I have lived nine years in the country, and have seen all that is going on there.

Mr. IGLESIAS. As the agricultural laborers have never been allowed by the Spanish Government to form any sort of league, there would be no one to represent them, and as this gentleman (Professor Castro) has lived among them for a number of years, I have asked him to inform you in regard to their condition.

Professor CASTRO. I attribute the almost utter ruin of most of the agriculturists to the fact that, stimulated by the high prices which they obtained for important crops, they neglected altogether the cultivation of small crops, with the result that when low prices came for the larger crops they found themselves in a very bad position. Owing to their lack of funds and the want of agricultural banks, agriculturists have had to apply to commercial houses, called "refaccionistas," who furnish them during the year with supplies and provisions for themselves and their workmen to keep their estates going. These refaccionistas have imposed their own conditions on the agriculturists, and have been able to buy the crops at their own prices. But as these questions have been already thrashed out in the papers, and do not come within my profession, I am going to speak of the working classes on the estates, whom I have been asked to represent.

The condition of the field laborer to-day is a pitiable one. Owing to the long hours of work—usually twelve—and the low rate of wages which they earn, their situation is as bad as it could be. The average is from 38 to 50 centavos daily. They begin to work at 6 o'clock in the morning and leave off at 6 o'clock in the evening. They have no stated times for taking their meals, which consist of rice, imported from the English West Indies, known here as Hamburg rice, with which are mixed a few beans occasionally. This they frequently have

to eat with one hand while guiding the plow with the other, and it can be readily understood that twelve hours of continuous work, with insufficient food, wears out the peons.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the 38 centavos paid to all alike on the plantation, without reference to their strength and without reference to whether they are men, women, or children?

Professor CASTRO. Children earn 10 or 12 centavos a day; women earn the same as men. The wages vary between the limits stated—38 centavos and 50 centavos—as the price of sugar rises and falls. But no matter how high sugar rises, the men never get more than 50 centavos a day. Sometimes, in some of the sugar mills, during harvest time, the workmen have to begin at 2 o'clock in the morning and work until 5 or 6 in the evening. For these additional hours of labor they only earn a quarter of their day's wages additional.

As is natural, these laborers have several times tried to protest against this state of affairs, but as the owners of haciendas are usually in favor with the governing powers, or are themselves government officers, all unions formed for the purpose of protesting have been complained against as seditious societies, with the result, in one year—a result known to all the world—that an inquisition was inaugurated.

Besides the troubles I have mentioned, most of the haciendas have small stores on the estate, and do not pay their workmen in money, but in checks which are countersigned and do not pass in any other store except their own. There the peon is forced to buy, at exorbitant prices, rotten rice and fish. These prices are higher than the peon would have to pay if he could pay cash.

All these conditions explain the miserable life of the agricultural peon, who may be said to live not even in a hut, but sometimes in caves, and who is not able to attend to his personal needs with his small wages, much less such a luxury as a pair of shoes. He is absolutely unable to educate his children. In some of the districts, separated from towns, the children grow up like wild plants, nobody taking any notice of or bestowing any care upon them. That is noticeably the case in Arecibo, where there are twenty-one barrios, in only one of which is there a school for girls. For boys there are schools in several districts.

The field worker does not pay direct taxes, but indirectly he pays very heavy ones. He had to pay the cedula, and he had to pay the consumption tax. Direct taxes fall upon the owners of plantations.

We hope that the United States will give special attention to the education of that class of people, as education shows a man his rights and duties and makes him more amenable to law and therefore a better citizen.

Dr. CARROLL. I have heard that some of the planters furnish their help with houses and even food, and pay them regular wages besides. Is there not a difference between planters in that respect?

Professor CASTRO. There may be one or two exceptions among owners; a few may treat their peons well, but what they probably referred to was that it is the custom to give small plots to one or two peons around the owner's house, on which they build their hut. The object of this is that they can watch out for the owner's interests and guard his house for him, but as to food, they do not give food, except perhaps a dish of rice at night.

Dr. CARROLL. I want to ask one or two questions bearing on other matters. I presume you have all given more or less attention to questions affecting the future of Porto Rico; for example, to the

question of the currency and the question of the tariff. These questions seem to be in the minds of the majority of your countrymen, and I suppose they have been in your thoughts, too.

Mr. IGLESIAS. Yes; that is true.

Dr. CARROLL. I should like to ask Mr. Iglesias—and the others, if they do not agree with him, can say so—whether he has any solution to suggest for the currency question?

Mr. IGLESIAS. The workmen have not come to any understanding, neither do they propose at what rate money should be changed. All they ask is that the American Government should order that the workmen be paid in American dollars as soon as possible.

Dr. CARROLL. That is, you want to have the American currency substituted for the currency now here?

Mr. IGLESIAS. We haven't come to any understanding as to the rate. We don't care whether it is made at 100 or 150 or 160, but we would like to have the change made at once. As long as the men are paid in provincial money they don't know what they are earning.

I would like to say that I think the Government should allow the introduction of food stuffs at very low rates of duty in the interest of the laboring man.

The Government should also give attention to the methods of the merchants in selling here, limiting the profit they may make and making it illegal for them to gain over a certain amount over the cost.

There also exists a bad system here—not to call it by a stronger name—false weights and measures; also the custom of selling the necessities of life without weighing them, the seller charging what he pleases for the goods sold. I think the Government should intervene in these matters.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there not a law regulating the matter of weights and measures?

Mr. IGLESIAS. There is no country in the world which can touch Spain in the matter of magnificent laws, and there is no country in the world which can touch Spain in noncompliance with laws.

I think the government should impose heavy duties on all articles of luxury, such as wines, and on everything conducive merely to pleasure or vice, as a recompense for low imposts on food products for the benefit of the working class.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you include tobacco among the articles of luxury?

Mr. IGLESIAS. Yes; I think the government should impose protective duties on all manufactured articles, so as to protect the embryonic industries which exist here at present, for at least a certain term of years. After these industries are in shape to look after themselves they could enter into competition with other producers.

Dr. CARROLL. In bringing this interview to a close, gentlemen, I want to say that I have heard you with much interest as you have stated the needs of your respective branches of trade. I observe that you tell about the same story, which is, in effect, that your business is not as good as it ought to be; that your wages are not as high as they ought to be to enable you to provide even the necessities of life, to say nothing about the comforts of life. You seem to be looking to the United States to enact laws for the government of Porto Rico which will very much relieve your condition, if not provide you with luxuries. I can not say what Congress will do, but I can assure you that the President of the United States, in connection with Congress, will endeavor to secure for this island an equitable system of government, to be honestly and faithfully administered.

It is a maxim of the United States that every man shall be equally free before the law, shall enjoy equal privileges, shall enjoy equal rights, shall have the right of business pursuit, the pursuit of happiness, and particularly the right to be educated. It can give you these rights, and when you have these rights you have an opportunity to better your condition. It is only indirectly that legislation can be adapted to improve your situation, and I am sure you will not expect direct laws to raise your wages or to lower the price of the food you eat or the clothes you wear, or anything of that sort. But you will have the full right, which you seem not to have had under the recent government, of meeting together, of talking over your common interests, and of doing all those things in concert which are intended to improve your condition. I am sure it is your intention to become good American citizens, as it is also the intention of the authorities at Washington to give every consideration to the future of this island, in order that you may all have an equal chance of life, and that there may be an increase of prosperity such as the island has never known.

Professor CASTRO. We thank you very much, as the representative of the American Government, for the courtesy of calling us here tonight, and we thank that Government still more for its good intentions toward us. But we wish you particularly to mention to the President that he has no need of bayonets or soldiers to govern Porto Rico, because he will find the people here ready to defend the integrity of the United States, and we feel that we shall now have a chance to attain the end we have in view, namely, prosperity, progress, and happiness.

I hope the people of the United States will not think that we have received the American Army with open arms out of any feeling of servility, but because of the fact that for years we have felt that annexation to the United States was, geographically, our only possible future. We have been, you may say, in a state of suppressed revolution for a great many years, and now that the opportunity has come we feel that under the Stars and Stripes we will achieve our long-cherished ambitions.

THE FIELD LABORERS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *January 6, 1899.*

Mr. SEVERO TULIER, of Vega Baja, called at the office of the special commissioner, in behalf of the peons of Porto Rico, and was interviewed as follows:

Mr. TULIER. I have been working on my father's estate at manual labor, but finding that such work yields but poor returns at present, I have come to San Juan for the purpose of learning a trade.

Dr. CARROLL. Are you a native of Vega Baja?

Mr. TULIER. I live there with my father, who has a coffee estate; but not having the money to attend to its cultivation, we have abandoned it.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you ever worked for anybody besides your father?

Mr. TULIER. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Are you familiar with the conditions of the workmen on other estates in that neighborhood?

Mr. TULIER. Yes, thoroughly; and I am disposed to give you some information about them. I have come here from a sense of duty to do this; otherwise, I should not have come to your office dressed as I am.

(Mr. Tulier's hat, coat, trousers, and shoes all showed signs of long wear; he wore no collar or tie, and had the appearance of a poor country laborer.)

Dr. CARROLL. I want facts rather than opinions, and I would ask that you should be careful not to state an isolated fact in a general way as true under all circumstances.

Mr. TULIER. Where I can not give you a complete answer, I will not answer at all.

Dr. CARROLL. Is a uniform rate of wages paid to peasants in that district?

Mr. TULIER. The usual rate is 25 centavos and breakfast, and 37½ centavos to the better class of workmen. A few laborers who have some special skill receive as high as 50 centavos a day, but it should be borne in mind that where 50 centavos is paid payment is made in vales, which are mere tokens representing certain values and redeemable at the company's store.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that the uniform rule in cases where 50 centavos is the rate of wages?

Mr. TULIER. No, not altogether. Sometimes a proprietor will close his store and then pay in money.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they pay less under those circumstances?

Mr. TULIER. At the same rate.

Dr. CARROLL. On estates where 50 centavos is paid, do they have the best men and women employed?

Mr. TULIER. They have all classes; but now and then they pick out a specially good man and pay him more than they pay the others.

Dr. CARROLL. Do the women work on estates?

Mr. TULIER. The women in my district work on their own estates, but not on others.

Dr. CARROLL. I saw some women working on the Carmen estate.

Mr. TULIER. That may be, but I have not seen it.

Dr. CARROLL. I would like to have you give a careful statement with regard to the wages of the workmen, their hours of labor, any special cases of ill treatment, and the condition in which they live.

Mr. TULIER. The customary hours of work are from 6 to 6; that is, for work in the field. For work in the shops and on the sugar machinery they have to go earlier, sometimes as early as 4 o'clock in the morning.

Dr. CARROLL. How much time is given for dinner?

Mr. TULIER. Half an hour.

Dr. CARROLL. At what time do they stop for dinner?

Mr. TULIER. At 11 o'clock.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they have coffee in the morning?

Mr. TULIER. They are not given coffee on the estates, and very few take anything before leaving their homes. Those who haven't permission to live on the estate usually live a league or two from it, and have to walk that distance to work without anything to eat.

Dr. CARROLL. Don't they get fruit?

Mr. TULIER. Yes, when they have saved some from the day before;

otherwise not. A man who works on an estate does not have time to cultivate any land for his own use.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they take their dinners with them?

Mr. TULIER. On estates which give breakfast the peons just take a flask along with orange juice or something of that kind with which they can make a drink; on other estates the peons generally go to the village near by and get their meals there.

Dr. CARROLL. What do they have to eat in the evening?

Mr. TULIER. The basis of their evening meal is a big plantain, which they sometimes make into a mess with rice or beans.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they never have any meat or fish?

Mr. TULIER. They have meat only on Sundays, and only in those cases where wages are paid in money, because otherwise they can only take what is kept at the proprietor's store; and that never has meat.

Dr. CARROLL. Do the stores not have pork?

Mr. TULIER. No; the peons never eat pork; they may sometimes buy a cent's worth to cook with their food to give it a flavor.

Dr. CARROLL. What about their houses?

Mr. TULIER. The house is made of poles, thatched about with palm, and is 4 or 5 varas square (vara, about 33 inches), partitioned off into a parlor, a bedroom, and a kitchen. In the parlor there is a table, usually an heirloom from many years back. The floor is made of boards cut from palm trees. The kitchen has no flooring, and the parlor and bedroom flooring is badly laid. Frequently the house lets in the rain. With the same rough class of boards from which the flooring is made they construct a rude bed in the sleeping room, tied together with withes. The wardrobe consists of two changes—one that is being worn and one that is being washed. The only clothes closet consists of a rough box in the bedroom. The children, as a rule, have only one little shirt, and while the mother is washing that they run about without any clothing. The women of this class rarely have irons to iron their clothes.

In harvest time these people have poor food very badly cooked. Their food improves a little during the corn season, as that forms an addition to the daily diet. Their three chief articles of food, it may be said, are sweet potatoes, plantains, and corn, of which they always choose whichever happens to be the cheapest. When the husband comes back from work, the supper is usually of the same material as already stated, unless he has been able to bring back a piece of cod-fish, a few beans or peas, or a little rice.

When a child is born the mother is assisted by the first woman who happens to be near, usually a mother or sister. The number of deaths caused from want of medical assistance is not considerable, because the women lead a free out-of-door life, but owing to want of proper nourishing food, a great many succumb from weakness. There is a serious mortality among infants owing to the ignorance on the part of mothers as regards treatment and care of children. A couple of days after confinement the woman is usually about and at her work again. When a woman is obliged to keep to her bed, her husband is not able to go to work, as he has to attend to the preparation of the food, care for the children, and attend to other household duties. The poor people are absolutely in want of medical assistance in the country places, and if they go to the village to obtain medical aid they can only do so through the charity of the doctors, as they are not able to pay for such services.

Although a great number of these people do not go through any form of marriage, it is probable that the majority do. A great many live together and, after having a family, determine to get married. This is usually brought about through the entreaties of the women, who desire to have a legal standing. On Sunday they can get married for 1 peso; on other days, according to the importance of the day, 4, 6, or 8 pesos, as the priest chooses to ask. When there happens to exist a family relationship between the contracting parties, the priests take advantage of the fact to squeeze money out of them for procuring the necessary dispensations. First cousins may marry with the permission of the bishop.

When there is a death the neighbors come in and assist. They generally manage to get a few boards, and some neighbor who may know something of carpentering is called upon to knock these boards together for a coffin. Their dead are always taken to the towns for burial to facilitate inscription in the civil register and to remove responsibility from the relatives of the deceased. There is absolutely no sort of mourning ceremony; that is, the women never put on black as a badge of bereavement.

Usually about five persons live in a house of the kind I have described. They all sleep together—father, mother, grown-up sons, and daughters—and when they haven't sufficient beds, they sleep on piles of palm leaves. They usually take up different corners of the room, separating themselves as much as possible. They pay no rent for these houses. They knock together a house wherever they wish to, and you can imagine what sort of a house it is when there are cases where a man has cut the palm leaves and built a house all in one day. Those who have only one change of clothing do not go to work on Saturday; they remain at home, covered with any piece of rag at hand, so that their wives can wash their clothes and thus enable them to present a clean appearance on Sunday when they go to collect their wages.

The peasant is naturally intelligent, and his mind is as fertile as the land which he works and is only waiting the implements of education. As a proof of this I will cite an instance. When it was known that autonomy was to be granted and that suffrage was limited to men of 25 years of age who knew how to read and write, I formed a class in my district and offered to teach free all men of that age and over, to fit them to vote. I had men in the class whose ages ranged from 25 to 60 years, and some of them after a few lessons knew the letters of the alphabet at sight and could write them. This was done without the aid of any modern appliances used in teaching, a piece of rough board and chalk being the only materials at hand which the peons were able to avail themselves of. The desire of everybody to learn was manifest.

There is nothing of fanaticism in the beliefs of the people. They do not go to church, but they are believers in God. The men have no confidence in the priests, as a rule, but the women are more inclined to religious observances. I think that one generation is sufficient to change the character of the peasantry and to regenerate them completely, as the desire on their part for the acquisition of knowledge is very marked. As soon as they see one of their number acquiring knowledge, all the others want to get the benefit of it.

ARTISANS AND LABORERS OF ARECIBO.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

ARECIBO, P. R., *January 13, 1899.*

A delegation of eight laboring men and artisans, representing various gremios of Arecibo, as follows: TOMAS MIRANDA, president of the gremios; JUAN N. MACLEA, coopers; BUENAVENTURA PEYOT, laborers; PEDRO DE JESUS, tailors; EVARISTO PADILLA, masons; JULIAN ROMAN, bakers; FRANCISCO MARTINEZ, shoemakers, and JOSÉ FERRER, printers:

Mr. JUAN MACLEA. Owing to the large importation into the island of jute bags and their large use in the exportation of sugar in the place of barrels, coopers have very little work now. That is the chief cause of complaint, but we look for more work when sugar has a better market in the United States.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there many coopers in the island?

Mr. MACLEA. Yes; there are a great many of them. I can not give you the exact number. Those who used to have work on the haciendas don't have work now.

Mr. CARROLL. Do they turn their skill into other lines of carpentering?

Mr. MACLEA. Not having learned any other form of carpentering, they are not able to do so.

Dr. CARROLL. How much can they make a day at that work?

Mr. MACLEA. Under present circumstances, such a small amount I hardly ought to mention it; sometimes only \$4 a week, and some are not earning anything, because the work is paralyzed.

Mr. BUENAVENTURA PEYOT. One of the hardships of my gremio is that we have to get up at 3 o'clock in the morning and work until 6 in the afternoon for 50 centavos a day and food, the food consisting of a little rice and codfish, without seasoning.

Dr. CARROLL. I wish you would state in detail just how the workmen live. Such information is important to my investigation.

Mr. PEYOT. When they get up in the morning, they have a cup of black coffee. For breakfast, the most common meal consists of a plantain, a piece of codfish, and a small quantity of bread, but never sufficient. They don't take any other meal.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they have sufficient codfish?

Mr. PEYOT. They have about 4 ounces of codfish for a person and four plantains.

Dr. PAGANI. They may take a cup of black coffee at night and a piece of plantain.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they ever have any meat?

Mr. PEYOT. Never; except, possibly, sometimes on Sunday in their own homes.

Dr. PAGANI. They collect their salaries on Saturday; and if they have anything left, they buy a few little extras.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they receive their salaries in money?

Mr. PEYOT. In coast towns usually in money, but in the interior in checks, redeemable only at the owner's private store.

Dr. CARROLL. What kind of houses do they live in?

Mr. PEYOT. Those who happen to live in the city have better houses, but those in the country have only a palm hut, containing one or two rooms. Those in the towns live, very often, six, seven, or eight in one

room. There are families of four or five persons who live in a single room of 5 yards square, which is their living, sleeping, and cooking room.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they always pay rent?

Mr. PEYOT. Yes. If they can not pay, the landlord has to wait for it.

Dr. CARROLL. How much rent?

Mr. PEYOT. From \$1.50 to \$2 a month, according to location.

Dr. CARROLL. On estates are they not often allowed to put up shacks and live in them free?

Mr. PEYOT. On some estates a few peons who are in constant employment live in quarters, like barracks, but on other estates no shelter is given them.

Dr. CARROLL. How about clothes?

Dr. PAGANI. They nearly all go shoeless. They sometimes buy clothes brought here from the Balearic Islands, or buy cotton goods, at about 17 cents a yard, and have it made up by their own people.

Dr. CARROLL. I suppose their poverty prevents them, in many instances, from sending their children to school?

Mr. PEDRO DE JESUS. When children are 7 or 8 years old they are put to work. Ninety-five per cent receive no instruction at all and do not know how to read or write.

Speaking now for my gremio—the gremio of tailors—we suffer a great deal on account of the ready-made clothing which is brought in from Spain. They have a habit here of raffling for a suit of clothes, and usually the man who wins it sells it for \$8 or \$10.

Dr. CARROLL. Do those clothes continue to hold the market since American occupation? Duties have to be paid now on Spanish as well as on other clothes.

Mr. PEDRO DE JESUS. There is not a great deal of that in Arecibo; it was more in San Juan, and I don't know whether it has continued there.

Dr. CARROLL. What wages can tailors make here a week, on an average?

Mr. PEDRO DE JESUS. From \$6 to \$8 when there is work. In times of scarcity of work, from \$4 to \$5.

Dr. CARROLL. Then they are not so badly off as some other gremios?

Mr. MIRANDA. Some of them have to wait until Christmas time before they can earn anything at it.

Mr. PEDRO DE JESUS. We have to complain also about the bad material brought in, and the bad quality of tools and machines.

Dr. CARROLL. Where do these bad materials and poor tools come from?

Mr. PEDRO DE JESUS. From Barcelona and Paris. They seem to send the worst they can.

Mr. EVARISTO PADILLA. The great need of our gremio, that of masons, is of work. We seldom get more than three months' work in the year. In government and other work foreigners are given the preference. The military government, instead of giving the work to Porto Ricans, call in their own people and put the work into their hands. There are plenty of vacant lots and plenty of rich people, but they will not build. A few days ago the masons prepared a circular asking these people to build, but it appears to have received no attention. There are some masons who earn as much as 75 centavos a day, but there are times when they have to submit to being paid whatever the bosses want to pay them. What we ask for is that government work be

given to us. We feel that we have more right to it than people coming from outside. As a result of the present state of affairs we can not even dress decently. If we get clothes, we have to go without food.

Dr. CARROLL. How long has this state of affairs existed?

Mr. PADILLA. As far back as I can remember.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there not too many masons? Is not that one reason for the conditions you describe?

Mr. PADILLA. There are about 36 here; and if there were any fair amount of work, that would not be too many. The difficulty is the great lack of work.

Mr. JULIAN ROMAN. The bakers are in almost the same position as the laborers. We work from 3 in the afternoon until 12 the next day, and are badly paid at that. The journeymen earn 50 centavos a day and overseers \$1. The bakeries were intending to reduce even these wages, but the bakers went to the alcalde and asked him to intervene, and he induced the bakeries not to make the cut. But they have been compelling the men to do twice as much; they have dismissed the peons and make the bakers do the manual work, thus making up the difference.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that due to the fall in the price of bread?

Mr. ROMAN. No, because when the bread was worth more they paid the same. There are no machines in use.

Dr. CARROLL. You ought to get good wages, because you make good bread. I get good bread everywhere.

Mr. ROMAN. When we arrive at old age, we are completely useless for anything. Go to one of the bakeries if you would like to see how they work.

Dr. CARROLL. At night?

Mr. ROMAN. Day or night; you will always find them working. We only have three hours' rest out of the twenty-four.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you get your own bread free?

Mr. ROMAN. We are allowed to eat what we want, but not to take any away. We want our situation bettered.

Mr. FRANCISCO MARTINEZ. The position of the shoemaker is a hard one, but not because there is lack of work. Our difficulty is the dearth of the materials brought in, on the one hand, and the low price of the finished article imported from the Balearic Islands, on the other. The remedy is a higher duty on the finished article and a lower duty on the materials.

Dr. CARROLL. These imported shoes, since the American occupation, pay the same duties as shoes from other countries. Does not that help matters?

Mr. MARTINEZ. We have not seen any result yet. The raw material costs just as much as it did before.

Dr. CARROLL. Has there not been a rise in the price of shoes because of the Balearic Island shoes paying a heavier duty?

Mr. MARTINEZ. The difference has been very small. On a pair of shoes costing a dollar the increase might be as much as 25 centavos, but that has not been of substantial value to the shoemakers. You can buy shoes here as low as \$4 that the shoemakers can not make for less than \$6.

Dr. CARROLL. Raw materials will be cheaper under the new tariff.

Mr. JOSÉ FERRER. I have very little to say. I understand that in other countries they pay typesetters by the thousand ems. There isn't work enough here to do that. Printers earn about \$6 a week here. We hope that the introduction of new methods will increase

the circulation of papers and thus give increased work. There is only one newspaper here.

Mr. TOMAS MIRANDA. We haven't even a library in the town, and we wish to urge the need of educational facilities. About fourteen years ago a minister in Spain made us a present of about 1,000 volumes, but up to the present no one knows what has become of them.

(Dr. F. Pagani stated that the foregoing-named representatives of the gremios of Arecibo are a picked lot of men; that many of the workmen could not come because of the lack of clothes to wear, some not having shoes and others not having a hat to wear.)

Mr. MANUEL LEDESMA, a Spanish merchant and owner of a large estate, and Mr. BÄHR:

Dr. CARROLL. How many peons have you on your estate?

Mr. LEDESMA. When we are grinding I have from four to five hundred.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you pay by the week?

Mr. LEDESMA. Every Saturday.

Dr. CARROLL. How much?

Mr. LEDESMA. Fifty centavos, on the average.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you have any women working for you?

Mr. LEDESMA. Some women assist in carrying the cane, but not in the field.

Dr. CARROLL. I am told that there are few women who work on estates.

Mr. LEDESMA. There are some.

Dr. CARROLL. Do your peons live on your estate or near it?

Mr. LEDESMA. Most of them belong to Camuy. During the grinding season they sleep on the estate, and at the end of the week return to their homes.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they provide their own meals?

Mr. LEDESMA. Those working on the estate get one meal from the estate and those in the mills two meals. I have a coffee-cleaning place down on the beach, where I have 150 women working. I pay them daily, at the rate of 3 centavos a bucket. These women earn from 30 to 60 centavos a day.

Dr. CARROLL. Can they live fairly well on 50 centavos a day?

Mr. LEDESMA. Without doubt they could live very well on that, if they were not addicted to gambling.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they have to pay rent generally?

Mr. LEDESMA. They live in huts in the country, but the difficulty with the peons here is that they have few wants and no ambition.

Dr. CARROLL. How much rent do they have to pay?

Mr. LEDESMA. None whatever.

Dr. CARROLL. Are they allowed to build these huts?

Mr. LEDESMA. I give some permission to make houses, those I have confidence in; but I do not give that permission to others.

Mr. BÄHR. One thing we need here is a savings bank of the kind you have in the United States. Under Spanish laws there are so many difficulties in the way of establishing savings banks that they have not been established. I have tried several times to interest people here in such institutions.

Mr. LEDESMA. When there is a strike among our men they usually follow the counsel of two or three who can read. These people are not ready for concerted action. Some time ago they tried to boycott a bread monopoly here, but after a while some of them, who were in

the movement, began to buy bread from the monopoly; they could not hang together. It is not because I am a Porto Rican that I wish to defend my countrymen, because they are a good people by nature, and if some of them are bad it is because they are led wrongly.

Dr. CARROLL. How can their condition be improved?

Mr. LEDESMA. By making them understand the harm of becoming addicted to vice.

Dr. CARROLL. What other vices besides gambling prevail?

Mr. LEDESMA. Living with women without marriage.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they do so promiscuously, or do they simply omit the marriage ceremony and live with one woman steadily?

Mr. LEDESMA. As a rule they live with one woman, and establish a family.

Dr. CARROLL. What are their motives for not having the ceremony performed?

Mr. LEDESMA. They are not educated, and they think they can do without it.

(Following this hearing the commissioner visited the poor quarter of Arecibo and questioned many women working in coffee houses, and they all stated that no one ever earned more than from 18 to 24 centavos a day.)

JOSÉ RAMON RIVERA, a druggist and property owner:

Dr. CARROLL. I understand that you are a professional man.

Mr. RIVERA. I am a druggist and property owner.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you know anything of the vital statistics of the people in this section of the island?

Mr. RIVERA. The population of the city is growing considerably. It is a very healthy city. Epidemics are very rare. As to the peons, however, they have nothing. They have no medicines, nor doctors, nor proper food; they don't live in houses, they don't live in villages, but live like savages. They have no education, nothing is done for them, and it appears incredible, and it is a mystery to me how they live on 50 centavos a day or less with the large families they have.

Dr. CARROLL. We had a number of representatives of the gremios at the hotel last night, and the story they told of how they lacked clothing and food was distressing.

Mr. RIVERA. It is quite true that the workingmen are very poorly paid, and what is worse, there are too many workmen for the work there is to give them. This leads to the result that those who have credit live on credit until they can get a little money. They then pay their debts and live on credit again for another period. This leads to a situation which is desperate. No doubt their condition is, to a certain extent, made worse by the want of thrift, which they show when they do earn a little money. There are some who, after passing days and days without earning money, when they do earn a little spend it all at once.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there much gambling among them? I was informed in San Juan that it was a common vice among the peasants.

Mr. RIVERA. Unfortunately, that is true, and it is owing to several reasons—want of police, want of saving habits, want of living a sanitary life, which produces an anemic race, and it is an accepted principle that a sickly race is a vicious race.

Dr. CARROLL. What measures would you recommend for the amelioration of this condition aside from those measures which would tend to the general prosperity of the island?

Mr. RIVERA. Leaving aside the matter of compulsory education, which is important, I should say the first measure to be adopted would be one looking to the improvement of public health. Next, that there should be work which would give employment to all the classes of the poor, which work would be increased by the stimulation of native industries, which have to be started from the beginning, as this country is only born to-day. Then there should be a good system of police and a thorough system of inspection of food. In the stores everything is adulterated and rotten. There is no article of food which is not tampered with. The conditions of life for persons who consume these articles can not be anything but unsanitary. The milk is bad, the meat and bread are poor, and everything else is tampered with. Then, by all means, there should be public instruction for children, and adults as well, who might be made into useful citizens, whereas to-day they are perfectly useless. This has been impossible up to the present, as the Spanish Government has never facilitated educational enterprises.

Dr. CARROLL. Who are in the worse condition, the blacks or the whites?

Mr. RIVERA. The blacks are in a worse condition, because they are descended from a race of slaves, and their moral condition from that period has not improved. They are made to work as animals, and can be held and used as animals.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the state of morality among the working classes? Is it not true that they are very generally honest?

Mr. RIVERA. Generally they are honest. Those who are dishonest owe their dishonesty chiefly to vices to which they have been addicted. These vices could be overcome largely by the means I have referred to. I wish to add just this one suggestion in reference to the press of the island: I do not think it should be allowed to treat of politics in the violent manner which it does. I don't mean that newspapers should be suppressed, but I think that pressure should be brought to bear to compel them to preach the advancement of material benefits and leave off personal politics.

ON A PLANTATION.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner at the residence of Mr. Leopold Strube, whose estate lies partly in the municipality of Arecibo and partly in Utuado.]

GOBO, P. R., *January 15, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. How many people do you employ on your estate?

Mr. STRUBE. About thirty or forty usually, and in crop time sixty or seventy.

Dr. CARROLL. How many acres have you in tobacco?

Mr. STRUBE. Only two or three acres, for my own use. I have only coffee.

Dr. CARROLL. Are these houses on your estate all occupied by your men?

Mr. STRUBE. I have nearly all my people living on my estate. I put up the houses myself, and they do not pay rent.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they pay rent in work?

Mr. STRUBE. No; I give them these houses for my own convenience. Here in the mountains you can not get working people unless you find houses for them. It is like more pay. Even if I have trouble with a man and send him out, he will ruin the house before he goes.

Dr. CARROLL. About how much do they earn a day, take the year round?

Mr. STRUBE. I pay here 50 centavos. If a man works on a contract at piecework he can make 60 or 70 centavos if he is a good working-man. Children and boys we pay according to the amount of work they can do—from 25 to 50 centavos—and women get about 20 or 25 centavos. Little children get 10 or 15 centavos for picking out the coffee beans.

Dr. CARROLL. What do these working people live on?

Mr. STRUBE. I have my store here in which I sell rice, codfish, tobacco, sugar, cigarettes, biscuits, and bread—very little bread, because in place of bread they use plantains. Every man who works has five plantains and a quarter of a pound of codfish, with oil, in addition to 50 centavos. I cook it here and send it out to them. Those whom I have here by the month earn from \$6 to \$20 a month, and have all their food, including coffee in the morning, with sugar; the same meal for breakfast, and in the evening rice, with beans.

Dr. CARROLL. I should think that would be a pretty fair arrangement. That is about what farm hands get in the United States.

Mr. STRUBE. They are the better class of workmen. For instance, there is a carpenter. If a boy starts with a cart here for the town, he often has to work all night. I sent a boy out yesterday evening at 8 o'clock and he will not get back until this evening about 6 o'clock. During that time I give him from 30 to 40 centavos to spend on the way, and he earns more. I have two Germans here. They have their whole living on the estate. I pay them the first half year \$10 a month. The second six months I pay them \$20, and now I have made an arrangement with them to pay each year \$5 more. The arrangement is for five years, so that the last year they will have \$40 a month. They can save most of that. One boy was here who saved in a year \$90. Another boy saved \$60, and bought a horse with it.

PAY OF FIELD HANDS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

YABUCOA, February 2, 1899.

Two colored laborers, JUSTO LINDO and HERMANN OQUENDO:

Dr. CARROLL. Are you a native of Yabucoa?

Mr. JUSTO LINDO. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. What is your occupation?

Mr. LINDO. A laborer.

Dr. CARROLL. Where have you been laboring?

Mr. LINDO. On plantations; I am a field laborer.

Dr. CARROLL. What do you wish to say to the commission?

Mr. LINDO. They pay us in vales here, and we want to see if we can not obtain money instead of vales.

Dr. CARROLL. On whose plantation are you employed?

Mr. LINDO. Sucesores de Ballecillo.

(NOTE.—Mr. Lindo here produced two vales—one marked 20, worth 25 centavos, and one marked 5, worth 6 centavos—both of which the commissioner redeemed by the payment of 40 centavos for the two.)

Dr. CARROLL. Do all the planters pay in this way?

Mr. LINDO. All except Don Jose Vicente Cintron.

Dr. CARROLL. Do these vales represent amounts due you?

Mr. LINDO. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they not pay you any money at all?

Mr. LINDO. Half in money and half in vales.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they not know that it is contrary to law not to pay in money?

Mr. LINDO. I don't know.

Dr. CARROLL. How much wages do you get a day?

Mr. LINDO. I get from 60 to 65 centavos. I am paid according to the work I do, but laborers generally receive about 50 centavos a day.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you ever asked to be paid entirely in cash?

Mr. LINDO. Yes; frequently.

Dr. CARROLL. Has it been refused?

Mr. LINDO. Yes; they have stuck to half cash and half vales.

Dr. CARROLL. Where are these vales redeemed?

Mr. LINDO. In the store belonging to the proprietor.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the prices charged in those stores to those who present these tickets higher than those in which you pay cash?

Mr. LINDO. The prices in the store where I redeem this are higher than those of the stores in town.

Dr. CARROLL. Are all the laborers on the estate where you work paid as you are—white and black alike?

Mr. LINDO. Yes; all of them.

Dr. CARROLL. Are you furnished a place on the estate to live in as a part of your wages?

Mr. LINDO. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the proprietor of the estate furnish you with any of your meals?

Mr. LINDO. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Does he allow a patch of ground on which to grow bananas and other things you need?

Mr. LINDO. No.

Dr. CARROLL. How large a family have you?

Mr. LINDO. I have no family; I am alone.

Dr. CARROLL (to Hermann Oquendo). Do you work on the same estate as this man?

Mr. OQUENDO. No; we work wherever we can get employment.

Dr. CARROLL. Are you paid in the same way in which he testifies he is paid?

Mr. OQUENDO. Yes. With the exception of the estate mentioned before, all Yabueoa pays the same way.

Dr. CARROLL. Half in cash?

Mr. OQUENDO. On several haciendas they only give a quarter or a third in money.

Dr. CARROLL. How much do they give where you work?

Mr. OQUENDO. Half in money. I work on an estate called Sucesores de Anglada.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you any family?

Mr. OQUENDO. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Are you furnished a house on the estate where you work?

Mr. OQUENDO. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Are you furnished any meals by the proprietors?

Mr. OQUENDO. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Are the goods you get at the company's store inferior

in quality to those you get in other stores, as well as being higher in price?

Mr. OQUENDO. Yes.

(Mr. Oquendo here produced some crackers which he alleged had been bought at the company's store, and they were moldy and alive.)

GALVINO VELAZQUEZ. I come to represent those who labor on the estates.

Dr. CARROLL. Are you a laborer?

Mr. VELAZQUEZ. No; I am an agriculturist on a small scale. I am the owner of a piece of property.

I wish to protest, in the name of all the laborers, against the payment to them of their wages in vales instead of in money. They have been taken advantage of, and have been compelled to accept them. I don't wish to say what salary a workman should earn, because he ought to earn just what his work is worth, but he ought to be paid in money.

Dr. CARROLL. The law protects a laboring man in that respect. It says he shall be paid in money.

Mr. VELAZQUEZ. The workmen had to accept them, no matter what the law ordered, because he had against him the civil guard, the magistrate, the judge, and the owner of the estate; and if he did not accept them, he was discharged.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the condition of the laboring men, generally, in this jurisdiction; how do they live?

Mr. VELAZQUEZ. Bad; worse than bad.

Dr. CARROLL. Please explain how they live.

Mr. VELAZQUEZ. He goes to work at 6 o'clock in the morning, and has to get up at 5, usually, in order to get to his work in time. Before leaving for work he takes coffee.

Dr. CARROLL. With bread?

Mr. VELAZQUEZ. No; all can not even get coffee. He works until 11 o'clock. At 11 he takes breakfast on the estate, buying his breakfast at the proprietor's store, and resumes his work at half past 11. He then continues at work until 5, when he returns home and gets his dinner.

Dr. CARROLL. What does the laboring man generally have for his meal in the evening?

Mr. VELAZQUEZ. Sweet potatoes, rice of bad quality, bad codfish, nearly always rotten. What they sell in the stores of the estates is nearly always rotten.

Dr. CARROLL. Don't you have good, fresh fish here, where fish are so plentiful?

Mr. VELAZQUEZ. Never.

Dr. CARROLL. Do the laborers get any meat?

Mr. VELAZQUEZ. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they send their children to school generally?

Mr. VELAZQUEZ. No; they haven't clothes in which to send them.

Dr. CARROLL. If living is cheap here, and you get 65 centavos a day and work six days a week, ought you not to be able to furnish clothes to the children on that?

Mr. VELAZQUEZ. The 65 centavos is turned into 30 by the time they have got through with the company's store.

Dr. CARROLL. How many acres have you in your farm?

Mr. VELAZQUEZ. Fifty.

Dr. CARROLL. What do you raise?

Mr. VELAZQUEZ. Small crops.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you sell them in the market of the city?

Mr. VELAZQUEZ. Yes; in the plaza.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the condition you have been describing the condition of the white laborer as it is of the colored laborer?

Mr. VELAZQUEZ. The same; there is no difference.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any planters here who desire to say anything on the other side, in defense?

Mr. AURELIO DAPENA (a partner of the firm of Cintron Brothers): I am a planter, and would like to say a word.

Dr. CARROLL. What have you to say about the testimony you have heard from these laborers?

Mr. DAPENA. I don't wish to defend proprietors as a class, but only the store which we run. Our firm, being in straitened circumstances for want of money, but finding that we could obtain provisions on credit, called together our laborers and asked them, "Do you wish to work, receiving half your wages in money and half in checks? In that case we can go on; otherwise, we can not."

Dr. CARROLL. When was that?

Mr. DAPENA. About two years ago, when we took over the estate.

Dr. CARROLL. Haven't things been better with you since, so that you could return to the cash basis?

Mr. DAPENA. No; things have gone from bad to worse. The workmen acted with great prudence in accepting the proposition we made them, because, while their failure to do so would have meant ruin to us, it would have meant starvation to them. On the Laura estate nobody can say that we have sold short weight, or any food of bad quality. I wish to say, too, that we have never desired to have a store; we don't make money out of it; but it has been necessary. We have not lived by exploiting the workmen, and I don't wish to appear in the class of proprietors which has been described.

Dr. CARROLL. Why did you keep the store? Was it because you had to take part of the sugar crop in provisions?

Mr. DAPENA. Because the merchants in San Juan were willing to give us credit for terms of six and nine months, which enabled us to continue. But things are changed now; the merchants in San Juan will not give credit, and we must go with cash to buy provisions, and I don't know how long we will be able to go that way.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any other planter who wishes to be heard?

Mr. J. V. CINTRON. I have always paid in money.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any of the planters here for whom these peons have been working?

(There were none present.)

CONDITION OF THE POOR.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

GUAYAMA, P. R., *February 3, 1899.*

Mr. DOMINGUEZ. I desire to speak as a private citizen, not as mayor. You should inform the President that the poor require the first attention. They are divided into three or four classes, which I will mention. When the Americans arrived here they found, in spite of the country's name, Porto Rico (rich port), that there were a large number of poor people here. These are especially worthy of attention. On going over the island the Americans saw a large proportion of its

inhabitants going about without shoes, without even hats, and these are the people that require their care.

The first class of these poor comprises those who work for their daily food with their hands. The condition of this class is terrible, not because the estate owner does not wish to help them, but because he is not in a position to do so.

The second class comprises the artisans. These artisans, who lately constituted the manufacturers in a small way—that is, the men who make coats and other articles for the rich—are in a very unfortunate condition. The artisan struggles chiefly against the want of work. In a town like Guayama, where buildings are not going up every day, six months in the year the bricklayer has nothing to do; the carpenter also has nothing to do, and the tailor is often without work.

The third class, and perhaps the most unfortunate of all, takes in the countrymen who live in the hills. This class of poor suffer from what is called anemia or want of blood, which makes them appear as indolent, when they are not so, and makes them appear as dishonest when they really are honest, and they are in a state of continual struggle for existence. The condition of these three classes puts them in a position of not being able to assist the government in the work that it requires of them—that is, of becoming good citizens. Therefore, it requires immediate remedy.

As a remedy for this condition of affairs I propose to the American Government that it introduce the change of the money system immediately, so that the cost of living shall be cheapened to these people, and that it bring from the United States undertakings and works which will allow these poor people to find a certain means of subsistence for themselves and their families. A series of public works, of which the country stands in such need, would remedy the condition of the peasant living in the valleys and the peasant living in the hills. Agricultural banks spread all over the towns would assist the agriculturist in forming his society, and he would thus be able to give assistance to the working classes.

Finally, it is absolutely necessary for the working class and for the peasant class to establish a system of schools that everybody can avail himself of. There are about 80 per cent of the people in this island who do not know how to read and write.

Dr. CARROLL. The mayor has very ably represented the condition of the laboring man, but there is nothing like direct testimony. If there are any representatives of that class present to-night, I would be pleased to have them come forward.

(In response to this invitation a laboring man came forward and announced his name as Ricardo Espendez.)

Dr. CARROLL. What is your occupation?

Mr. ESPENDEZ. I am a carpenter.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you a gremio of carpenters here?

Mr. ESPENDEZ. There are 60 carpenters in this locality, but they are not in an association. I want to tell you that we suffer very greatly here in our homes on account of the scarcity of work. In the course of a year the generality of us do not get work more than a month or a month and a half. As some express it, we live the rest of the time on air. We should like lumber to be introduced from the United States free of duty, as there are several property owners who might give us some work if lumber were cheaper, who refrain from doing so now because of high prices of lumber.

Dr. CARROLL. The new tariff makes lumber very much cheaper.

Mr. ESPENDEZ. I hope that you will represent this matter to Wash-

ington as an act of charity. Although we suffer very greatly, we have pride and do not paint our situation to everybody.

Dr. CARROLL. I think the way to improve the condition of the artisans is to improve the general conditions of the island—first, to give it better government; second, to give it better roads; third, to give it better schools and better institutions. That will place it in a better position for prosperity, and when prosperity comes it is general and all are benefited, and your class will be benefited, because people who now live in huts covered with bark will then wish to live in houses built of lumber, and so by improving general conditions we will reach special conditions and benefit them. The great industry of this island and the great source of its wealth is the agricultural industry. We must plan to take away the drawbacks from that industry, first, by giving the agriculturists better roads, so that it won't cost so much to get their crops to the port for shipment, and General Henry is giving immediate attention to this fundamental matter of good roads throughout the island. When you have good roads, then a great obstacle will have been taken out of the way of the planter. One trouble, I suppose, with your class of workers is the trouble with a great many others—there are too many carpenters for the work or too little work for the carpenters. How many days' work did you have during the year 1898?

Mr. ESPENDEZ. Two months and a half, nothing more.

Dr. CARROLL. There must be very little carpentering done in Guayama. What wages do you make when you work?

Mr. ESPENDEZ. Two dollars.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you mean two and a half months of labor when you say two months and a half?

Mr. ESPENDEZ. Two months and a half, without Sundays.

Dr. CARROLL. Then really you have made but little over \$100.

Mr. ESPENDEZ. That is all.

WAGES IN AIBONITO.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

AIBONITO, P. R., *February 6, 1899.*

Mr. JUAN JOSÉ DAVILA, a peon employed on a coffee estate:

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any laboring men or artisans present who desire to be heard? I should be glad to have them come forward and give me information with regard to the condition of the laboring men.

(Mr. Juan José Davila appeared before the commissioner and expressed a desire to be heard privately. The commissioner retired to an adjoining room and questioned Mr. Davila as follows:)

Dr. CARROLL. Do you work on a tobacco estate?

Mr. DAVILA. No; on a coffee plantation.

Dr. CARROLL. What wages do you receive?

Mr. DAVILA. Thirty-seven centavos a day.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you get the money in cash?

Mr. DAVILA. Sometimes in cash, sometimes not.

Dr. CARROLL. When you don't get it in money, you get it in vales?

Mr. DAVILA. Yes; we take them to the commercial houses here, which give us what they see fit for them.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they charge you more for provisions than if you took cash to the stores?

Mr. DAVILA. Yes. Sometimes, if the order we take to the store bears the mark of a planter who is known to be a poor payer, the

merchants raise the prices, as they say they can not get their money immediately.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you get plenty of work?

Mr. DAVILA. At times, but often there is not sufficient work for us to make enough to supply ourselves with necessary food.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you a family?

Mr. DAVILA. I support a father, mother, wife, and children.

Dr. CARROLL. How many children?

Mr. DAVILA. Two.

Dr. CARROLL. How many workers are there in the family?

Mr. DAVILA. Only myself. My father and mother are old people.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you pay rent for your house?

Mr. DAVILA. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. How much?

Mr. DAVILA. Two dollars for one room.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you all live in one room?

Mr. DAVILA. Yes; we haven't enough to pay for more lodging.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the owner of the coffee plantation give you any meals when you are working for him?

Mr. DAVILA. We go to work at 6 o'clock in the morning, and at 11 o'clock the proprietor sends us some codfish and plantains of a bad quality.

Dr. CARROLL. The plantains or the codfish of a bad quality?

Mr. DAVILA. Both.

Dr. CARROLL. How many days' work do you have in a year, on the average.

Mr. DAVILA. We work whenever we can get it. Sometimes we are a month, and even two and three months, without work, during which time we are not able to make a peseta.

Dr. CARROLL. How do you live then?

Mr. DAVILA. By obtaining credit at the stores on the expectation of what we are going to earn later on.

Dr. CARROLL. What are you able to give your family in the way of food?

Mr. DAVILA. There are days in which I am able to give them a little rice; other days in which I am able to give them a little codfish, and other days in which I am able to give them neither breakfast nor supper.

Dr. CARROLL. What about clothing?

Mr. DAVILA. For clothing our families we manage to get small advances from the owner of the estate on which we are working, and with that manage to get cotton clothes such as I am wearing.

Dr. CARROLL. What about tools?

Mr. DAVILA. The estate owner furnishes them, and we pay for them by our work.

WORK, WAGES, AND MEALS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

COAMO, P. R., February 6, 1899.

Mr. ANTERO RIVERO, a painter, and others:

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any artisans or laborers here? Laborers are in the majority in the island, and I don't feel that my investigation would be complete without getting their views.

A GENTLEMAN PRESENT. There is a great want of factories here

to give work to women and children. All would work if they had a chance.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there no laborers here?

Mr. ANTERO RIVERO. I think that before the workmen here can progress there must be a union formed among them; otherwise they will remain in the same condition in which they are to-day. Being united, they would be in a position to ask for such a salary as would enable them to keep a family together, whereas with the miserable pittance they now earn they are unable to keep a family, although they labor from 6 o'clock in the morning until 6 in the evening. The most a workman earns is a dollar or a dollar and a quarter a day.

Dr. CARROLL. That is a great deal more than is earned in other districts. How many days' work did you have last year?

Mr. RIVERO. Nearly six months.

Dr. CARROLL. What wages did you get?

Mr. RIVERO. Seven dollars and fifty centavos a week.

Dr. CARROLL. About \$180 for the six months. Do you own your own house?

Mr. RIVERO. No; I pay \$4 a month rent.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you a family?

Mr. RIVERO. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Of how many does it consist?

Mr. RIVERO. Only a wife, but I support my mother and sister.

Dr. CARROLL. How much do you think you ought to have in order to support your family properly?

Mr. RIVERO. Two dollars a day.

Dr. CARROLL. You say you have work about six months a year; what do you do the other six months?

Mr. RIVERO. Nothing; I know no other trade.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you any ground to cultivate in connection with your house?

Mr. RIVERO. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you know how much the ordinary field laborer gets here a day?

Mr. RIVERO. Fifty centavos a day.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that always paid in cash?

Mr. RIVERO. On some estates they pay in cash and on others with vales.

Dr. CARROLL. For redemption at the hacienda's store?

Mr. RIVERO. Yes; in provisions.

Dr. CARROLL. Do the laborers make any complaint about getting a part of their salary in that way.

Mr. RIVERO. A commission came here the other day to incite the laborers to strike on account of the miserable wages they receive.

Dr. CARROLL. A commission of laborers?

Mr. RIVERO. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think the laboring men would profit by a strike?

Mr. RIVERO. I think so.

Dr. CARROLL. They don't usually in the United States. In almost every strike the workmen lose not only what they are contending for, but also the wages they might earned during the period of the strike. Do the laborers who are paid in vales complain of the prices charged for the provisions they get at the company's store or as to the quality of the provisions?

Mr. RIVERO. I can not answer that question, but I can find a man who can.

NOTE.—Mr. Rivero returned to the hearing, after a few minutes, followed by two farm laborers. The commissioner interviewed them as follows:

Dr. CARROLL. Are you a laborer on a coffee estate?

FIRST LABORER. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. You also (addressing the second laborer)?

SECOND LABORER. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. The same estate?

SECOND LABORER. The same mountain, but not the same estate.

Dr. CARROLL. What do you get a day?

FIRST LABORER. From 25 centavos up to 37½ centavos.

Dr. CARROLL. How many days a week do you labor?

FIRST LABORER. Six.

Dr. CARROLL. What are your hours of labor?

FIRST LABORER. From early morning until 11 o'clock, when we stop for a short rest, and then work on until nightfall.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you get your wages in cash?

FIRST LABORER. Sometimes in money and sometimes they tell us they haven't money, and give us orders.

Dr. CARROLL. Orders on the stores?

FIRST LABORER. Orders which any store will take. In the district of Coamo they pay some 3 and some 4 reales, but never more than that.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they furnish you a house to live in?

FIRST LABORER. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. The house, then, is free?

FIRST LABORER. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they furnish you one meal a day?

FIRST LABORER. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they give you land to raise a crop on?

FIRST LABORER. No; they don't give land to anybody. We have only the land the house stands on.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they give you bananas or fruits of that kind?

FIRST LABORER. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they give you all the plantains you want?

FIRST LABORER. Yes; they give us 6 or 7.

Dr. CARROLL. How much of a family have you?

FIRST LABORER. I have no family.

SECOND LABORER. I get about the same as my friend.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you get a house free?

SECOND LABORER. I live in Coamo; not on the estate.

Dr. CARROLL. Do they give you one meal a day?

SECOND LABORER. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. What does the meal consist of?

SECOND LABORER. Bananas and codfish, without any sort of flavoring or seasoning.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the codfish in good condition?

SECOND LABORER. Medium; it is not of the best quality.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you get your wages in cash?

SECOND LABORER. No; in orders.

Dr. CARROLL. All of it in orders?

SECOND LABORER. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. On what store—on the company's store?

SECOND LABORER. I can redeem them at any store where they know the signature is good.

Dr. CARROLL. Is an order as good as money in buying provisions?

SECOND LABORER. It is worth half to me.

Dr. CARROLL. Did the proprietor for whom you work state any reason for paying you in that way?

SECOND LABORER. He pays a few in money, and then says he has no more money, and pays the rest in orders.

Dr. CARROLL. Is that true of all proprietors, or of a few only?

SECOND LABORER. Some pay in money and some pay in orders.

A PLANTER. I have never paid my workmen in anything but money, and I give them coffee, breakfast and dinner, a house, and 37½ centavos a day.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you a family?

SECOND LABORER. I have a wife and five children.

Dr. CARROLL. Do your children work in the field?

SECOND LABORER. I have only one who is large enough to work.

Dr. CARROLL. Does your wife work?

SECOND LABORER. She is a washerwoman.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you send any of your children to school?

SECOND LABORER. I have one at school.

THE POOR OF SAN JUAN.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *February 9, 1899.*

The Rev. A. J. McKIM, agent of the American Bible Society:

There are about 32,000 people here in San Juan and vicinity, of whom about 7,000 are miserably poor. It is a poverty of which the poor at home know comparatively little about, because it relates to their daily food. It is not infrequent for persons to come home in the afternoon and say they haven't taken their breakfast (*desayuno*). I will relate a case of a woman living about three squares from this office (corner of Sol and San Justo streets), with six children, who replied, in answer to a question, that she hadn't tasted bread since day before yesterday, but that her children had something to eat yesterday from the soup kitchen. The number of cases of this kind is comparatively large, partly owing to the fact that some were left in an unprotected state by the war and partly from the fact that there has been a considerable emigration from the island, leaving certain dependents without any protection, and many Spaniards are in a like case.

There came to my room a Spaniard who said that he could not procure any work because of his nationality. I replied that charity has no nationality, and that we were just as willing to help Spaniards as to help Porto Ricans or Americans in distress, and that I myself would visit his house on the following morning and investigate the state of suffering which he alleged existed not only in his own family, but in the entire row known as Marine Row.

The state of misery which was found in that whole street was sufficient to excite the charity even of the soldiers, who sometimes shared their rations with those poor sufferers in that street. The officers were especially kind to them, and were it not for them and for liberal citizens of our own nation, those people would actually have starved to death. I asked one father why he did not clothe his children, the younger ones being entirely naked. He replied that he would be very glad to be able to give them one meal a day. A second visit revealed

still further cases in the immediate vicinity. In another part of the city, near the north wall, I found a large number of children, neglected for a long time, and many of them in a state of perfect nudity. But on returning to give them the alms which I had collected for them, I found them gathered around the door of a house from which food was distributed among them, and they were all securing, through charity, at least one good meal per day. That is only about four blocks from here.

These cases would be nothing in themselves, but they are representative cases, and while in the principal streets misery is not seen, in all the cross streets of the city misery is patent to the least observant. My object in visiting them has been to administer temporal help and also spiritual comfort. A large number of single Gospels have been given to them, but it has generally been after having furnished them substance, at least for the moment. If our people could understand how very near to starvation many of these people really live, I am sure they would be induced to provide something for the simplest wants of nature.

A laborer from the coffee region about Lares said to me that when the government was prepared to assure work to the inhabitants of the island their happiest day would have arrived, and that assurance can be realized the moment the people know that they are not to be molested either by the government or by robber bands. There is now in my house an owner of a coffee estate who returns to Spain for the purpose of recuperating his health which was lost by his vigilance in looking after his estate near Lares. He and others assert that the island affords abundant work for the people the moment they are assured protection in their persons and property. Throughout the island there has been a misconception of the liberty which the United States has afforded them, many interpreting it as a license which would allow them to prey upon their neighbors who were born in the Peninsula, and so capital has been retired from the island in considerable amounts, and work has been suspended. The laborers thus thrown out of work have come to the capital to seek protection and work in order to support their families. There is comparatively little work in this vicinity to-day, except upon the wharf, and these reconcentrados have suffered in their persons all that is possible to suffer and live, and while the present state of things continues much suffering will probably exist; but as renewed assurances of stability are being given, many are commencing to build up their estates and to employ more workmen. So true is this that many persons from the adjacent Antilles have been arriving to share in the small amount of labor here. Provision can be easily made for those who are now here; and if the growing confidence of the people in the interior will draw an equal number of laborers from the capital, no doubt the social conditions will be vastly improved.

One of the worst features of the reconcentration of our native inhabitants in the capital has been the overfilling of tenement houses, 20 and 30 families living in single houses of 8 and 10 rooms; that is, nearly an average of 3 families to a room. While such a state of affairs continues morality is not possible. Therefore, one of the chief objects of the government should be to provide suitable habitations for the poor. We understand that this matter has been brought to the attention of the supreme authority in the island, and have no doubt that the continued clamor of the people for suitable homes will attract the attention of capitalists and builders.

I think, considering that there are in this island 900,000 people and that it is not as large as the State of Connecticut, that they have been comparatively well taken care of. If, under our administration, they can have work more regularly, their condition will be very greatly improved. As the taxes which impoverish them are abolished and the necessities of life are furnished them as cheaply as at home, there seems no reason why they should not take a more advanced position in social lines. It is true that the vices of the country are taxed more than formerly, and these are a source of revenue for the municipalities; but the people are becoming convinced that it is only a good market for their produce and steady labor that can advance the true interests of the government and procure their own happiness and that of their families.

ARTISANS IN CAGUAS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

CAGUAS, P. R., *February 27, 1899.*

Mr. BOADA (president of the gremio of workmen). We need protection in everything which we undertake for the purpose of raising our position.

Dr. CARROLL. How about your wages, the way you live, and other matters affecting your conditions?

Mr. BOADA. I have a carpenter's shop and work for my own account.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you have work every day in the week and every week in the year?

Mr. BOADA. No; I am idle about half the year.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you work six days in the week when you have work?

Mr. BOADA. Even at nighttime.

Dr. CARROLL. Why is it that you don't have more work. Is it because there are many carpenters here or too little work?

Mr. BOADA. There are too many carpenters and too little work, and all furniture is brought in from outside.

Dr. CARROLL. Why don't some of the carpenters go into something else?

Mr. BOADA. I don't know.

Dr. CARROLL. How much of a family have you?

Mr. BOADA. Four children and my wife.

Dr. CARROLL. What rent do you pay?

Mr. BOADA. I live in my father's house.

Dr. CARROLL. Do your children go to school?

Mr. BOADA. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. How old is the eldest?

Mr. BOADA. Eight years.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you boys?

Mr. BOADA. One boy and three girls.

Mr. DOMINGO DE S. DIAZ, a painter:

Dr. CARROLL. Do you have plenty of work?

Mr. DIAZ. Very little work.

Dr. CARROLL. How many days' work do you have a year?

Mr. DIAZ. I work about half the year.

Dr. CARROLL. How much do you get a day?

Mr. DIAZ. I do piecework. I can make from a peso to a peso and a half a day.

Dr. CARROLL. Can you live comfortably on that?

Mr. DIAZ. No.

Dr. CARROLL. How many have you in your family?

Mr. DIAZ. I have a mother, wife, and three children.

Dr. CARROLL. How much rent do you pay?

Mr. DIAZ. I live in the house of my uncle.

Dr. CARROLL. Do your children go to school?

Mr. DIAZ. Every day.

Dr. CARROLL. What trade are you going to teach them?

Mr. DIAZ. Whatever they choose.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there many painters here?

Mr. DIAZ. There are several, and painters come here also from neighboring towns.

Mr. JUAN DIAZ, a tailor:

Dr. CARROLL. Have you a shop of your own?

Mr. DIAZ. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you work by the day, or week, or piece?

Mr. DIAZ. I work for so much a suit.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you have plenty of work?

Mr. DIAZ. Very little work.

Dr. CARROLL. What is the reason for it; are there too many tailors?

Mr. DIAZ. There are quite a number of tailors.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you have work enough to keep you going six months in the year?

Mr. DIAZ. Yes; about six months. My work is very irregular; some weeks I have nothing to do, and maybe the next week I have plenty of work.

Dr. CARROLL. About how much do you make in a year?

Mr. DIAZ. About a dollar a day, native money.

Dr. CARROLL. Then you make about \$150, native money, a year?

Mr. DIAZ. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you a family?

Mr. DIAZ. Yes; I have a father, mother, and two sisters.

Dr. CARROLL. Does your father work also?

Mr. DIAZ. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you pay rent?

Mr. DIAZ. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Then, in a family like that, with two working, you can live very comfortably, I suppose?

Mr. DIAZ. Yes; if we could only get work every day. I have sometimes been a whole month without work.

Dr. CARROLL. Is your father a tailor?

Mr. DIAZ. No; he is a weigher and loader.

Mr. ANTONIO MORENO, a cigar maker:

Dr. CARROLL. Have you work all the year?

Mr. MORENO. I have very little work.

Dr. CARROLL. About how much of the year are you busy?

Mr. MORENO. Four or five months.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you work for yourself?

Mr. MORENO. No; as a journeyman.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there several cigar or cigarette factories here?

Mr. MORENO. No; there are no factories, in the proper sense of the word. I get work from the stores, as they need to have cigars made up from time to time for their needs.

Dr. CARROLL. About what do you earn in a year?

Mr. MORENO. I earn about a dollar a day when I have work.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you any family?

Mr. MORENO. Yes; I have a mother and one child. I am a widower.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you pay house rent?

Mr. MORENO. Yes; 6 pesos a month.

Dr. CARROLL. How many rooms do you have for that?

Mr. MORENO. Two.

Mr. JESUS MENDEZ, a shoemaker:

Mr. MENDEZ. I work in a shoe factory; not for my own account.

Dr. CARROLL. How many months a year?

Mr. MENDEZ. The whole year round.

Dr. CARROLL. How much do you earn?

Mr. MENDEZ. Some days a dollar, some days 75 centavos; they pay me by piecework.

Dr. CARROLL. How many days do you work a week?

Mr. MENDEZ. Five days; we don't work Sunday and Monday. On these days they prepare the work for the rest of the week.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you a family?

Mr. MENDEZ. Yes; a father, mother, and a little child.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you pay rent?

Mr. MENDEZ. We pay 4 pesos a month between us.

Dr. CARROLL. How many rooms have you?

Mr. MENDEZ. Two.

Dr. CARROLL. Of what material is the house—wood?

Mr. MENDEZ. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Does the child go to school?

Mr. MENDEZ. No; she is not old enough yet.

Dr. CARROLL. Did you go to school yourself when you were a boy?

Mr. MENDEZ. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Until what time?

Mr. MENDEZ. Until I was 17 years of age.

LOW WAGES AND LITTLE WORK.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

CAYEY, February 28, 1899.

A gentleman came forward and stated that he desired to represent the laboring men.

Dr. CARROLL. If you want to represent them, give me some concrete information. I want facts, not opinions.

Mr. ———. Laboring men earn about 31 centavos a day here.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you mean in this city?

Mr. ———. In the whole district. I have heard it stated here that field peons are given two meals a day.

Dr. CARROLL. Are you a laboring man?

Mr. ———. No.

Dr. CARROLL. What is your work?

Mr. ———. I am a shirt maker.

Mayor MUÑOZ. There not being sufficient work in his trade, he has left it.

Mr. ———. They eat herrings and bananas in the morning, and in the afternoon the same thing. They work the whole week.

Dr. CARROLL. Don't they eat any bread?

Mr. ———. No. Sunday, if the peon is paid his money, he buys a bit of meat. If he is paid in vales, he can not get meat.

Dr. CARROLL. Are many paid in vales?

Mr. ———. Yes; many.

Mr. PLANELLAS. It is not fair to imply that nobody here in Cayey looks after the laboring man or tries to elevate him. I have tried the experiment of giving them meat, and after trying it two days they have asked for codfish. The salvation of the laboring man is not the work of a day.

Dr. CARROLL. Is it customary for planters to give peons a meal a day?

A PLANTER. On my estate I give coffee in the morning, a meal in the middle of the day, consisting of codfish and plantains, and in the evening rice and plantains or sweet potatoes. Frequently the planters sustain the families living on the estate.

Dr. CARROLL. What do you pay a day?

PLANTER. Thirty-seven centavos. When work is scarce I allow them to sow a piece of land and charge them nothing for the land.

Dr. CARROLL. In what form do you pay them?

PLANTER. In money. Sometimes some of them want cash in advance, and in that case I give them a vale, and merchants here all charge low prices.

ANOTHER PLANTER. The generality of planters do not treat their peons in the manner that this gentleman has described.

Mr. LUIS MUÑOZ. In this document there is a very important clause which I would like to have read for the satisfaction of the town. In former years, when the harvesting of the crops was over, which was usually in May, the planters used to give their men employment on the estates until the next crop. This year they can not do that, and about 3,000 men will be out of work, which will cause trouble.

(The paragraph referred to stated that the workmen will be without work when the harvest is over, and that it was urgent that some work should be undertaken to give them employment.)

Mayor MUÑOZ. I wish to make known that the greater number of small agricultural owners here take the same kind of food that is taken by the peon.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any peons present? I would like to hear all classes, and if there are any laboring men present I would like to have them come forward and speak freely.

PEDRO JOSÉ SANCHEZ, a field peon:

Dr. CARROLL. What is your work?

Mr. SANCHEZ. I am a field laborer.

Dr. CARROLL. On whose estate are you working to-day?

Mr. SANCHEZ. I am working in the finca of Mr. Ortiz, who pays me three reales a day. He gives me two meals a day and gives me good food.

Dr. CARROLL. Are you paid in vales?

Mr. SANCHEZ. No; in money.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you any family?

Mr. SANCHEZ. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you live on the estate?

Mr. SANCHEZ. I live near the estate. They don't give me a house on the estate. I haven't asked for one, but I don't think I would get one if I did ask for it.

Dr. CARROLL. What are your hours of labor?

Mr. SANCHEZ. From 6 until 6.

Dr. CARROLL. How much time do you have in the middle of the day?

Mr. SANCHEZ. Until I have swallowed the last mouthful. What I earn is not sufficient to keep me.

Dr. CARROLL. How do you spend your money?

Mr. SANCHEZ. For clothing and food.

Dr. CARROLL. Are not two meals enough?

Mr. SANCHEZ. No; not the meals I get.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you spend money for rum?

Mr. SANCHEZ. Only a little.

Dr. CARROLL. How much a day?

Mr. SANCHEZ. I take two drinks a day.

Dr. CARROLL. Where do you go on Sunday?

Mr. SANCHEZ. On Sunday I attend to matters in my house, and go down to the river to wash myself, and come to the city.

Dr. CARROLL. What clothes have you?

Mr. SANCHEZ. The clothes I have on only.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you play games?

Mr. SANCHEZ. No; not at all.

(Mr. Sanchez wore no shoes; his trousers and shirt were of very cheap material, and his general appearance was that of a very poor countryman.)

Mr. JOSÉ VELEZ LOPEZ, a cigar maker:

Dr. CARROLL. What do you earn a day?

Mr. LOPEZ. I make from \$1.75 to \$2 a day, according to the work. I do piecework—so much a hundred. We begin at 6 o'clock in the morning and work until 5 o'clock. In the middle of the day we have three-quarters of an hour.

Dr. CARROLL. Is what you earn sufficient to maintain your family?

Mr. LOPEZ. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you have work all the year?

Mr. LOPEZ. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. In what factory do you work?

Mr. LOPEZ. Rucabado's. That gives work all the year round.

Dr. CARROLL. How much of a family have you?

Mr. LOPEZ. I have five children.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you pay rent?

Mr. LOPEZ. Yes, I pay \$5 a month.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you send your children to school?

Mr. LOPEZ. Yes, two of them—one 8 and the other 10 years of age.

Dr. CARROLL. How many rooms have you in your house?

Mr. LOPEZ. Two rooms.

Mr. JESUS HERNANDEZ, a foreman in a cigar factory:

Dr. CARROLL. How many cigars do you make a year?

Mr. HERNANDEZ. It is not possible to calculate exactly. We can make about 30,000 cigars a week. We work six days, and have 68 workmen at present.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any boys or girls working there?

Mr. HERNANDEZ. Yes. There are none working there less than 9 years of age.

Dr. CARROLL. How many children have you at work?

Mr. HERNANDEZ. Eight boys and four girls.

Dr. CARROLL. Can any of them read?

Mr. HERNANDEZ. Some of them, but not all. Most of the tobacco manufacturers also do not know how to read and write.

Dr. CARROLL. Mr. Mayor, is it not the law that children must go to school?

Mayor MUÑOZ. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Is any attempt made to enforce that law?

Mayor MUÑOZ. I have only had the position about a week and have not had it rectified yet; but I have already asked the police to give me the names of the children in the town to see whether they are attending school.

Dr. CARROLL. Are those children apprentices?

Mr. HERNANDEZ. Yes.

Dr. CARROLL. Mr. Mayor, is there any law regulating the age at which children can go to work?

Mayor MUÑOZ. No.

Dr. CARROLL. Where do you buy your tobacco?

Mr. HERNANDEZ. From this district.

Dr. CARROLL. What do you do with your cigars—where do they go?

Mr. HERNANDEZ. They are sold in the island; a few are exported.

Dr. CARROLL. Where do you export them?

Mr. HERNANDEZ. To the United States, some to Spain, and sometimes to Germany and England. We have tried to introduce our goods there, but it has been without result.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there more tobacco under cultivation this year than last?

Mr. HERNANDEZ. No; less.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you give less for tobacco this year than last year?

Mr. HERNANDEZ. The new harvest has not come in yet, so I can not tell.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you get for your manufactured product as much as you did a year ago?

Mr. HERNANDEZ. The manufacturers sell cigars at the same price, but have to pay their workmen more. They will have to raise the price for that reason.

THE POOR OF YAUCO.

YAUCO, P. R., *March 5, 1899.*

On the afternoon of Sunday, March 5, the commissioner visited the poor quarter of Yauco, situated on the hillside, from the crown of the hill about halfway downward. The houses are set irregularly, without much regard to streets, which are absolutely impassable for wagons. The heavy rains have made deep gullies in the center of them, and it is difficult for one to go through them on horseback. The houses are built entirely of wood, with shingle roofs, differing entirely in this respect from those of Arecibo, which had thatched roofs. They are also of a better grade. Most of them consist of two rooms. They are built of odd bits of boards, which had formerly served as dry-goods boxes or as the staves of barrels or hogsheads. Almost without exception they are very dirty. In nearly every case the furniture consists of a cot and chair, or a box, and sometimes a table.

There is generally a kettle which serves as a sort of portable furnace for the cooking of the meals.

The population is a mixed one. Very often a white woman will have a colored husband, or a white husband a colored wife. The commissioner examined several persons living in these houses on various points.

Case No. 1.—A porter who said he earned from 50 to 60 centavos a day when he had work. He had never been to school and could not read or write. He had one child 10 years of age who goes to school, but who when asked the sum of 2 and 9 said 18. This man owns his own house, is white, and about 40 years of age. He says that the amount he earns is not sufficient to give him and his family more than one meal a day and coffee before starting out to work. When asked what his food consisted of, he said it was chiefly rice and beans, never wheat bread or meat.

Case No. 2.—A young couple, man of about 20 years of age and woman of about 17 or 18; have been living together about a year, but were not married. They were both dark complexioned. The woman had a very comely face, but was a slattern. When asked why they had not got married, the woman seemed somewhat abashed and turned her head. The man said he did not want to be tied up; that if she wanted to get free she could do so. He was asked if one of the reasons he had not married was the cost of getting married, and he said that had something to do with it. He had no children; if he had children he might reconsider his statement and get married. He is a peddler, and when working earns about 50 centavos a day.

Case No. 3.—A baker, with four children. His earnings are according to the class of work he is put on. Sometimes he makes 50 centavos and sometimes he manages to make a dollar, but on the average he does not make more than 50 centavos. He is married. His wife assists him by washing, and a brother-in-law lives with them and helps out.

Case No. 4.—Washerwoman, living alone with four children; earns about 18 cents a day—that is, she takes in a couple dozen pieces of clothes one day and is able to deliver them the third day if all goes well and the weather is dry. She owns her house and is having an addition made to it, which she will rent to the man who is building it for the sum of 25 centavos a week when completed. She says her children run about the streets and manage to pick up a few centavos on day jobs. She seemed to be a woman of cheerful disposition. When asked if she was able to give her children enough food, she said they never went without food, but the appearance of the baby in her arms was not that of a well-nourished child.

Case No. 5.—Man and woman living together. The man said he would not marry; that he had not got the woman of his choice. He was inclined to resent the interference of another man who asked why he did not marry, saying that he was quite as good a man as the other one, and that he had better mind his own business. The woman, who was present, looked sheepish and turned away and seemed to take the matter as a good joke. The man was colored, the woman white. Evidently the man was of a surly and probably of a vicious character.

Case No. 6.—A fireman. His work was loading the mule teams of the army with rubbish to take down to the river for disposal; was employed by the municipality. The mayor told him that 50 centavos was all that he could pay, and that if he could not accept 50 centavos he need not come back to work. He asked 75 centavos, and expressed the opinion to the mayor, he said, that 50 centavos was not enough for

a man of family to keep them in food and clothes. He works at any odd jobs that offer and his wife helps him by selling ducks in the market place. He is evidently an intelligent colored man. He said he had never allowed his children "to go to bed with their mouths open for want of food." He said that as regards clothes they were very badly off; that he could not afford to buy any other than the very cheapest, and that those put on in the morning would probably be useless at nighttime, owing to their bad quality.

Case No. 7.—Another family with whom a brother-in-law of the man lived and assisted by sharing the expenses of the house. The woman seemed to be a motherly sort of person, but was squatting in the doorway with her children about her, breaking in upon the conversation at intervals; she said it was impossible for people to live decently with what they were able to earn. The brother of the woman was evidently a pure Porto Rican. He asked the man mentioned in case No. 5 if he did not regard the woman he was living with as his wife, and was told to mind his business. When asked if the titular doctor gave his services freely when required, they said no; that he usually managed to make some excuse not to come up unless he was paid for it; that for that reason they had to go to the hospital when they wanted medical attendance. This same opinion was expressed more or less by all the persons the commissioner spoke to, with the exception of the last, a shoemaker, who said that the doctor was a decent sort of fellow and came up when required.

Case No. 8.—A woman who makes a living at coffee picking and lives with her sister. She makes at the most 37 centavos a day, but does not average that amount. She gave the same reply about the doctor. When asked what were the prevalent diseases in that quarter of the town, she said fever, of which the commissioner saw several instances. She had not sent for the doctor when sick, and said he would not have come if she had sent for him. She said one reason they did not go to see the doctor was the fear that they might be sent to the hospital. When asked if they were treated well in the hospital, she said that some of them went in almost well and died there. Evidently there was a feeling of fear among the poor regarding the hospital. She lived with her sister, and they owned the house. The cost of building these houses appears to be between \$20 and \$50, according to their quality. The city allows them to build houses on the land without charging them any rent. Formerly the city did charge rent. As there is no water upon the hill, they have to go down to the river, a distance of probably 500 yards. They employ a water carrier for this purpose when they have no men in the family, and his charge is 5 cents for two kerosene cans of water. This has to last them a day, and frequently longer, and if they have no money they have to borrow of their neighbors' supply of water. There are no sanitary regulations of any description. The refuse of the houses is piled in heaps and burned, but bad smells do not prevail up there, owing, probably, to the strong wind which usually blows across the hill. There were evidences of past smallpox in the faces of many of the women, and children, but at present, it is said, there are no cases. The children were nearly all of a sickly cast, the prominent abdomen being one of the chief features. When asked whether the priest is in the habit of coming up among them and advising them and talking to them, they said he never made a pastoral visit by any chance; that he occasionally came up there to administer the last sacrament, but after much persuasion only.

Case No. 9.—A laborer and wife, married, with five children, living

in one room. The man sometimes works on the mountains chopping wood, or down in the town, when he can get anything to do. His wife was a cook in the town, but had to leave her place owing to ill health. She was paid \$4 a month, and was frequently able to bring up food from the town for her family. Both were very intelligent, and when asked whether they would be satisfied to see their daughter, when grown up, lapse into the state of living which seems to be general, the man was vehement in saying no, but seemed to understand that unless the children received an education that would be their fate. When asked how they could possibly acquire good morals when the whole family of seven slept in one room, the man said it was impossible, but that it was also impossible for him to do otherwise, as he had no other room for them to sleep in. Their dinner was standing on the table. It consisted of plates of rice and codfish, probably with about half a pound in each. This, at 5 o'clock in the afternoon, was the first meal they had taken that day, the woman saying that they were thankful to get that. This was apparently the most intelligent and best disposed household visited.

Case No. 10.—A married couple living in a slightly superior house. The husband, a man of about 25, was sitting on an iron bedstead with a clean canopy; he had on a clean cotton shirt. He said that he had worked almost constantly at the shoemaker's bench, and was able to earn from 50 to 75 centavos a day. They had a box of oranges for sale in the door, and they appeared to be generally cleanly and in a better position than their neighbors. This man made the statement that the town doctor visited sick persons when required to do so, and that the priest also attended to administering the last sacrament when necessary.

Case No. 11.—A woman of about 35 or 40 years of age, with four children, who said she was married, but that her husband had left her and was living with another woman. She works at coffee picking, and says she can earn about 25 cents a day. When asked what she did with her children when at work, she said she leaves them at home and that the eldest looks after the others. She had a baby in her arms of about 6 months. This child she takes with her to her work, and said she had work constantly. She was living in one room, for which she was paying \$1.25 per month.

The general run of wages for women seems to be from 18 to 37 centavos, and for men from 50 to 60 centavos. There are quite a number of peddlers who obtain goods from stores on short credits and go out into the country selling to the farmers and peons. One of these remarked that when times used to be good he could easily make a dollar and a half a day, but that times were very hard now and 50 centavos was about the usual amount earned when he went out. This man had a basket evidently full of notions. Many of the women, as well as the men, were barefoot, and many of the children had no clothes on whatever. The women sat together in groups on the dirt outside of their houses. Dirty jute hammocks in many instances take the place of cots or beds. The cooking appears to be done inside the houses by lighting a few wood splinters in a kettle on the floor, or a little charcoal, and putting the pot containing the food on this. Many of the men were absent from their homes. There was not a single evidence of a water-closet through the district. The men seem generally to be intelligent and active. All the children apparently go to school, but none of those questioned had as much education as a child of 7 years in the United States would have.

THE AGRICULTURAL LABORER.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 31, 1898.*

Dr. CARROLL. What is the condition of the agricultural laborers generally?

Dr. SANTIAGO VEVE, of Fajardo. The laborer to-day is in a very sad condition, chiefly owing to the impecunious condition of the men who employ him. His relation to his employer is voluntary. He either asks for work or is asked by the employer if he wants to work. He is paid on an average about 50 centavos a day, but usually is not paid in coin, but in I. O. U.'s, which he usually takes to the store in the neighborhood at which his employer has opened an account and obtains for these I. O. U.'s, or vales, as they are called, provisions, for which he pays a much higher price than he would be obliged to pay if he had cash. Should he not use the whole amount of his earnings in buying provisions or clothing, but ask the storekeeper to give him the remainder in cash, the storekeeper does so with a discount of from 15 to 20 per cent.

Dr. CARROLL. Is his employer subject to the same conditions as to trade and money balances at the store?

Dr. VEVE. Every week a balance is taken by the storekeeper of the amounts given to the peons employed by Mr. A., for instance. That amount is put to the agriculturist's debit and the total amount is settled at the time of harvest. Should Mr. A. not pay this amount at harvest time, interest is charged on the amount, or such part of it as remains unpaid, at the rate of about 12 per cent a year.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there no labor organization among the laborers?

Dr. VEVE. In the country, absolutely none, but there has been an attempt to do something of that sort among the laborers in San Juan and Ponce.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there no oppression employed by the agriculturist's employer with respect to the laborers?

Dr. VEVE. That depends on the owner of the estate. If he is a man of conscience, oppression does not occur; but in some cases there have been employers who have taken advantage of their ignorant and poor employees to oppress them, and, the laborers here being of a mild character, this seldom gives rise to trouble.

Dr. CARROLL. Do the employers provide food for the laborers and their families?

Dr. VEVE. The general rule is, the laborer goes to the plantation in the morning and returns home at night and receives only his salary. There are some exceptions in the coffee estates, where, on some plantations, it is customary to let the laborer build a little house on the estate, where he is permitted out of crop time to have a small garden for his own use. Sometimes the agreement between the employer and the laborer is that the latter shall receive half his compensation in money and half in food, but this is an exception. As a general rule the employer does not supply the laborer with food.

Dr. CARROLL. We have been informed that a majority of merchants, bankers, shippers, and owners of plantations are Spaniards. Is that the case?

Dr. VEVE. Not absolutely true. In commerce and banks nearly all the owners of establishments are Spaniards; but in agriculture there is a slight preponderance of native owners over Spanish owners.

THE VICE OF GAMBLING.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 1, 1898.*

Dr. CARROLL. What is the condition of the agricultural laborers here?

Mr. ROIG. They get enough salary, but their condition is not good, because they incur expenses that they should not. Moreover, they gamble a great deal and often lose in an hour all they have. The poor people here do not know how to save their money. It goes for drink or something else that is not needed by them.

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any places where they can put their savings?

Mr. ROIG. There are in Ponce and San German, but nowhere else. They can save, nevertheless, if they were inclined to do so, because their needs are few. The poor do not wear shoes, and their clothing is scant and of the cheapest materials.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there much desire among them to get a little house and farm of their own, so as to live independently?

Mr. ROIG. No; they don't care; they have very little ambition. I am speaking now of the peons.

LONG HOURS OF LABOR.

STATEMENT OF MAYOR EUSTAQUIO TORRES.

GUAYANILLA, P. R., *November 7, 1898.*

The common price of a day's labor is 50 cents, colonial money. With this sum the laborer has to attend to his and his family's needs. Considering the high price of food stuffs, especially those of prime necessity, it will be seen that such a pittance can not suffice to cover even his most urgent needs. The result is that these wretched people walk about dirty, shoeless, in rags, and, worst of all, owing to want of proper food, and live in the most abject ignorance. When they return from their laborious work, lasting from 6 to 6, they desire nothing but to rest their weary bodies, and have no idea what it means to read a paper.

Still worse is the field hand's fate. Out of work during the most of the year—for work falls off after harvest—he drags on a miserable existence, his enforced idleness sometimes leading to theft and crime. Therefore, not only for humanitarian, but for State reasons, labor should be under regulations giving the laborer some time for rest and some for study and pleasure, as is customary in all civilized countries. Above all, he should be entitled to at least \$1 a day or its equivalent in gold, to enable him to save something for his and his family's support when out of work, and as the only way of saving him from thieving.

LOW AGRICULTURAL WAGES.

STATEMENT OF ESCOLASTICO PEREZ.

CIDRA, P. R., *November 10, 1898.*

In this country, rich by nature, little work is done. Anæmia impoverishes the physical strength of the poor. Food and wages do not permit of a good method of working. Taxes, hindrances, and other

causes have so sterilized all ambition and initiative of the agriculturist that it is impossible for him to pay his laborers higher wages. As soon as the agriculturist obtains honest protection this evil will disappear.

MEASURES OF RELIEF.

STATEMENT OF TOMAS VASQUEZ, M. D.

MAYAGUEZ, P. R., *November 10, 1898.*

I write, touching only on two or three points which my experience as a doctor, bringing me into frequent contact with the peasant, has enabled me long ago to form an opinion. I consider that if Porto Rico is to obtain speedy benefits from its change of nationality the wants of this class should receive prompt attention and their vices immediate correction.

The peasant (*jibaro*) of Porto Rico lives in miserable hovels of straw, isolated and at a distance from any town of sometimes 2 or 3 leagues or even from each other. As is natural, this class of life brings in its train, first, the impossibility of healthy alimentation, for they eat nothing but sweet potatoes, yams, and roots—never meat—bringing, as an inevitable consequence, anemia, from which all suffer. Second, the impossibility of spreading education amongst them. It is true that in some districts there are boy schools; schools for girls there are none. The children can not attend classes, owing to the distance at which they live from the schools, which are therefore rendered inoperative. Besides, the teachers are too poorly paid to allow them to attend to their scholastic duties. They receive but \$25 monthly, and to eke out a living take to agriculture, employing the boys in the schools on field work. Third, the impossibility of forming a home and family. As in the mountain districts no priests reside, neither are there churches, and the distance is an impediment to the peasant coming down to the towns; he usually lives in concubinage. Civil or religious marriage is hardly known among them, and morals suffer in consequence.

In my opinion, there is one remedy for this state of affairs, the application of which would soon make itself felt. A former Governor-General of this island had thought of it and published a circular, which was, however, neglected. He wished to create villages or centers of population to concentrate the people spread about the country districts. I specially wish to call your attention to this point. It appears to me that if villages were established in each rural district it would be easy to diffuse education among children of both sexes, and even adults; besides having a church, with its priest or pastor, who would preach Christian morality, inducing the custom of marriage and doing away with concubinage, one of the greatest evils of our peasantry. Public wealth would also be the gainer, as in the highlands there are many acres of government lands. In Guayama, for instance, in the district called Carite, where there are more than 12,000 acres of public lands suitable for the cultivation of coffee, cacao, and lesser crops, the construction even of a mule road to connect with the cart road would increase wealth, diffuse instruction, and moralize our peasants.

To conclude, I think it of absolute necessity to find a means of condensing the population, of creating villages and rural schools, as I

think I may affirm that 90 per cent of our peasants can neither read nor write. It is also necessary to follow the introduction of instruction with that of Christian morality by building churches and sending missionaries to these fields.

THE CARPENTERS OF SAN JUAN.

STATEMENT OF SANTIAGO IGLESIAS, OF THE LEAGUE OF GREMIOS.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 2, 1899.*

To the questions which you put to me I answer in the name of my companions, not with the intelligence and knowledge which a study of this kind requires, but with good will and desire to do so to the best of my ability.

The gremio of carpenters contains 600 members in the capital and its surroundings. They hold weekly meetings, but do not assemble in general meeting with other carpenters of the island or with other gremios, because the principle of association and union was very limited under the Spanish rule, the title of insurgent being given to those who attempted to come together for any purpose.

Apprenticeship, if it exists, exists without any method whatever. There is an entire absence of professional schools, and in most houses children come into the workshops without having learned even the elementary branches of primary education. This is owing to the lack of sufficient schools and to the great poverty which exists among the lower-class families. Hours of work are excessive, usually from ten to twelve, under the burning sun, with one miserable hour for dinner. Sundays we always work when occasion requires it, and the capitalists force us to, without any compensation whatever. The average wage fluctuated between 25 and 50 cents (colonial currency), which is not sufficient to cover the most simple necessities of life. The gremios, all of them, that of the carpenters in particular, are giving their attention to the bettering of the conditions of labor, both as regards treatment and remuneration. They keep up a common place of meeting, where impressions are exchanged and which is called "Circle of Workers of San Juan."

The gremios are not mutual aid societies, but these exist in the capital and in all parts of the island, but of a feeble description. The politics of the working people is no other than that of a struggle of social economy and instruction.

Everything is reduced to the desire to better as much as possible the moral and material condition of workers in general. The conditions which we desire to obtain from the people and the Government of the United States are absolute liberty and equality for all citizens, also the right to elect any citizen, no matter what his state may be, if known to have capacity and to be honest, for the administration of municipal, provincial, and judicial duties.

THE PAINTERS OF SAN JUAN.

STATEMENT OF FACUNDO VALENCIA RAMOS, OF THE GREMIO OF PAINTERS.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 2, 1899.*

This gremio contains about 250 persons.

Apprenticeship has, up to this time, been deprived of sufficient elements for its complete installation.

Hours of work are from 6 o'clock in the morning to 11 o'clock, and from 12 to half-past 5 or 6.

As regards mutual aid societies, they have existed and still exist in this country, and the gremios have had such societies in which the maximum and minimum amounts given members needing assistance have been, respectively, \$1 and one-half dollar.

I would say in regard to the holding of meetings, that now, having ample liberty of action, we shall hold them frequently. Heretofore general assemblies for discussing and resolving matters have been considered a crime.

The wages of the laboring man are not in proportion to the prices of articles of prime necessity, owing to the fact that a dollar in colonial money is equal only to 50 cents in American currency. He who gains a dollar or two in native money is prejudiced, while Spanish commerce is benefited thereby.

Referring to the general political situation of the country, I can not give an exact opinion about transcendental questions, but nevertheless I can say in social, as well as in political matters, Spain never administered the affairs of the country with justice. Her greatest incapacity was shown by the so-called autonomy, under which rule the real master in Porto Rico was the Governor-General's secretary, who consented to the oppression of the natives by the employees of tribunals and other branches of government in the island. Secret prisons were constructed to torture them. Then, after having granted autonomy, they accused us of being separatists. From now on our various trade unions will have a common center, because we see that what Spain never allowed will now be conceded us by the United States.

Among some of the disadvantages under which the gremio of painters is laboring, the first is the scarcity of work to be had during the Spanish rule, owing to the fact that the Spanish nation never undertook any large enterprises. The second is, the want of schools of arts and trades established in San Juan, in Ponce, in Mayaguez, and in San German.

BOATMEN OF SAN JUAN.

STATEMENT BY NORBERTO QUINONES, REPRESENTING LONGSHOREMEN AND LIGHTERMEN.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 2, 1899.*

The undersigned, named on the commission to explain the form and conditions under which dock workers and lightermen of this capital labor, begs to comply with his duty by stating the following:

There are three lighter companies, namely, Sobrinos Esquiaga, Sucn. de Echeveste and Sucn. de Cabrera, who handle the loading and unloading of vessels arriving at this port.

The lighterman has to be at his work at 4 o'clock in the morning and work until 11 o'clock, during which time he is allowed one scant hour for breakfast. At 12 o'clock he has to be ready to return to work, with the risk of losing it if he is not on time. He then works until 7, or later, at night. These fourteen hours of work are called one day. The day is paid for according to what the companies think will be barely sufficient to keep the workmen alive with necessary food and drink. The amount fluctuates between a dollar and a dollar and a half, provincial money. When an accident happens to one of these

workmen in the course of his employment, he is completely abandoned, as these companies give them in such case absolutely no assistance.

Many other abuses are committed against dock laborers, but I will not mention them, as little by little the American Government will find them out.

BAKERS OF SAN JUAN.

STATEMENT OF BERNARDO T. CALLARS, IN BEHALF OF BAKERS, SAN JUAN, P. R.

The gremio of bakers of this city (San Juan) is composed of 150 members. Apprenticeship is begun at the age of 14 years, and is expected and encouraged. Hours of labor are from 4 in the afternoon until 12 the day following, including Sundays and feast days. Bakers in some shops make as much as \$1.50 a day; but when there are too many bakers for the work, wages fall as low as 75 centavos. This gremio has no mutual aid department. It does not hold general meetings, owing to the fact that the former government persecuted persons participating in such meetings as secret societies.

The special disadvantages under which this trade labors are, first, that the trade is monopolized by six bakeries, and, second, the small wages that are paid. We are in complete sympathy, but differ in political matters. The special considerations which we wish to obtain from the Government of the United States are, that it lower the price of food stuffs and raise the duty on articles of luxury, such as alcohol and tobacco.

We have ideas which we wish to express with respect to coinage, custom-houses, provincial government, municipal government, and tribunals, but what we most desire at present is the exchange of money.

Until now we have not belonged to a central union, but under the new government we are getting together to do this. The general situation of workmen is quite grave.

PRINTERS OF SAN JUAN.

STATEMENT OF RASANDO RIVERA IN BEHALF OF TYPOGRAPHERS, SAN JUAN, P. R.

Unfortunately typography in this country is to-day in a very backward state, owing, doubtless, to the heavy duty imposed by the Spanish Government on the importation of type. I do not doubt for a minute that in this country are workmen capable of competing with those of any other country, however civilized; but however well supplied a printing shop may be, it always leaves much to be desired, and at the best materials are wanting for the carrying out of good work. It is certainly a lamentable fact that the Porto Rican workmen are in a state of partial theoretical ignorance, but the Spanish Government is chiefly at fault for this state of affairs for never having taken any trouble to assist in the education of workmen. Nevertheless, the workman, owing to his personal struggle, has been able to keep up, although not fully, with the grand march of civilization. It is well known that in the most cultured centers of Europe and America the typographer finds the road easy and his work well recompensed; and as these are due to the enlightenment of the various governments under which they

live, we, the Porto Rican workmen, hope and have the strong conviction that we will obtain these desirable favors from the Government in Washington. In our humble opinion, we understand that the theoretical and practical education we need until we stand on the level with our brothers of America is only to be achieved by the establishment of schools of arts and trades in which not only children can be instructed, but adults as well. In regard to the class of teaching which we should receive in these establishments, I will briefly point out the branches which, in my judgment, I think my fellow-typographers should acquire.

Theoretical knowledge.—Prose and verse reading. Reading from manuscript, orthography, English and Spanish grammar and notions of Latin grammar, French and Italian, knowledge and use of mathematical science, commerce, music, chemistry, drawing in every form, arithmetic, algebra, technical knowledge of the manufacture of type, knowledge of the relations of types, pieces which are used in typography, also the manner of manufacturing the same, explication of the most common presses, and conservation and mounting of the same.

Practical training.—English cases, Spanish cases, and French cases, composition and reading in the lead, correction, distribution, making up sheets, paging on marble or in the press, statistics in every form, works of luxury, works in color, notions of composition, Latin, French, Italian, how to use machines, taking of proofs, founding rules, weighting paper, brushing wooden letters, lead type and engraving, preparation of printing inks, printing zinc, glass, and high relief. It is certain that with these attainments there would spring up a school of typography which would conscientiously perform the work of their noble profession.

Replies to questions:

- (1) Our gremio in San Juan consists of 152 members.
- (2) Yes; apprenticeship is required, the time depending on the capacity of the apprentice.
- (3) We work eight hours.
- (4) The only periodical which requires us to work on Sunday is the *Correspondencia*. The workmen are obliged to do so owing to the small salary they receive.
- (5) On an average we earn \$6 a week, although there are workmen who earn \$8 and \$10.
- (6) The object of our union is to better the desperate position in which we find ourselves, and its scope is explained in the accompanying expositions.
- (7) The gremios do not form mutual-aid societies, because such are provided in this country to which all social classes belong.
- (8) They are beginning to be organized now, thanks to the liberality of the government which we to-day have, and which we have been desiring for a long time, and which we receive with open arms. The Spanish Government was always inquisitorial and the enemy of right and justice.
- (9) We do not go in for politics, as politics is based on personality and not on any ideal; therefore we are unanimous in our opinion.
- (10) We wish to have the Territorial form of government as soon as possible, and the military occupation to cease as soon as practicable; also the protection of the natives of the country and to all those who swear fidelity to the American Constitution.
- (11) As regards tariffs, the free introduction of articles of prime necessity, leaving a duty on articles of luxury and articles prejudicial

to humanity, such as alcohol, liquors, cards, etc. As regards money, the exchange should be made as soon as possible. The rate we leave to the opinion of the government or to those interested in it. Regarding the municipality and courts, the intervention of the workmen by means of the vote and the right of representation for all of those who have talent and capacity sufficient and who may be elected by universal suffrage.

BOOKBINDERS, SILVERSMITHS, AND TINSMITHS.

STATEMENT OF JOSE G. MONJE, IN BEHALF OF BOOKBINDERS, SILVERSMITHS, AND TINSMITHS, SAN JUAN, P. R.

Being chosen to represent the above-named gremios, I have to inform you of the deplorable state of these trades.

First. Bookbinding.—The number of members of this gremio is 22. Among the gremios, which are in poor condition, this is one of the worst. The average weekly wage does not reach \$4, provincial money, with very few exceptions. The high rates of duty imposed on the materials used in the trade makes work very scarce, and the great number of books imported and their small cost is the cause of the sad state in which this gremio finds itself. Besides these facts, bookbinders are required, in certain shops, to do work which does not belong to their trade, such as making cardboard boxes, traveling trunks, and other smaller things. As some can not do this work, they have been dismissed.

Second. Silversmiths.—In this gremio there are 27 members. Owing to the importation of jewels, especially from Germany, this gremio is in rather a bad condition, the work being almost entirely that of repairs. It can be said, however, that it is not one of the most unfortunate gremios.

Tinsmiths.—This gremio is in about the same position as that of the silversmiths. The number of members belonging to the gremio of tinsmiths is 15.

The number of years of apprenticeship required in these trades depends only upon the capacity of the apprentice. Apprenticeship is encouraged. The school of arts and trades is one of the institutions where children, after having terminated their primary instruction, lasting for several years, are granted a certificate which declares them to be thorough workmen or master workmen, according to their knowledge. In San Juan, in almost all of the gremios, workmen are accustomed to work only eight hours, but silversmiths and tinsmiths work eight and one-half hours and nine hours a day. In this country, except on rare occasions, it is usual to work on Sunday. In some establishments, however, half a day Sunday is exacted. We wish to obtain the whole day for rest, as we consider that we are entitled to it. Silversmiths earn as much as six or eight pesos, and about the same amount is earned by tinsmiths. The gremios which have honored me with the duty of representing them all aim at the improvement of their classes and solicit, as a special favor of the United States, protection and preference for the natives of the country.

The gremios are not the same as mutual-help societies. In the future all classes will take a part in these societies. Their aim is exclusively that of assistance. The amount they usually pay to persons in need is \$1.75 or \$1.50, according to the requirements of the sick person. We are now thinking of calling a general conference of

all the gremios, something we could never do before, as any attempt to get together was considered anti-Spanish and was prohibited. We do not think to-day we shall meet with any obstacle, as we imagine that the Government of the United States, instead of disturbing our work, would sooner help us make it strong and enduring. Among the many disadvantages which we have suffered and are now suffering, the greatest has been the preference given to Spaniards over others and the poor rate of wages paid. In my humble opinion, the working-men of Porto Rico occupy themselves more with what concerns their work than with political questions; nevertheless, we never fail to show interest in any question having reference to the administration of the laws of the country, although formerly we were not allowed to take part in this. We assure the United States that our undertakings will always be conducted within the spirit of law and order, and we beg for consideration.

THE MASONS OF SAN JUAN.

STATEMENT OF JOSE RIVERA, IN BEHALF OF THE GREMIO OF MASONS.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 2, 1899.*

This gremio is composed of about 400 members. Apprenticeship is indispensable and requires at least five years. Every day apprenticeship is on the increase. We work ten hours daily, with the exception of Sunday. Wages fluctuate between \$1.25 and \$1.50 a day, provincial money. At the present time the gremio of masons has no mutual help branch. Very few meetings have been held and no general congress up to the present has ever been held, because the Spanish Government denied the right of citizens to meet together. The Spaniards killed all initiative and persecuted every form of organization, making all such appear as indicating disaffection and as being pernicious to the Spanish Government. Until now we have cooperated in the most radical policy of the country, but now that we have entered into the enjoyment of citizenship, as offered by the American nation, we promise ourselves from to-day on to work out our own emancipation according to our ideals.

The considerations which we desire to obtain from the United States are the following: The right to propagate our ideals and support our organizations, and everything which, within the limits of order and law, we may try to obtain for our general welfare. We desire to have complete intervention in questions of administration, either municipal or state, and a share in the management of the government tribunals, etc. Up to the present we have had no common center for the meeting of our societies.

AGRICULTURAL LABORERS.

STATEMENT OF PROF. BENIGNO LOPEZ CASTRO, FOR AGRICULTURAL LABORERS.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 3, 1899.*

It is evident that the most important branch of the riches of Porto Rico is agriculture; that it ought to be in a flourishing condition, because it is favored by excellent climatic conditions, exuberance of the soil, and the slight amount of labor required for cultivation. But

want of roads and railroads in the country, the lack of irrigation canals, the scarcity of agricultural banks and other similar establishments from which the agriculturist might obtain money at low rates of interest, and, above all, the onerous taxation with which Spain always punished this country are the principal causes which have forced Porto Rico to remain in a condition of ruin.

To these causes may be added another. The owners of agricultural estates, flattered by the high prices which they were able to obtain for sugar, coffee, and tobacco, have given their whole attention to those crops, incurring the grave error of the abandonment of the cultivation of rice, beans, pease, and other smaller crops, including also potatoes, Spanish pease, and other necessities of life. Having stated that this abandonment was an error, I will explain the reason why. The owners of estates, not paying attention to the growth of the necessary crops for the maintenance of themselves and their workmen, are obliged to accept credit from merchants, who readily give them all they want, but take guaranties and mortgages on their estates, with the obligation of paying the merchant in produce. When the time for harvesting arrives, the agriculturist, instead of being able to offer his produce freely to whomsoever he wishes, is bound by the terms of his contract to submit himself to the greed and ambition of his creditor. It frequently happens that the amount harvested is not sufficient to cover the debt, and in this case the debtor gives a document covering the remainder of the debt in favor of the creditor, acknowledging the balance due and the addition of a high rate of interest. This same thing takes place year after year, the interest keeps on accumulating, until at last the merchant refuses any further help and demands a settlement of the amount or the handing over of the estate. This will give an idea why properties have passed from the hands of the Porto Ricans to those of the Spaniards.

I will now give some little attention to the condition of the field hands, who are in the greatest want of protection and care from the Government of the United States, as I understand that the Government of the United States does not want pariahs in this territory, but, free, civilized, and educated citizens. These unfortunate beings, abandoned to their own resources from the cradle to the grave, vegetate like wild plants. No generous hand is held out to offer them even the first rudiments of human knowledge. The exploiters of this country, having understood that ignorance is one of the best means of debasing a man and making him submit to a badly dissimulated slavery, have never occupied themselves in spreading instruction, but, on the contrary, with their cleverness killed all attempts which were made in that direction. The limited and deficient instruction which they permitted in the centers of population never reached the unfortunate inhabitants of the rural districts, and never the women. There are districts, such as Arecibo, whose jurisdiction extends over 21 barrios, of which only eight or ten have schools for boys and in only one district is there a school for girls, for which reason it is a rare occurrence to find a countrywoman who knows how to read.

As a general rule, from the early age of 10 or 12 years children of both sexes are put to hard field work. They have to leave their miserable bed at 4 in the morning, so that at 6 o'clock they may be in readiness to take up the hoe, sometimes without even having had anything to eat. This work both the children and the older workmen continue until 6 in the evening, and gradually lose their health in exchange for the miserable wage of 12, 18, or 25 centavos a day for chil-

dren and from 50 to 60 centavos for adults of both sexes, which amounts are frequently reduced when the price of coffee or sugar falls, but never increased beyond those sums, no matter what prices these articles may bring.

The food given to the workers is so poor that it is no exaggeration to say that they would with pleasure exchange it for what is given to dogs in many private houses. On the same ground that they have fertilized with the sweat of their brow, and without taking their hands from the plow or the hoe, they have served to them, between 11 and 12 o'clock, a ration of rice mixed with a few grains of beans or pease, cooked entirely without meat and with no other seasoning than a little cocoanut butter. At other times the ration is composed of two or three roasted bananas, a piece of bad dried codfish, with neither oil nor vinegar, half raw, and very salty, in order that the laborer shall get thirsty and fill himself up with water, and in this way stifle the feelings of hunger, which would otherwise overcome him in a day's labor of twelve hours under the enervating sun of our climate. Several times the peons have tried to associate themselves together in divisions against the iniquitous proceedings of their employers, but the owner of the estates, if he did not happen to be a political boss, would call upon one of his friends to denounce to the Governor-General the existence of an alleged secret society, conspiring against the integrity of the Kingdom, with the result that the civil guard would be charged to persecute the supposed conspirators with inhuman torture, as if they were wild beasts. Persons thus persecuted frequently paid for their attempts at organization by many years of imprisonment in Ceuta or Chafarinas (penal settlements off the coast of Africa) for no other crime than defending themselves against the unmeasured avarice and selfishness of a few soulless persons.

NO CLOTHES TO COVER NAKEDNESS.

STATEMENT OF MANUEL M. PUYOLS.

MAYAGUEZ, *January 10, 1899.*

The same wages as paid in the United States should be paid here, from the teacher to the lowest laborer. Up to the present we have not earned sufficient to buy even food enough. There are in the towns and country districts of my country real working people who do not dare to venture out of their houses, as they are completely naked and have nothing to cover their bodies with, although their labor is necessary to the progress of the country.

CIGAR MAKERS IN CAYEY.

CAYEY, P. R., *February 2, 1899.*

We belong to the working classes, who, up to the present time, have been ill treated by our eternal oppressors and the exploitation of our labor. The cigar-making industry in this country has dragged out a miserable existence, and the owners of factories have had no other end in view than the oppression of the artisan. A cigar maker in Porto Rico has never been able to enjoy a life of comfort, as the manufacturers, taking advantage of an honest class of workers, have not lost

an opportunity to exploit them, preventing them from attending to their many necessities. That the whole world may know what means have been employed for this oppression, we have written you this letter, in which we state the plain truth.

This industry was started in the island by persons of capital who saw a profitable field of investment. It is needless to say that they were Spaniards. Many fathers of families rejoiced, thinking that they saw a future for their sons, and went to the factories with the purpose of obtaining work. We can not deny that the industry has made much progress in these latter years, but the progress was not for the benefit of the workmen, as when the number of workmen was increased the factories diminished the price which they paid for the work. The American invasion raised great hopes in our breasts. We thought that by belonging to a nation of such progressive instincts the condition of the honest laborer would change, but up to the present this has not been the case.

The transitory period which we are now going through has seen no change at all, but we do not lose hope that a radical change will come soon, which will be the means of our being able to attend to our most urgent needs. As a proof of the exploitation to which we have been subjected, we would inform you that we are made to work on certain cigars which, by merely changing their name, are paid at a less price to the workmen without being sold at a reduced price to the consumer. The commissioners which have the honor to inform you about our needs were not speaking the truth when they said that the cigar makers earned 2 pesos a day. These commissioners were telling about what they earned and spoke unduly for the whole body. That you may see the truth of what we state, we give you the following data: In this town the number of cigar makers is 120; of these, 10 or 12 earn 2 pesos daily; 20 or 25, 1 peso, and the rest only earn from 50 to 62 centavos. They do not make this amount daily, as there seldom passes a week in which they have work for six days; neither do they work all the year round. They lose at least two or three months, in which they are not able to earn bread for their children.

Judge of what our condition is, therefore, when we add that our bosses are not always what they should be in their treatment of the honest worker. We wish also to draw your attention to the fact that education, which is the basis of all society, is entirely neglected among us, owing to the oppressive system, whose object was always to keep us in ignorance so as to make their exploitation more easy. We want the American Government to help us with schools, and schools, and schools, for if educated we would be more worthy of consideration.

SCHOOLS OF ARTS AND TRADES.

STATEMENT BY SEÑOR JOSÉ AMADEO, M. D.

PATILLAS, P. R., *March, 1899.*

Population increases rapidly, there being more laborers for agriculture than can be employed at present. The number would be still greater were it not for the unhealthiness of certain places, the want of food, bad lodging, lack of education, and the vices, all of which prematurely kill and make unfit for work a portion of our laboring class. The American Government will not fail to see this, and to-day,

more than ever, it is necessary to better the physical and intellectual qualities of our workmen. By increasing public works all over the island and giving impulse to agriculture by the introduction of American capital there is no doubt that wages will rise. The laboring man to-day is suffering under the laws of demand and supply, which affect labor just as they affect merchandise.

All the young men, and even the women and children of the working class, make for the cane fields. Very few give any attention to trades which would produce better salary. This is owing to the want of schools of arts and trades. There are towns of 6,000 inhabitants where it is impossible to find a shoemaker or an artisan who could repair a lock or a trunk. It is necessary to think of Porto Rico's future and to better the social and hygienic conditions as far as possible, recognizing that our working class are a living force of general wealth in the province.

We should study calmly and intelligently all the plans tending toward this end. Among these may be counted that of grouping together in villages or colonies the persons who at present live isolated in the country, who thus enjoy none of the benefits of mutual help or other advantages of a social life. We should also extend to these groups the benefits of elementary education, in which direction charitable societies could lend their assistance. Increase saving institutions and mutual assurance, banks and cooperation stores, also building societies, which would allow poor people to acquire their homes by paying for them in small amounts, spread over long periods, with a mortgage as guaranty to the society.

These are the means which should be employed, and which in other countries have resulted in the welfare and prosperity of the working classes, accustoming them to contract habits of economy and order instead of giving themselves over to dissipation and vagrancy. With the concentration of our disseminated population, and with the efforts of influential persons, the moral state and the material condition of the individual and the family would improve in Porto Rico. Our working classes, which are among the most constant and hard-working in all the West India islands, are well deserving of it. Political reforms are useless while the greater number of citizens are groaning beneath the yoke of misery, with their families and homes in a condition which conduces to immorality and other unfortunate evils.

DEMAND FOR FREE COMMERCE WITH THE UNITED STATES.

FREE ENTRANCE FOR SUGAR.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

ARECIBO, P. R., *January 14, 1899.*

MR. MANUEL LEDESMA, a Spanish merchant and owner of a large estate.

MR. LEDESMA. Sugar and tobacco, which to-day pay heavy duties in the United States, I think should be allowed free entrance, because as soon as the money is changed here plantation owners, who now pay their labor in silver, will have to pay in gold, and they will not be able to continue business under those conditions. If the estates close down many peons will be thrown out of work, and if that state of affairs comes about you will see a serious conflict here, because the

sugar estates give work to three-fourths of the people of the island. Tobacco, with even more reason, should be given free entrance in the United States, because, while sugar is in the hands of a few persons, anybody can grow tobacco, and then the poor could be made small proprietors if tobacco were granted this concession in your markets. I understand that the United States consumes about 100,000 tons of sugar a month. The most Porto Rico can produce is 100,000 tons a year, and I don't think that the United States would miss by granting the concession of free entry to our sugar.

A FREE MARKET FOR INSULAR PRODUCTS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

ARECIBO, P. R., *January 14, 1899.*

JOSÉ RAMON RIVERA, a druggist and property owner:

Dr. CARROLL. I understand that this is a great center for the sugar industry and also for distilleries.

Mr. RIVERA. Yes; it is.

Dr. CARROLL. What are the other industries represented here?

Mr. RIVERA. As things are to-day, the most important crop of Arecibo is coffee; after coffee, sugar, and after sugar, tobacco.

Dr. CARROLL. What special difficulties, if any, do coffee planters labor under?

Mr. RIVERA. In the first place the present low price of coffee, and in the second place the destruction of some of the estates at the time of the American occupation.

Dr. CARROLL. What are the chief markets for the coffee?

Mr. RIVERA. The United States, France, Italy, Germany, Austria, and England.

Dr. CARROLL. You don't send much coffee to Cuba now, do you?

Mr. RIVERA. Hardly any.

Dr. CARROLL. There is quite a tariff there on coffee, and I suppose it has shut out the more common grades that you used to send to Cuba.

Mr. RIVERA. Absolutely all mercantile transactions with Cuba in tobacco and coffee have been interrupted by the war and have not been resumed.

Dr. CARROLL. You speak of the low prices of coffee. In the United States the prices have been the same to consumers for at least ten years. I have not paid less than 32 cents per pound, gold, but I think it is not Porto Rican coffee.

Mr. RIVERA. Not a great quantity of Porto Rican coffee has been sent to the United States; and although Italy is a large consumer of coffee, it does not appear so, because much of it has gone through Marseilles.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you still keep up your shipments to Spain?

Mr. BÄHR (a planter). There is not a great quantity shipped to-day. What there is is shipped to Barcelona, and I think this quantity even will be reduced, because the change of sovereignty has of course made us a foreign country. Formerly, owing to the fact that Porto Rico was a Spanish colony, they were allowed to export goods at 10 per cent duty. The interchange naturally drew the bulk of the payments toward Spain. But this has doubtless undergone a change, as we will be discriminated against by the Spanish tariff.

Mr. RIVERA. In spite of that, coffee was shipped to Spain in payment for goods which we brought here under the 10 per cent tariff, and the removal of that condition of affairs has led to their having a serious stagnation in the coffee business here.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any attempt being made to find another market for it?

Mr. RIVERA. The whole country would like to have its only market in the United States for sugar and coffee.

Dr. CARROLL. Coffee is admitted free into the United States.

Mr. RIVERA. If you can only add to the coffee sugar and tobacco, the result would be very beneficial to property owners, laborers, and others.

Dr. CARROLL. So far as coffee is concerned, it is proposed to remove all export duties on it.

Mr. RIVERA. I know a merchant who has 3,000 quintals of tobacco in Germany, and has sent for it, counting on concessions as to the admission of tobacco into the United States. It is not that this man is alone in looking forward to the time when the United States shall give a free market to our products, and thus tend to relieve the agricultural distress throughout the island.

Dr. CARROLL. That would naturally come when the island is given its territorial form of government, if such shall be the wisdom of Congress.

THE GOLDEN DREAM OF PORTO RICANS.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN GERMAN, P. R., *January 26, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. Have you any suggestion to make with reference to what the Government might do to alleviate the distresses from which you say the sugar interests are laboring?

Mr. JOAQUIN CERVERA. The only remedy for our ills is that sugar and tobacco shall be admitted free into the United States. It is the capital argument. In my opinion I will add that if that is not granted we are all lost. There is no possible salvation.

Dr. CARROLL. How are you going to save coffee? The concession to coffee has already been made.

Mr. CERVERA. I repeat again that unless our products—sugar and tobacco—can go free into the States they are lost forever. These sugars can not compete with the European beet sugar, owing to the fact that the European manufacturers have large capital, advanced machinery, intelligent workmen, and low wages.

Dr. CARROLL. The difficulty about admitting sugar and tobacco free is only to be settled when the form of the future government of Porto Rico is settled. There is, I understand, a commission now in the United States advocating the independence of Porto Rico. In such a case the United States would maintain its tariff as against Porto Rico, and Porto Rico would maintain its tariff as against the United States.

Mr. CERVERA. That question has not been discussed in Porto Rico by any considerable number of people. Porto Rico, in my opinion, must depend upon some outside government. We do not want independence.

A FREE MARKET IN THE UNITED STATES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

CAGUAS, P. R., *February 27, 1899.*

Dr. CARROLL. What measures would you suggest that the Government should take to relieve the agriculturists?

Mr. V. MUNOZ (ex-mayor of Caguas). By providing them with money through agricultural banks on long terms, and a further reduction in the import tariff.

Dr. CARROLL. On what?

Mr. MUNOZ. Food stuffs. We also need to have a free market given us in the United States; or one that will enable us to compete with other countries.

Mr. SOLA (brother of the mayor). Before, although we had to pay dearly for our food, we had a market for our produce. Now we have cheaper food, but no market for our produce, so we have nothing to buy with.

Dr. CARROLL. As far as sugar is concerned, you have about as good a market as before the war. You had to pay big prices to get your sugar into Spain.

Mr. SOLA. While it is true that formerly commerce exploited agriculture, the agriculturists had a market for their products and lived, even though it was miserably that they lived, but to-day conditions are changed. How is it possible for the agriculturists to obtain from the merchants the assistance which they had in former days when the agriculturists have no markets in which to dispose of their crops? Formerly they had the Spanish and Cuban markets for coffee, tobacco, and sugar. These they have lost through the change in government. Cuba to-day imposes a tax of \$5 a pound on tobacco and \$12.50 on 100 quintals of coffee, and Spain has put such a duty on sugar that anybody who sends a shipment of sugar there to-day must send money along to cover the duty alone; Spain has done the same thing as regards coffee and tobacco, leaving us without a market for these three products, by means of which we used to obtain money to meet our obligations.

Dr. CARROLL. That being so, why are you raising so much more tobacco this year than last year?

Mr. SOLA. We have sown less this year than last, but we have been sowing with the hope of having a market.

Dr. CARROLL. If you are shut out of Cuba by the tariff, as regards tobacco, on the other hand, Cuban producers are shut out of Porto Rico. Is that not a benefit?

Mr. SOLA. In part; but it is not sufficient to give life to the industry, because we can only manufacture enough for home consumption, whereas exports should be greater than home consumption.

Dr. CARROLL. But hitherto all the cigarettes smoked in the island were imported from Cuba or somewhere else; now they are made here.

Mr. SOLA. That helps, but not sufficiently. There are only two factories here, and they do not work full time.

Dr. CARROLL. Don't you export to Europe outside of Spain?

Mr. SOLA. We export to Germany, but only the very cheap and common grades. If the industry had to depend on the German market, it would not pay us to do so.

Dr. CARROLL. You will have to look to the United States for a market for your coffee and tobacco.

Mr. SOLA. That is what we ask for, and we have gotten up a petition from several towns of the island to send to Washington asking to have the markets opened to us. I was going to explain why less tobacco has been sown here this year than last. I speak of this district, but my remarks can be applied to the whole island. We have in our warehouse the greater part of last year's tobacco crop. The merchants are unable to dispose of the crops, and consequently are unable to assist the agriculturists. This is one of the reasons why there is no money circulating in the island; we have our money locked up in our warehouses in the form of tobacco. You must look at the question also from the humanitarian point of view. There are hundreds of people through the country who make a living out of the tobacco industry. I call attention to this and the other reasons I have stated as grounds for asking you to cooperate with us in our memorial to the President, in which we ask that he grant us free coastwise trade with the United States, so that the country may enter into an era of prosperity, of development, and of growth, if not in a very high degree, at least to an extent which will take us out of our present state.

AN OPEN MARKET IN THE UNITED STATES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

PONCE, P. R., *March 4, 1899.*

A PLANTER. The only market we had for our tobacco crop has been taken away from us, owing to the heavy rate which has been imposed on the tobacco in the island. There are towns in the island which can only grow tobacco, because their land is not fit for anything else, and for the want of a market these lands are valueless.

Dr. CARROLL. You have lost the Cuban market, but, on the other hand, the Cubans have lost the Porto Rican market. Is not that an important gain? You have your own market for cigarettes.

A PLANTER. The quantity that came here was insignificant in proportion to the crop that was raised.

Dr. CARROLL. According to the reports that you made here in Ponce last April for the reformation of the tariff, these importations from Cuba were of very great importance.

A PLANTER. But the amount imported was very small as compared with the amount produced here. Statistics will prove that. We want to know if we can get an open market in the United States.

Dr. CARROLL. It is impossible to say until the new Congress meets. The only power that can change the tariff of the United States is Congress, and the old Congress dies to-day.

A PLANTER. At least, we want the matter kept in mind, so that when the opportunity comes for legislation it may then be acted upon.

THE QUESTION OF CABOTAGE.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

YAUCO, P. R., *March 6, 1899.*

Mr. JOSÉ G. TORRES. I think that I voice the opinion of the people of Yauco, and I may say of the whole island, when I say that everybody wants the Territorial form of government; and if we have asked

for the suppression of direct taxes, it is only as a temporary measure and until we shall have a civil government.

Dr. CARROLL. But if you suppress direct taxation, do you not stop the wheels of municipal government?

Mr. TORRES. We call direct taxation only what we pay to the state, and not what we pay to the municipalities.

Dr. CARROLL. How can you expect the state to improve your public schools and improve your roads and conduct your prisons unless it has money with which to do it?

Mr. TORRES. We asked for this because we were informed by the insular government that when the United States had paid the expenses of the Army out of the proceeds of the custom-house they would use the balance for what you have stated.

Dr. CARROLL. The troops are paid out of the Treasury at Washington, and not a cent from Porto Rico is devoted to that object.

Mr. TORRES. What are the custom-house receipts used for?

Dr. CARROLL. They are used for the purposes of the insular government; a large amount goes to the improvement of your roads—\$250,000 perhaps for the use of the roads alone—and you must remember that the tariff has been revised, and that the rates have been very much reduced on many articles used, on food stuffs, on cotton goods, etc., for the benefit of the country, and therefore you must expect less proceeds from the custom-house than formerly.

Mr. TORRES. Formerly the budget of the island was from three to three and one-half million dollars, which was paid almost exclusively by custom-house receipts. Now that the expenses that you speak of are removed, the budget ought not to be much more than \$1,000,000.

Dr. CARROLL. Your budget for 1897 was about 5,000,000 pesos, and you have been getting over 3,000,000 from custom-house receipts. Then your tax system has been modified a great deal. For instance, the system of cedulas, stamped paper, and the income from lotteries have been cut off, and the land tax has been reduced, and the tax on city property has been considerably reduced.

Mr. TORRES. I understand that perfectly well. Granting that the custom-house did produce 3,000,000 before, if under the new tariff it produces only 1,000,000, it ought to cover fully all the expenses of the insular government.

Dr. CARROLL. I have serious doubts of that. Of course I do not know what the estimates are for the present year, but if any improvements are to be made a large amount of money is necessary, and it seems to me that it is of vital necessity, if the prosperity of the island is to be increased, that schools and roads must be greatly improved.

Mr. TORRES. The country only asks for this suppression of the taxes owing to the financial crisis it is passing through; but now that it knows that the money collected in the island is for the benefit of the island, and will be expended in the way you mention, we are perfectly satisfied to pay them. I think that if Porto Rico is granted a Territorial form of government and enjoys all the benefits of it, the country, which is now passing through a crisis, will be able to meet all its interior expenses. Therefore, with the hope of being declared a Territory early in December or next year, we will go on paying contributions, although it will be hard for us to do so; but the hope held out to us of entering into all the advantages of American citizenship will lighten the burden. The whole country wants to be a Territory.

THE OUTLOOK OF PORTO RICO.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

PONCE, P. R., March 7, 1899.

Mr. FELICI, Mr. ACOSTA.

Mr. FELICI. There are about 500,000 quintals of coffee produced in Porto Rico, the greater part of which is good coffee.

Dr. CARROLL. I don't see why it should not have a good market in the United States.

Mr. FELICI. Perhaps it may after Americans come here and get used to it.

Dr. CARROLL. Have you a good European market for the finer grades?

Mr. FELICI. They sell very well in Austria, Italy, France, and Russia. The hope of the coffee planters here is that the United States will put a duty on other coffees, on the ground that coffee is now produced in a part of the United States.

Dr. CARROLL. I don't think it will come right away. When the bonds are drawn closer between Porto Rico and the United States it may come, but that naked proposition would now look like putting a tax on 70,000,000 of people in the United States to benefit 1,000,000 people here.

Mr. FELICI. But that would mean a good income to the United States, because Porto Rico could not produce all the coffee used there.

Dr. CARROLL. It may be that by the time Congress is in session again, next December, the situation will be very much relieved in Porto Rico. • You may be getting such prices for your coffee that you will not need to have them increased. A short crop of coffee in the rest of the world would, of course, raise the prices. What is the best price of sugar that you have had in the last ten years.

Mr. FELICI. Before the war we sold sugar for 6 cents a pound.

Dr. CARROLL. I mean the sugar that you shipped.

Mr. FELICI. About 5 cents a pound.

Dr. CARROLL. What year was that.

Mr. FELICI. About 1893 or 1894.

Dr. CARROLL. Did you get that in the United States?

Mr. FELICI. In the United States and Spain.

Dr. CARROLL. What was the cause of the high price that year?

Mr. FELICI. The scarcity of sugar elsewhere.

Dr. CARROLL. Do your crops vary much here?

Mr. FELICI. No.

Dr. CARROLL. If your planters got that they would feel pretty well satisfied, wouldn't they?

Mr. FELICI. Oh, yes.

Dr. CARROLL. But the average has been about 4 and 4½ cents for centrifugal sugar?

Mr. FELICI. Yes; and muscovado would be in proportion. We make a muscovado here that used to sell in Spain for almost the same as centrifugal sold there. We sell some in the United States now, provided it does not go beyond 16 degrees, in which case it would be classed as refined sugar.

Dr. CARROLL. Everywhere I have gone they have said to me that what the island needs is a free market in the United States for sugar and tobacco, and I have been obliged to say to them that they could

not get a free market until Congress takes action, and that the question of free trade between Porto Rico and the United States depended upon what form of government is given Porto Rico. If you get the Territorial form of government, cabotage will follow as a matter of course; but if you get the colonial form of government, then there would probably be some tariff between the two countries—that is, you would have a tariff as against the United States, and the United States would maintain a tariff as against Porto Rico.

Mr. ACOSTA. I think the country will be able to supply sufficient money for its own needs, if it does not have to pay for the army and navy and clergy, and much more reasonably could we expect to do that if we had a free market, because with a free market the farmers could contribute their share; also, if articles of consumption come in free from the United States, prices will be reduced considerably and farmers will be able to grow their coffee with less expense, and even with present prices of coffee they would realize a profit which they do not now have. If taxation were justly distributed, as it never was, because in the old days rich persons were almost exempt from taxation, it would be much better, and the poor people are to-day making the complaints that are heard in the island, because they do not know that taxation is to be justly imposed. Sugar estates here produce 6,000 hogsheads a year and pay less taxation than the merchants. I think a Territorial form of government will be the salvation of the country.

(GREAT ISSUES DEPENDING ON CABOTAGE.)

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

CAGUAS, P. R., *March 9, 1899.*

Mr. JOSE BERNITEZ, an estate owner of Vieques.

Mr. BERNITEZ. You must know that all around the island the sugar crop begins to be harvested in January; that sometimes it is harvested a month earlier, as is the case with my crop this year. At this moment I have a ship anchored in my port and I am loading her with 5,000 sacks of sugar. When the treaty was ratified I, as well as all agriculturists, expected that there would be a rebate of duty on sugar in the United States. We paid a duty of \$1.68 on centrifugal sugar in the United States and \$1.40 on muscovado, and having to pay this duty, agriculturists are not able to give their peons more than 50 centavos a day.

Dr. CARROLL. No change can be made in the United States tariff except by Congress, and Congress adjourned on the 4th of March. The treaty had not yet been ratified, and Congress could take no action before the treaty was ratified.

Mr. BERNITEZ. I understand that the President of the United States is authorized to rebate from 20 to 25 per cent.

Dr. CARROLL. That is only with those countries with which a reciprocity treaty is concluded—that is, with foreign countries.

Mr. BERNITEZ. I am not making this statement in my behalf, because, fortunately, I will be in a position where I do not require it, because I have made money by my labors during many years; but I can not see how the agriculturists can improve the position of their peons until they have some assistance in the matter of duty, not only on sugar, but on tobacco also. I think that some of the disturbances going on in the island, such as the burning of estates, are due to the

fact that the peons believe that the proprietors are able to pay them higher wages than they are paying now. In Vieques we have not had any disturbances of any description whatever. We are in a different position from the agriculturists on the main island, because we have better machinery. There are better plantations, and cattle to help us out in dry weather.

Dr. CARROLL. They pay better wages in Vieques, I believe.

Mr. BERNITEZ. Yes; we pay better, because of the form in which we pay. I spend \$1,500 a week in grinding and \$1,000 for other expenses. I don't do the grinding work as they do it here. I do it by giving the peons an interest in the work. The more they grind the more they earn, and they make from 80 centavos to \$1.25 a day during the grinding season. The reason I can do that is because I have my machinery well mounted. In Porto Rico that is not the case, and the machinery that is not well mounted and well handled can not give good result. Here the principal defect is that everything is not in proper relation. Some have good machinery, but bad oxen; some have good machinery and good oxen, but not sufficient cane planted. That is owing to the fact that during all these years there have been only two banks here, the Agricultural Bank and the Spanish Bank, and they are not able to help out all the agriculturists. For instance, I am one of the board of the Agricultural Bank. When the agriculturist borrows money he does not receive money but bonds of the bank, and as these bonds are not quoted anywhere they are worth only what the agriculturist can get for them in the market. If later they can be quoted in the United States, it will be different. If agriculturists try to borrow money from the Spanish Bank, they have to do so on such exacting conditions that the remedy is worse than the disease. As a whole, Porto Rico has the conditions necessary for becoming very prosperous, if there are only established here syndicates and banking institutions to lend money to agriculturists.

Dr. CARROLL. If you have the banking system of the United States you will have no difficulty in borrowing money, probably.

Mr. BERNITEZ. No.

Dr. CARROLL. You will then have a bank in Isabela.

Mr. BERNITEZ. That will be magnificent. I am not looking out for myself in this matter. By force of work and application I have been able to go ahead, but I am thinking of others.

Dr. CARROLL. What part of Vieques is under cultivation?

Mr. BERNITEZ. In former years, when they went in for very small crops, Vieques was a port. They used to sow plantains, potatoes, etc., and sold them in St. Thomas. To-day only cattle and cane are raised. There are about 3,500 cuerdas under cultivation in cane, with four central factories. When they have had cane crops by reason of drought the cattle help them out.

Dr. CARROLL. Is the land nearly all quite good?

Mr. BERNITEZ. No; only from the town to Punta Arenas; that is the port opposite Humacao, and belongs to me. From Humacao to Punta Arenas is one hour by steamer.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there much land which might be used for the raising of other crops?

Mr. BERNITEZ. Some small parts of it, but not much.

Dr. CARROLL. Do you have much of a dry season?

Mr. BERNITEZ. Yes. I have asked General Henry to establish a small steambot service between Humacao, Vieques, and Culebra. It would not only be a good thing for the island, but for the Americans as well. A ship of 100 tons would be sufficient to make a voyage

there and back from Humacao to Vieques and to Culebra and back. Then, also, the small island is a magnificent port. It is necessary to give the poor people living there facilities for communicating with other places, not only on the people's account, but for the sake of the government itself. The government can not possibly know what is going on in Culebra, because they have no cable or any other means of communication. As a ship of 100 tons would be so useful for taking mails and government officials, and would cost so little, it would be very desirable. It would be a good thing for police reasons also. A ship could go from there to St. Thomas and take on wood and fish there, and nobody know anything about it. Even if it were only for the purpose of vigilance it would be desirable.

Dr. CARROLL. How many inhabitants are there in Culebra?

Mr. BERNITEZ. I think about 600; but it is worth while helping them. Under Spanish rule I can understand why all these things were not attended to, because Spain was a poor nation; but I do not understand such neglect under the United States.

Dr. CARROLL. You must remember that it has been only a few months since the United States came into possession of Porto Rico, and is not yet in full civil possession of the island. I think a great many things have been done since we have been here, considering the time and circumstances.

Mr. BERNITEZ. That is all right; but has the ratification of the peace treaty put us in a better position?

Dr. CARROLL. A great many things that need to be done for Porto Rico can only be done after a civil government has been installed here. You only have an ad interim government now. After you get a civil government you may look for many things that are not possible at present.

Mr. BERNITEZ. I don't think what you say alters my opinion in regard to what I remarked before. Agriculturists would not be in a very much better position if they had a rebate on sugar and tobacco, but they would be in a position to help the peons, and I want you to be thoroughly impressed with that information. I know specially that there are factories to-day that have been grinding cane, but are being forced to stop because they have not the money or can not sell their sugar. A rebate of one-half of the duty to-day would be very favorable for the agriculturists, not for me directly, but for the people.

Dr. CARROLL. This is not a difficult position simply, it is an impossible one. The President of the United States has power over the tariff of Porto Rico and has changed it in the interest of the poorer classes, but he can not change the tariff of the United States.

Mr. BERNITEZ. I feel it very much, because if only a part of the duty could be removed it would help to tranquillize the country.

Dr. CARROLL. The conditions in Porto Rico respecting these matters have been made known again and again to the Government at Washington, and the Government feels the deepest sympathy for those who are suffering here under present conditions; but it has no way of applying a remedy until Congress meets, next December.

Mr. BERNITEZ. The position of the peons to-day is a desperate one, and it is not due to the agriculturists not desiring to help them.

Dr. CARROLL. You will have to try to struggle through the present conditions the best you can and hope for better times. I wish I could assist you, but there is no governmental power by which that can be done.

Mr. BERNITEZ. I wish to state, as it may interest you, that I pay \$4,500 a year taxes.

THE MOST VITAL ISSUE.

STATEMENT OF DELEGATION FROM PONCE.

PONCE, P. R., *November 8, 1898.*

The most vital, urgent, and necessary measure that should be taken in Porto Rico, if the ruin of this rich island is to be prevented, is the free importation into the island of the products of the United States, and vice versa.

WHAT IS EXPECTED.

MEMORIAL OF MERCHANTS AND BANKERS.

MAYAGUEZ, P. R., *November 16, 1898.*

To establish free trade between Porto Rico and the United States of America. The island is confidently expecting the "cabotage," i. e., free trade between the United States and this island, will be granted, to give a fresh impulse to the agriculture of sugar and tobacco, which form most important factors of our production and whose existence is in imminent danger without their free importation into the United States from the moment the United States money becomes our currency, as the laborers will not be willing to work at the reduced wages at whatever may be the rate of change; this also being the reason why we request that the change of money and free import should be effected simultaneously.

ACTION OF BOARD OF AGRICULTURE, MANUFACTURES, AND COMMERCE.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *December 6, 1898.*

It was voted that the American Government be memorialized, asking for the establishment of free coasting trade, and in case important interests in the United States be thereby endangered, that a reduction of 90 per cent on the tariff paid by other nations be granted. This was based not only on the fact that Porto Rico has become an integral part of the United States, but also that its former market has closed its doors to our products by imposing high rates of duty against them, and that aforesaid measure would help to lift the island from its present state of prostration and decadence, for which reason the free introduction of agricultural machinery and implements is requested.

(Signed by the president and secretary.)

FREE TRADE BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND PORTO RICO.

STATEMENT BY L. M. CINTRON.

I am of the opinion that the trade between the United States and Porto Rico should be considered coastwise and that this reformation should be introduced simultaneously with the change of money. The daily wages of a laborer have fluctuated always between 40 cents and 50 cents, colonial money. He has never been able to obtain more than that from the agriculturists for various reasons, among which is the disproportion existing between the rate of interest paid by the agriculturists on money borrowed and the low price obtained for their

crops. A satisfactory proof of this disproportion is the disappearance of many sugar estates and the slow and languid existence of those which remain, dying gradually by reason of their heavy liabilities. The wage of the field hand is quite insufficient. He can only obtain for himself the most absolutely necessary things and can never aspire to the degree of well-being enjoyed by the workmen of the United States and the greater part of European nations. Neither can he hope to put aside anything for his old age or ill-luck which fate may bring him. To this miserable wage the universal ignorance of the poor classes can be ascribed; but, being naturally intelligent, they understand the benefits of education. Their extreme poverty forces them, in order to add to their daily income, to send their children at a very early age to work instead of sending them to school. For this reason the authorities who have been charged with the duty of inspecting public education have been obliged to be very lenient with regard to compliance with the school regulations. To remedy these difficulties it is necessary to increase the salary of the field hand by paying him in gold what he to-day receives in silver.

This improved rate of wage, however, is entirely beyond the means of the agriculturists, and will be impossible until the adoption of free coastwise trade between the new metropolis and Porto Rico. It might be argued that the loss of the duties collected on articles imported into this market would deprive us of an important amount necessary for our budget, but it can be stated that there would be sufficient to pay all the expenses of this unfortunate island, which, up to the present, has had to bear the expenses of a war not undertaken in its interest with the receipts of customs dues on imports from foreign markets of the same nature as that in force in the United States and with direct local taxation.

FAJARDO, P. R., *November 4, 1898.*

FREE TRADE WITH THE UNITED STATES.

By Messrs. A. HARTMANN & Co., *Merchants.*

As we firmly believe that the United States will give this island all the privileges that all the Territories enjoy under the Constitution, we have very little to say on the subject. Certainly, when free trade is established, the resources of this island will develop in a wonderful manner, which will mean more profitable transactions for the citizens of the United States and result in increased profits to the American shipping trade.

Free trade between the United States and Porto Rico will also stimulate greater loyalty to the Union, for it was one of the greatest complaints of the Porto Ricans that they were denied free trade with Spain and treated almost as if Porto Rico were a foreign country.

ARROYO, P. R., *November 7, 1898.*

FREE TRADE BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND PORTO RICO.

STATEMENT OF UNITED STATES CONSUL PHILIP C. HANNA.

I am thoroughly convinced that the tariff question is the all-important question in this group of islands. Porto Rico can never become prosperous until she can buy bread for her people without paying

enormous revenue duties for the privilege of bringing that bread into the island. It seems reasonable to me, as an American, that the people of this newly adopted country should be allowed to purchase the products of the United States and land them on their own shores without paying tribute to any government whatever. I believe the island should have absolute free trade with all parts of the United States. I believe in making Porto Rico as thoroughly American as possible from the very start, and we can not make it so unless we treat Porto Ricans as we do other Americans. They should be allowed to buy Minnesota flour and Dakota wheat and every product which the farmer of the great Northwest has to sell, and lay them down in their own country on the same terms that the man in New York receives the same products. The people in the island are strongly in sympathy with the United States. They are enthusiastic over the fact of their becoming Americans. They long for the introduction of our institutions, of our school system, of our factory system, and our agricultural system.

There is evidently a great longing among the laboring class of the island for an opportunity to rise to the rank of an American laborer. They realize that toil and honest work in the United States are honorable; that the man who toils in any part of the United States is looked upon with respect; that the laborer of the United States has an ambition to become better situated, to be the owner of his own home, to educate his children, and to properly provide for old age. They are aware that many people of the United States who were once laborers have become wealthy, and already the ambition of the laboring class of the island is being stimulated; they are becoming encouraged by the prospects of the future; they believe that the dawn of a new day for them is at hand, and our Government has it within its power to continue to inspire this people with the laudable ambition to make something of themselves, and I believe that the whole question concerning the laboring man of Porto Rico very largely depends upon free trade between the island and the United States. During the past two months I have received several thousand letters from all classes of business men in all parts of the United States concerning this island, very many of them asking me when the proper time will arrive for them to invest capital in Porto Rico. Several of them have said, "We propose to establish factories in this densely populated island and teach the people there, who have been accustomed to labor at very low wages, to labor in the factories that we shall establish. We hope to be in position," most of them say, "to pay them better wages than they have ever received in the past. We understand that they are not a class of people acquainted with strikes, and by giving them better wages than they have had heretofore and making labor respectable among them we believe our factories can be successfully conducted in Porto Rico." Such is the tenor of hundreds of the letters I have received. But with the present high rates of duty upon all building material, machinery, and all kinds of goods coming from the United States to Porto Rico, it would be impossible for these men to establish their factories here for the benefit of and the uplifting of the Porto Rican laborer.

There are nearly a million people in this group of islands. It is said to be the most densely populated portion of the globe. The greater part of the people are poor, but I believe they are more inclined to work and earn an honest living than the people of any other Latin-American country that I was ever in. When the duties are

entirely taken off of American products, so that American manufacturers can have branch factories in Porto Rico, thousands of these people will be educated in the factory. They will be inspired with the desire not only to make their living but to become home owners, as many of our workmen are in the United States.

Crime, as a result of the people having no work, will be greatly reduced throughout the country, for the greater part of the crimes in the past have been committed by persons who had nothing to eat and no work whereby they could obtain money for food. Our people, in establishing here factories and shops and improving the land of the island, in opening up sugar plantations and coffee estates and in developing the undeveloped parts of this group of islands, will be giving these people a great practical moral lesson, for I believe that, as a rule, if Porto Ricans had a chance to earn their living they would labor and be content, and that the petty thefts which have been quite common throughout the island in the days of Spanish rule would cease almost entirely. I have closely studied the subject of crime in Porto Rico, and nearly all of the crimes of the island consist in petty thieving, and in almost every case when a boy or girl is brought before the justice accused of stealing, the starved look in his or her face and the half naked body, which was never clothed decently, give a striking emphasis to the plea, "I was very hungry and no one would employ me, and I took this article of food to keep me from starving."

Porto Ricans are not bad people. Remove from them the terrible temptation produced by enforced hunger and nakedness; give to these people an opportunity to earn an honest living; teach them that toil is honorable; build for them factories instead of forts; teach them to handle tools instead of bayonets, and we shall produce upon them a moral effect which the Spaniards failed to produce and make of them a people whom we shall not be ashamed to recognize as fellow-citizens of our grand Republic.

In other words, free trade between the United States and Porto Rico is a moral question. It is practical religion, and our people can never supply the missing link in the moral education and religious training of this people without giving them an opportunity to earn a living and without treating them as we treat other Americans. I see no more justice in compelling Porto Ricans to pay for the privilege of handling American bread on Porto Rican shores than I do in compelling the people of Massachusetts to pay for bringing Iowa wheat or Iowa pork into the State of Massachusetts. The only difference is that the people of Massachusetts are more capable of paying such duties at the present time than the poor people of Porto Rico are. Our 80,000,000 of people have complained of the unjust burdens placed by Spain upon her subjects in these islands during all the years of the past, and now it is the opportunity of our people to prove that Americans are better than Spaniards, and to give them a sort of kindergarten object lesson by giving them cheap bread and cheap clothing to wear, by placing before them an opportunity to earn a living and by encouraging every enterprise calculated to make them a better people.

I find that there is only about one-tenth of the land of this group of islands under actual cultivation at the present time. The heavy taxes which Spain placed upon the people of her colonies have crushed the once prosperous farmer, and the heavy additional war taxes which Spain placed upon this island during the past year have sent into bankruptcy a very large number of the men of the

island. All through Porto Rico to-day stand the ruins of once valuable sugar estates. The great sugar factories have fallen down, the machinery has been eaten by rust, and the land has passed into the hands of those who hold the mortgages. If our people in the United States would take an unselfish interest in dealing with these people in accordance with the golden rule and receive in exchange for our products which we have to sell to this island the products of Porto Rico on the very same terms that one State receives the products of another State, without charging duty for admission, this fertile island would again bloom and blossom and prosper as it never before prospered; and the whole civilized world would observe the success of our glorious American institutions in lifting up a downtrodden people and bettering their moral and financial condition.

This island being small, its products which may be shipped to the United States will not be of sufficient amount to materially affect the rich producers of our great country. We should not look upon the Porto Rican producers of sugar, tobacco, and coffee as our competitors; we should regard them as our newly adopted brothers, who have been imprisoned for four hundred and six years, in whom we all have a common interest. We should show to the world that we delight in their uplifting, in their prosperity, in their becoming respectable laborers, and in their becoming intelligent Americans. We should insist upon them enjoying the same blessings and advantages that the people in every part of our great country enjoy.

FREE TRADE BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND PORTO RICO.

STATEMENT OF RUCABADO & CO., MERCHANTS OF CAYEY.

Although our commerce is in a state of comparative well-being, it still feels the necessity of establishing coastwise trade between this island and the new metropolis. This measure alone would suffice to bring about a greater degree of prosperity. It would even be a matter of political convenience for the Government of the great Republic to establish this system, which would harmonize the moral and material interests of both countries, whose destiny is united in an indissoluble bond.

THE RELATION OF THE TARIFF TO THE MONEY QUESTION.

STATEMENT OF CONRADO PALAN, A DIRECTOR OF THE SPANISH BANK OF PORTO RICO.

It is my judgment that, simultaneously with the change in the money system, there should be some resolution of the tariff problem adopted, as our agriculturists would be seriously prejudiced if they had to pay salaries and other expenses in better money without a better market for their products. A compensation for any loss in the custom-house receipts would be obtained by the agriculturists in coastwise trade with the United States, as with the free introduction of our products there production would increase, on account of the confidence which an assured market would inspire. Articles of food would be lower in price, owing to the free entry here of American goods—much to the benefit of the working classes, and this fact would remove from the day laborers all pretext for demanding higher wages. The only pretext which they can advance to-day for such a demand is the low pur-

chasing power of the money in which they are paid and the high prices of articles of food, drink, and fuel, the high prices of which articles are due to high customs duties. Coastwise trade therefore is, in my opinion, most convenient to both countries. It is the only way in which the prosperity of Porto Rico can be completely assured.

Were it possible to have introduced here, free of duty, machinery and other manufacturing implements, agricultural industries and industries derived therefrom would be given a great impulse.

As against other nations, a special tariff might be fixed, or even the same tariff in force in the United States, with certain modifications, as regards several articles necessary for our consumption and which it would be desirable to import from other countries. Some of these articles are the produce of the old metropolis (Spain), and it occurs to me that without prejudicing the new one in any way, it would be well to allow these articles a moderate tariff charge, and in exchange for this favor claim from Spain a reduction of the duties levied by her on some of our productions.

FREE TRADE WOULD SAVE THE SUGAR INDUSTRY.

MEMORIAL OF JOSÉ V. CINTRON, PLANTER.

The confusion of exchange has always tended to the prejudice of the price of the product, while benefiting the ring of bankers, who have thus made fortunes.

I sent last year to the house of A. M. Seixas, of New York, a consignment of 420 bags and 86 hogsheads of sugar (muscovado) in the month of May, and at the highest market prices, according to the account sale, obtained \$3.75 per quintal, or \$3,837 net, or \$1.6396 per quintal, United States currency. It is absolutely impossible to produce sugar at this price. But the compensation of the exchange has kept up our sugar-growing industry. When I sold my bills on the United States at 100 per cent premium I saw my sale price in New York doubled.

The exchange of United States currency for colonial money at 100 per cent, and the payment of contracts at that rate would, assist in freeing from pawn the great number of properties under mortgage, and they would thus recover from the exploitation of which they have been the victims.

But the exchange alone, if not accompanied by free coasting trade with the metropolis, would simply sentence the sugar industry to death, and would cause the ruin of many families and cause a profound disturbance by throwing many men out of work.

YABUCOA, February 2, 1899.

FREE TRADE WOULD GIVE AN IMPULSE TO COMMERCE.

By successors to A. J. ALCAIDE.

We believe that commerce and free trade with the United States must be established; that is, free entrance through our custom-house for all American products, and the same privilege to be extended to Porto Rican products in the custom-house of the Union.

Free trade between the two countries will give a tremendous impulse to commerce, will stimulate our agricultural interests, for it opens for our principal products—sugar, molasses, coffee, and hides—a sure and profitable market, and free trade would naturally bring Porto Rico nearer to the United States politically, making the people grateful to the American flag.

In our opinion free trade with the United States would make of Porto Rico the richest island in the world, for its lands are so fertile and its resources so great that with American capital, well directed, there is no telling of the results.

The opening of the American market free to us will surely start many minor industries, such as the planting of bananas, oranges, cocoanuts, pineapples, and other tropical fruits, which would quite soon be another source of wealth, and, as a consequence, the enlarged mercantile movement would extend its benefits to American shipping.

ARROYO, P. R., *November 4, 1898.*

FREE TRADE BETWEEN PORTO RICO AND THE UNITED STATES.

By ARTHUR F. ODLIN, of law firm of Odlin & Pettingill.

The proper thing, to my mind, is to make trade absolutely free between all ports of the United States and Porto Rico. This must be so when the Territory shall be established. The merchants and manufacturers in the States are doing practically no business here now for the reason that nearly all the large houses here are intensely pro-Spanish in their sympathies, and of course they buy from Spain when the products of their old sovereign come to the island on the same terms with goods from the States. An official of the local board of trade here in San Juan (which is an organization consisting entirely of Spanish) stated to a Porto Rican who had been present at the meeting that said meeting would amount to nothing because the board of trade had decided to send a cable to the President asking the status quo here to be retained and nothing done at present. In my judgment the continuance of the tariff would not only injure the people in the United States who are eager to do business here, but it retards the proper and sanitary improvement of the island. As proof of my position I will give you two instances within my own personal knowledge.

First. In my adopted State of Florida, where I resided for over twelve years, are many expert growers of tropical fruits who have become discouraged by reason of the frequent freezes there of late years, and who wish to come here and engage in the growing of lemons, oranges, pineapples, and similar fruits. Here they will find a soil that will need no fertilizer and a climate where frost never comes. Consul Hanna tells me that in spite of the fact that there are nearly 800,000 people on this island not over 10 per cent of the land is under cultivation; and yet I read in the papers printed in the States that Porto Rico is overcrowded. Remove the tariff so that an agriculturist can bring anything he wants from New York to Porto Rico, just as he brings it now from New York to Florida, and I will guarantee 100 expert fruit growers from one county in Florida.

Second. In this island are scores of large cities or large towns in urgent need of modern water supplies, partly as a protection against

fire, but more pressing is the demand for sanitation and public health. I have knowledge of responsible Americans who are willing to come here and build modern systems of water supply for these places at rates which will give them a fair interest on their investment, the municipalities to fix the rates, etc., but they can not and will not come when all the material they bring is dutiable. Meanwhile the continuance of a tariff tends to postpone the Americanizing of the natives here, who are already learning that commerce is free between the States and Territories, and who now feel that the promised improvement of their condition, after four hundred years of Spanish dominion, is something of an unfulfilled promise. Again, this island will never be Americanized without Americans, and they will not come here in any considerable numbers under existing conditions.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *December 4, 1898.*

FREE IMPORTATION OF RAW MATERIALS.

By M. GRAU & SONS, *Manufacturers.*

We are merchants and manufacturers, with an established house of business in this city, at Nos. 68 and 70 Concordia street, owners of a spirit distillery and of a match factory. We respectfully inform you that to-day our partners, Don Primitivo and Don Pedro Grau, attended the meeting called by Messrs. Fritze, Lundt & Co., in which these gentlemen proposed that all crude material for the use of manufacturers should be allowed free entry into the island and that houses importing them should pay no duty whatever. This proposition was passed by the meeting.

These gentlemen further proposed that coastwise trade between Porto Rico and the United States should be instituted, as the heavy duties now imposed constitute a burden upon industries, making them entirely impossible; that not only should raw materials be allowed free entry into the country when coming from the United States, but, when destined for manufacturing purposes, the same liberty be granted to articles coming from any other country. Only in this way can we save ourselves from the strong competition which we would have to suffer; if this is not granted, all our industries will be wiped out.

The present tariff does not specify the duty to be paid on match boxes, which up to the present have been classified under Article 248, as match sticks. We beg that if free entry be not given these articles they be continued under the same classification, as being of the same nature.

MAYAGUEZ, P. R., *November 5, 1898.*

FREE TRADE WITH THE UNITED STATES.

STATEMENT OF MERCHANTS, BANKERS, AND PROPRIETORS OF MAYAGUEZ.

We want free trade between Porto Rico and the United States of America. The island is confidently expecting the "cabotage"—i. e., free trade—between the United States and this island will be granted, to give a fresh impulse to the agriculture of sugar and tobacco, which form most important factors of our production and whose exist-

ence is in imminent danger without their free importation into the United States from the moment the United States money becomes our currency, as the laborers will not be willing to work at the reduced wages at whatever may be the rate of change; this also being the reason why we request that the change of money and free import should be effected simultaneously.

The foregoing proposal represents the views of thirty-two firms of Mayaguez, comprising all the large firms and most of the smaller ones.

MAYAGUEZ, P. R.

A QUESTION OF EXPEDIENCY.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 27, 1898.*

PEDRO JOSÉ ARSUAGA, of Sobrinos de Esquiaga.

As regards the sugar industry, for instance, this industry will be favored by the new state of things if, as the sugar planters expect, they will be given a free market in the United States; and although the amount of sugar produced here is insignificant as compared with the amount produced in Cuba, our product would nevertheless be in a much better position.

As regards coffee, we lose the market of Spain and lose the market of Cuba and will have no market in the United States, because there they use the Brazilian coffee, which is much cheaper. The coffee which used to be sent from here to Cuba was ordinary coffee, but now in Cuba they say they are going to import the cheaper Brazilian coffee instead of the coffee of Porto Rico. The best coffee produced here goes to Europe. The coffee industry here is an extremely important one, and the general feeling here is that, if possible, we should obtain free entry for our coffee in Cuba. As it is at present, a considerable duty has to be paid on entering it there, which very greatly reduces the margin of profit.

As regards the establishment of free trade between the United States and Porto Rico, that is a question which depends upon the ulterior question, namely, whether there will be sufficient funds to meet the expenses of the island without the imposition of duties on articles imported from there. Under Spanish rule there was not absolute free trade between Spain and the island. There was a duty amounting to about 10 per cent imposed upon every article. It seems natural that there should be absolute free trade between the United States and this island, but whether it is expedient or not is a question of statistics.

REMOVE DUTIES FROM NECESSARY ARTICLES.

STATEMENT OF MANY CITIZENS.

ISABELA, P. R., *February 15, 1899.*

We think free coastwise trade should be immediately declared between Porto Rico and the United States, not only for the benefits resulting to commerce and agriculture therefrom, but because of the new bonds of sympathy that it would cause between the two countries.

The poor people's food and clothing call for the protection of the government. In no part of the world has the laboring class suffered

more than it has here, owing to the abandonment of their interests by the monarchial government, whose policy was repression and not protection. This has brought about the lamentable condition of the peasant, who not only has not enough to eat, but whose miserable hut does not offer him any of the decencies of life. The government should, therefore, remove the duties from all articles of prime necessity and start public works to give employment to the poor who do not ask for charity, but for work and instruction.

PROSPERITY DEPENDING ON FREE TRADE.

STATEMENT OF RUCABADO & CO.

CAYEY, P. R., *March 4, 1899.*

Although our commerce is in a state of comparative well-being, it still feels the necessity of establishing coastwise trade between this island and the new metropolis. This measure alone would suffice to bring about a greater degree of prosperity. It would even be a matter of political convenience for the Government of the great Republic to establish this system, which would harmonize the moral and material interests of both countries whose destiny is united in an indissoluble bond.

FREE TRADE WITH THE METROPOLIS.

STATEMENT OF MAYOR CELESTINO DOMINGUEZ.

GUAYAMA, P. R., *January, 1899.*

The tariff should facilitate commerce, agriculture, and manufacturing so that the island can recover from the prostration into which it has fallen since the termination of the Spanish rule. Our principal products have always suffered. They were kept out of Spain by prohibitive tariffs and had to seek a market in foreign countries, where similar products, raised under more favorable conditions in other lands, competed with them. The United States, therefore, became our principal market and bought our sugars, the largest crop of the island. By reason of the inferior value of our money, by reason of the want of conscience of the local exporters, who from time immemorial have exercised a monopoly, by reason, perhaps, of sugars from other countries enjoying privileges not granted to us, by reason of the trusts, so common in our new country, and many other causes, the price of sugar has fallen so low as to produce a state of despair among our cultivators, many of whom have let their lands run to grass. The island of Porto Rico has immense plains which thirty years ago were covered with magnificent sugar plantations and to-day are pasture fields. Every now and again the chimney of an abandoned sugar mill may be seen, the ruins of which announce the past of an industry once flourishing but now dead. What is wanted, therefore, is decided protection for our principal crops—sugar, coffee, tobacco, rum, cacao, etc. A low tariff for the importation of foreign goods and free coasting trade with the metropolis would solve the question of prosperity. The income from the custom-house alone would cover all expenditures for internal government.

FREE TRADE WOULD GIVE IMMEDIATE RELIEF.

STATEMENT OF TWENTY MERCHANTS AND PLANTERS.

YAUCO, P. R., *March 6, 1899.*

Taking into account the terrible economic state of the island, due to the paralyzation of credit, the high cost of imported goods during the past year, and the low price of our crops at the present time, a step must be taken which shall give decided protection to our agriculture, the principal source of our wealth. This measure can be synthesized as follows:

(1) Free coasting trade between the United States and Porto Rico, as a radical measure, the benefits of which would be felt immediately; until this decree be issued, the free entry of our products into the ports of the Union. It is logical to suppose that by depriving the central treasury of the benefits to be derived from the imports of sugar it would be prejudiced, but to make up for this loss we suggest a duty be levied on coffees from other countries imported into the Union.

(2) The establishment of territorial banks, which shall lend money for long terms and low rates of interest in order to be able to raise the mortgages from our farms and attend to their cultivation.

(3) Removal of import duties from articles of every-day consumption, such as rice, flour, codfish, lard, bacon, etc.; also from all classes of agricultural machinery and tools until "cabotage" be declared.

(4) The construction of good roads and railroads, in order to facilitate transportation, which to-day is very expensive.

With regard to manufactures, to-day almost unknown in this country, they should be stimulated. This will settle the question of our laborers, at present almost entirely without occupation, and will bring into use our raw material, which at present is unused or else exported with no gain whatsoever.

As to commerce, its welfare would be guaranteed if in addition to protection to agriculture it could count on a conscientious customs tariff and stability of exchange until the money question be finally settled.

OPINIONS OF THE PEOPLE ON VARIOUS QUESTIONS OF REFORM.
CONGRESS OF PORTO RICANS.**Mr. SPECIAL COMMISSIONER OF THE UNITED STATES TO PORTO RICO:**

The four political parties which existed here having been dissolved by the fact of the cession of Porto Rico to the United States of America, as agreed upon in the peace protocol, a number of public men who figured in the direction of the old parties, desirous of promoting the general welfare, came together to study the actual social-political situation of this island and to give it an adequate solution in the general policy of the North American nation.

The idea prevailed unanimously of calling the country together in an assembly which should discuss and pass solutions of the various problems of our local life, for presentation to the Federal Government with the stamp of the consent of the greatest number possible of persons representing Porto Rican public opinion. While the assembly was being convoked, in the manner stated in the printed slip hereto

adjoined, these public men held meetings to discuss political, economic, and social matters which might serve as a guide to the assembly for its definite deliberations, and it was agreed that the meeting should be open to all inhabitants of Porto Rico accepting United States citizenship and identified with the aspirations of the country, to propose and defend every question they might think of benefit to the general welfare.

The assembly was held in the Theater of San Juan, on Sunday, October 30, and had numerous attendants, representing all social classes of the many towns of the island. After the undersigned opened the session and explained the object of the meeting, all present, in the midst of enthusiastic acclamations, rose to their feet to swear and promise obedience and fidelity to the Constitution of the United States. Deliberations were at once begun and the following conclusions carried by unanimous vote:

POLITICAL AND JUDICIAL MATTERS.

Porto Rico, to fill her necessities, to satisfy her aspirations, and develop her activity, begs of the Congress of the United States that it may be declared a Territory of the Union, ending at once the military and beginning the civil government.

As a consequence of this, the Federal Constitution, the general laws of the Union, and the special laws which Congress may vote will begin to have force here as general laws. This would give us the laws common to all the Territories, with the following modifications:

In the legislative assembly, the high chamber or senate to renew its members as to a third of their number every two years, the chamber of representatives to renew its entire number in the same period. Qualifications: A senator to be 30 years of age and a representative five 25 years.

All citizens of 21 years residing in the Territory to have the right to vote; all persons who, during the first two years, do not prove that they know how to read and write to lose the right to vote.

To occupy any position obtained by election it shall be necessary to know how to read and write.

Courts of justice to be organized as follows: One supreme court, three district courts, judges of first instance and instruction for civil and criminal matters, and justices of the peace, by popular elections. Each court to have one fiscal.

As it is a part of the duty of the legislative assembly, under the Territorial system, to vote local laws, the following reforms are of urgent necessity:

IN THE ADMINISTRATIVE BRANCH.

The greatest simplicity in procedure, to facilitate the immediate dispatch of business by skilled employees, who shall continue in office while faithfully performing their duty.

IN THE JUDICIAL BRANCH.

The jury for all classes of crimes.

A single trial for oral and public suits in civil business within the jurisdiction of district courts.

Public declaration of sentences.

Criminal and civil judges and their employees to be held responsible.

Advocates to form a college and draw up the necessary statutes.

Liberty in the exercise of the profession of procurator.

Liberty in the exercise of the profession of notary, which profession may also be practiced by *abogados*.

Procurators and notaries to give bond to the tribunals for the proper discharge of their official duties.

Reorganization of the registry of property, with one office only in San Juan, with trained employees on salary, subject to categorical rules, in order to prevent all classes of abuse, to facilitate rapidity and to cheapen registration.

IN THE LEGISLATIVE BRANCH.

Harmonize and unify the present laws, so as to avoid conflict between them and those of the Union, and enact the following reforms:

Simplify legal procedure in suits and actions and also limit the pleadings in lawsuits to bill and answer; statement of evidence to be offered, and list of witnesses to be examined, and in suits to make public the summary for the defense of the accused from the commencement of the suit, and to limit the temporary imprisonment in absence or default of bonds to the exclusive guarding of the prisoner (mere detention).

Modification of the penal code, so as to do away with perpetual imprisonment, and increase fines in punishment of crimes against property, and to limit to two periods of seven years each imprisonment for personal injuries which may be considered as crimes (crime against the person to be punished seven or fourteen years).

Authorizing justices of the peace to perform the marriage ceremony.

The suppression in the hypothecary law (of mortgages) of the so-called "information of possession" (the form of proof of ownership now in vogue).

IN THE MUNICIPAL RÉGIME.

To sanction the autonomous form of government, with mayors and councilors elected by public vote.

IN THE ECONOMICAL AND FINANCIAL BRANCH.

To reform the tributary system by establishing a territorial tax on the basis of capital (valuation instead of income).

Allowing the present levies on commerce and industry to remain, but abolishing those on professional men and on industries which, lacking in capital, are carried on by personal efforts only.

The suppression of the taxes called "internal passports" (*cedulas*), stamped paper, stamped paper used in making payment to the state, excise stamps used in making payment to the state, excise stamps on drafts and promissory notes, lotteries, taxes on raffles, and *medias*, *annatas*, bulls, and *mandaspías* (ecclesiastical taxes).

To preserve the right of patents of inventions.

To impose taxes on all capital invested in articles of luxury, such as estates (extensive private parks, etc.) cultivated for private pleasure.

To suppress the consumption tax and not tax in any way whatever articles of food, drink, or fuel, even those which are now subject to duties in the custom-house.

Lots and waste lands which now belong to the State should pass to the ownership of municipalities, so they could make use of their products.

Free and reciprocal commerce with the American Union for the entry of products in all ports without payment of export or import duties.

Reformation of the tariff, to put on a just basis fiscal dues and not make impossible commerce under foreign flags.

Reformation of the custom-house regulations in favor of commerce, suppressing the obnoxious fines, in which employees of that department have a share.

Suppress the monopoly of emission of bank notes enjoyed by the Spanish Bank of Porto Rico, and establish full liberty for banks, savings and other credit institutions to emit their notes when fully guaranteed.

Effect the exchange of the money system immediately in the form which the Government may consider most convenient after hearing all social classes interested in the matter.

In order to assist agriculture there should be established the legal regimen of homestead; the free importation of agricultural machinery and tools; the imposition of a tax on each acre of land which remains uncultivated for one year; the assuring of agricultural credit on agricultural movable property; the establishment of a school of agriculture, where agriculturists shall be given free instruction and training in technical matters; the teaching of elementary practical agriculture in the country schools; the establishment of warehouses for agricultural products; the release of the Agricultural Bank of San Juan from the payment of all taxation during five years.

As regards public education, the best means of advancing our people would be kindergartens and normal schools as established in the United States. Our elementary and superior schools should be transformed and graded according to modern pedagogic methods. Secondary instruction should be a continuation of the primary and a preparation for the superior and collegiate. Universal education should be introduced on the best models of the United States. There should be established schools for adults, Sunday schools, schools of arts and trades, libraries, museums, academies of fine arts, and literary clubs.

Education must be obligatory and gratuitous, and it must be compulsory on every municipality to sustain its own schools, the number being fixed by law with reference to the population. If the municipality be unable to sustain all the schools, the state should establish the necessary ones.

Grades of instruction to be three—the fundamental, or that given by the public schools; the secondary, which should give positive notions on scientific, civil, and technical subjects; the professional, which comprehends the knowledge of jurisprudence, medicine, engineering, and technology; the universities to diffuse general knowledge of science for purposes of high culture.

For the formation of a competent body of teachers, it is necessary to establish normal schools for teachers of both sexes; normal schools for professors; normal schools for university teachers, and military and naval schools.

SOCIAL ORDER.

To procure the betterment and dignifying of the working classes, there should be:

Establishments where the workingman can educate himself and acquire knowledge appropriate to his trade.

Savings banks; insurance societies, especially to insure against accidents resulting to workmen while engaged at their work.

The creation of communities for the purpose of educating workmen and encouraging them to live hygienically.

Limiting of the hours of labor to eight hours a day.

Obtaining employment for workmen out of labor.

Fixing minimum salary.

Prohibiting the employment of children under the age of 15 years.

A plan to facilitate the establishment of soup kitchens.

Correctional establishments for children. Also reform in the present penitentiary system by introducing into it educational facilities.

The prohibition of begging in public and substituting therefor the care of poor people by the establishment of almshouses.

The severe punishment of drunkenness; chronic alcoholism to be treated in hospitals; the imposition of a heavy tax on alcoholic drinks; the absolute prohibition of the sale of harmful drinks and the sale of drinks to children under the age of 18.

To alleviate the conditions of our women, the professions compatible with their sex should be open to them.

It is necessary to formulate a law which shall cover all the questions having relation to hygiene, as follows:

The creation of boards charged to see that their orders are complied with; construction of public schools; medical inspection of children in schools; sanitation of the cities; scientific inspection of articles of food and drink; the creation of a veterinary school; the supply of water for towns, gardens, parks, trees, and everything contributing to public health; the creation of a bacteriological institution.

The assembly voted that all the preceding conclusions should be given officially by a commission, which it designated, to the special commissioner, that he might present them to the President of the United States.

MANUEL F. ROSSY,
President of the Assembly.

SAN JUAN, P. R., November 9, 1898.

A TERRITORIAL FORM OF GOVERNMENT.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., October 31, 1898.

FRANCISCO MARIANO QUIÑONES and Dr. JOSÉ C. BARBOSA:

Dr. CARROLL. Do you think many of the Spaniards in the island will become American citizens?

Mr. QUIÑONES. Before the invasion of Porto Rico I met a prominent Spanish gentleman in Ponce, who said: "If you think that the American invasion will do us harm you are much mistaken. We are perfectly convinced that our mother country is now in too weak a state to be able to continue a government here beneficial to merchants or to the country in general." Therefore I think that a great many Spaniards will accept, with good will, American citizenship, and will remain in the country, exploiting their own wealth and the riches of the country.

Dr. CARROLL. Will it be the policy of the autonomists or the fusionists to make it as easy as possible for these Spanish gentlemen to become American citizens?

Mr. QUIÑONES. I can only answer that question with regard to my own feelings. If my opinions had any weight with my party, I would tell them, as I have frequently counseled them, that it is good politics not to let personal feelings tend toward exclusiveness, but to take into consideration personal moral qualities, aptitude of the men for work and for adding to the benefit of the country, and to let that be their only guide as to whether they will receive others as one of them.

Dr. CARROLL. That is a very honorable programme.

Mr. QUIÑONES. That comes more from my heart than my head. I can never become a partisan to exclusiveness in politics or in anything else.

Dr. CARROLL. I suppose if anyone has occasion to feel hatred for the Spaniards it is you, and if you feel so liberal at heart toward them, it is to be hoped that the rank and file of the radical party will adopt a similar attitude.

Mr. QUIÑONES. If you will read what is in that book (Mr. Quiñones's notes on the *Comparte*), which is not falsified in any particular, you will see that the execrable Spanish conduct was enough to make us irreconcilable, but I consider that as circumstances change so can the conduct and character of people change, and I see no reason why, under new circumstances, the Spaniards should not become good, loyal citizens. I have always thought that American institutions were potent to change the bad qualities of a man if a man did not have too vile a character to be affected by good institutions.

Dr. CARROLL. I have heard several times since I came to Porto Rico that the Porto Ricans would be divided among themselves not only on grounds of difference of view as to what is really needed for Porto Rico from the United States, but also on purely party grounds, and that in the course of a month or two there would be a strong conflict, an internal conflict, among themselves on party grounds. I have as yet seen no evidence in support of those views.

Mr. QUIÑONES. There never was such hatred between men as there was witnessed in the political struggle in Porto Rico, with brother against brother, and, in truth, never with more reason.

Dr. CARROLL. What was the reason?

Mr. QUIÑONES. The reason was that they expected from their brothers a policy of far greater liberality than that which they practiced when they came into power, placed there by Sagasta, who granted autonomy, turning the island over to one political party, his own, which had the effect of sowing dissension among Porto Ricans of a lasting and bitter kind. Sagasta, when he made the pact with our representatives, said, "Join yourselves to my party and send me representatives of my party; follow my politics and I will deliver over to you the civil list of the island, and with that you have everything." That is the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth.

Mr. BARBOSA. Sagasta sent fifty names for deputies, and those names had to pass through the ballots, and those opposed to them had no power to defeat the election. The Porto Ricans were always opposed to such a policy and were always against such corrupt means of conducting an election, but the election came, and Porto Rico gave them the Spanish deputies, the names sent from Spain being all elected—names we never heard of before.

Mr. QUIÑONES. When the government was placed in the hands of Munoz Rivera—and I am sorry to have to say it, because he is not here to hear me, but I have said it to him before the Captain-General of the island—he took over the portfolio of the minister of the government, I

being president of the board of ministers. He immediately named in all of the cities mayors who were merely his creatures, ready to carry out his instructions; and I regret to say most of these mayors have been retained in power and are in office to-day. Under these persons the elections previously referred to were conducted so infamously that even Sagasta expressed his displeasure with them; and I have letters from Labra, in Spain, informing me of the discontent of Sagasta, and stating that he would likely express himself in that respect. As regards administration, I think what is needed is that the United States grant Porto Ricans a Territorial form of government. I consider that the municipal regulations as set forth in the Territorial laws would be suitable to this country. I have lived in the United States in one of the small towns and have seen the great simplicity with which they are conducted and the very little governmental machinery that is used. I was only about 18 years old at the time, but I remember being impressed by the fact that things were carried on so quietly it hardly seemed that there was any administration at all.

Dr. CARROLL. The giving of a Territorial form of government to Porto Rico, with the changes in nomenclature, in the character of the posts, in the titles of officers, etc., might be looked at from the Spanish standpoint as somewhat radical, and the question might be asked, Are the people of Porto Rico ready for such radical changes, and do they not wish to retain some of their customs so far as they do not infringe the freedom of thought and speech?

Mr. QUIÑONES. In order to overcome any objections which might be raised of that kind it will be necessary to commence at once to educate the people, so that they may be in a position to enjoy the liberties granted by the Constitution of the United States. They have been living under a tutelage. They were told, "Go that way," and they went, even if it led to a precipice. As a result of this tutelage the people are not now in a position to protect themselves or their property.

Dr. CARROLL. One important question has been raised already in my investigation, and that is the question of trial by jury. You are not accustomed to trial by jury here, whereas under our Constitution no man can be tried and condemned except by process of law under jury trial. It would seem, therefore, necessary to introduce jury trials here, at least in important cases; but a gentleman here yesterday expressed the opinion that the people are not prepared for it; that it would be difficult to find jurors, in many cases, who would be competent to pass upon such cases.

Mr. BARBOSA. Under the Spanish régime we were opposed to the jury, because under the Spanish law the jury would be appointed by the central Government, and that would prove a new weapon in the hands of the officials of Spain, because they could appoint men who, when they came to judge, would be swayed by political passions. Then it was a danger; but to say, as some do, that in a population like that of this city you would not be able to find more than 50 or 100 who could serve as jurors and give an honest, intelligent verdict is not in accordance with my views, and a person who makes such a statement mistakes the functions of the juror. It is only necessary for a man to be able to appreciate the circumstances of a case and to be able to say whether or not a crime was committed. I think the jury system is a very helpful thing for a country, and there must be a time when we shall do it for the first time. If I had not practiced on my first patient, I could never have practiced at all.

Mr. QUIÑONES. When the Americans came here, coming as they do with the intention of giving this country a government which would regenerate it, and found that the country was suffering from internal dissension, and that that dissension did not disappear as it ought to have done, the moment the Americans arrived they should have said, "Until we understand the island and its affairs better we will put in our own men from top to bottom."

Dr. CARROLL. Are there any persons who think that statehood should be given Porto Rico?

Mr. QUIÑONES. Yes; a few fools think so.

Dr. CARROLL. Is there any party that asks for statehood?

Mr. QUIÑONES. The platform of the Fusionist party expresses aspirations for statehood, but only after a prior Territorial government.

Dr. CARROLL. But there is no political party that thinks statehood should be given immediately?

Mr. BARBOSA. The Territorial law will be a good thing because there will not be so many officers here. One of the worst things here is that so many people want to get into the administration.

Mr. QUIÑONES. I do not accept the views of my companion that the jury at first will show itself to be thoroughly competent. Some little time must pass before that can be.

END OF MILITARY RULE DESIRED.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 31, 1898.*

Dr. VEVE. I wish to make clear that the feeling of Porto Ricans toward the United States had birth in the fact that some time before present events happened they understood that of themselves they would never acquire their independence, and they looked toward their neighbors in the north as their natural saviors, and from this fact dates our admiration, respect, and consideration for that great country. But we must ask in return from them their consideration and attention, so as to finish the work of redemption already begun by them. We wish that the United States would direct its attention to this country as soon as international questions now pending are completed, putting an end at once to the military government, destroying completely all traces of the unwise Spanish administration, and establishing here a Territorial system under the general Territorial laws applicable to all Territories in the United States, with such changes as the special conditions in this island may call for; that within the limits of these Territorial laws everything should be done to advance agriculture, free mercantile transactions, and all that will tend to increase the prosperity of the island.

SELF-GOVERNMENT FOR PORTO RICO.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

SAN JUAN, P. R., *November 8, 1898.*

United States Consul-General HANNA:

This island has been called, on account of the richness of its soil, the Pearl of the Antilles. Under the blessing of God and with the application of our laws and free schools and the uplifting influences

of our institutions, we can make this island the pride of the whole country. We can cause this island to be the Pearl of the Antilles, not merely because of the richness of its soil, but because of the advancement of its people morally, intellectually, and financially. We can make it the diamond of the United States, and the Almighty will hold us responsible if we neglect to adopt the proper measures to make it such.

One year ago we never dreamed of owning Porto Rico. In the providence of God she is ours to-day; she will be ours forever, and there is no country nor people on the face of the earth which could afford the United States a better opportunity for showing the world the power of her institutions in developing a people and country than this island of Porto Rico. She never gave Spain trouble. No large army was ever required to maintain order here. The people are quiet, well-behaved, and naturally good. During the whole year I have not seen a drunken Porto Rican. Our people who have visited the island have been astonished at the good behavior of these people. It is true that most of them are in the habit of drinking a little wine or a little rum where they can afford it. It is common for them, in company with their families, to enter a café after their day's work is finished. Some will call for rum, some for wine, others for coffee or chocolate, and so quietly do they engage in this pleasure that no one can tell who has drunk the rum and who the coffee. In fact, on lines of temperance, they are already capable of exerting a moral influence upon many of our American people.

The subject of education is one over which most of the people of the island to-day are very enthusiastic. Even the uneducated men and women of the island come to us and beg us to use our influence with the United States to establish the American school system throughout this country for the education of their children. The education of the poorer class has been sadly neglected. There are but few schoolhouses in the island. Even in the towns and cities most of the schools are kept in rented buildings. About the only school buildings worthy of the name belong to the church. The child of the poor man has had no opportunity to procure an education. The common laborer, who had employment only a small part of his time and who was only able to furnish food for his family, has not been in the past able to clothe his children properly for the schoolroom nor to pay for the tuition. About the only schools established in the island for the poor, in which the very poor children have had attention, are conducted by the various orders of sisters of the Catholic Church. The Mothers of the Sacred Heart, who have a large house at San Turce, in addition to conducting a school for the better and wealthier class, have a school for the poor, where they teach about eighty destitute children. They are now teaching these children, or most of them, the English language. They also teach the girls how to sew, how to make their own clothing, and otherwise to be useful; but this class of schools is very limited in the island and reaches only a small proportion of the poor.

I have had numbers of delegations from different parts of the island come to see me upon the school question. What concerns them most is the education of the poor, and, to my mind, what is most needed in Porto Rico in the line of education is the introduction of our public-school system. Good schoolhouses should be erected in all the cities and towns. Children should be compelled to attend school. Country schoolhouses accessible to all of the populated parts of the island should be erected, and special attention should be given to educating

the rising generation concerning the Government of the United States and our system of self-government. Spain has given the people morros, fortifications, cannon, bayonets, and expended millions of dollars of the people's money on such things instead of on schoolhouses and the employment of teachers to educate the youth. We should reverse the plan and make the education of the people foremost, and the rising generation will rise up to love and honor the great country that educated them.

Without doubt, at present a military government is necessary, but there is no necessity whatever for a prolonged military government in Porto Rico. If continued for a long period, it would make a bad impression upon the people here, who are looking forward eagerly to real self-government at the hands of the United States.

The Territorial form of government, without doubt, is well adapted to this island. We have here a people more capable of becoming good Americans than thousands of persons whom we have in many of our large cities of the Union. Tongs, hard cases, and criminals are comparatively few in this country.

The recent reports concerning the burnings of plantations since our troops landed in the island are probably true substantially, but these burnings have mostly been committed by laborers who for years have been compelled to work at starvation wages on the plantations of the island. I have investigated many of the cases, and almost every case of burning of a plantation is traced to the hired men on the plantation. Old grudges, the memories of persecution and low wages and of a condition worse than slavery have caused these people, at this time of change of governments, to give vent to their wrath and resentment and to try to get even with their masters.

The man who owned a large plantation employed men at the lowest price possible, and instead of giving them money he gave them an order on his grocery store, which he generally kept in connection with his estate. At the end of the month, after having fed their families, they found themselves invariably in debt to the man for whom they worked. They were always in debt; they were virtually the slaves of the estate owner and in a worse condition than ordinary slaves, for the slave owner had a personal interest in his slaves because they were his property, but in these laborers the landlord had no personal interest. He knew that they were compelled to work at starvation wages, and when they died he did not bury them. Nearly every case of crime which has been committed by persons of this unfortunate labor class has been committed out of revenge. I believe, under ordinary circumstances, even this class of men would be law-abiding citizens. I believe, further, that with an opportunity to labor at fair wages, crime in the island would be reduced to as low a percentage as in any State of the Union. The crime of murder in the island is very rarely heard of.

I am sorry to say that the standard of morality here is not as high as we could wish for. Among the poorer classes it is very common for men and women to live together and raise a family without being formally married, but I look with charity upon this class of people. The fees incidental to a marriage ceremony are usually enormous, and no couple can have what is considered a respectable wedding without possessing considerable cash. A poor man falls in love with a woman and desires to make her his partner for life. He sees that nearly all his earnings, if he has been fortunate enough to save a little money, will be exhausted if he should be married in church or before a magistrate; and he realizes that the amount which he has

saved will become very convenient in establishing a little home, so the man and the woman agree to dispense with the marriage ceremony and they simply join hands and live together. As a rule these poor people are devoted to each other, and, although their union was never legally recorded, the man supports his family as sacredly as though they had been joined by authority of the church or state. Marriage among the poorer class is much like it was among the blacks of the Southern States in the days of slavery, and their failure to recognize the ceremony of the church as well as that of the state in their marriage union is hardly chargeable to them as an act of gross immorality. I believe that under the American law all of these irregularities will be easily regulated in the future. I do not believe that what would be commonly regarded in the United States as gross immorality represents among these people deep-seated depravity; it is simply that their poverty and the existence of complicated matrimonial machinery have driven them to resort to the simple method of falling in love and living together.

The better class of married people in the island were legally joined.

There are some phases of immorality, such as exist in all Spanish countries, which our people will find very distasteful, and yet I believe that among the people of Porto Rico all the more gross types of immorality will soon become largely abolished and the condition of society among the poor within a short time become equally as good as that in many parts of the United States. The examples of morality set by those who should have been the molders and teachers of the people in moral things, I fear, have not always been what they should have been in this island. Place a few thousand respectable Americans in Porto Rico, and their influence will lift the standard of morality to where it should be. Take away their poverty, make morality easy for them, surround them with good influences, properly educate the rising generation, and the future generations of Porto Ricans will scarcely show a trace of the immorality of to-day.

ESTABLISHMENT OF A CIVIL GOVERNMENT.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

GUAYAMA, P. R., *February 3, 1899.*

MR. ANTONIO GRAU (depository). Representing the opinions of the whole of Guayama, I wish you to state to the Government in Washington that we wish an end of the military government; that we wish a civil government, civil laws, a civil status, and to be made citizens of the American Republic.

In the second place, I wish the Government to give a solution to economic problems, especially the money question, and that in resolving this problem they try to consult all interests, so as not to harm any of them in the least possible degree. To effect this, I suggest that free entry be given in the ports of the United States to the products of Porto Rico, so as to enable them to exist, because under the present monetary system these products enjoy a premium, which the introduction of the new coinage would remove, and agricultural interests, especially the sugar interests, would disappear. I understand that in the United States Porto Rican sugars pay \$1.76 a quintal. There was a reason for these duties when Porto Rico was a Spanish colony, but to-day, as it forms an integral part of the United States,

it should disappear. Our coffee and tobacco have no market in the United States because of the heavy duties that they pay there, and as commercial bonds bring closer the bonds of fraternity and sympathy, I ask that these bonds be allowed now, so as to bring Porto Rico into closer relation with the mother country.

With regard to municipal government, I had the pleasure of presenting to the council an article on the economic side of the question, which I will now read. This paper treats specially of municipal taxation and the manner of making municipal taxation applicable to the villages. Municipal taxation is what at present is causing the greatest harm to taxpayers. In Guayama the tax levied by the state amounts to \$12,000 or \$13,000. As you have seen, municipal taxes here exceed \$50,000. This taxation was previously divided, a portion of it being saddled onto articles of first necessity, called a consumption tax. This tax bore heavily upon poor people and gave rise to a large amount of commercial immorality. The government, with good intention, did away with this species of taxation, and to-day municipalities have to exact a direct tax, which falls very heavily upon the taxpayers without yielding a sufficient amount for municipal needs. Our municipalities are taxed beyond their abilities. For instance, they have been charged with the expense of keeping up prisons and for the expense of keeping up courts of justice. The support of public instruction also falls to the share of the municipalities and costs them very much, and they attend to it very badly. Turning from this basis, I propose a method of taxation which will make it lighter for the municipalities, and I will have the honor to present you a copy of it.

Dr. CARROLL. Mr. Grau, in speaking about bringing to an end the military government of the island, let fall the remark that Porto Rico is a part of the United States. This is not the exact fact of the situation. Porto Rico is a conquered and occupied province, but the sovereignty of the United States has not yet formally been established according to international law. Until the treaty of Paris has been signed and ratified and comes into operation, Porto Rico is not a part of the United States. Therefore it would not have been possible for Congress to have taken up the subject of legislation for Porto Rico at its session beginning early in December if it had desired to do so. But in my view it was not desirable that Congress should take up the matter of the government of Porto Rico at that early date.

If you are to start upon a new epoch of government and prosperity, if you are to have American institutions, as most of you have said you wanted to have, it is important for you that you should make a right start; that any system of government given to you shall be as nearly perfect as it is possible to make it; and therefore the postponement of this matter of decision as to how you shall be governed in future until next December gives ample time in which to study all problems presented here and in which to resolve upon a system of government, municipal and insular, that shall be as free from faults as possible.

Now, this question of free trade between the United States and Porto Rico is, as I recognize, an extremely important one. It can not be decided now. That is a question that will be involved in your future system of government, and when that is decided this will be decided. Mr. Grau has spoken of having coffee and sugar go free into the United States. Coffee already goes in free; nobody pays any duty on coffee. The President, as Commander in Chief of the

Army and Navy, has a great deal of power with regard to the internal affairs of Porto Rico, but he has no power under the Constitution of the United States to remit the duty on sugar and say that sugar shall come free into the United States. That is a matter that can only be legislated on by Congress.

I think that it is very important that the gospel of patience should be preached to the people of Porto Rico. I know perfectly well that the interests of this people lie upon the heart of the President of the United States and that the people of the United States are devising large and liberal things for you in their hearts. I know that General Henry, the present military commander of this island, has your interests at heart. He has brought you relief at a great many points, and he is prepared to go on from point to point, making changes in your system and making things easier for you, and bringing prosperity to you in every way that is possible for him, but any true reform, as you will all recognize, marches forward step by step and not by great leaps.

CITIZENS, NOT SLAVES, OF THE UNITED STATES.

[Hearing before the United States Commissioner.]

CAYEY, P. R., *February 28, 1899.*

Mr. LUIS MUNOZ (notary of Cayey). I desire to say a few words, not as the representative of any political party. We wish to have the military occupation to terminate as soon as possible; not that we have felt here the rigors of military occupation, because we have not. In other parts they have felt them. We wish to become a part of the United States, but not slaves of the United States.

Dr. CARROLL. It seems proper for me to say in response to that statement that a good deal has been done under the military government in this island in the way of correction of abuses and improvement of conditions. It is not possible, even if it were considered entirely desirable at Washington, to bring the military rule to an end at once. This matter of the future government of your island is as important to you as it is to the United States, and more so. You have been under a government for several centuries that you have deemed hard and oppressive and unsuitable to the prosperity of the island. I had been led to believe that you wanted an entirely new system under the American flag, and I told the President, therefore, that I was not prepared, on so short an investigation, to recommend any system whatever.

Even if I had been ready to recommend a system of government, the President probably would not have brought it to the attention of Congress, for the reason that the present session of Congress is a short session, beginning in December last, and ending, according to the Constitution, on the 4th of March. The calendar was already overcrowded for so short a session. This matter of the future government of Porto Rico could not have been taken up by Congress for another reason. The treaty of peace which was negotiated at Paris has not even yet been fully ratified, and until it is fully ratified and becomes effective Porto Rico does not formally become a possession of the United States. Porto Rico is, in fact, territory of the United States, but not in name, according to international law. It is altogether probable that the treaty will not be ratified before the present session of Congress closes. You see, therefore, gentlemen, there is abundant reason why nothing could be done at the present session of

Congress with reference to the civil government of Porto Rico, and I feel that that is a matter upon which I ought to congratulate you. You can afford to wait a few months in order that you may have a government which, when it is instituted, will be the kind of government you want. You do not want to start on your new career with a crude system of government, and surely twelve months is not too long a time to consider all the measures that are to be provided for you, and I feel that the gospel of patience ought to be preached to the people of Porto Rico. When I remember what has been done in the very brief time since the American flag was raised in Porto Rico, I feel that your position has been bettered in many things.

We understand perfectly that the people of Porto Rico are not a military people, and it is the intention of the President of the United States that you should have a military system only so long as is necessary in order that the matter may be brought to the attention of Congress, when Congress meets in session next December, and a well-arranged system given you. I am sure that the President has the prosperity and good of the people of Porto Rico at heart; he told me so. He has considerable power as commander of the Army and Navy, and he told me that he would use it, so far as it was necessary, to correct abuses and to relieve conditions which might be found intolerable by you.

I hope, therefore, in view of these things, that you will not become restive under military government, remembering that it is only for a short time, and that it is only a bridge from a bad state to a better one.

A NEW COAT DESIRED.

SAN JUAN, P. R., *October 31, 1899.*

Prof. LEONIDAS VILLALON called upon the commissioner and stated that he is a professor in the institute; that he is 73 years old, and extremely interested in the coming of the Americans. He stated that he was exiled three times from Porto Rico, had lived in the United States, and there had learned how to become a man. He thought the best thing that could happen to Porto Rico would be that it should be under the direction of the Government of the United States for some time to come; that it would be well for Porto Rico to take off the old coat and put on one entirely new. Let the chief offices be filled by Americans, who could inaugurate the Territorial government that would be best for the Porto Ricans.

WHAT WORKINGMEN WANT.

SAN JUAN, *November 4, 1899.*

SANTIAGO IGLESIAS, president of league or union of gremios:

In reference to the necessities and aspirations of the working class and of the gremio of carpenters in particular, I beg you to read the following resolutions:

Are we annexationists? Yes; if fully convinced that so being will not prejudice our country. We are annexationists because the American Republic incloses in its breast and has already put into practical government an administration so equitable, so just, and so scientific that there is no idealist in this country who can even in theory better its government. Therefore it is our only wish and desire to reach and

to struggle for the establishment in the least possible time of those forms and proceedings that will bring benefit and progress to our land so dearly beloved.

Do we want economy? Yes; and also the reform of all sorts of old conditions. The administration should not squander the people's money on employees without first being convinced of their real utility. Protection—very much protection—for the poorer classes; free commerce with the free Republic; cheap bread, and very cheap. Articles of prime necessity should be greatly lowered and enterprises should be established to give the poor, unfortunate laborer and workers in general a chance to obtain them, and this could easily be done if all hindrances to free commerce were removed and usurers hunted down like wolves.

What are the social reforms required? We are not going to fix any reply as regards instruction, as the United States possesses rules so radical and scientific that we do not think we could better them. What we do ask is that improvements or reforms in the direction of public instruction be instituted as soon as possible, which we are sure we shall not have to wait long for, as it is well known that the American Republic sustains its greatness by the diffusion of its system of instruction by every means possible, and, as well as dedicating enormous sums of money to that end, its laws punish fathers or guardians who do not comply with the necessary obligations of sending their children to school. But as regards the economic situation of the poor man in his agitated and excessively fatiguing life, we wish to declare that his work consumes the greater part of that life with a day of labor far too long. Therefore we claim that the municipalities and even the laws should fix the day of labor in all industries at eight hours.

Another law is required to suppress immediately and completely in the whole island the odious *consumo* tax on the necessities of life; another prohibiting the working of women during state of pregnancy, and her maintenance by the state six weeks before and six weeks after her confinement; another that the state or municipality be obliged to give occupation to poor classes who have no work, or that it procure them work; the fixing of a minimum wage for the worker, both adult and youth; absolute prohibition to work of children of less than 15 years of age; the creation of schools for children of both sexes and of all social classes; reformation of scholastic colonies at certain seasons of the year; the establishment of economic kitchens, so that working people of scant means could go to them for food; and, lastly, we will struggle for these reforms and betterments so as to accredit our country before the civilized world as a humanitarian, generous, progressive, pacific, and industrious one, because the prestige of a country in the eyes of the world is worth more than the riches which it may possess.

We salute you, and we wish you liberty, union, and fraternity.



FIT FOR SELF-GOVERNMENT.

STATEMENT OF CELESTINO MORALES.

GURABO, P. R., November 7, 1898.

My opinion is that this people, owing to their docility, culture, and other favorable advantages, should be allowed self-government as far

as compatible with the Federal laws of our new rulers. A proof of our fitness is the granting by Spain, a nation so inimical to freedom in its colonies, of the autonomous system we enjoyed a few days before the war. Even if this system is deficient, it points out, coming from where it did, that we are worthy of still greater liberty.

STRONG RULE NECESSARY.

Mr. W. S. MARR, manager of the sugar estate "Canovas," near Carolina, an Englishman, who has been in the island three and a half years, expressed the opinion that it would be best not to make any change in the currency until other changes had been made. He believed that the adoption of the gold basis before free trade is declared would cause strikes among the laborers. There was a strike among them last spring, the first, he believed, that ever took place in Porto Rico. It was after the introduction of the system of autonomy, which they understood meant a larger degree of liberty for them. The strike was unsuccessful; the employers could not afford to give more wages. They were giving 50 cents a day. This is the lowest amount paid, so far as he knew, in the island.

Men only are employed. The women do not work in the field. They will do washing, but will not work in the fields, as they do in the English colonies. He could not even get women to scrub his house; he had to get men.

He thought the island should be ruled with a strong, firm hand. Americans ought to hold the reins of power and administer the affairs of government. It would not be safe to trust the natives with office. They would dwell on politics, which had been the curse of the island, and would so run affairs as to benefit their own party. The island was not ready for home rule; it might be educated up to that point, perhaps, in fifty or sixty years. If they had the power of assessment of property, for example, they would levy ruinous rates on classes against whom they had grudges. Mr. Marr thought foreigners were in a position to give unbiased judgments.

It was important that the duties on machinery should be lowered. Asked if he thought that if the duties were removed from importations from the United States they might not be retained as against other countries, he replied that it would be well to reduce them also on machinery coming from England, at least for a short period, as orders had already been placed in England which could not now be recalled, and it would be well if some relief could be granted.

NOT CAPABLE OF SELF-GOVERNMENT.

STATEMENT OF A. HARTMANN & CO.

ARROYO, P. R., *November 7, 1898.*

We are under the firm conviction that until more of the American element is introduced into the island and the people better educated, the Porto Rican is incapable of self-government, either as a Territory or a State.

We think, owing to the lack of education in the right way, that the right to vote should be only given to those who can read and write and also pay a certain amount of tax—say \$10 per year municipal tax.

We think the schools should be paid and managed by the State, and that the schoolmasters should be Americans, or else obliged to know and teach the American language, as this would instill in the rising generation more patriotic ideas of the United States, and also that the obligation of children being taught the Roman Catholic religion in the public schools should be abolished.

The Government should strictly prohibit Sunday being used for such immoral purposes as cock fighting, gambling, drunkenness, etc., as has been done up till now; and also prohibit on that day public amusements, as theaters, balls, etc.

The judicial management at present in the island has had the germs of corruption nourished in it so many years that it is in such a flourishing state of development that it is impossible to exterminate this noxious germ without sweeping measures. From the highest to the lowest the whole should be put in the hands of Americans, and justice should be administered and courts created like those of the United States. The jails or penitentiaries should be sustained and managed by the State.

FULL AUTONOMY.

STATEMENT OF MAYOR EUSTAQUIO TORRES.

GUAYANILLA, P. R., *November 7, 1898.*

Should Porto Rico not be declared a State of the Union, governed by the same laws, it should at least be granted the full autonomy merited by the good sense and culture of its people. Spain had lately recognized this, in proof of which is the insular constitution, decreed November 25, 1897, which, although not having given all the results desired, owing to not having been applied to its full extent because of the war, still was inspired in the spirit of ample liberty as regards the province as a whole and the municipalities in particular.

The disturbances taking place actually might be considered a motive for restricting this liberty; but it would neither be just nor reasonable to judge a whole country by the acts of a few disturbers of the peace, who, taking advantage of such a propitious occasion, are satisfying their desire for vengeance for the outrages and attacks of which they were formerly the victims.

With these few exceptions the island has retained its reputation for gentleness; and it is well to remember that the few towns which have experienced these disorders were the ones formerly subjected to similar treatment. The want of an armed force, like the Spanish civil guard, which, besides doing military duty, helped the civil authorities, conducted prisoners, and guarded the rural districts, is one of the causes of these disorders.

When that body was disbanded certain unruly elements which are never wanting in any country had full liberty to give rein to their perverse instincts, committing disorders which the guards had formerly held in check. It is not untimely, therefore, to suggest that the Government should utilize one of the military bodies to perform this service either for Federal or provincial account.

It would be well to make the Spanish language a requisite for service in this corps, and it would be convenient to study the regulations of the Guardia Civil (civil guard).

Under the shadow of a really autonomous government by Porto

Ricans, initiative would be quick to awake, and the economic problems which to-day seem most difficult of solution would soon find a solvent.

I think, therefore, that the insular government should be left just as found, with no further changes than those indispensable to a change of sovereignty.

As regards the provincial deputation, a body useless as soon as the respective secretaries assume the functions which were formerly performed by it, it should be suppressed as unnecessary, and with it will disappear the heavy burdens of such a costly body.

As regards the municipalities, they should enjoy the same autonomy as the province in their relations with the metropolis, and while the chambers legislate on insular matters, all affairs relating purely to local municipal life should be administered by the municipality.

AMPLE AUTONOMY.

STATEMENT OF ANTONIO SANCHEZ RUIZ.

AGUADA, P. R., *November 12, 1898.*

The great North American Republic, to which we to-day belong, being a purely democratic nation, with liberty as its only goal, it is to be hoped that the military government now existent will be of short duration and that it will be replaced by an ample autonomy, as its people, being sensible and mild, are easily governed. Later their legitimate desires would be satisfied by declaring Porto Rico a State of the Union.

It is superfluous to state the beneficial results to be obtained by granting the municipalities an administration free from all hindrances; that is to say, the attention to their local disbursements. This would evade useless assignments in the national estimates and would be beneficial in its results to the taxpayer.

VARIOUS REFORMS.

STATEMENT OF MAYOR CELESTINO DOMINGUEZ.

GUAYAMA, P. R., *January, 1899.*

One of the most important matters for Porto Rico is the change to be made in taxation. Direct taxation is very burdensome, especially for the poor. Remove worship and clergy, pensions, colonial ministry expenses, war and navy, which almost make up the whole budget. Improve the system of sugar milling, by establishing central mills all around our coasts and plains, opening roads and constructing the belt railroad; give us a free market in the United States and introduce our produce there. Construct the irrigation works in Guayama for which we have been so long waiting and which would bring us prosperity and could be easily carried out with the help of the Government. Some lines of steamships plying direct to the mother country and calling at our coast ports, bringing us northern products free of duty, about completes the programme.

MEMORIAL OF AN AGRICULTURIST.

First. All tools and agricultural machinery to be admitted free of all tribute.

Second. That the property owners (agricultural) pay as little as possible. That merchants come from the United States to settle in Mayaguez, as those established here are restricting their operations.

Third. That the same wages as paid in the United States be paid here, from the teacher to the lowest laborer. Up to the present we have not earned sufficient to buy even food enough. There are in the towns and country districts of my country real working people who do not dare to venture out of their houses, as they are completely naked and have nothing to cover their bodies with, although their labor is necessary to the progress of the country.

Fourth. Not to allow to remain in official position persons of bad faith without compelling them to comply with their duties. To make the weight of the wise laws which govern 70,000,000 felt here, from the highest functionary to the lowest laborer.

MANUEL M. PUYOLS,
Native of Porto Rico.

MAYAGUEZ, *January 18, 1899.*

MILITARY RULE SHOULD CEASE.

STATEMENT OF MANY CITIZENS.

ISABELA, P. R., *February 15, 1899.*

The country does not merit the rigors of a military occupation. Porto Rico received the Americans with open arms, as sons of liberty whose coming brought them light and progress, and therefore there is no fear that the country will try to emancipate itself from the American sovereignty. On the contrary, Porto Rico desires to be always attached to its new nationality. We think, therefore, that the military government should cease and a civil government be instituted, which would consolidate American sovereignty, provide for all public needs, and start the country on its road to progress. We think also that a small garrison would suffice to insure that sovereignty and preserve order. The removal from office of many employees, owing to the necessary decentralization of government, has thrown many natives out of work, leaving them without bread. We think the creation of a corps of militia would open a road for their employment. This would save the government much money and would open a career for those wishing to serve their country and their fellow-citizens.

SIMPLIFY THE LAWS.

STATEMENT OF EUCABADO & CO., MERCHANTS.

CAYEY, P. R., *March 4, 1899.*

Reforms in the law should be undertaken by expert legislators. Our law of civil procedure is so complicated that the conduct of any trial requires months and even years for its conclusion. So costly is the process of litigation that it is better to allow oneself to be injured and one's interest to be trodden under foot than to have

recourse to the tribunals of justice. The first consideration of reforms of our present laws should be toward their simplification. Clerks of the courts, judges, and municipal secretaries should have salaries for moral reasons. In this way only could responsibility be exacted of them, as their salary would provide them with equitable means of support and just compensation for their labors. It is irony to exact responsibility from employees who owe the bread that they eat to the contingency of their vocation. If the positions were salaried ones, the municipal judges would be men of title who, with real knowledge of their mission, would administer justice properly and would free society from the ridiculous spectacle of seeing lawsuits settled by persons who hardly know how to sign their names.

REFORMS NEEDED.

REMARKS ON THE OFFICIAL GUIDE OF PORTO RICO, BY DR. HERMINIO DIAZ, SECRETARY OF JUSTICE.

A careful perusal of the above-named work will show at first glance that during Spanish rule a superabundance of employees fed on the treasury, making necessary the high taxation ruling in order to cover their salaries. It is absolutely necessary that these offices should be swept away, more especially as the Territorial law of the Union will make them unnecessary, as public services can be performed with a much smaller number of employees than are now in the various offices, always assuming that they are intelligent, hard working, and honest.

BOARD OF AUTHORITIES.

This board, which figures in page 25 of the "Guide," will have no reason to exist in the future. Neither was there any reason for its existence under Spanish dominion, its character being purely advisory, the Governor-General having the power to resolve questions on his own authority after consulting the board, even if his resolutions were contrary to those adopted by them.

COUNCIL OF ADMINISTRATION.

This council was created by royal order of December 31, 1896, when the colonial minister, Señor Castellanos, reformed the legislative policy of this island. It is referred to on page 27 of the "Guide." It was composed then of the persons indicated on page 27, and its duty was to give information on general estimates of receipt and expenditure which were approved or disapproved by the chambers; also on general accounts which had to be rendered to the intendencia every year; on affairs connected with Patronato de Indias; on resolutions of the provincial deputation which might be contrary to the laws or to the general interest of the nation; on petitions for legislative reforms which might emanate from said provincial deputation; on the dismissal or removal of mayors, assistant mayors, and regidores, and on all other questions of administrative character which the general government might think it convenient to inquire into. This council was composed of the Governor-General as president, the bishop, the lieutenant-governor, the principal commandant of the navy, of the president and prosecutor of the supreme court of the island, of six

provincial deputies, and of six other persons, who were required to possess certain qualifications and who were named by the government.

On the promulgation in Porto Rico of the constitution of November 25, 1897, wrongly called autonomous, as self-government was no part of it, this council was suppressed pursuant to the royal order of December 31, 1896, creating it, and two insular chambers were created, called the council of administration and the council of representatives, respectively. The council of administration was composed of fifteen persons, of whom eight were elected by popular election and seven were named by the Governor-General representing the Crown. As a part of the parliament or congressional insular system this council had jurisdiction either before or after the action of the chamber of representatives, according to the class of matter treated; that is to say, on matters referring to worship and justice, government, treasury, and interior—this latter in its three branches, public works, instruction, and agricultural industry and commerce; also, on questions of a purely local character affecting colonial territory—as, for instance, territorial division, provincial, municipal, judicial, sanitary, maritime, territorial, public credit, banking, and the money system.

As an integral part of the insular parliament or congress, its duty was to establish regulations for the administration of the laws voted by the insular parliament on matters expressly confided to its care; also, to adjudicate the electoral matters, census matters, qualifications of electors, and the management of the suffrage; also, to dictate regulations or propose to the central government methods to facilitate the income, conservation, and promotion in the legal tribunals; also, on the formation of legal estimates and on tariffs.

This council of administration once in session named its president, vice-president, secretaries without salaries, deliberated a few days, and then had to suspend because of the war. On the termination of the war and the military occupation by the Government of the United States the chambers have been considered virtually dissolved; and if the laws common to all the Territories of the United States should be implanted here, the governor, named by the President of the United States, will not have to name the personnel of the legislature, but only those who will form a board of advisers for passing on the electoral capacity of the inhabitants, the time, place, and method of verifying the first election on electoral division, etc. Therefore it is clear that the employees of the council of administration will be useless.

PROVINCIAL DEPUTATION.

This body, referred to on page 30 of the "Official Guide," was created under the Spanish rule and according to the royal order of December 31, 1896, issued by the colonial minister, Mr. Castellano. It is composed of 12 deputies chosen by popular election for four years, the half to be renewed every two years. Its duties are the following: To formulate and approve each year the provincial estimates; to approve or disapprove the accounts which, under this estimate, shall be rendered each year; establish and preserve the special services which might have for their object the comfort of the inhabitants of the island and the furtherance of their interests, both material and moral; also to pass on the propriety of public works, postal and telegraphic communication, maritime and territorial works, agricultural

industry, commerce, immigration, colonization, public instruction, first authority on sanitation, meetings and expositions; also to administer provincial events; to decide on questions relating to the constitution of municipalities or municipal corporations; to resolve, also, on the limit of municipal properties.

This provincial deputation was rendered unnecessary under the decree of November 25, 1897, conceding autonomy to Porto Rico. There is no reason why it should continue to exist, as all its attributes and services should have been undertaken by the secretaries to the insular chambers created by that decree. It can be conceived that this body could have continued in existence if Porto Rico, like Cuba, had consisted of various provinces, but as this country was considered as a single province the deputation became perfectly useless and gave rise to serious conflicts in matters of jurisdiction, as well as being an enormous charge on taxpayers, as the estimates for its maintenance reached the enormous sum of \$1,217,700. This body should be suppressed absolutely, and I understand that it is the intention of General Brooke to do so, doubtless in accordance with instructions received from Mr. McKinley. The suppression of this body will wipe out of existence the employees included on pages 31 to 42, inclusive.

As regards the posts named on page 43, all should be sustained except that of chaplain or minister of the Catholic religion; but when the provincial deputation is suppressed these posts should pass under the management of the various secretaries. These positions treat of matters affecting the insane orphan children and refer to their education and their training in some trade.

SECRETARY'S DEPARTMENT OF THE GENERAL GOVERNMENT.

1. *Technical inspection.*—There is no reason for the continuance of the employees named in pages 45, 46, 47, 48, and 49 under the law of the territories, or under military occupation. Many of the positions held by these employees are suppressed and were so during the Spanish war.

2. *Local administration.*—The employees named on pages 50 and 51 ceased to be such on the implantation of the autonomous government.

Regional delegation.—The autonomous government suppressed the regional delegation, created by decrees of the Colonial Minister, and to-day it is nonexistent.

Gentlemen, holders of the Grand Cross.—These gentlemen, as noted on page 55, have no claim on the provincial estimate. They carry their cross, but don't get any pay for so doing.

Diocese of Porto Rico.—The Catholic religion having ceased to be official in this island, all its ministers will have to live on donations of their congregations, and must be removed entirely from the civil list. Their names are included in pages 56 to 81.

Castilian titles.—They are included on page 82. They receive nothing.

Administration of justice.—All the employees named in pages 83 to 133, inclusive, and who exist at the present time, have been named by virtue of the organized form of tribunals of justice of this island. While the Territorial law is being implanted here the number of judges of first instance and instruction should be reduced from twelve

to nine. Those that should be retained are two in San Juan, Caguas, Humacao, Guayama, Mayaguez, Aguadilla, Arecibo, and Ponce.

In this matter of the administration of justice there is one very important question which should be immediately resolved. I will give some instances, so that this will be better understood. The laws which are in force here exact that civil questions shall be passed on first by judges of instruction and first instance. The litigant who is not content with this sentence may appeal from this tribunal to that of the territorial audiencia of San Juan, which tribunal can confirm or vacate the sentence of the judge. In criminal cases the judges of instruction and first instance prepare the indictment. This is taken to the audiencia in San Juan or Ponce or Mayaguez, according to the district to which the judge of first instance may belong, and the audiencia passes sentence. From any of the sentences on criminal matters or judgments in civil cases pronounced by the audiencia it was possible to appeal to the supreme tribunal in Madrid. Now that Porto Rico has been separated from Spain, and as civil laws still remain in force, the right of litigants to appeal is in abeyance. My opinion is that Mr. McKinley should order that while the reform in the laws is being made the audiencia should have full power as a court of last resort, or he should appoint three functionaries who understand our law in Washington and formed out of the Supreme Court of the Union.

Registrars of property.—These functionaries, noted in page 134, can not be suppressed for the moment, as they are very necessary; but what should be done immediately is to pay them a fixed salary to avoid the great abuses and spoliation to which they subject the people, owing to their right to extract whatever they like for the registrations that are made.

College of lawyers.—This institution, referred to on pages 135 to 140, was created for purely economical reasons and to defend provincial interests. Its object is to see to it that no persons enter into the profession unless they are duly titled. It is very useful and its members receive no compensation of any description.

College of notaries.—Pages 141 to 146 refer to this college. These gentlemen are not in receipt of salaries and charge only for the documents which they draw up the fees allowed by law. Our law allows only persons to practice as notaries who hold the necessary title, but as *abogados* study the same laws more fully, it is to be hoped that the American Government will permit, as is done in the United States, all lawyers to practice indiscriminately either of the branches.

Procurators.—Pages 147 to 151 treat of these. They are persons who hold the power of attorney and represent litigants in judicial matters. Our laws in certain cases do not allow the litigant to take charge of his own case, but exact the naming of a procurator, who is paid according to the legal tariff. This is highly unjust, as it prevents persons from carrying on their own litigation, obliging them to incur unnecessary expense. I think that this matter should be entirely free and should be left to the will of the litigant to name or not, as he pleases, procurators to take charge of his litigation in the courts.

SUSPENSION OF THE LAW OF FORECLOSURE.

[Copy of a resolution passed by the Ayuntamiento of Utuado in session extraordinary, attended also by several property owners who are rate-payers, and signed by the alcalde and many others.]

(1) That agriculture is the principal source of the wealth of Porto Rico.

(2) That coffee is the most valuable crop of the island.

(3) That in consequence of the Spanish-American war, of the scandalous fall in prices, of the absolute closing of credit, and the unmerciful exactions of the commercial houses, agriculturists find themselves in a condition of complete ruin.

(4) That real roads do not exist from the interior to the coast; that only tracks, dangerous even to travelers, are available, preventing the development of the country and sapping its life more each day.

(5) That the greatest wealth of Porto Rico is situated in the towns round about Utuado, Lares, Yauco, Ciales, and Adjuntas. That for all these and other weighty reasons, which it would be prolix to state, this council and the undersigned ratepayers beg Mr. H. K. Carroll to request from Washington the following saving measures:

First. Suspension of judicial proceedings in the whole island for the time it may think fit.

Second. Concession of every class of facilities for the establishment of agricultural banks.

Third. The use of all or part of the proceeds of the custom-houses for the construction of roads, railroads, etc., distributing the money among the municipalities in the proportion of the inhabitants of each one.

THE GOVERNMENT, COURTS, ETC.

STATEMENT OF MR. ALRIZU, PONCE, P. R.

The government of the island should be constituted thus: A governor, an attorney-general, a secretary of treasury, a secretary of interior, a secretary of public works. This is to be the cabinet and advisory board of the governor. The first secretary to be the presiding officer of all the courts of the island and to superintend the management of public justice. The courts of the island should consist of justices of the peace, judges in civil suits, magistrates of criminal courts, and the court of appeals at San Juan—this to be the highest law court of the island, to be presided over by the most eminent and honest lawyers of the island, and to have a judge-advocate of the same kind.

The courts of the island should be allowed to continue with the same division of territory assigned to each and the same number of judges, magistrates, and other officials appertaining to the service.

Second. A secretary of treasury, named by the President of the United States, to be an American; an assistant secretary, a Porto Rican, who should know both English and Spanish; two clerks and a cashier to run the office, all to be named by the President. The treasury of the island should have charge of the collection of customs duties, internal-revenue, registry, industry, and commercial taxes. For this purpose the island should continue divided into seven departments.

The custom-house is the central collecting office of each department

and where accounts are to be kept and rendered monthly to the secretary of treasury. Offices in each town for the collection of internal-revenue and other taxes should continue for the present under the inspection of the custom-house of each department.

The internal-revenue taxes should be on agriculture, real-estate property, and pasture lands—25 per cent of the municipal tax assessed by the council of each town. On industries and commerce the same as it is now, which is done by a schedule according to the importance of the trade.

The registry tax on transfer of property and on all other deeds or documents of any kind running through the registrar's office should be reduced by one-third of its present rate.

The head tax called the "cedula" should be entirely abolished.

The tariff on imports from United States should be 25 per cent of that assigned to foreign imports. This measure is needed so as to be able to provide cheap foods for our laboring classes. Porto Rico has a very large population that is fed from outside markets. The best producing lands of the island are taken by sugar and coffee plantations, thus leaving the poor lands for corn and vegetables for home consumption. Until the country gets roads to the interior that will fetch all sorts of eatables cheap to the shores the laboring classes must now depend on the imports for their food; therefore the reduction recommended is a just and politic measure.

The legal tender of Porto Rico should be the American dollar. A law should be enacted at once establishing this, and the peso should be exchanged at 2 for 1 in the treasury of each department. All existing debts should be settled at that ratio. The exchange should be made in one month at the head custom-house of each department; after that time the circulation of the peso is prohibited.

The secretary of the interior should be a man from Porto Rico conversant with the present system of government. He is the president of all the municipalities of the island. Our municipal laws are good; we only desire their enforcement, and that every man should do this duty. The election of members of the council should be as it is now. On the secretary of the interior rests the duty of seeing that the laws are obeyed. All the budgets of the municipalities should be sent to him for approval. Public instruction is also to be in his charge. He is to provide for all the deficiencies of the present system, with the approval of the governor. This is one of the most important matters of our administration. After one year the municipalities of the island should elect four members in each department, thus making twenty-eight members, who will form a convention to discuss and approve any changes that they may think fit to propose to the governor, who will sanction them if he thinks proper; or in case he does not, he will submit them to Washington for decision.

The municipalities should manage their own affairs and have their own police. Order is to be enforced by those vested with the authority, and only in emergencies may they call on the general government for assistance.

The secretary of public works should direct all the improvements of the island. All works of general character pertaining to the municipalities are to have his superior wisdom. He is to study and report on all the changes and improvements that the island requires, so that the governor may decide and order the execution of those that he may deem necessary at present. There is so much to be done

on the island that it requires a man well posted on the general necessities to be placed in this office.

The registrars' office of the island should be provided with a head man to superintend their work, to be selected by the attorney-general, as presiding officer of the individual department.

TERRITORIAL GOVERNMENT AND SUFFRAGE.

Successors of A. J. ALCAIDE, merchants, Arroyo, P. R.

We believe that as soon as possible the Territorial form of Government should be established.

The right to vote should be extended to every citizen born in Porto Rico and naturalized American who is 21 years of age and knows how to read and write.

We propose, also, an electoral tax of \$1 or \$2, as exists in some of the States. The income so derived to pay for election expenses and be turned over to the provincial treasury. People to vote directly for Congressmen and Senators, as also locally for mayor and aldermen.

THE NEEDS OF AGRICULTURE.

MEMORIAL OF MAYAGUEZ PLANTERS SUBMITTED TO THE SPECIAL COMMISSIONER.

We, the undersigned, property holders and agriculturists in the department of Mayaguez, being desirous of cooperating as far as our scanty forces allow for the welfare of this island, beg to state:

That the coffee growers of Mayaguez, Las Marias, and Maricao some years ago began their work anew, rising out of the prostration to which the industry had been for some time subjected. At this date the plantations are in very good condition, owing to the fertility of the soil and the careful work which has been bestowed on them; but as the merchants of Mayaguez have absolutely cut off credits, the only source on which we count for the development of agriculture, the day may arrive (and it is not far off) when the coffee industry may die for lack of funds with which to attend to its needs. As the poor classes live on the work given by the agriculturist, if that work be suspended they will be reduced to the utmost misery. For a year this condition has been threatening, and cases of starvation have already occurred and will occur frequently for want of work. To save the situation, a sad one for both owner and workman, to combat the tyranny of the speculator and usurer, to place the coffee industry on a footing of progress, to free the laborer from his condition of anæmia and enable him to earn enough to buy food with the wages of his honest labor, and to lift the agriculturist from the penury which overwhelms him and enable him to meet his obligations and his social duties, there is urgent need—

First. That the money question be settled, giving the pesos a value of 50 cents.

Second. That agricultural banks be established by American corporations, to loan money at low rates and for long terms on mortgages.

Third. That full freedom be given for Americans, our fellow-countrymen, to establish themselves so as to introduce competition and put an end to Spanish and German monopoly, which, owing to lack of

competition, sells its merchandise dear and scourges agriculture by the low prices paid for produce. The merchants are interested only in sending their capital to their respective countries, leaving our country bare, greatly to our prejudice.

Fourth. That lawyers, notaries, and court clerks' fees be limited to rates made generally known by a published tariff.

Fifth. That every citizen be allowed to conduct his own litigation, without obligatory recourse or procurators, as these, together with "shysters," whose only idea is to draw the agriculturists into litigation, with or without reason, cause great prejudice to agriculturists.

Sixth. That agricultural tools and machinery be exempted from all duties.

Seventh. That the so-called "cuota imponible" be annulled for a number of years, owing to the onerous state of present conditions.

Eighth. That the ayuntamiento of this city, together with General Henry, work for the annexation to the district of the neighboring ones of Maricao and Las Marias, as those districts impose heavy taxation to meet the salaries of their unnecessary employees, to the exclusion of important work, such as roads and education; and that preference be given to these branches, so completely neglected.

Knowing your good wishes and the good wishes of the President of the great Republic, we await with faith and enthusiasm the speedy change of the situation to one of prosperity for Porto Rico, which, once the traces of the fatal Spanish domination are wiped out, will be like Kentucky, the American paradise and the garden of America.

(Signed by many persons.)

MUNICIPAL TAXES TOO HEAVY.

STATEMENT OF MUNICIPALITY OF SABANA GRANDE.

Taxes should be proportionate to the wealth of the locality and to the benefits bestowed by the state. It is completely arbitrary that a town like Sabana Grande should have to pay \$4,000 besides the provincial contingent, which reaches almost the sum of \$1,500, when it possesses only one telegraph station, with no post-office, no roads, and no armed force to guarantee security to life and property.

As regards industries, we aspire to the greatest possible liberty, so that our industries may acquire a rapid and steady growth. It seems anomalous that in the midst of an age of light and progress individual initiative should have been strangled and the establishment of industrial centers prevented.

Agriculture and commerce constitute almost the only sources of our wealth, but have been confined until now to a narrow sphere by the nation which has just been defeated by the American Army. There are very few estates not heavily mortgaged, owing to the want of equilibrium between expenses and production.

REFORMS IN GOVERNMENT.

OPINIONS OF SEÑOR JOSÉ L. BERRIOS, ALCALDE OF PATILLAS.

If Porto Rico is to obtain a high grade of prosperity, it needs—

(1) The establishment of strong credit institutions, lending money for long terms, in the form of insular banks with a basis of Porto Rican capital, assisted by the insular treasury.

(2) The complete annexation of the island to the United States without losing its personality (individuality) in its government. You are aware that home rule is the true American and democratic doctrine, the best known to civilization for the welfare of nations.

(3) Modification of the courts of justice. Municipal judges should disappear, and their functions should be intrusted to the alcaldes.

(4) Reconciliation of rural population in villages. In this way the methods of education and culture find easier application.

As secondary measures tending to the better conduct of the municipalities are—

(1) That sugar and tobacco enter free into the United States.

(2) That rural schools only be supported by the municipalities, which should have liberty to institute examinations, engagement and removal of teachers, and the adoption of a system of teaching.

(3) Reality of municipal autonomy, not as to-day, when the alcaldes do not know what laws to obey, as neither American laws have been introduced nor Spanish laws annulled, and there are points in the latter incompatible with the present government.

(4) Modification or suppression of the present tariffs under which pharmacists have to supply drugs to the poor for account of the municipality. Annual inspection of drug stores, so as to insure a stock of medicines made imperative by the science of medicine.

(5) That the government advance to the municipalities a sum sufficient to cover their debts, said sums to be returned in a number of years proportionately to the size of sum advanced.

(6) That vicinage roads be put in order by the insular treasury, their repairs hereafter to be borne by the municipalities.

REFORMS DESIRED BY THE AYUNTAMIENTO OF CAYEY.

Free entry for coffee, sugar, molasses, and tobacco, and a duty imposed on foreign coffees entering into any port of the Union of at least \$4.

Free export.

Agricultural banks with branches in the most important towns of the island.

That education be obligatory, free, and attended to by the state, and that schools for poor children and adults be established in every town of the island.

Free coasting trade with every port of the Union; introduction of United States currency as soon as possible.

Administrative decentralization for city councils. That the whole of the income from territorial taxes be given to the municipalities for their expenses, as long as the state has an income from customs, as the present system will make it impossible for the municipalities to cover expenses.

The laborers will be thrown out of work as soon as the tobacco crop ceases, and it is necessary to start public works to give them employment and the means of earning food for their families.

That the military government be terminated.

