

Justice granted to Chili that day of glory and splendor, well satisfied that by two years and a half of sufferings we had atoned for our undue tolerance, and our blindness in not knowing that by tolerance we betrayed the sacred rights of our country, belied the necessity of independence, and the sincere wish of the people, that proclaimed it with so much the more eagerness that they had just learned, at the school of tyranny, that independence is the only desirable end of this bloody struggle of seven years; that the inability and impotence of our aggressors, and of the despot they serve, had become evident; that the idol and his name had tumbled to the ground; and that we ought not any longer to be guilty of the meanness of invoking him, when Spain herself, after being chilled by his ingratitude on his reascending the throne, tears herself in the convulsion of a paralysis that carries her to her last consumption.

Such is the state of that unfortunate nation, rendered less miserable by the fierceness of the monster than by the obstinate tenacity of keeping her engaged in this destructive struggle, in which, after losing all the acquisitions of the first conquest, she will remain excluded forever from the sole relations with which she might have repaired the losses of twenty-five years. Spain existed by America; now she receives nothing from her, and she is obliged to strain her funds to fight her. Nobody can she seduce now, in the state of poverty which devours her. Should a miraculous effort enable her to send over some gladiators, these men cannot be indifferent to the reluctance of abandoning their native soil to descend to the grave at such a distance from their cradle, and they will be convinced that they are engaged in an undertaking in which any ephemeral triumph will hardly make them resemble the bird cutting the air, which closes again after it has passed. Morillo, with the best army that Spain has sent out, and with all the other divisions, is a proof of it. Whilst they occupy a place, the insurrection rages in others; and, finally, all the disseminated mass of the conquerors comes to be consumed in the centre of the conflagration. The combustion is universal, the space is immense, and the fire of the revolution inextinguishable. We will not belong to an insignificant nation when we do not want for any thing, and who, being in want of us, only seeks to kill us. We will not belong to a nation unfaithful in her promises, violating her contract, and contradictory in her principles, who intends to affirm those pretensions of her decrepit usurpation; and of a dynasty divested by itself even of the appearances of right, and make us responsible to the rest of our brethren nobly emancipated, to the improvement of the age, which venerates liberty as the goddess of civilization; to our posterity, who, from the sign of his future existence, awaits for the happy turn in which they are to enter without trouble in the enjoyment of days of order, honor, and peace, their fathers bought for them with their blood; to all human kind who can now rely with secure and abundant places of refuge in these regions, blessed by the Creator, and formerly shut by proud ambition to the hospitality of men unwilling to become slaves; to nature, who placed in our minds the sense of choice and merit incompatible with slavery; and, finally, to Heaven itself, who has unfolded the list of the nations, and has pointed out the place we were to occupy in the rank of the independants.

Chili has obeyed its call. The solemn act of the 1st of January, 1818, is the expression of the individual vote, and the result of all private determinations. She has not deferred her revolution until the convocation of a Congress, difficult to assemble in the effervescence of war; she has dictated herself the measure which, in all circumstances, would have been sanctioned by her representatives, faithful to the trust and confidence of their constituents. When the latter will depute them, the representatives will ascend the altar of the law invested with all the plenitude of sovereignty required to proclaim it. This epoch is getting nearer as the expiring remnants of our enemies fly terrified. In the mean time, to defend the magna charta, every citizen runs spontaneously to arms. A veteran army of twelve thousand brave men, and the enlisting of the militia, without exemption, are the pledge and the eternal foundation of our independence.

Free people of the universe! you who behold the basis of your sovereignty secured by this new monument of justice upon which Chili has raised its own, decide, in this fatal struggle, between humanity and the vain spirit of domination; teach Spain that the former is the origin and object of every Government, and ask her then who is to give up? By uniting your vows to ours, you will stop the blood which overflows vigorous America, and draws the last breath of expiring Spain. If you are touched by our destinies, convince her of her impotence, and of the mutual advantages of our independence; let her be affected by her own evils, and by those we have suffered during three centuries; inspire her with a comparative feeling on her fate and ours; and when, calculating candidly the consequences that threaten her, she lays down her arms, and sacrifices to justice and liberality the illusions which precipitate her to her ruin, assure her, on our honor, that generous Chili will open her heart to the friendship of her brethren, and participate with them, under the glorious empire of the laws, in all the benefits of their immutable independence.

BERNARDO O'HIGGINS.

DIRECTORIAL PALACE OF CHILI, February 12, 1818.

MIGUEL ZANARTU, *Secretary of State.*

REPORT OF MR. POINSETT ON THE CONDITION OF SOUTH AMERICA.

Mr. Adams to Mr. Poinsett.

Sir:

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, October 23, 1818.

I am directed by the President of the United States to request of you such information, in relation to the affairs of South America, as your long residence in that country, and the sources of intelligence from thence which have remained open to you since your return, have enabled you to collect, and which you may think it useful to the public to communicate to the Executive Government of this Union.

I have the honor to be, &c.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

J. R. POINSETT, Esq., *Charleston, South Carolina.*

Mr. Poinsett to Mr. Adams.

Sir:

COLUMBIA, November 4, 1818.

In conformity with the request of the President of the United States, contained in your letter of the 23d of October, I have the honor to transmit to you such information as I possess in relation to the affairs of South America.

I regret that my absence from Charleston, where most of my documents are, does not allow me to enter more into detail, and to give a fuller description of those countries.

As the Executive will doubtless have received from the commissioners ample information with regard to the recent occurrences at Buenos Ayres and Chili, I have only brought down the events of the revolution to the period

of their arrival at Buenos Ayres. In the course of this narrative I have confined myself to facts; for I thought unnecessary to dwell on the motives which induced the creoles to shake off the Spanish yoke. The oppression which they labored, the severe and absurd restrictions upon their commerce and industry, are too notorious to require a comment; and the situation of the mother country not only justified but rendered it necessary for them to establish for themselves an internal government.

By letters which I have received since the return of the commissioners from Buenos Ayres, I learn that the Portuguese forces are in possession of the principal places on the eastern shore of the Uruguay, and of the country between the Parana and Uruguay. Their advanced posts extend to the Corrientes. The royal forces in Upper Peru are posted at the defiles of Jujuy, and are in possession of the country above Salta. The forces of Buenos Ayres, under the command of Belgrano, are at Tucuman. By the last victory gained by the patriots of Chili on the plains of Maipu, the royalists have been driven within the fortifications of Talcahuana.

I have the honor to be, with great respect, sir, your most humble and obedient servant,

J. R. POINSETT.

To the Hon. JOHN QUINCY ADAMS, *Secretary of State.*

The government of Spanish America is confided to the Council of the Indies. Their authority over the colonies is unlimited; they are the source of all favor, and have the presentation to all civil and ecclesiastical appointments; they constitute likewise a court of appeal from the decision of the audiences.

The viceroy is commander-in-chief, governor, intendant of the province where he resides, and president of the royal audience, and other tribunals. As commander-in-chief he is assisted by a council of general officers, and as governor by an assessor and legal counsellors. He assists with great ceremony at the session of the royal audiences, which tribunal watches his conduct, and has a legal control over his actions; and he in turn renders an account to the Council of the Indies of the public acts and private conduct of the members of the audience. The viceroy is not allowed to trade or to form any connexion with the people of his Government, and it was not customary for him to enter any private house. The laws of the Indies, which in theory are calculated to protect the colonists and Indians from oppression, grant him almost regal powers, but restrain the arbitrary exercise of them by the responsibility attached to any abuse of authority. At the expiration of his office a commission is appointed to inquire into his past conduct, and all people, including the Indians, are called upon to prefer charges against him, and state any grievance or vexation they may have experienced during his administration. This residencia, as it is called, has become an unmeaning ceremony. The royal audience, which is the supreme court in the colonies, is composed of the viceroy, who is the president, of a regent, three oidores, two fiscals, a reporter, and an alguazil.

The law lays both them and their families under the severest restrictions, and the president is enjoined to watch their conduct, and to receive and transmit to the King an annual statement of their acts.

They constitute the last court of appeal in America. The viceroy is recommended to consult them in all emergencies of the state, but is left at liberty to act as he thinks proper. Where the authority of the president interferes with their decisions, they may remonstrate, but his will is executed. They have the privilege of corresponding directly with the King, and may make any representations they think proper on the conduct of the viceroy.

When the functions of the viceroy are suspended by sickness or death, the regent is his legal representative.

Of the Cabildo we have already spoken. Besides the alcaldes of this body, there is a criminal judge. The city is divided into barrio or quarters, and each quarter has an alcalde de barrio or justice. There are likewise justices of the peace, or lieutenants of justice, as they are called, whose jurisdiction extends over a certain district of country. They are accountable to the governor, and are appointed for two years.

The military and clergy claim their *fuero*, that is, the right of being judged by their peers, and an *esprit de corps* generally screens the culprit from justice.

The spirit of litigation pervades all classes, interrupts the harmony of society, and destroys the confidence and affection which ought to reign in families and among near connexions. The lawyers are a numerous body; and the practice is not, as in the United States, an open appeal to impartial justice, but the art of multiplying acts and of procrastinating decisions until the favor of the judge is secured by influence and bribery.

The ecclesiastical jurisdiction belongs exclusively to the King and Council of the Indies. The Pope has ceded all his pontifical rights except that of issuing bulls of confirmation, and even these are limited to the candidate presented by the King of Spain.

The bishop, assisted by a fiscal and a provisor, forms the highest ecclesiastical tribunal; the business is transacted by the provisor, and the bishops assist only in cases which concern ecclesiastics of rank. The ecclesiastical tribunals have cognizance in all cases of a spiritual nature, and which concern ecclesiastics, and in all questions arising from pious donations and legacies. The ecclesiastical *fuero* or privileges are extensive; it is sometimes (although very rarely) mixed, as when the plaintiff is an ecclesiastic and the defendant a layman, the cause is tried by a secular tribunal, and *vice versa*.

Buenos Ayres has a chapter consisting of a dean, a sub-dean and chapter, and a certain number of probendaries.

The parishes are served by rectoral curates, and doctrinal curates officiate in the Indian settlements and villages, which are divided into doctrinas. The former derive their revenue from the fees of baptism, marriage, and interments, which the latter are forbidden to receive, but have an allowance from the treasury. Priests have been frequently employed in the administration of the public affairs, and have had great influence over the minds of the people, and a powerful agency in subduing and attaching them to the sovereign of Spain.

The zeal of the missionaries in this part of South America effected more than the arms of the first adventurers, who, after they had conquered the country, were repeatedly cut off by insurrections of the natives, roused to desperation by their rapacity and oppression.

The conquest of Paraguay by the Jesuits; their large establishments on the Uruguay; the privileges granted them by the King in order that they might prove their assertion that, if left to themselves, and not intruded upon by the Spaniards, they would subdue the Indians of that extensive territory, and convert them to the Catholic faith; their rigid policy in detecting and sending out of their limits any one whom curiosity or interest might have tempted to trespass on their territory; the rapid subjection and conversion of the tribes on the Uruguay and Paraguay, who were incorporated with the Guaranis Indians; their submission to the organization of the Jesuits, who distributed the day into periods of work, recreation, and devotion, and established, after the manner of the Monroviens, a common magazine for the reception of the produce of their industry, and dealt out to them, according to the number of members in a family, the necessary articles of food and clothing; the frequent attacks made upon them by the uncivilized tribes, and the depredations committed by the Mamelukes, the lawless inhabitants of the Portuguese frontier and of Saint Pablo; the jealousy excited by the flourishing state of these settlements about the period of the expulsion of the Jesuits from Europe; the resistance made to the decrees sent against them from Spain, and the final destruction of their power and confiscation of their possessions, are facts frequently treated of, and in the hands of every one

There is a fund still devoted to the propagation of the Christian faith and to the payment of missionaries, who transfer the converted Indians to the doctrinas, where they are placed under the charge of doctrinal curates.

In the jurisdictions of Moxos and Chignitors there are some missionary settlements, where the missionaries enjoy nearly the same privileges which were formerly extended to the Jesuits, but they are not animated with the same zeal or by the same ambition, and the progress of civilization has been very slow in those countries. The missionaries are forbidden to exact any compensation from the Indians for the performance of any Catholic rite, but this regulation, like all the excellent and philanthropic laws instituted by the Council of Indies to protect the wretched Indians from the rapacity of the Europeans, is evaded by a shameful traffic in images, rosaries, and scapularies, and by receiving presents and exacting work from the Indians, notwithstanding the laws expressly exempt them from that obligation.

In the first conquest of these countries, the Spaniards profited by the feuds which they found existing among the different nations of Indians; they brought them into the field against each other, and the first adventurers were successively their allies and conquerors.

The Indians were sold into captivity, and thousands perished under the hard treatment of their inhuman masters, until the noble efforts of Las Casas and other friends of humanity drew the attention of the Spanish court to their sufferings. Commissioners were then despatched from Madrid to inquire into these abuses, and to suggest the means of reforming them, and of alleviating the condition of the Indians. The first attempt at amelioration was the Repartimientos de Indios, by which they were divided among the Spaniards, who had the profits of their labor, without a right of property in their persons. Next, the encomiendas, by which they were placed under the superintendence and protection of the Spaniards. The encomendero was bound to live in the district which contained the Indians of his encomienda, to watch over their conduct, instruct and civilize them, to protect them from all unjust persecutions, and to prevent their being imposed on in trafficking with the Spaniards. In return for these services they received a tribute in labor or produce. The abuse of these protecting regulations followed closely their institution.

The encomiendas were granted to Spaniards who never were in the country. The Indians were hired out, and the most exorbitant tribute was exacted of them. In order to check these abuses, it was decreed that the amount of tribute received from encomienda should not exceed two thousand dollars, the surplus to be paid into the treasury. They were made inalienable, and reverted to the Crown. All these regulations were found ineffectual to secure the Indians against the rapacity of the encomenderos and encomiendas were abolished. The Indians were next confided to the care and protection of the missionaries and of doctrinal curates. The last regulation in their favor gave them magistrates of their own choice, superintended, however, by a corregidor, to prevent the Indian alcaldes from committing excesses in the exercise of their authority.

In the viceroyalty of Peru the Indians were subject to a tribute to the Crown, levied on males only, from the age of ten to fifty. It was collected by the corregidor, who had the power of exempting such as were unable, from sickness or bad seasons, to make up the sum. They could enter into no legal contract or sale, without the consent of the corregidor, or make any conveyance of real estate. Their lands were sometimes seized and sold to satisfy the tribute, and in that way only could a transfer be made, or a legal title be obtained for Indian lands. The Indians were burdened with a personal service to the Crown, called the mita; this was a conscription raised among those subject to the tribute, in order to work the mines of Potosi. Thousands of these unfortunate people were marched every year to Potosi; and although the period of service was only eighteen months, they were attended by a numerous train of friends and relations, who, on the eve of their entering the mines, sang melancholy dirges, and, sounding a horn in solemn strains, mourned over them with all the ceremonies which they used to evince their sorrow on the death of a relative. Their wives and children remained with the conscripts, who harassed by a long march, seldom resisted more than a year the excessive labor and noxious air of the mines. The Indians of Peru have the appearance of habitual melancholy, and still wear mourning for the destruction of their Incas. According to an ancient prophecy, they expect to be one day delivered from their oppressors by a descendant of the Incas, who is to revive the former glory of the nation. They are prohibited from carrying any weapon, or from exercising any trade which might render them familiar with the use of fire-arms. This law has been so strictly executed, that the unsubdued tribes are not dangerous enemies, and for more than a century have not disturbed the tranquillity of the Spanish settlers; and the attempts made by the civilized Indians to recover their former independence have been more easily defeated. The Indians hand down from father to son the remembrance of their wrongs, and constantly watch some opportunity to revenge them.

The insurrection in 1778 was the most formidable known since the conquest, and laid in ruins some of the finest towns of Upper Peru. Oruro was totally destroyed, and La Paz lost the greater part of its inhabitants by famine, whilst it was blockaded by the Indians. Had they known the use of fire-arms, the whole of the white population of those provinces would have been destroyed. The revolutionary Government, immediately on its installation, released them from the service of the mita, which was the most obnoxious to them, and from the vassalage in which they were held by their magistrates. The tribute was continued from necessity, as it afforded a revenue which could not be relinquished at this period. In 1814 they were relieved from the payment of the tribute, and have taken an active part in favor of the creoles.

The Intendant of the province is the chief of every branch of the administration of finance; he is assisted by an assessor, who reports on all questions of law. The Intendant may reject his decision, and either determine on his own responsibility, or consult another lawyer. The tribunal de cuentas, over which he presides, consists of a contador mayor and a treasurer; they examine and verify all accounts. There is, moreover, a supreme court of finance. This court, of which the Intendant is president, is composed of the regent of the royal audience, (chief justice,) the contador mayor, the treasurer, and the solicitor of the tribunal of accounts. These members, when their sentences are appealed from, do not assist at the session. The customs are collected by an administrator of the customs and a treasurer. Their accounts are received by the tribunal de cuentas.

By the Spanish colonial laws the taxes were levied on the product alone. The alcavala was reduced to five per cent. on every transfer of property and every contract of sale. The retail dealer generally paid a composition, which was calculated annually on the value of their stock.

The almozarifazgo is a duty on entry, and varies from fifteen to five per cent; the corso is a duty of two per cent. applied to support the guarda-costas; and the consulate one and a half on imports and exports. This tax goes to defray the expenses of the consulado or board of trade. There is an excise on distilleries. The proprietors, or small grocery stores, pay, independent of the alcavala, a certain sum per annum, about thirty-five dollars, for license to retail liquors. A fund was formerly derived from the sale of lands, and from the royal treasury. The treasury receives the rents of vacant bishoprics and prebendaries until the new dignity is in possession, and the half-yearly product of all offices. Notaries, attorneys, receivers of the customs, tax-gatherers, and other officers, &c., pay a fine to the Crown in proportion to the value of their office. Ecclesiastics pay the amount of the first month of their benefice.

All articles seized on account of illicit trade, after paying the duties, are divided among the Intendant, the captors, and the Crown. The bull areas and cockpits belong to the King. A considerable revenue is derived from stamps; the highest cost six dollars; and all deeds and titles, as also papers signed by chief officers of the administration, must be written on this paper. If the instrument cannot be contained in a single sheet, the rest is written on a stamped paper of a dollar. Contracts and wills must be written on stamped paper, which costs one dollar and a half the sheet. Every document presented in the courts of law must be on stamped paper of the sixteenth of a dollar.

The paper, ready stamped, was sent from Spain, and was renewed every two years.

For some time the treasury received one-fifth of the product of the mines. It was afterwards reduced to one-tenth.

The mint affords a further revenue by the exclusive sale of quicksilver, and by coining.

The monopoly of tobacco is another article of revenue. The administrador de tabaco grants licenses to cultivate, and establishes shops to retail tobacco. These estancos, as they are called, are kept by persons who receive a certain per centage on the sales, and who give security to account for all the tobacco put into their hands. The other monopolies, salt, cards, &c. &c., are not productive. The post office is in the hands of Government, and yields a considerable revenue.

The Indians who were subdued paid a capitation tax. It included all males from ten to fifty years of age, and amounted to between five and seven dollars. This tribute was collected by the corregidor, who had the power of dispensing with the payment, when, from indisposition or bad seasons, the Indian was supposed to be deprived of the means of acquiring the amount. They could enforce it by the sale of their lands. The only legal purchase of lands belonging to Indians was at these sales; in every other transaction they were considered as minors, and no contract or bargain was valid until it received the sanction of the corregidor.

The ecclesiastical dominion of the Spanish American colonies was yielded by the bull of Alexander VI. to the sovereign of Spain. Tithes were established in America by Ferdinand and Isabella in 1501; and in 1541 Charles V. ordained that the proceeds of the tithes should be divided into four parts; one to be appropriated to the bishop; another to the chapter; and out of the other two, that they should set aside two-ninths for the King, three for building and repairing churches, and the remaining four-ninths for the payment of curates and officiating ecclesiastics. This regulation continues in force; and the tithes are farmed and sold in each province to the highest bidder.

The sale of the bulls of the crusade produces a very considerable revenue. The general bull is bought by all the faithful, and is divided into classes, according to the rank and fortune of the purchaser. Viceroy and their wives pay fifteen dollars; the chief dignitaries, civil, ecclesiastical, and military, and all possessed of fortunes exceeding twelve thousand dollars, pay five dollars; all possessed of fortunes exceeding six thousand dollars, pay one and a half dollar; all other persons pay thirty-one and a half cents. The virtues of this bull are various; but the most useful is the dispensation from fasting on Fridays, and almost all lent. The bull to eat milk and eggs is likewise divided into classes; the first costs six dollars; the second three dollars; the third one and a half dollar, and the fourth thirty-eight cents.

The bulls of composition are bought by those who have obtained money or goods by unlawful means. All classes pay two and a half dollars for this bull.

The bull for the dead lessens the term, or entirely releases the soul from purgatory; the first class costs seventy-five cents, and the second twenty-five cents.

The bulls of the holy crusade are printed on very coarse paper, and the name of the purchaser is written at full length.

In the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres the ninths of the sale of bulls, and the administration of the confiscated lands of the Jesuits, formed a branch of the revenue, under the title of temporalidades.

The following tables present the state of the treasury of Buenos Ayres, from January, 1811, and subsequently to January, 1812.

Remaining in the treasury from	Received.	Paid.	Balance in hand.	
Temporalidades, - - - - -	\$8,456 4½	\$4,706 5½	\$9,163 2½	\$399 7½
Tobacco, - - - - -	12,386 6½	11,115 4½	14,352 1½	9,149 1½
Post office, - - - - -	1,842 3½	3,601 3½	3,947 2½	1,456 5
Custom-house, - - - - -	100,571 5½	161,738 6½	159,068 7½	103,241 4½
From the royal hacienda, - - - - -	21,177 4½	119,933 1½	238,529 1½	2,581 4½
				\$116,898 6½

February, 1811.

Temporalidades, - - - - -	\$17,007 4½	\$5,663 4½	\$17,814 4½	\$4,856 4½
Tobacco, - - - - -	25,027 1½	14,393 1	27,033 3½	19,386 6
Post office, - - - - -	4,274 6½	1,525 7	2,158 1½	1,819 3½
Custom-house, - - - - -	144,141 6½	105,832 1½	149,095 6½	100,878 1
Royal hacienda, - - - - -	12,775 0½	235,959 7½	227,557 3½	21,177 4½
Balance in hand, March 1, 1811, - - - - -	-	-	-	\$141,141 4½

A summary view of the trade of Spanish America will complete this exposition of their colonial policy.

It is scarcely necessary to recapitulate all the vexatious imposts with which the Spanish Government oppressed the internal commerce of the kingdom. Of all these, the alcavala was the most destructive of the national property. It consisted of a duty varying from six to four per cent upon every transfer of property, and every contract of sale. The millones was an excise on the prime necessities of life, and was generally compounded for with the Government by the municipalities; in consequence of which, the magistrates established public magazines,

which all taxed commodities were to be purchased; and such as were found to have any articles of monopoly, not obtained from the magazines, were prosecuted with the utmost rigor. Almost all these regulations, with the royal monopolies of brandy, cards, lead, saltpetre, sulphur, gunpowder, sealingwax, quicksilver, salt, and tobacco, were extended to the colonies, where their pernicious effects were more sensibly felt than in the mother country. The trade between Spain and the colonies was confined to particular classes in both countries, until Charles V. allowed all his Castilian subjects to fit out expeditions from the principal ports of Spain; but exacted, under the penalties of death and confiscation, that they should return to the port of Seville, which became the emporium of the American trade. The personal influence of the inhabitants increasing with their wealth, they induced the Government to withdraw the permission to clear out from other ports. In 1720, when the navigation of the river was impeded by sand-bars, and became unfit to admit vessels of burden, the monopoly, with all its advantages, was transferred to Cadiz. Twenty-seven vessels were fitted out for the annual supply of Peru, Chili, and Terra Firma; and every three years twenty-three were despatched to Mexico and the northern provinces. The colonists were prohibited from trading with foreigners, or with Spanish vessels, not included in their periodical fleets, and also from trading with each other. Peru could not receive supplies from Mexico, or Buenos Ayres from Terra Firma. No Spaniard could interfere with the trade of the interior, nor could any colonist embark his goods to Spain on his own account. A board of trade, established at Seville in the sixteenth century, regulated the extent, assortment, and distribution of the periodical cargoes. No person could load or land articles from the return cargoes without a license from this board. The galleons could not touch at any port, or break bulk on their passage out or home. The triennial supplies could only be distributed over the northern colonies, and the annual galleons were appropriated to the settlements of the south. These were extremely limited, it being supposed that the Crown had an interest in making the same amount of duties fall upon a small supply of goods, that the duties might be more easily levied, and that the colonist might be made to pay the whole. The duties were levied in the form of direct customs on the goods exported, or of fees and dues for licenses on tonnage. An impost was laid on the bulk of the articles shipped, without regard to their nature or value. The *indulto* was a duty on the produce imported from the colonies, and fixed anew by Government every time the fleets returned from America. The declining state of the Spanish manufactories, and the inability of the mother country to furnish the necessary supplies of goods, obliged the Council of the Indies to use foreign articles, but they forced them to pass through the hands of the merchants of Seville, and afterwards of Cadiz. The profits of the monopolists of Cadiz were one hundred and seventy per cent. on goods bought in America, and two hundred and fifty on goods sold there. The import and export duties were exorbitant. Colonial produce bore a very high price in Spain; and the colonists purchased the necessary articles with this monstrous accumulation of profits and charges. Ulloa mentions that, in Quito, a pound of iron sold for a dollar, and one of steel for one dollar and fifty cents. The contraband trade was, in consequence, very extensive; but although this gave the colonists a more abundant supply, it did not diminish the prices; the profits of the smugglers always bearing a proportion to the risk of entering the goods, and to the profits of legal commerce.

In 1740 expeditions separate from the periodical fleets were permitted to sail from the American colonies to ports formerly debarred all direct intercourse with Spain. The high prices paid by these registered ships for licenses amounted to a heavy duty on exports. In 1748 the permission was extended to other ports, but was soon restored exclusively to Cadiz. In 1764 regular packet boats were first established, and sailed from Corunna to the chief ports of America. Although permitted to trade, their cargoes were limited in extent, and to Spanish produce. They were obliged to sail from and return to Corunna. In 1765 the trade of the windward colonies was laid open to several ports of Spain. The *palmeo* was commuted to a duty of six per cent. on exports, and ships were cleared without licenses. The grant which had already included Louisiana was extended in 1770 to Yucatan and Campeachy. In 1766 the cotton trade was opened to Catalonia duty free, and in 1772 to the other provinces. In 1774 colonial produce, duty free, was permitted to be imported into several ports of Spain. In 1778 the ordinance of 1765 was extended to Buenos Ayres, Chili, and Peru, and soon after to Santa Fé and Guatemala. This last ordinance granted some abatement of duties to vessels laden with Spanish produce, and to the precious metals, which had hitherto paid an enormous duty of entrance. The jealousy of extending the benefits of their trade to foreigners yielded to the necessity of supplying the colonies with slaves. The Spaniards were incapable of conducting this traffic, and for a certain time it was in the hands of a class of merchants in France. By the treaty of Utrecht, the *asiento* was transferred to Great Britain. The contraband trade which the English mingled with the importation of slaves brought on a war, and put a stop to this foreign monopoly. The slave trade was then transferred to a private company, whose entrepot was Porto Rico. The total failure of this company obliged the Government to take the supply into their own hands; and the incapacity of the Spanish merchants to conduct this complicated trade forced them to contract with a British commercial house for an annual supply of three thousand slaves. For one year the Philippine company introduced into Buenos Ayres nearly four thousand slaves. In 1789 the slave trade with the islands and with Caraccas was thrown open to Spaniards and foreigners. Several exclusive companies have been formed since the commencement of the eighteenth century, but the Philippine company alone survived the restrictions and extravagant duties imposed on their trade by the Government. The profits of this company are represented to have been very inconsiderable, not exceeding three or four per cent. On the 12th of October, 1778, the Council of Indies issued a decree of free commerce. The vessels were to belong exclusively to Spaniards, and to be of national construction; all the officers and two-thirds of the crew to be Spanish. This decree confined the free trade to a few ports; but subsequent regulations extended the privilege to all the chief ports in Spain. The ports of the colonies were divided into major and minor ports; and some privileges were granted to the latter in order to encourage them. The exports from Spain were divided into three classes: the articles of the growth and manufacture of the mother country were called free articles, and paid nine and a half per cent. duty; the second class consisted of articles only of the manufacture of Spain, and paid twelve and a half per cent. duty; the third class included all foreign goods shipped to the colonies through Spain; they paid fifteen per cent. entry into Spain, seven per cent. export, and seven per cent. entry into America; and with the maritime *alcavala*, the consulate, and other charges, the duties amounted to thirty-three and a third per cent. In 1778 the exports to the colonies were made in one hundred and seventy ships, were worth 74,000,000 of reals vellon, and paid 22,000,000 duty. The imports of the same year were made in one hundred and thirty ships, valued at 74,000,000, and paid nearly 3,000,000 duty. In 1778 the value of exports was 500,000,000, and of imports 804,500,000, and the duties exceeded 55,000,000. In Buenos Ayres the receipts of the customs in 1791 were \$386,532; 1792, \$468,850; 1793, \$423,623; 1794, \$407,984; 1795, \$310,858. The average of five years was \$389,569. It appears that in 1796 the exports to Buenos Ayres amounted to \$2,853,944, and the imports from that port to \$4,058,882. The latter consisted of 874,593 ox hides, 43,752 horse hides, 24,436 skins, 46,800 arrobas, (25 pounds,) 771 arrobas of vacuna wool, 2,254 arrobas of common wool, 291 guanaco wool, 11,890 goose wings, 451,000 horns, 3,223 cwt. of copper, 4 cwt. of tin, 2,541 tanned hides, 222 dozen of dressed sheep skins, 2,128 cwt. of jerked beef, and 185 cwt. of cured pork, valued at \$1,076,877, and the remainder, 2,556,304, in gold and silver. In the year 1802, after the peace of Amiens, the receipts in Buenos Ayres were \$857,702.

Shortly after the war broke out between England and Spain, the invasion of these provinces by Sir Home Popham opened a new era in the trade of Buenos Ayres. This officer, on his return to England, wrote a circular to the merchants, setting forth the extensive and lucrative market opened by this conquest to the trade of the British empire. The want of markets in Europe at that period, and the exaggerated picture of commercial advantages presented by Sir Home Popham, occasioned great speculation to be made to the river Plate, and large convoys of merchantmen accompanied the expeditions of Sir Samuel Auchmuty to Montevideo, and of General Whitlocke to Buenos Ayres. Montevideo, during the short time it remained in the hands of the English, afforded a very limited market, and the total failure of General Whitlocke's expedition obliged the merchants to return to England without having made any considerable sales. The loss experienced on this occasion was attributed altogether to the defeat of General Whitlocke; and an opinion still prevailed among the merchants in London, that the markets of Spanish America, if opened to their trade, would enable them to bear the loss of the commerce of the continent, and to be at least equal to that in the United States. After the British troops had evacuated the provinces of La Plata, the clamors of the people obliged the viceroy to open the ports to neutrals. Some Americans traded to the river Plate, but the high duties and restrictions discouraged the commercial spirit even of our own countrymen. The trade was very limited, and principally carried on by English and Spanish capital, covered by the American flag, and the goods were introduced by bribery, or by favor of the viceroy. The revolution in Spain put a stop to another attempt of the British to obtain possession of these colonies. The deposition of the Spanish authorities, and the establishment of the Junta in Buenos Ayres, again opened the ports of the river Plate to the British flag. Eager to realize their former dreams of commercial prosperity, a large capital was immediately turned into this channel. Entirely ignorant of the consumption of the country, and of the wants of the inhabitants, they overstocked the market with every article of British manufacture. The quantity of merchandise brought into these ports during the first six months was equal to the former consumption of six years; and skates and warming pans were seen dangling in the shops of Buenos Ayres and Montevideo. The former exorbitant duties continued to be levied with so little regard to justice, that frequently the merchants not only lost the prime cost and freight of the articles, but had a further sum to pay for duties; and several petitions were presented, praying to be allowed to abandon the goods in satisfaction of the duties. The monthly receipts of customs in Buenos Ayres, during the year 1810, sometimes exceeded two hundred thousand dollars, and the aggregate of that year was two million two hundred and ten thousand dollars. From the state of the market in Buenos Ayres, the merchants in England were ruined by the slowness of the returns; and many found it necessary to instruct their agents to make any sacrifice, and to sell at any price. Sales at auction, to an immense amount, were consequently made below the first cost of the articles. The effect of these sales was to reduce the price of all English manufactures; and I afterwards saw English prints and calicoes retailed in the shops of Mendoza, a distance of three hundred leagues from the coast, below the retail price in London. The English agent, who received his per centage on the sales, and the Spanish or native consignee, whom the law obliged him to employ, were enriched, but the principals in England failed. Frequent attempts were made to prevail upon the Government of Buenos Ayres to simplify the manner of collecting their duties, and to establish a tariff of their own, independent of the absurd and complex regulations of Spain. A more liberal system was, with difficulty, extorted from them: The monopolies were abolished. The obligation to employ a Spanish or native consignee was done away, and foreign merchants permitted to enter their ships and dispose of their cargoes in their own name. At the commencement of the revolution the exportation of silver was permitted on payment of five per cent. duty. It was afterwards prohibited; but the Government, finding it impossible to prevent its being smuggled from the country, again permitted the exportation, increasing the export duty to six per cent. for coined silver, and twelve per cent. for uncoined silver; two per cent. for coined gold, and eight per cent. for uncoined gold, and an additional half per cent. on both for the consulate. The mines of Potosi have not been worked to any considerable amount since the revolution. The specie exported is brought chiefly from Chili, and amounts to about three millions of dollars annually. The British frigates on this station are relieved every six months, and, since the year 1810, have carried to England nearly ten millions of dollars. This money was shipped partly on account of individuals, and partly on that of the British Government. Their agent in Buenos Ayres, the consul general, bought the specie at a premium, chiefly from the Spanish merchants, who were anxious to remove their funds from America. In 1813 the Government published the following criminal regulations, which remained in force for some time. The Government, being anxious to regulate the duties, and to establish the order of their collection in the custom-houses within the territories of the United Provinces, in the manner most convenient to the general interests of commerce, and do away all former abuses, to proportion the imports to the nature, necessity, and value of the articles of commerce, as far as the extraordinary demand and present situation of the treasury will admit, and to furnish the merchants with a clear and exact statement of the duties to be paid, in order that they may, in no event, be involved in doubts and perplexity, which might intimidate their enterprise, or retard the progress so important to the public prosperity, have decreed, with the previous concurrence of the Permanent Council of the Sovereign Assembly: First. From the 1st day of January, 1814, twenty-five per cent. shall be collected on all manufactures and foreign articles, except those hereafter specified, as the only duty of entry, to be calculated on the current market prices at the time of their extraction from the warehouse. Secondly. For this purpose, the merchants will present the invoices, with the prices affixed, which the officers of the customs shall examine, in order to calculate the duties. Thirdly. In case the prices fixed by the merchant be not regulated on the market price, the officer of the customs shall signify it to him; and, should any dispute arise, two arbiters shall be named, one by each party, and a third chosen by them, in order to decide thereon. Fourthly. Foreign wines and brandies, oil, ready made clothes, boots and shoes, and furniture, thirty-five per cent. Fifthly. Muslins and hats, fifty per cent. Sixthly. Crockery and glass, fifteen per cent. Seventhly. The following articles are free of all duties: quicksilver, machinery and instruments for mining, and those of the sciences and arts, all implements and tools of trade, books and printing presses, as likewise boards and all sorts of lumber; saltpetre, gunpowder, flints, fire-arms, and sabres and swords for the use of cavalry. Published in the Ministerial Gazette, and signed by Nicholas R. Penn, Juan Sarrea, Gervasia Antonio Posadas, (*Manuel*) José Garcia, Secretary.

The market of Buenos Ayres continues to be overstocked with English goods, but their merchants are now better acquainted with the wants of the inhabitants; ponchos, rugs, saddles, bits, lussos, balls, and, in short, every article formerly supplied by their domestic manufactures, are now brought from England. The Guernsey and Jersey traders bring French and German goods, which are preferred to English. Furniture, cordage, canvas, naval stores, paper, liquors, and strong black tobacco, find a ready sale, and will bear the duties. All goods mentioned in the seventh commercial regulation are in constant demand. China and India goods sell well, and the British merchants resident in Buenos Ayres have lately despatched three ships, direct to India and China, from the river of Plate. The principal returns are hides, tallow, horses, vacuna wool, skins, feathers, bark, copper, gold, and silver. Hides pay twenty per cent. export duty, and all the other articles, except the precious metals, fourteen per cent. The commerce of Chili offers great advantages to the traders to China and to the East Indies. It is a well known fact that specie is almost our only medium of trade with those countries, which not only depresses

the merchant for many months of the use of a large sum, but obliges him often to collect dollars at a premium; whereas, if the ports of Chili were used as a scala, the goods suited to that market, such as furniture and French and German manufactures, are obtained in the United States at a credit, and the returns received in Chili in copper and silver. In Chili the mines of silver are the most productive ever wrought. The mineral of those discovered within the last three years in the province of Guasco yielded a most extraordinary product of silver, which, compared with that of Potosi, is as forty to fourteen. It is not ascertained whether these rich mines extended to any great depth.*

Furs might be obtained if there was any encouragement to collect them. Traders might station small detachments along the coast and on the islands, to procure seal skins, an article of great demand in China, and very abundant in these seas. All instruments of trade and manufactures are introduced into both countries free from duty. During the last war between Russia and England, a press was erected in Valparaiso for the purpose of packing hemp, and large quantities of that article were sent to England. In the event of the intermediate ports, as they are called, (*puerto intermedios*,) Arica, Arequipa, &c., being opened to a free trade, it is probable that Upper Peru will be supplied through that channel. The distance is not so great, and the roads are better than those to the Atlantic ports. The trade of Chili has hitherto been confined to Lima and Buenos Ayres. The viceroyalty of Lima was supplied with grain from the ports of Valparaiso and Talcahuana, and the returns made in sugar, fossil salt, rice, and cotton. The trade between Buenos Ayres and Chili was carried on by caravans of carts from Buenos Ayres to Mendoza, at the foot of the Andes, and from thence on mules to Santiago. The principal articles sent across the continent by the merchants of Buenos Ayres were European dry goods and the herb of Paraguay. They received in return the sugar of Lima, copper, and gold and silver.

In the hands of freemen who were sensible of its advantages, and under an enlightened Government, Chili, from the number and variety of its productions, which yield the raw material of every sort of manufacture, has within itself the means of greatness; and, from the number of its harbors and great extent of coast, might carry on an extensive and lucrative commerce with the intermediate ports, with the viceroyalty of Lima, the Philippine islands, the East Indies, and China.

The commercial regulations of these countries have been so frequently altered, that it is difficult to say what they now are. This uncertainty discourages commercial enterprise, even more than exorbitant duties.

The geographical division of the viceroyalty of Peru.

The viceroyalty of *Peru* extends 365 leagues north and south, from 3 degrees 35 minutes of south latitude, and 126 leagues east and west, between 63 degrees 56 minutes and 70 degrees 18 minutes from the meridian of Cadiz.

The bay of *Tumbes* separates it on the north from the kingdom of Granada. The river of *Loa* on the south from the desert of *Atacama*, and the kingdom of *Chili*. The *Cordillera* of *Vilacota*, in 14 degrees south, separates it from *Buenos Ayres*. On the east it is bounded by an immense desert, and on the west by the *Pacific ocean*. The face of the country is extremely unequal; bordering on the coast it is a barren, sandy desert, with a few small but fertile valleys, and in the interior are the lofty mountains and deep valleys of the *Cordillera*. The temperature varies, therefore, in the same latitude. In the habitable parts of the mountains the thermometer of *Reaumur* varies from 3 degrees below 0 to 9 degrees above. At *Lima*, and generally along the coast, the constant variation of the thermometer is from 13 degrees to 23½ degrees. The productions of *Peru* follow the nature of its different climates. Wine, oil, and sugar are the most valuable productions of the coast; corn and wheat of the valleys; and bark and cocoa of the mountains.

The annual product of the mines is valued at 4,500,000 dollars.

The population of the viceroyalty is calculated at 1,076,997 souls.

It is divided into seven intendancies, comprehending 51 districts; the latter governed by subdelegates responsible to the intendant, who is under the direction of the superintendent general, a dignity always invested in the viceroy.

The viceroyalty contains five dioceses.

Lima, the capital of *Peru*, is situated in 12 degrees 2 minutes 51 seconds south latitude, and 70 degrees 50 minutes 51 seconds longitude, and was founded by *Don Francisco Pizarro* in 1535.

Notwithstanding the frequent earthquakes which destroyed the city in the years 1586, 1630, 1655, 1687, and 1764, *Lima* occupies an area of ten miles circumference, including the suburb of *San Lazaro*. The population amounts to 52,627 inhabitants: 292 clergy, 991 religious monks and friars, 572 nuns, 84 beatas, 17,215 Spaniards and white creoles, 3,912 Indians, 8,960 negroes, and the remainder intermediate classes mixtures of the others.

The intendancy of *Lima* comprehends 74 doctrinas, (curacies,) 3 cities, 5 towns, and 173 townships; population 149,112 souls: 431 clergy, 1,100 religious, 572 nuns, 84 beatas, 22,370 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 63,180 Indians, 13,747 mestizoes, 17,864 mulattoes, and 29,763 slaves. It is divided into eight districts in the following order:

Cercado de Lima.—This district comprehends 14 curacies, 1 city, and 6 townships, and contains a population of 62,910 souls: 309 clergy, 991 religious, 572 nuns, 84 beatas, 18,219 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 9,744 Indians, 4,879 mestizoes, 10,231 free people of color, and 17,881 slaves. The principal produce is fruit, honey, sugar, and vegetables, which are consumed in the capital to the amount of 500,000 dollars per annum.

Canete.—This district comprehends 7 curacies, 1 city, 1 town, and 4 townships. It is inhabited by 12,616 souls: 15 clergy, 19 religious, 465 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 7,025 Indians, 737 mestizoes, 992 free people of color, 3,363 slaves: produces sugar, grain, and some nitre; annual value, 350,000 dollars.

The district of *Ica* comprehends 10 curacies, 1 city, 2 towns, and 3 townships. Inhabitants 20,576: 22 clergy, 72 religious, 2,158 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 6,607 Indians, 3,405 mestizoes, 4,305 free people of color, 4,004 slaves. A copper mine is wrought in this district, which also produces brandy, olives, and some sugar, and manufactures glass and soap; annual value, 588,742 dollars 4 rials.

Yaugos comprehends 7 curacies and 25 townships. It is inhabited by 9,574 souls: 12 clergy, 13 Spaniards and creoles, 8,005 Indians, 93 mestizoes, and 1,451 free people of color: produces cattle and sheep; annual value, 20,200 dollars.

Huacochiro comprehends 11 curacies and 35 townships, and is inhabited by 14,024 souls: 25 clergy, 220 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 13,084 Indians, 591 mestizoes, 19 free people of color, and 84 slaves. The produce of this district is grain and cattle, and it possesses rich silver mines; annual value not ascertained.

* In *Potosi*, a caxon of ore yields from fourteen to twenty marks of silver, and in *Guasco* seventy marks have been extracted from a caxon, but the average product is forty marks.

Canta comprehends 9 doctrinas and 54 townships, and is inhabited by 12,133 souls: 20 clergy, 57 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 10,333 Indians, and 1,723 mestizos: produces Indian corn, potatoes, and cattle; annual value, 20,103 dollars.

Chancay comprehends 9 doctrinas, 2 towns, and 28 townships, and is inhabited by 13,945 souls: 18 clergy, 15 religious, 969 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 7,510 Indians, 1,081 mestizos, 759 free mulattoes, and 3,604 slaves: produces grain, sugar, and cattle; annual value, 465,504 dollars 4 rials.

Santa comprehends 7 doctrinas and 14 townships, and is inhabited by 3,334 souls: 10 clergy, 279 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 873 Indians, 1,237 mestizos, 108 free mulattoes, and 327 slaves: produces sugar, grain, and cattle; annual value, \$245,000.

Intendancy of Cuzco.—The city of Cuzco, capital of the former Incas, is situated in 13 degrees 32 minutes 20 seconds south latitude, 65 degrees 15 minutes 20 seconds longitude. It was founded in the eleventh century by Manco Capac, and taken possession of by Francisco Pizarro in 1534. The population is estimated at 32,082 souls: 89 clergy, 436 religious, 166 nuns, 113 beatas, 16,122 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 14,254 Indians, 203 negroes, and the remainder mestizos and mulattoes.

The intendancy of Cuzco comprehends 102 doctrinas, 1 city, 2 towns, 131 townships, inhabited by 216,382 souls: 315 clergy, 474 religious recluses, 166 nuns, 113 beatas, 31,828 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 159,105 Indians, 23,104 mestizos, 993 free mulattoes, and 283 slaves.

Cercado del Cuzco comprehends 8 doctrinas, 1 city, inhabited by 32,082 slaves, 89 clergy, 436 religious recluses, 166 nuns, 113 beatas, 16,122 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 14,254 Indians, 646 free mulattoes, 203 slaves, the remainder mestizos: produces grain, and manufactures some woollen and cotton stuffs.

Abancay.—This district comprehends 9 doctrinas and 8 townships, inhabited by 25,259 souls: 33 clergy, 1,937 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 18,419 Indians, 4,739 mestizos, 50 free mulattoes, 81 slaves: produces sugar, cotton, grain, and cocoa; annual value, \$350,000.

Aymaraes comprehends 16 doctrinas and 34 townships, inhabited by 15,281 souls: 24 clergy, 1 recluse, 4,474 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, and 10,782 Indians: produces various kinds of dyes, raises cattle, and manufactures some woollen stuffs; annual value, \$145,000.

Culca and Larcs comprehend 5 doctrinas and 6 townships, inhabited by 6,199 souls: 13 clergy, 347 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 5,519 Indians, and 320 mestizos: produce grain, cotton, red pepper, cocoa, and manufacture some woollen stuffs; annual value, \$176,239.

Urabamba comprehends 6 doctrinas and 4 townships, and is inhabited by 9,250 souls: 22 clergy, 35 religious, 835 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 5,164 Indians, and 3,194 mestizos: produce grain, cocoa, and a variety of fruits; annual value, \$89,098.

Colabambas comprehends 13 doctrinas and 14 townships, and is inhabited by 19,824 souls: 19 clergy, 186 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 18,237 Indians, and 1,382 mestizos: produces Indian corn and grain; annual value, \$20,000.

Pararo comprehends 9 doctrinas and 19 townships, inhabited by 20,236 souls: 20 clergy, 1 recluse, 2,331 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 15,034 Indians, 2,733 mestizos, and 117 free mulattoes: produces grain and cattle, and manufactures linen cloth; annual value, \$96,471.

Chumbivilcas comprehends 11 doctrinas and 12 townships, and is inhabited by 15,973 souls: 27 clergy, 4,471 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, and 11,475 Indians: produces grain, and manufactures linen cloths; annual value, \$18,600.

Tinta comprehends 11 doctrinas and 13 townships, and is inhabited by 36,968 souls: 27 clergy, 324 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 29,045 Indians, 5,420 mestizos, and 152 free mulattoes: produces grain and ships, and manufactures linen cloths; annual value, \$152,309½.

Quispicanchi comprehends 10 doctrinas and 16 townships, and is inhabited by 24,337 souls: 25 clergy, 1 recluse, 37 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 19,947 Indians, 4,306 mestizos, and 21 free mulattoes: produces grain, cattle, wool, and salt, and manufactures linen cloths; annual value, ———.

Paucartambo comprehends 4 doctrinas and 8 townships, and is inhabited by 12,973 souls: 16 clergy, 764 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 11,229 Indians, 957 mestizos, and 7 mulattoes: produces wood and cocoa; annual value, \$390,972.

Intendancy of Arequipa.—The city of Arequipa is situated in 16 degrees 13 minutes 20 seconds south latitude, 66 degrees 6 minutes 30 seconds longitude. Its population is estimated at 23,988 souls: 50 clergy, 225 religious, 162 nuns, 5 beatas, 15,737 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 1,515 Indians, 4,129 mestizos, the remainder mulattoes and negroes.

The intendancy of Arequipa comprehends 60 doctrinas, 2 cities, 2 towns, and 8 townships, inhabited by 136,801 souls: 326 clergy, 284 religious, 126 nuns, 5 beatas, 39,357 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 66,609 Indians, 17,797 mestizos, 7,003 free mulattoes, and 5,258 slaves.

Cercado de Arequipa comprehends 11 doctrinas, 1 city, and 2 townships, inhabited by 37,721 souls: 93 clergy, 325 religious recluses, 162 nuns, 5 beatas, 22,687 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 5,929 Indians, 4,908 mestizos, 2,477 free mulattoes, and 1,225 slaves: produces grain, wine, brandy, sugar, cotton, and oil; annual value, \$636,800.

Camana comprehends 7 doctrinas and 8 townships, inhabited by 19,052 souls: 34 clergy, 9 religious recluses, 5,005 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 1,249 Indians, 1,021 mestizos, 1,747 free mulattoes, and 887 slaves: produces wine, sugar, and oil; annual value, \$300,000.

Condesuyos comprehends 9 doctrinas and 18 townships, and is inhabited by 20,145 souls: 35 clergy, 3,600 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 12,011 Indians, 4,358 mestizos, 34 free mulattoes, and 44 slaves: contains gold mines, and produces cochineal and grain; annual value, \$26,458.

Collaguas comprehends 16 doctrinas and 10 townships, and is inhabited by 13,905 souls: 40 clergy, 212 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 11,872 Indians, 1,417 mestizos, 335 free mulattoes, and 29 slaves: produces grain and wool, and manufactures some woollen stuffs; annual value, \$70,100. The silver mines in this district yield annually 34,000 marks.

Moquegua comprehends 6 doctrinas and 6 townships, and is inhabited by 23,279 souls: 53 clergy, 29 religious recluses, 5,596 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 17,272 Indians, 2,916 mestizos, 887 free mulattoes, and 1,526 slaves: produces grain and wine; annual value, \$705,000.

Arica comprehends 7 doctrinas, 1 city, and 26 townships, inhabited by 18,776 souls: 44 clergy, 21 religious recluses, 1,585 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 12,870 Indians, 1,977 mestizos, 985 free mulattoes, and 1,294 slaves: produces wine, grain, cotton, and oil; annual value, \$160,500.

Tarapaca comprehends 4 doctrinas and 12 townships, inhabited by 7,928 souls: 27 clergy, 509 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 5,406 Indians, 1,200 mestizos, 528 free mulattoes, and 258 slaves: produces wine and some grain; annual value, \$81,400. The silver mines of this district produce annually 72,462 marks.

The intendency of Truxillo.—The city of Truxillo is situated in 8 degrees 5 minutes south latitude, and 72 degrees 44 minutes longitude, founded by Francisco Pizarro in 1535; population, 5,790 souls: 133 clergy, 60 religious recluses, 129 nuns, 1,263 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 274 Indians, 704 mestizos, 1,000 negroes, and the rest mulattoes. The intendency of Truxillo comprehends 87 doctrinas, 5 cities, 2 towns, and 142 townships, population 230,967 souls: 460 clergy, 160 religious recluses, 162 nuns, 19,098 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 115,647 Indians, 76,949 mestizos, 13,757 free mulattoes, and 4,725 slaves.

Cercado de Truxillo comprehends 10 doctrinas and 6 townships, population 12,032 souls: 144 clergy, 60 religious, 129 nuns, 1,434 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 4,577 Indians, 1,549 mestizos, 2,357 free mulattoes, and 1,582 slaves: produces sugar, rice, oil, cotton, and various gums; annual value, \$31,756.

Lambayeque comprehends 20 doctrinas and 7 townships, population 35,192 souls: 62 clergy, 27 religious, 2,299 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 22,333 Indians, 5,448 mestizos, 3,192 free mulattoes, and 1,831 slaves: produces grain, saffron, sugar, tobacco, and cotton; manufactures some cotton and woollen stuffs, soap, &c.; annual value, \$397,799.

Puira comprehends 12 doctrinas and 14 townships, population 44,491 souls: 61 clergy, 18 religious, 2,874 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 24,797 Indians, 10,654 mestizos, 5,203 free mulattoes, and 884 slaves: produces grain, cotton, and some indigo; abounds with cattle; annual value, \$72,686.

Cazamarca comprehends 17 doctrinas and 26 townships, population 62,199 souls: 23 clergy, 50 religious, 33 nuns, 7,835 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 29,692 Indians, 22,299 mestizos, 1,875 free mulattoes, and 328 slaves: produces grain and cotton; abounds in cattle; and manufactures cotton and woollen stuffs; annual value, \$——.

Chota.—Not able to ascertain any correct information respecting this district; possesses rich mines.

Huamachuco comprehends 8 doctrinas and 23 townships, population 38,150 souls: 64 clergy, 2,273 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 17,117 Indians, 18,367 mestizos, 250 free mulattoes, and 79 slaves: produces grain and cocoa, and manufactures linen cloths; annual value, \$57,853.

Pataz comprehends 3 doctrinas and 13 townships, population 13,508 souls: 11 clergy, 3 religious, 987 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 4,627 Indians, 7,678 mestizos, 194 free mulattoes, and 8 slaves: produces grain and sugar, and abounds in cattle; annual value, \$35,264. The gold mines of this district yield 250 pounds per annum, and the silver 500 marks; value of both, \$35,500.

Chachapoyas comprehends 17 doctrinas and 60 townships, population, 25,398 souls: 34 clergy, 11 religious, 1,396 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 12,504 Indians, 10,954 mestizos, 486 free mulattoes, and 13 slaves: produces tobacco, bark, sugar, and cocoa.

Intendency of Huamanga.—The city of Huamanga is situated in 13 degrees 1 minute south latitude, and 68 degrees 6 minutes longitude; population 25,970 souls: 25 clergy, 42 religious, 82 nuns, 169 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 20,373 Indians, 4,382 mestizos, and the remainder mulattoes and negroes.

The intendency of Huamanga comprehends 50 doctrinas, 1 city, and 134 townships, and is inhabited by 111,559 souls: 176 clergy, 45 religious, 82 nuns, 5,378 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 75,284 Indians, 29,621 mestizos, 943 free mulattoes, and 30 slaves.

Cercado de Huamanga comprehends 3 doctrinas and 2 townships, and is inhabited by 25,970 souls: 25 clergy, 42 religious, 82 nuns, 169 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 20,373 Indians, 4,372 mestizos, 30 slaves, the rest free mulattoes: possesses some manufactures; annual value, \$34,268.

Anco comprehends 1 doctrina and 4 townships, inhabited by 2,022 souls: 9 Spaniards, 1,744 Indians, 269 mestizos: produces sugar and coffee; annual value, \$18,795.

Huanta comprehends 7 doctrinas and twenty townships, and is inhabited by 27,337 souls: 45 clergy, 3 religious, 219 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 19,981 Indians, 10,080 mestizos, and 9 free mulattoes.

Congallo comprehends 10 doctrinas and 31 townships, and is inhabited by 12,474 souls: 31 clergy, 62 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 10,011 Indians, 2,363 mestizos, and 7 free mulattoes: produces grain and cattle.

Andahuaylas.—This district comprehends 10 doctrinas and 18 townships, and is inhabited by 12,020 souls: 20 clergy, 3,000 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 5,000 Indians, 4,000 mestizos: produces grain and sugar; annual value, \$74,384.

Lucanas comprehends 14 doctrinas and 44 townships, and is inhabited by 15,727 souls: 27 clergy, 862 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 12,700 Indians, 2,076 mestizos, and 60 free mulattoes: produces grain and cattle.

Parinacochas comprehends 14 doctrinas and 16 townships, population 16,011 souls: 28 clergy, 1,057 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 8,475 Indians, and 6,451 mestizos: raises cattle, and manufactures cotton stuffs; annual value, \$56,000.

Intendency of Huancavelica.—The town of Huancavelica is situated in 12 degrees 53 minutes south latitude, and 68 degrees 46 minutes longitude: population 5,156 souls: 21 clergy, 18 religious, 560 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 3,803 Indians, 731 mestizos, and the remainder mulattoes and negroes.

The intendency of Huancavelica comprehends 22 doctrinas, 1 city, 1 town, and 86 townships, and is inhabited by 30,917 souls: 31 clergy, 18 religious, 2,341 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 23,899 Indians, 4,537 mestizos, and 41 slaves.

Cercado de Huancavelica.—This district comprehends 4 doctrinas and 6 townships, inhabited by 5,146 souls: 21 clergy, 18 religious, 560 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 3,803 Indians, 731 mestizos, and 13 slaves.

Angaraes.—This district comprehends 5 doctrinas and 25 townships, inhabited by 3,245 souls: 23 clergy, 219 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 2,691 Indians, 309 mestizos, and 3 slaves: produces sugar, grain, and cattle; annual value, \$85,000.

Tayacaza comprehends 5 doctrinas and 22 townships, inhabited by 13,161 souls: 21 clergy, 1,394 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 9,020 Indians, and 2,726 mestizos.

Castroverreyna comprehends 8 doctrinas and 35 townships, inhabited by 9,365 souls: 16 clergy, 168 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 8,385 Indians, 771 mestizos, and 25 slaves: produces grain and cattle; annual value, \$76,000.

Intendency of Tarma.—The town of Tarma is situated in 12 degrees 33 minutes 49 seconds south latitude, and 69 degrees 29 minutes longitude; population 5,538 souls: 2 clergy, 361 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 1,878 Indians, 3,244 mestizos, the rest mulattoes and slaves.

The intendency of Tarma comprehends 79 doctrinas, 1 city, 2 towns, and 203 townships, inhabited by 201,259 souls: 229 clergy, 127 religious, 15 beatas, 15,939 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 105,187 Indians, 78,682 mestizos, 344 free mulattoes, and 236 slaves.

Cercado de Tarma comprehends 13 doctrinas, 1 town, and 45 townships, and is inhabited by 34,491 souls: 32 clergy, 1,681 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 18,821 Indians, 14,300 mestizos, and 77 free mulattoes: produces grain and bark; annual value, \$8,815. The mine of Yauricocha yielded, in 1793, \$2,016,703. Rent of the crown for Diezmos and Cobos, \$231,283.

Xoxja comprehends 14 doctrinas, 1 town, and 16 townships, inhabited by 52,286 souls: 32 clergy, 84 religious, 1,718 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 28,477 Indians, 21,922 mestizos, and 58 slaves.

Cazatambo comprehends 13 doctrinas and 56 townships, and is inhabited by 16,872 souls: 31 clergy, 304 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 10,500 Indians, 4,808 mestizoes, 629 free mulattoes: produces grain and cattle; annual value, \$30,000.

Conchucos comprehends 15 doctrinas and 19 townships, and is inhabited by 25,308 souls: 40 clergy, 2 religious, 1,384 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 9,809 Indians, and 13,983 mestizoes: produces grain, and possesses mines, but which are not very productive; annual value, \$73,476.

Huamalies comprehends 8 doctrinas and 30 townships, inhabited by 14,234 souls: 18 clergy, 593 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 8,957 Indians, 4,625 mestizoes, and 48 slaves: produces bark, cocoa, and cattle; annual value, \$53,420.

Huaylas comprehends 12 doctrinas and 20 townships, inhabited by 40,822 souls: 67 clergy, 11 religious, 3,604 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 20,935 Indians, 15,971 mestizoes, 138 free mulattoes, and 96 slaves.

Huanuco comprehends 4 doctrinas, 1 city, and 7 townships, inhabited by 16,826 souls: 9 clergy, 30 religious, 15 beatas, 6,160 Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 7,598 Indians, 3,075 mestizoes, and 39 slaves: produces bark and cocoa, and exports a small quantity of silver; annual value, \$45,094.

Panatahuas.—Military government of Callao and of the archipelago of Chiloe.

Number of Indians for the collection of tributes levied on males from 10 to 50 years of age.

Males, - - - -	314,863	Amount of tributes, - - -	\$885,586 0
Females, - - - -	304,327	Of the common hospital fund, -	25,852 7
	<u>619,190</u>		<u>911,438 7</u>
Exempt from age, sex, and rank, -	473,615	Pensions, expenses, &c., -	374,052 4
Contributing, - - - -	<u>145,575</u>	Nett rent, - - - -	<u>\$537,386 3</u>

Duties.

Imposts into Callao 6 per cent. alcavala, and 3 per cent. customs; woollen exports 3 per cent.

The interior commerce pays 6 per cent. alcavala.

Alcavala were first levied in Peru, in the year 1596, at 2 per cent. until the year 1771, when they were increased to 4 per cent. In the year 1777 they were increased to 6 per cent. The expenses of collecting the customs at Lima exceeds \$50,000.

Table of the commerce between the ports of Spain and Callao.

Years.	IMPORTATION.			EXPORTATION.		
	Spanish effects.	Foreign effects.	Total value.	Gold and silver.	Produce.	Total.
1781,	\$114,952 7½	\$309,330 3	\$424,183 3			
1782,	566,128 1	633,435 3	1,199,653 4			
1783,	695,295 7	1,049,348 4	1,744,644 3	\$443,306 0	\$177,766 7	\$561,067 5
1784,	1,020,434 1	2,073,530 4	3,093,964 5	16,152,916 4½	968,290 2½	17,121,206 6
1785,	2,318,448 1	3,727,267 4	6,045,715 5	7,144,325 2	732,587 4	7,877,912 6
1786,	6,136,067 4	7,630,681 7	13,766,749 3	8,285,659 7¾	882,807 1	9,168,467 0
1787,	3,870,200 7	2,911,898 1	6,782,099 1	4,518,246 3	906,022 0	5,424,268 3
1788,	1,557,904 0	1,194,066 7	2,751,967 1	5,463,973 1	579,160 2	6,043,133 3
1789,	1,209,196 5	1,460,226 3	2,669,423 0	2,449,945 6	523,080 0	2,972,575 6
1790,	2,297,964 4	2,465,499 2	4,763,461 6	5,220,387 2¾	448,095 1	5,668,482 3
	<u>\$19,786,677 5½</u>	<u>\$23,455,186 4</u>	<u>\$43,241,862 7</u>	<u>\$49,678,305 1</u>	<u>\$5,158,809 1½</u>	<u>\$54,837,114 3</u>

In the moneys exported is included \$3,562,000, sent by the Royal Philippine Company.

Importation, - - - -	\$43,241,862 7
Exportation, - - - -	54,837,114 3
Balance in favor of exports, -	<u>\$11,595,251 4</u>

The excess of exports was occasioned by the war. Four ships arrived in 1779 and sailed in 1784, occasioning the great export of that year, \$17,121,206 6.

The kingdom of Chili is comprised within the narrow strip of land which extends east and west from the summit of the Cordilleras de los Andes to the Pacific ocean, and stretches along the coast north and south, from the river Salado and the desert of Atacama to the straits of Magellan. From the chain of frontier posts (which begin at Arauco, on the coast, and extend to the Cordilleras) to the town of Valdivia, the country is in possession of the warlike tribe of Araucanians, who still remain independent; and from Osorno, south, it is inhabited by the various tribes of Patagonia, whose territories have not been explored.

The population of Chili, by the census taken in 1791, was found to be 750,000 souls. From the strong motives of concealment, as the census is taken for the purpose of proportioning the taxes according to the population of each district, the population of Chili cannot be estimated at less than one million.

The distance from the Cordilleras to the Pacific ocean is thirty leagues, between the latitudes of 25 degrees and 36 degrees south; and 40 leagues, between 36 degrees and 43 degrees south.

The country comprised between the 25th and 43d degrees of south latitude may be considered the length of the kingdom of Chili, it being unsettled, and even unexplored, farther south.

From the Cordilleras de los Andes to the Pacific, the inclination is so great, that all the rivers flow with the rapidity of torrents, and are therefore not navigable. They serve to irrigate the valleys, and render them the most

fertile in the world. The climate makes this method of cultivation absolutely necessary; for from the Salado to the Itata, that is, from 25 degrees to 36 degrees of south latitude, not a cloud is to be seen above the horizon from the month of November to the month of May. The atmosphere, during this period, is perfectly clear, and the dews are scarcely perceptible, nor is the heat oppressive. The proximity of the Andes tempers the air, and the mercury fluctuates between 70 degrees and 80 degrees of Fahrenheit, and rarely rises to 85 degrees. Thunder storms, so frequent on the east of the Andes, are unknown in this part of Chili. Winter commences in the month of May; the cold is mild, and the rains gentle, and unattended with wind. The rains of the winter fertilize the hills, and the plains, which cannot be irrigated, during that season afford pasture for the cattle. The spring commences in September, and the face of nature in Chili is then peculiarly beautiful. The hills are verdant, and covered with innumerable flowering shrubs; and the plains present to the eye a carpet of flowers. The abundance of water and the peculiarity of climate enable the inhabitants to raise all the fruits of the earth in great perfection. The wheat which is cultivated in the valleys is of excellent quality, and the product seldom less than forty times the seed; sometimes ninety; and, on the best land, even one hundred. Indian corn is likewise cultivated, and produces abundantly. Barley is raised in great quantity for the use of horses and mules, which, in the winter, are fed on this grain, mixed with chopped straw, as in Arabia and old Spain. Hemp and flax grow luxuriantly. Cotton is here and there cultivated for their domestic manufactures; and there is one sugar plantation. The climate and soil are well adapted to the culture of sugar; but they have been long accustomed to get that article from Lima, in exchange for their wheat, and are not disposed to change their ancient habits. Rice, likewise, would grow on their low lands, but it is brought from Lima.

South of the river Itata the climate varies. Rains are frequent in the summer, and, in the winter, are attended by storms of wind. The grape is chiefly cultivated in these districts, and the wine is better than where the vineyards are irrigated.

The olive grows luxuriantly throughout all Chili, and the oil is of the first quality.

On the banks of the river Maule, and on all the rivers south of 35 degrees 17 minutes, there is excellent timber, and the whole country abounds with forests of a thorny minosa, which makes good charcoal, and is in general use for fuel.

In the neighborhood of Talcahuana, within 500 yards of the sea, there is a fine vein of sea-coal, which has been used by our whaling ships.

The kingdom of Chili was governed by a president and captain-general, who was amenable only to the Council of the Indies, and was assisted by an audiencia, or supreme court. His powers were the same as the Viceroys of Lima and Buenos Ayres.

There were two bishoprics in Chili: that of Santiago comprehended the territory from the river Salado to the Maule; and the bishopric of Concepcion included the country from the Maule to the island of Chiloe. The presidency was divided into districts (*partidos*) governed by a subdelegate. Copiapo, the most northern, was the first conquered by the Peruvians, under the Incas, who extended themselves subsequently to the banks of the Maule.

The Spaniards followed the track marked out by the enterprise of this extraordinary people, and, passing along the edge of the Cordilleras, descended into Chili by the mountains of Copiapo. This district extends from the Cordilleras to the sea. On the south it is separated from the viceroyalty of Lima by the desert and district of Atacama, and extends north seventy leagues to the district of Guasco. The town of Copiapo is situated in 26 degrees 50 minutes south latitude, twenty leagues from the coast. It is small and inconsiderable; for the only part of this district capable of cultivation is the narrow valley which extends from the Cordilleras to the town, the river losing itself in the sands between the town and the ocean. South from the Hospederia de Yerba Buena extends a desert tract, (*travirsia*), about thirty leagues to the borders of Guasco.

La Caldera Copiapo, the port, is situated in 26 degrees 1 minute south latitude.

The wine of Copiapo is much esteemed, and is of excellent flavor, but has not body to keep any length of time.

The district of *Guasco* extends from the Cordilleras to the sea, and from that of Copiapo to the district of Coquimbo, occupying a line of coast of thirty leagues extent. The principal town is small, and situated about sixteen leagues from the sea.

The mines of gold in this district have been abandoned, but those of copper produce annually eighteen to twenty thousand quintals. The King exercised the right of purchasing copper at seven and a half dollars per quintal, payable in Santiago. In consequence of this monopoly, the miners preferred disposing of it to the smugglers, who gave them fourteen dollars, in goods. The mines of silver discovered in this district in 1811 are the richest ever known; the veins which have been hitherto wrought are near the surface of the earth, and have yielded the extraordinary product of forty marks, and sometimes even seventy marks, to the caxon of ore.*

The port of *Guasco* is formed by two rocks, running out from the island of Carnero, and Point Expedition. It is situated in 28 degrees 26 minutes south latitude, and 75 degrees longitude west of Cadiz.

The district of *Coquimbo* extends from the Cordilleras to the sea; it bounds north on Guasco, and extends fifty leagues south, to the district of Cuzco. The capital, *La Serana*, commonly called Coquimbo, is situated in 29 degrees 54 minutes south latitude, on the south bank of the river Coquimbo, within half a league of the coast. The land slopes gradually from the town to the sea, and, being meadow, forms a lawn of never-failing verdure. The town is regular and well built, and is surrounded with gardens, which produce all the tropical fruits in great perfection. The inhabitants are remarked for their urbanity and hospitality to strangers, and the climate is equal and temperate.

The river Coquimbo waters the valley of Hualque, the most fertile part of the district; and the Liman, which is a large stream, waters the country above and below the juntas of Guamalata.

The gold mine of Talca, which is situated in this district, is very productive. The copper of Coquimbo is esteemed the best in the world, and contains a small portion of gold. The French formerly imported this copper through Spain, and extracted the gold from it. Mining is carried on by voluntary labor; the mita, or conscription of the unfortunate Indians to toil in the mines, was never practised in Chili.

The port of *Coquimbo* is formed by the head lands of Teatimos and Pelicanos, and is one of the best known, and the most secure of the Pacific. It is situated in 29 degrees 54 minutes south latitude.

The district of *Cuzco* extends from the Cordilleras to the sea, and from Coquimbo, south, to the district of Petorca. Rozas is the principal town.

The river Chaupo fertilizes this district; near where it falls into the sea is a large lake, abounding with fish.

* The method of estimating the product in Potosi, Chili, and generally in Peru, is by the caxon of ore, which contains fifty quintals of one hundred pounds each. The mark of silver is eight ounces of eight ochavas, each ochava of seventy-five grains. The caxon of ore at Guasco produces forty marks, or three hundred and twenty ounces of silver. In Potosi, fourteen marks is the average, or one hundred and twelve ounces; and in Guanajuato, the richest mines of Mexico, the average is four ounces the quintal, or two hundred ounces the caxon.

The district of *Petorca* extends from the Cordilleras to the sea, and from Cuzco, its northern boundary, south to Quillota. The capital is Petorca, sometimes called Santa Ana de Bribiesca. This district possesses gold and copper mines, and is watered by the rivers Longotama and Ligua. On the banks of the latter stands the town of San Domingo de Rozas, and near it the settlement of Placilla. There is a large Indian town in the valley, called Valle Hermoso.

The port of *Valparaiso* is situated in 33 degrees 1 minute 45 seconds south latitude. It is the most frequented in Chili, although open to the north and northeast, and to northwest winds, which blow with great violence in the winter, accompanied with a heavy sea.

The town extends around the bay, from the castle of St. Antonio, for nearly a mile, and is separated from the Almendral (a suburb of Valparaiso) by a low beach. The houses are irregularly scattered over the sides of steep hills, which rise abruptly from the shore, and extend along the ravines of St. Augustin, St. Francisco, and Gomez, the ground being very broken and rugged. The country near the town is very barren, and all the supplies are drawn from Quillota. That abundant district furnishes, at a very cheap rate, supplies for the vessels that frequent Valparaiso. Stock of every description, fruit, potatoes, vegetables, and excellent biscuit, may be bought at a very moderate price. The best water is brought from the Almendral, at some trouble and expense.

Until the late revolution, the only commerce from this port was with Lima; between forty and sixty cargoes were brought annually, consisting of fossil salt, sugar, rice, cotton, and a coarse cotton manufacture called toculle; and the returns made in wheat, hemp, beef and tallow, hides, &c.

The population of Valparaiso, including the Almendral, does not exceed 6,500 souls.

The district of *Quillota* is bounded north by Petorca, south by the district of Melipilla, east by that of Aconcagua, and west by the Pacific ocean. The principal town, San Martin de la Concha, commonly known by the name of Quillota, is situated on the south bank of the river Quillota, near the river of Olcancagua. The streets diverge from the principal square, and intersect each other at right angles; and the houses are commodious and well built. The town occupies a great space, each house having a garden adjoining, where the inhabitants raise vegetables and fruit for the supply of Valparaiso.

From the summit of an adjoining hill the eye embraces a highly rich and variegated prospect of the town, interspersed with groves and gardens, and surrounded by extensive artificial pastures, principally of lucerne; and of the fields intersected by canals from the river, and cultivated in wheat, corn, hemp, and flax. The cultivation in every part of Chili, as has been before observed, is conducted by irrigation; and the Aconcagua here affords a plentiful supply of water. The climate is mild and healthy, and the inhabitants lively and hospitable. There are mines of gold and copper in this district, although not wrought; and they make oil and wine. Petorca and Cuzco are included with Quillota, for all the purposes of government.

The port of *Herradura de Quintero*, in 32 degrees 47 minutes 33 seconds south latitude, and a little north of Valparaiso, is one of the best and safest harbors in these seas, being very extensive, with deep water and clean anchorage. At the Punta de las Ventanas is a good watering place, with abundance of wood; and the country is beautiful and fertile.

The road direct to the capital is so rugged and mountainous that this advantageous port has been neglected.

Any wind that permits you to approach the coast will carry you in; and, at the anchorage, you have only to avoid the shoal of Tortuga.

The district of *Melipilla* is bounded north by that of Quillota, south by the river Maipu, east by the district of Mapocho, and extends west to the Pacific ocean.

The chief town, San José, commonly called Melipilla, is beautifully situated near the north bank of the broad and rapid river of Maipu, which furnishes the means of irrigating an extensive and well cultivated country. The road to Valparaiso formerly passed through this town. The whole district is well settled, and highly cultivated in wheat, barley, Indian corn, and vines. It is watered by the rivers Maipu and Mapocho; on the latter is situated the small but flourishing town of San Francisco del Monte, the environs of which, for a considerable distance, are a vast garden, interspersed with orchards and vineyards. The convent of St. Francisco is endowed with extensive possessions. A little below the town the Mapocho falls into the Maipu; and near the outlet of the latter is the bay of St. Antonio, in 33 degrees 30 minutes south latitude. It is open to the north, and very insecure.

The district of *Mapocho* occupies an extensive plain at the foot of the Andes, being bounded on the north by Santa Rosa, south by the river Maipu, east by the Cordilleras, and west by Melipilla.

The city of Santiago de Chili is situated in this district, and was founded on the 12th of February, 1541, by Don Pedro de Valdivia, on the south bank of the Mapocho, in 33 degrees 31 minutes south latitude. He at first called the country overrun by his arms after his native province, Estramadura, and the capital Santiago de Estramadura; but it soon lost this title in the original name of Chili. Santiago contains 40,000 inhabitants; it was founded on the lands belonging to the Ulmen, or Cacique Guelingala, whose jurisdiction extended from the river Chuapa on the north, to the river Maule on the south, and east and west from the Cordilleras to the sea. The plain on which the city is situated extends along the foot of the Andes, certainly to the line, and I believe quite to the isthmus of Panama, north, and south to the straits of Magellan. This is the only uniform level in Chili; from hence to the coast the descent is very rapid, and broken by irregular mountains and valleys. On the eastern extremity of the city rises the small rocky hill of Santa Lucia, formerly called the mountain of Guelon. These insulated hills are frequently seen on the great plain of Chili.

Santiago is divided into four quartels. The ministers of the royal audience were chiefs of quartels, and an alcalde, or magistrate in each, attended to the police, and reported to the chief.

The Cabildo, or municipal council, is composed of a royal standard-bearer, (who carries the standard of Santiago on the festival of that saint,) an alguacil, alcalde of the province, two regidores, and six executors, which are permanent offices, and are sold to the highest bidder; and so fond are the people of distinction, that they are purchased at a high price. These choose two ordinary alcaldes, or magistrates of the province, who have jurisdiction in ordinary cases, and whose duty it is to keep the peace.

The tribunal of commerce is composed of a prior, two consuls, an assessor or syndic, and nine counsellors. These are chosen every two years, and have jurisdiction in all commercial causes. They have a fund arising from internal taxes and from fees; and are charged nominally with every thing relating to commerce and to the superintendance of roads and harbors.

A broad road extends round the south side of the town, like the boulevards in Paris, and separates it from the suburbs, which are extensive and well built. There are several handsome churches and convents in this canal, or boulevard, and a large canal carries a stream of water along the south side of it. North from the principal square a wide street leads to the bridge over the Mapocho, which is built of stone and brick, and stands on nine lofty arches. The view from it along the banks of the Mapocho, and towards the Andes, is very picturesque, and the inhabitants resort to this bridge in the summer afternoons, to enjoy the refreshing air from the mountains. The river is broad and shallow, and in the summer flows in several channels; but in the spring of the year, when swollen

by the melting of the snows, it rises to the height of the arches, and has at times overflowed, and laid half the city under water. A dike has been built along the banks of the river, to protect the city from these inundations. It is a solid wall about five feet thick, with a parapet.

For the ecclesiastical government of the city, the town is divided into four curacies, viz: the Cathedral, Santa Ana, San Isidro, and San Lazaro. The jurisdiction belongs exclusively to the bishop, who is assisted by an ecclesiastical cabildo, composed of the canons, and presided by the proviso, who is the chief of the ecclesiastical court, and the director of the convent of nuns. There are seven nunneries and seven convents of monks in Santiago.

The monks of San Juan de Dios have two large hospitals: one for men, with the church of San Juan de Dios attached to it, in the suburbs of the canada; and one for women, annexed to the chapel of San Borja. These orders have all vast estates, both in lands, which they farm themselves, and which are always well cultivated, and in mortgages, which they hold to a great amount.

The district of *Santa Rosa* is separated from Alconagua on the north by the river of Alconagua, on the south it borders on the district of Mapocho, east on the Cordilleras, and west on Quillota. Its capital, Santa Rosa de los Andes, is situated on the road from Santiago to Mendoza.

The district of *Rancagua* is bounded north by the Maipu, which separates it from that of Mapocho, south by the Cachapoal, which divides it from Colchagua, and it extends east and west from the Cordilleras to the sea. The capital of this district, Santa Cruz de Triana, commonly called Rancagua, is in 34 degrees south latitude, 26 leagues south of Santiago. It stands near the north bank of the Cachapoal, which, after its confluence with the Tinguiririca, takes the name of Rapel. This is a very fertile district, exporting grain, and cattle, and fruits. There are several gold mines which have been abandoned, but the silver mine of Copana is still very productive.

The district of *Colchagua* extends east and west from the Cordilleras to the sea, and from the river Cachapoal on the north to the districts of Curico and Maule on the south. Colchagua is very fertile and well cultivated; the principal export is wheat; some gold and copper has been found in this district. The warm mineral springs of Canquenes are situated in the mountains of Colchagua, and are much frequented by the inhabitants of Santiago during the summer. San Fernando, the capital, is situated on the north bank of the Tinguiririca.

The district of *Curico* extends from the Cordilleras to the sea. It borders north on the district of Colchagua, and south on that of Maule. The Villa de San José de Buena Vista, more commonly known by the name of the district, is the capital.

The district of *Maule* extends from the Cordilleras to the sea. It borders north on Curico, and on the south is separated from the Isla de Maule, and from Canquenes, by the broad and rapid river Maule. The banks of this river are covered with timber, and there is a ship-yard at Bilboa, near its mouth. The entrance of the river is obstructed by a bar. Talca is the principal town of this district. There are still some lavaderos for gold in Maule; the mountain of Chibats, near Talca, has been very productive.

The district of the *Isla de Maule* extends from the Cordilleras to the district of Canquenes. It is bounded on the north by the river Maule, and south by the district of Chillan. The town of Linaras is situated in this district, between the rivers Gutagan and Longavi, and the town of Parral is on the south of Longavi.

The district of *Canquenes* extends from the Isla de Maule, its eastern boundary to the Pacific ocean. It borders north on the river Maule, and south on the district of Itata. The chief town, La Mercedes de Manso, commonly called Canquenes, is situated on the stream of Tutubin. The town of Bilboa, at the mouth of the Maule, is in this district.

The district of *Chillan* extends from the Cordilleras to the district of Itata, and bounds north on the Isla de Maule. The town of San Carlos is situated between the Longavi and the Nuble; and Chillan, the capital, between the Nuble and the Chillan, in 35 degrees 56 minutes south latitude, and 71 degrees 5 minutes west longitude. This town is well built, and is ornamented by several churches and convents. The monks of Chillan own almost all the lands in this district, which is very fertile and productive. There is a manufactory of woollen cloths at Chillan.

The district of *Itata* borders east on that of Chillan, west on the sea, and north on the district of Canquenes. The fine river of Itata flows through this district. The chief town of Itata is Cuelmu. Quirique is likewise situated in this district, which is famous for the excellence of its wine.

The district of *Rere* extends from the Cordilleras to the district of Puchacay. It borders north on Itata, and south on the military frontier posts. The chief town is San Luis Gonzaga, formerly known by the names of Buena Esperanza, and Estancia del Rey.

The district of the *Isla de la Laxa* is comprised in the strip of land between the rivers La Laxa and Biobio, and is surrounded by the Cordilleras of the Andes: it is very fertile and productive. Los Angeles is the chief town, and has a citadel, being one of the frontier posts. There are three passes in the Cordilleras from this district: Antuco, Villacura, and Cuinco, which are fortified against the Indians.

The district of *Puchacay* borders east on that of Rere, west on Concepcion, south on the river Biobio, and north on the Itata. The chief towns in this district are Hualqui and Florida. The country is rugged and mountainous, but produces good wheat and wine.

Concepcion de Chile. This district borders east and north on that of Puchacay, on the south it is bounded by the river Biobio, and extends on the west to the Pacific. The city of Concepcion was founded by Don Pedro de Valdivia in the year 1550, and was built in the valley of Penco; it was repeatedly destroyed by the Araucanians, and rebuilt by the Spaniards on the same spot. After the earthquake, in November, 1774, which laid the city in ruins, the present city of Concepcion was built about three leagues south of the former position, on the Mocha. This town is the see of a bishop, whose jurisdiction extended from the river Maule to the southern extremity of Chili. There is a small town erected on the ruins of the former capital, called Penco.

Talcahuana, in the bay of Concepcion, is situated in 36 degrees 41 minutes 50 seconds south latitude, and in 66 degrees 53 minutes 30 seconds west longitude from Cadiz. This is the largest and most secure port on the coast of Chili; it is protected on the north by the island of Quiriquina. The channel between the north point of Quiriquina and the point of Loberia is the best entrance to this bay, and is called Boca Grande; the other channel, or Boca Chica, has sufficient depth of water; but a shoal, which runs out in a westwardly direction from the island, renders its approach more dangerous. The best anchorage is at the southwestern extremity of the bay, opposite the town of Talcahuana. There is good anchorage under the south side of the island of Quiriquina. There is a chain of military posts, extending from the Pacific to the Cordilleras. The first is Arauco, on the seacoast, where there is a small bay, a few leagues south of Talcahuana; San Pedro, on the south side of Biobio, opposite the town of Concepcion; Talcamavida, a small fort; Yumbel, a fortress, with a small, well built town; Mesavida, a fort; San Carlos, a town defended by a fort; Santa Barbara, a fortress, situated in the passage of the Cordilleras, by which the Indians called Pehuenches pass into Chili, to traffic with the Spaniards. The river Biobio was settled as the boundary of the Araucanians at the peace of Negrete. This river falls into the sea in 36 degrees 50 minutes south latitude.

The territory occupied by the warlike tribes of Araucania is divided into four provinces, which they call Meli Gualmaipu; it extends from 36 degrees 50 minutes south latitude, to the river Totten, in 39 degrees south latitude,

and from the Cordilleras de los Andes to the Pacific ocean. These provinces are divided by lines running north and south. The first, Languen Maipu, or the district of sea, is Araucania proper, and is inhabited only by that warlike nation. The Spanish fortresses of Arauco, San Pedro, Colcura, Tucapel, formerly stood in this district; they were all abandoned at the conclusion of the peace, except San Pedro. The bay of Arauco is a tolerable roadstead, and the port of Caruero, at the mouth of the river Canton, affords shelter to the shipping on the coast. A chain of mountains separates the district of Languen Maipu from that of Leibun Maipu, which occupies an extensive plain, extending from the base of the mountains, in a westwardly direction, to Yuapire Maipu. The only town, or rather fortress, which the Spaniards now possess in this district, is Santa Juana. They were driven from the ports of Millapoa, Santa Cruz de Coza; and evacuated the fortress of Purin, which was situated 15 leagues from the sea, and 40 leagues south of the Biobio. They were forced to abandon the city of Imperial, which they had built on the banks of the river Canten, about 12 leagues from the sea.

The district of *Yuapire Maipu* extends along the plain at the foot of the Andes. Nacimiento, Mallien, Corve, Chacayco, Quechireguas, and Guangua, were situated in this district. The Spaniards now occupy only the fortress Nacimiento, on the south side of the Biobio, between the rivers Bergara and Tubunlen. The missionary settlements on the river Malloa, and those on the Tolpague and Maguehue, have been abandoned.

The district of *Pive Outalmaipu* is situated in the Cordilleras de los Andes, and is inhabited by the Pehuenches, whose territory extends from the fortress of Santa Barbara, and occupies the valleys of the Cordilleras. This Outalmaipu formerly extended from the river Maule, and the Pehuenches occupied the passes of the Maule Longari. A few still remain about the sources of the rivers Retamel, Renogado, and Alico. They now chiefly reside in the valleys of Antuco, Vellacura, Cuinco, and about the sources of the river Totten.

The *Huilli Maipu* is the district of country south of the river Totten from the Andes to the sea. It includes the eastern valleys of the Cordilleras. The Huilliches divide this extensive Outalmaipu into four districts. The first is Totten, and extends from the south bank of that river to the river Valdivia, and from the eastern side of the Andes to the sea. The second district stretches along the coast from the river Valdivia to the archipelago of Chiloe. The inhabitants are called the tribe of Cuncos. The third district occupies the plains from the Cordilleras to the province of the Cuncos, and extends north and south from the river Valdivia to the river Sin Fondo, in 44 degrees south latitude. The inhabitants of this district are called Outa Huilliches. The last division extends south from the river Sin Fondo, as far as is known of the northern continent, and is inhabited by Huayguener. The Spanish authorities represent this country as thinly inhabited by a wandering, wretched, and barbarous people.

The town of *Villarica*, on the Totten, has been abandoned by the Spaniards; and the fort of San José de Mariguina was destroyed by the Indians.

The fort of *Cruseo*, on the river of the same name, is still occupied by the Spaniards.

There are three missionary settlements: one at Totten el Baxo, called San Francisco del Solano; one at Niebla; and one called San Antonio de Guanahue, on the south bank of the river Callacalla, or, as it is called by the Spaniards, the river Valdivia. There is a missionary settlement in the province of the Cuncos, and another twenty leagues to the east of the city of Valdivia, called Nuestra Señora de Pilar.

There are several lakes in these districts at the foot of the Andes. The river Valdivia takes its rise from the lake of Guanegue; Rio Bueno from the lake of Ranco. At the head of the lake which gives rise to the river Chico, there are warm sulphurous springs. Expeditions have been sent from Valdivia to explore the lakes of Puyegue and Llayguihue, and to discover the remaining inhabitants of Villarica and Osorno, who are reported to have taken refuge near these lakes after the destruction of their towns. These expeditions failed in their object. The last party ascended the volcano of Ribahanco, but gave no particular account of that mountain.

Mchuin is a roadstead, situated in 39 degrees 26 minutes south latitude, and 67 degrees 7 minutes 30 seconds longitude west of Cadiz. It is only frequented by small vessels, or by ships driven to leeward of Valdivia by the south wind. It is formed by the island of Silla and the point of Sembrados.

The island of *La Mocha* is separated from the continent by a channel six leagues wide. The centre of the island is in 38 degrees 22 minutes 25 seconds south latitude, and 67 degrees 45 minutes 30 seconds longitude west of Cadiz.

There are two anchorages on the coast of La Mocha: one near the southeast point, called the Anogadira, in six or seven fathoms; here there is a good landing; the other is near English creek, in thirteen fathoms water. This island affords an abundant supply of wood and water, and is well stocked with goats and horses.

The island of *Santa Maria* is separated from the continent by a channel 4,391 toises wide. The centre of the island lies in 37 degrees 3 minutes 41 seconds south latitude, and 67 degrees 22 minutes longitude west of Cadiz. There is a harbor on the north side of the island, and one on the south. The latter is the most secure, and possesses the advantage of a safe landing at the Punta de Aguada, where supplies may be obtained of water, wood, apples, quinces, celery, and sorrel.

The archipelago of *Chiloe*, with some inconsiderable settlements on the opposite shore, constitutes the province of Chiloe, which is attached to the viceroyalty of Lima. The Chilotes, as the inhabitants of this province are called, are of diminutive stature; and, as far as my observations extended, the cold, bleak climate of the southern hemisphere has the same effect on the growth of animals and plants as that of the north. The inhabitants subsist principally by fishing; they navigate these stormy seas in piraguas, boats of ten and fifteen tons, made of plank, bound together with twisted fibres, and the seams pitched over. The robal abounds in the bays and harbors; it is salted, and sent to Lima. They manufacture excellent camlets, coarse woollen stuffs and ponchos, which they dye with a great variety of colors. Their principal trade is in boards and lumber, which they send to Lima, and receive fossil salt, brandy, herb of Paraguay, sugar, and dry goods.

The city of *Valdivia* is situated on the south bank of the river Valdivia, about five leagues from the sea. It was founded by Don Pedro de Valdivia in 1552, and was destroyed by the Araucanians in 1599. In the year 1689 the Dutch landed at this place, and attempted to rebuild the town; but the decided hostility of the natives forced them to abandon their purpose. The ensuing year a Spanish squadron, which had been fitted out to expel the Dutch, entered the bay of Valdivia. The town was rebuilt and fortified. It is now a frontier fortress, and is the presidio for criminals, who are transported here from Peru and Chili. It was attached to the presidency of Chili, from whence it received an annual supply of money, clothing, and provisions. An annual ship supplied the inhabitants with sugar, the herb of Paraguay, brandy, and dry goods, and carried off boards and lumber. The settlements are extended to Rio Bueno, where they pasture some cattle and raise vegetables.

The port of Valdivia is situated in 39 degrees 49 minutes 17 seconds south latitude, and 67 degrees 19 minutes 15 seconds longitude west of Cadiz. The entrance is well fortified. The bay of Corral is the best anchoring ground.

Osorno was founded by Don Garcia, while governor of Valdivia. It is situated in the Huilli Maipu, in 41 degrees south latitude, six leagues south of Rio Bueno, and on the banks of the river Canogas. This town was destroyed by the Indians; and the towns of Carel Maipu and Calbuco were founded by the fugitives. Osorno was rebuilt in 1796 by the Captain General O'Higgins, and is now a flourishing settlement. The town of San José de Alcudia was built at the same time, in the plains of Molino, on the north bank of Rio Bueno, about ten leagues from Osorno.

A road was opened from Valdivia to the archipelago of Chiloe, by the garrison of Valdivia and a party of Indians. They began at Raygue, and in a little more than three months completed the road to the fort of Maullin, the last Spanish settlement on the continent to the south, and situated opposite the north point of the island of Chiloe. The island of Caylin, in 43 degrees 34 minutes south latitude, opposite the lofty peak of the Corcobado, is inhabited by some few Spanish descendants.

The river of *La Plata*, called by the natives Parana Quasu, (Great Parana,) was discovered by the Spaniards, under the conduct of Don Juan Dias de Solis, in the year 1516.*

The earliest establishment appears to have been made on its shores in 1526, by Sebastian Cabot, a Venetian navigator in the service of Spain; and the town of Buenos Ayres to have been first settled in 1535, by Don Pedro de Mendoza. After being twice destroyed by the Indians, it was rebuilt in 1580, and has flourished since that period. Buenos Ayres was at first annexed to the Government of Paraguay, and afterwards made dependent upon the viceroyalty of Lima and the audiencia of Charcas. In the year 1776 the provinces of Buenos Ayres, Paraguay, and Cuyo were united under the government of a viceroy. In 1778 the provinces of Upper Peru were added to the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres. It extended on the north to the frontiers of the Brazils, and to the viceroyalty of Lima, where it bounded on the provinces of Carabaya, Cuzco, and Chucuito, and westwardly on the river Desaguadero and the province of Arica. It included the district of Atacama, which extends along the Pacific ocean from Arica to the desert of Atacama. On the west it was separated from Chili by the Cordilleras de los Andes, and extended south to the straits of Magellan.

By the decree of 1778 this viceroyalty was divided into eight intendencias; each intendencia was subdivided into partidos or districts.

The intendancy of *Buenos Ayres* includes the town of Santa Fé, situated between the river Salado and the Parana, in 31 degrees 46 minutes south latitude. Corrientes, situated on the east side of the Parana, near its junction with the Paraguay, in 27 degrees 33 minutes south latitude. The military government of Montevideo, situated on the northeast shore of the river of La Plata, in 34 degrees 54 minutes 48 seconds south latitude, and in 56 degrees 9 minutes 15 seconds longitude west of Greenwich. The territory of the eastern shore of Uruguay, or Banda Oriental, together with the thirty towns of Guanani missions on the river Uruguay, which formerly belonged to the Jesuits, and the territory of the Rio Negro, in Patagonia, which is occupied by a chain of military posts extending from Luxan to the port of Rio Negro. Buenos Ayres, the capital, is situated in 34 degrees 25 minutes 26 seconds south latitude, and in 58 degrees 31 minutes 13 seconds west longitude. It is the see of a bishop, and includes thirty-four curacies.

The principal articles of export from Buenos Ayres are hides, tallow, horns, skins, bark, vacuna wool, copper, and the precious metals. Buenos Ayres is supplied with salt, from the salt lakes in Patagonia, by annual caravans.

The intendancy of *Paraguay* extends on the north and eastern bank of the river Paraguay to the river Corrientes, which falls into the Paraguay, and to the mouth of the Jaura, in 16 degrees 34 minutes 22 seconds south latitude; on the east to the Brazils; on the south to the river Parana, from its confluence with the Paraguay to the river Guasupraro, which falls into it a little to the west of the town of Candelaria; thence the line runs to the mountains of Santa Ana, including the towns of Candelaria, Santa Ana, Loreto, San Ignacio Mini, and Corpus. This intendancy embraces the districts of Candelaria, Santiago, Villarica, Curuguati, and Villareal. Paraguay is the see of a bishop, and includes twelve vicarages. The exports from this intendancy are sugar, cotton, tobacco, and the herb of Paraguay, commonly called matte, from the calabash in which it is served. The two last are the principal articles.

The capital town, Assumption, is situated in 25 degrees 16 minutes 46 seconds south latitude.

The intendancy of *Cordova* extends to the district of Tucuman on the north, west to the intendancy of Buenos Ayres, and on the east is bounded by Paraguay. It includes the districts of Mendoza, San Juan, San Luis, and Rioja.

The town of Cordova is the capital, and is situated in 31 degrees 15 minutes south latitude. Mendoza is situated on a river of the same name, at the foot of the Cordilleras, in 33 degrees 31 minutes 17 seconds south latitude. The principal articles exported from this intendancy are grain, fruits, wine, and brandy. The bishopric of Cordova includes 8 vicarages.

The intendancy of *Salta* extends on the north to the district of Tarija in Potosi, on the south to Cordova, west to the Cordilleras, and east to the Grand Chaco. The districts of this intendancy are Tucuman, Santiago del Estero, Catamarca, Jujuy, Nueva-Ovan, and Puna. Salta, the capital, is situated in 24 degrees 30 minutes south latitude.

San Miguel, the chief town of the district of Tucuman, is situated in 27 degrees 10 minutes south. The principal trade of this intendancy consists of horses and mules.

The intendancy of *Potosi* extends on the north to the districts of Yamparaes and Tomina, in Charcas; south to the district of Jujuy, in Salta; it reaches west to the Pacific ocean, and is bounded on the east by Cochabamba. The districts of this intendancy are Porco, Chayanta, Chicas, Tarija, Lipes, and Atacama, which last is separated from the province of Arica by the river Loa, and from Chili by the desert of Atacama. The precious metals constitute the principal exports from this intendancy.

Potosi, the capital town, is situated on the north side of the celebrated mountain of that name, in 19 degrees 50 minutes south latitude, and 66 degrees 16 minutes west longitude. From the year 1736 to 1800, the tenths from the produce of the mines in Potosi amounted to \$18,618,917.

The intendancy of *Charcas*, sometimes called the presidency of Charcas, from being the seat of a royal audiencia, or supreme court, extends north to the intendancy of La Paz, south to Potosi, west to the Desaguadero, and east to the intendancy of Cochabamba. This intendancy comprehends the districts of Yamparaes, Tomina, Pelaya, and Oruro. Charcas is an archbishopric, and contains fourteen vicarages.

* The Portuguese claim the northern shore of the river La Plata by right of discovery, and the Spanish authors are so very contradictory in their dates of the first voyage to that river as to make it doubtful to an impartial reader. They generally agree that the gold and silver which Sebastian Cabot procured from the Guanani Indians, in the year 1526, had been taken from some Portuguese adventurers who were returning from Peru; and that in 1535 Pedro de Mendoza found a party of Portuguese on the northern shore of the La Plata. The Portuguese accounts attribute the first discovery and settlement of that territory to their countrymen, Alexis and Diego Gavica. In the year 1680 the Portuguese formed a settlement on the northern shore of the river, and erected the fort of Colonia del Sacramento directly opposite Buenos Ayres; the same year they were driven out of it by the Spaniards, but it was restored by the provisional treaty of 1681. In 1705 Colonia was again wrested from the Portuguese, and was restored to them by the peace of Utrecht, in 1715; whereas Montevideo and Maldonado were not settled by the Spaniards until the year 1724. Colonia was besieged and taken by the Spaniards in 1762, but was again given up by the treaty of Paris of 1763. The Portuguese were not entirely driven from their possession on the northern shore of the river until the year 1777, and the right of territory has remained a subject of dispute ever since. Commissioners have been appointed, and have frequently met, but have not been able to settle the claims of their respective courts. To the long residence of one of these unsuccessful commissioners, Azara, we owe an excellent work on the zoology of these countries.

The capital, *Chuquisaca*, called also *La Plata*, is situated in 19 degrees 25 minutes. This intendency abounds in minerals, salt, sulphur, &c.

The intendency of *La Paz* extends north to the provinces of *Carabaya* and *Cuzco*, in the viceroyalty of *Lima*, south to *Charcas*, west to the provinces of *Chucuito* and *Arica*, and on the east is bounded by the government of *Moxos* and the intendency of *Cochabamba*. The districts of this intendency are *Sicarica*, *Pacages*, *Omasuyos*, (to which is annexed the island of *Titicaca*, in the lake of *Chucuito*), *Laricaxa*, *Chulumani*, and *Apolabamba*. The bishopric of *La Paz* comprehends thirteen vicarages.

La Paz, the capital of the intendency, is situated in 16 degrees 50 minutes south latitude. The chief produce is the Peruvian bark and an herb called *cocoa*, which the Indians and creoles chew, and are very fond of. It is an article of export to the other provinces.

The intendency of *Cochabamba* extends on the north to the Government of *Moxos*, south it is bounded by the intendencies of *Charcas* and *Potosi*, west by *Charcas* and *La Paz*, and east by the river *Paripiti*, which separates it from the government of *Chiquitos*. The districts of this intendency are *Santa Cruz de la Sierra*, *Valle Grande*, *Mezque*, *Elisa*, *Arque*, *Tapacari*, *Hayopaya*, and *Sacaba*. The bishopric of *Santa Cruz de la Sierra* comprehends three vicarages and four curacies. *Cochabamba* is the most fertile of all the intendencies, and is called the granary of Upper Peru. *Orepesa*, the capital, is situated in 17 degrees 2 minutes south latitude.

The military government of *Chiquitos* extends north to the mountains of *Tapacures*, which divide it from *Moxos*; south to the mountains of *Zamucas*; west to the district of *Santa Cruz de la Sierra*; and is bounded on the east by the lake *Xarayes*. This government is inhabited principally by Indians. There are some missionary settlements among them.

The military government of *Moxos* is very extensive. Separated from *Cochabamba* by the *Cordilleras*, it extends south to *Chiquitos*, and east to the frontiers of the Brazils. It is divided into three districts—*Moxos*, *Baures*, and *Pampas*; and is inhabited by the tribes of *Raches*, *Sirionos*, *Solostros*, and *Juracares*, among whom are some missionary settlements.

There are several small harbors and roadsteads in the river of *La Plata*. *Maldonado*, situated on the north shore, is not far from the capes, and is said to be the best part of the river. The next, the port of *Montevideo*, is exposed to the southwest winds, which sweep over the plains of *Buenos Ayres*, and blow with incredible violence.

There are several inconsiderable roadsteads between *Montevideo* and the *Ensenada de Barragan*, the first good harbor on the southwestern shore of the river. This port is easy of access, and is protected on every side. The only objection to ships lying there, in preference to the insecure roadstead opposite the town of *Buenos Ayres*, is the low swampy land which surrounds *Barragan*, and renders the roads always bad, and in the winter almost impassable. There was a deduction of four and a half per cent. from the duties on goods landed at this port, in order to defray the expense of transportation to *Buenos Ayres*.

There is a small stream about two miles below *Buenos Ayres* which is navigable to *Baraceas*. From hence lighters convey the cargoes to the outer roads.

The entrance of this creek is obstructed by a bar, and, during the prevalence of westerly winds, there is not water enough for the lighters to pass. This circumstance often occasions great detention in loading.

The tides extend a great distance up the river, but their duration depends upon the winds. Indeed, the currents are so very uncertain, and run with such rapidity, that it is advisable to heave the log with a lead attached to the line.

The city of *Buenos Ayres* is built on the south shore of the river, and extends along the bank nearly three miles. The streets intersect each other at right angles, dividing the town into solid squares of one hundred and fifty yards each. The houses are generally two stories high, and are built with terrace roofs. The city is defended by a fort, and is ornamented by convents, nunneries, churches, and the buildings formerly appropriated to the royal monopolies. The population of *Buenos Ayres* and of the adjacent country was estimated at about 70,000 souls.

The climate is healthy and temperate. The northerly winds, when moderate, last for several days, and have the effect of the *sirocco* on the feelings. When violent, this wind seldom lasts longer than twenty-four hours, shifting to the south and southeast, with rain and thunder. These storms are invariably terminated by a *pampero*, or southwest wind. The west and west-northwest winds blow with great violence, but are not frequent. During the prevalence of the southwesterly winds the atmosphere is remarkably dry, and the electric fluid acquires very great activity. On passing the low ridge which skirts the river, the eye extends over an immense plain, spotted with a few settlements and enclosures of the cylindrical *opuntia*, which attains a great height in this climate. Orchards of peach trees are cultivated to supply the town with fuel. The trees are planted very close to each other, and are kept low, so as to resist the force of the winds, which tear up larger trees.

The uncultivated plains in the vicinity of the city are overgrown with the wild *artichoke*. This wood grows with such luxuriance that, in the great scarcity of fuel, it is used to heat stoves and ovens.

These plains or *pampas* extend one hundred and sixty leagues in a west course from *Buenos Ayres*. They resemble very much the steppes of the south of Russia. Both exhibit the same boundless, unbroken expanse, the same fertility of soil during the rainy season, and dry, parched appearance in the heat of summer; the total absence of trees; the streams slow, flowing with a sluggish current, and brackish to the taste; the lakes and ponds of both incrustated with salt: this mineral efflorescence on the surface of the soil in some places giving it the appearance of being covered by a hoar frost. The character of the inhabitants adds to the resemblance. The *Querandis*, or Indians of the *pampas*, are *Nomades*, living in temporary huts and tents on the borders of the rivers; and, when they have exhausted the pasture on one spot, roving with their herds and flocks to where it is abundant. The small deer of the *pampas* resembles the antelope of the steppes, and the spur-winged *thegel* is common to both. On these plains animal putrefaction scarcely goes on at all. On the borders of the rivers, and in low, wet places, the entrails of animals putrefy, but on the high land animal substances will dry up. This is the case in some parts of Spain and Portugal; but at *Buenos Ayres*, where fuel is so scarce, this drying quality in the air enables the inhabitants to burn in their furnaces and kilns the flesh and bones of animals. Sheep were formerly dried, stacked, and sold at two dollars and a half the hundred for these purposes.

From the mildness of the climate, and the abundant pasturo afforded by the extensive plains of *Buenos Ayres*, the cattle originally brought from Spain have become so numerous that they furnish the chief support of the inhabitants; this is, perhaps, the cause of the miserable state of the interior of this country. It is not uncommon to see a proprietor of a league square of land owning several thousand heads of cattle, and sheep, and horses, living in a miserable hut, and having the bare necessaries of life. His house is covered with hides; his furniture is made of the same materials. His yard is enclosed by a few stakes, bound together with thongs; and he may be seen, with his herdsmen, seated by a fire, cutting off slices of beef from a spit stuck in the ground, and eating it without bread or salt.

In the vicinity of *Buenos Ayres* there are some very productive farms; and wheat and corn are raised in great abundance by simply scratching the ground with a wooden plough, and harrowing in the grain by drawing over it

a hide filled with earth. Even in the centre of the plains there are some spots cultivated in grain, but the distance from a market prevents their raising more than sufficient for their own consumption. The eastern shore of the river of the Uruguay, including the shore of La Plata, abounds with cattle, and most of the inhabitants are shepherds; where the land is cultivated, it has been found very productive, and this territory was the most valuable of the intendency of Buenos Ayres. Paraguay is an agricultural province, and the domestic manufactures supply all the wants of the inhabitants. The effects of the government of the Jesuits are still felt in this country. The people generally receive the rudiments of education, and are very subordinate to their leaders. They were organized into regiments of militia, and it is said that Paraguay can bring into the field upwards of 40,000 men. Many of the provinces of Upper Peru possess mines, and the population is divided between the wealthy proprietors, the speculators, and those who work in the mines; and here is to be found all the corruption and misery which are inseparable from this species of gambling.

Cochabamba and some other provinces are agricultural, and the inhabitants are active and intelligent. During the time Upper Peru was in the power of the royalists, the spirit of the revolution has been kept up in these provinces by the guerrillas of Cochabamba.

In the city of Buenos Ayres property is equally divided; there are no very large proprietors, no entailed estates, and but little property in mortmain; the inhabitants are generally well informed, and their intercourse with foreigners has given them habits of industry.

There is very little mixture of blood in Buenos Ayres, and there are only three castes—the creoles, Indians, and negroes. Notwithstanding this port was for some time the entrepot of the African trade, very few slaves remained at Buenos Ayres, and the Government has been able to emancipate them without any serious injury to society.

Previous to the late revolution, the means of education were withheld from the creoles. It is true that there were colleges at Cordova, Chuquisaca, and Santiago de Chili, where the student was taught Latin,* law, and theology; but they were prohibited from reading any book that could enlarge their views, or give them an idea of their civil or political rights. Every work that bore the stamp of genius was prohibited by the inquisition.

It was considered sinful to read any book marked with the censure of the church, and was deemed an act of piety to denounce any one who was known to possess such a work.

When this restraint was removed, they read eagerly the theories of speculative politicians, and the controversies and attacks on the Christian religion, published at the commencement of the French revolution; they saw the monstrous absurdity of the doctrines which had been taught them, and they too often stopped there, and became sceptics in religion, and in politics wild and theoretical; their legislators were ignorant of the principles of political economy, and the common maxims of the science of legislation.

In the first Government, the executive and legislative powers were vested in the deputies of Buenos Ayres; next, in an assembly of all the deputies from the chief towns. This assembly transferred their executive powers to a Junta of three, and styled themselves the Sovereign Assembly, declaring the executive and magistrates subordinate to them; the executive refused to acknowledge their sovereignty, and published an estatuto or provisional constitution. By this constitution, one member of the executive resigned his office at the expiration of every six months, and no one could act as president for a longer period. The new members were to be elected by an assembly composed of the municipality of the representatives of the towns, and of a considerable number of citizens elected by the people of the capital, according to the manner to be hereafter prescribed by this Government. The Government formed a high court of appeal; they decreed the liberty of the press, and the security of individuals from illegal arrest. These decrees have been renewed by each successive Government; but the people of these countries never have enjoyed the freedom of the press or individual security. This Junta took the title of the Superior Provisional Government of the United Provinces of the river of La Plata, in the name of Ferdinand VII. Pamphlet No. 1 contains the constitution and the decrees. Shortly after this estatuto was published, the assembly was dissolved; after dissolving another assembly, this Government was abolished, and a Supreme Director chosen. The Congress afterwards assembled and confirmed this form of government; and the same men who voted to deprive the president of the first Junta of all distinctions, and whose fears were excited by his having an escort of twenty-five dragoons, have vested the Supreme Director with regal power, and have given him a guard of three hundred select cavalry.

In all these changes the people have borne but little part. In a capital containing upwards of 50,000 inhabitants, not more than five or six hundred have ever voted; and the town meetings which generally decided the change of rulers, and often the form of government, were rarely composed of more than two or three hundred, sometimes of less than one hundred persons. Since the commencement of the revolution, there has been a constant struggle for power between the capital and the provinces.

Buenos Ayres has hitherto maintained the ascendancy, from the superior intelligence of the inhabitants, and from having within itself the means of carrying on the war. The duties on imports and exports furnish the principal resources of the Government, and the leaders of the revolution are for the most part citizens of Buenos Ayres. The provinces are governed by a commander appointed by the executive of Buenos Ayres. Paraguay first revolted from this dependence on the capital, and, from the commencement of the revolution to the present day, has been governed by its own chiefs; they are not at war with Buenos Ayres, but have no connexion nor hold any communication with that Government. They, too, have tried a great many political experiments, and their present form of government is copied from the ancient Roman; it consists of a senate and two consuls. Francia, the principal leader in the revolution, is said to govern that country despotically. As in Buenos Ayres, the constitutional restrictions have been found a feeble check to the arbitrary exercise of military power.

The inhabitants of the eastern shore of La Plata have refused to submit to the capital, and have successfully opposed the arms and negotiations of Buenos Ayres; their character is represented as turbulent and daring, but they are warlike and enthusiastically attached to their leader, Artigas, who contends for independence, both from the Government of Spain and from that of Buenos Ayres. No Government has ever been organized on the territory of the eastern shore, owing to the dissensions between the capital and the provinces. The people of Peru have not taken a very active part in the revolution, and many creoles were to be found in the royal armies; the influence of the clergy contributed for some time to this state of things. By the Spanish laws, the high offices in the convent were divided alternately between the European and the creole monks. The church being the only road to preferment open to the creoles, they crowded into it; but this alternative balanced their influence. The European monks sent from Spain were chosen from amongst the most zealous and intelligent, and from the pulpit and in the confessional chair successfully inculcated the doctrines of divine right, and of unqualified submission to the King, and, above all, of implicit belief in the infallibility of the clergy.

* The practice of the law in these countries was not, as in the United States, an open appeal to impartial justice, but the art of multiplying acts and procrastinating a suit until the favor of the judge was secured by bribery or influence.

The Government of Buenos Ayres abolished the alternative, and banished some of the most intolerant of the European monks and clergy. The creoles who have taken orders are enthusiastic in favor of the revolution, and have been highly useful to that cause in the interior provinces. The influence of the clergy in the city of Buenos Ayres appears to be at an end. The condition of the people of Chili is different from that of any other of the Spanish colonies; the country is, for the most part, in the hands of large proprietors, who let out their lands to tenants upon the conditions of personal service, and of the payment of a moderate rent in produce. As the landlord may, at will, drive the tenant from his farm, or augment the rent, according to the increased value, the farmers are deterred from improving their houses or land, and content themselves with raising what is necessary to pay the landlord and to subsist their families. Most of the large estates are grazing farms, and the personal services of the tenants consist principally in tending the cattle. They are expected, however, at all times to be ready to obey the orders of their landlord. Many of these estates are entailed, and all of them incumbered with some legacy to the church. More than half the property in Chili is in mortmain. With few exceptions, the clergy have been opposed to the revolutions in each of the districts. In Chili there is a regiment of militia cavalry, well mounted, and armed with lances. These regiments are under the control of the colonel, and have, in every instance, followed him to the field, and fought for the cause he espoused. Unfortunately, this country has been divided into violent and irreconcilable factions by two powerful families, the Carreras and Larrains, both equally anxious to liberate their country from the yoke of Spain, and both using every means in their power to obtain the command.

In Lima there has been no revolutionary movement. The landed estates are in the hands of large proprietors, and are cultivated by slaves. They are fearful that any attempt to change the form of government would be attended by a loss of their property; and, from the great number of blacks and mulattoes in this viceroyalty, the contest would probably terminate in the same manner as the revolution of St. Domingo.

Buenos Ayres and Chili have been virtually independent for the last eight years, and the effect upon the character and condition of the people has been highly beneficial. The human mind appears to have risen with elasticity from the weight of tyranny which had so long oppressed it, and to have improved rapidly in the arts, in knowledge, and in all the comforts and enjoyments of life. These are benefits which will not be surrendered without a desperate struggle. Their forces are numerous, well organized and disciplined, and, were the provinces united, they possess the means of defending themselves against the efforts both of Spain and Portugal. Their dissensions and ambition render them, in the opinion of some, unworthy to be free; but let us recollect that the virtues which adorn society and brighten the page of history are the offspring of freedom and science, and that, when a people have been for centuries kept in subjection by ignorance and superstition, the first effort to burst their fetters will call into action the most violent of the human passions, and hurry men to commit the greatest excesses. The course of such a revolution will be too often stained by cruelties and crimes, and will almost inevitably terminate in a military despotism. From the mild and intelligent character of the creoles of South America, there is every reason to hope that, when emancipated from Spain, and relieved from these present difficulties, they will follow the bright example of the United States, and establish a government of laws.

From the year 1580, when the city of Buenos Ayres was permanently settled, until the year 1778, the history of these countries comprises only a series of domestic vexations from the despotism of viceroys, of privations from monopolies and commercial restrictions, and of sufferings from wars foreign to their interests. In the year 1778 the Indians of the provinces of Upper Peru made an ineffectual attempt to shake off the Spanish yoke. They assembled in great force, and, under the command of Tupac Amaru, a descendant of the Incas of Peru, plundered and destroyed a great many small towns. They twice laid siege to the city of La Paz, but, being without fire-arms, or ignorant of the use of them, they were repulsed with great loss. After a hopeless contest of three years, they were defeated by the combined armies of Buenos Ayres and Lima. Tupac Amaru, who had been proclaimed Inca, fell into the hands of the conquerors, and, together with the principal leaders of the revolt, was put to death with the most cruel torments. This decisive action put an end to the insurrections of the Indians of Peru, and these colonies remained tranquil until the sudden invasion of the English in 1806.

Sir Home Popham, aware of the disposition of his Government to obtain a footing in the Spanish colonies, and well informed of the defenceless state of Buenos Ayres, determined to make an attack upon that city. Instead of returning direct to England from the Cape of Good Hope, he entered the river La Plata; and, to the astonishment and consternation of the inhabitants, General Beresford landed a few miles below the city of Buenos Ayres, with two thousand men. The viceroy, Sobremonte, was panic struck; arms were distributed to the militia, who, ignorant of their use, ran out without order to look at the enemy, and General Beresford marched into the city, and took possession of the citadel without opposition. Don Juan Martin Pueyrredon was the only officer who, at the head of a company of hussars, harassed the enemy's march.

Sir Home Popham returned to England with the fleet, and General Beresford did every thing that could be expected from a brave and generous commander to reconcile the inhabitants, and to secure his conquest. These officers had calculated only the facility of surprising the town, and had overlooked the difficulty of keeping possession of an enemy's country with a small force, at so great a distance from their resources. The inhabitants were irreconcilably opposed to the British. The Chevalier de Liniers, a French emigrant in the service of Spain, passed over to the eastern shore of the river, and excited the inhabitants to arms; and the viceroy, who had fled to Montevideo, assembled a small force, the command of which was given to Liniers; he crossed the river, and was joined by all the inhabitants of Buenos Ayres who could escape the vigilance of the British sentinels.

The English commander, being summoned to surrender the town, signified his determination to defend himself to the last extremity. General Liniers, at the head of his regular forces, immediately commenced the attack, and soon drove the garrison into the fort, where they were forced to capitulate.

The British general officers were sent on their parole to Luxan, a small town twelve leagues from Buenos Ayres, and the rest of the prisoners were marched into the interior.

The emancipation of the Spanish colonies appears to have been a favorite project of Mr. Pitt. The ex-Jesuit Don Juan Pablo Viscardi Gusman, a native of Arequipa, and an enthusiast in favor of the liberty of America, had frequent conferences with that minister, and, in his answers to a series of inquiries presented to him, gave a favorable view of the facility with which a revolution might be effected in that country. He afterwards published in London an eloquent appeal to his countrymen, exhorting them to shake off the yoke of Spain. During the administration of Mr. Adams, some proposals on this subject are said to have been made to our Government by the British ministry, which were not acceded to. In 1797, a disposition to emancipate their country was manifested by the inhabitants of the Caraccas, and was encouraged by General Picton's proclamation, issued from the island of Trinidad.

In 1801, Mr. Pitt's eagerness to open this market to the trade of Great Britain induced him to aid the untimely and ill-planned expedition of Miranda; and it appeared at the trial of Sir Home Popham that the administration had countenanced the attack on Buenos Ayres.

From the little opposition experienced by the British troops on this expedition, and from the facility with which Buenos Ayres had been occupied, the plan of emancipating these colonies appears to have been relinquished, and the conquest of all the Spanish possessions in America determined upon by the British cabinet. This change of policy may be inferred from comparing the proclamation of Sir Thomas Picton, published at Trinidad by order of Mr. Dundas, minister of His Britannic Majesty for Foreign Affairs, dated 26th of June, 1797; and the instructions given in 1807 to Generals Whitlocke and Crawford. The former encourages the inhabitants "to resist the oppressive authority of their Government;" and declares that "they may be certain, whenever they are in that disposition, to receive all the succors to be expected from His Britannic Majesty, be it with forces or with arms and ammunition, to any extent; with the assurance that the views of His Britannic Majesty go no further than to secure to them their independence, without pretending to any sovereignty over their country, nor even to interfere in the privileges of the people, nor in their political, civil, or religious rights."

The instructions of the right honorable Mr. Windham, Secretary at War, to Generals Whitlocke and Crawford, were in a different spirit. The first was to proceed with the forces under his command to the river of Plate, and to take possession of Buenos Ayres in the name and behalf of His Britannic Majesty. He is ordered not to introduce into the Government any alteration, except in the appointment of individuals, whose change should be found necessary; nor to give any assurance that they shall not be given up to Spain at the conclusion of the present war.

General Crawford was to proceed to the river La Plata, subject to the orders of General Whitlocke. Thence, as it was supposed that his forces would not be required after the reduction of Buenos Ayres, he was directed to pass round Cape Horn, and take possession of Valparaiso. He is ordered to *discourage all hopes of any other change in the condition of these countries than that of transferring their dominion to the Crown of Great Britain.*

The generals on the Atlantic and Pacific are instructed to establish a line of military posts across the continent. Their operations are limited strictly to these points, whatever prospects of easy conquest may be held out from the defenceless state of Peru, as an untimely movement might defeat the ulterior operations intended against those countries. These instructions are to be found among the official documents annexed to the report of General Whitlocke's trial, published in 1808.

The following extracts from General Whitlocke's defence will show the effect of this policy upon the inhabitants of Buenos Ayres, and will give the opinion of the commanders of that expedition, with respect to the means of defence:

"It was known that the people were divided into factions, and that various causes had rendered a large proportion of the inhabitants ripe for revolt; and great numbers were anxiously looking to a separation from their mother country as the only means of availing themselves of the natural advantages of their local situation. It was therefore naturally concluded that people who feel themselves oppressed rather than protected, as excluded, by restrictions founded upon a narrow and selfish policy, from many commercial advantages, would gladly change their government; and if it were once established in a military post in the country, the above causes would make it easy to open an extensive intercourse with the inhabitants, and new channels for trade and commerce.

"It was supposed that the character of this country* for liberality and good conduct towards those who came under our dominion insured us the good wishes of the greater part, and the co-operation of a large proportion, at least, of the community. The public hopes and expectations were raised to the highest pitch, and no suspicion existed that it was possible for the greatest part of the population of South America to entertain any other than a just feeling of attachment to our Government; still less that it was possible that such a rooted antipathy could exist against us as to justify the assertion (the truth of which has been proved to demonstration) that we had not, when I arrived in South America, among the inhabitants, one single friend in the whole country. Whether the opinion of the illustrious statesman,† now no more, who had so frequently turned his thoughts towards South America, had led him to contemplate the propriety of establishing military posts there, or the co-operating only with those who would gladly have followed the example of North America, and availed themselves of our assistance in establishing their independence, I have no means of knowing; but experience has shown that any other course of proceeding than that last mentioned, even if most successful, and almost in proportion to success, must have had the effect of placing us at a greater distance than ever from our ultimate objects, those of friendly intercourse and trade with the country.

"It is supposed in my instructions, that, after effecting my first object, I might safely part with a proportion of the force under my command, and retain only about eight thousand, which, it was supposed, must, in any case, in addition to such troops as I might raise in the country, be amply sufficient to conquer and keep possession of the country; for such had been the misrepresentations to Government upon this subject, that it was supposed that a considerable force of this description might with safety be established. I was directed, as the court will have observed, to use precaution as to the raising of this local force, and particularly to take care that one-third of each rank of officers should be British, and to select the description and classes out of which it was to be framed; but, subject to these precautions, it was conceived, and so stated in my instructions, that much aid might be derived from this source towards securing His Majesty's possessions in that quarter, and avoiding, at the same time, the necessity of too large a demand on the regular forces of this country, (I use the very words of the instructions.) Such, as the court will have seen, was the impression in this country on my appointment to the command.

"What was the actual situation of the country on my arrival?

"I naturally resorted to the very able and experienced officer who commanded at Montevideo, and who had diligently employed himself in acquiring every possible information upon this subject. I found that, in the course of his operations against Montevideo, and after its capture, he had every reason to believe that the people were, without exception, inimical to us; that, previous to the surrender of Montevideo, he could place no confidence in any information he received; and that, after its capture, a sullen silence pervaded every rank. But he also found reason to believe that, however inimical they were to us, they were still more so to their present Government; for, upon reports arriving at Montevideo, which afterwards proved false, of the abolition of the court of audiencia, the setting aside of the King's authority, and not hoisting the Spanish colors, those who had appeared hostile and inveterate now pressed him to advance a corps to Buenos Ayres, and assured him that, if he would acknowledge their independence, and promise them the protection of the English Government, the place would submit.

"The party in power were mostly all natives of Spain, in the principal offices of church and state, and devoted to the Spanish Government. The second party consisted of natives of the country, with some Spaniards settled in it. The disposition of the mother country had made them most anxious to shake off the Spanish yoke; and though, from their ignorance, their want of morals, and the barbarity of their dispositions, they were totally unfit to govern themselves, they aimed at following the steps of the North Americans, and erecting an independent state. If we would promise them independence, they would instantly revolt against the Government, and join us with the great mass of the inhabitants. The next consideration was our giving up the footing we had in South America. On this

* Great Britain.

† Mr. Pitt.

subject many important considerations presented themselves. First, the situation of the country and the nature of our instructions. It was supposed, from the information received by Government, that the country would be conquered and kept in subjection by eight thousand troops, which was considered as a large force; but the information received by Government upon this subject must have been founded in ignorance of the true state of the country. I found, on my arrival, that the resistance we should have to contend with far exceeded every calculation; not a single friend had we in the country; on the contrary, every inhabitant was determined to exert his individual strength. Upon this subject I rely upon the experience of Sir Samuel Auchmuty, who stated that *double the number of troops* I have mentioned would be required to *conquer and keep possession of the country.*" On the return of the Viceroy Sobremonte from Montevideo, the people refused to receive him, and wished to proclaim Liniers. That officer appeased the tumult, and reinstated Sobremonte in his command. The Cabildo, however, deposed him as soon as they heard of the approach of another British expedition, and gave the command to Liniers. They then despatched a deputation to Spain, in consequence of which Sobremonte was recalled, and Don Santiago Liniers appointed Viceroy of La Plata.

The advanced guard of the second expedition, under the command of Sir Samuel Auchmuty, landed on the eastern shore of the river La Plata, and laid siege to Montevideo. Soon after, batteries were opened, a breach was made, and the place taken by assault. The main body, under General Whitlocke, arrived in the river Plate on the 9th of May, 1807, and, after remaining at Montevideo until the arrival of General Crawford's division, the British army proceeded up to Buenos Ayres; General Whitlocke, following the example of General Beresford, landed his troops below the town, and experienced incredible difficulty in the transportation of his artillery over the low swampy lands which skirt the borders of the river.

The country people were decidedly hostile, and none could be prevailed upon to serve as guides, or to procure cattle for the army. The columns mistook the road, and the men were almost famished when they arrived before the town. The want of proper accommodations for his troops, and the dread of the rainy season, induced General Whitlocke to order an immediate attack. During the march of the British troops from Ensenada, the inhabitants of Buenos Ayres recovered from their first panic; and dispositions were made to defend the town by cutting ditches across the principal streets, placing the militia on the flat roofs, and securing the entrance of the houses.

Sir Samuel Auchmuty, who commanded one column of attack, entered the upper part of the town, and, after a sanguinary conflict, drove the Spaniards from the square, and took possession of the Plaza de Toros, a large circular building, where the bull fights are held. This position commands the whole town. General Crawford led the column which entered the lower part of the town. He met with little opposition until he had advanced within a few hundred yards of the fort; suddenly a tremendous fire was opened upon the column from the windows. Bombs and grenades were showered down upon the ranks from the roofs of the houses; without petaras, scaling ladders, or even axes, the troops in vain endeavored to break open the doors; and General Crawford, after losing half his force, without being able to make any effectual resistance, retreated into a large church, where he defended himself for some time. The church was exposed to the fire of the fort, and he was at length compelled to surrender at discretion. This decided the fate of the expedition.

General Whitlocke was informed of the capture of General Crawford's columns, and it was intimated to him that, if the attack continued, it would be impossible to protect the prisoners from the rage of the people. Finding that the object of the Government could not be accomplished, he entered into a treaty with Liniers, by which he agreed to evacuate Montevideo, and the territory of the river La Plata, provided he was permitted to re-embark his troops. These conditions were immediately conceded, and the British forces abandoned the shores of La Plata.

The expedition under General Whitlocke, assisted by the disposition of the people, might have secured the emancipation of these colonies, but was not adequate to transfer their dominion to the Crown of Great Britain.

The revolution in Spain changed the destination of a still more formidable expedition fitted out by Great Britain, and intended for the final conquest of these colonies. Monsieur de Chasne, an emissary of Napoleon, arrived in Buenos Ayres in 1808. The viceroy, Liniers, laid his despatches before the audiencia and the Cabildo, and Mons. de Chasne was sent off. He afterwards fell into the hands of General Elio; and, after experiencing the most cruel treatment, was sent back to Buenos Ayres, from whence he was conveyed as a prisoner to Cadiz.

The viceroy, Liniers, issued, about this time, a proclamation setting forth the state of the peninsula, and exhorting the people to remain tranquil, and to follow the fortune of the mother country, whatever might be the issue of the present contest. The same language was held by the regency of Spain. In an address to the Americans, they say, *It is not sufficient for you to be Spaniards, unless, whatever be the event of fortune, you also belong to Spain.*

General Elio, who had been appointed military governor of Montevideo, had secretly excited the inhabitants of the eastern shore to revolt against the authority of the viceroy. He now accused Liniers of treason, refused to obey his orders, and formed a Junta in Montevideo, on the model of the Provincial Government in Spain. The arrival of Goyeneche, who left Madrid as the emissary of Murat, and afterwards accepted a commission from the Junta of Seville to proclaim Ferdinand VII. in South America, contributed to agitate the public mind, and to encourage the spirit of revolution. The people were invited to take part in the dissensions of the chiefs, and were called upon for the first time to think and to act. Goyeneche landed at Montevideo, where he approved the conduct of General Elio, and assured him that the formation of a Junta would be highly acceptable to the Government of Spain; at Buenos Ayres he applauded the loyalty of Liniers; in the provinces through which he passed on his way to Lima, he advised the establishment of Juntas. At Lima he solicited and obtained the command of the army sent against the Junta of La Paz, and conducted the war against that province in the most sanguinary and impolitic manner.

Notwithstanding the Central Junta of Spain had been recognised by Liniers, and through his influence by the people of Buenos Ayres, that Government listened to the accusations of his enemies, and superseded the only man whose popular character and services to the state could have preserved this colony from immediate revolt.

On the arrival of the new viceroy, Cisneros, Liniers was strongly solicited to retain the command. The military offered to support him; and hopes were entertained by the patriots that the impolicy and injustice of the Spanish Government would drive over to their party this able and popular leader. But Liniers, who appears to have acted throughout with chivalric honor, disappointed their hopes, by privately withdrawing himself from the solicitations of his friends and the persecution of his enemies.

Cisneros did not possess the character or abilities necessary to repress the revolutionary spirit of the people of Buenos Ayres. The decree of free trade, extorted from this viceroy in 1809, increased their intercourse with foreigners; and the ignorance and superstition by which their allegiance had been hitherto secured was fast wearing away; while their conquest of the capital, and their successful defence against the last formidable invasion, without any assistance from the mother country, gave them confidence in their strength and resources.

Shortly after the news of the seizure of the royal family reached the Brazils, manifestoes were published by the Infant Don Pedro, and by the Princess Charl6tte, the sister of Ferdinand VII., and the consort of the present King of Portugal, setting forth their right to the Spanish dominions in America. They were accompanied by letters

addressed to the viceroys and governors of provinces, and were circulated from Mexico to Buenos Ayres. The first scheme of the revolutionists was formed upon these pretensions.

They proposed to deliver up the country to the Princess Charlotte, expecting to retain the administration in their own hands; and intending, at some more fortunate period, to assert their entire independence.

They despatched an agent, with their proposals, to Rio de Janeiro. The princess accepted their offer, upon condition that they should admit a Portuguese garrison into Buenos Ayres. As this measure would have defeated the plan of the revolutionists, the negotiation was dropped.

The first revolutionary movement in the viceroyalty of La Plata was made in La Paz; and a Junta was formed in the capital of that intendancy, after the plans of the provisional Juntas of Spain.

The Viceroy of Lima resolved immediately to suppress this party, and despatched Goyeneche, at the head of a large force, into Upper Peru. La Paz was taken, and the members of the Junta, with some of the principal citizens, put to death—the first example of the exterminating fury with which Goyeneche conducted the war in Upper Peru. The failure of the plan to transfer the Government to the Princess Charlotte obliged the leaders of the revolution to adopt more decisive measures. Their intentions were discovered, and it was expected that every means would be used to frustrate them. Their danger obliged them to act with promptness and resolution; and the first attempt of the viceroy to check them was followed by an open declaration on their part. He was peremptorily ordered to resign his command, and, after a short struggle, and a vain appeal to the people, was obliged to comply. Immediately upon his resignation, a meeting of the principal inhabitants was held in the town-hall of Buenos Ayres. In this assembly, the bishop, whose influence had hitherto been unbounded, ventured to oppose the current of public opinion; but his authority was no longer sacred, and his assertions, that the last Spaniard who remained in America ought by right to govern the country, excited such universal indignation, and drew upon him such a torrent of abuse, that he retired to his palace confounded and dismayed.

This assembly, still wishing to temporize, created a provisional Junta, and named the ex-viceroy president; but the people, who had felt their power, refused all compromise, and on the 25th of May, 1810, a Junta was elected from the creoles of Buenos Ayres, and took possession of the command, amidst the universal acclamations of the people.

Every exertion was immediately made to extend the revolution to the interior provinces, and troops were despatched to favor the patriots in Peru and Paraguay.

The ex-viceroy and fiscals endeavored to counteract this plan, and maintained a correspondence with the Spanish authorities in those provinces. As soon as this conduct was known to the Government, they were summoned to the fort, and directly conveyed on board an English cutter, chartered to transport them to the Canaries. The royal audience was at the same time dismissed for contempt of the Junta; and the Cabildo, chiefly composed of Europeans, having, in a secret meeting, sworn allegiance to the regency of Spain, the members were banished, and it was declared by law that no European should hold any public office under the Government of Buenos Ayres.

The Count de Liniers, who had retired to Cordova, assembled a small force, and determined to oppose the progress of the revolution in the interior. Before he had time to strengthen himself, his party was attacked and totally defeated by the troops of Buenos Ayres; and he, with the bishop, the governor of Cordova, and four of the principal officers, fell into the hands of the victors.

Either from the personal enmity of his judges, or from fear of his popularity and extensive influence, which made it equally dangerous, at that early stage of their revolution, to banish or to imprison him, it was resolved in the Junta that Liniers and his accomplices should be put to death, except the bishop, whose sacred character protected him. They were met on the road to the capital by a military commission, and were shot, after being confessed by the bishop, who was forced to witness the execution of his friends.

The expedition to Upper Peru was conducted by a commission; Castelle was the member selected for this important command; he was one of the earliest and most distinguished leaders of the revolution from the Junta of Buenos Ayres.

The Indians were emancipated from the most oppressive services; the auxiliary army, hailed by these unfortunate people and by the creoles as their deliverers, soon occupied the whole territory of the viceroyalty, and the towns were invited to elect deputies to represent them in the Congress about to be held at the capital.

In the mean time, the dissensions natural to a Government composed of one numerous body broke out, and produced those factions which have since divided their councils and distracted the state. They originated in the personal animosities of the president of the Junta* and of the Secretary of State,† a man of violent temper, ardent in his love of liberty, and too conscious of his superior abilities to brook control. As the secretaries had a right to deliberate and vote in the Junta, he was enabled to oppose the president in all his views, and obtained a decree depriving him of all distinction, except that of his presidency when sitting in Junta. On the arrival of the deputies from the provinces, they were admitted into the Provincial Government, and the spirit of party was augmented by this accession of numbers. As they had been received contrary to the opinion of the secretary, who contended that it defeated the intention of the election, which had been to form a deliberative body, the president found no difficulty to procure the secretary's banishment; he was sent on a mission to England, and died on his passage.

The members of the opposition, unable to resist the president's party in the Junta, determined to establish a club in the city, and, by uniting the most factious of the military and citizens, control the measures of Government. Aware of the probable effects of this combination against him, the president had recourse to the most violent and unjustifiable measures to destroy it. On the morning of the 5th of April, 1811, three regiments devoted to his interest were drawn up in the principal square of the city. The corporations were assembled, and the petition was presented to them from two or three hundred peasants, who, in the name of the people, demanded the banishment of the members and officers most inimical to the president. The corporation, awed by the military, reluctantly complied; the obnoxious persons were banished; the club abolished; and a number of the citizens thrown into prison.

This impolitic measure was the commencement of those violent changes which have so frequently retarded the progress of the revolution. The leaders of the army of Peru, which was now encamped on the frontiers of the viceroyalty of Lima, declared against the revolution of the 5th of April, and threatened to turn their arms against its authors. It was thought a necessary measure of precaution on the part of the Junta to introduce discord among the chiefs, and their dissensions finally occasioned the entire defeat of that army, at the battle of Hualqui, when the royalists and patriots mutually accused each other of breaking an armistice. The news of this disaster, which well nigh proved the ruin of their cause, was received with joy by the reigning party in Buenos Ayres, who only saw in it the destruction of a formidable rival.

The Junta of Buenos Ayres had neglected to occupy the important place of Montevideo at the commencement of the revolution; and the Spanish marine, which with equal oversight had been permitted to leave Buenos Ayres,

* Don Cornelio Saavedra.

† Moreno.

rendezvoused there, and commenced hostilities against the Junta; they harassed the commerce on the river, and blockaded the ports of Buenos Ayres.

On the arrival of General Elio with the appointment of captain general and viceroy of these provinces, he withdrew the blockade, and made an attempt to get possession of the command, either as viceroy or as president of the Junta.

His proposals were treated with contempt by the Government of Buenos Ayres; and he shortly after despatched a small squadron to the Parana, in order to destroy some vessels belonging to Buenos Ayres, which were mentioned there for the protection of the trade. This was effected, and the blockade renewed. The British admiral did not consider the authority of the viceroy sufficient to establish a legal blockade, and came down in person from Rio de Janeiro to insist upon the inviolability of the British flag. After some negotiations with General Elio, he gave orders to the commander on this station to protect the entrance of British vessels into all the ports of the river La Plata. The blockade became, therefore, of no effect; and the squadron was employed in ravaging the coast, but returned from time to time to bombard the city.

During these attacks, the Europeans in Buenos Ayres were harassed and mortified. The unmarried were banished, and those who remained were subjected to the most vexatious and humiliating regulations.

In the midst of these transactions, the inhabitants of the eastern shore of the river La Plata had been excited to revolt against the European authorities in Montevideo, and, as General Elio was particularly disliked by them, this was easily effected: they rose in mass, defeated the royalists at Piedras, and drove them within the walls of the town. A small regular force was immediately despatched to aid their operations, and that town was blockaded by land.

The expedition against Paraguay had failed of its object, and had served only to irritate the inhabitants of that province; and although they shortly afterwards expelled their European magistrates, and established a provisional Junta, they have constantly refused all connexion with Buenos Ayres. General Elio, alarmed at the spirit manifested by the people of the eastern shore, and pressed by a besieging army, sent deputies to Buenos Ayres to solicit peace, offering to return to Spain, and stipulating that the town of Montevideo should send a deputy to the Congress of Buenos Ayres, provided it was suffered to remain independent of the Junta. The news of the revolution in Paraguay, which was received at the same time, prevented the Government of Buenos Ayres from acceding to this proposal. Ignorant of the intention of the chiefs of that province, and presuming that they would unite in the common cause, they insisted upon the unconditional surrender of Montevideo. General Elio then applied for assistance to the court of Brazil: that cabinet, in hopes to realize their favorite project, and to obtain possession of Montevideo, immediately granted his request, and 2,500 men were ordered to pass the frontiers. In consequence of this measure, the situation of Buenos Ayres became alarming. From the state of their discipline, the defeat at Hualqui proved a total dispersion of that army, and the forces of Lima successively occupied La Paz, Potosi, and Cochabamba.

The Portuguese troops advanced rapidly to the relief of Montevideo, and great discontent reigned in the capital. In this state of affairs, it was thought advisable that the president should proceed to Peru, in order to collect their scattered forces, and, by his presence, restore the confidence of the inhabitants not yet occupied by the enemy. He consented to this arrangement, and appointed to the command of the garrison, during his absence, those men who had served under him in the revolution of the 5th of April, and of whose attachment and fidelity he felt secure. He had scarcely left the capital before a town meeting was assembled, which deposed him; they then named an executive of three,* and declared the Assembly of Deputies a deliberative body. In their eagerness to change, they neglected to secure themselves against the abuse of power.

They intrusted to the executive the right of enacting their own laws, and permitted them to frame a constitution for their own government. The legislative assembly proved an intolerable restraint upon an executive furnished with such powers, and a pretext was soon found to dissolve that body.

The first act of the new Government of Buenos Ayres had been to conclude a treaty with General Elio, by which it was agreed, on the one part, that the troops should be withdrawn from the siege of Montevideo, and that that place, including the eastern side of the river La Plata, should remain under the Spanish authorities; on the other part, that the trade of Buenos Ayres should not be molested, and that the Portuguese forces should retire to their own frontier. On the part of Buenos Ayres, the conditions of this treaty were faithfully executed, and the territory of the eastern shore was immediately evacuated by their troops. General Elio, who had discovered the intentions of the court of Brazil, had been induced to conclude this treaty from fear of so dangerous an ally; but the commander of the Portuguese army, who had been made a party in the treaty without being consulted, declared that he could not act until he received instructions from his court, and proceeded to fortify himself in Maldonado. Having failed in this attempt to obtain possession of Montevideo, without which it was impossible to retain any part of the eastern shore, the Portuguese court sent an agent to Buenos Ayres, and concluded an armistice with that Government; in consequence of which, their troops evacuated the territory of La Plata.

The people of the eastern shore, who dreaded the vengeance of the royalists, to which they had been shamefully abandoned, deserted their homes, drove off their cattle, and followed Artigas, their favorite leader, to the other side of the Uruguay.

Shortly after the return of the army from Montevideo, an unsuccessful attempt was made, by the regiment of patriots, to effect a revolution, and to re-establish their former colonel the first president of the Junta. Although abandoned in the moment of execution by the officers who had excited the revolt, they were not reduced until after a bloody conflict.

As soon as it was known in Spain that General Elio had concluded a treaty with Buenos Ayres, he was recalled; and his successor, General Vegodet, who arrived with reinforcements, recommenced hostilities against the revolutionary Government. The command of the army of Buenos Ayres was intrusted to a member, Don Manuel Sarratea, of the executive, who crossed the river at Santa Fé, and again invested Montevideo.

A Government so constituted as that of Buenos Ayres, without restrictions and without responsibility, could not long command the confidence of the people, or exist in harmony.

The citizens were oppressed, and the rulers were entirely taken up with their own private animosities and disputes. These dissensions, as usual, soon extended their effects to the armies before Montevideo. The inhabitants of the eastern shore separated their forces from those of Buenos Ayres, and the latter caballed against their commander-in-chief, dismissed him, and appointed one of their own choice. The Europeans saw, in these disorders, a favorable opportunity to effect a counter-revolution. A plan was formed to obtain the watchword by surprising the patrols, to seize on the barracks, and, favored by a descent from the squadron of Montevideo, to get possession of the city.

This conspiracy was discovered on the eve of its execution, and thirty of the principal conspirators were tried and executed.

* Chicana, Sarratea, and Passos were the members chosen upon this occasion. The secretaries of this Junta were Rivadavia and Paves.

In October, 1812, deputies arrived from the interior provinces to form a Congress at Buenos Ayres; but differences arising between them and the executive, the Assembly was dissolved on their first session.

The remains of the army of Peru had retired before the victorious troops of Lima, until the want of means to continue their retreat forced them to make a stand at Tucuman. On the 24th September, 1812, an obstinate engagement took place, which, from the active co-operation of the inhabitants of Tucuman, ended in the total defeat of the royalists.

Owing to the dissensions of the Government, the army of Peru was left without the means of advancing, and could not profit by their success. The discontent became general, and the party opposed to the Government seized the opportunity to effect a revolution.

The military, so often the instrument of faction, again lent their aid, and a new executive was appointed by a *cabildo abierto*, or town meeting. Succors were at length sent to the army of Peru, which enabled General Belgrano to advance and attack the royalists at Salta. In this action, fought in February, 1813, the Spaniards were defeated with great loss; and Belgrano, following up his victory, took Salta by assault, and captured General Tristan, with the remains of the royal army. The prisoners were released on their parole, which they immediately violated, and were again incorporated into the army of Goyeneche. This general had commanded the royal army in Peru since the memorable invasion of La Paz; but being forced to evacuate the territory of Buenos Ayres, by the approach of the victorious army of Belgrano, he was recalled by the Viceroy of Lima.

The viceroyalty of La Plata was again freed from enemies, and the deputies from the provinces and towns once more assembled at Buenos Ayres. They assumed the title of the Sovereign Assembly, and conferred that of supreme executive power upon the former superior Government, which was composed of three persons.* They declared the sole right of making laws to be vested in the Assembly, and the executive to be responsible to them for its acts.

One of the first decrees of the Sovereign Assembly manumitted the offspring of slaves born after February, 1813, and emancipated all slaves that might be brought into the territory of La Plata after that period.

The slave-holders were called upon for every third slave, which were enrolled in the army of the republic. On this occasion many of the inhabitants voluntarily manumitted their slaves, upon condition of their serving during the war; and two regiments, called *liberti*, were formed of them: they are officered by whites.

Commissioners were sent by the Assembly into Upper Peru, to examine into and report on the state of those provinces and of the army.

Towards the close of the year 1813 the arms of Buenos Ayres met with serious reverses. The general of their forces in Upper Peru was induced, by false intelligence, to attack the army of Lima, although advantageously posted at Vilcapugio, and was defeated with the loss of all his artillery. Being pursued by the enemy, and eager to repair his losses, he risked a second engagement at Ayuma, under the most unfavorable circumstances, in which he was again defeated, and forced to retire below Salta, with the remnant of his army.

The garrison of Montevideo had received supplies and reinforcements from Spain; and, although they had been defeated in a sortie against the besieging army, it was apprehended that a junction might be effected at Santa Fé of the victorious army of Lima with the disposable force in Montevideo. The royal squadron having the command of the river La Plata rendered this movement very practicable.

The party in power seized this opportunity to strengthen the Government. They represented to the Assembly that an executive of three persons could not exert the energy and despatch called for by the present perilous situation of the state, and proposed to vest the authority in one person.

This proposal was warmly discussed in the Assembly; but, the military declaring in favor of the change, a Supreme Director was appointed. The Assembly was prorogued during the pleasure of the Director; and a council of seven, called the Permanent Council of the Sovereign Assembly, was chosen to assist him.

The general who had commanded in Peru was superseded, and orders were given to his successor to collect the scattered remains of that army, and to fortify himself in Tucuman, whilst they determined to direct their whole force against Montevideo. Aware of the importance attached by Great Britain to the trade of these colonies, and expecting to derive great advantages from opposing the commercial spirit of that nation to the jealous colonial policy of Spain, they sent an agent to London; and even willing, at that time, to secure the favorable mediation of the English court by granting any privileges, they are said to have instructed their agent to declare that Buenos Ayres would rather be governed by a foreign prince than submit unconditionally to Spain.

The same policy induced them to yield to the solicitations of the English minister at Rio de Janeiro, who was desirous of adjusting the differences between Buenos Ayres and Montevideo, and had expressed a wish that the former should acknowledge the regency of Spain, accept the constitution, and send deputies to the Cortes. Commissioners were sent with proposals to Montevideo; but the viceroy, who now contemplated the approaching fall of Buenos Ayres, and considered this measure as a proof of their weakness, refused to receive or treat with them. This result had been foreseen by the Government, and great exertions had been made to fit out a squadron, which might give them the command of the river: some stout merchant vessels had been purchased, which were armed from the batteries of Buenos Ayres and Ensenada, and manned by foreigners; and this fleet, immediately on the return of the commissioners, appeared off Montevideo, this measure did not excite much alarm in that place; it was supposed that armed merchantmen would prove an easy conquest to national ships, and a squadron was immediately despatched to attack and destroy them.

The event did not justify this opinion of their superiority. To their astonishment, and dismay of the garrison of Montevideo, who witnessed the action, the national squadron was entirely defeated; two only escaped into port, and the remainder fell into the hands of the patriots. The viceroy, finding himself pressed by superior forces, both by land and water, now condescended to solicit a peace, which he had but a few days before rejected with contempt; but the Government of Buenos Ayres retaliated his conduct towards them, and refused to receive his commissions, or to open his despatches. He was soon after reduced to the necessity of treating with the general of the besieging army.

It was agreed that the Government of Buenos Ayres should acknowledge the regency, and send deputies to Spain. The town of Montevideo was to be given up; the garrison to be sent to Spain; two thousand men to march out with their arms, field-pieces, and ammunition, and to be encamped until the conditions were carried into execution.

Whilst this treaty was pending, disputes arose between the troops of the garrison and the armed citizens, who were violently opposed to the capitulation.

The viceroy, finding it impossible to suppress these commotions, which threatened the destruction of all parties, ordered the gates to be thrown open, and admitted the army of Buenos Ayres. The two thousand men were permitted to march out with the honors of war; and it was at first supposed that the articles of the capitulation would

* Pena, Pérez, and Alvarez, jointly.

† Don Manuel Sarratea.

‡ Don Carlos Alvear.

be adored to. They were soon undeceived. The general of the besieging army published a proclamation, in which he declared that, having entered the town before the capitulation had been signed by either party, exposed to a *ruse de guerre*, and to the risk of being attacked, he considered Montevideo to have been surrendered at discretion to the arms of Buenos Ayres. The viceroy was furnished with a vessel to carry him to Spain; but the garrison, consisting of six thousand men, were sent prisoners of war to Buenos Ayres. The persons and property of the inhabitants were respected.

To the honor of Buenos Ayres, they have used their victories with moderation, notwithstanding the irritation which existed between the royalists and the patriots, and that the former have frequently disgraced themselves by massacres in cold blood, and by the barbarous treatment of their prisoners. The troops of Buenos Ayres have never sullied their arms by these sanguinary measures, not even in retaliation.

Montevideo had been defended with the utmost obstinacy for nearly four years, and not less than seven thousand persons perished during the siege, principally by famine and disease. The victors acquired seven thousand stands of arms, five hundred pieces of artillery, and a profusion of warlike stores. An amicable arrangement was made with the inhabitants of the eastern shore, and the troops were withdrawn in order to reinforce the army of Peru. It had been determined to destroy the fortifications of Montevideo, which are formidable, from the place being situated on a very narrow peninsula. It may be considered the key of the river La Plata, and, consequently, of the whole viceroyalty; and once in the possession of an enemy, particularly of a maritime Power, they could not expect to wrest it from them, nor could they defend it long against a regular force.

Moreover, in the present unsettled state of the country, it would prove a powerful engine of faction, and the military governor of Montevideo might dictate to the Government of Buenos Ayres, or involve the country in a civil war. The artillery and stores were to have been moved to Tucuman, to which point the armies might retreat in the event of a formidable and irresistible invasion obliging them to abandon the coast.*

The Limanean army, which had advanced as far as Salta, on receiving intelligence of the fall of Montevideo, retired precipitately upon Potosi. The commanders of that army, led on by the hope of forming a junction with the troops of Montevideo, and of investing Buenos Ayres, in two instances abandoned the strong positions of Oruro and Potosi, which secured to them the possession of Peru, and advanced towards the plains of Tucuman. The first had weakened his army by leaving garrisons in the towns, and particularly in Orepera de Cochabamba, the capital of the most fertile and populous of the interior provinces.

The present commander, to avoid this fault of his predecessor, to which he attributed his defeat in Tucuman, left his rear and flank unprotected, and exposed to the attacks of the Indians and cavalry of Cochabamba, which harassed his retreat. The revolution of Chili partook, in some degree, of the distinctions which mark the character of that people.

The creoles of that kingdom saw and rejoiced in the success of Buenos Ayres. They wished to follow what they considered a noble example, but were restrained by their natural timidity, when the captain general, on some slight denunciation, arrested three of the principal inhabitants of Santiago—Ovalle, Roxas, and Vera.

Ovalle and Roxas were sent to Lima; but Vera, a native of Santa Fé, in the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres, feigned himself sick, and from the castle of Valparaiso, where he was confined, incited the Chilians to reclaim their countrymen, and to protest against this act of oppression, which he represented as the prelude to a general persecution of the creoles. He excited their fears to such a degree that they gathered courage from despair, and addressed a strong remonstrance to the captain general, which alarmed him, and induced him to recall those gentlemen, whom he had accused of treasonable practices, and of forming plans to separate the colonies from the mother country.

Those acts of weakness on the one part, and of firmness on the other, decided the revolution. Encouraged by their success, the people declared themselves openly; in the hopes of freedom, even family feuds were forgotten; all the creoles of distinction in Santiago united, deposed the captain general, and instituted a Provisional Government, which acknowledged and acted in the name of the authorities of Spain.

They soon, however, assumed a bolder tone, and a Congress was assembled, which governed in the name and behalf of Ferdinand VII.

On the 1st of April, 1811, the day appointed for the election of the members for the capital, an attempt was made by some Europeans to restore the ancient Government; an engagement took place in the principal square, which ended in the total defeat of the royalists. The captain general and the royal audience were implicated in this conspiracy, and, in consequence, were banished the kingdom, and retired to Lima.

In the Congress, party spirit soon mingled with all their debates; the provinces of Conception complained that they were not fairly represented, and the affairs of the Government were neglected, in the animosities and mutual accusations of the members.

The command of the artillery was in the hands of a European, who was supposed to be a partisan of the Princess Charlotte of Brazil. The creoles dreaded the power and influence of this man, and the three brothers Carrera resolved to make an effort to wrest from him this important command. The eldest, who was a major in the regiment of grenadiers, had distinguished himself on the 1st of April, and was a great favorite with the soldiery.

They chose the hour of the siesta for the attack, and, at the head of sixty grenadiers, surprised the artillery barracks, and seized the commander.

After this action, some reform was made in the representation, and the Congress commenced business by inviting all who were inimical to the present order of things to retire from the kingdom.

They rendered the clergy inimical to the cause of independence, by forbidding them to receive any money from their parishioners for the performance of their clerical duties, assigning a moderate salary to the curates in lieu of fees. They passed an act manumitting the future offspring of slaves, and declared that all slaves brought into Chili after that period should receive their freedom, after a residence of six months. They opened the ports to commerce, and published commercial regulations.

The places of the alcaldes (members of the Cabildo) were, by the laws of Spain, sold to the highest bidder. They were now made elective. The first Junta, or Executive of Chili, was composed of seven members. The struggle for power between the family of the Carreras and that of the Larrains commenced at this period, after the successful attack on the artillery barracks. The eldest brother was promoted to the colonelcy of the grenadiers, and the youngest to that of the artillery; from the barracks of these officers a remonstrance was addressed to the Congress, which induced that body to depose a Junta of seven, and to appoint an Executive of five. José Miguel Carrera entered into the Government on this occasion.

This Junta did not long endure the control of a legislative body; and the Congress was dissolved on the 2d of December, 1811. Some of the members of the Executive resigned on this occasion, and a new Junta was formed, consisting of three persons, J. M. Carrera, J. Portales, and J. N. Cerda. The members from the southern provinces

* They neglected this precautionary measure, and this important fortress is in the hands of the Portuguese.

protested loudly against this flagrant breach of the privileges of the people; and, upon their arrival in Concepcion, excited their constituents to oppose the Executive of Santiago, and to take up arms in defence of their rights.

Forces were collected on both sides, and were marched to the banks of the river Maule, which separates Santiago from Concepcion. Both parties, however, preferred negotiation and intrigue to blows. They retired without coming to action, and Concepcion, being destitute of resources, was shortly after forced to submit to the capital.

Some attempts having been made by the colonel of grenadiers to awe the Executive into his measures, José Miguel Carrera resigned his office in the Junta, and his father was nominated to supply his place. The brothers were soon after reconciled; a constitution was framed, and offered to the people for their acceptance, and, having been signed by the military, the Cabildo, and all the respectable inhabitants, was adopted by the Government. The father resigned, and J. M. Carrera was reinstated in the Junta. A senate was elected, according to a provision of the constitution, and assembled in November, 1812. The first Junta established in Chili had been acknowledged by the regency; and the supply of grain was so necessary to the viceroyalty of Lima, that the intercourse between these countries had not been interrupted by the late changes of Government. But the dissensions which existed between the provinces of Santiago and Concepcion enabled the viceroyalty to carry into execution a plan for the conquest of the latter.

The garrisons of Valdivia and of San Carlos de Chiloe were landed in the bay of San Vicente, and thence marched to Talcahuana. That post was delivered up to them by some European officers in the service of Chili, and the town of Concepcion was afterwards taken without opposition. The royal forces were joined by several regiments of militia cavalry, and they soon occupied the whole of the province.

The greatest exertions were made in Santiago to repel this invasion; the three brothers Carrera put themselves at the head of the forces, and the armies met on the banks of the Maule.

A body of five hundred men crossed the broad and rapid river Maule in the night, and surprised the camp of the royalists at Yerbas Buenas. This action deterred them from crossing the river in front of such an enemy, and being baffled in an attempt to turn the flank of the patriot army, they retired towards Concepcion. The Chilians crossed the river, and overtook the royal forces at San Carlos; an obstinate engagement ensued, in which both parties claimed the victory. The royal army crossed the river Nuble at the dawn of day, and retired to Chillan. J. M. Carrera, leaving his brother at the head of the main body, moved with a detachment towards Concepcion. The garrison of that place retreated to Talcahuana, and that post was immediately attacked and taken by assault. The army then laid siege to Chillan, which the royalists had strongly fortified. After spending a month before this place, the continued rains of the winter obliged the patriots to retire.

The Executive Junta established themselves shortly after at Talca; from thence they issued a decree now modelling the army. They deprived Carrera of the command, and appointed Don Bernardo O'Higgins general-in-chief. The three brothers immediately withdrew from the army; the two youngest were taken prisoners by the royalists as they were returning to Santiago, and were conducted to Chillan.

The royal forces now marched towards Santiago, crossed the Maule, and occupied Talca. The Chilians followed them by rapid marches, and, crossing the Maule lower down the river, took a position to protect the capital.

This state of things called for a more energetic Government; and, on the return of the Executive to Santiago, the Junta was dissolved, and a Supreme Director appointed.

The royal forces continued to advance, when Captain Hillyar, the commander of the British squadron in the Pacific, proffered his mediation. As it appeared that he was authorized by the Viceroy of Lima, his proposals were accepted by both parties.

It was agreed that the royal forces should evacuate the territory of Chili within two months, and that the Government of Chili should acknowledge the regency and Cortes, and send deputies to Spain to learn the decision of the mother country, to which they agreed to submit. This treaty was signed on the 5th May, 1814, and hostages exchanged by the contracting parties.

Both parties were dissatisfied with this arrangement. The Carreras, who had been excluded from the general amnesty and mutual liberation of prisoners agreed upon by the treaty, escaped from their confinement at Chillan. The youngest brother, Don Luis, upon his return to Santiago, was seized and imprisoned by the Government; and Don J. M. Carrera, after escaping the same fate, entered the capital at the head of some of his partisans. The troops received him with enthusiasm; the Supreme Director was deposed, and a Junta of three established.

General O'Higgins determined to enforce the execution of the treaty, and marched towards the capital. The armies met on the plains of Maipo, and an action was fought, which terminated in favor of the forces of the Junta. The continuation of this civil war was prevented by the unexpected news of the arrival of reinforcements from Lima, and the refusal of the viceroy to ratify the treaty. This intelligence united the armies of Chili, and they marched against the common enemy. The royalists had advanced to the river Cachapoal, which separates the province of Rancagua from San Fernando.

General O'Higgins fortified himself at Rancagua, but was surprised by the royalists, and his forces totally routed.

This decisive action obliged the patriots to evacuate the territory of Chili. They passed the Cordilleras, and took refuge in the province of Mendoza.

In this state of affairs, intelligence of the restoration of Ferdinand VII. reached South America. The Government of Buenos Ayres, notwithstanding they had changed the national flag and cockade, and had coined money with the arms of the republic, had always issued their decrees in the name of Ferdinand VII. It was resolved, therefore, to send a deputy to Spain to proffer their allegiance, on conditions which would secure them in the free exercise and enjoyment of their rights; and hopes were entertained that the present administration would adopt a conciliatory policy towards the colonies, in opposition to the violent measure of the regency. These hopes were disappointed, and their agent returned to Buenos Ayres without effecting his object.

The capture of Montevideo had put into their hands a valuable armament and abundant warlike stores; and the ships, which had contributed so materially to their success, were now employed to harass the commerce of Spain. Some of their cruisers doubled Cape Horn, while others proceeded to intercept the return of Spanish ships off the port of Cadiz.

Don Carlos Alvear, who had commanded the forces of Buenos Ayres at the capitulation of Montevideo, ambitious to conclude the war in Peru, induced the Supreme Director to appoint him general-in-chief of that army, and left Buenos Ayres at the head of a large reinforcement. On the road he was met by the unpleasant intelligence that the officers and troops refused to receive him as their commander, and he returned with his forces to Buenos Ayres. The Supreme Director was glad to resign his title to one who had for some time exercised the chief authority. Alvear was, in consequence, proclaimed Supreme Director in Buenos Ayres; but not being acknowledged in the provinces, or by the army of Peru, the greatest confusion prevailed in the state.

After the conquest of Montevideo, the Government of Buenos Ayres concluded a treaty with Artigas; but, upon their afterwards sending him a commission, he returned it, telling them that he desired his authority from the free

election of the people of the eastern shore; that the inhabitants of that province were willing to be the allies, but would never submit to be the vassals of Buenos Ayres.

The troops which were sent to reduce him to subjection not only failed in their object, but were forced to abandon Montevideo. Artigas, after driving the forces of Buenos Ayres from the eastern shore, crossed the Parana, and took possession of Santa Fé. Two thousand men were despatched to recover this important post; but the officers came to an understanding with Artigas, and turned their arms against the Supreme Director. Under these circumstances, and threatened by a revolt of the citizens, Alvear withdrew his forces from Buenos Ayres, and encamped at a short distance from the city. A town meeting was immediately assembled, which deposed both the Supreme Director and the Sovereign Assembly, and vested the authority in the Cabildo. The city was placed in a state of defence, but Alvear, after some threats, resigned his command, and, with his family, took refuge on board a British frigate then stationed in the river.

The Cabildo then appointed a Junta of Observation, published a new constitution, and elected Rondeau, the general of the army of Peru, Supreme Director. This officer, who had formerly refused to resign his command to Alvear, preferred remaining at the head of the army, and a Supreme Director *pro tempore* was nominated, until he should think proper to assume his command. Another attempt was made to dispossess Artigas of Santa Fé, but the troops of Buenos Ayres were defeated with great loss. General Pezuela, who had fortified himself in Oruro, having received reinforcements from Lima, attacked the army of Peru on the 22d of November, 1815, at Sipisipi, and, after an obstinate engagement, the patriots were forced to retire.

The army of Buenos Ayres retreated to Salta, and the royal forces remained in possession of all the upper provinces of Peru. The people were displeased with the administration of the Supreme Director's substitute, and, assembling tumultuously, they forced him to resign the command: another was appointed, who was soon after treated in the same manner, and the Government was then placed in the hands of a Committee of Safety.

The Congress, which had been convoked according to a provision in the last estatuto, assembled in June, 1816, at Tucuman. They nominated Don Juan Martin Pueyrredon Supreme Director, who immediately repaired to Buenos Ayres and assumed the reins of government. Don Manuel Belgrano, who, since the battle of Velcapugio, had remained in retirement, resumed the command of the army of Peru. The troops received with enthusiasm the general who had so often led them to victory; who had generously distributed to the widows and orphans of those soldiers who had fallen in the battle of Salta the money voted to him by the Government of Buenos Ayres as a reward for that distinguished service; and who had preserved his political integrity amidst the changes of party and the intrigues of faction, and had manifested no other ambition than that of devoting his life and fortune to the great cause in which he was engaged.

An army was assembled at Mendoza to protect that frontier against the royal army which was in possession of Chili, and the command of this force intrusted to San Martin, who had distinguished himself by repulsing, with a small corps of cavalry, a detachment of the royal forces at San Lorenzo, on the Parana.

On the 9th of July, 1816, the Congress published their formal declaration of independence. In December following, the Portuguese troops entered the territory of the eastern shore, which is claimed by that Government. The invading army, after occupying the towns on the frontiers, took possession of Maldonado, and advanced upon Montevideo. This important military post was surrendered to them without opposition.

Artigas, with the desultory forces under his command, opposed in vain the progress of the invaders, but still continued to harass them by every means in his power.

15th CONGRESS.]

No. 306.

[2d SESSION.]

GREAT BRITAIN—CONVENTION OF OCTOBER 20, 1818.

COMMUNICATED TO THE SENATE, DECEMBER 29, 1818.

To the Senate of the United States:

DECEMBER 29, 1818.

I lay before the Senate, for their consideration, a convention signed at London on the 20th of October last, between the United States and Great Britain, together with the documents showing the course and progress of the negotiation. I have to request that these documents, which are original, may be returned when the Senate shall have acted on the convention.

JAMES MONROE.

Mr. Monroe to Mr. Baker, Chargé des Affaires from England.

SIR:

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, July 18, 1815.

I have the honor to communicate to you a copy of a letter from the collector of the customs at Barnstable to the Secretary of the Treasury, by which it appears that an American vessel engaged in the cod fishery, in longitude 65° 20', latitude 42° 41', was warned off by the commander of the British sloop of war *Jaseur*, and ordered not to approach within sixty miles of the coast; with which order the commander of the American vessel immediately complied. It appears, also, that a similar warning had been given by the commander of the *Jaseur* to all the other American vessels that were then in sight.

This extraordinary measure has excited no small degree of surprise. Being altogether incompatible with the rights of the United States, it is presumed that it has not been authorized by your Government. I invite your attention to it, in the hope that as you have been charged by your Government with the execution of the late treaty of peace, and are acquainted with its views on all questions connected with it, you will consider yourself authorized to interpose to prevent the progress of an evil which will be so extensively and deeply felt by the citizens of the United States.

I have the honor, &c.

JAMES MONROE.

ANTHONY ST. JOHN BAKER, Esq., &c.