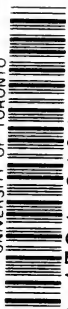


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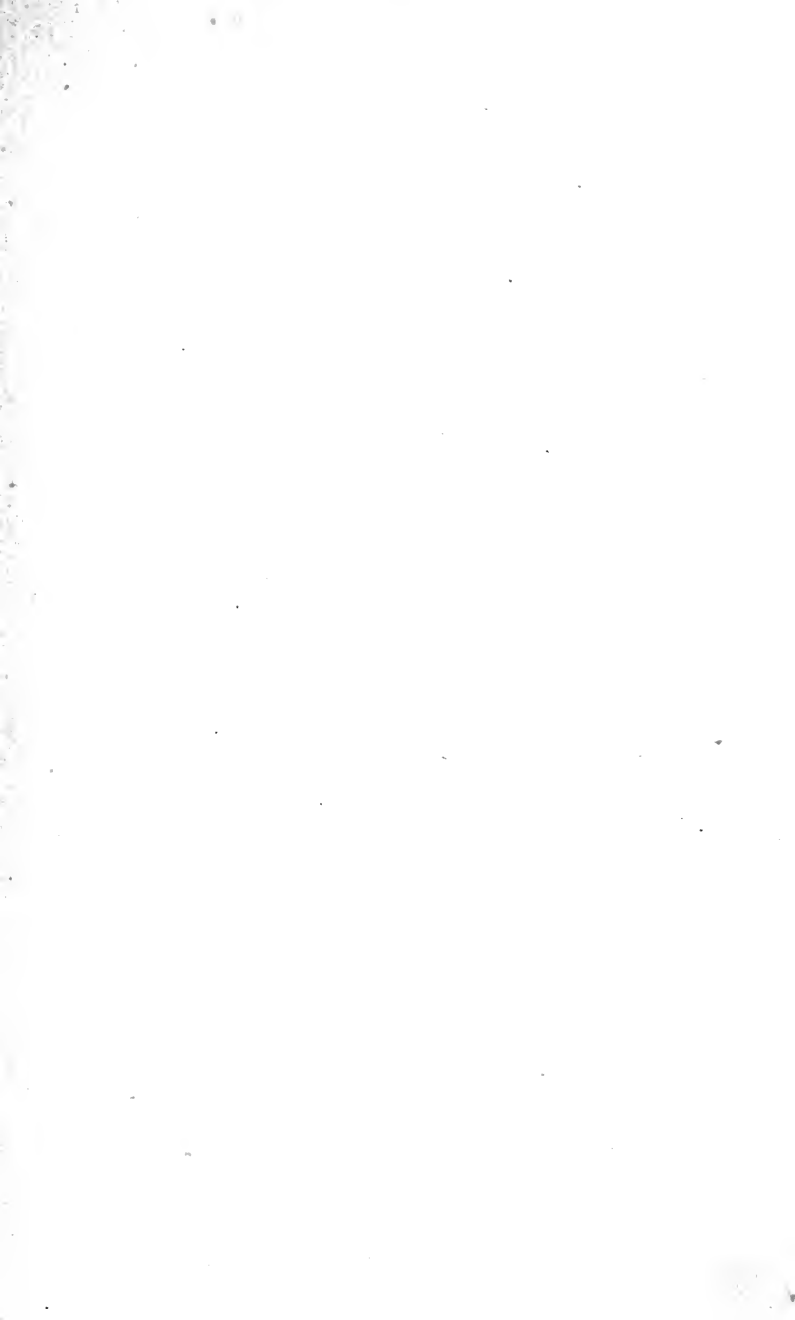
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BRAZIL

J. R. Baldwin

Nov 22/87





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B R A Z I L

ITS CONDITION AND PROSPECTS

BY

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EX-CONSUL-GENERAL TO BRAZIL, AND FORMERLY UNITED STATES MINISTER TO
SWEDEN AND NORWAY

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PREFATORY.

THERE have been so many political revolutions in some of the South American states, accompanied by cruel acts of military despots, that I fear our busy people in the United States have acquired an unfavorable impression of almost the whole of South America. It is desirable, however, as satisfying the demands of a high order of intelligence, that they should have discriminating and correct views of the different races and countries on their own continent. Especially a country like Brazil, nearly as large in territory as the United States, peopled by descendants of the high-spirited and industrious Portuguese, and containing thirteen million inhabitants, is well worth knowing by Americans. Our young Americans in particular ought to be encouraged to cultivate a better knowledge of such foreign countries, both in the interests of trade and of peace. For a people who can have great influence in maintaining peace there is scarcely any department of knowledge that is more elevated. Richard Cobden wrote a book to disabuse the minds of his countrymen of their delusions and prejudices in regard to

Russia. Although I lack the ability of that most clear and eloquent writer, still I hope I may be able to present some facts in respect to the present situation of Brazil which will be both instructive and entertaining to general readers. My object is to answer such questions as an intelligent American would be likely to ask in regard to Brazil.

My means of acquaintance with that empire are principally derived from a residence of three years at Rio de Janeiro, its capital, while employed in the service of the United States Government, during which period I made a few journeys into the interior. My consular office was situated in the busiest part of the great commercial city of Rio de Janeiro, and its duties brought me into frequent personal intercourse with the leading business houses and with many of the best-informed people of the country.

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B R A Z I L :

ITS CONDITION AND PROSPECTS.

CHAPTER I.

VOYAGE TO BRAZIL.

At the time I left the United States for Brazil, in the summer of 1882, there was no regular line of passenger-steamers running between New York and Rio de Janeiro. The old American line had ceased, and the present one had not commenced. The consequence was, that our voyage to Brazil was by the way of Europe, while the voyage home was from Rio to New York on one of the new American steamers. I embarked with my wife and daughter on the North-German Lloyd's steamship *Oder*, and, after a pleasant passage, landed at Southampton, whence we went by steamer to Havre, and thence overland to Lisbon, stopping a few days at Paris, Madrid, and Lisbon. It was particularly interesting to visit Portugal before going to the empire which it had planted. We had been so well pleased with the German steamer, that we took one of the same company's ships for the passage from Lisbon to Rio, the *Graf Bismarck*, Captain Thallenhorst commanding, on which we em-

barked out in the calm waters of the Tagus the lovely afternoon of August 5th. We made the voyage to Rio in twenty-one days, and were favored with pleasant weather and a comparatively smooth sea all the way. There were only three or four cabin-passengers besides ourselves, and we were favored with an abundance of room. The fourth day out we landed at one of the Canary Islands, upon which there is very grand mountain scenery. We spent a short time in its capital city, Santa Cruz, where the steamer took upward of a hundred immigrant passengers bound for one of the River Plate countries. August 22d, we landed and spent about half a day at Bahia, Brazil's capital in early colonial times, and now her second city. It has a striking situation on red land, which rises abruptly a hundred feet or more above the water. A small park overlooking the sea, and filled with tall palms and large shade-trees, is one of the first objects that arrest attention in approaching the city from the north. As we proceeded down the Brazilian coast, a range of green mountains some distance inland could frequently be seen. From time to time, as we got a little nearer land, cultivated plantations were visible. Nearer the sea were low hills, with a strip of white sand always bordering the shore. We arrived off Rio de Janeiro before sunrise, Saturday, August 26th, and, being awakened for the purpose, arose and went to the captain's bridge to observe the scenery on entering the port. It was very picturesque and pleasing, though the more distant mountains were somewhat obscured by clouds. The granite cone, called the Sugar-Loaf, was among the nearest prominent objects. A chain of irregular mountains seemed to inclose the harbor of Rio, and from one point of view the captain pointed out how the summits formed the figure of a man repos-

ing, of which, if I recollect right, the Sugar-Loaf was the feat. The scenery, though not of the sublime cast of towering mountains, was, nevertheless, striking. On entering the ample harbor the scene continually increased in interest until the anchor was dropped. An extensive city, sparkling in the morning sun, lay stretched at great length along the scalloped shore of the bay, covering several hills in its limits, and extending to the very slopes of the tree-covered mountains. Botafogo Bay, the Gloria Hill, and the church on its top, Santa Theresa Hill, the Public Garden, the towers of the Cathedral—these were some of the objects that were first pointed out to us. There, sure enough, was Rio de Janeiro, the greatest city of South America, an interesting and attractive place, no doubt, yet still a city frequently scourged with the dreaded yellow fever; there was the city which was to be our new home—for how long?

It was about nine o'clock when we went ashore. We first walked to the office of the steamship company, and from there took a carriage to our hotel, feeling, of course, grateful for having accomplished so long a journey in safety.

There had been nothing of special interest in our passage from Lisbon. I was usually awakened before sunrise every morning by the seamen washing off the deck, and hearing the pigs, which were carried for subsistence, scampering about on deck at the same time, a freedom they had while their pens were being washed. Our meals were not taken down-stairs in the cabin, but in a pleasant room forward opening from the deck. Breakfast was at eight o'clock, consisting of a good beefsteak, fried potatoes, good coffee or tea, and bread and fresh eggs; dinner at 2 p. m. and tea at about dark. The after-

deck was ample for walking, or pitching quoits, and was protected from the sun by an awning. Over the room where we ate was also a small deck, with awning, near to and about on a level with the officers' bridge, and which was a favorite place for sitting and reading or lounging, as the prospect from it was extensive and the atmosphere agreeable. There were a few nights or parts of nights when the heat was oppressive in our state-rooms. We could generally, however, keep the round small window in each state-room open or partly open, but it was sometimes hazardous to do so. One night, when I had left the window open in my room, a wave came against the ship, dashing fully two buckets of water in upon me as I was lying in my berth sound asleep. Another night one of our European fellow-passengers had a similar experience.

The crew was composed of steady, sensible Germans, including some boys who have very good prospects, as, by sticking to their profession, and taking pains to acquire theoretical as well as practical knowledge of navigation, they may look forward some day to become masters of just such a steamship as the Bismarck. In crossing the equator a part of an afternoon is devoted to a bit of frolic to initiate such seamen as are crossing the line for the first time. On this occasion on our steamer there was a grotesque procession, after which the candidates were subjected to a mock operation of shaving, and, by some slip of their seat, found themselves sprawling in a tub of water. The whole concluded by the captain treating all hands to beer. The only dispute or quarrel, and that not serious, which occurred on the voyage, was between a couple of the seamen after this hour or so of fun.

Competent ship-masters agree that the voyage between

the United States and Brazil is easy and pleasant as compared with that across the North Atlantic. As Captain Beers says, "it is a yacht-excursion." In coming from New York to Rio de Janeiro and returning, the weather and sea as a rule are favorable, a fact important both to merchants and to those who travel for recreation and instruction.

The United States and Brazil Mail Steamship Company began running their line of new passenger-steamships between New York and Rio de Janeiro in 1883; and in October, 1886, commenced the extension of their line to Montevideo with their new steamship *Allianca*. Leaving their dock at Brooklyn, these steamers proceed on every voyage to Newport News, Virginia, where they take on their supply of coal and a cargo of flour, and leave the latter place the evening of the third day after starting from Brooklyn. They pass about one hundred and fifty miles west of the Bermudas, and in the course of five days arrive in the fine harbor of the green mountain-island of St. Thomas—an island which President Lincoln bought of Denmark by a treaty which the Senate refused to ratify. There, a hundred black people, young and old, male and female, bring coal aboard the ship in baskets, which they carry on their heads, working almost on the jump. Peddlers of coral hover about the ship in their boats; also, youthful swimmers, who, to make a little money and divert the passengers, will dive and bring up any small silver coin that the latter may be willing to throw into the water.

From St. Thomas the steamer is a little less than two days in reaching Barbadoes, a beautiful undulating and exceedingly fertile island, covered with plantations of sugar-cane and numerous dotted with dwellings. It is

a favorite resort for visitors, has a good modern hotel, and living on the island is very cheap. From Barbadoes to Pará, Brazil's rising city of the Amazon Valley, occupies from four to five days. Passengers will generally wish to visit this and the other Brazilian cities at which the steamer calls, but before doing so it may be best to consult the surgeon on board. The steamer usually runs from Pará to Maranham in a day and a half; from Maranham to Pernambuco, an important city and center of the sugar-trade, in three and a half days; from Pernambuco to Bahia, in two and a half days; and from Bahia to Rio de Janeiro, in three days. If you are fond of oranges, always lay in a supply at Bahia. No good ones are to be had at the ports north of Bahia. From Rio to New York there are British steamships leaving weekly, some of which have good passenger accommodations. A person of leisure, or traveling for health, would find a passage pleasant on some of the sailing-packets which run regularly between Baltimore and Rio, a few of which sometimes make four round voyages in the course of the year.

A sailing-vessel leaving one of our Atlantic ports, bound for Brazil, usually steers east a great distance to get into the trade-winds blowing from the northeast to the southwest. She goes east for this purpose nearly half-way across the Atlantic, then southeasterly to about the twenty-eighth degree of latitude; from there she is carried along by the northeast trade-wind to the tenth or fifth degree of latitude north of the equator, according to the season, after which there are light, variable winds till about the second degree north of the equator, when the southeast trade-winds may be expected, and which take the vessel to about the nineteenth degree of latitude south of the equator; after which there are variable winds to

Rio de Janeiro. The average crossing of the equator is at longitude 32° west.

As the "torrid zone" extends some twenty-three degrees on each side of the equator, and as the common understanding of the word "torrid" is violent heat, it is no wonder that people have a wrong impression of the character of the weather at sea in the neighborhood of and even under the equator. It is not oppressively hot. On the contrary, there is generally a refreshing breeze, and the nights are often cool enough for passengers to require a blanket for cover in their berths while sleeping.

I believe there is nothing particularly noteworthy as to the phenomena in the vicinity of the equator and through the "torrid" zone, except that the weather may toward evening be habitually cloudy and look threatening, and soon clear up and become bright starlight. The water when agitated displays at night much brilliant phosphorescent light. During the day the sight of one or two sailing-vessels at a distance, also the frequently seen "flying-fish," are about all that would interrupt the monotony. Going south from the equator, say in August, one soon misses the "Great Dipper." The Southern Cross, a constellation of but four stars, is then seen in the southern heavens early in the evening. The Scorpion is directly overhead, and at two or three o'clock in the morning Orion is visible just above the eastern horizon. The distance from New York to Rio de Janeiro direct is five thousand miles; consequently steamships that average twelve miles an hour, a reasonable speed, would make the voyage in seventeen days; but, calling as they usually do at several intermediate ports, the time is extended five or six days.

CHAPTER II.

GETTING TO HOUSEKEEPING.

CARSON'S English Hotel, at which we stopped, is handily located on the Rua Catête, the street-cars passing it every five minutes. In size and architecture it is unpretentious, but has a large lawn and garden in the rear, entirely secluded from the street by one of those high walls which still inclose many old dwelling-sites. It is an orderly and popular family hotel. If there are lady guests, a maid taps at the chamber-door about eight in the morning and hands in a pot of black coffee, a pitcher of hot milk, some rolls and butter. This is expected to sustain nature till you are dressed and come to the ordinary eating-room, where breakfast is served from nine, or a little before, till twelve. The earthen water-bottle, which I shall further along describe, set on its own little platter and placed at convenient distances along the center of the table, forms a part of what is usually on every dining-table. There are dishes of oranges and bananas. The steak, or chop, is broiled after you give your order. You may need to wait fifteen minutes for your breakfast; but be patient, and you will be treated all the better. The servants have been long in the house, and have been accustomed to wait on Brazilian magnates and their families, who are usually very polite; and if

transient guests are irritable, they are themselves the losers.

It being our purpose to go to housekeeping as soon as convenient after reaching Rio, one of the first things to occupy our attention was to search for a suitable house. We had got the impression that, to be secure against yellow fever, one should reside on elevated ground—say on either the Gloria or the Santa Theresa Hill. We first looked, therefore, at houses on both these hills, making the ascent on foot, in very warm weather, several times to do so, and saw some very fair houses, commanding a splendid view of the harbor and the mountain scenery on the opposite side, but they were so difficult of access that we were reluctant to take either one; and finally learning, what I have since become satisfied is the truth, that those localities are no more exempt from the fever than some other parts of the city less elevated, we began to look elsewhere. We visited houses in the favorite districts of São Christovão, Botafogo, and Laranjeiras; and, finally, a desirable new house was pointed out to me by Mr. Rainsford, an old resident and former United States vice-consul, at No. 143 Rua das Laranjeiras, which I hired (of course, unfurnished) at one thousand dollars per year.

We had visited over a dozen vacant houses altogether, and in this way had obtained information about the inside of Brazilian houses that we otherwise would not have had. What I saw in this regard impressed me that sleeping-rooms in the older houses frequently lack windows—mere dark alcoves being used for that purpose; that the kitchens are very small; and that the quarters for servants are either dark basement-rooms under the principal rooms, or else are in small, detached buildings without windows.

There were things, sometimes, in sanitary regards that were shocking.

We had got into our new house and settled at house-keeping inside of three weeks after our arrival at Rio. Neither carpets nor furniture with woolen or upholstered covers are common in Brazilian houses, though there is nothing in the climate to prevent their use—for moths are no more troublesome in Brazil than in the United States; but not uncommonly a large rug is used to cover the middle part of the parlor-floor. For the most part, the house furniture is cane-seated, with wood-work of rose-wood, mahogany, or some other reddish-colored wood of the country. The sofa has a high back, and is a neat and substantial piece of furniture. Two rows of about three chairs each, facing, are placed at right angles to the sofa, forming a little avenue to it. The sofa, about a dozen chairs, including two arm-chairs, and two cabinets, or "dunkerquerks," with marble tops and mirrored doors, will cost about five hundred dollars. This will answer as a specimen for a part of the furniture in houses of the middle class. Of course, rich upholstered furniture is found in the dwellings of the wealthy. In damp and hot weather, clothing and books gather mold, and should be frequently looked after and exposed to the sun.

There is no trouble about stoves or furnaces. I know only one house in Rio provided with heating accommodations. The stoves for cooking are put in as a part of the house. The fuel consists of wood obtained in the vicinity, and comes in small bundles of slender split sticks; three feet long, each bundle being about a foot in diameter. The numerous grocery-shops, or "venders," furnish and deliver them; but they can generally be obtained more economically by the cart-load from wood-dealers.

The majority of the people live from hand to mouth, and buy their supplies from day to day at the handiest shop; others buy a month's supply of groceries from some dealer down town. The bread made by the bakers in Rio is so good that no family thinks of baking its own bread. Beef is bought fresh every morning, and is generally good. The slaughter of beef-creatures takes place several miles out of the city, under government supervision. The meat is brought into the city on the railroad before evening, and, just before dark, great, heavy, closed wagons, drawn by four mules, go rumbling through the city and deliver the beef in quarters at the numerous meat-shops. By ten o'clock in the morning the retailer has generally sold out all of his stock, though after that a few pieces may be seen hanging up at his door. Ice is rather a dear luxury, though it is now manufactured extensively at Rio. Families get along, however, very well without ice, by cooking their meat the day it is bought, and keeping the food in perforated zinc-paneled, movable cupboards—a most useful article of pantry furniture, which I have only seen in Brazil.

Fresh pork is regarded in Rio as a luxury. The salt pork of the country is good, and comes in a dry condition in heavy rolls. Poultry is sold alive through fear of disease. Turkeys are driven in flocks and peddled at a high price; the drivers, at a slow pace and in a singing tone, advertising as they go. There are numerous cow-stables all through the city, and milk is delivered in bottles by men afoot, though a few carts are making a beginning. It is also common to drive cows around singly in the morning, and to milk at the door the quantity a family may require. In such cases the calf is allowed to accompany the cow, but is subjected to a muzzle. This dairy business appears

to be in the hands of the Portuguese; and the frequent sight of these cows led about through the streets by innocent, country-looking youths, in some cases quite fresh from the valleys of Portugal, gives Rio a rustic feature which is pleasant.

Of family subsistence, more things are of foreign production than would, at first thought, be supposed. Butter comes in tin cans from Denmark, or some other foreign country; lard from the United States; potatoes and onions from Portugal. Neither green corn, green peas, nor tomatoes to any extent, are found in the Rio market. There is a fair supply of several kinds of delicate sea-fish, and the best way to procure them is to go direct to the principal market, rather than depend on fish-peddlers, whose presence can often be known by the sense of smell. The mero, one of the best, is a thick fish with black skin, without scales, costing forty cents a pound, and grows to the size of two hundred pounds. The badejo is another dark-skinned fish, without scales, and attains a weight of sixty pounds. The roballo has scales of the color of the shad, a black stripe on each side, and looks like our salt-water striped bass; its ordinary weight is about seven pounds. The curvina is reddish-colored, has thick, hard scales, which have to be shaved off, with an outer skin, and weighs about six pounds. This, and the vermelho, are similar to the red snapper of the Gulf of Mexico in appearance, and in the delicacy and firmness of their flesh. Nearly all the fish are caught in the Bay of Rio de Janeiro, into which they come from the sea, though some are taken outside as far as Cape Frio, eighteen hours distant by sail. The mero and badejo are caught only with the hook.

The metric system of weights and measures is in use,

and meat, fish, and groceries are bought by the kilogramme of two and twenty hundredths pounds. The unit for the measure of money is the milreis—thousand reis—on the same principle as if we in the United States were to indicate our money in mills, and in writing a dollar should say one thousand mills. In figures the Brazilians write a milreis thus, 1\$000. Five hundred reis, or half a milreis, they write \$500, and a conto—one thousand milreis—1,000\$000. There are nickel one hundred and two hundred reis-pieces, the first worth about four cents and the latter eight cents. There are also copper pieces of which five are equal to a hundred reis. The Brazilian milreis in gold has the value of fifty-four and six tenths cents. But neither gold nor silver is in circulation. All of the money consists of irredeemable legal-tender Government notes which have for years been continually depreciating in value till in 1885 the milreis, in paper, was worth only about thirty-six cents. It rose to the value of forty cents the first half of 1886. This sort of money in a country affects business just on the same principle as if the length of the yardstick were to change from week to week.

The average wages of servants in good families are about forty-five milreis, say sixteen dollars, per month. Some of the best servants are slaves, who are owned and have been trained by people of the upper class. The wages of such servants all go to the owner. The Portuguese generally make industrious and reliable servants, and are very commonly employed in such capacity. They do not expect to make or receive many visits; and they are usually bright, cheerful, and respectful. As the halls, stairs, and floors, especially in dining-rooms, are uncarpeted, there is considerable scrubbing to be done, and that is done by men on their knees. A man-servant of some

of the wealthier families will rise daily as early as five and go to the market, two miles distant, to buy what is needed for the table in the way of fish, meat, vegetables, and fruit. But, ordinarily, your man-servant rises at six, and in a pair of slip-shod slippers goes to the nearest meat-shop for the day's supply; while the meat is being cut, he steps into the shop of the adjoining grocer and buys a morning journal, the columns of which he enjoys reading as much as any one. If he feels like it, he indulges in a small glass of the spirits of the country. On his return to the house, in the course of ten or fifteen minutes, he blacks your boots, sweeps the dining-room and hall, perhaps washes off the steps and sidewalk in front, sets the table for breakfast, cleans the parrot-cage, and generally continues occupied through the day, taking a few whiffs from a cigarette at intervals.

There is in common use in Brazil, as well as in Spanish America and in Portugal and Spain, an earthen bottle (called in Brazil *moringue*) for holding drinking-water, which is very serviceable, and would form a most useful addition to American household utensils in warm weather, as it keeps water fresh and cool a long time. It is likewise a very picturesque object, being in the form of an ancient Greek pattern, of which a specimen, all but the stopper, is given in Plate XXVIII, page 234, of Eastlake's "Household Taste," under the head of "Greek toilet-ware." The lower part of this bottle is bulbous in form, about eight inches in diameter, the neck four or five inches long, so as to be conveniently grasped by the hand, and one and a half inch in diameter at the mouth. The stopper is hollow, with a neat circular cap top. The bottom is flat, and it is usually set on a small plate of the same material—the whole of a deep Indian-red color.

The quality of being unglazed gives it the power to keep water cool. Being used also with a stopper, as it always should be, it prevents the water from absorbing the impurities of the atmosphere; it also excludes insects; and for these reasons, and because it keeps the water cool, it would be a vast improvement on our open pitchers. In the sick-chamber at night it would prove especially valuable. Its introduction into our country would also tend to do away with the use of ice-water. These bottles are all made by hand, and beautifully shaped by the eye, from a lump of moist and prepared clay, while revolving rapidly on a little table which the workman keeps in motion by a crank worked with his foot. They are retailed singly, with the plate, at less than fifty cents. Glazed and fancy painted bottles are often to be seen on the tables of restaurants and hotels, but they do not keep the water cool, nor are they as picturesque as the unglazed bottles. No family undertakes to do without the latter.

CHAPTER III.

RIO AND ITS PEOPLE.

WHILE the first rude huts were being built where New York now stands, Rio de Janeiro, the commercial and political capital of Brazil, had been settled over fifty years. It is situated as far south as Havana is north of the equator, and has now a population of nearly half a million, it being the largest city, outside of the United States, on the American Continent. It is the seat of half the foreign commerce of the empire, has a navy-yard, arsenal, several ship-yards, cotton-mills, foundries, and other manufactures. If one of our larger ships of war needed repairs while in the South Atlantic, it could find only at Rio a sufficiently large dry-dock. The glory of the city is its splendid harbor, four miles wide by twelve miles long, and into which the largest ships can enter with ease and lie in safety. The city is built on one side of the bay which forms this harbor, with wooded and peaked mountains in the immediate background, whose spurs and foot-hills, in places, press down almost to the water's edge, forming headlands between which are smaller, crescent-shaped bays. The older part of the city is on low, flat land, where the streets are straight and narrow. Within the present city limits are twenty hills, some of which are quite prominent and covered with buildings. The principal hill is Santa Theresa. On the Gloria are a white

church of the same name, and a few villas amid scattered royal palms; on the Castle Hill are the observatory and shipping telegraph station, while the Saude Hill is covered with old and cheap dwellings. Two or three other hills are noticeable as the sites of old and rather dingy-looking convents. Others, again, are about in their natural state, clothed with bushes and trees, though here and there are considerable areas of green grass. Granite-quarrying is going on extensively at the base and sides of several hills.

From the Botanical Garden, situated at the foot of the Corcovado Mountain, around to the foot of the Tijuca Mountains, the distance is about ten miles, all of which is built up. The whole of this distance can be traveled in street-cars, and the trip would give one many interesting views and a fair idea of the city. Another interesting ride on the street-cars would be to Ponte Caju, and past the cemetery of that name. It is a promontory, at the end of which the Emperor has his hunting-park, but which, I imagine, he seldom visits. A still more interesting trip on the street-cars is up the inclined plane in cars pulled by a cable and stationary engine on the Santa Theresa Hill, and to the new reservoir, the view from which is fine.

The best view of Rio and its surroundings is obtained from the top of the Corcovado Mountain, two thousand feet high, situated about five miles from the custom-house. Though connected with the Tijuca group of mountains, among which are some higher peaks, it is easily distinguished by its peculiar form. The side toward the sea is a precipitous column of rock for half the distance down from the top—the Botanical Garden lying at the foot. The opposite side is gradually sloping, clothed with forest, and from some points of view is thought to look like the stooping shoulders of an old man—a fancy

which suggested its name. The view from the summit, taking in as it does almost the whole extended and irregular area of the city, with many interesting natural objects, is highly pleasing. Like Naples, as seen from the hill of St. Elmo, the level part of the city resembles a plane of tiled roofs, with steeples and domes interspersed, yet studded with several bright-green hills dotted with buildings and trees. In the direction of the Emperor's residence, some six miles distant, and which seems to stand amid an undulating, verdant park, are large tracts of vacant, level, and grass-covered land, showing what an extensive area remains for the city to be built upon farther up the bay. Beyond these in the distance are to be seen the Organ and Petropolis Mountains, though they are frequently obscured by the clouds. The blue Atlantic, visible as far as the eye can reach, the surf rolling over white beaches near the foot of the mountain, the few scattered islands near the shore, the Sugar-Loaf and other prominent heights near the entrance of the harbor, the capacious harbor itself with its numerous vessels, the old city of Nitheroy on the opposite side—these are some of the many objects upon which the eye lingers. A railway for most of the way up was opened in the latter part of 1884, and completed to the top the next year; so that now, by taking the Larangeiras street-car and the new railway connecting therewith, one can get from the heart of the city to the summit in an hour. The area on the summit is about a fifth of an acre, all granite, and is inclosed by a firm concrete wall. At Paineiras, two thirds of the way up, is a fashionable restaurant hotel.

Is Rio built of wood, of brick, or of marble? Neither. It is, however, massively built. The walls of the buildings are concrete, formed of small pieces of split stone,

mortar, and an occasional layer of brick, are usually two feet thick, and in some of the older public buildings even thicker. The color of the walls is frequently white, sometimes a brilliant blue, olive-green, or a light red. The roofs, four-sided, of the hip style, are all covered with thick, red, oval tiles, and, there being no chimneys, their aspect is dull. To relieve this, the more genteel houses have either a balustrade or stuccoed wall around the roofs, with statues, vases, or other figures on the corners. The stories and windows are high. Balconies are common, with smooth granite bottoms, sculptured underneath, being composed of large blocks extending through the thickness of the wall, and lending strength as well as ornament to the edifice. The windows in the modern buildings open door-fashion, and are well adapted to the climate. They are very securely fastened at top and bottom by simply one turn of the handle of an iron bolt. Windows in the lower stories have strong wooden folding shutters inside. In chamber-windows the glass part opens inward on hinges, with blinds opening outward. The trimmings, such as window-caps, door and window facings, are of smooth granite—the handsome black and white granite so abundant at Rio—often perfectly arched, and lend an aspect of durability as well as of ornament to the building. The foundation-walls, to the height of two feet or more, are of granite. In some of the stuccoed buildings almost too much expense seems to have been devoted to outside show. Many houses are in imitation of reddish marble and very handsome. Some of the inside shutters, of black walnut, or those painted white with gilt borders, show to advantage through windows of plate-glass. There is not much display of curtains. The front sides of some of the older buildings are wholly or partly covered with

flat porcelain tiles, generally of blue color, like what may be seen in Lisbon. There is but one marble building in Rio, and that is a sumptuous private mansion of reddish Italian marble, with splendid grounds extending down to the water, and singularly called the "Palace of Tears." The Library building of the Portuguese colony, now in course of erection, is of white stone from Portugal and of elaborate Gothic architecture. The new Merchants' Exchange is of granite only in the first story, the upper part being of stucco. The fronts of some of the churches are of light-colored imported stone. The Mint is a neat building, with Doric granite pillars; the Marine Hospital (*Misericordia*) is a stately edifice, with a colonnade of imposing granite pillars, fronting on the water. The Bank of Brazil is a fine granite structure; likewise the new Medical School. So, also, the Cathedral has a high and handsome dome. But generally the public buildings and churches are plain. The Imperial Palace is simply respectable, yet has a lovely situation.

The fashionable private residences are in those parts of the city known as Larangeiras and Botafogo, also to some extent in São Christovão, each about three miles from the business center, and reached by street-cars. Of these localities Larangeiras is the more elevated. The houses of the wealthy are mostly separate, standing in delightful grounds, amid neatly kept lawns, flower-beds, shrubbery of various colors, different varieties of trees, including often some species of dwarf palm, and groups of the clustered, small-stemmed palm of Pará. Sometimes there is a row of royal palms in front of the house, or there may be an avenue of these palms leading to the house. They are seventy to eighty feet high, but seem much taller, with tops like gigantic ostrich-plumes and

stems perfectly smooth and symmetrical—the most striking tree of the tropics. The grounds of these houses are inclosed by an iron fence consisting of perpendicular arrow- or spear-pointed rods set upon a substantial wall of smooth granite, the whole about twelve feet high. But the most characteristic, and, I think, one of the most attractive features of the surroundings are the gate-pillars at the main driveway or entrance from the street. The gates themselves are of iron rods, but the pillars are often beautifully proportioned shafts of sculptured granite, surmounted by graceful capitals, on which rests a ball of the same material. More commonly the gate-pillars are of masonry, two or three feet thick and twelve to fifteen feet high, and sometimes surmounted by a vase containing the gilt-bordered cactus, or by a figure of a lion, a big pineapple, or a small statue. Not unusually they, as well as the fence, are covered with a thick mat of closely trimmed myrtle, or with vines bearing brilliant flowers. The hollyhock, the begonia, the oleander, the red-flowered eusibius of Mexico, and many other plants, in their seasons of bloom attract attention in these various inclosures. Often the entrance to the house is at the side, and, instead of there being much ground in front, there will be a narrow strip extending on one side of the house a long distance to the rear and well stocked with orange-trees and shrubbery. One may ride in the open street-cars by some of the finer of these private residences and grounds daily the year round, and look upon their bright and cheerful aspect with undiminished pleasure.

Rio has gathered a variety of beautiful flowering trees from different parts of the tropical world. There are several large and tall ones, some bearing purple flowers, others yellow flowers, whose names I do not know; and

I presume one reason why so few people at Rio know the names of the trees is because the species are not native. The flambeau, or torch-tree, bearing scarlet blossoms in December, is becoming common as a shade-tree. The large-leafed *chapeo do sul*, or umbrella-tree, has been planted for shade in many of the streets. A splendid tall tree, with small and very dark green leaves, bearing large red flowers in August and September—the *Espartodia excelsa* of Australia—may be seen in a few private grounds and in the Public Garden. The mango is a large native tree, very common, and at a distance resembles a spreading oak ; it puts forth russet-colored flowers in July. The tall, thick, yet graceful clusters of bamboo, with plume-like tops and always dark green, are a characteristic feature of the vegetation. A large and tall shade-tree, bearing nuts, with leaves like those of the lilac, and which small birds love to haunt, is rather common. In the outskirts of the city around the cabins of the poor are plentiful thickets of the broad-leaved banana. As a whole, it is a vegetation that craves and is favored by an abundance of sunshine.

The Public Garden, containing about eight acres ; the Park of the Constitution, still larger, and containing a fine bronze statue of the Emperor's father, surrounded by groups of aborigines of heroic size ; and the Park of Acclimation, containing about forty acres, are in the middle part of the city, and well laid out. In the older and lower portions of Rio the streets are very narrow ; and the sidewalks, which are scarcely wide enough for two to go abreast, are raised but an inch or two above the street pavement. The foot-boards on the sides of some of the street-cars overlap these sidewalks a little, and frequently the wheels of heavy teams driving at a rapid pace invade them, compelling

people on foot to dodge into a shop-door to escape being run over. These narrow streets are the only thoroughfares of commerce; and when the export trade is active, and great cargoes of coffee destined to Europe and the United States are being moved through them at reckless speed, the noise and din of the long trains of loaded wagons and of street freight-cars, drawn by mules, with the yelling of excited drivers, are intense. These narrow streets are behind the times, and altogether unsuitable for the great traffic that is done in them. Could Rio be remodeled as Paris was by Napoleon III, it would become one of the finest cities in the world. The city throughout is well paved with granite blocks, and is generously lighted by gas, the lamps for which are kept scrupulously clean. Electric light is used in some places. Great improvement has been made in the past fifteen years, especially in drainage and cleanliness; and improvement is still the order of the day, though it is not so rapid nor systematic as it could be if there were some leading business men's organization that could influence public opinion. An English corporation, called the City Improvement Company, has for several years had a contract for making drains, and an extensive system of drainage is in operation and continually increasing. The pavement of some of the older streets still slopes a little to the center, through which, during a heavy shower, there will run quite a brook. Several of these streets, including the much-traveled Ouvidor, may, during a heavy rain, be impassable by foot-people for an hour. There will be times when the only way to get across them will be by a temporary foot-bridge, fixed by some street-porter. A too confident jumper will now and then land in the water, much to the amusement of the by-standers. Though not subject to snow blockades, Rio is liable to

blockades of sand and earth, washed down from the hills during an unusually heavy fall of rain. In 1883 some of the street-cars were stopped two days by such obstruction.

The principal means of communication are street-cars, drawn by mules over very smoothly laid steel rails. The pioneer street-railway was to the Botanical Garden, established several years ago by American enterprise. It accommodates the Botafogo and Laranjeiras districts. Naturally the money for the undertaking was raised by the sale of the company's bonds, and from that fact the street-cars in Rio are universally called "bondes." "Are you going to take the 'bond'?" means in Rio, "Are you going to take the street-car?" The street-railways are well managed, comfortable, and popular. The first-class cars are open, yet provided with leather or oil-cloth curtains, to exclude rain or sun. The seats of polished Brazil-wood or mahogany face to the front, and the backs can be swung over when the direction is reversed. Each seat accommodates four persons, who can sit very comfortably. It is only on the cheaper, or second-class cars, that more than the regular number of passengers are allowed to crowd in. A conductor passes along outside on a foot-board to take the fare. For a distance of two miles, or less, the fare is a nickel of two hundred reis, equivalent to eight cents. These first-class cars are habitually used by the wealthy, yet the humblest person is admitted without distinction of color, unless barefooted. So comfortable are they, that people, of an evening, often take a ride in them for pleasure. They afford opportunity for noticing the manners of the people, who, as a rule, are quiet and well-bred. Of course, smoking is universally allowed. Perhaps half the gentlemen on a street-car in the morning will be smoking cigars or cigarettes. Soon after the

Brazilian has taken his seat, he proceeds with great deliberation to prepare to smoke. He takes from his pocket a neat pouch of tobacco, from a pocket-book a ready-cut cigarette-wrapper, generally of corn-husk, into which he puts a few small pinches of tobacco, at the same time distributing it along, and pressing and rolling it into proper form; he folds the wrapper around it with care, then takes from another pocket a little box of explosive matches, lights his cigarette, and proceeds to smoke. He is in no hurry about anything. Perhaps, seated next to him, is one of the many devout Sisters of Charity, in her uniform of white bonnet and gray, woolen dress, and who, by the movement of her lips, her downcast expression, and slow telling of her beads, is saying prayers.

For public carriages there is the one-horse chaise (tilbury) and hacks drawn by two mules. Distances being long, the pavements rather rough, and the main streets much intersected by railways, there is little inducement for private equipages, of which there are but few. Besides, there is not in Rio, nor in its suburbs nearer than the mountains of Tijuca, any pleasure driveway—a great lack, indeed, in respect of recreation for the wealthy. Probably the Copacabana Beach, which is right along the ocean and favored with mountain views, is not too distant for this purpose. Were a macadamized road built there, and nicely shaded with trees, it would afford a driveway as fine as that at Marseilles. Such things will come in their time—say a hundred years from now, when the city will be much richer than it is at present. The general absence of elegant private carriages, and the habit of genteel people riding in the “bondes,” give Rio a democratic characteristic that few other cities possess. Rich and poor travel in the pleasant, open street-cars. The exceptions

are the imperial family and the cabinet ministers. Each of the latter, by fashion's edict, maintains a two-horse *coupé*, which is generally driven very fast, and closely followed by a couple of mounted guards.

The street most frequented is the Rua do Ouvidor, extending from the water about half a mile to the Largo, or Square of São Francisco, and its locality should be well fixed in the mind of the stranger, because eight or ten street-railway lines for the direction of São Christovão start from the Square of São Francisco, where it ends, and the Botanical Garden and Lorangeiras lines leave it at the foot of Rua Gonçalves Dias. In the vicinity of where it leaves the water are the custom-house, post-office, Merchants' Exchange, public market, the principal banks, and the shops of the money-changers. It is not much more than twenty feet wide, contains some of the best shops, in whose plate-glass windows are displayed costly jewelry or silks, and is so much occupied by pedestrians that carriages are not allowed in it from early in the morning till late at night; though the big one-mule garbage-carts, with their dust and smells, detained by late risers, are often not through their daily service till after ten in the morning. About that time squads of business-men, brokers, and clerks, who left their homes from half an hour to an hour before on the street-cars, and have just alighted, are seen hurrying along through this street, with umbrella in hand, to their several places of business. Besides having the best dry-goods, millinery, and jewelry stores, it also has some of the best and most frequented coffee-restaurants. There, about the middle of the day, and especially on Mondays, fashionable ladies, often accompanied by their daughters, are to be seen shopping. The Polytechnic School and College of Dom Pedro II being near one end

of this street, it is a convenient place for students to linger a little after the hours of examination. A person walking from the Chamber of Deputies to the Senate would pass there. From these and other circumstances, it happens that, from noon till about two o'clock in the afternoon, the street is generally crowded with people, many of whom are standing in groups conversing. If there is a Cabinet crisis or other political excitement, a crowd will be reading the latest bulletins at the newspaper-offices. Matronly and richly dressed ladies with their handsome children by their side, wealthy planters from the country, senators and deputies—some of the most distinguished-looking men of the empire; groups of students, and often a little party of foreign travelers just stopping off from a steamship for a few hours' stroll—these, together with the hundreds hastening along on business errands, help to make up an animated throng which is numerous enough to impede one's progress. With the temperature at 90° Fahr. in the shade, the heat on such occasions is oppressive, though the awnings in front of the shops keep off much of the sun.

The dress of the Rio people differs scarcely any from that of Europeans and Americans. The Brazilian gentleman wears the "stove-pipe" or stiff silk hat, a double-breasted frock-coat of black cloth, closely buttoned even in the warmest weather, and trousers of the same material. Business men generally wear the common stiff felt hat; and, in hot weather, trousers and vests of white linen are common. Straw hats are less used than in the United States. There are any number of ready-made clothing stores at Rio, and apparently the goods are about the same as supplied in northern climes.

The type of countenance is Latin; complexion dark,

hair and eyes black, forehead high, nose prominent. The eyes are generally large, and the expression amiable. Ladies, at middle age, are inclined to be fat; and while one frequently sees tall men at Rio, the stature of the people is lower than that of Americans and the inhabitants of the north of Europe. It is only in the Amazon Valley that there has been much mixture of races.

Sea-bathing is very popular, though the water is that of the bay, and not quite as pure as the ocean. Some ladies rise at four in the morning, ride a mile or two in the street-car to a beach, bathe in the salt water, and then go back home and go to bed again.

There is a good deal of reserve in the female character; although, as a rule, Brazilians are informal. Especially are the young unmarried ladies of the higher society dignified and formal. A single gentleman sitting near one of them at dinner, even though he had been introduced, would need to be cautious in offering his assistance. If he were attentive, for example, in passing her different things within his reach, a look of surprise on her part would be likely to warn him that he was making himself too free. These young ladies have more color than would perhaps be expected in a tropical country. They have black eyes, an abundance of black hair, and their education consists principally of a knowledge of the French language, music, and embroidery.

Macedo, a popular Brazilian author, wrote in regard to Brazilian women previous to 1873: "The ancient anachronic and oppressive Portuguese customs which compelled the ladies—mothers and daughters—to live secluded from society, shut up in the depths of the domestic hearth, only visible to relations and intimate friends, and only to be guessed at in the churches and public

places of amusement through their rich or simple mantillas and their thick veils—those rude customs of woman's captivity, for whom, as a general rule, the father selected a husband, have long since been condemned and banished from Brazil, where, in the capital and in the cities, as regards ladies and families, the same formalities of a good, accessible, and polished society are observable and practiced as in the most civilized cities of the Old World."

The characteristic thought of Brazil is positivism, or the science of society—belief in the elevation of society mainly by the improvement of morals. The same style of thinking takes the lead at Rio. But a great maritime city, having constant intercourse with the outer world, will always be more enlightened, humane, and liberal than the average of people. Hence, the society of Rio is more refined than that of Brazil in general. Fashionable society follows the style of the genteel classes in Europe. It is an orderly city, though not exempt from those occasional crimes of violence that occur in large cities. Two or three years ago there was something of a riot, and some street-lamps were broken, because the gas company (English) had raised its charges; but even such disturbances are rare. The police are generally young men, and, though slight in appearance, will sometimes hang on to a powerful offender with real grit. Some of the hardest customers they have to deal with are intoxicated foreign seamen.

A practice which strikes Americans as novel is the carrying of immense burdens on the head. There goes a cooper's fifteen-year-old apprentice-lad bearing on his head six empty ten-gallon hard-wood kegs, bound in one package! There comes a porter, carrying in the same

way an empty dry-goods box as big as an ox-cart! Tinpeddlers go about with a general assortment of their wares carried in a big basin on their heads; and, like all peddlers at Rio, they endeavor to draw attention by continually beating on some of their implements. Stout colored women, with fine figures, necks and arms like bronze, peddle liver and tripe, which they carry in large trays on their heads. So, a porter will often be seen carrying in this way a wicker coop containing two or three dozen live chickens. But the heaviest burdens borne upon the head are pianos. It is quite common to see six negroes marching along in step with a piano on their heads, which they may be carrying a couple of miles. The porters who handle coffee, and who carry bags of it on their heads weighing one hundred and thirty-two pounds each, are generally Africans. Some of them are natives of Africa, and believers in the Mohammedan religion. They seem temperate and industrious, and, when unoccupied with heavy work, sit in the doorways of the wholesale houses braiding straw or palm-leaf hats. If there are a few near together, their voices may frequently be heard in loud but good-humored talk. Their naked feet—and very stubby, queer-looking feet some of them are—occupy a certain part of the narrow sidewalk. These men generally appear to be upward of fifty years old, and sometimes one of them will be seen leaning his head against the side of the doorway enjoying a nap. The presence of so many humble laborers occupying the doorways of many of the important business houses indicates a humane and free-and-easy feeling.

There, on the sidewalk, against the wall of a church, sits a cobbler, plying his trade in the open air. He is bare-headed and barefooted. A young apprentice works with

him. Scattered through the city are many such who thus get their rent free, as their progenitors did thousands of years ago in old Rome and Tyre.

The most numerous street-venders are those, of all ages, who sell lottery-tickets. Lotteries are legalized and protected by the Government in all parts of the country, and the purchase and sale of lottery-tickets is one of the chief subjects of popular interest. "*Andar hoje!*" ("The wheel turns to-day!") is a call from the lips of lottery-ticket sellers which greets the passer-by at many street-corners the year round. Rio seems a paradise for newspaper-boys—a jolly and peaceable set—the most of whom go bare-footed, wear patched trousers, a shirt, a black felt hat, and smoke cigarettes. They hover at the regular starting and stopping places of the street-cars, and go on a keen run from the newspaper-offices with the latest edition. They shout the papers, and make a great deal of clamor, especially when it has a list of lottery-prizes. The confectionary-venders, equally numerous and noisy, sell homemade candies, called *ballas*, each done up in a twist of fancy colored paper. These venders are generally black or mulatto slave-boys, who are required to carry home a fixed sum, and are allowed the surplus if there be any. While the fashionable street-car is rapidly filling, or farther on waits a minute for a coming car to pass, the indulgent Brazilian parent has just time to buy a handful of these sweets for the children.

There are several itinerant bands of German musicians, who go about the streets of Rio and execute instrumental music for the pay that the by-standers may choose to give. A few of these bands comprise a dozen members, and their instruments are what are generally used by an orchestra. They seem to make the round of the

city every ten days or two weeks. All at once, say about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, when the heat is most intense, the occupants of a counting-room are liable to hear under their windows the inspiring strains of some fine overture, executed by one of these bands.

The native, the Portuguese, and the Italian elements, comprise the majority of the laboring classes. Many of the Portuguese are from the Azores, and are usually industrious and saving. Generally laborers are paid every fifteen days; but house-servants, salesmen, and clerks, monthly. At common labor men now earn at Rio about eighty cents a day; machinists, from seven to thirty dollars a week, depending on the degree of skill and kind of trade. Laboring-men at Rio usually live in *estalagem*s or in *cortiços*. The former is the name given to a number of small houses, built together and forming a square, or sometimes even occupying the ground-floor of a respectable dwelling-house. A *cortiço* (hive) is where these houses are almost limited to one room each, and have to be reached by a common staircase and veranda. Quarters in an *estalagem* may be rented at from five to eight dollars a month; and in a *cortiço*, at from three and a half to four and a half dollars a month. Single men hiring only one room pay two and a half to three and a half dollars a month. These hives are generally very much wanting in sanitary regards. The best quarters never comprise more than three rooms—a sitting-room, a bedroom, and a kitchen. The sitting-room and the bedroom are each about ten feet square; the kitchen much smaller. Some houses do not have a kitchen, in which case the occupants cook out in the common yard. In the sitting-room are generally found a pine-wood table, wooden or sometimes cane-seated chairs, and, more rarely, a cane-seated sofa. In

the bedroom stand a bedstead, an iron wash-stand, and, perhaps, a chest of drawers; and on the walls may be seen some cheap picture of a saint. In the kitchen is an iron stove belonging to the house, an earthen water-jar, and some shelves. Usually the bedroom has no window, but there are openings at the top of the wall for ventilation. The workman leaves his house for his work, and the wife passes the whole day washing and ironing. The health of these women often breaks down from overwork. It is not usual among the laboring classes for families to lay up money. However, one sometimes sees men, particularly the unmarried, endure all kinds of privations to save money. Many of the young, toiling Portuguese look forward to returning at some future day to their native island or country, and buying a little patch of ground with all its free appurtenances of sun and sky, and doubly dear from its boyhood associations. In no clime do men work harder than at Rio, and the frugal can rise in the world. A short time ago there died at Rio a baron owning a number of houses, which brought him a monthly revenue of seventeen hundred dollars, and who began life as a peddler of liver and tripe. After the day's work is done, the time is frequently passed in card-playing, in a game of quoits, or in singing. The Italians are fond of singing, and amuse themselves thus, and by playing on the accordion and banjo. One cotton and woolen factory at Rio employs sixty women and forty-seven children as operatives. Some other factories employ female operatives. Women are also employed in boot and shoe factories. Probably two thousand females are employed in manufacturing establishments in the city.

Of laboring-men seen in the streets a majority are barefooted, and wear simply an undershirt, common black

felt hat, and trousers of blue cotton drilling, often much faded and patched. Scarcely one in a hundred wears a cravat or anything about the neck. The bone and sinew of Rio are replenished every year by some thousands of temperate, industrious, and hardy people from the Azore Islands and the mountain districts of Portugal.

Being the capital, Rio is under the jurisdiction of the Crown, which attends to all such matters as the supply of water, light, and police. The Municipal Council now have a new and fine chamber; they are elected for four years, and their president is the acting mayor. They receive no salaries. Licenses for the sale of spirits are not high. About every grocery retails spirits, or may do so; and there are, besides, many stands, or *kiosks*, in the more frequented squares where spirits are retailed. A good deal of native rum is drunk by the slaves and lower class of laborers, which is sold at only a cent or two for a small glass. The use of beer is increasing; but, while much strong drink is consumed, intoxication is not very common. The best business men and the best laboring-men are habitually temperate. Buildings are taxed but vacant land is nowhere taxed in Brazil. One may own acres of land in the city limits without ever having to pay a tax on it. What a happy place for real-estate dealers!—only that there is a tax of six per cent on the amount of consideration in every conveyance.

The Brazilians are a very patriotic people. Some of the streets in the city bear as names the dates of important national events. There are several political as well as religious holidays, and they are generally ushered in by the discharge of fire-crackers and rockets, the noise of which sometimes continues with but little cessation through the day.

The Carnival seems to be losing something of its popularity. The higher classes at that time keep within-doors. The first reminder one has of the approaching festival is the appearance, on the Sunday preceding it, of boys, and especially mulattoes and blacks, in the streets, dressed in tight-fitting suits of red cloth with long tails and hoods, frequently masked, and who are called *diabos*, or devils. The real fun begins the afternoon before Carnival-day and continues during the day. People then have a good deal of sport, saluting even strangers with mock politeness, squirting perfumed water at each other, and throwing at whoever they think they can hit light waxen balls of water the size of a hen's egg. It is very funny, especially to those who do not get too much of a drenching. On these occasions passengers in the street-cars who are liable to be pelted from balconies, and people in the more crowded streets, do not want to have on their best clothes. Sometimes a cranky individual will resent the sport, and a lively little interchange of fisticuffs will be the result. But for the most part everything passes off in the best of humor, and mankind for a while seem like a happy family. The celebration winds up with a gorgeous torch-light procession of people of both sexes in rich fancy costumes, sometimes masked, drawn in highly decorated carriages. The male portion of the procession is made up principally of the different social clubs whose organization is mostly for balls and other pleasure, and which adopt singular names, such as "Devil's Lieutenants," "Fenians," "Democrats."

The ordinary diversions are such as are found in most large cities. There are several spacious theatres. Horse-racing is becoming frequent on Sundays and holidays, and occasionally there is a bull-fight. But there is among

the higher-toned people a growing disposition to encourage manly sports—rowing, ball-playing, and jumping. The exhibitions of the Athletic Club are attended by the imperial family and families of high social rank. When business is good at Rio, some foreign opera company usually performs at the Dom Pedro Segundo Theatre during the three cooler months—June, July, and August. On such occasions the Emperor and Empress are generally to be seen in the imperial box. Ladies sitting in the first tier of boxes, or dress-circle, are in full evening dress without bonnets; if they sit in the parquet, they may wear bonnets. The performance does not begin till eight o'clock. There are long intermissions between the acts, when most of the men go out and smoke cigarettes—it is a cold day in Brazil when there are no cigarettes—or take a cup of coffee, and the opera or play does not end till after midnight. The Dom Pedro Segundo Theatre is very large. The Beethoven Club, with an Englishman at its head, is a valuable organization which provides several small and one or two grand concerts every season. With my family I attended two of its grand concerts in the Casino Hall, situated opposite the Public Garden. The music was of the highest order, and there was a large number of performers; but there also the exercises were spun out to an intolerable length: indeed, between the second and third parts of one concert time was given for some of the performers to sit down to a table in a side-room and partake of an elaborate meal while the audience were lingering about and whiling away the time as best they could. However, during the ordinary intermissions many of the audience move about through the ample corridors, or partake of refreshments which are for sale at buffets in the palm-bordered side-rooms. The

imperial family with their attendants were present, and sat, not with the audience, but in special chairs at one side. The hall of the Casino will hold several thousand people, and is finely proportioned, with a handsome gallery on each side, supported by fluted pillars, and is with its decorations an exceedingly beautiful hall. It is seldom used, and only for grand balls of high society and an occasional concert.

Street begging is illegal and is pretty much suppressed, but there are certain people who are allowed to beg in the streets on Saturdays, making their regular rounds; their numerous visits are inconvenient, and I have admired the patience with which shopkeepers go to the door and hand the poor one a copper.

Passing one afternoon with a friend along *Rua Evarista de Veiga*, the street on which the English church at Rio is situated, and which runs along the foot of the San Antonio Hill parallel with the front of the Public Garden, we came, when in sight of the high aqueduct arches, to the Foundling Hospital (*Casa dos Expostos*), into which we were admitted by a Sister of Charity. Annually about four hundred infants of unknown parentage are secretly conveyed into this humane institution through what is popularly called "the wheel." Since its establishment it has received forty thousand such infants! They are taken care of eight days, then put into private families for board at about five dollars a month each, until a year and a half old, after which two dollars a month are paid. About six thousand dollars a quarter are thus paid by the asylum for the children's outside board. When old enough to attend school, they are brought back to the institution, where they receive instruction till the age of twelve years, and then are sent to learn trades. A

little dower is given them when they marry. There are now forty children in the asylum receiving instruction. The building stands even with the sidewalk, and there is nothing in its exterior to mark its character save, perhaps, the place where the infants are deposited; and this would not attract the notice of a casual passer-by, unacquainted with the building, because the opening in the wall is scarcely apparent. What looks like a narrow and slightly oval vertical panel in the wall set in a stone frame is the outer side of the "wheel," a sort of barrel-shaped revolving dumb-waiter, with three open shelves on the interior side. The outer side fits close, and a firm push is required to make it turn and bring the shelves toward the street. When this is done, a foundling can be laid on one of the shelves; and, as the wheel is again turned, it in a moment conveys the child within the walls of the asylum into what may be called the foundling reception room, and at the same time rings a very loud alarm-bell. A Sister of Charity or servant immediately comes and takes the foundling; and in order to preserve its identity for any future purpose, a record is immediately made of the exact time it was received, its sex, appearance, and clothing. Sometimes the mother has pinned to its clothing the name she wishes it to bear, and this wish is usually respected. Nobody knows or cares to know who left the child. The very contrivance of the wheel is to afford secrecy.

Many of the foundlings are sick when received, and from thirty to thirty-two per cent die, a smaller percentage than in former years. The number received in former times was also larger than at present, being from five hundred to six hundred per year, thus showing that, with the social improvement of the age, there is a decrease

of illegitimate births, notwithstanding the growth of the city. Many of the foundlings are mulattoes; and those which I saw, in a dormitory of thirty-two beds, were quite diminutive. There seemed scarcely to be a healthy-looking child among them. The room they were in had a quiet situation, with two windows, and, though large, the atmosphere was close. The beds were in neat iron cribs, with a muslin mosquito-bar for each. Slave-women are invariably employed as wet-nurses, it being the policy of the asylum not to employ in that capacity any of the mothers of the foundlings. A physician visits the asylum daily. It sometimes happens that parents wish to get their children back, and, under proper circumstances and by furnishing requisite proof of identity, they can do so. I was informed by the Lady Superior, who politely accompanied us through the building, that there are now sixteen Sisters of Charity of the Order of São Vincent de Paulo living there and giving their services. It is a home for them during life, they being well cared for when no longer able for active duty. The institution was founded in 1738 by Romão de Mattos Duarte, and is so amply endowed that its own income is abundantly sufficient to meet all its expenses. Though plain outwardly, the building is very commodious and well finished; all its floors are of polished hard wood of dark color, waxed. The room for the meetings of the board of administration is quite large. On one of its walls are full-length portraits in oil of the founder, above mentioned, and of D. Luiza Roza Avondano Pereira, an important benefactress of the institution. On another side are full-length portraits of the present Emperor and Empress of Brazil, and on the wall opposite them similar-sized portraits of the Emperor's father and mother. The edifice

has a court in the center, with a flower-garden and fountain, and there is quite a piece of ground, belonging to the premises, extending up on the São Antonio Hill, for the recreation of the children. Indeed, the establishment has in its size, finish, and equipment most of the substantial qualities which affluence can provide; and it can almost be said that the foundling deposited in the "wheel" enters a palace. The president of the board of directors is the present prime minister, being the same individual who is at the head of the administration of the great Santa Casa Hospital. There are foundling asylums also in the cities of Bahia and Pernambuco.

About ten years ago, I visited a prison, in one of the smaller Protestant countries of Europe, where were fifty female convicts undergoing a life-sentence for the murder of their offspring. They were quietly and orderly working at spinning and weaving, but I remember distinctly what a fixed expression of melancholy there was on their faces. When I got home and was thinking the matter over, I thought I could not have rightly understood the director of the prison, that so many as fifty women were under sentence for child-murder, and wrote him to inquire if I was right. He replied that I had not misunderstood him. I can not but believe that institutions like this foundling hospital tend greatly to prevent crime. They certainly prevent the practice of leaving infants on door-steps.

In several of the provincial capitals there are asylums for girls, under charge of Sisters of Charity, and which appear to have been founded by private beneficence. The Asylum of Purity, established in 1874, in the province of Sergipe, for the support, protection, and education of neglected orphan girls, has a fund of five thousand dollars,

and receives annually, by vote of the provincial legislature, about two thousand dollars. The inmates, of whom there are now twenty-seven, receive instruction in the common branches, as well as sewing and house-work, and remain till they are eighteen years of age, when in case of marriage each one receives a dower of one hundred and twenty dollars in money, and an outfit of the value of eighty dollars.

Epiphany is one of the days of the Catholic Church kept with as much strictness as a New England Sunday, though it come on a week-day. I took that day to visit, with my family, the immense hospital called *Sancta Casa de Misericordia*, or Holy House of Mercy. It is the hospital into which all sick seamen (if the disease be not contagious), of whatever nationality, are received, and treated gratuitously (the port charges, which foreign vessels pay, are ample to cover such expenses), as well as the poor of the city. It is richly endowed, and generally well administered. The nurses, who likewise mix the medicines, are Sisters of Charity, of different nationalities. As I had visited the hospital several times previously, I did not on this occasion enter the sick-wards, though in passing the doors could look in. We were taken into the kitchen and prescription-room, both spacious and neat; also up-stairs into a chapel, for which large space in every such institution is devoted; also into a council-chamber or hall, on whose walls were many poorly painted portraits. There was also a full-sized plaster statue of the Emperor, though it struck me a statue of the benevolent founder of the institution, and not in plaster either, would have been more appropriate. However, there is in the reception-room a marble bust of the founder. This hospital furnishes quarters in a neighboring building for one or two hundred orphan children. It is a splendid establishment, but too

large to suit modern sanitary ideas, and its beds and pillows are very hard.

Among other institutions which we visited during our residence at Rio was the Blind Asylum, situated in Campa S. Anna. It is a Government institution, the only one in Brazil, with fifty pupils; occupies rented premises, and receives an appropriation of twenty-five thousand dollars a year. A few of the pupils speak, read, and write both Portuguese and French, also play on the piano, and sing. There is a brass band composed of pupils. Some of the needlework of the women is ingenious.

There is a fairly respectable art-gallery at Rio, which is visited on some holidays by a few hundred people; but the collection is inferior to what a foreigner would expect in a city so large, and which for a century has been the seat of a royal or imperial dynasty. There is some pretension of imparting free instruction in painting; but I got the impression that the privileges of instruction there, and at the Conservatory of Music, are not much sought after.

The principal and most modern supply of water comes a distance of thirty miles from the mountain rivers São Antonio and d'Ouro. It was estimated that the minimum supply of the aqueduct from these streams would be thirty million litres in twenty-four hours, but the Minister of Agriculture and Public Works, when he visited the reservoir *Pedregulho* on the 21st of August, 1884, found the supply to be only sixteen million litres in twenty-four hours. The oldest aqueduct is the Carioca, which brings water from heights between the Corcovado and Tijuca Mountains, a distance of eight miles. About ten million dollars in all have been expended for Rio's supply of water, which is a small sum to extend over two centuries, and

for so large and so rich a city, and one which has been so liable to dangerous epidemics. The water comes from clear mountain-streams, and is good, but is not as abundant as it ought to be. Several fountains have recently been built in some of the squares of the city, but they are dry nearly the year round. Rio ought to be as well supplied with water as Rome, where in scores of fountains one sees water enough to carry a mill, a part of which is brought in aqueducts built in the time of the old republic. Some of the water for Paris is now brought a hundred miles.

The scheme of building a bridge across the Bay of Rio de Janeiro to connect the city with Nictheroy has been advocated by capable engineers for several years, and by the president of the province in his annual report, including the latest. The shortest distance across is from the Benedictine Hill in Rio to the hill of Armacão in Nictheroy—two miles and three quarters; and the president states that a bridge suitable for tramways, vehicles, and foot-passengers, and having a draw for big vessels, could be built for six million dollars.

To see Rio in the glory of its tropical summer, one should go there in our winter months, though perhaps the safest time for Americans to be there would be from May to September. That would be the winter season at Rio, the most of which is like our pleasant summer weather. There are then many nights when three blankets are not too much cover.

With regard to the yellow fever, I would state that with my family I have passed three continuous hot seasons in the city without any of us incurring it. During the first few months of its prevalence I felt a little nervous about it. The consular office was in the level business center, and was sometimes visited by seamen in the incipi-

ent stage of the disease; but as our residence was in one of the most salubrious parts of the city, we gradually became unconcerned about it, and went and came day and evening in any part of the city without apprehension, and, as it proved, without danger. Our diet was the same as it would be in the United States. The yellow fever is not necessarily a fatal disease, unless there be inherent weakness of the constitution. The great preventives are to avoid excess in respect to exposure, fatigue, and diet. The first remedies are important yet simple. As soon as one has the symptoms, which are severe pain in the head and back, the approved practice is to go to bed, take a big dose of castor-oil, and after that has had effect, aconite in water to produce sweat. Good nursing, and especially watching in the night, with frequent ice and milk, and iced Seltzer-water, are important. Most frequently the fatal cases are where single men or others lodge in apartments alone, and become very ill before any friend or acquaintance knows their condition. I do not think much confidence is felt at Rio in the system of inoculation against yellow fever, and which is but slightly in vogue there. Usually a few deaths from the disease are reported in December, and the mortality increases till into March and April, which are the worst months. There was a bad epidemic in 1883; another, though lighter, in 1884; still lighter in 1885; but worse, again, in 1886. The deaths from yellow fever for the first half of 1886 were nine hundred and sixty-seven. There is a public yellow-fever hospital, called Jurujuba, situated on the shore of a distant inlet on the opposite side of the bay from Rio. If a seaman on any vessel is sick with the fever, a yellow flag is hoisted and a public health-boat comes and takes him to the hospital.

For a few years back a regulation of the port of Rio has required all vessels arriving in the hot season to anchor, discharge and load cargo at least a mile from shore, which has had a remarkably good effect in keeping the yellow fever from the shipping, but adds greatly to the expense of transportation.

On account of a certain dampness in the atmosphere of Rio, there is more mortality from consumption than from yellow fever. The deaths from consumption in June, 1886, were one hundred and fifty. Dr. James A. Stewart, M. D., Commissioner of Health and Registrar for the city of Baltimore, writing me under date of December 15, 1884, said: "The mortuary reports of the city of Rio de Janeiro, which I have had the pleasure to receive from you for some time past, have greatly interested me on account of the surprising preponderance of pulmonary consumption over all other causes of death. We have evidently been making a great mistake in sending our consumptive patients to Rio for relief."

CHAPTER IV.

LIFE AND MANNERS.

AT our residence up in Rua das Lorangeiras, two miles from the busiest part of the city, Sundays, and especially Sunday mornings, seemed as quiet as they are in the United States. To me those mornings, so tranquil, so clear and sunny, were generally very charming. Foliage-covered hills behind and in front of the house gave the place a country aspect. The wren, and numerous other small birds, in some tall trees in the door-yard, made the air vocal with their notes. But sometimes, and as if to show a certain laxness of affairs, the discordant report of a musket would come from one of the hills, where a mischievous boy was hunting birds. As a rule, Sunday is a quiet day at Rio, though many retail shops are kept open, and some kinds of out-door labor carried on. Billiard-rooms and other places of amusement are more frequented than on week-days. Though Brazil is a Catholic country, religious liberty is declared in the Constitution, and exists practically in the principal cities. A Protestant at Rio, wishing to attend public religious worship, would find several churches on a respectable footing. The Chapel of the Church of England is a building which will comfortably seat several hundred people, has a good organ, and is frequented by a fair congregation composed of British subjects and Americans. The preaching is by

Rev. Frederick Young, A. M., an able and attentive pastor. The Presbyterian church dates back many years, and has a numerous membership among the native poorer class. The church building is spacious, the services are in the Portuguese language, and the singing is congregational. It is mainly supported by the American Presbyterian Missionary Society, and the American pastors are Rev. Messrs. Houston and Kyle. An able Brazilian preaches Sunday evenings. The Presbyterians also have a church at Bahia and at several other places. The Methodists, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, who for some time held services in their neat chapel about opposite the Strangers' Hotel, have lately built a fine church edifice adjoining the chapel, where religious exercises and Sunday-school are held in English in the morning, and in Portuguese in the evening. The pastors, Revs. J. J. Ransom (temporarily at Juiz de Fora) and J. L. Kennedy, preach in both languages. The Baptists also have a church, under the charge of Rev. W. B. Bagby. All these pastors whose names I have mentioned have their families living at Rio, and command respect. Mr. Ransom is a preacher of unusual eloquence. The Methodists are looking forward to have an important young ladies' school established at Rio, under their auspices. The Woman's Missionary Society, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, of which Mrs. Juliana Hayes, of Baltimore, is president, undertook to raise a fund of fifty thousand dollars for a young ladies' school in Brazil, to serve as a centenary monument of the Methodist Church. Over half of the amount had been raised in 1885. I might here say that there are perhaps two hundred Americans residing at Rio; the proportion of English, French, and Germans is much larger—of

course the largest separate foreign element is the Portuguese.

I should say that a vast majority of the population of Rio are indifferent to religious matters. One effect of the increase of Protestant churches in Brazil will be an awakening of the Catholic Church. There is nothing more beneficial than competition. At present the Catholic Church in Brazil is in a feeble state. But there are many of the best Brazilian families who are religious, and who, by a posture of devotion before a meal or other act, manifest a thoughtfulness of religion. Seven days after the death of a near relative, the whole family attends a special mass at church, and another at the anniversary of the death. There is not preaching, however, regularly in the Catholic churches on Sundays. The Catholic priests are poorly paid. As an intellectual force they amount to but very little, and do not have that consideration which the Catholic clergy enjoy in Protestant countries. After the Protestant Church gets well established in Brazil, and church-attendance becomes as popular as it is in England and the United States, the Catholic Church will very likely exert a more elevating influence than it now does. A Brazilian official told Mr. Chamberlain, the Presbyterian missionary at São Paulo, that he wished he would spread his religion, citing the influence of an old Brazilian citizen, of local influence, living in a remote country place in the province of São Paulo, who had been converted to the Presbyterian faith and held prayer-meetings in his house, and from whose district no crimes were reported.

In the larger cities, where there is more than ordinary intelligence, the Protestant missionaries are pretty sure of peaceable treatment; but occasionally, in remote

places, they meet at first with rude opposition from the lower classes. However, the men of influence generally have that national pride that leads them to interpose in case of any excess, and guarantee the missionary protection in the exercise of freedom of speech and worship.

In the truly disciplined Brazilian family are some peculiar customs. When evening comes, the members of the family bid each other "*boa noite*"—literally, "good-night." They may be sitting at dinner, and, on the lights being lit, it is a reminder that evening has come. Then they exchange this salutation, and the children rise and kiss the hands of their parents. This custom is inherited from the Portuguese, and is more generally observed in the country than in the city. If it be the father whom the children address, they say, "*A bênção, meu pai*"—"Your blessing, father!" The patriarchal and religious usage of children kissing the hands of their parents at night and morning, and when meeting after an absence, even after they are grown up, is observed in cultured families. And out of the family circle, people sometimes kiss the hands of those much above them in rank and age. I once saw a fashionable Brazilian lady and grown daughter meet and speak with a priest in the street, and the daughter kissed the priest's hand. In passing a church, three or four men out of twenty in a street-car will raise their hats. They do not regard it as superstition, but as a delicate expression of religious sentiment. So, when a funeral is met, men usually lift their hats as the hearse passes them. There are but few religious processions in the street. The Emperor and cabinet ministers walk in that of Corpus Christi, but it commands few marks of reverence from the masses; on the contrary, it is generally obstructed by a dense crowd of

gazers. The attendance at funerals is principally of male friends. Ladies, even nearest relatives, do not accompany the remains to the place of burial. Male friends, however, in large numbers, make it a point to attend the funeral with a carriage at their own expense, and to drive to the grave. Many funeral processions comprise forty or more two-mule open carriages, driven at a rapid pace, and containing, often, but one man, who not unlikely will be smoking.

Thursday and Saturday afternoons are popular times for weddings, which have this peculiarity, that the carriages are lined with white satin, and are drawn by beautiful white horses used only on such occasions. Marriage is a religious institution, though there is some agitation for making the rite valid as a civil contract.

The Brazilians, though a grave people, have considerable humor. As an example—though a homely one—the sneezing of a goat, of which there are many at Rio, is regarded as a sign of fair weather. Sometimes, when a person sneezes, the by-stander laughingly says, “We will have good weather.” They are, likewise, a benevolent people. It is not very uncommon, when a family of children have been left orphans, for an uncle or some near relative to adopt them all into his house, and provide for and treat them as members of his own family. Although the Brazilians observe a number of religious holidays, they fortunately are not without some political or national holidays. It is useful for a people to pause, once a year at least, and think of their forefathers. “A people,” said Mr. Burke, “will never look forward to posterity who never look backward to their ancestors.” The anniversary of the independence of the empire is the 7th of September, and, though it may occur on Sunday, as did the sixty-third

anniversary, in 1884, the Brazilians do not, on that account, postpone the customary commemorative exercises till the next day. Indeed, the official exercises are partly religious and partly secular. The observance of the sixty-third anniversary began as usual at the capital by an artillery salute at daybreak, and the playing of the national hymn by several bands of music around the bronze equestrian statue of the founder of the empire, Dom Pedro I, in the park Constitution, which was illuminated, decorated with flags and streamers, and which had been thronged with people all night. The forts in the harbor also thundered forth a salute in the morning, at 1 P. M., and again at 6 P. M.; the ships of war, national and foreign, doing the same. The imperial family attended the service of *Te Deum* at the imperial chapel at noon, and at 1 P. M. held a reception in the old city palace (which is close to the chapel, but three miles from the Emperor's residence), which was attended by a large gathering of civil, military, and naval officers, representatives of literary, scientific, and benevolent societies, and by private individuals. The diplomatic body, through its ranking member, the Pope's nuncio, presented a congratulatory address. The seventh battalion of infantry served as a guard of honor. On this occasion it was noticed that when the Emperor and Empress arrived at the palace, loud cheers were given for the Emperor and independence, owing partly, probably, to the anti-slavery enthusiasm of the time. The same afternoon the Emperor and Empress, and the Princess Imperial, with her husband, Count d'Eu, were present at a meeting of the Working Union, in the theatre of San Luiz, where a senator presided; an elaborate discourse was pronounced, several pieces of music executed; a poem, dedicated to the

Empress, recited; also an address delivered by the foreman of the government machine-shops. In the evening the imperial family attended an opera performance. During the day a regatta took place, on a small scale, in a newly opened boat-rink, bands of music played in the public parks, and sixteen hundred persons visited the exhibition of the Academy of Fine Arts. No oration was delivered on the memories of the day, yet there was one elaborate political address made by a leading abolitionist, under the auspices of the Abolition Society, his subject being "The Cause of the Decadency of Brazil." There were fewer fireworks than usual on festival-days, and good order prevailed. Flags were displayed very generally. The weather was perfect.

I suppose that the three countries in which popular government has shown the greatest vigor are England, France, and the United States; and these are about the only countries in which the bar has had free scope, and occupied high rank. Great constitutional principles have often had their noblest defense in the forum. Although the legal profession is esteemed in Brazil, and there are learned lawyers, there is not that opportunity for the public discussion of legal questions that there is in the countries mentioned. In all civil cases, legal arguments are submitted in writing. There are two largely attended law-schools, one at Pernambuco and the other at São Paulo, both being supported by public money. On my visit to the library of the school at São Paulo, I took particular notice to see what English or American law-books there were, and was surprised to find that these great founts of jurisprudence were represented by about half a dozen antiquated and unimportant volumes. There is no public law library at Rio. In the

National Library, the only edition of Blackstone's "Commentaries" is in French. It seems to me the legal profession of Brazil is ignorant of English jurisprudence. It has never felt even the spray of the great fountain of English legal literature, much less quaffed its living waters. However, the higher tribunals command general respect.

How would American or English physicians be likely to succeed at Rio? The first part of this question has been addressed to me by a correspondent; and my answer is that, assuming them to be persons of real skill and merit, they would in time meet with fair and possibly brilliant success. They would, however, at first meet with great competition, the medical profession at Rio being crowded. Whatever might have been their previous training and experience, and however distinguished the diplomas they might bring, they would still have to undergo a rigid examination conducted in the Portuguese language, to test their qualifications for practice. Neither could they expect to receive the slightest degree of favor, but, on the contrary, they would be subjected to treatment exacting, jealous, and suspicious. The same will apply to all foreigners who undertake to enter any of the professions, including that of dentistry.

Very few physicians drive in a private conveyance to visit their patients, and none support stylish equipages; they sometimes go in the street-cars, but generally in a public one-horse chaise. Their usual charge for a day-visit is ten milreis, at present exchange about four dollars, and double that amount for a night-visit. There are two English physicians at Rio who have a good practice, but there is no American physician.

The American dentist holds his own in Rio just as he

does in all other large foreign cities. There are half a dozen such dentists who have a good practice, clearing twenty-odd dollars a day, but working very hard to do so. One of these dentists, a young man, popular professionally and socially, related to me some funny experience he had at a social visit to one of his genteel patients, and which illustrates the humor and freedom of Brazilian society. It was an evening party given by a young married couple. The gentlemen were out on the garden veranda smoking and drinking healths. Presently the young host proposed the health of the dentist, when, instead of exclaiming "*Viva!*" they all put their hands up to their faces and began to scream, as if undergoing a terrible dental operation.

There are two large medical schools in Brazil under the control of and supported in part by the Government; one being in the city of Bahia, and the other at Rio de Janeiro. A new and very fine medical school-building of granite is being erected at Rio, on Botafogo Bay, commanding a grand view of the harbor. The course of study at the medical schools occupies eight years. The graduation is a gala occasion. The students who graduate wear black silk gowns, white cravats, and black university caps. Accompanied by their near relatives, who, with them, have looked forward for so many years to this their triumphal day, and who now share with them its joys, they drive in fine carriages to church and attend a solemn mass. And for my part I admire to see ceremonies of solemnity accompany the admission of people to this noble and important profession. Neither in city nor country is the Brazilian physician allowed to deal out and deliver medicine. He must write a prescription, and the prescription must be filled by a licensed druggist, who re-

cards the prescription and labels the medicine with its name and character. In the country, where a physician often rides horseback twenty miles to visit a patient, this practice may be very inconvenient. The patient can grow much worse or better before obtaining medicine.

Surgeons, in Brazil, who have performed successful operations have frequently been very liberally paid; and there are some who accumulate fortunes. There is a small medical periodical at Rio.

Marriage in Brazil is still regarded as a religious ceremony and not as a civil contract. To be valid it must, therefore, be performed by a duly authorized clergyman. If one or both of the parties be of a religion other than the Catholic, the marriage may be celebrated by a duly authorized pastor or clergyman of such non-Catholic religion, but in every case must be legally registered; also, prior to celebration, the intention of its being celebrated must be publicly announced in the church on three Sundays, or published. Those belonging to the Catholic Church are, of course, married by the clergy of that church; but, in the larger cities, and especially in the provinces of Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo, owing to the presence of American missionaries as well as of clergymen of the Church of England, Protestants would readily obtain the services of some minister of that faith.

Americans abroad sometimes suppose that a diplomatic or consular officer of their country can perform the marriage ceremony; but such is not the case. It is usual, however, and in conformity with regulations, for the marriage of an American abroad to be performed before and in the presence of the consular officer. In such case he also signs the record of the marriage as a witness. He also, at request of the parties, afterward furnishes a cer-

tificate of the marriage, setting forth the names, ages, places of birth of the parties, who the marriage was performed by, where, and when; a copy of which he delivers to each one of the married couple, and the other he sends to the Department of State, Washington.

It seems that British consular officers in Brazil have authority to perform the marriage ceremony; and it is not unusual for British subjects to be first married at their consulate and then again by a clergyman.

Some inconvenience has arisen in the province of Rio Grande do Sul, from notaries public having illegally assumed to marry a dozen or twenty couples of non-Catholic German immigrants. As a matter of course, the Brazilian Government, through its Minister of the Empire, had to declare that the marriages were illegal, though the parties who were married were innocent of any wrong intention, had cohabited for some years, and had children born to them. The marriages could be legalized by the Legislature.

Any foreigner living in Brazil and wishing to make a will must make it, not according to the laws of his own country, but according to the laws of Brazil, so far as regards any property, real or personal, of his that may be in Brazil at the time of his death. His will must conform to the Brazilian law of inheritance. According to such law, a testator can dispose of one third of all his property as he pleases; but he is obliged to give one third to his widow and one third to his children. If he leaves no will, one half of the property goes to the wife—in case there had been no previous marriage settlement—and the other half equally to the children. The estate which a deceased foreigner may leave in Brazil, whether real or personal, and whether he leaves a will or not, has to be

settled by the orphans' court. The consular officer of his country is allowed to examine the list of property and watch the proceedings, and that is all. The taxes and charges to which such property is subjected are regarded as exceedingly exorbitant. A Brazilian in Rio worth four hundred thousand dollars was lately struck by a falling piece of timber and suddenly killed. He had made no will, yet left two illegitimate sons to whom he was much attached, but who received no part of his property.

Debts due druggists, physicians, and the clergy are privileged. Tradesmen readily extend credit to mechanics and laborers to the amount of half their wages. In wholesale trade the cash buyer gains a very considerable advantage. In the dry-goods trade, for example, a credit of twelve months is granted, but if the purchaser pays cash he will get twelve to fourteen per cent discount. Generally all products of the country are sold for cash or on three months' credit. Coffee is a cash article. Fresh meat, fresh fish, and mechanical work command cash. In imports, salt, lumber, petroleum, copper, lead, and codfish are cash articles. Flour is sold at six months' credit, or cash at six per cent discount. There is a tendency to increase the list of cash articles. There is a system of amicable adjudication in which a plaintiff at the court of first instance or of original jurisdiction obtains judgment for so much of a claim to be paid monthly. If a debtor fails so to pay, appeal can be had to a higher court, which gives judgment for the whole amount. Business is generally conservative, and conducted with that steady and economical spirit which is characteristic of the Portuguese. The accumulation of great fortunes is not of frequent occurrence. There is a permanent and general bankrupt law. Bankruptcy that is settled according to

legal forms is not frequent; but failures attended with private settlement are frequent. The long-credit system of Brazil, though a relic of old and slow business times, has naturally been fostered by the great extent of the country and the difficulties of communication. It is a subject of frequent complaint in all business circles.

An official Brazilian report made in 1881, treating of the interior of the province of Maranhão, says: "Whoever has seen one of our villages has seen all, because, unhappily, in all is noticed an absolute lack of taste in the construction of the dwellings, showing yet more prominently the indolence and misery which everywhere prevail. To a visitor our interior looks like an old and abandoned country, where everything is going to decay, and the common necessities of life are not to be met with." M. Andrade, the president of the province, in his message to the Legislative Assembly, February, 1884, says, "To speak frankly, what is needful is to wrest this noble province from the lethargy which oppresses it." This is the province at which the American steamers first touch, on their way to Rio, after leaving Pará. Its natural resources are important. It contains several navigable rivers, and most of the population is in towns along their banks. A civil engineer of Brazil, whose home is in this province, in giving me a description of the rivers, and of the finely wooded and fertile tracts accessible therefrom, rather dampened the delightful impression I had got from his statements, by telling me, in answer to a direct question, that he had once seen one of those big, cattle-swallowing serpents, the anaconda, swimming along in one of these rivers. "There is an abundance of good land, but the chief obstacle to its cultivation," writes a resident of the province, is "the want of proper roads and an enter-

prising population to open the country, and better legislation for inducing and facilitating immigration."

The province of Ceará is remarkable for the famine which occurred there a few years ago. "Industry and trade generally, in the province," writes Mr. George Holderness, American consular agent at the port of Ceará, in 1884, "have made no progress since 1877, the beginning of the great drought. Emigration *from* the province, which commenced then, has since continued in an increasing degree, up to the beginning of 1884." It is estimated that the number of Cearense, who emigrated to the province of Amazonas, alone, amounted to thirty thousand, many of whom found a grave on the banks of the Amazon. The interior of the province is thinly peopled, and a state of desolation prevails. The agricultural class in the interior are represented as having no means of recreation to speak of. Horseback-riding is the only exercise they take. For amusement the men play cards, and also play on the viola or guitar. There is no national game among the boys. The poor people have been benefited by the export of goat-skins, a trade started recently. Over two hundred thousand of these were shipped to the United States in 1884, and nearly as many to Europe. The export of oranges to the United States has lately commenced. The principal export from Ceará is cotton, of which ten million pounds were exported in 1884. The interior is mostly composed of highlands, which are used for cattle-breeding. Since the white settlements began, there have been four or five fatal droughts there, the last and one of the worst of which occurred in 1877-1878. The two previous years there had been an excess of rain. By March, 1877, the bishop ordered prayers in all the churches for rain. Weeks and months passed, while the situation

was growing worse. The crops failed, and by April and May the poorer people began to flock to the villages for food. The forage had disappeared, and the stock-raisers began to slaughter their cattle for their hides and tallow. There was local relief as long as the generously disposed had the means. Some provisions were brought in from neighboring provinces on the backs of animals. Such relief, of course, could only be very limited. The territory was then, and is now, so unprovided with good roads and means of transportation, that a drought, which under different circumstances could have been tided over without much suffering, reached there and then the proportions of a tragic and melancholy famine. By the middle of 1877 many thousands of the interior inhabitants were fleeing, half naked and in a state of destitution, toward the coast cities. Many perished on the way, but many thousands more, who arrived at places where there was food, subsequently died of disease. Probably it is quite within bounds to estimate the mortality in the province, from the famine, at two hundred thousand. The General Assembly of Brazil finally voted a large sum of money for the relief of the destitution.

An observing friend, who recently traveled in the province of Paraná, has given me his impressions of the condition and manners of the people there. In his opinion, the natural fertility of the soil tends to make the inhabitants indolent. Each head of a family plants a small plot of ground, whose produce may last a year. He does not try to do more. He does not raise crops for the market. Nearly all of the commerce of the province is in the *yerba maté* but even this they do not cultivate. It grows wild, and the people who bring it to town do so from the necessity of having to procure certain neces-

saries. The higher class is also indolent, going to bed early and rising late. What gives life to the town is the coming and going of the colonists in selling milk and other small things. There are scarcely any amusements. On Sundays people have balls, and now and then church festivals. The feeling toward immigrants and foreigners is kind. Curitiba, the capital, is perhaps the only place in the empire where Protestants have been allowed to build a house of worship with the exterior of a church, namely, with a church-steeple. The work was stopped by the Government, on account of being against the law, but the local sentiment tolerated it, and the church has been completed. The houses at Curitiba are built of brick or pine-wood, principally of the latter, and the roofs are shingled with the native pine. The furniture is made of the same.

Young women marry at different ages, from thirteen years upward. If the parents are rich, they give a dowry; otherwise, they merely furnish the wedding outfit, consisting of considerable clothing and linen. Young women of the middle class, besides helping in the work of the house, devote themselves to sewing and sometimes even washing and ironing. There are few books which a young girl can read in Brazil, because, as a rule, the novels are not of a very high moral tone. There are no story-books, or anything of the sort, for the young; they either read nothing, or else read novels in books or from newspapers.

There is a normal school at Curitiba, kept in a pretty good building, but its furniture is scanty. There are a few maps on the wall, one or two blackboards, and nothing more. The library is not small, but the books are of little value, and apparently were donated by per-

sons who wished to get rid of them. There is a private school kept by the German pastor in the German Protestant church, with a large attendance. The seats are mere benches.

The dress of the people is in the same style as at Rio, except that perhaps the people are not so particular as to cleanliness and good material.

The surface in Paraná is divided into two distinct portions, the coast belt and the interior table-land. Ascending the mountains, forest-covered, we come to a table-land entirely flat, at an elevation of three thousand feet, and which is studded here and there with pine-forests. Going from Paranagua to Curitiba, the scenery is very beautiful and grand.

Mr. Bigg-Wither, an English engineer employed two or three years on a railway survey in the wilds of Paraná, describes, in his interesting work, "Pioneering in South Brazil," a visit in 1872 to the home of a Brazilian landed proprietor, who represented a type of the ordinary backwoods planter and stock-raiser, but who at that date was a generation—one would think a century—behind the intelligent and cultivated class of planters. Mr. Bigg-Wither, traveling with assistants and supplies loaded on mules, had got within about a day's march of his destined headquarters, Colonia Thereza, in the great forest-covered valley of the Ivahy. He says: "We followed Sr. Andrade into the house, and found ourselves in a little timber-built room, of about fourteen feet by twelve feet, with doors in each of the walls opening into other apartments, whose mysteries will presently be explained. Benches were ranged all around the walls, with the exception of the spaces left for the doorways. The floor was the bare earth, beaten hard, and on it stood, in the mid-

dle of the room, one solitary table. There were no windows, and when the door was shut, the light could only come in through the chinks in the walls and roof, which, however, seemed large enough to render further provision for light and air unnecessary. Round these walls, which were all built of timbers similar in shape to an ordinary railway-sleeper, the convex side being outward, were hung all the paraphernalia which pertained to the everyday occupations of the inmates. Lassos, whips, spurs, saddles and bridles, weak-looking guns, and tawdry pistols, took up most of the available space, and indicated accurately enough what was the life led by our host and the male portion of his family. The door opposite the entrance by which we had come in was open, disclosing a lean-to shed, in which an atrociously ugly negress was engaged in crushing coffee with a wooden pestle and mortar. The door on the right opened into a second lean-to shed, in which, through the interstices of the wall, appeared a fire on the ground, with various pots and pans around it, over which a young and good-looking girl was presiding. This information we obtained inadvertently, and evidently not altogether with the consent of Sr. Andrade, by our happening to advance farther into the room than was intended, and thus obtaining a full view of this domestic apartment and of its occupant through the open door. The third door was of better make than the ones referred to, and was furnished with a lock and key.

“Our host’s first act, after offering us seats, one on either side of the entrance, was to present a cigarette, made of tobacco rolled up in an Indian-corn leaf, to each, to light which a young, half-naked slave-boy appeared on the scene and handed round a brand out of the fire. The

senhora, a cheerful, motherly-looking old lady, now came into the room, and added her welcomes to those already given by her husband. Pedro, who seemed to be more or less a privileged person in the house, had a short conversation with her, and she went out and presently returned, accompanied by the negress, bearing a large wooden bowl full of delicious-looking new milk, a beverage which Pedro had no doubt told her would be an acceptable offering to us. After the milk, coffee in tiny cups was brought in and handed round to us by the senhora herself. When we had in this manner taken off the edge of our fatigues, conversation began, Pedro acting as interpreter. . . . Andrade himself was an old man of about sixty years, and allowed his wife to do most of the talking for him when she was in the room. One of her first questions was to know whether we were married; and, on hearing that we were still in the full enjoyment of our freedom, she proceeded to enlarge upon the delights of a married life, informing us, at the same time, that she had five unmarried daughters! After this pretty broad hint of what was expected of us, we of course expressed a wish to then and there make the acquaintance of these fair members of the family. Her face became suddenly grave when this request was translated to her by Pedro, and for a moment her flow of words was stopped, and I feared that a mistake had been inadvertently made. She looked hesitatingly at her husband, who had remained silently puffing at his cigarette during this conversation, and he said something which we did not understand, but which had the effect of at once dispelling her momentary gravity. The old man got up, and, going to the locked door and turning the key, opened it and disappeared into a dark chamber within. Almost

immediately, however, he returned, saying, 'The girls are not accustomed to see strangers, and are afraid.' Meanwhile, the senhora, who was now evidently determined that her daughters should show themselves, had, in her turn, disappeared into the secret chamber, from which various sounds of whispering and suppressed giggling were now proceeding. Presently the senhora reappeared, leading one very modest-looking damsel of about eighteen or nineteen years of age, and closely followed by three others, apparently somewhat younger. All appeared to be overwhelmed with intense shyness, and an almost hysterical desire to laugh. After a formal and separate introduction of each one—be it noted that the lady was here introduced to the gentleman—they all retired back again into the secret chamber, and their papa once more turned the key upon them. At this time we were ignorant of the custom, which I afterward found to be so general in these out-of-the-way parts, of keeping the women, or rather the daughters, of the family, locked up like wild beasts; consequently we did not hesitate to express our wonder, and to ask why it was done in this case. Sr. Andrade, in reply, said it was the custom of the country, and that he had never thought of bringing his daughters up in any other way. I asked, 'Did they never go out?' 'No, never,' he replied; they had all learned riding when they were children, and since then they had, according to custom, been shut up in the house, where they would remain until husbands had been obtained for them. . . . Some of us promising to breakfast with the Andrades the following morning, we retired to our tents for the night, wondering much that a man, who prided himself on being the owner of an estate of more than thirty square miles in extent, and who also possessed

some hundreds of head of cattle, mules, and horses, could be content to pass his life in so wretched a habitation as was his, living in a style not better than the poorest *caboclo*. . . . In the morning, on going out of our tent, we found Andrade already standing outside his door, waiting for our appearance to summon us in to partake of coffee and smoke a cigarette, in which manner a Brazilian *fazendeiro* invariably begins his day, breakfast being usually deferred till ten or eleven o'clock. . . . On returning from our ride at about ten o'clock, I went in to breakfast with the Andrades, according to promise. The first dish offered consisted of cubes of hard meat, out of which all flavor and goodness had been extracted by a process of cooking unknown to me, and withal so tough that no teeth could meet through them, the whole floating about in some thin, greasy-looking fluid which our hosts called *caldo*, but which seemed to be nothing more than greasy hot water. A second dish consisted of black beans, likewise swimming in greasy *caldo*. Cabbage, cut into fine shreds, formed a third dish; while *farinha* was handed round to be put into each individual's plate, to absorb the greasy liquor, and thus facilitate the conveyance of it to the mouth.

“Notwithstanding a sharp appetite, engendered by a three hours' ride in the fresh mountain air, my stomach revolted from the nauseous mess in my plate, and vain were my attempts to get any of it down. After this came a dish of curded milk, which, when eaten with sugar and *farinha*, is really not objectionable. Water and rum were then handed round to drink, and thus the meal came to an end. Before rising from the table, however, Andrade and Jaca (his son) each filled his mouth with water, which, after going through various sug-

gestive contortions of cheeks and lips for about half a minute, they presently squirted out, broadcast, over the hard-beaten mud floor. Immediately after this, coffee and cigarettes were handed round by the senhora herself, she having all through the meal remained standing, in attendance upon us and upon her husband and son.

“The meal above described may be taken, to a great extent, as typical of the entertainment offered to the traveler at the houses of all the ruder planters of the remoter districts of the province. What they are accustomed to eat themselves, they give you—nothing more and nothing less. They might live like princes, with such a wealth of nature around them, but, in the great majority of instances, they certainly seem to prefer to live like—pigs. Their hospitality, however, must be taken to cover a multitude of sins. When once a traveler can get accustomed to the food of the country, there is no trait that he more appreciates in the character of the people than their open and ungrudging hospitality to all comers.”

A kind of ball which the same author attended at the Colonia Thereza village, situated in a fertile region, yet stagnant from lack of communication with the outer world, is thus described: “On entering the house at which the entertainment was to be held, we immediately found ourselves in a large, mud-floor room, ranged round the walls of which were all the youth and beauty of the village, smartly dressed in clean cotton prints, all evidently ‘got up’ for the occasion. In the center of this room, which was bare of furniture, the young men of the village, to the number of about two dozen, were grouped together, chatting and smoking cigarettes, with their hats on their heads, to all appearance utterly oblivious of the

presence of the ladies. Our entry seemed to be the signal for the commencement of the entertainment. Two banjos struck up, and now, for the first time, the men began to turn their attention to the demure but conscious-looking maidens, who had up to the present moment been silently awaiting their pleasure. One by one each man chose a partner, till ten couples were made up. These ten couples now formed a circle in the middle of the room, and the dance commenced.

“With slow and rhythmic beat the men first began to keep time to the banjos, alternately advancing toward and retiring from the center of the ring, the women also stamping with their feet but not advancing. At the end of each dozen bars or so of the music, all with one accord, both men and women, gave three loud claps of the hands, which was the signal for the moment of a greater display of energy in the movements of the body, and a more vigorous stamping of feet upon the hard mud floor. All at once one of the men dancers, in a rich full voice, struck up an ‘impromptu’ stanza, in beautiful time and harmony with the music, the last words of which were taken up and repeated in chorus by all. Once more vocal silence, while the monotonous tum, tum, tum, of the banjos, and the noise of the stamping of feet, went on as before. Then again, a second, wild, ‘impromptu’ stanza burst forth from another of the dancers, again to be taken up in chorus by all. We observed on each of these occasions that the dancers all turned their eyes upon us, as though we were the persons they were addressing. We presently found this to be the case, one of our interpreters, who was present, coming up and informing us that we were being invited to ‘join the dance.’ Nothing loath, we each chose a willing damsel from the still unexhausted row of wall-

flowers, and joined the untiring ring in the middle of the room.

“During what seemed interminable minutes, we too had now to beat our feet upon the hard floor, swing our arms and bodies, and clap our hands. As the dance went on, the excitement waxed stronger, the ‘impromptu’ shouts became yells, the once graceful swaying of the bodies of the performers was changed into violent contortions, and all the characteristics of a North American Indian war-dance came into play. Curling and I now quietly slipped out of the ranks of the dancers, and retired unnoticed to the background. The atmosphere of the room was full of the smoke of cigarettes, through which the dim bees-wax tapers, here and there stuck upon the face of the walls around, cast a lurid glare. Suddenly the music ceased; the tired fingers of the minstrels had given way at last, and the dance abruptly came to a conclusion. The partnership between each couple was immediately dissolved, without ceremony of any kind. The man turned on his heel without look, word, or salutation; and the forlorn damsel, her service or presence being no longer necessary, once more retired to her place against the wall, there to bloom unheeded till another dance should be commenced.

“Refreshments of rum, water, and cigarettes were now handed round by the host to us and to the men generally, who had again grouped themselves in threes and fours about the middle of the room. During the dance no conversation had been carried on between the partners, and now no sign of courtesy or deference was bestowed upon the poor, forsaken damsels by their late partners. It appeared to me that this neglect proceeded not so much from any indifference or want of gallantry on the part of

the men, as from an enforced custom, which seemed to forbid even the slightest appearance of intimacy between the sexes. A longer acquaintance with this backwoods colony was not convincing of the perfect efficacy of these strict rules of its society. Nevertheless, in default of a higher standard of education being given to the women, they are no doubt necessary."

It seems that when a stranger comes to one of these backwoods settlements the people out of compliment—possibly in part for curiosity—come to take a look at him. The first day Mr. Bigg-Wither arrived at Colonia Thereza, he dined in the evening with the director, and says: "While we were at dinner, the same curious custom, with which we were first made acquainted at Ponta Grossa, of the people of the place paying us complimentary visits, was observed; at one time during the meal there being as many as twenty individuals standing or squatting round the walls of the room, staring silently with might and main. They neither offered to say a word, nor, as far as I could tell from their manner, did they expect to be addressed themselves. I really began to feel quite uncomfortable under their prolonged and silent stare. At length, however, somewhat to my relief, they began to depart one by one, till, by the time dinner was concluded, they had all disappeared. We talked to the director about them afterward, and he told us they were all residents of the place, and that they merely wished to compliment us."

Captain Burton, in his graphic work the "Highlands of Brazil," thus describes the planter's life as he saw it in the province of Minas-Geraes in 1867: "The life of the planter is easily told. He rises at dawn and his slave-valet brings him coffee and wash-hand basin with ewer, both of solid silver. After strolling about the mill, which

often begins work at 2 A. M., and riding over the estate to see that the hands are not idling, he returns between nine and eleven with his family, and, if a bachelor, with his head men to breakfast. The sunny hours are passed either in a *siesta* aided by a glass of English ale—there is nothing English in it but the name—in reading the newspapers, or in receiving visits. The dinner is between 3 P. M. and 4 P. M., sometimes later; it is invariably followed by coffee and tobacco. Often there is another relay of coffee before sitting down to tea, biscuits and butter, or conserves, and the day ends with chat in some cool place. The monotony . . . is broken by an occasional visit to a neighbor, or to the nearest country town.”

Santa Catharina, the most southerly but one of Brazil's twenty provinces, contains the land granted as the Princess Imperial's marriage-portion, and on which is a colony under charge of an American. There are several colonies in the province, and it possesses a diversified surface, and a salubrious climate, like all of Brazil's highlands. Desterro, its port and capital, has a good harbor, and in time of war is used as Brazil's southern naval station. Five to nine steamships per month, each way, north and south, call there. The late American consular agent there, Mr. Comsett, in a report published by the Department of State, gave the name and character of thirty-eight different kinds of valuable timber growing in that province, and states that there are many other kinds. The province has been called the paradise of Brazil. There is an abundance of fish and beef, but otherwise Mr. Comsett found the expense of living dear.

I have lately obtained, direct, some information relative to the German colonies of Blumenau, Brusque, and D. Francisca, and which, though from a source very

friendly to the colonies, I consider reliable. They are distant eight days by steamer southwest from Rio de Janeiro. The colony of Blumenau was founded by Dr. Blumenau in 1849, and occupies mountainous land, with red-colored and somewhat sandy soil, naturally producing forest near the navigable waters of the Itajahy River. Its markets are Desterro, Santos, and Rio de Janeiro, and as eight steamers a month run between these points, there ought to be reasonable rates of transportation. However, it costs twenty-six dollars for first-class passage on a steamer from Rio to the nearest port for this colony. The colonists bought their land at the rate of about two mills a square *braça*, they each hold on an average about one hundred *alqueiras* (six hundred acres), and about half the number have fully paid for their land. The Brazilian Government furnished money to build roads. There is a road leading from Itajahy on the sea-coast, by the way of Brusque, to Blumenau, and there are also some steamboats running on the Itajahy River. These colonists are principally Protestant Germans from North Germany. They do not grow coffee; their principal crops are sugarcane, Indian corn, beans, and rice; and they raise cattle and hogs. The houses of the colonists are of wood and brick, one story high with floor overhead, and situated about three hundred to five hundred yards apart. Each family has on an average a dozen cows, thirty to forty pigs, one to four horses, a few sheep, and a good deal of poultry, chickens, turkeys, pigeons, etc. The wages for men's labor are forty cents to a dollar a day of ten hours' work. Servant-girls are paid four to six dollars per month. There is an abundance of food, the climate is excellent, and good health prevails. I am assured that a colonist working hard, yet living well, will easily pay for

his land and accumulate a capital of twelve hundred to twenty-four hundred dollars in eight or ten years. For social diversion the colonists have the usual German amusements. There are two or three singing societies, a shooting society, also occasional balls. There are also fishing and hunting. At both Blumenau and D. Francisca there is a theatre, with a performance in German once or twice a month. There are two newspapers published at Blumenau, and one at D. Francisca, all in the German language. The postal service is regular. There are two post-offices, which have to accommodate a pretty extensive region. Instruction in the schools is in the German language. Teachers receive eight to sixteen dollars a month, and land and house free. Attendance of children from eight to fourteen years of age is very regular.

The German colonists have from six to eight churches, nearly all Protestant, and sustained by themselves. At Blumenau the Italians and Portuguese each have a Catholic church. With one exception, the Catholic churches are sustained by the colonists themselves. The Italians in the settlement are from the north of Italy. Only a very few of the colonists are naturalized, but they are of course subject to Brazilian laws, with the exception of being called into the military service. As a rule, they appear to be contented with their lot. The colony of Blumenau has a municipal organization, and belongs politically to the first election district of the province. There are several hotels at the center of the colony, which furnish a good table at less than a dollar a day—"drinking extra." The venders also furnish lodging. There are no slaves in the colony.

In the interior of Brazil, and among the more numerous class of people, the habits and accommodations of living

are very primitive, and scarcely above a half-civilized condition. The floors of the dwellings are nothing but the natural ground. Household utensils are very scanty. People eat with their fingers, instead of with knives and forks, and are expert in throwing the food into their mouths. Women seldom sit at the table with the men, especially if there be a stranger present; but, with the children, will take their meals sitting on the ground, the food being spread on a dry hide, instead of on a cloth. Some of the habits, such as bending the head down, and wiping the mouth, after eating, on the bare table, are repulsive enough. For a little fun, after a jovial meal, one of the naked children—five or six years old it may be—will be put upon the table, and made to frolic about by different ones giving it an amiable slap. Women belonging to the middle class, in the rural districts, make visits to their neighbors barefooted. The clothing of men is frequently nothing more than a shirt and a pair of trousers. If it is cold, they will wear the same red woolen blanket that they use for cover at night. The hammock is commonly used, instead of a bed, and is much the more tidy article of furniture, it being the custom to wash it twice a month. The ordinary hammock is of cotton, woven by hand at home, and quite durable. Some of them have neat variegated borders, and cost twelve dollars. So also out in the wilds of Matto-Grosso there will be seen large, square, and home-made hammocks, woven with different colors, which are worth forty dollars each. People sleep in the hammock at night without undressing. In the daytime the hammock has to serve for a seat, chairs being very scarce. Indeed, the long dry season on the interior table-lands tends to cause wooden furniture to fall to pieces. The same people who eat with their hands, it

must be said to their credit, are clean in regard to their bodies; they are in the habit of bathing frequently. In Matto-Grosso, women as well as men are addicted to smoking cigarettes. People have coffee served to them in a small cup in the morning before getting out of the hammock.

CHAPTER V.

THE EMPEROR OF BRAZIL.

“WHAT sort of a man is the Emperor?” This was the question most frequently asked me on my return from Brazil to the United States. Dom Pedro II, Emperor of Brazil, is six feet tall, and weighs one hundred and eighty pounds. He has an intellectual head, eyes a grayish blue (his mother was the Archduchess Leopoldine of Austria), beard full and gray, hair well trimmed, also gray, complexion florid, and expression sober. He is erect, and has a manly bearing. Being now upward of sixty years of age, he is not, of course, so sentimental a man as when, thirty years or so ago, he used to talk to American travelers about our poets. Descended from a long line of rulers, he came to the throne in 1840, at the early age of fourteen and a half years. His reign began fifteen years after Brazilian independence, for his father, being unwilling to accept so liberal a Constitution, frankly expressed his sentiments, honorably abdicated, though at great sacrifice of his feelings, and retired to Portugal. During this long period there have been some provincial rebellions and some local turmoil, but the Emperor has always shown a tact, energy, and humanity that helped much to restore order, quiet, and good feeling. Thus, while he has held the scepter his country has continued to prosper. Its

vast area has been held intact, and it has become an important empire. As I have looked at his gray head, when he has been driving in his carriage through the streets of Rio, I have said to myself, "There certainly is an august and venerable character."

The sixtieth anniversary of his birthday, December 2, 1885, was celebrated by the Municipal Council of Rio by the liberation of one hundred and thirty-three slaves, with funds contributed by private parties for that purpose. The whole amount thus contributed was 34,925 milreis (\$12,256), of which the sum of 30,000 milreis was from some person unknown, but generally believed to be the Emperor himself. During the ceremony of conferring the letters of liberty upon the slaves, the Emperor is said to have expressed the wish that God would give him life to bestow liberty upon the last slave in Brazil.

My wife and I had the honor of being presented to the Emperor and Empress of Brazil, at the Palace of São Christovão, some little time after our arrival, and were graciously received by both. As was natural on this occasion, reference was made to the Emperor's visit in the United States, and I was glad to assure him of his popularity there. I told him he had many friends in the United States. He replied: "That is a good record." On his learning that the place of my nativity was in the same region of country as Boston, the Emperor said that Boston pleased him more than any other city in the United States. The first person he visited when in Boston was Mr. Clark, of Cambridge, the celebrated telescope-maker. As all the world knows, the Emperor is not only a scholar, but a man of great activity. He is unwearied in his visits to observe and encourage industrial and educational enterprise. Day after day one hears of his spend-

ing two or three hours at a time at some of the public institutions or establishments—it may be a department of the Government, or the National Library or Museum, or a public-school examination, or a hospital, or the Military Academy, or the Government machine-shops, or the Arsenal.

Daniel Webster would get up at four o'clock in the morning to study a patent case, and has been seen thus early with his coat off, lying on the floor on his back under a machine, studying the principle and details of its operation. The Emperor does almost as much, for he has been known, on an American vessel at Rio, to descend on ladders through a narrow passage-way down to the bottom of the vessel and minutely study its machinery. He makes journeys, lasting several days, into the interior to assist in the opening of new railroads, and on these occasions he is frequently accompanied by the Empress, a very popular lady, of fine manners. A recent instance of his notice of scientific work, which he seems always particularly glad to honor, was his visit, October 10, 1884, on board the United States Coast-Survey vessel Charles S. Patterson, then lying at Rio on her way to Alaska for scientific service. He was welcomed on board by the American minister, ex-Governor Thomas A. Osborn, and Lieutenant Clover, commanding the vessel. He went through the vessel, examined carefully its library, scientific instruments, charts, new apparatus for measuring depth, as well as the newly invented steam launches. Later in the day he attended the opening of the new inclined-plane Corcovado Mountain Railway to Paineiras. The following day, according to the journals of October 11th, he spent three hours at the Government Office of Public Archives, where he read several documents of

historic interest, among others the original correspondence of Lord Cochrane, the defense of Count Barca, a curious manuscript of Father Francisco José da Serra Xavier, etc.; also looked at some of the work of the office.

If Peter II, Emperor of Brazil, lacks some of those great qualities of statesmanship which distinguished Peter the Great of Russia, he must be admitted anyhow to possess much tact as a ruler. Probably he does not exercise a hundredth part of the one-man power that is used by the President of the United States.

In case of his death the Emperor would be succeeded on the throne by his daughter the Princess Isabella, born July 29, 1846, and married, October 15, 1864, to Count d'Eu (Louis Gaston, Prince d'Orléans), grandson of Louis Philippe. The princess bears a strong likeness to her father, and is regarded as an earnest Catholic.

When the Emperor goes out in the city he always rides in the imperial carriage, drawn by six mules or horses, with a mounted escort of eight or ten men, two of which ride ahead. The carriage is always driven rapidly, and the Emperor's coming over the stone pavements can be heard some distance off. He generally sits bareheaded in the carriage, reading, and returns salutations with a slight nod. I am told that his library, into which visitors are not usually admitted, is in a state of great disorder—books, pictures, and other objects being scattered over the floor. He gives no dinners nor balls, but is accessible to the public generally every Saturday evening. He is very benevolent, and gives away a good deal of money to the poor. Though a man of liberal ideas, he fulfills those religious duties and ceremonies required by his office. One of these is to wash annually the feet of a certain number of poor people. Respectable persons are selected

for this rite, who, after its performance, are treated to a good dinner. At Easter likewise he attends the long service at the Cathedral, and publicly drinks a glass of holy water. A beautiful and pious duty, which he never neglects, is to visit his mother's tomb on every anniversary of her death.

The newspapers mentioned that, during the political excitement in April, a young man called at the palace in Petropolis, sent in a card, and asked for an interview with his Majesty the Emperor, which was granted. Upon being introduced, the visitor informed his Majesty that he had come from São Paulo especially to warn him that the Conservatives must be called to take the Government. The Emperor replied that this required reflection, and invited the visitor to remain in an antechamber, from which he was expelled by the servants. Some of his political duties will be referred to in the chapter on Government.

CHAPTER VI.

TIJUCA—PEDRA BONITA.

TOURISTS arriving at Rio in the hot season, frequently go up to Tijuca to spend the nights, or at least to have a look at the place. It is a grand mountain-park region, embracing many thousand acres, intersected by excellent carriage-roads, which lead up to magnificent sea and mountain views, such as the Chinese and the Admiral's, abounding also with flower-besprinkled woods, granite cliffs, crystal brooks and cascades. Some of its nooks seem enchanted. There are two villages on the main road, and scattered about on the various eminences are some pretty villas whose grounds are well stocked with orange-groves, fig-trees, vines, thickets of bamboo, big rose-bushes, some of which are always in bloom, and much other vegetation.

The place is now rather quiet. To get there, you take the street-car marked Tijuca at the Largo São Francisco, being careful to select a seat on the shady side; on the way you pass through the long street, Haddock Lobo, in which are the palaces of the Duke de Saxe and Baron Mesqueta, and in an hour reach the foot of the mountain. There you take the stage, or a private conveyance, up the fine mountain-road, admitting of a trot a good part of the way, and in half an hour are at Boa

Vista, the most elevated village in Tijuca. That is as high ground as the stage reaches, but the green-topped mountains on either side are several hundred feet higher. On the winding way up there are two places where very beautiful views are to be had of the bay and part of the city. There are a hotel and several nice residences at Boa Vista, but from there the stage soon begins to descend the other side to another hotel, reached in about ten minutes, and which, though somewhat shut in, has a pleasant prospect from its piazza, and on its grounds a clear stream forming cool basins for bathing, amid a romantic labyrinth of foliage.

The last six months' residence of my family and myself in Brazil was at Sea-View Cottage, Tijuca, a spot whence there is a view of the sea in two places. During this time we had many delightful horseback-rides amid the charming solitudes, especially into the Floresta and its pleasant bridle-paths, where often the most brilliant butterflies, gently winging their way through the moist tropical air of some shady ravine, would pass before us and disappear in the woods.

To illustrate the surroundings, I shall venture to give a familiar account of a horseback-ride which, accompanied by my wife and daughter, I took to the top of the mountain called Pedra Bonita ("Beautiful Rock"). We had been told by an old resident of Tijuca that the road was good all the way there, and that people sometimes made the trip before breakfast. We started at nine o'clock in the forenoon, May 4, 1885, and, after riding something over a mile, on the road leading from Boa Vista to the Chinese View, we turned off to the right and went down into and across a valley having fifty acres or so of flat land watered by a clear stream, traversed by roads

arched over by bamboos, and which was formerly the seat of a coffee-plantation. Of the latter there is no vestige except a durable-looking house. At this time there was a dairy with a good modern barn for cows, some patches of cultivated grass on surrounding knolls, a few scattered dwellings, and on the farther side, down stream, a paper-mill. We rode on as far as the latter place, and found we were on the wrong track; but a Portuguese operative went with us a few hundred yards and showed us where to turn. Soon we began to ascend the mountain over a narrow way or path which had been paved with rough stones many years ago, and which was beginning to be obstructed by high bushes and branches of trees, especially after we had left the only pasture-gate on the way. On we rode. We were ascending the north side of the mountain; some of the way was quite steep and difficult, and, the weather being warm, it was necessary occasionally to let the horses rest. We soon gained a point where we had a full view of the Peak of Tijuca, the Parrot's Beak, and other mountain scenery. In the course of half or three quarters of an hour we came to an old and abandoned house, without floor or windows, but in the yard of which was a fine specimen of the fire tree or plant in full bloom, with bright-red, long-leaved flowers. We rode up into the door-yard to take a look at the place, and to gain, if we could, a good distant view. There seemed to be no very near prospect of our getting to the top of the mountain. However, we kept on our way through high and thickly grown bushes. In the course of half an hour more we came to another deserted, low-roofed, weather-stained house, still more dilapidated than the one we had just seen. Around this were a few rods of pasture, though rather overgrown with bushes. We

seemed to have come to the end of our path, for there were no signs of a track beyond, and we were not at the summit of Pedra Bonita, that was sure. Fortunately for us, however, we met there a colored man, a tall, slender old fellow, who was hunting his mule. He was bare-footed, wore a pair of cotton trousers, a thin undershirt, a low-crowned felt hat, and had in his hands a sharp, brass-hilted artillery saber or broadsword, which I supposed he intended to use in cutting bushes. We learned from him that we were on the right track, and that we could get to the top of Pedra Bonita in about a quarter of an hour. He pointed toward the path we should take, but said it was very bad. We found it so completely overgrown by ferns and bushes that we could make no progress at all. I then proposed that he should accompany us, to show the way, which he did, going ahead and cutting away the bushes so we could get along. The way was difficult and seemed long. I thought no one could have passed that route on horseback for some years. At one time I almost had misgivings lest we were being led into the wilderness; but at length, in less perhaps than half an hour, we reached the top. While yet in the woods, and before we could see anything but light through the branches, we could hear the heavy roar of the sea. We dismounted and tied our horses in a clump of heavy timber, and then walked a few hundred feet out upon the bare, smooth summit of solid rock, where a little monument had been built. We were on the summit of Pedra Bonita.

The view was superb. In a moment we felt more than rewarded for the difficult and fatiguing ascent. On our right, at the foot of the mountain, was the long Tijuca beach, with the white waves of the ocean, whose

deep murmur we heard, rolling upon it; and back of the beach a flat, dark area of low land, inclosing a fresh-water lake, around which were some fishermen's cottages. Opposite us was the castle-topped Garvea, with its great perpendicular tower of solid rock, distinctly and beautifully prominent. To the left of the Garvea, and partly in front of us, was an extensive view of the ocean and an island near the shore; off to the left, and apparently eight miles distant, was a good view of the Corcovado, its side toward the sea looking extremely precipitous and its summit sharp-pointed. Between the mountains we could see the Bay of Rio, and the Petropolis Mountains beyond; also a little to their right the pinnacles of the Organ Mountains. The prospect was much grander than the "Chinese View"—so called because Chinamen built the road leading to it. Between the Pedra Bonita we were on and the Corcovado, there was a mass of white moving clouds covering the valleys, which made the scene more picturesque. What we had formerly supposed was the Pedra Bonita was, in fact, the slender, sharp-pointed, sugar-loaf eminence, a little way distant on our left, but considerably below us, called the Pitanga. The highest summit of Pedra Bonita has an area only about twenty-five feet square, and the sides are precipitous. Toward the Garvea there is, after a slight descent, a continuation of the summit that is about an acre broad.

After a stay of twenty minutes we started down, bringing with us a piece of the rock. Our guide, who had stayed with us, led the way, still cutting bushes to improve the path. At one place he made a sudden halt, and seemed, by the motion of his arm and knife, to be trying to scare rather than hit a snake which he said was in among the branches of some bushes. Neither of us

saw the reptile, which probably was after birds. It was suggested that it might be an anaconda. The incident afforded a good laugh.

We left our guide where we found him, telling him to come to our house soon for his pay. He gave me a few guavas, which I put in my pocket, and just then I spied a couple of clusters of wild blackberries, which, though small, had the natural taste. They are never seen in Brazil except in some such wild place, but there is no reason why the fruit could not be cultivated.

It was half-past one o'clock in the afternoon when we safely reached home. Where the road was good we galloped rapidly. We had occupied nearly five hours in our excursion, yet felt very well satisfied at what we had accomplished.

CHAPTER VII.

SITUATION, RESOURCES, AND CLIMATE.

A COUNTRY as large as Brazil, having an area equal to that of the United States exclusive of Alaska, must, of course, have a variety of surface and climate. First, there are the hot lowlands bordering the ocean; secondly, the highlands, partly prairie, and on the average three thousand feet above the sea-level, with a salubrious climate; and, thirdly, the great forest-clad river-basins. The vast basin of the Amazon, which occupies the northern part of the empire, and comprises a third of its whole area, is nearly level, although there are occasional bluffs and not very high mountain-spurs on its shores as well as along the banks of its tributaries. This region is mostly covered with forest. The other two thirds of the country are to a great extent mountainous, or at least much elevated and broken. Distinct ranges of mountains extend along nearly the whole of the sea-coast, but they generally are only about four thousand feet high, are covered with a good growth of hard-wood trees, and always have a green appearance. There are only a very few of the mountains in Brazil which have an elevation of six thousand to eight thousand feet. There are some in the mining regions, three hundred miles west of Rio, which are very rocky, and have a naked and black appearance.

Professor Agassiz was of the opinion that the soil which covers Brazil was brought down from the Andes by an immense glacier during the ice period—the “cosmic winter, which may have lasted thousands of centuries.” His conclusions on other matters have been so sound that I was disposed to adopt, without question, this theory of his, and was surprised to hear an experienced geologist, who is acquainted with Brazil, throw doubt upon it. His remark to me was, “As the students at college used to say, Agassiz ‘balled up’ on this matter.” But whatever may have been the origin of the soil—call it “drift” or “deposit” as we may—one thing is certain, that nearly over all the surface of Brazil the soil has a red color; and the darker the shade of red which it has, and the nearer it approaches to a purple color, the more fertile it is found to be. Such soil frequently occurs on the more elevated situations, where it produces a rich growth of vegetation, and, indeed, is found on mountains more frequently than on low land. Mr. Buckle, in his well-known work, says: “Brazil, which is nearly as large as the whole of Europe, is covered with a vegetation of incredible profusion. Indeed, so rank and luxuriant is the growth, that Nature seems to riot in the very wantonness of power. . . . The progress of agriculture is stopped by impassable forests, and the harvests are destroyed by innumerable insects. The mountains are too high to scale, the rivers are too wide to bridge; everything is contrived to keep back the human mind, and repress its rising ambition.” This eloquent writer devotes several pages to Brazil, and much that he says of it is true; but he had acquired from travelers, who had made but brief visits to the country, an erroneous impression as to the density and luxuriance of its vegetation. Many of the

best plantations in Brazil are on land that was formerly covered with the heaviest kind of timber that the soil produces, and I am satisfied that, if we take the most desirable agricultural land as a body, it can be subdued about as readily as the forests of Kentucky and Ohio were subdued by the pioneers of those States. Some of the rich bottom-lands on the tributaries of the Mississippi bear as dense and luxuriant a forest-growth as are to be found in Brazil. It is true, the mountains greatly obstruct communication; but already railroads run over them in several places, as well as through them by tunnels; and they are no higher than some of those in Norway, which are crossed by excellent macadamized roads. The many navigable rivers, instead of retarding development, afford an extensive means of communication, and much of the civilization of the interior is found along their banks. In the central and southern portions of Brazil are extensive undulating plains, mostly devoid of timber, covered with green grass in summer but shriveled and almost bare in winter, and which, though better suited for cattle-raising than for field-culture, occasionally suffer long-continued and fatal droughts. The more fertile tracts of the country are like islands in a great area of thin soil. One may sometimes travel for days on horseback over poor and almost worthless land. A naturalist, who has spent several years traveling in Brazil, said to me: "Brazil is not a fertile country; even the rich vegetation in the Amazon Valley is not owing to fertile soil but to the air and rain." Speaking of the large province of Matto-Grosso, comprising almost a fourth of the empire, he said, "It is a splendid desert."

Having traveled hundreds of miles in different directions in some of the most fertile and productive parts of

the country, I must say that its vegetation is not more remarkably luxuriant than what would be met with in some parts of the United States or Europe.

Mr. Walter J. Hammond, a British subject and a railway manager in Brazil, seems to give a fair summary of the character of the land in a paper recently published. "The chief reason," he says, "for the belief in the surpassing fertility of the land is not based on what it has been known to give per acre, but rather it is the result of an ocular impression of the glorious green mountains that form the coast-line of the southern half of Brazil. Instinctively, all attribute fertility to forest-lands, and to a certain extent this is right, owing to the magnificent alluvial soil found in them, often the accumulation of many a century. But Brazil is not all covered with dense forests, and even where it is, and where the soil is sufficiently moist and good, the land is not by any means suitable for any other than tropical agriculture. There are myriads of miles of sterile campo-land, on which only rank grass grows, and there are miles untold of sandy plains, on which only scrub cork-trees and other similar growth will flourish. . . . Examining the province of São Paulo, notably one of the richest in Brazil, a territory not much inferior in size to England, Scotland, and Ireland combined, we find that down the coast, for a distance of from fifty to eighty miles inland, the land is comparatively useless from an agricultural point of view. Beyond this strip of land the soil is a little better, and will, after the forest has been cut or burned down, produce one or two crops of Indian corn or rice without the need of manuring, after which it is used up. About one hundred miles from the sea-coast commences the coffee district, which is also variable in fertility, some parts being very good, others use-

less from being too dry, and others too sandy. Two hundred miles inland, in the region between the rivers Pardo, Piracicaba, and Tieté, where trap rock is chiefly found, is the famous red land. Even here there are stretches of miles and miles of sandy campo-land, useless for anything. If the European idea of good land—namely, that which with careful tilling and manuring will give good crops—be taken as a standard, then can the whole province of São Paulo be considered generally good, for the climate is good, the rainfall between forty and fifty inches on the table-land from São Paulo inland, and the seasons are well defined. This, however, can not be called ‘surpassing fertility.’ On the contrary, it is the usual hard work of farming. When speaking of ‘surpassing fertility,’ then, such rich lands as will give crop after crop (of which there are tracts in the province of São Paulo) with the minimum of labor, and without the necessity of a rotation of crops, is understood. Again, there certainly are good grazing-lands in the west of São Paulo and in Minas-Geraes, hundreds of miles from the markets, but they can not compare with the prairies of Rio Grande and the Argentine Republic, hence can not be counted on as a source of railway prosperity for many years to come. Brazil’s chief riches are her tropical products and her unworked minerals. . . . To sum up this question of ‘surpassing fertility,’ Brazil is very like the United States, in being rich and poor as far as her soil goes, but she can not compete with the States in many things, owing to her physical configuration, her rivers in the southern half of the empire being of little use, having only short stretches of navigable water, and being cut up by innumerable rapids and water-falls; finally, they chiefly run toward Bolivia and her other western frontiers, instead of toward the coast.”

Among the many great river-basins of Brazil the São Francisco claims attention next after the Amazon, for the degree of its development and the extent and variety of its agricultural resources. It occupies but little space on the ordinary map, but it is actually a thousand miles long and from fifty to two hundred miles wide, being inclosed on both sides by ranges of not very high mountains, whose spurs and foot-hills occasionally extend to the river-banks. This river takes its rise about three hundred miles northwest of Rio de Janeiro, and, flowing in a north and northeasterly course through a broken country, whose general surface is two thousand feet above the sea, finally reaches the ocean near the tenth degree of south latitude, and midway between the two important coast cities, Pernambuco and Bahia. Unfortunately, the greatest extent of its navigation is shut out from the ocean by tremendous falls.

Its scenery is more picturesque than that of the upper Mississippi, as it includes not only bold bluffs and knobs single and in groups, but vast plains, sweeping undulations, and grand mountain-views. Fine stretches of limestone country, richly clothed with forest, are here and there succeeded by sandstone with meager soil and scanty vegetation. There are also marks which have been left by mighty inundations. It is not remarkable, perhaps, for its natural history. Small alligators are frequently seen protruding their snouts out of the water. Here and there on a white sand-bank are flocks of gulls and snowy herons, while high in the air wheels the hunting vulture with crimson head and silver-lined wings. At night, in the solitudes, the traveler will often hear the plaintive notes of the whip-poor-will. There is much local traffic on this great river in spoon-shaped yawls and on rafts guided by

singing and superstitious boatmen. The people living along the banks call the canoe their horse.

Scattered along the valley are many plantations and farms under cultivation. Delicious water-melons, oranges, bananas, and figs are among the common fruits. Cotton is grown considerably, especially in the lower valley, yielding five hundred pounds of clean cotton to the acre. Indian corn and sugar-cane are likewise important crops. The principal agricultural pursuit, however, is stock-raising, and that is the industry for which most of the land is best adapted. About all the land in this great valley is held by private individuals, some owning one hundred and sixty square miles each. They have no taxes to pay on it; otherwise they would be, as we say in the United States, "land-poor." Among the towns there are two or three with a population of four thousand. Captain Burton, who went down the entire valley, estimates that it will sustain a population of twenty millions. He shows, however, that there are places, now in ruins, on its banks, which were under successful cultivation a century ago by the Jesuit missions. The Paulo Affonso falls of this river, two hundred and seventy-three feet high, and probably the grandest in Brazil, occur about one hundred miles from its mouth. Around these falls a railroad (Paulo Affonso), eighty-one miles in length, has been built by Government aid, which, starting at Piranhas, on the lower navigable part of the river, in the province of Alagoas, terminates on its upper navigable waters at Jatobá, in the province of Pernambuco.

Railroads to tap this productive but now secluded valley are pushing on from three important seaports. One from Pernambuco, the first section of which was opened in 1858, running in a southwesterly direction, through a

sugar country, has been in operation seventy-seven miles, to Palmares, a couple of years, and is now completed to Marayal, another station beyond, but is only about a third part of the way to its destination. Another, from Bahia, running in a northwesterly direction, is in operation, one hundred and sixty-six miles, to Salgada, being over a third part of the way to Joazeiro, its destination, on the right bank of the São Francisco. The other is the Dom Pedro II Railway, running from Brazil's great commercial center, Rio de Janeiro, also in a northwesterly direction, and finished three hundred and twenty-five miles, to Itabira, on the head-waters of the São Francisco, from which point it will descend the valley. These three railroads will in a few years aid much in the development of that important region.

The rubber industry is the principal resource of the two great provinces of the Amazon Valley, Pará and Amazon, and its product occupies the third place in the national exports. The rubber-tree requires a growth of twenty to twenty-five years before it begins to produce, hence little or nothing has been done for its propagation. The milky sap which forms crude rubber is taken from the wild trees, which grow scattered through the forests of the Amazon and many of its affluents. The industry, being principally in the hands of an uneducated and half-civilized nomad population of Indian mixture, is of a crude character, and is pursued mostly on the national domain, which is freely open to everybody for this purpose. Nothing has been done to improve the system of labor. A wasteful and exhaustive system has been followed for half a century, and the consequence is that millions of rubber-trees have been destroyed and many others abandoned from premature and excessive use.

There are instances of groves of trees which, by careful use and by not permitting them to be tapped in the months of August and September, in which they change their leaves, have been yielding for thirty years, and still are in good producing condition; but the common practice is so wasteful that many well-informed people apprehend that, unless some remedy is applied, this rich resource will, before long, suffer a serious and perhaps fatal decline.

The rubber-tree thrives only on soil which is annually overflowed to a depth of three or more feet, and prefers the lowest and most recent river deposit. The rubber-gatherers are temporary squatters, and their usual dwelling is a hut with low roof of palm-thatch, beneath one end of which there is a raised floor or framework of lath, one or two yards from the ground, to which the occupants retreat at high water. Narrow paths lead from the gatherer's hut, through dense underwood, to each separate tree.

As showing how unprepared genteel people may sometimes be for "roughing it" in the rubber-growing wilderness, or how ignorant they are of the life before them, an American who recently journeyed on the upper Amazon told me that on the steamboat with him was a Brazilian family, the head of which was going up to engage largely in the rubber business, and, although he and his family would have to live in a shanty of one or two rooms on the river-bank, his wife had brought along in her trunks several fashionable silk dresses.

The chief products of Brazil for export are coffee, sugar, rubber, cotton, hides, tobacco, and *maté*-tea, ranking in the order in which they are named; but maize, mandioca (from which tapioca is made), beans, and rice

are grown extensively for home consumption, the latter being much used in place of potatoes. Oranges, bananas, and pineapples are the best and principal fruits. With the exception of gold and diamonds, the mines as yet occupy an insignificant place. There is good iron-ore, which is got out and worked by the Government, but not in a profitable manner. Amid the black and rocky mountains of the province of Minas-Geraes gold-mines have been successfully worked for two or three centuries, and with increased means of communication both gold and diamond mining will have an important development. Brazil's foreign commerce amounts to \$176,000,000 a year, of which her exports average \$96,000,000 and her imports \$80,000,000 a year. The aggregate foreign commerce of all the other South American countries per year is \$275,000,000, being only a hundred million dollars more than that of Brazil alone. That there is nothing marvelous in Brazil's riches may be seen by comparing her foreign commerce with that of some other countries. Take Sweden, for example, which lies at another part of the globe and is covered with snow nearly half the year. Her population is four and a half millions—less than half that of Brazil—and yet her foreign commerce amounts to one hundred and twenty-five million dollars a year, or three fourths that of Brazil—the latter country meantime having the labor of a million African slaves. Of Brazil's total foreign commerce fifty-six million dollars, or about one third, is with the United States; of which amount forty-seven million dollars are exports, principally coffee and rubber, to the United States, while nine million dollars represent American imports into Brazil, consisting principally of flour, kerosene, machinery, lard, and lumber. This American trade is distributed among the lead-

ing ports of Brazil as follows: Pará, \$10,000,000; Pernambuco, \$6,000,000; Bahia, \$3,000,000; Rio, \$30,000,000; Santos, \$5,000,000; Rio Grande do Sul, \$1,000,000; and other ports, \$1,000,000.

Though a field worthy of much attention and enterprise, she has not the capacity for that rapid commercial development which her resources would at first seem to indicate. Her situation is not favorable for the rapid accumulation of wealth. With a population of some thirteen millions scattered over a region nearly as large as the United States, her territorial extent is a source of weakness. Her resources, though undoubtedly imposing and calculated to insure for her an important future, are yet inferior to what is commonly supposed. Her coal, iron, and much of her lumber have to be imported. The small grains, such as wheat, barley, and oats, do not flourish on her soil. At present she is laboring under some financial embarrassment, partly originating, it is but just to say, in a long foreign war that was forced upon her, and in which her course was disinterested. Her revenue amounts to about fifty-five million dollars a year, but the expenditures, of which only a comparatively small part is for productive purposes, annually exceed that amount by several million dollars. The public debt of Brazil in 1885, according to the report of the Minister of Finance, was 868,729,487 milreis; which reduced to money of the United States, at the rate of forty cents to the milreis, would amount to three hundred and forty-eight million dollars. Her annual interest charge is now upward of twenty million dollars. Her currency consists of irredeemable legal-tender Government notes, the value of which—daily fluctuating—is about twelve cents below par, although it is seventeen years since her foreign war closed. In the

laudable purpose of development, the Government has incurred heavy liabilities. It has guaranteed, and for a long term of years will need to pay the interest on, the bonds of several railway and other companies whose expenses exceed their income. And, although Brazil has always maintained a dignified and conservative course, and never repudiated any of her debts, still there is quite a general feeling that, unless a change be made in the direction of retrenchment, grave financial difficulties may be experienced. The situation is not favorable, therefore, for much material progress. Indeed, the gradual extinction of slave-labor will, for a while at least, tend to reduce the volume of national products. Steady increase has been made in extending several lines of railroads. Some hundreds of miles of new road have been opened for traffic during the present year. New lines have also been commenced, and there is reason to suppose that the development will annually increase, though the broken surface of Brazil generally, and especially the mountains near the sea-coast, are great obstacles to rapid railroad development. The principal railroad, being the one which runs west from Rio de Janeiro, crosses two ranges of mountains. The railroad running from Santos into the interior of the province of São Paulo has first to climb a mountain two thousand feet high. None of the railroads have yet penetrated to the vicinity of wild or public lands. Some of them traverse extensive areas of uncultivated land, but as yet no grants of land have been made in aid of railroads. The capital for their construction has mostly come from England. The state, however, as well as the separate provinces, has extensively guaranteed the payment of interest, usually at seven per cent, on railroad capital. Its annual burden for the payment of such in-

terest amounts now to upward of three million dollars. The rails for all the roads have to be imported, and the greater part are purchased in England. The most of the locomotives, however, are imported from the United States. The coal consumed by the locomotives is also imported. At the close of 1886 it may be said there are four thousand miles of railway in operation in Brazil. There is scarcely a province bordering on the ocean but has one or more railways, and every one leads to the west or toward the interior. Several of the railroads that are in course of construction and that have received Government guarantee do not pay and are not likely to pay expenses for a long time. The "Jornal do Commercio," in an article of August 26, 1883, specified nine separate railways with a total paid-up capital of forty million dollars, on which the Government had guaranteed the annual payment of interest at seven per cent, and which, with cost of inspection, made an annual charge of three million dollars, but which, however, were only a part of the state's liabilities.

"If we are going," said the "Jornal," "to increase this already enormous liability without the greatest circumspection, then bankruptcy, that word which has sported on the lips of so many of our politicians as the refrain of every opposition, may one day become a tremendous reality, sweeping away the credit which we have so scrupulously, but at the cost of such heavy sacrifices, succeeded in founding and keeping uninjured as the most precious treasure which the nation may one day be able to fall back upon should it ever find it necessary to do so." It is amazing how few carriage-roads have been built. A few good macadamized wagon-roads through the fertile parts of the empire, and extending across the whole of it,

would form the nucleus of settlements. If I were the Emperor of Brazil, I would not wish to be known by any better title after my death than that of "The Road-builder."

The usual rates of railway transportation are exceedingly high, namely: Textile and general goods, twenty-two cents per ton per mile; railway-iron, iron-work for construction, agricultural implements, iron tubes, etc., eleven cents per ton per mile; coffee, cotton, sugar, seventeen cents per ton per mile. I have heard people say: "It is true there are splendid tracts of fertile land suitable for coffee or other plantations situated off a hundred miles or more from where railroads now end; but it would not pay to cultivate them, because it would cost too much to bring the products to market." I am informed, however, that in the course of a few years railway charges will probably be considerably reduced. Several of the railroads, which were at first imperfectly built, now clear twenty per cent on their capital; they pay a dividend of ten per cent, and use the other ten per cent for permanent improvements. The time will come, therefore, when they can well afford to reduce their rates, and when competing lines will compel them to do so.

Two of the railways in the province of São Paulo which pay good dividends—the Paulista and the Mogyana—appear to owe much of their financial success to the economy of their construction: the first, a broad-gauge line, one hundred and fifty miles long, cost fifty thousand dollars per mile; and the other, a metre-gauge line, one hundred and ninety miles long, cost twenty thousand dollars per mile. Their cost of construction appears to have been economical, compared with most other railways in Brazil.

There are no roads having double tracks, and no roads running night passenger-trains. About one fourth of the roads are five feet three inches wide, and the remaining three fourths are of the metre gauge. The sleepers are filled in with earth, more or less sandy, taken from adjacent cuttings, none of the roads being ballasted with stone. Only a few are fenced in. The speed of the so-called passenger-trains is, on the broad gauge, from twenty-eight to thirty miles an hour, and on the narrow gauge about twenty to twenty-two miles an hour.

Several American as well as English civil engineers have gained well-merited distinction by their services in Brazil, but the field now appears to be almost wholly occupied by native talent. However, as is natural, several English railway companies employ English engineers. In subordinate positions in the Brazilian railway service the pay is poor, and no inducements exist for Americans.

Brazil is not only on the east side of South America, but it stretches so far eastward that a line drawn due south from New York through South America would touch her most westerly limits. The sun rises much sooner on Brazil than it does on the New England States.

In this connection it is well to have clearly fixed in mind the fact that the River Plate is not a Brazilian river. It empties into the Atlantic south of Brazil, at about the thirty-fifth degree of south latitude, and is the great waterway of three rising republics, which are Brazil's near and jealous neighbors on the south. The upper part of the river, forming the western boundary of the republic of Paraguay, is called the Paraguay, and its middle part is called the Paraná. On the other hand, Brazil's great river Amazon empties into the Atlantic close to the equator. It is a ten-days' voyage for a steamer from the mouth

of one river to the other. What are known as the River Plate countries are the Argentine Republic and the two other republics of Uruguay and Paraguay. The last is an interior state, of good natural resources, lying west of southern Brazil, and has its outlet through the River Plate. Its area is equal to that of the two States of Illinois and Indiana together. It was greatly reduced by its long war under Lopez, and now has a population of less than half a million. Its products are maté-tea (its chief export), horned cattle, tobacco, maize, rice, cotton, and sugar; and its total foreign commerce amounts to about four million dollars a year. The Republic of Uruguay, with a territorial extent about like Paraguay, fronts on the Atlantic and the north shore of the River Plate. Its capital, Montevideo, is an enterprising and pretty city, situated on elevated land, and has about two hundred thousand inhabitants. It is there that the South Atlantic naval squadron of the United States anchors during the hot season, November to June, returning to Rio in the latter month. The population of Uruguay is a little over half a million, and for such a population its foreign commerce is remarkably large, being about forty million dollars a year. The principal industry is cattle- and sheep-raising, and the chief export is hides. But much the more important of the River Plate countries is the Argentine Republic, which has an area, including Patagonia, one third as great as that of Brazil. Its population, which is receiving important accessions annually from the south of Europe, amounts to about four millions. Its exports are principally wool, hides, cattle, and dry, salted meat; and its total foreign commerce amounts to one hundred and twenty million dollars, the exports and imports being about equal. It has two thousand miles of railway in

operation. Buenos Ayres, the capital, has three hundred thousand inhabitants, is situated on level ground, is built in a very regular manner, though many of its buildings are low, and is regarded as an enterprising and attractive city. A bright American business man, who has made several visits there, as well as to Rio, and of whom I inquired how the cities compared with each other, declared, "Rio is a dog-hole compared with Buenos Ayres." Others with whom I have conversed, while admitting the latter to be the more regularly built city, have said that it had not as fine private residences as some that are to be seen at Rio. The climate of the Argentine Republic is such that wheat is becoming one of its successful and important crops; and, as very much of its surface is level or moderately undulating, and devoid of timber, it is susceptible of a more rapid development than Brazil. Indeed, all three of these River Plate republics have good natural resources, and, if they are permitted to enjoy the blessings of peace and economical and impartial government, they are destined to make great progress. Being of Spanish origin, their language is the Spanish. These are the neighbors which Brazil has on her south and southwestern borders.

With reference to climate, I must say that I have found more inconvenience from cold weather than from hot weather in Brazil. The trouble is, that there are about sixty mornings and evenings in the course of a year at Rio when a little fire in a dwelling is necessary for comfort, but none of the houses have any stoves, fireplaces, or even chimneys, except what are connected with the kitchen. In the most southerly province, Rio Grande do Sul, snow frequently falls. On the undulating plains of Paraná, three thousand feet above the sea, the average daily

range of temperature in August is from 44° to 72° Fahr., and snow occasionally falls there in July, enough to entirely cover the ground. Even in the province of Pernambuco, eight degrees south from the equator, countrymen may be seen descending from the highlands, with their produce, dressed in fur-covered skins. The American minister, Mr. Blow, writing from Petropolis, near Rio, July, 1870, mentions a frost that had occurred on the 22d of June preceding, and which it was feared had greatly damaged the crops in that region. Ice formed that was nearly an inch thick; but nothing similar had occurred since 1842. On the interior farming-lands, which are about two thousand feet above the sea, white frosts occur repeatedly, almost every year, say in the winter months of June and July, and kill any bean-crops which, from having been planted late, are then growing. Mr. Lidgerwood, who is so well and favorably known in Brazil, through his machines for cleaning coffee, told me that one night in June, 1868, he rode muleback from Campinas to Jundiahy, province of São Paulo, where he found the ground white with frost, and that he never felt the cold so much as then, being so chilled and numb he could hardly step. As for the negro who was with him, he thought he was about frozen to death; he seemed hardly able to speak. All he could get out of him was a groan!

We must remember that when we get south of the equator the seasons come to a right-about-face. While it is winter north of the equator, it is summer south of the equator. When it is summer in Europe and in the United States, and everything is green and tropical, then it is that people in Brazil are putting on their overcoats, and the leaves have totally fallen from many of the trees. In

Brazil, summer is in its full tropical glory in December and January. Hot weather prevails at Rio de Janeiro from October to May, say a period of seven months, during which there will be frequent spells, of a few days in succession, when, from ten o'clock in the forenoon till four o'clock in the afternoon, the temperature will be up to about 85° Fahr. in the shade. A few nights now and then will be uncomfortably warm. But, commonly, such hot spells, after continuing two or three days, are followed by heavy rains, lasting through a night or day, and which leave the atmosphere fresh and pleasant for several days. The heat never appears to be as excessive as it is in many parts of the United States. Work goes on briskly all through the day. Deaths from sunstroke are exceedingly rare. The thunder and lightning are not terrific, and cyclones and hurricanes scarcely ever occur. The winter months of Rio are in the main what, in the United States, we would regard as pleasant summer weather. In that season a gentleman, starting out in the morning and going in an open street-car, would be likely every day to take a light overcoat with him, and generally to wear it. At that season, although many of the trees have a naked appearance, and show that Nature is taking a rest, still there are always enough that are covered with green foliage, together with the flowers and shrubbery that are cultivated in thousands of pretty gardens, to give one, and especially a stranger, the impression that it is still summer. On the whole, I regard the climate of Rio as charming, and, remembering the severity of our North American winters, I am perhaps more inclined to value a climate in which people can be out in the open air every day in the year without danger. From all that I can learn, the climate of the city of Pernambuco is the most delightful of

any in Brazil. Though a little more damp, it has not the extremes of heat and cold of Rio de Janeiro. All the year round it is favored with the fresh sea-breeze.

Take the whole country of Brazil, and the climate is salubrious. It is true that many people living in the wild valleys of great rivers that annually overflow suffer much from intermittent fever, but they are poorly housed and fed. The yellow fever could be entirely exterminated, as it ought to be, from such places as Rio, by the adoption of rigorous sanitary measures. The improvement already made in this regard has proved an important barrier against its ravages. I do not wish, however, to give a too rose-colored view of the salubrity of the climate. Unacclimated strangers coming to Brazil are exposed to some dangers. European governments, which give pensions to their civil officers after about thirty years' service, allow one year's service in Brazil to count as two years, on account of the supposed perils of the climate. Facts are cited by Brazilian writers to show that intermittent fever is sometimes more prevalent on high than on low land. Thus, a violent epidemic of this fever prevailed among the workmen building the railroad over the mountain-range of Maromby, in the province of Paraná, while there was very little of it among the workmen on that part of the line through the swampy lowlands between Rôça-Nova and Curitiba. Also, in constructing the water-reservoir in the Tijuca Mountains, this fever was prevalent. This confirms experience in Italy, where it has been found that two thirds of the places where fever prevailed were among hills and mountains.

Mrs. Agassiz, writing at Pará, August 14, 1865, says: "We are very agreeably surprised in the climate here. I had expected, from the moment of our arrival in the

region of the Amazons, to be gasping in a fierce, unintermitting, intolerable heat. On the contrary, the mornings are fresh; a walk or ride between six and eight o'clock is always delightful, and though, during the middle of the day, the heat is certainly very great, it cools off again toward four o'clock. The evenings are delightful, and the nights always comfortable. Even in the hottest part of the day the heat is not dead; there is always a breeze stirring."

Senator Henrique d'Avila, a rich stock-raiser in the province of Rio Grande do Sul (the most southerly part of Brazil), also ex-Minister of the Department of Agriculture and Public Works, imparted some valuable information in regard to recent changes of climate and droughts in that province, in a speech which he made in the Senate on the 13th of July, 1884. Senator Martins had stated that Rio Grande do Sul had not been scourged by droughts like the province of Ceará, and, in reply to this, M. d'Avila affirmed that his province had suffered such formidable droughts as to cause poverty and ruin to many of the inhabitants. They had had, he said, a drought lasting two or three years, by which many stock-raisers lost almost all their cattle, and, both in Rio Grande and the adjoining state of Uruguay, there had been farms in the interior districts without one single head of cattle. The cattle had died, or fled for water, so that nearly all were lost. In regard to wheat-culture, it was not abandoned, as had been alleged, because cattle-raising was more lucrative, but in consequence of the irregularity of the climate and damage by rust. Formerly, in Rio Grande, the winter weather was uniformly cold, with occasional ice; rain came in its proper season, and the summers were always warm, with more or less intensity, according to the month.

Wheat, after it had germinated and well put forth, required frost, and did not prosper without it. His province had changed so much in its seasons that in the month of December (middle of summer) they had strong frosts, with ice, as in winter, and in July and August they had such heat as to cause premature germination of seed. In consequence of such irregularity in the seasons, as had occurred for several years in the province of Rio Grande, the planters of wheat began to despond, seeing that they could no longer harvest the crops of former times, and which, indeed, had been the foundation of their wealth. There were many fortunes to-day whose foundation had been the production of wheat in previous good times. Consequently, Rio Grande do Sul was in perfectly the same condition as the province of Ceará.

“Without doubt,” continued Senator d’Avila, “Rio Grande do Sul has magnificent forests in her mountains; so has Ceará mountain riches that are never touched by drought, which constantly have water, water permanently, but the mountains can not save the valleys of Ceará. Rio Grande do Sul has fine forests in her mountains but none in the valley, which comprises the south part of the province.”

Senator Martins: “But it has water.”

Senator d’Avila: “Our rivers dry up. The Santa Maria, when I was at Uruguayana (southwestern frontier of Brazil) and crossed it, was completely dry. The drought was such that we had no water to give to the animals which we took, and some of which perished for want of water. I believe the Government ought to cause studies to be made, as it did in Ceará, for irrigating different provinces—such as Rio Grande do Sul, the interior of Bahia and Pernambuco, and the region of the upper

São Francisco Valley; in short, to ascertain, if possible, whether their waters could not be canalized so as to afford irrigation. We have equally in Ceará and Rio Grande do Sul little dams to make small reservoirs on small streams. There are owners of ranches of four or five leagues of land, and who have a natural supply of water only at one extreme end of the pasture or *campo*, and so, not to make the cattle travel different times in the day a distance of two, three, or more leagues, to drink, they make little ponds by dams. An uncle of mine, living near the Jaguarõ River, had one of these in which he also had excellent fish, but the drought of one year caused it to dry up."

The average temperature at Pará is 80°. The summer temperature at Rio de Janeiro is about 75°, and the winter temperature 65°. The prevailing winds are from the east, and always secure to the country, as a whole, an abundance of earth-fattening rain.

CHAPTER VIII.

AMERICAN-BRAZILIAN RELATIONS.

LIKE the Americans, the Brazilians take more interest in what occurs in Europe than in any other part of the outside world. They concern themselves very little about what takes place in the United States. If a great disaster happens, like the burning of the Brooklyn Theatre, or a President is assassinated, they may possibly get the tidings of such a catastrophe by telegraph in the course of two or three days. Our presidential elections are important, and the result of a State election like that in the State of Maine on the 8th of September, two months before the presidential election, would be regarded by everybody posted in American affairs as indicative of the greater contest in November, and, of course, would be promptly cabled to the London newspapers; but no news whatever about that election came to Brazil. A leading journal publishes a tolerably fair letter from a New York correspondent once about every two months; but the same journal prints seventy-five letters from Europe to one that it prints from the United States.

The London daily journals of March 9, 1885, and of some preceding dates, arrived at Rio de Janeiro March 27th. As usual, their telegraphic columns were filled

with news from all the principal countries, and the "Jornal do Commercio" of Rio de Janeiro on the following morning, as is its custom, had a column filled with a synopsis of news from different countries, especially from European countries. These London papers contained unusually important news from the United States—the inauguration of the new President, Mr. Cleveland, his inaugural address in full, the names of his Cabinet ministers; the appointment of General Grant as general on the retired list of the army; also, the announcement of General Grant's alarming illness and probability of his early decease. American news is first received at Rio through the London daily newspapers, and all these facts made an unusual amount of news to come by one mail. Now, would it be thought that the synopsis of news in the Rio paper from the London journals contained no reference whatever to the United States—not a word about the inauguration of the new President, or of the dangerous illness of General and ex-President Grant? Yet such was the case. No allusion was made to anything that had occurred in the United States. Nor had any of this news from the United States been published in any of the Rio journals. This is according to the usual custom; and I think it shows very clearly that the Brazilians take little note or interest of what transpires in the North American republic.

I make no complaint about this; I merely state the facts. Probably it is natural that the Brazilians should have their minds more constantly fixed on Europe than upon the "Grand Republic," as they speak of our country when they wish to be very polite, though their newspapers frequently style the Americans "Yankees." Anyhow it is well for our Mr. Spread-Eagle to know that the

whole of mankind does not always have its admiring gaze fixed on our country. Still, I think there is in the deep current of Brazilian sentiment and thought a feeling of respect and regard for the United States. I am led to this conclusion for various reasons. It is certain that the Brazilians recognize America's inventive and literary genius. They know Longfellow at least, and they know that the telegraph, the sewing-machine, and the Atlantic cable started on their mighty errands from our shores. They unite with people everywhere in revering such American characters as Washington, Franklin, and Lincoln. In common with most other countries they have had proofs of the traditional moderation and justice of the American Government in its dealings with foreign countries. As straws show which way the wind blows, I would mention that I once attended in Rio de Janeiro a sleight-of-hand entertainment in the principal theatre, where there was an audience of about two thousand persons. One of the tricks of the performer was to draw out of a bottle the flags, one by one, of different nations, each being saluted with more or less applause. The Brazilian flag, of course, received the most favor, and quite a hearty round of applause greeted the Stars and Stripes. It seemed to me the American flag was next in favor to the Brazilian, and I remember to have experienced a feeling of delighted surprise at the incident. The Americans are Brazil's best customers, and, on grounds of interest, the Brazilians ought to be very friendly to the United States. It is a fact, however, that during our civil war Brazilian sympathy, unlike that of Russia, was with the South.

Steamships like the Oregon, which lately made the passage from Queenstown to New York in six days and ten hours, would make the voyage from New York to

Rio de Janeiro in eleven days and a half, whereas those now running occupy twice that time. Such a line would give our country a prestige in South America which she now greatly lacks. It would revolutionize trade in favor of Americans. With the new railroad development that is taking place, and the large immigration from Europe to the four countries of the Argentine Republic, Uruguay, Paraguay, and Brazil, there will necessarily be an increase of the foreign trade of those countries, and an enterprising and seasonable step on the part of Americans is indispensable if they would have a large share of it. At present twenty steamships a month from leading European ports arrive at Rio de Janeiro to one steamship that arrives there from the United States! Increased means of transportation from the United States to Brazil would greatly help American trade. At the same time, we must bear in mind that our export trade is mainly dependent on the goodness and cheapness of our commodities.

The Americans import from Brazil, and mostly from Rio, over three hundred million pounds of coffee a year, some of which, probably, is afterward sold as Java. It costs, delivered in New York, including the Brazilian export tax, ten cents a pound. Its transportation from Rio to New York—five thousand miles—is remarkably cheap, yet profitable to the carrier, being only forty cents a bag, or less than a third of a cent per pound. Why is it carried so cheaply? Because there are so many British and other foreign steamships in South American waters. They go from Europe with goods for Brazil and the River Plate, and need return-cargoes. About two of these steamers leave Rio every week for New York, and go thence to Liverpool. Americans save two million dollars

a year in freight on their coffee, through this abundance of foreign shipping. The present American line of steamers between New York and Rio is a help to our export trade to Brazil, but has small influence on freight *from* Brazil. Brazil's imports amount to eighty million dollars a year, of which the United States contributes nine millions. Our chief export to that country is flour; but we also send much kerosene, many locomotives, and other machinery. People ask, "Why don't we export more goods to Brazil?" Partly because the Brazilians have not the money to buy more, partly for lack of more frequent communication, and partly because they can get suited better elsewhere. There are, I repeat, twenty steamships a month arriving in Brazil from Europe to one that arrives from the United States, and goods can be got there more cheaply from Europe than from the United States. There is at Rio an American who sells the planters much machinery for hulling coffee, but who manufactures his machines in Scotland, because he can do so cheaper than in his own country. Rio consumes thirty thousand barrels of flour a month, mostly American. The bread is all made by bakers, and, though very good, it is not likely the consumption will increase rapidly, unless times become flush. The finances of all the South American countries are so depressed, their currency so depreciated, and their need for high import taxes so imperative, that we should not entertain extravagant ideas of beneficial reciprocal relations with them.

American manufactures generally have a good name in Brazil, and it stands our manufacturers in hand to continue to put conscience in their goods. A contrary course will soon wind up any trade. Brazilian importers sometimes say the Americans have such a great home market

that they don't wish to trouble themselves about exporting to foreign countries. The Brazilians have been accustomed to rather long credits, and the general impression is, that Europeans have been more ready to indulge them in this regard than our people. Americans intending to begin an export trade with Brazil, no matter how excellent their goods may be, must expect at first to make some sacrifice. It is as much as the Brazilian consignee can do to sell goods whose mark and quality are well known. It is more than he can be expected to do to urge upon customers goods of an unknown character. He will not do this, and an exporter, introducing an article whose name and character the Brazilian merchant is unacquainted with, must be content to sell it at some loss till it gets favorably known. After that he may expect to establish a remunerative trade.

Can any benefit be secured through a reciprocity treaty? The Brazilians appreciate the great advantage their country derives by the extensive import of their coffee into the United States free of duty. Most other countries, including Great Britain, impose an import tax on coffee, rising all the way from three cents to fourteen cents per pound, which last is the rate imposed by France. Its admission free of duty into the United States is substantially a donation of several million dollars a year to the treasury of Brazil, she having thereby been able to collect an increased export tax from it, amounting, imperial and provincial together, to eleven per cent. This has helped her, probably, in spite of her bad finances, to lately procure two of the most powerful ships of war that are anywhere afloat, and which are better than any the United States possesses. Although there has not been much expression of gratitude for these benefits, Brazil

would now, I am sure, promptly negotiate with the United States a reciprocity treaty, which would ameliorate our trade with her in some degree; but her financial situation is so straitened that she could not and would not grant us those benefits which ordinarily we would have a right to expect, and which would correspond with the advantage we afford her in admitting coffee free.

The tendency of Brazil to develop home manufactures under her high protective tariff will naturally cause a decline in some articles of our exports, and yet our exports as a whole may continue to increase. The number of her cotton-mills is steadily increasing. There are cotton-mills in the city of Rio run by steam with imported coal, that are paying well. A cotton-mill at Macaco, an hour by railway from Rio, which was burned some time ago, has recently been rebuilt, and has eight hundred looms in operation. It has water-power, and facilities for steam-power in dry weather. It makes not only common white cloth, but colored and mixed cloths for men's cheap clothing, and is earning very handsome profits. Already there are many cotton-factories in the country, and their number is sure to increase. Manufacturing activity in Brazil will make an increased demand for machinery. As an example, there has lately been a large company formed in the province of Minas-Geraes for the manufacture of lard, which has sent to the United States an agent to purchase machinery for the equipment of the factory. Indeed, it seems reasonable that, in proportion as the industrial skill and activity of the Brazilians increase, will their general power of consumption likewise increase. Let a cotton-factory be started in a place which is now a solitude: the hundreds of operatives which it will assemble, and who will help to form the village around it, will soon

begin to wear shoes and stockings instead of going bare-footed as they have been accustomed to do. Their wants will increase, and the receipt of regular wages will develop among them a power of purchase which before was almost a blank. Manufacturers help to civilize, and civilization makes trade.

I am aware of the deep interest that is felt in the United States in respect of the increase of our export trade, and especially the increase of exports to Brazil—by far the most populous and important of the South American countries. While it is desirable that every pains be taken to expand our export trade with Brazil, the situation of our trade with this country is not, however, so unfavorable as some persons have been led to suppose. We buy from Brazil about thirty million dollars' worth of coffee, eight million dollars' worth of rubber and sugar, hides, and other products amounting in all to upward of fifty million dollars, and in time of high prices sixty million dollars per annum. None of these things which we buy of Brazil are for vanity and show, but they are all useful and good for our people, because they are important elements in our industrial and social prosperity. The coffee is cheap and good, and gives cheer to the tables of the rich and poor alike. The rubber which we buy is worked up by our ingenious artisans to the great profit of our industry. Now, because Brazil in return buys only nine or ten million dollars' worth of our goods, does it prove that we are doing a losing business with her? May we not be doing a trade with her that is actually quite profitable to our people? Is it not something such a case as this? A is a large manufacturer of pianos, which he sells in different markets at a good profit. He buys the larger share of his wood and material of B, because he

can buy it cheaper of B than of any one else. Now, because B does not take his pay in pianos, is there any ground for A complaining that his trade with him is unfavorable? The circumstances are not exactly the same, but the principle is much the same, in respect of the balance of trade between the United States and Brazil.

Diplomatic and consular officers, if competent and properly sustained, can be useful in promoting trade and friendly relations. One of our ablest American Secretaries of State, Mr. Marcy, in a report to Congress, said: "The object of diplomatic missions is to adjust differences and conduct affairs between governments in regard to their political and commercial relations, and to furnish the Government at home with information touching the country to which the mission is accredited, more full and more accurate than might be obtained through the ordinary channels, or more promptly than the same information might otherwise be received." That our Government may not make an improper demand on a foreign country, and one that it will be obliged finally to recede from with loss of credit, it is of the utmost importance that it be supplied with information, in case of some sudden emergency, of a perfectly reliable character. Its representatives abroad, therefore, both diplomatic and consular, should have that position and consideration, in the places where they are employed, that they would have ready access to the very best sources of information, so that they could truly and promptly report to their Government in any sudden emergency. Access to such information requires friendly social relations with the leading and most influential people; relations which can only be maintained by character and a hospitable style of living. Unfortunately, our American diplomatic and consular

service has not been and is not half as well sustained as that of the leading European countries. Our practice in this regard has been eminently "pound foolish and penny wise." How insignificant would be the cost of such service on a liberal scale, compared with the vast outlay when once a country is obliged to drop peaceful remedies and resort to force! A small example of this occurs to me. Mr. Welles, Secretary of the Navy, writing November 18, 1868, relative to a movement against Paraguay, states that on a former occasion, when a demonstration was made against Paraguay, a naval force of light-draught vessels was sent out, and that the expedition "cost the Government several million dollars." For much less money than that the Government could have maintained a full embassy in Paraguay, in a palace, a hundred years!

CHAPTER IX.

A TRIP INTO THE INTERIOR.

IN the early part of August, 1883, I, with my family, made a trip into the great province of Minas-Geraes as far as the town of Barbacena, which, though on an ordinary atlas appears to be close to the sea-coast, is yet two hundred and thirty-four miles distant from Rio, by railway, in the interior. In going we went a roundabout way by Petropolis and returned direct by rail. We left our residence in Rua (Jardim) das Larangeiras at 1.45 p. m., Monday July 30th, and drove to the Petropolis steamboat, distant three miles, arriving considerably ahead of time. The weather had been unusually warm that day, but the sky was overcast, the distant mountains considerably hidden by clouds, and the breeze from across the bay felt damp but fresh. The harbor seemed very quiet. Six or eight large steamers were lying in sight, among them the American steamship Finance, which had her colors displayed and steam making, apparently for the continuation of her voyage to Santos—then an exceptional movement. A few little boats with freight were moving about; and just in front of us a large three-masted sailing-vessel, with white-painted hull and heavily loaded, was being towed by a propeller. The cabin of

our boat had a number of settees on each side facing the direction we were going, and on one of these near a window we took our places, and went to reading some late American newspapers. The boat started at six minutes after three o'clock, and at half-past three we were passing near Government Island—the longest and largest of the numerous islands in the Rio Bay, covered with low green foliage, and along the edge of which are a number of white cottages of working-people. Afterward we passed another island which was particularly pretty from the varied colors of its foliage—dark and light green—also the russet-colored tops of the mango-trees of different shades, from the russet to an orange tint. The shores were somewhat rocky, with occasional exposed places of red soil. To our front and right were other smaller islands, bearing small palms, banana-trees, and green bushes of various shades. On hill-sides were one or two cleared patches. The highest land of any of the islands did not exceed one hundred and fifty feet. Looking backward on our right, the hills back of Nietheroy and the Sugar-Loaf were visible, while directly behind the boat was Rio, dimly seen through the heavy atmosphere. In front, at a distance, were high mountains draped with fleecy clouds.

Besides ourselves there were in the cabin eleven adult passengers and five children. The cabin-floor was uncarpeted and clean. After an hour's passage on the boat we landed and walked a short distance to the railway upon which, after half an hour's run through a level, and for the first part swampy, bush-covered, wild, and thriftless-looking country, though containing an occasional dwelling and some patches of corn and mandioca, also a few orange and banana trees, the foot of the mountains was reached. Then at a slow pace the cars were pushed up the mount-

ain's side over a surface well wooded with deciduous trees and exposing many big granite rocks. The first half of the way the soil is a red clay mixed with granite, but approaching the summit it becomes a brown loam. We pass granite cuts near enough to touch the sides, also high, almost overhanging, rocks, and occasionally a declivity a hundred feet or more down and somewhat startling. For a part of the way the track follows the rocky course of a clear stream. Here and there the old, winding carriage-road with its high stone embankment is visible. The vegetation is abundant, the trees being tall and some of large size. Sometimes the views are fine, but on this occasion they were all shut out by wet clouds which actually enveloped us. Three quarters of an hour are occupied in ascending the mountain and in the short descent on the other side into Petropolis, making about two and a half hours for the whole trip. We reached the place at half-past five o'clock and drove to our hotel. As Petropolis is a very quiet place, it is the queer fashion there for people, even of the genteel class, to go to the railway-station at the time the train arrives; and there was quite a collection of people at the station the evening we arrived there.

The next day we made some excursions through and around the city, and very much enjoyed seeing the pretty villas with fine flower-gardens, the excellent macadamized roads, and the pebble-bottomed streams. The situation of Petropolis, in the mountains twenty-four hundred feet above the sea, is very pleasant and healthful; and foreigners arriving at Rio de Janeiro during the warm season between November and June, and finding the heat too great, or yellow fever prevailing, can obtain a quick and perfectly safe retreat at this mountain resort. The Em-

peror's summer villa was built there about forty years ago, and, as improvements have been going on ever since, it has become a most attractive as well as healthful and fashionable summer resort—the principal one, indeed, in Brazil. The diplomatic body usually go there bag and baggage at the same time as the court, and stay as long, which is generally from December till June. Petropolis lies in the valleys of three clear streams, which have been so improved by the engineer and gardener that they are quite a feature of the place. Their banks are even with the macadamized street or road on either side, but their channels are ten to fifteen feet deep, with sloping and trim, grass-covered sides. They flow gently over smooth, pebbly bottoms, and, though usually shallow, sometimes after a heavy rain overflow their banks. They are crossed by a number of foot and other bridges having bright-red railings, and shade-trees are growing along their banks. Two of these streams coming from opposite directions in the same street unite in the square of Dom Pedro II, and, after flowing through the centers of several other streets in a similar deep channel, are joined by another stream of like character, the whole forming a considerable river, which still runs for some distance in the limits of the town, and then over numerous foaming rapids descends the western slope of the mountains to the broad Parahyba. Petropolis includes in its limits several conical hills, about five hundred feet high, composed of fertile red soil, mostly covered with a young growth of forest, ever verdant, but somewhat variegated, and in which the dark green of the gracefully clustered bamboo and the lighter shades of the banana are noticeable. Some of the hill-sides show patches of cultivation and tidy-looking cottages. Fine mountain scenery is visible in

various directions. There are several extended and ample streets, a number of which are level, containing many separate, spacious, and tasteful dwellings, with the grounds, lawns, shrubbery, and flowers which so much adorn the country home, and which seem to find in the temperature of Petropolis their natural clime. The Emperor's villa is of a yellowish-brown color, and rather plain, but has about twelve acres of ground with trees and plants.

Petropolis, being named after the Emperor, and indeed founded by him, is naturally the object of his deep interest. The place with its outskirts affords many miles of pleasant carriage driveway over smooth roads. Its business is confined to one central street, on which is the railway-station. The working population is nearly all German or of German descent, and good order and quiet prevail. There are several tolerably comfortable hotels, with board at two dollars and twenty-five cents a day. As might be supposed, Petropolis has frequent spells of rainy weather, which sometimes last fully three days. In almost every month, too, there are some mornings and evenings which are cold enough to render a fire indispensable for comfort; but at present only a few houses are provided with heating accommodations. With good open fireplaces in the houses, and a sufficiency of dry fuel, the sanitary condition of the place would become greatly improved.

There is one train a day from Petropolis to Rio, starting at 7 A. M. The fare each way is three dollars. A few business men make the round trip daily, and state that they find it less fatiguing than the trip between Rio and Tijuca.

Having engaged transportation the preceding afternoon, we, on Thursday morning at five o'clock, left Pe-

tropolis by stage on the celebrated Juiz de Fora carriage-road for Entre Rios, there to take the railway for Barbacena. We three happened to be the only passengers. The stage was drawn by four mules, which were changed at every station of eight miles. We made good time, as the road was smooth (though I noticed it was getting worn and out of repair), and reached Entre Rios at about ten o'clock, in season for the express-train from Rio. The scenery was interesting all the way. Entre Rios seemed a brisk and important business place, especially for forwarding produce, and appeared to have a few thousand inhabitants. Continuing our journey from here on by rail, we reached our stopping-place, Barbacena, shortly after four. Carriages in city style, drawn by mules, were at the station, but before I could get our trunk they had all disappeared with other passengers; however, one soon came back in which we were taken to the Italian Hotel, the principal one in the place. We found the weather uncomfortably cold and damp. No fires, and beds had to be warmed with bottles of hot water; sleeping-rooms small, beds too short, big cracks in the floor through which one could look into an untidy room below. Dinner at the hotel was fair, but the breakfast the next morning was better, and consisted of fried potatoes, fried eggs in peas, tenderloin of pork roasted, fried beef, coffee, and good bread. After our dinner we took a walk through the town before dark. Barbacena is an old town on a ridge of land, has two long streets paved with rough but now smoothly worn stones, and which are flanked by continuous low buildings. There are three old but rather neat-looking churches, with shrubbery and trees in their grounds. About the only evidence of life noticeable in this walk was a brass band practicing in some upper room.

Could we have been comfortably settled, it was our intention to spend several days in the place, and to make some excursions into the surrounding country. But, on account of the raw, chilly temperature in-doors, we decided to start homeward the next morning. Both in going and coming I made many notes as to the appearance of the country, the better to fix the facts in my mind. The route from Rio to Barbacena by railway is through one of the oldest and best coffee-producing districts in Brazil, and in that distance passes through sixteen tunnels and crosses two separate mountain-ranges about as high as the Alleghanies where crossed by the Pennsylvania Central Railroad, and which are covered with a fair but not dense growth of hard-wood trees, and, on the more elevated parts, some tropical pines of medium size. It is between these mountain-ranges that the road winds for sixty miles along the banks of the wide but frequently shallow Parahyba River.

The country generally is exceedingly broken and hilly, the hills for the most part being twice as high as the bluffs of the upper Mississippi, and of conical form. They seem to vary from one hundred to one thousand feet in height, and often reach the dignity of mountains. Where uncultivated, they bear thrifty yet small second-growth timber; but, after getting in the vicinity of Barbacena, they become devoid of timber, and in the dry, or winter season—which was the time of our trip—have the brown and smooth appearance of a closely fed sheep-pasture. Very few rocks are to be seen; but in some places ant-hills, of smooth, hard exterior, the color of the soil, and four or five feet high, are disagreeably numerous. The prevailing character of the soil is a red clay, mixed with gravel, and is evidently fertile, but there is nothing aston-

ishing or particularly beautiful in the natural vegetation. At long intervals some fine, tall trees, with large and handsome orange-colored blossoms, may be seen, and there is occasionally a blending of colors that about equals, but certainly does not surpass, the North American foliage after an autumn frost, where, on some forest hill-side, the green and the scarlet, the orange and the crimson, are richly mingled. There are some fences of rails laid upon crotched stakes, but the division lines between estates often consist of ditches, with the earth thrown up on one side, resembling rifle-pits or field fortifications, and which, being straight and of a red color, are at a distance interesting objects. Not more than a twentieth part of the land is under cultivation, and some of it appears to have been worn out and abandoned. The sight, now and then, of a pack of mules, with produce strung over their backs in baskets or bales, and the most primitive of wooden and squeaking-wheeled ox-carts—the axle revolving with the wheels—carts such as might have come into Portugal with the first Roman or Phœnician colony, also the absence of all modern agricultural implements, tell of an antiquated system of agriculture. Indeed, for the most of the way along this route, the surface of the ground is so abruptly broken that it is scarcely possible to use the plow, let alone the planter and other modern implements. The hoe is necessarily almost the sole implement of field-cultivation, and it is twice as large and heavy as the hoe which the American and European farmer is accustomed to use.

The leading crop of this region is coffee, plantations of which are to be seen as far out as the neighborhood of Retiro, one hundred and sixty-five miles from Rio de Janeiro. As a rule, the soil on the coffee-plantations is

kept as clean and free of weeds as are the corn-fields of the most careful American farmers, who are accustomed to till the soil with their own hands. The coffee-tree, as it is called, is a bush from six to eight feet high. The red soil is just visible between the rows of trees, so that at a distance a plantation has a striped appearance of green and red, which is very pretty. After the fruit has been stripped off, and much of the foliage with it, the tops of the trees have a slightly bluish tinge.

There are some separate coffee-plantations which cover several thousand acres, and which, stretching as they do over bold, circling undulations, present a beautiful and even grand picture. Not the rich, grass-carpeted valley of the Po, with its plantations of the mulberry, the willow, and the vine, nor the blooming cotton-fields of Texas, nor any agricultural scene that I have anywhere witnessed, in the Old World or the New, can rival the beauty and magnificence of one of the finely cultivated, mountain-covered plantations of coffee in Brazil. Visible from the railroad are a few, but only a few, handsome residences of coffee-planters.

On this route are several neat-looking villages, and two or three towns that may number six thousand inhabitants. Among these, Juiz de Fora is perhaps the prettiest, and is situated on sloping ground, with a hill, apparently of granite, just behind it. Barbacena, a city with cobble-paved streets, and situated on high ground, is reputed as healthful, and has a large and fairly kept hotel. In all these villages and towns not a chimney is visible. The houses are generally one to two stories high, the walls stuccoed in white, and sometimes blue, pink, yellow, or green color. The roofs are four-sided, low, and covered with heavy red tiles. The aspect of the villages and

towns, amid a variety of trees, including generally the banana and palm, is, on the whole, cheerful, and the inhabitants, so far as the traveler by railway can judge, are temperate and contented. The houses, or rather huts, of the poor are built of unburned bricks, are of a brown or earth color, have wooden window-shutters, but no glass windows, and usually palm-thatched roofs. Generally, near the house is a little patch of ground fenced with upright poles of irregular height. Mules, goats, and hogs are the kinds of live-stock most commonly seen. The railway-station buildings, though not spacious, are outwardly neat. They are of concrete, a story and a half high, with projecting tiled roofs, walls white and thick, with a strip two feet in width painted red around the base, for an imitation foundation. The station Sitio, at the foot of the Mantiqueira range, has an attractive flower-garden attached to it, as is the excellent custom in some of the countries in the north of Europe, and which always make an agreeable impression on the traveler.

The railway on this line is owned and managed by the Government. The employés wear citizen's clothing, and are unpretentious in their manners. The cars were made in Brazil, the inside finish being of light-colored hard wood, with cane-seated, high-back chairs, in pairs, permanently fixed, and facing each other, on each side of the car, with a passage-way in the center. Closets are attached to the cars, after the American system. It is the fashion among Brazilian male passengers to wear brown or white linen overcoats to keep off the dust, and to smoke cigarettes in any car, as a matter of course. There are no separate cars for ladies. There is no discrimination on account of color. In going from Rio passengers get a late breakfast at Barra de Pirahy, and on the return trip

dine at the same place. One dollar is charged for a meal. Pure and good black coffee, in small cups, with other refreshments, is served at Entre Rios, and several other places. On the whole, I think that American visitors to Brazil would find a trip into the interior, on this or some other route, highly interesting, and such as would leave lasting and agreeable impressions on the mind.

CHAPTER X.

VISIT TO A COFFEE-PLANTATION.

SÃO PAULO, besides its seaport, Santos, and its capital, the city of São Paulo, contains several important business centers, and, as it is supposed to possess the best agricultural resources of any province, I desired to make a visit there at the first convenient opportunity. My interest had been increased by hearing people speak of its capital as being the most American of any city in Brazil. The day fixed for starting was the 1st of May, 1884, and, as I was to be accompanied by my wife and daughter, we all thought it would be the more pleasant to go by steamship from Rio to Santos, and return to Rio by rail, which we did. We embarked at noon, on the steamship Crown Prince Frederick William, and I must say that I did not quite relish the idea of having to deliver up my passport to the steamship agents—so that a permit from the Brazilian authorities for my leaving port could be obtained—before I could have the privilege of buying tickets. But no foreigner can leave any Brazilian port without first obtaining a pass from the chief of police—a frivolous and burdensome usage. It was one o'clock P. M. when we began to steam out of the harbor and turn southward. The weather was perfectly clear and delightful. Twenty months had passed since we had first entered the harbor

of Rio, and it was with peculiar feelings that we now again, from a steamer's deck, surveyed the same extended and striking view of mountains and city that then opened before us. The sea continued smooth and the weather very pleasant all the afternoon and till bedtime. In a couple of hours after leaving Rio the mountain scenery along the coast becomes somewhat grand, and more beautiful than about Rio. The mountains, though generally covered with green forest, present a variety of forms, and it was very pleasant to sit under a canvas awning, or walk the deck, and watch the changing views. On retiring at night we had every expectation of arriving at Santos at the usual time, which would have been early the next morning. But a sharp rain- and thunder-storm rose in the night, during which the ship pitched and rolled a good deal, and the captain thought it prudent to stop, as there are several rather dangerous islands on the route between Rio and Santos. The result was that we did not reach Santos till four o'clock the next afternoon. Santos is situated out of sight from the sea, on a river not much wider than a canal, and it requires careful navigating for half an hour to get up to it; and when one does get to it there is nothing attractive to be seen. The banks of the river are muddy and filthy, though the tide comes up sometimes. There are a few wharves, to which large steamships were moored. The city itself has an antiquated appearance, and its narrow streets are compactly built up. The most striking object, on coming up to the city, is the custom-house, which, though small, is somewhat showy.

The hotel to which we went was old, situated in a block of buildings, and had only an up-stairs entrance, direct from the street. The rooms and furniture left

considerable to be desired, but the table was good. The dining-room being small, I could not but notice that the practice of gentlemen—probably the most of them foreigners—lighting their cigars and smoking for a while at the table seemed to have given the room a permanently stale smell of tobacco-smoke. There was a heavy shower during the night, but the next day was pleasant, and in the forenoon, in company with the wife of the American consul, a Brazilian lady, and her daughter, we made an excursion of a couple of miles or so in the horse-cars, to the sea-beach, which is very long, and affords an extensive driveway. A number of genteel cottages are occupied along the edge of the woods which border the beach. In going there from the city the way is over level land, and it appeared to me that there was enough well-situated ground for the site of a large city. I suppose it is all laid out into lots. Leaving Santos at half-past two P. M., on the railway, we arrived at São Paulo about six o'clock. For the first half-hour the road is over low, level land, covered with bushes. In the course of twenty minutes we cross a wide stream, near to which is the first station. The station-building is of brick, one story high, of light-yellow color, with a zinc roof, which projects six feet beyond the wall, and is supported by an iron frame. On one side of the road the forest is only a rifle-shot distant, while behind the station-building there is a slightly descending bush-covered surface for about a mile, and then hills, and mountains a thousand feet high, covered with forest. We were going through a valley, and getting nearer the mountains, and in ten minutes from this first station were on an ascending grade, in the vicinity of second-growth timber, rank weeds, and rich soil washed from hills near by. At ten minutes past three we arrived at the foot of

the serra, a green, forest-covered mountain-side, a mile distant, on our left, and another, half a mile distant, on our right. At the station are a telegraph-office, a bar, and also closets. Near by are two or three adobe houses of the poor people, with small grounds, fenced with close-standing, slender stakes. The weather was warm, and the insects troublesome. At 3.35 we began the ascent of the serra, in a railway-car pulled up by an iron cable, and reached the top at 4.16. There were some fine views on the way up, both of mountains on our left and of sea and mountains behind. We also felt the air delightfully cooler as we got near the summit. Among the passengers were some German business men, going up from Santos to spend Sunday at São Paulo. At the summit station a number of working-men were standing about, dressed in blue cotton clothes.

From the point where we reached the high land all the way to the city of São Paulo, I watched the soil very closely and was surprised to see that so much of it was apparently poor. At 4.40 we came to a station where there were a saw-mill, a few houses, and some cleared ground, with old stumps, resembling an American pasture. We had been about twenty minutes coming to this point from the summit, much of the way being descending, the surface generally undulating, rather wet and bush-covered. We soon ascend another ridge covered with timber. At 5 A. M. we reach a station, where there are wooden buildings surrounded by partly cleared land; thence we soon entered a narrow prairie. At 5.12, the station of São Bernardo, with good brick buildings, on nearly level *campos*; after that, smooth, undulating land and occasionally rocks. At 5.4, reached station of Braz near São Paulo, where the tickets were taken up. Very pretty surrounding country.

It was just sundown ; the weather was pleasant, but I felt the need of putting on a light overcoat. In about eight minutes more we were at the last station. We had to wait twenty-five minutes for our trunk before we could start in a carriage for the hotel. The number of every piece of baggage as it is taken from the car is checked in a book by an employé. The convenient system of checks as in the United States is not used, but a paper receipt is given at the beginning of the journey, which must be given up before getting the baggage.

My impressions of the country between Santos and São Paulo were penciled down May 4, as follows: "On the whole, the soil between Santos and São Paulo appears only third rate. The mountain-slope toward Santos and the sea is densely covered with a small growth of hardwood forest. The trees seem of uniform height, and there is but little variety in the shade of dark-green of the foliage. Looking off and down on the left side from the railway, the mountain-slope shows numerous but not deep ravines, all timber-covered. The view is not as imposing as we had been led to expect. We had one view of the sea and intervening valley. After getting to the summit there is but little descent to São Paulo; what there is seems to be offset by ascent. Leaving the summit station, we came, at about twenty-five miles an hour, through a moderately undulating country, with more or less timber and bushes. Say at five o'clock, we entered the *campos*, though still some timber at a distance. The *campos* begins as a narrow prairie, sloping a little to our right. There is some meadow-land with rather poor meadow-grass. Much of the land shows need of drainage. A few straight ditches have been dug. As we were forty minutes coming to São Paulo after striking the *campos*,

I suppose we passed over fifteen miles of such surface. Scarcely any of the land is fenced. We saw two or three insignificant patches of corn already ripe, but in the whole distance there was not visible one well-cultivated field of any sort of crop. We did not see in all more than fifty head of cattle, very few dwellings, and those very small and generally of adobe. Of trees a few stunted palms were seen; also green-leaved trees such as are commonly seen, a few quite tall and slender, some with green parasites; but mostly the forest vegetation does not rise above the dignity of bushes; and many of the trees, indeed, from their sickly appearance, might be fancied to be witnesses rising up to testify to the poorness of the soil. With drainage and good cultivation, no doubt, the soil would produce fair crops, but in its natural condition it presents a great contrast to that fertility which is so much vaunted in respect to Brazil."

In a conversation which I had in São Paulo with Brigadier-General Magelhães, a Brazilian who is well acquainted with the country, he told me that the soil between Santos and São Paulo "is not even third rate"; that it contains no lime, and is fit only for the vine; that there is very little good land near São Paulo, though there is a strip that is good, a league square, toward the west. He says that three fourths of the land in the province of São Paulo is good; but that, in respect of Brazil as a whole, only a hundredth part of the land is fit for cultivation.

The city of São Paulo is the most famous and important of all the interior towns of Brazil, its history being interwoven with turbulent political events of early times. It has a pleasant and elevated situation on an undulating bank of the Tiete River, where it is but little more than a brook; and in any season of the year, with its green-topped

trees, including a few palms amid light-colored walls, red-tiled roofs, and old church-towers, has a striking appearance. Looking down from the city toward the river, the opposite and lower side is considerably built upon, but farther on is a wide expanse like a meadow, and then begins a rolling prairie which, after a stretch of eight or ten miles, is closed in by a range of forest-covered hills. It is in this lower and newer part of the city, and near the stream, that the Public Garden is situated. We spent some hours in it on a pleasant forenoon. It comprises about twelve acres, and there is room for its extension. It has fine shaded walks and neat ponds. One of its chief features is an avenue of *figueira*, or wild fig-trees, which resemble the American live-oak. Among a variety of trees I noticed two small American or English white oaks. Really, a great deal of taste, enterprise, and skill is displayed in this garden. There is a pretty high tower for an observatory, and the superintendent has his residence in the grounds. Nothing, in my opinion, reflects greater credit on a place than ample and well-arranged grounds in a convenient locality for a public garden or park. This one was not for driving, but simply for pedestrians. Opposite this park are the old and extensive buildings of the Catholic Theological Seminary of the diocese.

A very pleasant set of rooms commanding a fine view had been engaged for us at the principal hotel. This hotel, now owned and kept by a German, is, as a building, the largest and best hotel in all Brazil. Its rooms and furniture are the best of any in Brazil. It is a respectable and orderly family hotel, and has, I believe, no billiard-table nor bar. The furniture is black walnut and American. The beds are comfortable and clean. The dining-room is spacious, but the table is not as good as

a traveler has a right to expect. It is a little too scrumpy and plain. From the published list of guests, I infer that the French hotel on the other side of the same street is better patronized. However, I learn that the proprietor of the hotel I am speaking of is clearing eight per cent on the capital invested. The hotel is closed at ten o'clock every evening. The front door is then locked, the lights put out, and the waiter for each floor then goes to bed on a cot in the hall near the stairway.

São Paulo has unquestionably the finest shop for a book and stationery store combined that there is in Brazil. It is kept by Frenchmen, and was visited by the Princess Imperial during her recent visit to that city. Her Imperial Highness condescended to accept as a present from the proprietors an elegantly bound and illustrated volume. (I also was presented with a volume—a catalogue in paper binding.) Among the prominent things in São Paulo is the National Law School, mentioned elsewhere, and kept in an antiquated convent pile. I should judge also that the mansion and offices of the president of the province were once an ecclesiastical edifice. How generous and public-spirited the Church must be, thus to *give* its venerable buildings to the Government! Military sentinels were posted at the doors of the presidential offices. The bishop's residence is also well situated. The city is well supplied with street-railways, and those through the newer part of the city afford the visitor an opportunity of seeing a few expensive and pretty villas.

With the Rev. Dr. John Cross, British chaplain, I went to see his church. It is constructed after the style of many American Episcopal churches, especially its interior, the ceiling extending to the roof, and being finished in the dark and natural color of the wood. It was all

neat and tasteful, and I was struck with the appearance of several kinds of Brazilian wood used for the interior finish. From there, Dr. Cross took me to see the machine-shops of the Santos and São Paulo Railroad Company, to which I had been invited by Mr. Barker, the manager. Connected with the offices are a library and reading-room, and a billiard-room adjoining, all for the use of the clerks and other employés of the company. I had never before seen anything of the sort, and was most favorably impressed by such thoughtful provision for the recreation, instruction, and amusement of corporation employés. These rooms were on the lower floor, spacious, well lighted, and pleasant. In the reading-room was a large table where were the latest London newspapers and periodicals. The books composing the library, which probably numbered six hundred volumes, were mostly English; they were modern and well selected. Everything is free, except that one milreis a month is paid for the use of the books.

From Mr. Barker I received some information in respect to wages and other matters. The railroad company gets its skilled mechanics from England by contract, paying one hundred and eighty milreis (seventy-two dollars) a month, and no deduction during sickness or holidays; after three years they get one hundred and ninety milreis a month. Native carpenters are paid two dollars a day, laborers eighty cents a day. Apprentices are paid twenty cents a day, with an annual increase in the same amount; they serve from five to seven years. The rule for all is to work fifty-two hours in a week, and the work is distributed so as to let them quit some hours before night on Saturdays, which is the common rule in England.

The work of the machine-shops consists of foundry-

work and car-building and repairing. And here comes a singular fact for a country so endowed with forests as Brazil is supposed to be: The timber used in the construction of cars is *teak*, grown in and imported from India through England! It resembles white oak, but is more durable, and handsomer, and is the sort of timber that decks and the tops of railings on the best steamships are made of. However, considerable Brazilian lumber is used in the shops, and Mr. Barker says it is found to be very good.

The rate of transportation of coffee on this railway is very high, being something over two hundred reis, or eight cents, per ton per kilometre. The Santos and São Paulo Railroad Company had a guarantee from the Brazilian Government of the payment of seven per cent interest; but the road must earn its working expenses to get the guarantee, and after its earnings exceed its expenses it must divide the profit with the Government, which still pays the guarantee, till all that has been paid in the way of guarantee is returned to the Government. Hence, the Government is not inclined to have the road reduce its rates of transportation.

The Sunday we passed in São Paulo we attended religious services in the Presbyterian church, under the charge of the American missionary, Rev. George W. Chamberlain, walking there and back, the distance being about three quarters of a mile from our hotel. Mr. Chamberlain, who has been a missionary in Brazil fifteen or twenty years, preached an extemporaneous sermon in the Portuguese language to a respectable and devout congregation of about two hundred, nearly all white Brazilians. The singing was by the congregation. The sacrament was administered in the same form that is customary in the

Congregational and Baptist churches—the deacons carrying the bread and wine to the communicants at their seats. A large majority of the congregation partook. I was surprised at the large size of the church-building. It will accommodate an audience of nearly a thousand. Its ceiling is very high, and it has a new, fresh, and pleasant appearance. On the wall, behind the pulpit, the ten commandments are legibly inscribed in Portuguese; also, there are two large and finely colored maps of the world.

The next day we went to take a fuller look at the church, and to visit the day-school connected with the mission. On that occasion, Mr. Chamberlain told me that the ground, an acre and a half, bought in 1875, and the church and school-buildings, cost in all about eighty thousand milreis at that time, say thirty-four thousand dollars. The church alone cost thirty-five thousand milreis, or fifteen thousand dollars. It is of wood, and the material was brought from the United States. Around the grounds are a number of tall eucalyptus-trees. The school corresponds to a good grammar-school. There were one hundred and twenty pupils, besides twenty in the Kindergarten. Boys and girls were in the same room. It appeared to be a very well managed school. It was once visited by the Emperor himself, and in a subsequent conversation with Mr. Chamberlain he complimented the school, but said he regretted its proselyting influence. Mr. Chamberlain disclaimed its having such a purpose, and said that religious but not sectarian instruction was given in the school.

I would here say that Mr. Chamberlain is known in São Paulo as the *Padre Americano*, or American priest. He is an energetic, active, and effective man, highly respected by all classes, and exerts a large influence. His residence, on ample grounds, selected at a favorable time,

is about a mile from the older part of the city; and there, one evening, we had the pleasure of meeting a party of about thirty ladies and gentlemen who are residents of São Paulo. There was some good music. In a conversation with an intelligent and candid Brazilian who was present I remarked that I admired the courage and tenacity with which the Portuguese settlers in Brazil defended themselves against the French and Dutch; that it appeared to me it surpassed what they had done in their native country. He replied: "The Tupay Indians did the fighting; they are entitled to more credit than the Portuguese. Those Indians were a remarkable race." I inquired if those Indians had become extinct. He said, not entirely; but they are mixed more or less with the Brazilians.

We visited the Law School, which, however, was having a vacation. It is kept in an old Jesuit church and monastery, the mud walls of which, white outside, are two and a half feet thick. Besides the room for the library, there are two fine large rooms or halls, with several full-length portraits of professors, and in an inner room was a good full-length portrait of the Emperor, Dom Pedro II. The library-room was undergoing repairs, and the books were mostly on the floor, which was carpeted. They had a French look outside, and the most were apparently a century or so old. The only English law-books were Burns's "Justice" and Chitty's "Commercial Law." There were no American law-books that I could discover except three copies, in two volumes each, of Wheaton's "International Law," in French. There was a set of the "Edinburgh Review," but apparently not the later volumes.

The old church in the same pile of buildings, though

of small dimensions, is an historical curiosity. Of its paintings the one that struck me most was a full, life-sized portrait on the ceiling in strong colors of some holy man on bended knees, with eyes upturned as if in the act of invoking a divine blessing. The verdant, rolling landscape about him resembled the beautiful expanse which surrounds the venerable city of São Paulo, and the pleasing thought occurred to me, as I stood gazing at the picture, that it probably represented the pioneer missionary who first planted the cross at that place. "Here," thought I, "honor has been done to home worth. This is a memorial of some spiritual hero who encountered perils in the wilderness in Brazil's early days; and how much better it is to honor such men than to be always painting saints of the middle ages!" I was not a little indignant, therefore, when I learned that it was a picture of some European who had never set foot in Brazil. However, it represented no unworthy man—it was St. Francis.

The Rev. Mr. Chamberlain related to me an anecdote of a party of begging Indians who came naked from their haunts in the wilderness to see the president of the province. The law-students gave them some clothes, which they put on in an amusing style. Mr. Chamberlain with some young people visited the party of Indians as they were eating. One of the Indians, for a bit of humor, yet with serious face, got up and approached him with a long knife, which he pretended to be sharpening on his naked arm. Some of the girls screamed, and one fainted. Mr. Chamberlain went toward the Indian, who did not change his countenance. Mr. Chamberlain asked, in Portuguese, if they would like to hear some singing. The Indian did not understand him, and called an interpreter. They wanted to hear the singing, and several hymns were sung

in Portuguese. The Indians all gathered round and liked it, and wanted more singing. These Indians used bows six feet long, and arrows with poisoned bone points.

During our stay in São Paulo we had one or two pleasant horseback rides. One afternoon we started at 4.30 o'clock with some friends, passing through ravines and over hills behind and overlooking the city, and getting as far as the Small-pox Hospital, then happily unoccupied, and from which place we started back at dusk. The same evening we went and took tea with the Rev. Mr. and Mrs. Tarboux, missionaries of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, who had recently come from South Carolina.

I noticed that, while in São Paulo, the temperature was such that a thick blanket made a necessary bed-cover at night.

On Thursday morning at nine o'clock we took the cars to visit Mr. Vergueiro's great coffee-plantation at Ibicaba, the principal towns that we passed on the trip being Jundiahy, Campinas, and Limera. The railway-car in which we went was comfortable and neat. There were eight rows or sets of seats with high backs covered with brown linen; single seats on the left side of the passage and double ones on the right side. The wood-work was of teak; the windows could be opened and shut easily; the floor was covered with oil-cloth. The weather was misty and rather cold. First, we passed through bottom-land with black soil, and in twenty minutes were passing along a narrow valley with hills forty feet high, bush-covered; some rocks, occasional patches of corn amid bushes; the hills afterward increasing in height and being frequently devoid of bushes. My pencil-notes made at the time read: "Cayaeira, 9.45 A. M. Some granite, very little surface

thus far visible this side of São Paulo that can be cultivated with the plow.—Belim, 10.2. Much of the bushes we have passed look like willow. None of the trees are large, and but for the flowers on a few of them the vegetation and surface would look almost exactly like much of the broken and third-rate land one sometimes traverses in the western part of the United States. A stop at this station of ten minutes; and lamps in the cars are lit, evidently preparatory to entering a tunnel.—Vallinhas, 11.40. The undulations here become more moderate. The soil seems to improve. It is of red color; scarcely any cultivation, however, in sight. A few dwellings in the vicinity. A pack of mules, the first of the sort seen to-day, at the station, and a few ox-teams. A small flower-garden close to the station. Half-way between the last station and this, a large, high hill covered with white rocks visible off to the right.

“Campinas, 12.10. A mile or two before reaching the station a fine view opens on the right of a gently undulating country five to ten miles across, surrounding the town, amphitheatre-like, and apparently considerably cultivated.—Rebouças, 1 p. m. The country has been moderately rolling; bushes and scattered timber; a little corn amid bushes. Soil for the most part ordinary. Am reminded, by the surface and vegetation, of land in the western part of the United States, except for occasional banana-trees. Here is a very small lumber-yard; such things very rare. A small but thrifty-looking field of cane.—Santa Barbara, 1.20. Some signs of a new settlement. A field of cane at a distance, the color of which is like a new field of oats. Flower-garden at the station; a lumber-yard; a small stream on the right; meadow with horses and cattle feeding; on gentle, grass-covered rise of ground are a few

dead trees, but not large. At 1.40 cross the Piracicaba River, of dark-drab color, and about eighty feet wide."

At the station of Cordeiro a fine carriage of Mr. Vergueiro's, also a team to take our baggage, were waiting us. The weather was cool and pleasant, and the drive of about three miles to his residence was agreeable. From my recollection, the situation of his buildings and plantation is a couple of hundred feet or so higher than the line of the railway, and with surrounding hills even higher; and, as the plantation has a breadth of three or four miles, it was not long before we were traveling over it. There was soon a striking improvement in the appearance of the soil and vegetation, the latter increasing in size and the former being a purple clay, such as is considered the very best for the production of coffee. As we approached the premises I could see that the buildings were rather extensive, as indeed might be supposed on an estate employing five or six hundred slaves. The house, which is very substantial, but not showy, is two stories high, the first one being for offices, and the second one for living-rooms, the entrance being through a large front yard containing flowers and trees. On the right side are additions for storage and domestics, making a line of a hundred yards or so of buildings. Adjoining on the left is a square, overlooked from the dwelling, surrounded by the cabins of the slaves, and in the rear are the mills and shops, brick-yard, etc., for the mechanical work of the plantation. There are also a hospital, chapel, with prominent tower and clock. Looking from the front windows of the house, there is a pleasant view of smooth pasture-ground sloping moderately, with here and there a tall, handsome tree—survivor of the virgin forest—and resembling a big, spreading-topped American elm; then there is an ascent to high

ground, on which, about a mile distant, are visible the houses of Mr. Vergueiro's German colony and coffee-fields. Looking to the right, the view is shut out by hills.

Mr. Vergueiro and his refined and estimable wife received us in a cordial manner and made us feel immediately at home. The reception-room was large, with clean-scrubbed floor and some rugs, a large, round table, sofa, and easy-chairs. On a small table was a waiter with some liquors, in case a guest might wish such refreshment. On the front walls were engraved portraits of Mr. Vergueiro's father and mother; the former, though a native of Portugal, having been a senator and distinguished Brazilian patriot, and for a short time during the era of independence one of the regents of the empire; and on account of this last circumstance Mr. Vergueiro's neighbors are in the habit of giving him the title of "duke." Delicious black coffee in small cups was served shortly after our arrival, according to the Brazilian custom; it was also passed round in the same way shortly after dinner, and again later in the evening. It was also brought into our sleeping-rooms at the time of getting up in the morning. After partaking of coffee, and some time spent in conversation, Mr. Vergueiro accompanied us to see some of the premises. We first visited the mill, steam-engine, water-tanks, and machinery for cleaning the coffee; also the machinery for filling sacks. There was a large stock of superior coffee on hand, and the machinery and works for cleaning and preparing it were of a character calculated to excite wonder and admiration. The same engine which runs the coffee-machinery also furnishes power for a saw- and planing-mill and a grist-mill. Mr. Vergueiro had the machinery put in motion, and had planed some strong reddish-colored timber called *tiuva*. A number of

his slaves are skilled mechanics, whom he has instructed. There was quite a lot of lumber on the ground; a brick-yard near by, with a big stock of bricks; and, as Mr. Vergueiro is his own manager, I thought he must possess a great deal of business talent. He served for some years, in early life, as an officer in the German army, and undoubtedly there gained many valuable habits of system and discipline. We afterward visited the vegetable garden, which occupied fully two acres, was very well cultivated, and had a number of orange and peach trees, also a few magnificent specimens of forest-trees, among them the *cajaeiro*, with very large spreading top, very small leaves, and which bears an aromatic fruit of which a drink like lemonade is made; and the *painera*, or cotton-tree, seven feet in diameter at the base, very tall, with large top, long green leaf something like the willow, and which bears a pink flower, but is not valuable for timber. We next went to see the hospital and medical dispensary, and these I thought Mr. Vergueiro took more pride in showing than anything else. The hospital apartments seemed well adapted for their purpose, and happily were unoccupied; the room for medical stores appeared to be well furnished. When we got back to the house, it was about time for dinner, which was served at five o'clock. In a case like this, off in the interior of Brazil, it may be expected that I would say a word or two about the table. It was a family dinner, without ceremony, and there were in all nine at the table—Mr. and Mrs. Vergueiro, an adopted daughter and her two children, and an Italian Catholic priest (who had come from a neighboring town to hold mass for the slaves), besides ourselves. The table was long, and had room for several more guests, for Mr. Vergueiro is in the habit of entertaining visitors. This gen-

tleman sat at the head and did the carving. Among the dishes was a good piece of roast beef and an uncommonly nice boiled leg of mutton. Among the vegetables were rice, sweet potatoes, and spinach, mashed in the European style, and which I noticed was eaten mixed with dry mandioca-meal as a favorite dish. There were red and sherry wines. The sweet dishes and dessert showed skillful cooking. There were two or three well-trained black waiters dressed in full fashion, with black, swallow-tailed coats and white cravats. At dessert Mr. Vergueiro had his grandchildren sit by him, and I think his two big greyhounds, which seem to accompany his every step, also came in for a bite. About eight or nine o'clock in the evening we went to the dining-room again for tea and supper. Stairs led down, without a door, from the parlor to an entry-way in the basement; and we had not sat very long after dinner before we were surprised by the sound of the music of a full brass band in that direction. Like many planters, Mr. Vergueiro has organized among his slaves such a band of music, which, of course, contributes much to the general diversion and spirit. The band, however, was to do special services that evening; for the slaves were to celebrate a religious festival by a torch-light procession. During the evening we witnessed the procession from the open windows of the house. There were torches in abundance, and banners, and crucifixes, sky-rockets, Roman candles, cannon-firing, and music by the band; and, amid all, a mournful murmur of chants and prayers. Women carried their babies in their arms, and children were tagging by their side. A sort of weird spectacle these hundreds of slaves made as seen in occasional flashes of artificial light. There was no mirth. I could not perceive a single indication of cheerfulness.

Everything seemed of an opposite character. The air was cold, almost frosty, and when at length the procession returned and marched into the yard of the slave-quarters, little fires were kindled in different spots for warmth. As I was looking out of a window on the scene and heard the gate shut, and a heavy bolt turned after the procession had all got in, the thought struck me, rather sadly, that these people were like prisoners.

The next day, though Friday, was kept as Sunday. By mutual understanding the large slaveholding planters observe a day for Sunday, each different from the others, so that the slaves of different plantations shall not have an opportunity of mingling together in a sort of mass-meeting. Friday was, therefore, kept as Sunday at Ibicaba. As soon as we were dressed in the morning we were informed that mass was about to be celebrated in the chapel, and thither we went. A fair congregation was present, consisting mostly of slave-women, who were on their knees on the tiled floor. The priest celebrated mass in quick time, occupying perhaps twenty minutes in all, and was assisted by rather a handsome young mulatto belonging to the plantation. The slave-women kept up a plaintive chanting or praying a part of the time, and there seemed to be a sad look on every face. After this service Mr. Vergueiro took us to see his artificial lake or mill and fish pond, some hundred yards in the rear of the buildings, going through the garden, and where was a convenient bath-house; and when we got back it was about breakfast-time. Speaking of the big greyhounds which always kept close to Mr. Vergueiro, and which were the largest and most powerful I ever saw, the governess told us that once on taking a walk she had found these dogs the most perfect of protectors.

After breakfast the priest had his mule saddled and rode away in citizen's clothes, which I noticed he wore except when officiating in the chapel. In the course of the forenoon my family and I had Mrs. Vergueiro's company in a visit to the dwellings of the German colony, about a mile distant. We went into several of the cottages, which were substantial and comfortable, saving that the floors were bare earth. Each family had its patch of garden, out-building for cattle, pigs, and fowls, and appeared contented. In the house of the director, who also is a German, was an apartment furnished for a school. The colonists are simply tenants, receiving pay in money for the coffee they produce, cultivating it according to instructions, and receive rent of house and land enough for their own produce free. Later in the day we went out to look at the coffee-trees laden with ripe and green berries. They were of most thrifty appearance, and the soil, a purple-red clay with a very little sand, was free from weeds and grass. We were told that this very soil bore cane forty years ago, and had been continuously in crop ever since without manuring. It has a depth of many feet.

The Rev. Mr. Chamberlain arrived from São Paulo before dinner, and was received by Mr. Vergueiro as an old friend. He suggested giving a talk to the black people in the evening, as he had done on some former occasion, but Mr. Vergueiro did not appear to favor the idea—possibly because it might seem a little inconsistent to have Catholic service in the morning and Protestant service in the evening; possibly, it might have been in deference to the feelings of his wife, who is undoubtedly a devout Catholic. Mr. Vergueiro and Mr. Chamberlain passed the evening in an animated and friendly conversation on religious and other questions, and the rest of us

around the center-table chatted and looked at engravings.

The next morning I took a look at some of the dairy-stock. The cows were the native Brazilian breed called *caracu*, or thick-necked. They have very large horns, and give twelve quarts of milk a day. The stock, however, is used more for beef than the dairy. After breakfast the time came for us to say good-by. Our visit had been pleasant and interesting, and we took leave of our friends with expressions of sincere thanks for their amiable hospitality. A team of Mr. Vergueiro's took us to Rio Claro, a town of about six thousand inhabitants. The planters in the adjacent country are generally in unembarrassed circumstances. On our way we noticed in a piece of woods near the road a temporary rustic altar where the Ibicaba slaves had held religious services of their own the previous day.

Afterward, a good deal of the land we passed over was mere pasture embossed with ant-hills, and as we came near the town of Rio Claro the soil became quite sandy. At the suggestion of Mr. Chamberlain, and in his company, we, at Rio Claro, called upon and accepted an invitation to lunch with the family of an American missionary, Mr. de Gamma, consisting besides himself of a wife and grown daughters. Mr. de Gamma, though a native of Portugal or the Azores, has lived many years in the State of Illinois, and seems much attached to the United States. He owns about a dozen acres of land, on which his house stands, well situated at the edge of the town, and on which he is having success in raising grapes, for which the soil and climate of the locality seem well adapted, the temperature being warmer than at São Paulo. Around the house were plants and flowers. He has a successful school,

also a home for poor boys, and appeared to me to be accomplishing useful work.

In several places in the streets of this town, some piles of logs and tar-barrels had been got in readiness for bonfires the ensuing night, in celebration of the festival of Santa Cruz.

Leaving Rio Claro by railway, we got back to the station of Santa Barbara before sundown. This is the station where one stops who wishes to visit the American colony—the settlement of farmers who emigrated to Brazil from the Southern States of the United States soon after the civil war. They live on a tract of moderate but not first-rate fertility, surrounding the village of Santa Barbara, about ten miles south from the station. We hoped, after visiting that settlement, to be able to go on horseback across the country to Piracicaba. With the assistance of Mr. Chamberlain, I hired of a neighboring German planter a buckboard wagon—a long, rather low vehicle, with light board bottom, uninclosed at the sides and ends, and two seats without springs, with two mules driven by an African driver. It was the best conveyance to be had; and in it, or on it, we started for the residence of Mrs. Ellis, some four or five miles distant. There were several Americans about the railway-station, the most of them being young men who appeared to have come for mail-matter; and as they, returning home, galloped or trotted by us on good animals, soon after we had started, we could almost fancy we were somewhere in the United States. There was quite a hill to go up soon after we had got under way. The whole of the country seemed poor and desolate. We did not pass a dwelling, nor any cultivated land, the entire way to Mrs. Ellis's. The surface is undulating, studded with clumps of bushes, here and there some

trees, and occasionally a partly burned trunk of a fallen tree ; the soil, reddish-colored with a large proportion of sand ; the road natural, much worn, and with numerous tracks. In places the ruts were so worn down that the bottom of our buckboard would scrape the middle of the road.

The house of Mrs. Ellis and her sister, Miss Strong, is situated about half a mile off the main road, and we arrived there at dusk, meeting a kind welcome. The next day we drove in the buckboard (I have read in a Brazilian newspaper that the Princess Imperial of Brazil, in her recent tour in the southern provinces, rode in such a conveyance) eight miles to the "Campos" church, though the weather was very hot, and attended services and preaching by Mr. Chamberlain. The meeting-house is a plain yet comfortable wooden building, where the American settlers assist in maintaining a union church, services being held alternate Sundays by Baptist, Methodist, and Presbyterian clergymen. There was a good attendance of respectable and intelligent-appearing Americans, whose manners were uniformly friendly. Several invited us to go home with them to dinner ; but as we could only accept one invitation, we went to the family where Mrs. Ellis was going to dine, which proved to be that of an American, who has a thousand acres, a pleasant home, and apparently a good farm. I noticed in his house a big, old-fashioned open fireplace. The frame of a new house was up. There was a good brook running through his farm, and he had ten or a dozen fat hogs, which had the benefit of the stream. The dinner was such as one could expect at the house of an American country gentleman. There was no attempt at style, but the fare was generous, and there was an air of quiet and

dignity. A full decanter of good sherry wine was on the table. All the farm-houses that we saw during the day were very plain outwardly and in their surroundings.

It was again dusk when we got back to Mrs. Ellis's; and the temperature was so cool after dark that a fire kindled in the open fireplace was very agreeable. The month of May, it must be remembered, is the beginning of Brazilian winter, and the elevation where we were is two thousand feet above the sea.

Mrs. Ellis is a widow, with children grown up and married, and she and her maiden sister, Miss Strong, who live together, are large, fleshy, and whole-souled women from Georgia; but a part of their life since they came to Brazil has been tinged with sadness. Miss Strong first came with her father fifteen or twenty years ago; they traveled a good deal through Brazil, searching for an eligible site for a farm, during which time they were most kindly and hospitably received by Brazilians. Finally, Mr. Strong selected this place, of two or three hundred acres, principally because he could get a clear title, for about everywhere else he had found some difficulty or question in regard to title. He was an enterprising, methodical, and thoughtful man, and devoted a great deal of labor to clearing off the woods from a part of the farm and bringing it into a state of cultivation. He planted a peach-orchard on a rise of ground in front of the dwelling, and, when all the other improvements were done, he built a house in the old Georgia style, with a wide veranda in front, which is entirely covered by the projecting roof. He lived to see his peach-trees blossom and bear fruit, but finally, owing to the moisture of the ground or some other cause, they began to die. And it was not long after he had got his house finished till he himself fell a victim

to fatal illness, leaving his affectionate daughters most deeply to deplore his loss. Partly for recreation and partly to do good, Mrs. Ellis has for several years taught a small school in a little building set apart for the purpose, and situated on the opposite side of the road from the house. Several of the pupils live in the family, as it would be too far for them to go daily to their homes. That Sunday evening two pretty little American girls under twelve years of age had been brought and left at the house by their father, who lived seven or eight miles distant, in order that they could attend the school. He said they had never stayed away from home before, and it was a hard trial for him to be separated from them; but there was no nearer school to which they could go. There was an organ in the same room as the fireplace, and during the evening some familiar tunes were sung in which the children joined. With reference to the American colony, I might here say that while a majority are making a good living, there is not a likelihood that it will grow by American immigration.

Learning that a bridge was down on the road to Piracicaba, it seemed to be doubtful whether the trip could be safely made on horseback; so the next morning we again took the railway at Santa Barbara station for Campinas. From here I had thought of continuing the journey on another line to Casa Branca, nearly a day's journey, but, owing to the excessive dust, the ladies outvoted me, and we went straight to the principal hotel of Campinas. We were some minutes driving there. The hotel was only one story high, the entrance looked dirty, and the apartments assigned for us showed a decided lack of soap and water, and the need of some fresh coats of paint. The beds were devoid of linen, which, it seems, is not put on

at some hotels till the rooms are let. Everything looked disagreeable. The rooms were almost overlooked from the street. There were no window-shades; but there were wooden shutters, which, when closed, left the room nearly dark. I apprehended that breakfast would be in keeping with the rooms. But on going into the eating-room everything seemed changed. We got a good beef-steak, with fried potatoes, good rolls, and tea, all served in a satisfactory manner. We had scarcely finished breakfast, when the Rev. Mr. Lane, chief of the American Presbyterian mission and college at Campinas, accompanied by the Rev. Mr. Chamberlain, came in a carriage to take us to the college, and be its guests during our stay in the city. We could not very well decline so kind an invitation, and therefore went. The college is a two-story red-brick building, with porch and steps at the front entrance, situated on gently rising ground at the outskirts of the town, and has about forty acres of good land belonging to and surrounding it. It is a good boarding-school for boys who wish to pay, and a manual-labor school for some who do not pay. A matron and some of the teachers live in the building, and there are guest-rooms in the lower story. The grounds are amply supplied with water, even to the extent of a swimming-tank. A young ladies' school is kept at the residence of Mr. Lane, some hundred yards distant, under the direction of Mrs. Lane, a Virginia lady, with whom we had the pleasure, in the evening, of taking tea. Mr. Lane is a native of the British Islands, and a man of superior organizing talent, as well as an able preacher. The college grounds, which he selected, will, in time, as the city grows, prove a very valuable endowment. In another part of the town he has presented to the municipality a piece of ground for a park. In the course

of the day, in company with Mr. Chamberlain, we visited the new Catholic church edifice in Campinas, which was in course of erection many years, and was finally dedicated, with great ceremonies, a year or two ago. It is a very large structure; handsome outside, and very handsome inside, the finish being in Brazil-wood, in natural dark-red color, in happy contrast to the white and gilded style that is so common. We went to the top of the tower, which is very high, and affords a splendid view of the surrounding country. The architect occupied offices on the ground-floor.

The same afternoon, in company with Messrs. Lane and Chamberlain, we visited a neighboring coffee-plantation, the proprietor of which being absent, we were kindly shown through the house and grounds by his wife, accompanied by their two grown daughters. The lady was a stout, bright, yet amiable person, evidently competent to rule a large household. The department of the in-door female slaves presented novel scenes. Here was a nursery of negro babies, tended by their mothers: some were in cradles; and there was one, sick with the measles, that was being rocked by a little negro boy. The lady said she had to watch the mothers, to see that they sufficiently fed their children. In the kitchen, among other cooking, some not very ripe pumpkins were being cut and put into a large boiler, to be cooked for food for the work-people. It reminded me of what I had seen done for cattle. In a corner of the large dining-room was a loom for hand-weaving; and in the same room, slave-women were cleaning coffee by hand, shaking it up in large, shallow sieve-baskets, occasionally giving it a dexterous toss in the air, and letting it fall again into the basket, without wasting a kernel. I was particularly struck by the good and tidy

woolen skirts of the slave-women's dresses. We took a look at a coffee-orchard near the house, also went through grounds devoted to fruit, and while in the latter, coffee, in small cups, was brought out to us. There was a piano in the parlor, on which the daughters are accustomed to play. The house was of good size, and substantially built in old-fashioned style, with thick walls, whitewashed outside. There were several steps descending very gradually from the front door, and below them a smooth, hard piece of ground, clean swept, for drying coffee. The prevailing air about the premises was business, as an example of which, the fowl-yard on one side of the house came up to the veranda. Messrs. Lane and Chamberlain were acquainted with the family, and I presume it was owing to this acquaintance that the latter, while we were all in the parlor together, got into a discussion with the lady of the house, who was a Catholic, on some doctrinal question. They conducted the discussion in an animated but very good-natured manner, and I thought the lady, who sat a part of the time in a hammock, maintained her side with ability. Mr. Chamberlain, who is a good singer, wound up by singing some verses of a Portuguese hymn.

The next morning we were up and had our coffee at the college before daylight, took the train for Jundialhy, where we arrived in two hours, and were entertained at breakfast by Mr. and Mrs. Hammond at their pleasant home. About 11 A. M. we started by railway for Piracicaba, on the Itú line, which at first descends along a branch of the Tieté River. In about half an hour we passed the Italian colony of Montesserate, whose houses are close together fronting the road. The president of the railway company, Baron —, who with his family was going to his plantation at Itú, noticing that I was observing the

soil, which was of a dark color, informed me that the soil in that neighborhood was called *massapé*, and that it was good for growing coffee, cotton, and cane. With this family we interchanged some sociability. By the baron's direction, his handsome little boy came with captivating modesty and gave the youngest of our party some fruit. During this journey of over four hours by rail we traversed a country that has long been settled and which contains several old towns and villages—a country with alternately good and poor soil, with here and there bright fields of cane and coffee and of ripe corn, and which also afforded in passing a few really splendid views of distant highlands, of vast prairies and majestic forests. We reached Piracicaba at 3.45. Before getting to the station the railway winds along the upper edge of a sort of amphitheatre, affording a view of the city lying farther down toward the river. We had accepted an invitation to stop while in this city at the *Collegio Piracicabano*, an American boarding and day school founded by the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, and under the charge of Miss Martha Watts, of Kentucky. Before the cars stopped we were able to distinguish this building, a two-story red-brick edifice, by seeing the American and Brazilian flags displayed from its cupola. It was a sunshiny, pleasant afternoon. Rev. Mr. Koger was at the station with a carriage to meet us, and we were soon on our way to the college. On arriving there, Miss Watts had her school of young misses, mostly Brazilians, paraded in two lines in the front yard and on the steps, and as we passed up between them they shook hands with each of us and presented flowers. When we had got into the entry, Miss Watts introduced Miss Maria Escoba, a handsome Brazilian miss of about eighteen years, who, she said, had a few

words to say to us. The young lady then read a short address of welcome in Portuguese, and in reply I said we appreciated the honor they were doing us, and that we would accept it as a compliment to the United States. After this the scholars gave nine hurrahs. We could not have had a more cordial reception. Our apartments in the building were home-like and comfortable, and we were well satisfied with our treatment. The rooms of the building are spacious, and seem well designed for such an institution. The situation is in a good part of the town, and the grounds, containing a vegetable-garden, lawn, orange and other trees, are ample. After dinner we went to the top of the building, and from the cupola had a fine view of the city and surrounding country.

That evening a Brazilian brass band, several of whose members were mulattoes, came and gave a serenade, and Miss Watts invited them into the college and gave them a collation.

Wednesday, May 14th, weather being pleasant, I took a walk in the morning through the town. The main street is of good width, with fairly wide and stone-paved sidewalks. Some of the shops were of good size and well stocked. The most disagreeable thing that impressed me was the exposed position of the city prison. It is in a basement-room, and through the heavily grated windows the prisoners could be seen from the street, there being no inclosure around the building.

I might here say that the name of the city of Piracicaba is composed of two Guarany-Indian words, *pira*, fish, and *cycaba*, end, meaning the place where the fish stop in their passage up the river on account of the falls. The locality has long been celebrated for good fish at certain seasons of the year. Piracicaba was settled a hun-

dred years ago, and has risen by regular promotion, having been created a separate parish in 1810, a town in 1821, and a city in 1856. Its fine bridge of about six hundred feet in length, just above the falls, was made by the province at the moderate expense of forty thousand dollars. The streets of the city are all at right angles and wide, and, owing to its splendid water-power, its excellent situation on high, rolling land, and very extensive surroundings of fertile country, it seems destined to have considerable growth. It was visited by the Princess Imperial and her husband in November, 1884.

We breakfasted at 8.30. In the forenoon we listened to some of the recitations in the school. I was pleased with Miss Watts's system.

About 1 P. M. we rode out on horseback, three miles or so, taking the road through some woods toward Santa Barbara. In the afternoon we visited the cotton-mill of Mr. Luiz Quiroz, a Portuguese, who showed us through it. We there saw a new embroidery-machine doing the work which a hundred operatives would do by hand. The proprietor has a handsome new villa not far from the river, and from which there is a splendid view of the falls and rapids. We then drove over the new bridge and down a piece on the opposite bank; then got out and walked down close to the river, on a terrace from which the view of the falls is fine. The falls are about forty feet high, but not exactly abrupt. It was nearly dusk when we got back to the carriage. I should say the Piracicaba River is larger there than the Merrimac at Lowell. The best fish of the river, and a kind which is abundant, is the *dourado*. As many as five hundred and seventy-eight of these fish, some weighing five pounds each, were caught in a net there one afternoon in the month of February.

Mr. Koger told me that they are as good as our American shad.

On Thursday afternoon, in company with Miss Watts, her assistants, and several of her pupils, and Mr. Koger, we took an excursion down the river in large and long canoes dug out from trees. I felt a little timid; but the boatmen were experienced river-men, and we made a pleasant trip down to and even into some rapids, returning safely by dusk. The river was broad, and its banks moderately high and covered with bushes and trees, on which were many hanging vines and some parasites with bright flowers. The chief boatman told us the names of several of the trees, explaining which were good for timber and which for fuel only.

That evening we attended public worship and preaching in Portuguese by Mr. Koger. (The Rev. James W. Koger, superintendent of the mission in Brazil of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, an excellent and amiable man, preached in Rio de Janeiro, January 17, 1886, returning the 19th to São Paulo, where, after nine days' illness of yellow fever, he died, deeply regretted, leaving a widow and four children.) The next morning we took leave of Miss Watts and all at the college, feeling much gratified with all we had seen at the institution, and with the kind entertainment we had received. We took the train for São Paulo at 8.15, where we arrived in the afternoon. On Sunday we heard Mr. Tarboux preach an earnest sermon in Portuguese, reading it from manuscript, and it seemed to me he had made great progress, considering that it was only about a year since he came to Brazil from the United States. A young American acted as organist. The audience comprised about twenty persons.

Monday, May 19th, we arose at 4.15, took coffee be-

fore 5, left the hotel in a carriage at 5.30, and started on the train for Rio at 6. The trip occupied the day—say twelve hours, the train going at moderate speed, and stopping at stations about every ten miles. The fare for three of us was ninety milreis, and ten milreis more for a trunk, making in all about forty dollars. Considerable of the way was down the valley of the Parahyba, which varies from two to twelve miles or more in width, is of medium fertility, has long been settled, contains many plantations and populous villages, and is inclosed on each side by forest-covered mountains on whose sides, however, are occasionally to be seen coffee-plantations. The river, which is dark-colored, is generally broad and shallow, but here and there is shut in narrow banks with rapids. The scenery is frequently picturesque. We reached Rio at 7.10 P. M. in the midst of a very heavy fall of rain, and before eight o'clock were safely at our residence.

CHAPTER XI.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

WHILE the Pedagogical Exhibition held at Rio in 1883 was a success, the friends of education very much regretted that a congress of teachers from all parts of the country could not have been held at the same time. The plan which the Government proposed for the congress was that, in each province, the Inspector-General of Instruction should assemble all the male teachers of that province, who should select three of their number to attend the congress, the inspector himself to select three female teachers to attend, making six teachers from each province, or, for the twenty provinces and the capital, one hundred and twenty-six members. The necessary expenses were to have been paid by the central Government, and the estimate to cover the expense of the congress was thirty contos, or twelve thousand dollars. The national legislature, however, declined to vote the money, and so the congress was not held. Under these circumstances the Government appointed a commission, or congress, of distinguished educators, who served gratuitously and furnished some able papers on educational subjects. It is now the wish of the Government soon to hold an international congress of teachers of American countries.

The Pedagogical Exhibition was under the presidency of his Royal Highness Count d'Eu, husband of the Princess Imperial, and was opened in presence of the Emperor and Empress, and a numerous public, in the city of Rio de Janeiro, Sunday, July 29th. It remained open for the free admission of visitors for several weeks, and was visited by many thousand people, and, in this way, was itself an educator of taste and ideas of very great value. Several foreign countries were represented in the exhibition; but the United States, for some reason, was very scantily represented. Belgium took the lead in the exhibit of technical work of pupils and in school-room apparatus and fixtures. Her display was admirable, and calculated to inspire admiration for the country making it, and thus indirectly to benefit her commercial interests. Germany came next; and the exhibit by France was respectable.

The exhibition finally developed into a permanent Educational Exposition of school-furniture, fixtures, maps, text-books, etc., all being well arranged in spacious rooms in the second story of the National Printing-Office building, and where it now forms one of the most creditable displays that can be found in Brazil.

The literature of the exhibition was also creditable. Conselheiro Leoncio de Carvalho, first secretary of the commission appointed to organize a teachers' congress in connection with this Pedagogical Exhibition, contributed an interesting and able introduction to the report on the exhibition, in which he first expresses regret because the expected congress of teachers did not take place owing to the failure of the legislature to provide means, pointing out, at the same time, the many foreign countries, beginning with Germany in 1848, in which teachers' congresses

have been successfully held. Thanks, however, to generous private contributions of money, and to the active co-operation of the Government, an exhibition was held, and many valuable written opinions or essays contributed to educational literature. These opinions are printed in a large quarto volume issued at the same time with the introduction and reports of awards by committees.

This introduction by Conselheiro Carvalho contains much information on the subject of public instruction in Brazil. The condition of primary instruction, he says, is deplorable. Taking the free population at upward of seven millions, there is but one school in proportion to every 1,356 inhabitants, which is far from satisfying the needs of a population scattered over a vast territory, and separated by great distances. Many of the schools, too, are not provided with teachers; almost all are kept in hired houses, and badly situated in sanitary regards. Pupils of different sexes can not attend the same school. In the whole country there are 1,315 schools for girls. The school population, composed of boys and girls from six to fifteen years of age, amounts to 1,902,454, of whom only 321,449 are registered as pupils, leaving 1,581,005 who do not go to any school. No one can teach a private school without being subjected to the tests applied to teachers of public schools. Many of the latter, Mr. Carvalho says, are deficient in the necessary qualifications. The pay is frequently inadequate; nor do women have the proper facilities for teaching. Religious intolerance closes the school to all but Catholics. The school sessions are divided by long intervals, obliging the father to send his boy to school twice a day, which is inconvenient for all and impossible for many.

Mr. Carvalho has not sought in this introduction to

give a rose-colored sketch of popular education that would gratify the vanity especially of the statesmen of the country; but he has had the courage to speak the truth like a manly patriot, knowing that such a course would, in the end, prove the most serviceable to the public welfare. He tells us that popular education is in a deplorable condition, which, no doubt, is the honest truth as regards many of its features.

Brazil has for many years maintained a system of public instruction, and some of her enlightened statesmen are now devoting special attention to its improvement. Naturally, the great extent of the country and sparseness of its population have been serious drawbacks to common schools in the rural districts, and it will be found that, in the endeavor to overcome these, practices have grown, such as keeping schools in private houses, which would seem novel in the United States, where a separate building for a public school is the universal custom. More than ordinary interest was manifested in educational matters by Minister João Alfredo when at the head of the department of the empire about ten years ago. Among other things he caused the erection of the fine school-building in the Largo Machado, where the Emperor frequently, on Sundays, attends lectures. He also changed the rules of the Polytechnic School so that students could undergo examination without attendance on the lectures. Educational reform began under him, and was effectively continued by his successor, Conselheiro Leoncio de Carvalho, who was appointed Minister of the Empire in the early part of 1878, in the Sinimbú Cabinet, and who in the course of the year and a half that he was in office caused the enactment of the law of April 19, 1879, reforming primary and secondary instruction in the municipality of

the capital, and superior instruction—schools of law, medicine, science, and theology—throughout the empire. This law, which will be further referred to, forms a landmark in Brazilian education. One of its advanced features was the provision for obligatory education at the capital, which, however, is not yet enforced ; also, making instruction in the Catholic religion optional in respect of non-Catholics.

In giving a brief outline of public instruction in Brazil, it is proper to notice, first, that the several provinces have separate and exclusive control of popular education in their respective limits. This is both according to usage for half a century, and admitted constitutional law. On the other hand, the central Government exercises exclusive control over public academical education, or what corresponds to university education, and over popular education in what is called the neutral district of the capital. Each provincial legislature raises and appropriates the money for support of primary and secondary schools in the province, though there is no separate school fund, and makes the laws for the organization of such schools. The central Government has an indirect authority over the schools in this way, that each president of a province, by and under whom school inspectors, examiners, and committees are appointed, receives his appointment from and must report to the central Government. There has been no complaint, however, of undue interference by the central Government with the separate educational affairs of the provinces. Primary schools are those where the simple branches are taught, such as reading, writing, arithmetic, and geography, and are attended by pupils of from seven to about twelve or fourteen years of age. Secondary schools are of a higher grade, where those branches are

taught which are usually studied by pupils intending to pursue an academical course. In the primary schools of first grade, in the capital, according to the law of April 19, 1879, drawing, singing, gymnastics, and simple sewing for girls, form part of the instruction; and in the same schools of the second grade, the use of the needle by girls and mechanical work by boys, ideas of social economy for boys and of domestic economy for girls, ideas of agriculture and horticulture, physics, chemistry, and natural history in their application to industry, are among the prescribed branches of instruction.

As a rule, boys and girls in Brazil attend separate schools, but the law just cited allows mixed schools at the capital for boys and girls up to the age of ten years; and now, generally, in the public schools of Rio de Janeiro boys and girls up to ten years of age attend school together. The same is the practice in the city of Pernambuco.

There are six normal schools for the training of teachers, situated at Rio de Janeiro, São Paulo, Bahia, Pernambuco, Maranhão, and Pará. Pupils are admitted at the age of sixteen, and the course lasts six years. A graduate of either of these schools can be employed as a teacher without examination. Other teachers, after being once examined and employed as teachers, must undergo a further examination if they take another school in another province. In each province, residing at its capital, is a committee of three or five persons appointed by the inspector of instruction of the province, who examine all persons applying to be teachers. The teacher's salary is fixed by the Provincial Assembly. But the school must have a certain average attendance, the number varying in different provinces, but probably nowhere less than

twenty. Teachers get their pay monthly from the provincial treasury, at the capital of the province—often a great distance off—and they can draw it through a friend or agent. The average yearly pay of teachers throughout the country is small, say one conto of reis, or \$450, with obligations to furnish apartments for the school. The principal (male) of one of the large public schools at Rio de Janeiro receives 1,800 milreis (say at present \$720) a year, with rent of apartments connected with the school-building free. His tenure, however, is permanent, and after twenty-five years' service he will receive a pension of three quarters of his pay. The pay of the second teacher is about \$200 less, and of the assistant over \$300 less.

After ten years' service, a teacher receives an increase of pay; after fifteen years' service, another increase; and still another increase after twenty-five years' service, if he chooses still to continue in the service. By custom, school-teachers in Brazil bear the title of "Professor."

In recent years the municipal government of the capital has created and now supports two large schools in special buildings and seven smaller ones in private buildings, in which latter boys and girls attend together. The other public schools of the capital are called government schools.

There are no teachers' institutes, but the teachers of the "municipal" schools of the capital hold a general meeting twice a year, lasting two or three days, to which other teachers are invited. Educational periodicals have been started at different times, but have had only a temporary existence. Another was started the present year.

The supervision of schools is exercised through the inspector-general, or director-general, as he is sometimes styled, of each province. As has been said, he receives his appointment from the president of the province.

There is no fixed tenure, but changes are not frequent, and valuable men are usually selected to fill the office. The inspector-general of instruction for the province of Rio de Janeiro receives a salary of eight contos (8,000\$-000), eight thousand milreis—say \$3,200 per year; the inspector-general for the capital, 7,200\$000—say \$2,820 per year. In the province of São Paulo the salary is \$2,400 per year.

The inspector-general of instruction in each province nominates or proposes, and the president appoints, a *delegado*, or agent, for each *comarca*, or county, whose duty it is to inspect both primary and secondary schools, and see that the teacher discharges his or her duty. The teacher gives his returns and reports to the *delegado*, or agent, by whom they are communicated to the inspector-general. The office of *delegado* is honorary, no pay being attached to it. It is sometimes filled by priests, who are also occasionally, but not usually, employed as teachers. The inspector-general visits schools personally, so far as he is able to do so. He makes his report to the president of the province, but not to the central Government. The president usually presents an abstract of the report in his annual message or address to the Provincial Assembly; but he makes no separate school report to the central Government.

There is no separate school-tax nor fund, but the money for school purposes is voted by the Provincial Assembly out of any money there may be in the provincial treasury. Throughout the rural districts, and in many towns, the public schools are usually kept in private rooms, which are provided by the teacher without extra allowance. As has been said, his contract is to teach and furnish the apartments. The Government provides the

furniture. Of course, these accommodations are frequently insufficient. One will sometimes see school furniture that has been imported from the United States; but there are now several places in Brazil where furniture similar to the American patterns is made. The provincial authority furnishes all the school-books gratuitously.

There are as yet no movable schools, such as are found in sparsely settled parts of Scandinavia, though their introduction is being somewhat discussed.

There are thirty school savings-banks in operation. The General Government has committed itself to this laudable system of inculcating habits of foresight and economy in children in the law of April 19, 1879, reorganizing primary and secondary instruction at the capital. In that law it was required that a savings-bank should be organized in each school of the first and second grade—that is, that small sums of money which the pupils might wish to deposit should be received, and the amount returned in due time with interest. As, however, difficulties were met with in executing the law, new regulations to obviate them were issued by the Government, January 12, 1882.

There is no uniformity of legislation in the different provinces on the subject of education.

The annual appropriation for public instruction by the twenty different provinces amounts in the aggregate to two and a half million dollars. In addition to that, the General Assembly appropriates for higher instruction, and for the public schools at the capital, a little over one million dollars, making for the whole empire an expenditure of a little upward of three and a half million dollars of public money for educational purposes.

The following table shows the specific appropriations for the higher schools of the empire and for the public schools of the capital for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1885:

Seminaries (theological).....	\$44,100
Law-schools.....	106,660
Medical schools.....	330,320
Engineering School.....	120,836.80
Mining School.....	33,920
Normal School.....	28,640
Academy of Fine Arts.....	28,860
Dom Pedro II College.....	173,094.80
Primary and secondary instruction at the capital....	230,436
Blind, Deaf and Dumb, and Poor Asylums.....	60,348.36
Total.....	<u>\$1,157,215.96</u>

Although tuition is nominally free, students at the higher professional schools have to pay an annual fee for matriculation and for examination. For example, the course at the Medical School occupies eight years, and a fee of one hundred and two milreis—at present exchange about forty-one dollars—must be paid each year, of which half may be paid at the time of matriculation or the whole at the time of examination. At the Polytechnic School the fee is but half as much. At the time of graduating, a fee must be paid for the diploma.

I think I derived on the whole a favorable impression from a short visit I made to the São José Public School, supported by the municipality at Rio de Janeiro, and which must be considered one of the best in Brazil. It is a free school, admitting pupils without regard to color from all parts of the city. There are two large rooms on the basement-floor, one for boys and the other for girls, each having three divisions, separated by railings three

feet high. One division, for example, had seats without desks, another had seats with desks ; and it is the practice every hour and a half to change the pupils from one division to another, when they are expected to march single file, in good order, out and in. I first went into the boys' room, and was struck by its large size. On one side were six large windows open, and the ceiling was very high. The number of boys registered in that room was three hundred and fourteen ; but only one hundred and forty were present, the average attendance, and were apparently of an age from seven to fourteen years. An assistant teacher appeared to have charge. There was at first a good deal of noise, like loud study, but perhaps not disorder. The teacher rang a bell, and the room quieted down a little. All the pupils seemed well disposed, respectful, and interested in their work. The teacher offered to have any exercise I might wish. He called a class of a dozen or more boys to read, and they immediately gathered in a group around him and me, that we could the better hear. They appeared to go into the work with eagerness, and read, I thought, tolerably well. I was rather pleased with their unrestrained manner. From the penmanship and other things I saw, including drawing, I had no doubt the school was doing pretty good work. The boys, who, I supposed, belonged to the working class, were tidily dressed, and all had on shoes.

The girls' room, under female teachers, was more quiet. One hundred and twenty were present. The room was divided into three divisions like the boys' room, and they changed places in fair order. A teacher works with each division at the same time. A number of excellent specimens of writing, and some of drawing and sewing, were shown me. I asked to have some of the little girls

make figures, 1, 2, 3, 4, etc., on the blackboard, and for the most part they made the figures in a neat and uniform style, which showed that they had received training in that frequently neglected line. "What reward do you hold out to pupils for special merit?" I inquired of the principal. "We have a seat of honor," she replied, pointing to a chair which stood alone with the back to the wall, "where a pupil sits for half an hour who has her lesson the most perfect of any in her class." Then, at her request, three girls modestly stood up who had had the honor that forenoon to sit in the chair. "We also," she said, "have a roll of honor of the names of three of the most advanced pupils, which is framed and hung upon the wall at the end of every three months." At the close of my visit she gave me an opportunity to enter in a large blank-book, kept for the remarks visitors may wish to make, such observations in regard to the school as I chose to record.

As applicable to both of the schools, I learned that books and stationery were furnished free by the city government. The term lasts eleven months continuously, with a vacation during December. The session each day is five hours, from 9 A. M. to 2 P. M., with a short intermission. The pupils study at home as well as at school. There are gymnastic exercises twice a week, also instruction in singing twice a week. There are four grades, each of which is expected to be passed by a pupil in one year. A register is kept, and there is a roll-call at the end of each day. It is intended that study in school shall be silent. Attention is paid to moral instruction, but it is incidental. The school is opened with prayers of the Catholic Church, but attendance thereat is not obligatory. No particular religious qualifications are required of the

teachers; but they must be Brazilian subjects. Corporal punishment is not allowed in any school. The kind of punishment resorted to is usually to have the pupil stand, or to deprive him of a recess or of some favor. Parents are always welcome, but they seldom visit the school. The committee of examination is appointed by the Municipal Chamber. The director who now has charge of the municipal schools is Dr. Chagas Rosa.

These two schools occupy separate wings of a building, the central part of which on the same floor is a general assembly-room for the whole school, and which has at one end an altar that ordinarily is shut from view by a curtain. The front of the building outside is somewhat pretentious, there being four or more large statues set in niches, and very much out of proportion to the size of the building. The windows, however, are arched with the usual smooth granite facings. The building has a gray stone color which is agreeable. Ample granite steps are laid at each of three front entrances, and a neat but not large yard contains some patches of lawn, some flowers and shrubbery, and several shade-trees, all being inclosed with an iron fence resting on a granite base.

Having noticed that the school-teacher in Brazil is called "Professor," I did not know but more than ordinary respect might be felt for the calling, and I asked the principal of one of the Rio public schools what rank teachers held in society. "The Government," he said, "would like to give consideration to the profession, but naturally a man with an income of only six or eight hundred dollars a year can not occupy much of a position in society."

One of the best educational institutions is the *Lyceu de Artes e Officios*, a sort of technical school for fitting young people of the middle and poorer class for gaining a

livelihood. It has very roomy apartments opposite the National Printing-Office. Instruction is given evenings to nearly a thousand pupils of both sexes in various useful branches, including drawing, painting, sculpture, French, and English. The institution was founded in 1856, through the efforts of Mr. F. J. Bettencourt da Silva.

There are not many separate school-buildings in Rio; but there are many places where one sees a painted sign showing that there is a school kept for boys or girls. One sees also, between eight and nine o'clock in the morning, many tidy children with their books, sometimes alone, sometimes a colored servant following close behind them, wending with animated step their way to school.

There is scarcely any encouragement for American teachers to go to Brazil with the expectation of employment in the public schools. A number of such, it is true, have found their way to the Argentine Republic, but their expectations were not realized; they have had a hard time. I think, however, that American young men who would learn the Portuguese language would find remunerative and agreeable employment as teachers of the English language in the families of planters.

CHAPTER XII.

LOCAL ADMINISTRATION.

A GOOD share of the contentment of people in almost every country arises from their liberty to manage their own local affairs. Even in old European countries, with absolute governments, the people have generally been allowed to have their own way about many local concerns.

For local government, every province of Brazil is divided into municipalities. Sometimes a municipality will include simply a city with its suburbs; sometimes a small city or village, and a large extent of contiguous territory. In this municipality we find that the people can elect a municipal body or council, called a chamber, consisting, in cities, of nine, and in villages of seven, members who hold for four years, and whose president, holding for one year, is elected by them from their own number. This president is the executive officer for the city, and corresponds somewhat to the office of mayor in the United States. The Municipal Chamber, whose room is often in the same building as the jail, can levy a tax on a few things, such as the manufacture and sale of spirits, the slaughter of beef-cattle, licenses, etc., but it can not tax property in general—neither houses nor vacant lots, nor personal property. The greater part of the municipal expenses are paid out of the municipal treasury from its

own revenue, but nothing can be expended without the consent of the Provincial Assembly. The amount which any municipality may spend in a year has already been fixed and limited by the Provincial Assembly, and the Municipal Chamber must limit its estimate of expenses to such sum. The practice is for each municipal chamber to send, in due season, every year, its budget or estimate of expenses, specifying how much under each head, to the Provincial Assembly; and the latter, usually as a matter of course, votes the amount in a general bill for all the municipalities of the province, yet showing the items for each municipality—so much for salaries, so much for lights, so much for rent, and so on. If the municipalities have not quite money enough in their own treasuries, the deficiency is voted out of the provincial treasury; but such deficiency probably would not amount in all to more than a quarter part of the aggregate municipal budgets. The Municipal Chamber has no control of schools, nor of the police, nor of paupers, and its powers indeed seem to be quite limited. It has, however, charge of sanitary matters, and of roads and streets in its limits. Besides electing a “chamber,” the people can elect justices of the peace; but the agent and sub-agent of police, the collector of taxes, the prosecuting attorney, the inspector of schools, and the school-teachers are all appointed by the president of the province. Of course, the parish priest is appointed by the bishop. On the whole, therefore, it does not seem that a large amount of local self-government devolves on the people.

The Municipal Council of Rio de Janeiro, like the others, is elected for a term of four years, and its president is the executive officer of the city. As, however, Rio de Janeiro, like the city of Washington, is directly

under the jurisdiction of the General Government, the council has subordinate authority. The matters of water-supply and street lights, for example, are controlled by the Imperial Government. The municipal body has no power to run into debt; consequently, Rio, for a city of its size, has a very small debt. The city government, however, justly or unjustly, is the target of a great deal of complaint. Within a couple of years it has moved into its new and handsome building, with marble floors and spacious marble stairways, fronting on Acclamation Park. The criminal court is held in the same building.

The twenty provinces of Brazil not only have their separate legislatures and executive governments, but they can and do levy taxes on the live-stock and products brought into their respective limits from sister provinces.

At the capital of every province there is a chief of police—an office next in dignity to that of president, and for which is usually selected a man of acknowledged judicial or legal ability. He receives his appointment from the central Government.

The office of provincial president, like that of the Governor of a State, is very important. The appointment to it is made by the central Government without regard to place of residence. Sometimes very able men are appointed to this office; often, however, young and rather inexperienced men are appointed. The service is regarded as a good school for training statesmen, and some of the ablest administrators of Brazil have served as provincial presidents. The office affords a fine field for statesman-like ability, but, unfortunately, it has been granted in many cases as a reward for party service, and changes have been frequent. The "Paiz," a daily "journal" of Rio, of May 19, 1885, laments that the Govern-

ment should so often change the presidents of the provinces, not allowing them time to become experienced. A position as president, it says, is nearly always given with a view toward one of these two ends: to enable a party colleague to receive a certain amount of money for expenses of moving, or to find him a temporary situation during the intervals of the legislatures. As a rule, the administration of a president lasts only five or six months. The "Paiz" says it knows of one who received ten contos of reis (four thousand dollars) to defray "expenses" to go to Nietheroy (a distance of four miles) to manage the affairs of the province.

"The financial state of the provinces," this journal adds, "is very bad; the most important have a deficit which they can not meet. In some the police is not paid, in others public-school teachers are left without a penny, in others public employés are paid in tenders; all of which tend to paralyze necessary works and to cause general poverty. This state of affairs," it says, "shows a profound defect of administration, and threatens, if continued, to ruin the country."

It would take at least a couple of years for even a bright man to become familiar with all the official duties of president of an important province. In his reports and messages to the Provincial Assembly he must annually submit a clear statement of the condition of the province and its needs in respect of legislation; its industries, means of transportation, education, care of the poor, tranquillity, and all the various interests that affect its welfare, need his guidance. All bills of the Provincial Assembly appropriating money for roads and bridges, improvements of navigation, schools, churches, the promotion of immigration, and the like, are approved or rejected by him.

It is remarkable, therefore, and, I should think, very unfortunate, that presidents of provinces hold their offices, on an average, only about one year or less. The practice in several European countries, of giving a permanent tenure to such posts, and filling them by the appointment of tried and competent statesmen who wish to retire from active politics, would seem preferable. I know of at least one well-administered state in Europe where such posts are considered a dignified retreat for ex-cabinet ministers.

There are several other provincial officers, such as the secretary, the inspector of instruction, the collector of taxes, and the engineer. The latter has charge of all highways outside of the municipal limits.

Most legislative assemblies will vote money lavishly when they have an overflowing treasury to draw from. But years of abundance are only exceptional; and it would benefit a province if its president had that position and influence that would enable him to prevent extravagant appropriations. Take the province of Amazonas, for example; for a year or two, rubber, its great product, had a very high price; the export of it was immensely stimulated, and, as the province collected a high export tax on the article, its treasury suddenly acquired a large surplus. What was the result? The Provincial Assembly voted away the money in a prodigal manner; and then in a year or so, when the rubber-trade suffered a very great depression, they found their treasury very short of money. Baron de Mamoré, of that province, spoke of this matter in the Senate on March 23, 1885. He is a Conservative, and naturally was not unwilling to make a point against the (Liberal) party in power. He said that, at the beginning of 1884, the province had in hand a balance of

\$600,000; when the ex-president turned over the administration to his successor, the balance was \$370,000; not quite a year had passed, and the province of Amazonas had not a penny to pay its public employés. Of the public works begun, not one had been completed; the money expended so far would be a total loss, for it was not probable that the province would continue to have presidents who considered a theatre costing \$400,000 and a lyceum based on European universities necessary to the capital. He mentioned as irregularities the granting of subsidies to students of photography, short-hand writing, law, medicine, etc., amounting to \$7,200; for a theatre, \$20,000; a monument, \$27,000; and said that subsidies and interest guarantees amounted to a million dollars. With reference to the public emancipation fund of the province (the most sacred of any money), he read an official table showing that \$48,000 had been disbursed, of which \$4,000 was expended in *fêtes*, and said that up to the middle of January none of the abolition committees had settled accounts. He had made a memorandum of a case, which he read, where the party told him that he had received a loan of \$3,200 from a member of a committee on the emancipation fund; and, upon making the first partial payment, was told that there was no hurry for paying the balance, which would be called for when the lender had to settle accounts with the treasury.

Some of the provinces occupy a respectable position in regard to what has been done in the establishment of humane and benevolent institutions. There are several, however, which are still behindhand.

The chief of police of the province of Paraná, in his annual report to the president of the province, 1883, says, "I receive constant requests from various points in the

province to receive into the jail at the capital (Curitiba) insane people, which I can not satisfy, both for the reason that the practice would be irregular, and that there are not accommodations."

So, also, the manager of the public hospital of Maranhão, in his report of 1881, laments that there is no suitable place for the treatment of the insane, who have to be kept in the same building with other sick patients. The insane in the province, he states, could be counted by hundreds, and there was no suitable building for them. Some even wandered the streets without food or shelter. The next year, however, a country-house was bought and appropriated for the shelter of the insane.

The Minister of the Department of the Empire, in his annual report for 1884, submitted the following reflections as to the need of reorganizing the provincial and municipal governments: "The law of October 1, 1828, which modeled the provincial and municipal administrations, has failed of successful execution, in consequence of inadequate political conditions. A centralizing system has always arisen against its development. This antagonism has created an abnormal situation, in which the uncertainty of rights and consequent weakness of authority, which should direct society, have produced disturbance, which must not continue, for the material and intellectual progress of our country will not allow it.

"The law of October 1, 1828, which defined the functions of the municipalities, has been violated frequently by the Municipal Chamber of Rio de Janeiro. Of forty-nine days designed for ordinary sessions, and seven for extraordinary, the Chamber did not sit twenty-five. And even of the days it did sit, some were entirely thrown away, in consequence of the disorderly discussions and

violent and tumultuous scenes among the members. Government spared no means to set matters aright; but, not succeeding, the members were suspended, and those of the preceding legislature were re-elected *pro tem*. The latter have been able to re-establish order in the administration of the municipality, and have set themselves to meliorate the sanitary condition of the city."

The report sets forth, therefore, the urgent necessity of a reorganization of the municipalities, whereby may be given to each body, which intervenes in its administration, certain and defined positions, and unquestionable functions, so as not to continue the abnormal state of affairs of to-day, in which the administrative powers waste their strength in a mutual contest as to their respective spheres of action. At present the central Government is too much burdened with local affairs of too little importance compared with national affairs.

A Portuguese long ago said that the fortune of a courtier consisted in knowing how to flatter, to lie, to steal, and to divide. It would be singular if such talents had not descended to the present generation; only we must remember that in any country the scene of the courtier's tricks shifts according as power and the purse-strings change from one branch of government to another. In the meaning of this Portuguese philosopher, there is no material difference between the courtier and the lobbyist. We know that in the best countries there must be occasional cases of malversation, defalcation, and corruption in office; and it is when these cases are dragged to light, exposed, and punished that one may safely conclude that the administration as a whole is sound and honest. I would not leave the impression that there is overmuch corruption in Brazilian administration; it is a subject I

am too little acquainted with to give an opinion upon. I know, however, that intelligent and upright business men openly and firmly assert that administration is corrupt. Further, I have no knowledge of any recent case where any functionary has been punished for misbehavior in office. All that the public knows of corruption is what appears from a few feeble squeaks and murmurs of anonymous correspondents through the paid columns of a newspaper.

Able Brazilian publicists have repeatedly said with truth that the Brazilian has much better facilities for learning what has transpired and what is taking place in foreign countries than he has of what is taking place in his own country.

“This sad condition of the Brazilian, knowing more about foreigners than of his own people,” says Dr. Vieira Souto, “will only cease when our legislators become satisfied that statistics are the only guide for making known the manner of existence and the development of society in all of its manifestations, the light which clearly guides the way for improving all branches of the public service.”

The principle of permanency, however, appears to exist in all branches of the civil service of Brazil except in the office of provincial president.

CHAPTER XIII.

PARLIAMENTARY GOVERNMENT.

THE two parliamentary bodies composing the national legislature consist of a Senate, whose members, elected for life, are chosen by and represent the separate provinces; and a Chamber of Deputies, whose members, elected for a term of four years, are chosen by and represent separate districts. In the election of senator three persons are voted for, one of whom, and usually the one having the highest number of votes, is appointed by the Emperor. The position of senator is the most independent, dignified, and desirable political office to which the Brazilian subject is eligible. The prime minister and several of the Cabinet are usually senators, still retaining their senatorial position. The senators generally have passed the middle of life before their election. They are liberally paid, and, like many of the deputies, are well-trained and able politicians and debaters. Of the two hundred and twelve senators who, up to 1884, had been elected since the creation of the Senate, two resigned, and one hundred and fifty-four died after an average service of fifteen years. The average service of the fifty-six senators then serving was eleven and a quarter years.

The proceedings in both bodies are usually of a dignified and courteous character. The debates and speeches

are taken down by stenographers and published at length in the leading morning newspaper of the capital, which is, perhaps, an incentive to excessive talk. The interruptions are very numerous. While a member is speaking, some other member, remaining in his seat, will exclaim, "I agree with you!" or, "I don't agree with you!" This will be done every few minutes, sometimes several members joining in the approval or dissent. The interruptions sometimes become as frequent and noisy as in an old-fashioned Methodist camp-meeting. The journal which gets paid for reporting the debates interlards all of the interruptions—printing them, indeed, in italics. The speeches are delivered extemporaneously, and usually in a conversational rather than declamatory manner.

An example of humor in debate was a passage in a late speech of Senator Silveira Martins. He criticised the concentration of forces on the southern frontier, saying that one of the brigadiers was eighty years old, and falls off his horse when it stops; and another, appointed to command a cavalry brigade, is paralyzed, never leaves his room, and can not even write. Another officer, sent from Rio Grande to Matto-Grosso, was obliged to mount an ox when proceeding on an expedition, and he produced a photograph in proof of his assertion. Thus the country was in a perfect state of defense; by sea it only had turtles, and on shore bovine cavalry!

There is no especially Catholic party in either the Chamber or the Senate, but the leading friend of the Church is Deputy Vianna, of Rio, whose remarks often have a religious tone. In a late speech he declared that his only intervention in the election in the province of Goyaz was, writing a letter to the bishop, asking his protection for the Conservative candidate, which the bishop

did not consider he could extend, but contented himself with prayer that so Catholic a community should not be represented by an enemy of the Church, and therefore of the country; and that the bishop's prayer had been heard!

The Senate-house is a plain and separate building about a mile distant from that of the Chamber of Deputies, fronts on the now handsome Park of Santa Anna, and is close to the Mint. The Senate-chamber is about the size of the old Senate-chamber, now Supreme Court-room, at Washington. The floor is carpeted, and the chairs are arranged in three semicircular rows divided by two aisles; and what answers for a continuous railing in front of them, and against which senators can lean when they speak, has a polished top of Brazil-wood, mahogany-colored, and about ten inches wide, which opens toward the chair so as to form a handy, cloth-covered desk for each senator when he has occasion to write. As a rule, these desks are closed, and thus outwardly form a convenient railing. The President of the Senate, Baron Cotigipe (prime minister since the latter part of 1885), leader of the Conservative party, and a man who looks a good deal as Henry Wilson did when a senator, sits at the center of a long and wide table, with the Vice-President and Secretaries, all of whom are senators, on either side of him. Behind the President's chair a long green curtain, suspended from the ceiling, shuts off the view of the imperial chair, or throne, which the Emperor occupies when he opens and closes the legislative session. There is, therefore, no gallery in rear of the presiding officer. On his right is a small gallery for the imperial family, on his left another for the diplomatic body, each having a green curtain in front when vacant. Next to the diplomatic gallery is one for the families of senators, while in

front of the presiding officer is the general public gallery that will accommodate a hundred people. On the main floor is a reception-room for senators and their visitors, and another exclusively for the Cabinet ministers. The first time that I saw the then prime minister, Senator Dantas, was in the Senate the afternoon of the 27th of August, 1884, toward the close of the session of Parliament. He is, perhaps, a little under medium height, stoutly built, with large and pleasant face, full beard, slightly gray, abundant hair, complexion hardly as dark as the usual Brazilian, large brown eyes, and wears glasses. His dress and manner were very simple. His coat was a dark-blue cloth sack which came below his knees. He was at first sitting on the left side of the presiding officer, but soon went to one of the usual seats and engaged in conversation a few minutes with his predecessor, Senator Lafayette. About ten minutes afterward he rose and made a five minutes' speech in reply to some senators on the opposite side. The Chamber suddenly became exceedingly still as he began to speak, and so continued during his remarks. He held in his right hand a printed document, gesticulated slightly with his left hand and arm, leaned a little over the railing in front of him, spoke in a conversational tone, fluently and earnestly, yet with unaffected modesty, which, joined to good temper, undoubtedly is his characteristic strong point. Shortly after he had finished he stepped over across the aisle and stood conversing a few minutes with Senator Sinimbú, a former distinguished Liberal prime minister.

Senator Sinimbú looks more like an American or an Englishman than a Brazilian. His complexion is inclined to be florid. His face is shaved, except a thin and gray beard on each side and under his chin. Senator Lafayette

is of medium height, inclined to be stout, has rather a Hebrew face, very expressive black eyes, is somewhat bald, but with some strands of jet-black hair over the top of his head. He wears glasses, and might be taken for a college professor. He is distinguished for eloquence. Senator Saraiva, who assumed the office of prime minister, May 5, 1885, is a man perhaps of as much character as there is in public life in Brazil. He is a tall man, with white hair and beard, sixty years of age or upward, stoutly built, a little stooping, wears a tall hat and long sack or overcoat, generally has a cigar in his mouth when in the street, is eminently practical and active, and might easily be taken for a large landed proprietor and energetic planter, which he is. These four, that I have mentioned, are Liberals. Several of the Conservative senators are planters of wealth and culture, and distinguished in appearance. The senators are mostly large-sized men, and seem to enjoy themselves seated in their arm-chairs with backs as high as their shoulders. Now and then one of them will take a pinch of snuff, and the bigger magnate he is, the more likely he is to pull out a red cotton handkerchief with which to wipe his nose. I have looked down from the gallery on the Senate of modern Rome, but somehow I fancy that these Brazilian lawgivers resemble the ancient Romans as much as any I have seen. As a rule, the senators spend a great deal of their time at the capital, and have much influence in the Government.

The lower house, called Chamber of Deputies, takes the initiatory in taxation and appropriations, but in matters of ceremony the Senate has precedence. It is to the Senate that the Emperor goes to open or close a session. If the two bodies differ on some bill, committees of conference are not appointed, as is done in the American Con-

gress, but the two bodies meet in joint convention to consider the question. The deputies in such case go to the Senate, and sit or stand in a crowded condition on one side of the chamber while the senators occupy the other side. These joint meetings are rare, and the business done on such occasions is merely formal. I happened to be in the Chamber of Deputies when a committee of three, who had been sent to the Senate to ascertain when the latter body would receive the deputies in such a joint assembly, returned and made their report. All three were in evening dress—white cravats, white kid gloves, and swallow-tailed coats.

The Government is essentially parliamentary. Cabinets come into power and go out according to the support they get in the Chamber of Deputies. No Cabinet undertakes to exist without a good working majority in that body. The Cabinet ministers sit and speak in each body. Depending as it does for existence on the will of the popular branch of the legislature, the administration is necessarily influenced very much by public opinion, and is in danger of being influenced even by popular clamor. The fact that in recent times Cabinets have changed about once a year would seem to show that there is considerable intrigue in political circles, or else that the situation has been exceedingly peculiar. I think that intrigue has had much to do with the changes.

The Minister of Finance is usually the President of the Council and virtual prime minister. He it is, rather than the Emperor, who is regarded as responsible for the administration of the Government; and he is accordingly allowed to have his own way a good deal in the selection of his colleagues; though, of course, he selects those men who can count on the largest groups of friends among the

deputies. The ministry of Mr. Lafayette came in on May 24, 1883. His minister of the Department of War was Deputy Antonio Joaquim Rodrigues, Jr., of the province of Ceará, whom in the month of February following he caused to resign; not, however, without resorting to correspondence which produced some sensation and which was justly regarded as quite unusual. The Minister of War then resigned, but in the month of May following, in the discussion of the estimates of the Department of Finance, he attacked the prime minister, demanding full explanation of the reasons for the letter inviting him to resign; and upon Mr. Lafayette replying to him, a scene of uproar ensued in which assertions of both sides were contradicted, and finally the lie was exchanged between the two disputants, when Mr. Rodrigues, Jr., declared that Mr. Lafayette had acted with injustice and discourtesy, disloyalty and perfidy, and had sent the Minister of Justice to try and substitute another note for the letter, promising to do anything he wished for Ceará. This the Minister of Justice denied.

As showing what part the Emperor takes in forming Cabinets, the regard that is paid to thorough publicity in such matters, and as illustrating also the style of expression of Brazilian statesmen, I will here copy a short report of what was said in the Senate at the accession of the Dantas ministry, June 9, 1884, it being substantially the translation published in the "Anglo-Brazilian Times." Mr. Lafayette Rodrigues Pereira—jurist, senator from the province of Minas-Geraes, and prime minister of the outgoing Cabinet—said: "In view of what occurred on the 3d instant in the Chamber of Deputies, the Cabinet of May 24th became convinced that they had not the necessary parliamentary strength to continue to direct the public

affairs and to carry out the ideas of their programme of government. Consequently, I went the same evening to the palace, and in the name of myself and my colleagues, alleging the above reason, I asked his Majesty the Emperor to be pleased to accept our resignation. His Majesty consenting, asked whom I indicated to undertake to form a new ministry, and on my mentioning Senator José Antonio Saraiva, commanded me to invite Mr. Saraiva to come to the palace that same night. This command was obeyed at 8.30 P. M."

Senator Saraiva: "On the 3d, at 9 P. M., I was invited by Conselheiro Lafayette, by command of the Emperor, to go to the palace. On arriving there, his Majesty said to me that Conselheiro Lafayette had indicated me as successor, and his Majesty having received the suggestion with pleasure, was desirous that I should form the new ministry. I replied to his Majesty that the reasons still subsisted that prevented my undertaking in 1883 the responsibilities of government, namely, that I had no certainty of being able to form a strong and durable ministry, capable of deciding or carrying forward toward a satisfactory solution grave questions agitated both in and out of Parliament, such as the slave question. His Majesty said that he considered it his duty to do all that was possible to render the approaching elections of deputies most regular; that he had entire confidence in me, and as I did not hold extreme opinions I could direct the slave question to a solution that would not compromise the great economic interests of the country; that consequently he must insist upon my forming the new administration. I then observed to his Majesty that both the constitutional parties were interested in complete liberty of the elections; that the leaders of those parties could carry out the ele-

vated and patriotic idea his Majesty had so much at heart, were it only because those leaders were perfectly aware that a return to the old system of direct or indirect government interference in the elections would considerably reduce the influence of the Chamber of Deputies upon the constitution of ministries; that, as the Liberal party had fought during ten years of opposition for freedom of vote and had made a law to insure that freedom, it could not, under penalty of becoming unpopular, fail to do honor to the programme that had raised it to power. I added that, owing to the declarations I made in 1880 in the Chamber of Deputies, I could not assume the responsibility of power without treating specially of the slave question, but that I could not at present form a ministry that would be homogeneous in regard to this matter, and which, because of its homogeneity, could exert an efficacious influence upon the Liberal party; finally, that without the strong support of its party no government could have any certainty of a good result, even though the predominating idea were a national aspiration. This is more or less what passed between his Majesty the Emperor and myself."

Senator Dantas: "On the 4th instant the honorable ex-President of the Council came to me to deliver to me his Majesty's command to appear at the São Christovão Palace at 6 p. m. of the same day. At the hour fixed I presented myself at the palace, and, on being admitted to his Majesty's presence, he deigned to consult me upon various points, especially in regard to the ministerial crisis on the 3d. With the loyalty due to the chief of the state, I furnished all the information I could, and at the same time gave my humble opinion upon the difficulties of the occasion. Thus closed the audience with which

his Majesty honored me. About midnight of the same day I was again sought by the ex-President of the Council, who, by command of his Majesty the Emperor, invited me to appear at the palace at 10 A. M. of the next day. Having punctually obeyed this command, his Majesty deigned to tell me that he had resolved on intrusting me with the formation of a new ministry. With due reverence I stated to his Majesty my reasons for declining so great an honor. His Majesty insisted again, but I persisted in justifying the grounds of my excuse. Finally, as his Majesty gave favorable acceptance to the terms which I thought would authorize me to undertake the ministerial organization, I obeyed the command, in the conviction that thereby I also obeyed a great and imperative duty in the grave circumstances in which my services were considered useful to the public cause. On retiring from São Christovão, I undertook at once to come to an understanding with different political friends, and, returning at night to the palace, I presented the names of the distinguished citizens who constitute the present Cabinet. I must now state to the Senate the programme that the ministry has adopted and proposes to carry out. Mr. President, among the various questions that press upon the attention and study of the Government, there are two that at present dominate all the rest: that of the finances and that of slavery. The ministry think it a duty to explain themselves upon both in such a manner as to render their views evident, with the object of defining their responsibility before the country as to the manner in which the Government intend to treat both. The absence of equilibrium between the public revenue and expenditure is known, and the illustrious ex-Minister of Finance demonstrated it completely in his report to the

General Assembly. Unfortunately, the evil is one of years of duration, and, without treating now of its cause, I will simply mention the fact for the purpose of saying that it is urgent to adopt efficacious and persevering measures to remove it as soon as possible. First, it imposes on the Government the absolute necessity of a rigorous observance of the estimates and the strictest oversight of the collection of our revenue ; and, lastly, an intelligent and severe reduction of the expense, as much as we can without injury to the necessary improvements that have already been commenced and are in execution. The Government, however, believes that in our present circumstances these measures, though what economic and financial science usually counsels for such cases, will not suffice us. We must, and we pledge ourselves to this also, diminish our responsibilities as much as possible, as a means of strengthening the public credit, availing of this credit less and less, to maintain its vigor, until now intact. Finally, we must confess, we shall have to resort to some other means of enlarging the revenue, and as to this we will adopt as a basis the idea of the bill reported by the committee on estimates, of the Chamber of Deputies, both as to the creation of certain taxes and as to the conversion of the funded internal debt."

It will strike almost any one, I think, that the "efficacious and persevering measures" for improving the finances, which the ministry thought it their duty to explain in such a manner as "to render their views evident," are very vaguely stated. These generalities were scarce any improvement on what several of his predecessors had uttered on entering upon the same office. The following views which he delivered on the slavery question are more definite, though it will be seen that, while propos-

ing the liberation of slaves upward of sixty years of age, he omits to say whether or not the owners are to be remunerated :

“ I must now declare the views of the Cabinet upon the slave question. We have arrived, Mr. President, at a point where the Government ought to intervene most seriously in the progressive solution of this problem, and bring it frankly before the Parliament, which has to provide the solution. In this matter no retrocession, no stopping, no precipitation. It is, therefore, the special purpose of the Government to give movement to this question, both in satisfaction to generous sentiments and humanitarian aspirations and in homage to the vested rights of property involved in it, and to the greater interests of the country dependent on that agricultural wealth which, unfortunately, is still linked most intimately with this anomalous institution. It is the imperative duty of the Government and legislature to fix the line to which prudence permits and civilization obliges us to advance, so that it will become possible to prevent lawlessness and excess that compromise the solution of the problem without advancing it. For this purpose the Government considers it indispensable to adopt a general measure that shall establish throughout the country that provincial localization of the slaves which has already made progress in provincial legislation. This, however, is not sufficient. The emancipation fund works now within a very limited sphere, and the Government will promote a powerful measure to increase it to great dimensions. I refer to a national tax, one which will call upon all, not merely the slave-owners, to contribute to the extinction of slavery. Another measure which the Government considers equitable and opportune is the libera-

tion of the slaves who have reached or will reach sixty years of age. The powerful reasons supporting this measure, one that would do honor to the philanthropic disposition of Brazilians, need not be mentioned now, and the Government will reserve them for the debate on the bill that will be submitted to you."

After referring to some other subjects upon which the Government would propose legislation, including that of civil marriage, he continued: "At the moment when the present ministry commence their administration, little or no time separates us from the elections (of deputies). The Cabinet consider it a duty to declare to you that if they continue in the direction of affairs they will maintain entire neutrality in the struggle, thus honoring the precedent established by the Cabinet of March 28th. By themselves and by their appointees in the provinces they will not fail to repress fraud and violence, in order that the election may be true and free, leaving it to the account of the parties and their leaders—conquer who conquers. The wisdom of the Senate will assist me, I hope, in the difficult path I must follow."

Senator Correia, one of the Conservative leaders, then criticised the declarations which had been made; he wished to know what the conditions were which the new prime minister considered as justifying his acceptance of office; also what passed at the audiences with the Emperor of Senators Sinimbú and Affonso Celso.

Senator Sinimbú said that he recognized the right of the Chambers to know what passed between the Crown and those called upon to inform upon public affairs, but judged it proper to allow the ex-President of the Council and the present President of the Council to previously make their declarations. Invited on the 4th to the palace,

he was asked by his Majesty for his opinion upon the causes of the crisis and upon the slave question; that he replied that the crisis had been caused chiefly by the affair of October 25th (what he means by the affair of October 25th was the assassination of the editor of a scurrilous newspaper by alleged undetected military officers), by the process adopted for the conversion of the monastic property, by the official assent to the irregular manner in which the Ceará emancipation had been effected, and to the initiation of a like movement in other parts of the empire, and by the unusual manner in which the ministerial change of February 29th had been effected; that under the circumstances the most convenient solution of the crisis would be the formation of a Cabinet able to reunite the party and relieve the Conservatives of their fears of interference with the approaching elections; that this solution was not beyond the power of the Liberal party, and that all would hail the accession of Mr. Saraiva; that he did not consider the occasion proper for a dissolution of a Chamber freely elected, as was generally acknowledged; that as to slavery he still maintained the opinion declared at the Agricultural Congress, namely, execution of the law of September 28, 1871, with the development it is susceptible of."

Senator Affonso Celso said that he had also received on the 4th a similar command to go to the palace, but at a later hour; that it was enough for him to say that his opinion on the crisis and on the slave question was, he was glad to find, identical with that expressed by Mr. Sinimbú, as just stated to the Senate. He would merely add that in regard to slavery, along with guarantee of the property recognized by law, and the personal security of the owners, it would be requisite that the new Cabinet

should give a greater impulse to the too slow emancipating movement of the law of September 28, 1871, by increasing the emancipation fund, and by adopting other measures to make it more effective. He had, however, declared to his Majesty that acceleration of the emancipatory movement, as well as other measures of great importance to the future of the country, were bound up in the improvement of the financial situation, and that this improvement was the first thing to be undertaken. In fact, he thought material improvements, transformation of labor, reform of the administration, reconstruction of the state patrimonies, of the provinces, of the municipalities, redemption of the paper money, order, plenty, and progress in the interior, confidence and credit abroad, can not be thought of by a statesman while the rule of permanent deficits exists, together with the system of contracting new loans to pay the interest of old ones; that, therefore, one of the greatest aims of the new Cabinet should be to endeavor to render the public finances more prosperous. This was the first necessity, the fundamental base, for every aspiration.

It was immediately after this that Senator Ottoni delivered his interesting and important speech, liberal extracts from which will be found under the head of slavery. Some days later a bill was introduced by the ministry for liberating all slaves of the age of sixty years and upward, but, as it was unaccompanied by any provision for remunerating the owners, it failed to receive the full support of the Liberal party; Deputy Albuquerque, who had been Minister of Foreign Affairs in the Cabinet preceding the Lafayette ministry, being on that ground one of the leading opponents of it in the Liberal ranks. The new Cabinet having thus experienced a defeat on a vital measure, the

question arose whether it should go out and an attempt be made to form a Conservative ministry, or whether, as the time was near at hand for a new Chamber to be elected it would be better to wait the result of that election, leaving the Cabinet meantime unchanged. The latter course was adopted. A meeting was held by the Grand Council of State, and by its advice it was decided to dissolve the Chamber of Deputies; but this was not done till after the usual appropriation bills were passed, by which time the Chamber had sat out nearly its full constitutional time. During the ensuing political canvass there was no speech-making, such as occurs in England and in the United States, and which is so instructive to the public mind. The Abolition Society of Rio de Janeiro, in their address to the electors, September, 1884, recommending the support of Mr. José Carlos do Patrocinio for the General Assembly, declared that, limiting their aspirations to what was lawful, and deriving their force from the law, they directed their efforts to the solution of the labor problem, endeavoring to substitute the man for the slave, and liberty for slavery. Appealing, they said, to the electoral body of the capital of the empire, they addressed themselves to the most enlightened and conscientious who exercise sovereignty, but also knew that an erroneous political notion restricts the exercise of popular sovereignty in such a manner that, in a municipality like that of the capital of more than 600,000 souls, barely 6,793 citizens are qualified voters, being in the ratio of one elector for more than one hundred inhabitants. The forms of the electoral organization, they declared, have resulted in the continuance of a parliamentary system all in the interest of caste rather than the development of order in liberty, the stability of institutions in respect to the rights of man, the founda-

tion of public wealth on the most fruitful and solid of properties—the property of labor.

With reference to the Republican party in Brazil, which formerly, it would seem, was stronger than it is at present, Mr. José do Patrocínio, a noted abolitionist and editor of the evening paper, made some amusing remarks in a public address at Rio, September 7, 1884: “In general,” he said, “the proportion of deserters in any party was about ten per cent; but, in respect of the Republican party in Brazil, it was different—the faithful constituted ten per cent, and the deserters ninety per cent!”

The general election for a new Chamber of Deputies, for a term of four years, commenced in December, 1884. I say commenced, because under the rule requiring the successful candidate to have a majority of all votes cast, instead of a plurality, the election had in several districts to be repeated two or three times. There was, of course, considerable excitement, some fraud, and some violence, but it struck me that there was less trouble than one would naturally suppose under all the circumstances. Judging, however, from remarks of opposition senators and deputies since the legislature convened, one would think that the elections were attended with an unprecedented degree of rascality and violence. That a few people were killed, and that there was some fraudulent voting, might have been expected; and such were the facts. It is a significant fact that no certain knowledge of the political result of the election, as bearing on the ministry's plan of liberation, could be known till after the meeting of the newly elected Chamber of Deputies, in March, 1885.

This extra session of the General Assembly was opened by the Emperor in the Senate-chamber on Sunday, March 8, 1885, after a celebration of mass at the Imperial Chapel.

Though called solely for the settlement of some scheme of emancipation, the subject was treated in the speech read by the Emperor only in these few general words, namely: "The present extra session was advised by the need, which certainly you will meet with the greatest solicitude, of deciding in regard to the project which the Government judges useful for the gradual extinction of slavery in our country, agreeably to the desire of all Brazilians, in a way that will cause the least possible sacrifice, and without interfering with the development of the productive forces of the nation."

The Emperor comes in considerable state to open the General Assembly, and yet in a simple manner as compared with the usage of some European sovereigns, who enter the hall of state wearing a crown and royal robes, with a brilliant escort of soldiers and civil and military officers richly uniformed, and moving to martial music, the throne meantime being densely surrounded by officers of the life-guards. His Majesty the Emperor of Brazil, wearing a uniform, drives to the Senate in his usual carriage, drawn by six horses, with a mounted escort, and is received at the outer door by a joint committee of the Senate and Chamber of Deputies. On the occasion of the opening of this extra session the two bodies in joint assembly appointed twenty-four deputies and twelve senators to meet the Emperor at the door and conduct him to the throne. Four deputies and two senators were likewise appointed to meet the Empress and conduct her to her place in the imperial gallery.

On March 12th the Chamber of Deputies proceeded to elect a presiding officer, selecting for this purpose Mr. Moreira de Barros, the head of the Liberal opposition of about twelve members, with the aid of Conservative votes ;

but, as there were some forty deputies who could not vote because their credentials had not been decided upon, the prime minister (Liberal) declared in the Senate that such vote could not under the circumstances be accepted as a ministerial defeat. With reference to this proceeding the "Paiz" newspaper said, "One half the country, which is still outside the legislature" (referring to those members whose credentials were not acted upon), "can not logically be subjected to the decision of any minority whose members are already recognized as deputies." With reference to the way in which business was held in check in both branches of the legislature the first part of the extra session of 1885, pending the decision of so many contested election cases, a Rio journal said: "That *ten* dissatisfied Liberal members of the Chamber, acting in connection with their political opponents, could so completely succeed in obstructing parliamentary work needs explanation. The cause seems to us to be found in the last electoral law, and the effect only to be removed by such a modification of this law as will greatly increase the suffrage, to the end that the Chamber of Deputies may more nearly represent the country, and not that very small section of it which it now represents. . . . A sincere observer of political affairs in Brazil can not claim that the Chamber of Deputies as at present constituted represents the public opinion of the empire. The manner in which deputies are elected proves the contrary. The practice is for the candidate to issue a circular to the electors of the district he wishes to represent, and if possible secure some indorsement of his pretensions by the chiefs of his party; then personal visits to local magnates are made, and if their support be secured, the candidate may calmly and confidently await the result. There is no personal contact with the great mass of

the people, no speech-making, or attempts at raising enthusiasm; the election canvass is generally as flat as possible, and when disturbances occur the cause can generally be found in the enmity of local chiefs, and the actors are their personal followers. It is no uncommon thing for a candidate for a district in the north, or in the interior, to remain in Rio during the time that would be employed in England or in the United States in actively canvassing his proposed constituency. How can it be claimed that a deputy, for example, from Pará who has never left this capital can represent the public opinion of his district, which opinion he has only heard by proxy; and how can the electors of that district know anything of his opinions save from his circular and the indorsements of personal and political friends and relatives? . . . Another proof of our argument is shown by the professions of the deputies. Whereas the House of Commons is to a large extent composed of merchants, bankers, and manufacturers, our Chamber is almost exclusively formed of lawyers, with an occasional medical man, and a rare planter, unless in combination with the lawyer. . . . There must be unprofessional men who are sufficiently interested in commerce and trade to offer themselves as candidates, and the introduction of a few such into the composition of the Chamber could not but be attended with advantage. Politics is made entirely too much a means of support, and, the same members being returned again and again, political cabals are easily brought about, and personal questions quite as frequently cause the fall of a ministry as political, economic, or other principles. We think an extension of the suffrage would go far to correct the present unfortunate state of affairs."

The foregoing, together with what is found in the

chapter on slavery, will enable one to form a fair judgment of the political situation and of the practice of politics in Brazil. It will be seen that parliamentary government is there carried on with as much ability and fairness as it is in some European countries. Some things undoubtedly are to be deplored. An ex-Cabinet minister said to an acquaintance of mine, at Rio, "I would sooner bury my son than to bring him up in politics." His opinion was formed doubtless by the ups and downs—the uncertainty—as well as by the intrigue and corruption there are in politics. The Brazilians feel that they have a tremendously great country, and one which has a splendid destiny. They are proud of it, and will not permit it to fall into too much discredit. The honors which in a parliamentary system await a high order of statesmanship are healthy incentives, and I believe the tendency in Brazil is toward improvement under her present system.

The return of the adjutant-general of the army shows that the aggregate number of officers and enlisted men is 13,764, being the military strength of the country on a peace basis. It consists, in round numbers, of 3,000 artillery, 2,500 cavalry, and 8,000 infantry, and is widely detached in the different provinces. The principal detachment, comprising 4,000 men, under a general officer, is stationed in the province of Rio Grande do Sul, which borders the Republic of Uruguay; about 2,000 men are stationed in the frontier province of Matto-Grosso; 1,000 in the province of Pernambuco; 600 in the province of Pará; about the same number in each of the provinces of Bahia and Paraná, and about 3,000 at the capital—each detachment being under the command of a general officer. In the other provinces there are detachments which are under the command of the respective presidents. The

enlisted men of the army are all volunteers, who have engaged to serve for a term of six years. Their pay is only about two dollars a month, besides board and clothing. A law was passed ten years ago making military service for eight years obligatory on males between eighteen and thirty years of age—the requisite number to be drawn by lot. As yet, however, it has not been found necessary to enforce it. The annual military expenses amount to six million dollars.

Brazil is rather liberal in her system of military pensions. Those who received wounds or injuries to health in the Paraguayan war, as well as the widows, children, or sisters of those who were killed, receive an allowance of six dollars and upward a month. The widow of an officer killed in war would now receive a pension equal to his full pay. Where there are male children, but not a widow, they would receive the pension till they were of age; and a daughter, if an only child, and the mother not living, would receive the full pension during her life, whether married or single. So, also, officers who distinguished themselves in the war, though never wounded, receive a pension in some cases as high as twenty-five hundred dollars a year.

A commission, of which his Royal Highness Count d'Eu was president, and the adjutant-general, quartermaster-general, and three other general officers were members, was appointed two years ago to elaborate a plan of army organization in accord with improvements introduced into modern armies, and which would be suitable for Brazil. The plan they reported contemplates an aggregate force, in time of peace, of 1,129 commissioned officers and 15,000 enlisted men, and which in time of war could be increased to an army of 30,000 men.

CHAPTER XIV.

BRAZILIAN LITERATURE.

As the language of Brazil is the Portuguese, a few remarks in regard to it may serve as a suitable introduction to a sketch of Brazilian literature. The Portuguese language, like the Spanish, is founded on the Latin. This is evident from the many Latin words still in use in the language, even if there were no historical proofs of the fact. Prof. Ticknor, in his "History of Spanish Literature," points out that Christianity, beginning as early at least as the second century, was introduced into the peninsula, comprising Spain and Portugal, in the Latin language. That fact, he says, is very important, as showing that no other language was left strong enough to contend with it, at least through the middle and southern portions of the country. The Christian clergy, however, he says, addressed themselves for a long period to the lower and more ignorant classes of society, because the refined and the powerful refused to listen to them, and therefore used the degraded Latin which the common people spoke. He is of the opinion that "the modern languages and their dialects in the south of Europe were, so far as the Latin was concerned, formed out of the popular and vulgar Latin found in the mouths of the common people ;

and that Christianity, more than any single cause, was the medium and means by which this change from one to the other was brought about." The Portuguese language received additions and modifications by the invasion of the Goths in the fifth century and of the Arabs in the eighth century, but still retains distinctive Latin characteristics. There are so many words in common use, in the Portuguese, like the Latin, that it does not require a great stretch of the imagination to fancy that the people one sees and hears in Brazil are descendants of an ancient Latin race, and speak a language that could almost have been understood by the every-day people in the time and country of Horace. The similarity of the architecture of Rio, especially of the shops, with what is seen in the remains of the old Roman cities, makes the idea seem not unreasonable. Of course, from my limited acquaintance with the Portuguese language, I would not presume, unaided, to give a sketch of Brazilian literature; and most of the matter which follows in this chapter has been supplied by Mr. Shalders, a conscientious and talented graduate of one of Brazil's highest institutions of learning.

Among Brazilian authors probably José Martiniano de Alencár, Bernardo Guimarães, and J. M. de Macedo, by general consent, occupy the prominent places. The first-named belonged to the present era, and composed about thirty works of fiction, of which "Iracema" and "Guarany" are regarded as the best. He was born at Ceará, northern Brazil, May 1, 1829, and his early childhood was there spent. At the age of ten his family moved to Rio de Janeiro, making the very long journey thither by land. At Rio he received his first scholastic training, after which he studied law at the São Paulo and Olinda schools, graduating at the latter in 1851. Returning to

Rio, he there spent the rest of his life, following during the first four years the profession of lawyer. His early ardent desire of becoming an editor was satisfied on his becoming proprietor and editor of the "Diario do Rio"; here he began to publish his first writings, entitled "Ao Correr da Penna" ("The Running of the Pen"), on various topics, which soon attracted and fixed the attention of the public. About this time Gonçalves Magalhães published his "Confederação dos Tamoyos," a work which incited Alencár's ambition. Alencár became Professor of Mercantile Law in the Commercial Institute of Rio, was deputy in the General Assembly in several legislatures, Counselor of the Ministry of Justice, and, later on, Minister of Justice. He died December 12, 1877, at a house in Rua Guanabara, which he had selected in search of better atmosphere. The historical groundwork of his "Iracema" is substantially this: "In 1603 Pero Coelho started from Parahyba with eighty colonists and eight hundred Indians, and settled at the mouth of the Jaguaribe, and there founded a colony, the first in the province of Ceará. Pero Coelho, having been abandoned by his companions, João Soromenho was sent to his help, which latter having arrived at the place, began to attack the Indians, who were friends of the Portuguese. This ruined the recent colony; the colonists were forced to withdraw on account of the hostilities of the Indians, and Pero Coelho was obliged to retire to Parahyba. In the first expedition a young man named Martim Soares Moreno formed a friendship with Jacaúna, chief of the Indians of the coast, and with his brother Poty. Later on this Martim, having established a colony there, Jacaúna came with his people to live in the neighborhood in order to protect the Portuguese from the Indians of the interior. "Iracema" is a poem in prose.

The scene lies in the interior of Ceará among the Indians first among those who are enemies of the coast Indians, and toward the end among the latter. Martim is the hero. The legend runs thus: Martim finds himself lost in the woods, when suddenly he is in the presence of an Indian girl of the Tabayara race, enemy to that of the coast. The girl shoots an arrow which strikes Martim on the forehead, but, repenting immediately of her deed, she runs to him, dresses the wound, and conducts him to the cabin of her father, who is the chief of the tribe. Martim is treated by the chief with hospitality, and stays at his house a long time, acquires the fame of a great warrior, and falls in love with the girl, or rather she with him. The principal warrior of the tribe becomes enraged with him on that account, from being in love with the girl himself; he requires of the chief that Martim should be given over to his vengeance; Martim is discovered by his friend Poty and flees—the two being escorted by the Indian girl, who is named Iracema. Once outside her father's domains, she declares that she will not leave Martim. A war then ensues between the Tabayaras and Martim's friends, in which Iracema shows herself a heroine in saving Martim's life. Finally, Martim begins to grow cold toward Iracema from his longings to go back to his people; he absents himself for some time, and when he returns to Iracema he finds her languishing away; she has barely strength to lift her child up to Martim's arms, and then faints and dies.

The following, describing this tragic end, is perhaps the most touching passage in the poem:

“The Christian moved with uncertain steps. Suddenly, among the foliage of the trees, his eyes beheld, sitting at the door of the cabin, Iracema with her child at

her breast, and the dog playing at her side. His heart was filled, and his soul would start to his lips—Iracema! . . . The sad mother and spouse raised her eyes at hearing the beloved voice. With great effort, she succeeded in lifting her child in her arms and presenting it to its father, who contemplated it in an ecstasy of love. ‘Receive the son of thy blood. It is time; my ungrateful breasts have no longer nourishment to give him!’ Placing the child in the paternal arms, the unfortunate mother fainted as fades the jetyca when it is plucked. The husband then saw how grief had caused her beautiful body to fade; but still beauty was in her, just as the perfume in the flower fallen from the manacá. Iracema rose no more from the hammock in which the afflicted arms of Martim placed her. The loving husband, in whom affection had revived with the paternal joy, surrounded her with affectionate cares, which filled her soul with delight, but restored not life to her; her bloom had passed.

“‘Bury the remains of thy wife beside the cocoanut-tree which thou lovedst. When the breeze blows through its foliage, Iracema will think it is thy voice sounding in her hair.’

“The sweet lips were silent forever; the last glow took leave of the dim eyes.

“Poty held up his brother in his great sorrow.”

Alencár’s “Guarany” is another work in which the principal character is an Indian who shows great devotion and faithfulness to a young Portuguese woman, whom he treated as his mistress and for whom more than once he risked his life. Alencár tried to form in romance the same school which Gonçalves Dias wished to do in verse. Both created a kind of native style. In their works the principal characters are native Indians, and they occupy

themselves with their language, habits, and temperament. But neither of these two authors found followers, although their works are greatly appreciated.

Bernardo Guimarães was born in Ouro Preto, August 15, 1825. At four years of age his family removed to Uberaba, where he received his primary education. He also studied in Campo Bello and Ouro Preto. In 1842, during a revolution in Minas, he left school and enlisted as a soldier. A short time afterward he matriculated in the academy at São Paulo, where he mingled with Alvares de Azevedo, Aureliano Lessa, and others. He succeeded in taking his degree, and soon after tried the profession of teacher, which, however, he shortly abandoned. He then came to Rio and became a journalist, but he soon left this occupation, to return to Ouro Preto, where he afterward married his cousin, Dona Thereza Guimarães. Then he devoted himself, body and soul, to poetry and novels, entirely forgetful of his commonplace condition of bachelor of laws. He remained there till his death, which happened on March 10, 1884.

In São Paulo Guimarães acquired convivial habits, which, however, did not seem to affect his robust constitution, nor deprive him of the qualities which made him one of the most original poets and novelists of his country. His "Cantos da Solidão" are admired. His prose works are numerous; and the best is the "Ermitão de Muquem," which is written in three different styles: the first, a style peculiar to himself, describing the habits and life of the "Sertão" of Brazil; the second, a kind of lyric style; and, lastly, a style which the writer calls realistic. Among other works of his are the "Garimpeiro," the "Slave Isaura," and the "Seminarista." The story of the latter is more or less this: A young boy is brought up in

the companionship of a girl, who is god-child of his mother; this girl is poor and lives on his father's lands. The boy, named Eugenio, afterward falls in love with this girl, named Margarida; but his parents have destined him to be a priest, and oblige him to enter the seminary in spite of his unwillingness; at last he consents to being ordained, believing that his loved Margarida had married another, and also giving way to the religious impulses of his nature. Afterward he is called to administer, as a priest, the last unction to a dying woman. He discovers this woman to be his Margarida, and that the cause of her languishing was love for him to whom she had remained faithful; here he fights a great battle with his conscience, but finally falls; the consequence is, he considers himself a base and eternally lost man. The next day, having to celebrate mass for the first time before going up to the altar, he is called to perform the last funeral rites over the body of a woman lying in the church; this woman is Margarida. He performs the service, but afterward, ascending the altar, instead of celebrating the mass, he before the public begins to disrobe himself, tearing his clothes, and rushes out of the church a furious madman. The writer's object is to show the error of the Catholic Church in compelling her ministers to remain single; also how many virtuous men become corrupted by entering the ministry against their inclination.

Joaquim Manoel de Macedo was born June 24, 1820, at the village of Itaborahy, and died April 11, 1882. He was a man of great talent, and his writings in prose and verse are numerous. He distinguished himself, however, specially as a novelist, and as the founder of the Brazilian novel; abandoning the romantic style, he brings into his novels local color and the reality of the customs and

habits of Brazilian society. In 1844, the time in which he published his "Moreninha," the Brazilian novel was yet to be founded, and Macedo was proclaimed its founder. In his "Moreninha" he painted society as it really was. And Rio then was gay, and not mournful, as the poets would have it; it was full of faith, and not of distrustfulness, like to-day. Everybody could see his picture in this book; a universal acceptance of it followed as a natural consequence. Macedo graduated at the Faculty of Medicine of Rio de Janeiro; but seeing his success on the publication of the "Moreninha," he left his profession and gave himself up to the study of history, which was destined to furnish him elements for his historical novels, for his appointment as Professor of History in the College of Dom Pedro II, and for his admission into the Historical Institute of Brazil in 1845. Many works followed one after another, such as "Moço Loíro," published in 1845, "Dons Amores," in 1848, etc. From his success as a novelist Macedo tried his pen as a dramatist and was not less successful. He published two dramas in verse: "The Cégo" ("The Blind Man") in 1849, and "Cobé" in 1852, two inspired productions, particularly the latter. His comedy "Phantasma Branco," among many others, gained also the public applause. Macedo was now at the height of his literary fame; and here he began to write for the "Nação," a journal of the Liberal party. Whatever be the character of the political articles of Macedo, or any of his services in this field, the general opinion is that they are not worth the hundredth part of his purely literary works. Macedo's character was not fit for politics; as a proof, we have his "Victimas-algozes," in which his intention was to awaken compassion for slavery, but which produced the opposite effect, that of hatred. He was a

member of the Legislative Assembly of his province, was also deputy in the General Assembly, and declined to make part of the ministerial Cabinet of August 31, 1864. He was also the author of a "History of Brazil," for the use of the College of Dom Pedro II, also of the "Biographical Year," a work in four volumes. The style of his works of fiction is now rather out of date. His work, descriptive of Brazil, of which an imperfect English translation by Le Sage, entitled "Notions on the Chorography of Brazil," was published at Leipsic in 1873, is worthy of much commendation, particularly for its scope and purpose—there being generally a great lack of books of this character. It contains a summary of the history of Brazil, a description of its geography, resources, productions, and institutions, and a separate sketch of each province, and, although the student will often open it in vain for information which he desires, he will yet find in it enough to give it a value. Its great fault is that it abounds too much in glittering generalities. It is written in a flowing, poetic, and occasionally eloquent style, but is apt to deal in exaggeration when describing the natural resources of the country. The following about slavery gives a specimen of his metaphors: "In the country itself the complete extinction since 1852 of the criminal African slave-trade dried up the principal spring of an evil in every point of view more than shameless, and even fatal; and on the 28th of September, 1871, the law which emancipated the offspring of women slaves closed forever the second source of the tophet of slavery, ennobled Brazil by taking from her the slur cast on her as the country of slavery, and causing every cradle to be rocked by the sacred breeze of liberty."

He describes Antonio Carlos, one of the early public

men of São Paulo, as one "whose eloquence might be compared to a cataract, and his enthusiasm to a volcano."

The following is less extravagant than some of his descriptions: "The soil of Matto-Grosso is of wonderful fertility. . . . The sugar-cane, tobacco, cotton, and mandioc, the common cereals of the country, wheat, all esculents are so advantageously cultivated as to appear incredible. . . . No one plants rice, which only requires to be plucked by those who require it. . . . Matto-Grosso is an abyss of riches, the revelation of which will be splendid and dazzling in a future not far distant."

It may be of interest to name some of the distinguished orators of the pulpit. Rio de Janeiro is the birth-place of Souza Caldas, Francisco de São Carlos, Francisco Sampaio, and Francisco José de Carvalho, known as Frei Francisco de Monte-Alverne, a name given to him on entering the convent of São Antonio. Of these orators the greatest is Monte-Alverne, born in Rio, 1785. He entered the convent of São Antonio on June 28, 1801. On being sent to São Paulo, he was there ordained presbyter in 1808, preached in 1810, and was Professor of Arts in 1813. Returning to Rio with a confirmed reputation, he was appointed royal preacher in 1816, in 1824 secretary of the province of Rio. He became then Professor of Philosophy in the São José seminary. He was tall, strong, and muscular; would bend forward a little when walking, on account of his short-sightedness; his face was long, thin, pale, and severe; his voice was strong, flexible, deep, and somewhat harsh, which in him was not a defect, but rather augmented its energy and gave it a metallic vibration that would resound in the largest edifice. He spoke with emphasis, as one would who felt what he said, articulating every syllable, so that not one was lost. His ser-

mons are printed in three volumes, and are noted for their eloquence, their doctrine, elevation of thoughts, and sublime pictures. An eye-witness says that, on the occasion of the funeral of the first Empress of Brazil, Dona Leopoldina, when that tremendous voice of the orator was heard to pronounce, "God crushes against the walls of the tomb all these giants of earth!" the widower Emperor bent down his head and carried his hand to his eyes, and the courtiers present all looked up to the orator, astounded at his boldness. Twenty years before his death he was stricken with blindness, but even after this misfortune his sermons excited the admiration of those who had not heard him in his better days. He died on December 3, 1858, in São Domingo. His body was brought from São Domingo to Rio de Janerio in the imperial yacht, and transported from the shore to the convent of São Antonio in the court carriages, his funeral being at the expense of the Emperor. Monte-Alverne was also a poet; much of his sacred poetry is sung in the Protestant churches in the empire, and consists of beautiful verses.

Another clerical orator, who was also a poet, is Padre Antonio Pereira de Souza Caldas, born in Brazil, educated in Portugal, and receiving in Italy the finishing touches of his education. He is noted for his eloquence, for his original lyric poetry, but especially for his translation of the Psalms of David in Portuguese verse. For instance, the first psalm—

“Venturoso o que não vaga
 Pela estrada criminosa
 Da impiedade, e a voz dolosa
 Do malvado que extravaga,
 Com sorriso, não affaga,

Nem do vicio corruptor
Na cadina pestilente
Se assenton com cego ardor ;
Antes posta sempre a mente
Traz na lei do Creador ”—

of which there can be no better translation in English than that of the English Bible.

Among the names of distinguished journalists in Brazil may be mentioned the following, together with the papers for which they wrote : In the time of the Independence there figured as editors and writers to the “*Reverbero*” the following : *Januario da Cunha Barboza*, *Francisco Ledo*, and *Capitão Mór Justiniano José da Rocha*.

In 1831, *Evaristo da Veiga*, editor of the “*Aurora Fluminense*,” caused a great sensation.

Later on, about 1856, there appeared the “*Correio Mercantil*,” in which the principal writers were *Francisco Octaviano de Almeida Rosa*, *Visconde do Rio Branco*, and *José Martiniano de Alencár*. Of these three, *Octaviano* is still living and a senator. Later on appeared the “*Reforma*,” of which *Tavares Bastos* was editor. And prominent among the journalists of the present time is *Quintino Bocayuva*, editor of the “*Paiz*,” who was also editor of the “*Globo*” and the “*Republica*.”

As historians, may be named *Joaquin Manoel de Macedo*, already noticed ; *Francisco Adolpho Varnhagem*, known as *Viscount of Porto Seguro*, who wrote a history of Brazil and a defense of *Amerigo Vespucci* as the discoverer of America, a work well known to students of the voyages of the early navigators of the era of Columbus ; and *Innocencio F. da Silva*, who wrote a “*Diccionario Bibliographico*.”

Brazil has produced many poets, and some who are worthily popular in their country. Of these, the one who probably should be first mentioned, and who wrote at a time when Brazilian literature was scarcely distinct from that of the mother-country—Portugal—is Frei José de S. Rita Durão, author of the epic poem “Caramurú.” He was born in the province of Minas-Geraes at a place called Catta-preta, in the district of N. Senhora de Nazareth do Infeccionado, about sixteen miles to the north of Mariana. The date is uncertain, somewhere between 1718 and 1720. He died in the College of São Agostinho, in Lisbon, January 24, 1784. He was a member of the order of Agostinho, and doctor in theology by the University of Coimbra. He entered the order of Agostinho on October 12, 1738, and graduated in the year 1756. His education began in Brazil under the Jesuits, who then had founded good schools, and where José Basilio da Gama also was instructed. It is not known who were his parents, nor at what time he went to Europe. In 1758, shortly after he graduated, he was in Leiria, where he preached a beautiful sermon of thanksgiving, on account of the King, Dom José, having escaped from the shots fired at him on September 3d of the same year. He did not stay there long; leaving Portugal, he traversed Spain and Italy, spending about eighteen years on these travels. A Brazilian historian says that the cause of his leaving Portugal was his refuting certain letters of the Bishop of Leiria written against the Jesuits when their expulsion was decreed in Portugal. He was obliged to flee to Spain on this account. In Spain he was imprisoned on suspicion of being a spy, when the war of the family pact broke out there; being afterward set free in 1763, he went to Italy. In 1778 he was again in Portugal, when he became lecturer

at the University of Coimbra. After his return to Portugal he only lived about six years, in which he finished his poem, which was published in 1781. Its story is the discovery of Bahia, in the middle of the sixteenth century, by Diogo Alvares Corria, whom the Indians named "Caramurú," from his use of fire-arms; it comprehends in several episodes the history of Brazil, the rites and traditions of its natives, and the politics of the colonies. The argument is as follows: Diogo Alvares Corria suffered shipwreck near Bahia. He was saved with his six companions, who were devoured by the Indians, he alone being spared, because thin and ill, the savages intending to keep him until he should get better. They allowed him, in the mean while, to withdraw from the wreck powder, shot, and guns. Having killed a bird flying, in their presence, the savages pronounced him the sun of thunder, and Caramurú—that is, dragon of the sea. Fighting against the natives of the interior, he brought them into subjection. The chiefs of Brazil offered him their daughters as wives, but he chose Paraguaçu, whom he afterward took to France in a French ship, five other Brazilian women following him swimming, until one was drowned and the others returned. In France Paraguaçu was baptized as Catharine. Having returned with Paraguaçu to Bahia, he was received by the Tupinambás, who considered Paraguaçu as the heiress of their chief. On the voyage to Bahia the latter has a vision, in which is revealed to her the future lot of Brazil. About this time Thomé de Sousa arrives with some ships and families to people Bahia, whose colonization begins. Paraguaçu, or Catharine Alvares, renounces her rights in favor of Dom João III, who ordered his governors to honor Diogo Alvares for the services he had rendered, and

she was in fact the source of the noble house of Torre in Bahia.

The passage most generally quoted as the best is the episode of Moema, and of which the following is a translation :

“ She loses the brilliancy of her eyes, faints, and shudders, with pale, dying aspect ; her hands, already deprived of strength, letting go of the rudder, she sinks to the bottom of the foaming waves ; but, again rising from the depths of the angry sea, she utters with pain, ‘ O cruel Diogo ! ’ and was buried in the waters, to be seen no more ! ”

One of the best known of Brazilian poets is Antonio Gonçalves Dias, who was born August 10, 1823, at the town of Caxias, Maranhão. His father, who was a Portuguese, on his return from Portugal, whence he had fled on account of the war, put his boy into mercantile employment, but at the instance of some friends, who saw in him an inclination for letters, he was placed under Ricardo João Sabino, who taught him the rudiments of Latin and French. Having acquired the necessary foundation for higher studies, he set out with his father for São Luiz, capital of the province, and thence to Portugal, on account of his father's health. Having lost his father, however, he returned to Maranhão. His step-mother having afforded him the means to continue his studies, he returned to Portugal May 13, 1838, where he studied in the University of Coimbra. On account of a civil war which broke out in Maranhão, known by the name of “ Bolaiada,” his step-mother suffered losses, and suspended his monthly allowance ; at this misfortune he intended to return to Brazil, and would have done so, but for the kindness of his Brazilian college companions, who furnished

him the necessary means to continue. Gonçalves Dias, speaking of this time, says: "Sad was my life in Coimbra; it is a sad thing to live away from our native country, live in a stranger's house, and sit at a strange table as a favor! This table belonged to good and faithful friends, that is true! The bread was another's, it was the bread of charity, it was the lot of the mendicant!" Having succeeded at last in taking his degree as Bachelor in Juridical Sciences, he returned to Caxias in 1845, and there began the profession of advocate; but soon went to Rio, and in 1846 published his "Primeiros Cantos," which gained him much honor. He became instructor of Latin at a lyceum in Nietheroy. In 1847 he published his best drama, entitled "Leonor de Mendonça," and in the following year the "Sextilhas de Frei Antão." He became distinguished, and was appointed professor of Latin in the College of Dom Pedro II. In 1851 the Imperial Government detailed him to study and report on the state of public instruction in various northern provinces, and the best means of bettering its condition. On his return from the north (1852) he was appointed secretary in the Office of Foreign Affairs, and the same year married Dona Olympia da Costa. In 1855 he set out for Europe, employed by the Government, in order to study the best methods and the ones most applicable for Brazil in respect of public instruction. Beginning with Portugal, where he visited the cities of Lisbon, Oporto, Coimbra, and Evora, he traveled successively through France, England, and Germany, examining different establishments of education. In 1857 he printed his dictionary of the Tupy language, called the general tongue of the native Indians of Brazil; also the first four cantos of his celebrated "Tymbiras." On his return to Rio he was again sent out on a scientific

commission to explore and report on the resources of Brazil, and spent six months in the Amazon Valley, when his health broke down, and he returned to Rio. Deriving no benefit from his stay in Rio, he embarked for Europe, but still with no better result, until at last he resolved to return to his native land, making a long sea-voyage, from which he hoped to derive some benefit. He embarked September 14, 1864, on the ship *Ville de Boulogne*, bound for Maranhão, but he never again arrived on land; the ship was wrecked, and it is supposed that the crew, seeing him so ill, abandoned him, and left him to die on November 3, 1864. His chief works are the "Cantos," the "Tymbiras," and "Y-Juca-Pirama"—two poems on aboriginal subjects, both published in Leipsic. The first of the two is incomplete. Gonçalves Dias is, in the opinion of many, the best Brazilian lyric poet. The following are the first and last verses of one of his most popular poems:

"In my country there are palm-trees
Where sings the *sabiá*;
The birds which warble here
Are not like those afar.

"God forbid that I may die,
Before returning to my land;
Before I enjoy those scenes
Which here I can not find;
Without seeing again those palm-trees
Where sings the *sabiá*!"

A beautiful epic poem of his is his "Tymbiras," of which there are only four cantos, the rest being lost with him in the shipwreck. The hero of the poem is the chief

of the Indians Tymbiras, Itajuba; the scenes are placed in Maranhão, at the time of the colonization. In the four cantos existing only the Indians are spoken of, the civilized man taking no part in them. One of the notable episodes is that of Coema:

“‘Flower of beauty, light of love, Coema,’ murmured the singer, ‘where wentest thou, so sweet and beautiful, when the sun was rising? Coema, what love thou hast left in us! Thou wast so meek, thy smile so soft, so serene thine eyes! Thine accents a beautiful singing, thy voice sweet warbles, thy words honey! If the break of day would compare its enchantments with thine, it would really try in vain!’”

Another poet of earlier date was Domingos José Gonçalves Magalhães, who was born at Rio de Janeiro, August 13, 1811. His writings are much admired for their simplicity and their elevated moral tone. His chief work is the “Confederação dos Tamoyos,” a poem rich in inspirations, patriotism, and enthusiasm. He may be said to be the founder of the national theatre, being the first Brazilian to write a tragedy, and one whose subject concerns his native country. This tragedy was “Antonio José,” or the “Poeta e a Inquisição.” His name is to be seen among the founders of the Historical and Geographical Institute of Brazil, in which he published an historical memoir of high merit. The scene of “Confederação dos Tamoyos” lies at Rio de Janeiro, in the first times of Brazilian colonization: Three Portuguese attack an Indian girl and kill her brother who comes to her rescue, but at the same time they fall under the blows of this dying chief. Next the Tamoyos, to which tribe the Indian belonged, determine to take vengeance on the Portuguese. They hold a council of war, and then

march against the new village of São Vicente; the battle is described, then peace is made, marriages are celebrated, Indians are converted, and so on. The poem is divided into ten cantos and is in blank verse. I will quote a passage where Aimbrie, the chief of the Tamoyos, comes upon Pindobucú as he is burying his son Comorim, killed by the three Portuguese, and asks him when he is going to avenge his son, and, on being asked if he knew where the enemies lived, he says:

“Where are they? thou inquirest. Knowest not where are the ferocious Portuguese who rob us of our sons and women, and kill our parents, brothers, and friends? Thou knowest not where these ungrateful beings are, who take possession of our lands and persecute us, hunting us down and making us slaves? . . .”

Another esteemed poet of Brazil is Casimiro José, Marques de Abreu, born at the village of Barra de São João, province of Rio de Janeiro, January 4, 1837. His father was Portuguese, his mother Brazilian. At nine years of age he was sent to Freese, a school in Nova-Friburgo. Before finishing his preparatory studies he returned to Rio to his father's business office; but showing no inclination for business, he was sent to Lisbon, November 13, 1853, and stayed in Portugal nearly four years. There he published in literary papers some of his verses which were much applauded, also a drama entitled “Camoës e o Jáo.” Family interests, together with persuasions and orders from his father, caused his return to Rio, January 11, 1857. He died at his father's home in Indayassú, October 18, 1860. The Rio edition of his works contains, in all, seventy lyric pieces of different metres, and which in his preface he says are “flowers which the wind will scatter to-morrow, only serving as the promises

of the fruits of autumn." The following is the last verse of his song, "My Country":

"It is full of beauties, so full
 My native country is,
 Even a poet dreams not of them;
 Nor can a mortal sing them.
 It is a land of love
 Scattered over with flowers,
 Where the breeze in its murmurs
 Whispers, 'It has no rival.'"

Antonio Castro Alves was born March 14, 1847, at the farm of Cabaceiras, near Curalinho, in the district of Cachoeira, province of Bahia; his father was Dr. A. J. Alves, professor in the faculty of medicine of Bahia, and his mother, Dona Clelia B. da Sa. Castro. In the beginning of 1870 he collected his scattered verses and published them under the title of "Espumas Fluctuantes" ("Floating Foam"). It was not long before he fell a victim to pulmonary consumption, which carried him to his grave July 6, 1871. He left many manuscripts which have been published: "Gonzaga," a drama in four acts; the "Cachoeira de Paulo-Affonso"; a fragment of the poem "Os Escravos," which is incomplete; and others which are still unpublished. His best work is doubtless the "Cachoeira de Paulo-Affonso," composed of many short pieces of different metres, and of which the following is an extract:

"I sinned! . . . Great was my crime, but greater still is my punishment. . . . Ah! the bitterness of the nights without shelter was not sufficient; all that I suffered from the whip and the torture which lacerated my flesh did not suffice. More pains were necessary, still a greater

sacrifice. . . . Son! thou seest my torture. . . . I am to be separated from thee! . . .”

A poet of considerable merit, but of whom no biography is to be found, was Fagundes Varella. He died a few years ago, and is the author of “Auchieta,” a poem in blank verse; the “Diario de Lazaro”; “Vozes d’America,” a collection of verses; and “Cantos Meridionaes.” Among his writings should be mentioned with special notice his “Cantico do Calvario,” a poem in blank verse, written on the occasion of the death of a son.

Among the poetical writers who are yet living are Alberto de Oliveira, author of the “Meridionaes,” a collection of poems, of which the best are thought to be “Labor das Lagrimas” and the “Leque”; Raymundo Corrêa, author of the “Symphonias,” and of which the best are “Plena Nudez,” “Sanctas Esmolas,” and “As Pombas”; Valentim Magalhães, author of a poem, “Colombo e Nêê,” a work of some literary value; Luiz Guimaraes, Jr., author of the “Sonetos e Rimas,” “Nocturnas,” “Curvas e Zigzags,” etc.; and, lastly, Machado de Assis, a poet also, but known especially as a writer of short stories. He has written several books of stories and verses in a style very peculiar to himself. Of his books of stories may be mentioned one entitled “Historias sem Datas,” and as one of the best stories, “Miss Dollar.”

The periodical literature of Brazil comprises now only about two reviews, the principal one of which is the quarterly review published by the Historical, Geographical, and Ethnological Institute of Brazil—“Revista Trimesal do Instituto Historico Geographico e Ethnographico do Brazil,” published at Rio, and of which the last number, comprising parts one and two, 1884, is forty-seven. It is a large, well-printed octavo volume of over eight hundred

pages, and is filled principally with historical documents. The "Law Review," also published at Rio, monthly, entitled "O Direito Revista Mensal de Legislação, Doutrina e Jurisprudencia," is filled principally with juridical decisions and opinions. The latest number is over a year behind. A literary review had an existence of about three years, and ceased a few years ago.

The daily newspaper press is fairly represented. In Rio Janeiro the principal newspaper is the "Jornal do Commercio," established in 1827, daily circulation now twenty thousand, is printed on a modern French press, on roll paper, at the rate of ten thousand an hour. It goes to press from 3 to 4 A. M. Four thousand copies of this paper leave Rio every morning for the province of São Paulo. The "Gazeta de Noticias," established in 1876, is printed on a similar press as the last named, and goes to press from 2 to 3 A. M. The "Paiz," established in 1884, goes to press at midnight. These probably have each a smaller circulation than the "Jornal do Commercio." There is one small evening paper, "Gazeta a Tarde," its specialty being the cause of the abolition of slavery.

The press enjoys the greatest liberty. Public measures and public men are discussed with entire freedom, but without much personal abuse. The highest officers of the Government are caricatured in illustrated papers with as much latitude as in the United States. As compared with English and American journals, the Brazilian press would seem very unenterprising in respect to news. But political and social questions are often treated in an eloquent manner. The "Jornal" publishes in full all the debates of the Senate and Chamber of Deputies, and all those of the Provincial Legislature and of the Muni-

cial Chamber, so that there are but few weeks in the year that the reader is not first greeted every morning, on taking up the great barn-door sheet, with a couple of broadsides, more or less, of speeches. An important source of income of the journal in question is the publication of anonymous communications on nearly any subject, public or personal, for pay. Anybody can bring his views before the public in this way, by paying for the publication of his article.

As a rule, all the newspapers publish novels as *feuilletons* at the bottom part by daily short chapters. The circulation appears to be, in a very great degree, through the newsboys. The Brazilian "Punch," or paper of humor, is an eight-paged illustrated periodical of quarto size, entitled "Revista Illustrada," published at Rio, and now in its ninth year of publication. Perhaps a good sample number would be that issued about the time of the crisis in the Dantas ministry, on account of the slavery question. On the first page is a striking illustration entitled "A Medical Conference." Brazil, personified as an Indian maiden, lies sick, bolstered up in bed, and covered with the bedclothes nearly to her bosom, which, like her arms, is bare. On one side, near the head of the couch, sits the Emperor in a deeply meditative mood, his legs crossed, and his chin resting in his left hand. On the opposite side of the couch is a group of Brazilian statesmen, readily distinguishable by their portraits, in the center of which is Senator Dantas, the prime minister, holding in his right hand a bottle of medicine labeled with his project of emancipation. On his right are represented Senators Affonso Celso and Christiano Ottoni, and on his left Senators Sinimbú, Martinho Campos, Cotigipe, Paulino, and João Alfredo. The chief medical

officer (Senator Dantas): "We all agree that the patient suffers from acute abolition. Well, I think that with this remedy of mine she will soon recover. If my colleagues of the Senate think otherwise, let them express their opinions, and we will discuss what are the best means of saving the country. If any one has a more effective remedy, let him present it." Affonso Celso (aside): "You will not catch us! That is our secret." Christiano Ottoni: "What they want is to take charge of the patient without responsibility. What fine doctors!" "And what will the nurse" (the Emperor) "of the patient say?"

Another illustration represents the figure of a female lying under a tree in the desert, with this text: "All who have seen the 'Africana' of Meyerbeer know how Selika died. Poor thing!"

This is followed by an illustration of an Indian female lying under a big tree; the carriage of a minister of state passing near; and below, this text: "Brazil, sleeping under the shade of the *mortifera mancenilha*, runs equally great risk. Numerous governments passed indifferent during long years."

The whole of the last page is devoted to the "Carriage of State conducted by the Conservatives." A figure representing the Emperor sits bareheaded on the back seat, reading a book; opposite, facing him, sits Brazil, still personified as an Indian maiden. On the top is a slave family. The driver's seat is occupied by the chief of the Conservative party, Baron Cotigipe, whose team is a big turtle and a crab; the reins which he holds are fastened to the turtle's mouth, and he is bending forward to apply the lash. A prominent Conservative senator is riding the crab, which is turning off at right angles from the turtle. Senator Teixeira is pushing at one of the

wheels. A yoke of oxen are hitched behind, with heads toward the carriage, to prevent it from going too fast; and, to retard the motion still more, Senator Junqueira is represented as pulling back on the hind wheel; while Senator Paulino, facing to the rear, appears to be holding back strongly by means of the oxen's tails, the ends of which he holds firmly over his shoulder. Senator Correia is standing up behind the carriage, making a speech.

CHAPTER XV.

AGRICULTURE AND STOCK-RAISING.

BRAZIL is pre-eminently an agricultural country, yet its agriculture differs from that of the United States and Europe as much in its methods as in its products. The surface of the land is so abruptly broken that it does not generally admit of the use of the plow and the more modern implements, and yet there are important areas where these implements could be used to advantage, and there is some increase in their introduction. As a rule, the hoe is the main implement for field-culture. As the soil in Brazil, especially in the coffee regions, is a firm, red clay, mixed with gravel, the hoe necessarily is about twice as heavy and large as the field-hoe in common use in the United States. It often takes the place of a grub-hoe. I have seen a platoon of hands in one rank moving over a field of low bushes, which they were leveling with the hoe and apparently breaking the soil at the same time. The cheapest ones, say those of iron, and weighing two and a half pounds, range in price from three dollars and eighty-nine cents per dozen upward. They are imported in barrels of ten dozen in a barrel, principally from England, and six hundred thousand hoes are imported and disposed of at Rio annually. The upper half of the hoe

is generally painted in green or some other fancy color, and I have seen samples at coffee exhibitions that were even gilded. Another implement in considerable use is a sort of knife about as long and heavy as a cleaver, curved at the end, fastened to a long wooden handle, and in planting is used both to open the soil and cover the seed.

A Portuguese, who at the latter part of the last century wrote on the agriculture of Brazil, represented that the Indians in planting corn used a stick, the end of which had been burned and sharp pointed, to open the ground for the seed and to cover it. He shows that the destruction of the timber in order to plant was the same then as now, that the system of the white people was scarcely better than that of the natives, and he eloquently laments such waste of timber, as well as the lack on the part of the settlers of the use of the plow. Probably less than two thousand plows, and all imported, are sold at Rio in the course of a year. A good breaking-plow retails at from twenty to thirty dollars, and a common plow, such as would be used with one yoke of oxen, at ten to twelve dollars each. The latter sort of plow appears to have the preference, as one yoke of oxen is the most convenient team for its use. The Government discriminates in favor of agricultural implements, and the transportation of them on Government railroads is cheap.

Coffee is the leading crop, and, though grown principally in the three large provinces near Rio, is raised successfully in every province except perhaps the two most southerly ones. Its production is increasing very considerably, especially in the province of São Paulo, in the vicinity of new lines of railway and newly opened lines of river navigation. Take the whole country together, and the coffee-crop is destined to have a greatly increased

development. Sugar-cane, cotton, maize, tobacco, and upland rice are readily grown in every province. While many of the coffee-plantations are kept very clean and have a beautiful appearance, both from their great extent and the mingled colors of the soil and plant, yet ordinarily agriculture presents a shiftless appearance. The smaller crops, like maize, are planted on patches from which bushes or timber have been recently about half cut and half burned off, and the soil of which has never felt the plow. The coffee tree or bush varies from eight to twelve feet in height, according to age and richness of soil, and is one of the most beautiful of productive plants. Its stem is two to three inches in diameter, and of a drab color. Its foliage is abundant, and of a rich dark-green color, the leaves being enameled on the upper side, possessing a graceful, tapering form, about five inches in length and two inches in width at the widest part. Its abundant blossoms are of a delicate white color, and a single one resembles in shape and size a separate lilac-flower.

The berry grows on slender branches with scarcely any more stem than that of an acorn, and, when ready for gathering, has a brownish-red color. Picture to yourself plump, fully ripe, and finely colored cranberries or cherries strung upon long twigs amid the foliage I have mentioned, and you will have a fair idea of how a coffee-tree looks when its fruit is ready to pick. At this time the berry, on being held between the thumb and finger, is firm to the touch. On cutting it open, the skin appears tougher than the toughest grape-skin. A rather thin coating of juicy, sweet, and not unpleasant pulp is found to surround the two coffee-beans within, and which are inclosed each in its separate husk or shell. As a single

tree will sometimes have a bushel or two of such fruit, one can imagine that thousands of them together will present a handsome appearance; all the more beautiful, indeed, from the thought that their product constitutes one of man's chief luxuries.

Coffee is principally grown by slave labor on large plantations, situated on sides of high hills and even upon mountains, often quite steep; such land being preferred because it is richer, and because, being elevated, it is safer from frost. In recent years the total yield has reached the immense quantity of about six million bags, or say fully seven hundred million pounds each year, being sufficient to supply each inhabitant of the United States with twelve pounds! The actual export of coffee from Brazil to the United States has amounted in the latest years to about four hundred million pounds a year.

I have lately seen most luxuriant coffee-plantations on purple clay soil of great depth, which, without manuring, has constantly produced either sugar-cane or coffee for forty years, and which seems inexhaustible. For land of that quality yet in an unimproved and wild condition, and situated near a railroad, and upward of a hundred miles from a seaport, seventy dollars an acre would be asked. There are, however, wild tracts of similar coffee-land now covered with timber, situated a hundred miles or more from some of the present railway terminations in the province of São Paulo, which could be bought at about ten dollars an acre, but which, from the expense of transportation, are not now available for cultivation. Now would probably be a good time to settle on them and "grow up with the country," as, after the railroads reach them, they will be very desirable for plantations, provided

always that the rates of transportation are not too excessive.

It does not pay to cultivate less than about twelve thousand trees, which would require thirty-six acres of land. A faithful man with a pair of mules and a plow could keep such a plantation clean, and could besides raise corn, rice, and beans enough for his household and animals. It is usual to raise these other crops between the rows of coffee-trees till the latter are in bearing condition. The coffee-tree sometimes begins to yield at the age of three years. It flowers in August and September (a second flowering in November and December, and sometimes a third one in January, also have some yield), and developing slowly ripens in April and May, and begins to come to the market in June. A crop year, therefore, dates from the 1st of July in each year and lasts until June 30th of the next year. It is gathered by stripping it by hand from the branches, and often with haste and carelessness, taking the leaves with it. While some gather it into baskets hung around their necks, others simply let it fall upon the ground, a practice very different from the system in Java, where the coffee-berries are carefully picked one by one and deposited in a dish or basket. There, under Dutch administration, one family will cultivate five hundred trees, while in Brazil a single hand in the province of Rio de Janeiro cultivates from three to seven thousand trees. Besides, in Brazil a great deal of coffee is picked before it is ripe. It is also injured sometimes by being left too long a time on the ground after it has been picked.

The average yield per year in the province of Rio de Janeiro is three fourths of a pound per tree; in the province of Minas-Geraes a little more; in the province of São

Paulo a pound and a half per tree, while in the vicinity of Campinas, a very fertile coffee-producing region in the same province, the average yield is almost two pounds per tree, or say fourteen and a half bags of one hundred and thirty-two pounds each per one thousand trees.

The coffee-tree is very sensitive. The injuries it is liable to are from frost, hail, excessive sunshine, which shrivels the fruit when green and tender; depredations by a small butterfly, which deposits its eggs on the leaves; but most of all an ant, which is half an inch in length, and which undermines the tree. The larger plantations annually expend a thousand dollars and upward, each, for bisulphide of carbon to destroy these ants. Usually coffee is hulled or thrashed—mechanically—after it is ripe and dry. The machinery for cleaning coffee and putting it in its most attractive condition for the market is expensive, and on the large plantations, which are occasionally found equipped with enterprise, sometimes costs from fifteen to thirty thousand dollars; and the machinery necessary for cleaning the crop of a small farm could hardly be procured for less than three thousand dollars. Many immigrant coffee-farmers are consequently obliged to send their coffee to market in a crude condition, and to submit to a heavy deduction in price on that account. In other localities they can “go to mill” with their crude coffee, and get it hulled at about half a cent per pound.

A great improvement in the process of hulling coffee has been introduced through the machinery invented and manufactured by Mr. William Van Vleck Lidgerwood, of Morristown, N. J., who has devoted many years to the work, and achieved great success. His machinery is acknowledged in Brazil to have caused an important saving, not only of labor but of life. The title of *commanda-*

dor, conferred upon him by the Brazilian Government, was certainly a very slight recognition of the great service he has rendered to the industry of the country. From the plantation coffee is taken in coarse and often patched sacks, which bear the planter's name, and are afterward returned to him, on mules or in squeaking wooden-wheeled ox-carts to the nearest railway-station, whence it is carried by railway at very high rates of transportation to the seaport. Arrived at the market, the first quantities say in June or July, it has before shipment to go through several hands, each taking a liberal profit: First, into the hands of the planter's agent, generally the creditor of the planter, and whom he charges from six to twelve per cent interest for loans. The agent sells the coffee to the "dealer," and charges the planter three per cent of the price for his services. The dealer manipulates the coffee, mixing different sorts together, and puts it into bags. He sells to the exporter through a broker, who receives fifty reis (at present about two cents) from the dealer, and a like amount from the exporter, on each bag. The broker's charge has by law been reduced to one fifth per cent of the value of the coffee, but as yet the regulation is not complied with. Besides these several charges, there are heavy expenses for cartage. After the coffee arrives at Rio, it is conveyed from the railway-station to the agent's store; afterward to the dealer's store, and thence to the docks or place of shipment, being transported each time through narrow streets by mule-power, in some cases by tramway, and handled by costly labor. In all the various cartages from the time it leaves the plantation there is considerable wastage.

Owing to the large production, and the medium quality of the coffee, its price during the past two or three years

has been unusually low, varying from six to twelve cents per pound. It had not been so cheap before since the year 1857. It gradually rose after that year to be worth seventeen cents a pound for "good first" in 1864, then declined, and remained for several years at about eleven cents per pound, after which it rose to seventeen cents in 1871-'72, and to twenty-three cents in 1873-'74—a period when the crop was light.

A firm in New York, which had received from Rio some coffee which had been artificially colored, sent back word to the exporter: "Don't paint any more coffee; we can paint better here." When the time comes that coffee shall be cultivated by intelligent labor, it will be twice as good as it now is. Thus, we all have an interest in the progress and improvement of Brazilian industry.

Indian corn, or maize, is grown successfully in all parts of the country, and forms one of the principal crops. None, however, appears to be exported; on the contrary, on account of the expense of bringing it from the interior, the principal seaports have been compelled to import some of their supply from abroad. In recent years the importation from the River Plate to Rio has averaged about one hundred and fifteen thousand sacks per year, at say two dollars per sack.

The Brazilian maize is generally the yellow sort, of medium-sized kernel, and is produced the most extensively in the provinces of Minas-Geraes and São Paulo, both adjoining the province of Rio de Janeiro. It is planted by hand in the months of September and October, and is usually hoed twice. A common way of doing on new lands is to first cut the underbrush, burn it, and thereby kill the timber, and afterward plant the ground with corn, the yield being about forty bushels to the acre. The

next, or a second season afterward, a new piece of timber may be treated in the same way. Naturally there is some outcry against such a devastating system, but it avails little. However, a few farmers are beginning to manure the soil. A farm with good running water, and fair soil, may be surely remunerative in raising corn and hogs.

The richest sugar-producing district of Brazil lies on the eastern border of the province of Pernambuco, where it has been under cultivation two hundred and fifty years. It is linked in history with hard-fought wars between the Portuguese settlers—who were finally conquerors of the country—and the natives, the French, and the Dutch, and still shows some traces of a quarter of a century of Dutch government, and especially of the administration of that able statesman, Prince Maurice of Nassau. The Dutch occupied an important part of Brazil, including Pernambuco, thirty-seven years, from 1624 to 1661, and then, through the influence of England and France, were made to yield it up to Portugal. It would have been better for the rest of Brazil, probably, if so thrifty a nationality had remained as a near neighbor.

The cultivation of cane by the American colony in the province of São Paulo, three hundred miles southwest of Rio, is in this manner: new land is broken by the plow; joints of cane are laid lengthwise in the furrow, either in January, February, or March, and covered. It requires thirteen months for the crop to mature. A second crop will spring up and mature from the root nearly as good as the first, and sometimes a third crop. Planted in January, it is generally a foot or two out of the ground in May. A field of cane should be kept free from weeds, and needs to be hoed or worked with the cultivator four

times. It is usually cut in May, June, and July. Where the plow is used, farmers cultivate six or seven acres to the hand, and subsistence crops—corn, beans, etc.—enough to sustain the farm. Mules are used in plowing, and oxen invariably with carts for transportation. Labor, and very unreliable, costs forty cents per day for about ten hours' work, by one hand, or about ten dollars a month, food included. Much of the cane is used for making spirits, and the necessary outfit with machinery for profitably cultivating fifty acres of cane continuously will cost about twelve thousand dollars. Some of the accidents the cane-crop is liable to are, frost when it is tender, and fire when it is ripe. Medium land, with some light timber, in the vicinity of the American colony, can be bought at three dollars an acre. There are plantations in the far interior which have come down intact through several generations, and which, although embracing an area of fifty or more square miles, produce only meager surplus products. A little maize, sugar, and rum will be about all there will be to sell. Such of the cane-juice as can not be conveniently made into sugar will be put into a vat, and, after fermenting, will be distilled into rum; and this frequently forms the most remunerative part of the crop. Often as any way it will be carried to market, thirty miles or more, in small dug-out kegs, slung over the backs of mules. On these plantations the plow has never yet been seen.

What are called the central sugar-mills have small iron railways extending five or six miles in different directions over the cane-growing land, and they pay two dollars and a half to three dollars per ton of cane delivered on the cars. The industry is remunerative. There are some splendid sugar estates in the vicinity of the city of Campos, province of Rio de Janeiro. Brazil's export of sugar

averages about five hundred million pounds a year, of the value of fourteen million dollars.

The poetry of hay-making under the Southern Cross will have to wait till some future age, perhaps till Nature in her throes has elevated the Amazon plains. In a country where there is grazing the year round, hay can not be expected to figure largely as a crop. Still, there is a demand for it in the cities, and the supply called *alfalfa* comes from the River Plate. American sailing-vessels sometimes bring cargoes of it in bales from that region to Rio, where it is worth thirty dollars and upward a ton; but its fiber is coarse and it is inferior to good timothy. Some forty thousand bales of hay are annually imported at Rio from the River Plate, and occasionally a few bales come from Lisbon. The kinds of grass which flourish naturally in Brazil are the creeping ginger-grass, the most common for cattle, called in Portuguese *capim gengibre rasteiro*, and the botanical name of which is *Paspalum pastorm*; and the honey-grass, called *capim melado*, and the botanical name of which is *Melinis glutinosa*. The latter springs up spontaneously after land has been cleared of timber. It is quite fragrant, a little sticky when handled, and good in fattening cattle, but rather weakening for working animals. When fully grown, say in June, it is nearly two feet high, and has a reddish top like the American red-top grass; patches and sides of hills and mountains covered with it in June have a red appearance. There is also a garden grass used for lawns and borders, which has a wide but tender blade.

Cotton is another leading crop of Brazil, and may be grown in every province. The annual export amounts to some thirty million pounds, of the value of two million dollars. The cotton-growing districts have fewer marks

of wealth than are found in the sugar districts. In growing cotton, in the province of São Paulo, for example, it is usual to begin in July or August to clear the land and burn the brush; then, after a rain, to plow—if in a locality where the plow is used—or break the land with the hoe. In September or October manure is sometimes scattered in furrows four or five feet apart; afterward the furrow is reopened by the plow and the seeds are dropped in it by hand and covered very lightly with the plow or harrow. The cotton comes up in about a week, and two or three weeks afterward is plowed and hoed, and thence on is plowed and hoed every two or three weeks until the latter part of January, in which month it is generally in blossom. The picking commences about March, and the whole field is picked over once in fifteen or twenty days, until the crop is wholly gathered, which may be in June or July. It is common to plant from ten to twelve acres to the hand, in addition to enough small crops for the home subsistence. At picking-time the working force is frequently doubled, and the price of labor is twelve to fifteen cents for picking thirty-three pounds. The cotton is put up in bales of one hundred and thirty-two pounds, and the average yield is two and a half bales per acre. The gross return per acre is about thirty-two dollars. The cotton-plant is liable to damages from ants and caterpillars. The latter are killed with Paris-green, which, however, itself injures the plant very much. Attacks by the ants have to be watched and guarded against from the time the plant is up till it is fully grown. The common way of destroying them is by pouring bisulphide of carbon into their nests. Cotton is sometimes cut and the old root left to sprout and bear another crop, but the practice is not followed by the best farmers, as in-

creased labor is required for cultivation, and it does not in any case yield more than an inferior crop.

An important substitute for the potato, especially among people of African descent, is the mandioca, a vegetable indigenous to the country, and found cultivated by the natives on the arrival of the first Europeans. Like the potato, it grows beneath the soil, and is shaped somewhat like a long sweet-potato, though more on the root order, and has a skin darker and thicker. The stalk is taller and stiffer than that of the common potato, and a field of it has a bluish-green color. Of the two sorts in use, one is cooked like the potato, but has a firmer and more nutty consistency and flavor. The other sort has a poisonous quality in its green state, but after a peculiar process of fermentation is made into a coarse meal, the *farinha* of Brazil, which is eaten commonly by laborers in its raw state, mixed with a fatty gravy, and by people in general after a brief cooking in butter. A dish of dry *farinha* is on every Brazilian table, and is eaten habitually mixed with stewed black beans. Some quantities of mandioca-meal have also been exported to Europe to be manufactured into tapioca. The value of the export amounts to some three hundred thousand dollars a year. About twenty million pounds of the meal are annually received at the port of Rio.

Rice is cultivated all over the country, but principally as an upland crop. It is habitually used cooked in a little fat and with small bits of tomato. Not enough is raised for home consumption. Five million pounds of rice of domestic growth are annually received at Rio. Beans, and especially black beans, which form the common subsistence, are often grown as a separate crop, and are also frequently planted in the corn-hills at the last hoeing, and

mature in three months. Twenty-five million pounds of beans of domestic growth are received at Rio in the course of a year.

Another of Brazil's important crops is tobacco, which is grown throughout the empire, though the principal tobacco-producing province is Bahia. Comparing the minute description given by Antonil at the beginning of the eighteenth century with the processes employed on the great majority of the tobacco-plantations to-day, it will be seen that little advance has been made. The annual export is fifty million pounds, of the value of from three to four million dollars. The export tax on tobacco in Bahia, national and provincial together, amounts to eighteen per cent.

The organizations for the promotion of agriculture are scarcely worth notice. There is no European country, except Turkey, so behindhand in such matters. A thin agricultural monthly magazine is published at Rio, but it does not as yet impart much information on the subject of agriculture.

The average wages of a free working-man at agricultural work, and in contracts for five months, are a milreis—thirty-six cents—a day, with board and lodging. At such wages he is expected to do all the work of cultivating three thousand coffee-trees, and of gathering and taking care of the crop; or, what is equivalent, to cultivate three and a half acres of cane, yielding from sixteen hundred to six thousand four hundred pounds of sugar, worth six dollars per hundred pounds. He would not be able to cut all of the cane grown on three and a half acres, as it has to be cut in a short time, but he would do his part of the cutting. Besides, he would, in cultivating other products, like maize, beans, and vegetables, and in tending

stock, raise the provisions necessary for the subsistence of himself and family.

The means of diversion and recreation among this class are limited. Perhaps one free agricultural working-man in every ten—say in the province of São Paulo, which is one of the most advanced—can read; but among women the number that can read is less. On Sundays and holidays the men visit the neighboring village or town, where sometimes there is a horse-race. Once in a while an ordinary circus comes round, which they attend. In a community of small farmers, when on a holiday a number are assembled socially, pitching quoits is not an uncommon amusement. On such occasions, the women present, young and old, will sit looking on, smoking tobacco in pipes, a habit which is very common among women in the rural districts. Fishing with the rod is a common diversion of both sexes. At weddings, baptisms, and christenings, when a large party of relatives and friends are assembled, there is dancing on the earth floor of the dwelling, when for music some of the men play a monotonous strain on the banjo, the violin also being sometimes used, and the women accompanying on the castanet and tambourine. Thrashing “bees” of both sexes are frequent, when the people tread out the beans and rice with their feet. In some localities these gatherings afford almost the only opportunity which the young women have to display their good dresses, of which they sometimes bring a trunkful, and thus in the course of the dance, through the night, appear in different gowns.

In these communities the subsistence consists of mandioca-meal, stewed black beans, chickens, which are usually very abundant, pork, rice, sweet-potatoes, and yams. Coffee, which is freshly roasted every two or three days, is

served frequently during the day, and always, among rich and poor, when a visitor comes in. It is served in small cups, without milk, and is sweetened with home-made sugar. Water is always kept ready to boil, in order to prepare coffee at short notice. Women, as well as men, occasionally take a glass of the rum of the country (which smells much better than it tastes), but the former scarcely ever, and the latter seldom, drink to great excess. Women go to confession once a year. As bearing on this usage, I may state that a perfectly authentic case has been related to me of flagrant breach of confidence on the part of a priest, though probably unintentional. In many of the rural communities women seem to do more work than the men. Besides labor in the house, they carry meals, often a great distance, to the men in the fields, and come home lugging wood. Not unfrequently, in the more remote regions, men beat their wives, and the happiest couples in such cases are those who are not legally married, and who live together but a short time. The walls and roofs of the dwellings of these people are often in an unfinished state; but "when it rains, the man can't do the work; when it don't rain, the work is unnecessary."

Stock-raising is one of the most interesting pursuits in Brazil, and is largely carried on in the south border province of Rio Grande do Sul, which is estimated to contain ten million head of cattle. The American vice-consul there, Mr. William A. Preller, states that the industry is almost wholly in the hands of the natives. It is very difficult for strangers to acquire suitable lands, they being transmitted to heirs and frequently allotted as marriage portions. The owner of a good piece of herding-land will make almost any sacrifice to purchase any adjoining lot that may be for sale, rather than let it go into strange

hands ; and ready cash is commonly scarce with holders of leagues of breeding-land and hundreds of cattle.

The *estanceiro*, as the larger cattle-raiser is called, "little acquainted with the luxuries of town-life, lives almost in primitive simplicity, and with an abundance of meat, yerba-maté tea, and mandioca-flour, for himself, family, and servants; a good stock of plate and jewelry in his house, good horses, with rich trappings for himself, and an occasional game of cards with his neighbors, he leads a lazy and easy life, suitable to the temperament of the genuine Brazilian."

The value of land varies in proportion to the quality of the pasture, water-supply, and situation, say from ten to thirty thousand dollars for a tract of three thousand braças square, which would be a tract over four miles square, or over ten thousand acres. Stock cattle, mostly cows and yearlings, with a few bulls, sell at from five to six dollars, one with the other, but, for butchery consumption, twelve to thirteen dollars is the current price for good selection. It is in part from the hides of these cattle that the Americans get their leather. The sale is often made on the raising-ground, but not infrequently the cattle are sent in a herd of from three to five hundred head for public sale at Pelotas, the center of the *saladeros*, and where the slaughter amounts to two hundred and sixty thousand head a year. The breed is principally the long-horned cattle originally brought from Spain and Portugal, and of large size. Some of the cows, which are large and have long horns, yield a good quantity of milk. One of these cows, of the breed called Caragua, native of the province of Paraná, of which I had a photograph taken at Piracicaba, measured four feet five inches in height, eight feet two inches length

of body, and four feet seven inches between tips of horns. Age, nine years.

Mr. Preller states that the means of transportation are very inferior, though gradually improving, as several bridges have been constructed over the rivers, which, from streamlets easily waded in the summer, become, during the winter months, or after heavy rains, most violent torrents, and quite impracticable for the passage of cattle or wagons, causing often a delay of many days. The roads, he says, have no claim whatever to the name, and are merely the tracks made by the ox-carts and hoofs of passing cattle driven in to the *saladeros* for slaughter. If the transport, which remains to be seen, can be made by railway, the cattle will then be brought to market in fewer hours than days now actually necessary; and in good condition, instead of worn and diminished in number through casualties on the road, caused by drought, insufficient nourishment, and passage of flooded rivers, to say nothing of the tribe of drivers and horses indispensable for the safe driving.

In regard to fruit-culture in Brazil, I would state that neither olives, figs, nor lemons are grown for commercial purposes. Figs are grown, and are occasionally seen fresh in the market. The lemons are small, and have a green skin. Grape-culture appears as yet to be in its infancy, though German and other colonists are giving increased attention to it. Grapes are successfully grown in the interior at an elevation of two thousand feet, as well as on the warmer lowland of the coast. The best results are obtained on sloping ground with gravelly soil. At Rio, Isabella grapes of domestic growth retail at twenty to forty cents a pound. Oranges grow in all parts of the empire, but it is only in the vicinity of Rio and Bahia

that really good ones are produced. Large quantities are consumed in the country, and a few million are exported in bulk to the neighboring countries, Uruguay and the Argentine Republic.

As Pernambuco is distinguished for its good pine-apples, so is Bahia—about midway between that port and Rio—distinguished for its large, sweet, and delicious oranges, the favorite variety being the Umbigo, which is without seeds. It begins to ripen about May and lasts till September. I succeeded in bringing some of these oranges in a good condition from Bahia to the United States. Sweet and excellent oranges are also produced extensively in the vicinity of Rio, though there is a tendency to crowd them on the market before they are fully ripe. The old Brazilians say that oranges are not fit to eat till the month of August. The more common kind is the Siletta, which when ripe has a sweet and delicate flavor not much inferior to the finest Florida oranges. It also has the size and form of a good Florida orange. When ripe the skin has a tinge of green mixed with yellow. These Siletas, when they first appear in the market, say in the month of April, are retailed at eight cents each, while during the month of June or July they can be had at a cent each. This variety is the orange of commerce, and of which, as I have said, large quantities are exported in bulk to the River Plate countries. The price paid for them at the orchard in June, say at Villa Nova, an easy day's carriage from Rio, partly by water, is two dollars per thousand.

Another variety, and which is much used for the table, is the Tangerina; it is smaller than the Siletta, has an orange-yellow skin that breaks easily in peeling, and an aromatic odor; it contains many seeds, and has some-

what of a strawberry flavor and color. It ripens at the same time as the Siletta. Another good variety is the Natal, which is particularly valuable for its ripening about the time of Christmas.

There is not much information of value to communicate in respect of cultivation. There is none of that enthusiasm in orange-growing in Brazil that there is in Florida. One sees orange-trees in almost every garden, but many of them bear only natural and worthless fruit. Generally orange-orchards which yield fruit for the market are situated on low and somewhat sandy land, the selection being influenced by the facilities of water transportation. The young trees are planted in the months of April and May, though sometimes they are planted in March; also in February, if the latter month be rainy. In the following August the trees are budded, provided, as is usually the case, they have got a good start. The trees are planted about fifteen feet apart; begin to bear in five or six years, yielding twenty to thirty oranges each, and then continue to increase for ten years after, when they are in full bearing and produce from two to three hundred oranges per tree. They continue fruitful thirty years or more, according to cultivation. In the most favorable circumstances a tree will produce one thousand oranges in a year. Trees fully grown are pruned a little twice a year.

The oranges are gathered by knocking them from the limbs with a pole, so that a piece of the twig two or three inches in length adheres to them, and are allowed to lie on the ground a few hours to dry before being picked up. One man will knock off and gather about three thousand oranges per day, at wages of one milreis per day, and his meals. It costs about sixty to eighty dollars a year for

the labor to cultivate and take care of one thousand trees. Different crops are sometimes raised between the trees when they are young. Oranges are liable to attack and injury by a large black ant, which eats the leaves, and which is destroyed by pouring bisulphide of carbon into the ants' nest in the ground; also by a black bee, about the size of a common fly, and which is destroyed by burning its nest. Brazilian oranges will stand a voyage of about twenty days. They are exported to some extent from the northern ports of Brazil to the United States.

Rio buys many good apples and pears from the River Plate countries. For some years a large ship-load of Baldwin apples has arrived at Rio from Boston, either in December or January, which have generally been re-tailed at eight cents apiece.

Of small fruits there are scarcely any in the Rio market. Strawberries could be cultivated, but they are sold as yet only by the saucerful. There are neither blackberries, raspberries, blueberries, gooseberries, nor currants. However, a small blackberry and a species of raspberry are found growing wild on the highlands about Rio, and doubtless they could be cultivated.

CHAPTER XVI.

THE AMAZON VALLEY.

BRAZIL possesses, in the Amazon, the greatest river system in the world. Marked improvements have been made in the last twenty years in the means of travel up and down its waters. The point of starting for up river is the city of Pará, situated on the Pará River, and which is generally regarded as one of the outlets of the Amazon. I visited that city on the American steamer Advance, in July, 1885. It looks low from the water, yet has a fair elevation, and many of its streets are well paved and have a modern appearance. The passengers, ladies as well as men, all laid in a stock of "Panama" hats, which there can be bought for about fifty cents each. In going up from the ocean the Pará River, after getting within a few miles of the city, resembles the Missouri in its broadest part, both in the light color of the water and the low, wooded banks.

The Amazon Steam Navigation Company receives a subsidy from the Brazilian Government of two hundred thousand dollars a year, and runs screw and other steamers regularly from Pará to distant ports on the upper Amazon and its principal tributaries. The traveler or merchant can in about ten days from the time he leaves the United

States reach Pará, and in fifteen to twenty days more may find himself almost at the foot of the Andes, with no more discomfort than is experienced in a steamboat trip on the Missouri. Good steamers leave Pará the 1st, 10th, and 20th of each month for Manáos on the Amazon, at the mouth of the river Negro, nine hundred and twenty-seven miles from Pará, stopping at about nine places, and making the trip in eight days; first-class fare, board included, one hundred milreis, or say forty dollars. There is a good deal of difference in the steamers. Probably on the most of them passengers will sleep at night in their own hammocks, swung over the deck in a miscellaneous crowd, where pigs scamper over the deck in the capacity of scavengers. On the other hand, there are steamers running as far up as Manáos, like the Manáos, of the Brazilian Northern Navigation Company, which are as fine as any ocean-steamer.

A steamer leaves Manáos the 28th of each month for Iquitos in Peru; distance, eleven hundred and fifty-two miles, and fare fifty dollars. To Tabatinga, on the boundary of Peru, the fare is thirty-five dollars. A steamer leaves Pará for San Antonio, at the head of navigation on the Madeira River, the 7th of every month; distance, seventeen hundred and twenty-three miles; fare, eighty dollars. A steamer leaves Pará for up the Purus, another of the remarkable navigable streams of Brazil, the 17th of every month. Distance to Anajas, the end of the route, twenty-three hundred and eighty-seven miles. The fare to Hyutanahan is eighty-six dollars, and the distance nineteen hundred and ninety-seven miles. For the river Negro a steamer leaves Pará the 10th of every month; fare to Santa Isabel, a distance of thirteen hundred and fifty miles, eighty-five dollars. In engaging transportation for

a long trip a passenger would do well to obtain, if possible, a statement in writing of the kind of accommodations and subsistence that are to be furnished, and then hold the company to their contract. The living ought to be good, and to comprise fresh beef, mutton, poultry, and fish, of which there are an abundance along the river. The tendency, however, of many steamers is, after getting the money of the passenger, to feed him on a miserable diet of canned and preserved food.

The officers on these steamers are Brazilians and the crews Indians. The latter, however, are not only very docile, but are expert navigators. It is a noteworthy fact that a considerable part of the fuel consumed by the steamers is coal brought from England, the inhabitants along the Amazon being so absorbed in the production of rubber, especially when it is fetching a high price, that enough labor can not be had to furnish the steamers with wood. Americans and Europeans proposing a journey up the Amazon, should, of course, come with as little baggage as practicable. A gentleman would do well to be provided with two summer suits of wool and a thicker suit adapted for autumn or cold weather, as a day of windy and cold weather may occasionally be experienced. Boots and shoes with thick or cork soles are desirable; also some clothing suitable for wet weather; and, lastly, a hammock, in case it is intended to pass a night ashore up the river. The wet season is from January to May; and, of course, there is occasionally rain in the rest of the year. The best time for a journey on the Amazon is in the dry season, say June, July, August, September, and October.

In going from Rio de Janeiro to Pará, passage can be taken on the well-managed steamers of the Northern

Brazil Navigation Company, which leave three times a month, calling at seven ports, and make the trip in fourteen days, the distance being twenty-one hundred miles; fare, ninety dollars. Also, the new American steamers call at Pará on their return voyage from Rio, and at three other ports between Rio and Pará.

The rising city of Pará is the gateway of the Amazon trade. From the ocean you go up, as I have said, a bay and river to that city, and afterward come round into the Amazon proper. The place has taken a fresh start in recent years, and looks forward, as well it may, to become a large and splendid city.

A well-informed American now residing and engaged in business in the Amazon Valley, and who has traveled through it a good deal, has just furnished me some fresh information in respect to people and things there. It is impossible, he says, to give the average width of country in the Amazon Valley that is overflowed during the high-water season. The land bordering all of the rivers flowing north into the Amazon is overflowed during the high-water season, so much so that work in the rubber districts is entirely suspended, and the houses are elevated from three to six feet above the ground. The rivers flowing south into the Amazon, such as the Rio Negro, Japura, etc., are principally bordered by high land which is not subject to overflow. The land most suitable for agriculture is between the mouth of the Rio Negro and Macapa, a town situated near the mouth of the Amazon. It is there generally high, the soil fertile, and easily accessible, as steamers pass nearly every day. The provincial governments are doing all possible to encourage immigration; consequently, land can be bought at a low price by making a petition to the Government. The only real profit-

able agricultural pursuit is the raising of cattle. A bullock sells at one hundred and ten milreis, say forty-four dollars. Sugar-cane, rice, and tobacco grow finely, but in 1885 there was very little profit in these articles. A new settler would require a capital of at least two thousand dollars to begin with, to clear the land, build his house, buy his stock and outfit. At present, however, there is no immigration of agricultural settlers. The drawbacks a foreign immigrant would meet are inability to speak the language, not being acclimated and consequent liability to fevers. A person coming direct from a northern country can not subject himself to out-door work for the first year on account of the heat. There are no means of communication or of transportation otherwise than by water. The interior of the country back from the navigable streams is unknown. The Government sends missionaries among the Indians for the purpose of civilizing them. The prevailing and best opinion of the half-breeds is very poor; they are a lazy and troublesome class of people, and much inferior to the original stock.

The every-day food of the common class of people is farinha, rice, dried beef, fish, and game. The part which women take in supporting the family is simply to attend to the domestic affairs. With regard to the physical and moral improvement of the people all that one can say is that there is room for improvement. Morals are at a very low ebb. The usual means of amusement and recreation are fishing and shooting. Gambling is very common; yet some progress is being made in the intellectual and economical condition of the people. There is no retrograde movement, and in fact the contrary. The lower class are superstitious respecting their religion. The principal occupations are gathering rubber, nuts, piassava,

and fishing. As a general rule, a laborer spends all that he earns. The habit of saving seems to be entirely unknown to the lower class. A very small proportion of the people, as a rule, pay their debts—about a quarter part the past year.

The testimony of my informant is that travel on the steamers between Pará and Manáos is comparatively comfortable, although the table is not luxurious. Sailing-vessels which pass between those towns are towed.

As to the timber products of the forest, cedar is the only wood exported, and this industry does not pay very well, owing to the high rates of freight to the United States and Europe, and the labor being also high—four to five milreis per day. As to serpents and wild beasts, my informant states that, having traveled some thousand miles on the Amazon and its tributaries, he has come to the conclusion that the greater part of the stories about such animals has been “manufactured to make books interesting.”

“On the whole,” he winds up by saying, “I should not advise any of our Americans to immigrate here, as I consider that we have much better openings at home for our people. There are a number of Americans on the Amazon engaged in agriculture who bitterly regret having come to this country, and who are only struggling to make a little money to allow them to return. It is a very serious matter to encourage immigration of northern people to come to a climate like this, as there is great danger of sickness.”

Mr. Alfred R. Wallace, an able and unwearied English naturalist, and author of “Travels on the Amazon and Rio Negro,” arrived at Pará in a sailing-vessel from Liverpool, May 26, 1848. The city then contained a popula-

tion of fifteen thousand, was surrounded by dense forest and overtopped by palms and plantains. He hired an old negro man named Isidora for a cook and servant-of-all-work, and regularly commenced housekeeping, learning Portuguese, and investigating the natural productions of the country. In what he saw he was on the whole disappointed. The weather was not so hot, the people were not so peculiar, the vegetation was not so striking as the glowing pictures he had been brooding over; and he sensibly remarks: "Travelers who crowd into one description all the wonders and novelties which it took them weeks and months to observe, must produce an erroneous impression on the reader, and cause him when he visits the spot to experience much disappointment." Bits of gardens and waste ground intervening between the houses, fenced in with rotten palings, and filled with rank weeds and a few banana-plants, looked to him strange and unsightly. His general impression of the city of Pará was not very favorable. The pirarucú fish, dried, with farinha, formed the chief subsistence of the native population, and in the interior was often the only thing to be obtained. It looked much like a dry cowhide grated up into fibers and pressed into cakes, was boiled or slightly roasted, and, mixed with vinegar, oil, pepper, onions, and farinha, made a savory mess for a person with a strong stomach. The palmeto, another article of subsistence, was procured from the Assai palm, which was common, growing in the forest sometimes to a height of eighty feet, slender, with smooth stem, and very beautiful.

Only a few miles above Pará is the mouth of the Tocantins, one of the mighty rivers of the Amazon basin, and running due north. Mr. Wallace, in the latter part of Au-

gust, went up that river for a trip of a few weeks. At Baião, in September, he writes: "All round the village for some miles on the dry highland are coffee-plantations and second-growth forest. Soil, red clay." A tree common in Brazil he sees there—a large leguminous tree covered with clusters of pink and white flowers and large, pale-green, flat pods. "The depths of the virgin forest," he says, "are solemn and grand, but there is nothing in this country to surpass the beauty of our river and woodland scenery. . . . In the second-growth woods, in the Campos, and in many other places, there is nothing to tell any one but a naturalist that he is out of Europe. . . . At the Falls the central channel is about a quarter of a mile wide, bounded by rocks, with a deep and very powerful stream rushing down in an unbroken sweep of dark-green waters, and producing eddies and whirlpools. . . . On both sides of the river, as far as the sight extends, is an undulating country, from four to five hundred feet high, covered with forests, the commencement of the elevated plains of Brazil." The sounds at night on the Tocantins were: "One sort of frogs with usual croak, another like a distant railway-train approaching, another like the sound of a blacksmith hammering on an anvil; also terrific noise of the howling, the shrill grating whistle of cicadas and locusts, and peculiar notes of aquatic birds."

Summing up in regard to this little side excursion, he says: "In the districts we passed through, cotton, coffee, and rice might be grown in any quantity and of the finest quality. The navigation is always safe and uninterrupted, and the whole country so intersected by *igarepés* and rivers that every estate has water-carriage for its productions. . . . A man can work as well here as in the hot months in England, and, if he will only work three hours

in the morning and three in the evening, he will produce more of the necessaries and comforts of life than by twelve hours' daily labor at home. We returned safely to Pará, September 30th, just five weeks from the day we left. We had not had a wet day, yet found that, as usual, there had been at Pará a shower and a thunder-storm every second or third day."

He went out into the alluvial country a short journey from Pará, and witnessed, in one of the numerous lakes abounding in fish, a hunt for alligators, which were captured as a business, for their oil. "Hung our hammock for the night in a little, dirty, ruined hut, from which a short time before an onça (jaguar) had carried away a large bundle of fish." As many as thirty alligators of large size were captured in a day. "In the evening, after the alligator-hunt, the negroes sang several hymns as a thanksgiving for having escaped their jaws."

Another trip was made up the Guamá River, which comes in from the southeast, near Pará, and its tributary, the Capim. A short distance up the former the banks are rather undulating, with many pretty estates. "We went pleasantly along" (in a canoe on the Capim) "for two or three days, the country being prettily diversified with cane-fields, rice-grounds, and houses built by the early Portuguese settlers, with elegant little chapels attached, and cottages for the negroes and Indians, all much superior in appearance and taste to anything erected now."

Finally, Mr. Wallace embarked in a canoe for a voyage of five hundred miles up the Amazon to Santarem, and he writes: "In about twelve days after leaving Pará we were in the Amazon itself. . . . We now felt the influence of the easterly wind, which during the whole of the summer months blows pretty steadily up the Amazon, and

enables vessels to make way against its powerful current. Sometimes we had thunder-storms, with violent squalls. . . . The most striking features of the Amazon are its vast expanse of smooth water, generally from three to six miles wide; its pale yellowish-olive color; the great beds of aquatic grass which line its shores, large masses of which are often detached and form floating islands; the quantity of fruits and leaves and great trunks of trees which it carries down; and its level banks clad with lofty, unbroken forest. In places the white stems and leaves of the cecropias give a peculiar aspect, and in others the straight, dark trunks of lofty forest-trees form a living wall along the water's edge. Numerous flocks of parrots and the great red and yellow macaws fly across every morning and evening, uttering their hoarse cries. Herons and ducks are numerous, but most characteristic are the gulls and terns. All night long their cries are heard over the sand-banks. . . . On the north bank of the Amazon, for about two hundred miles, are ranges of low hills, which, as well as the country between them, are partly bare and partly covered with brush and thickets. They vary from three hundred to one thousand feet high, and extend inland. . . . After passing them there are no more hills visible from the river for more than two thousand miles, till we reach the lowest range of the Andes."

After a voyage of twenty-eight days he reached Santarem, at the mouth of the Tapajos, another big river flowing from the south, and whose blue, transparent waters formed a most pleasing contrast to the turbid stream of the Amazon. Santarem is pleasantly situated on a slope, with a fine sandy beach, and its trade consisted principally in Brazil-nuts, salsaparilla, farinha, and salt fish. The village of Monte-Alegre, which he had passed

on the north shore, he describes as situated on a hill about a quarter of a mile from the water's edge. There were no neat inclosures or gardens, nothing but weeds and rubbish on every side. The trade was in cacao, fish, calabashes, and cattle. The cacao was grown on the low lands along the banks of the river, and all planted on cleared ground fully exposed to the sun, and did not seem to thrive so well as when in the shade of the partly cleared forest, as was the plan on the Tocantins. "When an Indian can get a few thousand cacao-trees planted, he passes an idle, quiet, contented life; all he has to do is to weed under them two or three times a year and to gather and dry the seeds."

In a little excursion into the country back of the last-named village he found the surface an undulating, sandy plain, in some places thickly covered with bushes, and in others with large, scattered trees. At a distance of ten or twelve miles were several fine, rocky mountains. He visited and ascended one of these, and on the other side saw a wide, undulating plain, covered with scattered trees and shrubs, with a yellow, sandy soil and a brownish vegetation. "Beyond this was seen stretching out to the horizon a succession of low, conical, and oblong hills, studing the distant plain in every direction. Not a house was to be seen, and the picture was one little calculated to impress the mind with a favorable idea of the fertility of the country or the beauty of tropical scenery." Returning to Monte-Alegre on a small stream filled with grass and weeds, he saw many alligators. "Every year some lives are lost by incautiousness." Returning to Santarem to collect insects, he speaks of the "grateful and refreshing" water-melons. "The constant hard exercise, pure air, and good living kept us in the most perfect health, and I have

never altogether enjoyed myself so much." He observed that the tide in the Amazon rose to considerably above Santarem, but that it never flowed—merely rose and fell.

The last of December, 1849, he arrived at Manáos, on the east bank of the Rio Negro, twelve miles above its junction with the Amazon, a city then containing about five thousand inhabitants, mostly of mixed blood. Manáos is situated thirty feet above high water, and its streets are regularly laid out. The river there is a mile wide. Continuing his voyage up the Amazon, he says: "The lowlands, called 'Gapo,' varying in width from one to ten or twenty miles on each side of the river above Santarem to the confines of Peru, are in great part flooded six months of the year."

On the 31st of August, 1850, Mr. Wallace started from Manáos for an extensive voyage up the Rio Negro and some of its tributaries, occupying nearly two years, in the course of which he visited several of the wild tribes of Indians. After getting a few miles above Manáos, the river is so wide for several hundred miles that both banks can not be seen at once; they are probably from ten to twenty-five miles apart, and some of the islands are of great size. He found all the villages desolate and half deserted. "Called at the house of a man who owed Mr. L—— some money and who paid him in turtles, eight or nine of which we embarked. . . . Very fine weather, but every afternoon, or at least four or five times a week, we had a storm, with violent gusts of wind, and often thunder and rain. . . . After September 30th, granitic rocks, and river became more picturesque."

After making some hunting excursions in the thick forest, accompanied by naked Indians, he on January 27, 1851, left Guia, continuing the voyage up the Rio Negro,

and on February 1st reached the Serra Cocoi, which marks the boundary between Brazil and Venezuela—granite rock, precipitous, and nearly a thousand feet high. “During colonial times,” he says, “the Indians learned how to construct vessels for coast and inland trade, and have not forgotten the art. By eye and hand alone they form the framework and fit on the planks of fine little vessels of a hundred tons or more with no other tools than axe, adze, and hammer. . . . A great part of the population of the upper Rio Negro is engaged in gathering piassaba broom-fiber for exportation. Men, women, and children go in large parties into the forest to obtain it. The whole stem of a curious palm, twenty to thirty feet high, growing in moist places, is covered with a thick coating of this fiber, hanging down like coarse hair. It is found on two of the southern and three of the northern tributaries. . . . Indians will take two loads a day, ten miles each way, at a sort of run—the loads suspended from a pole between them.” He speaks of the graceful forms of Indians; is deserted by his own Indians.

Mr. Wallace says it is a “vulgar error, copied and repeated from one book to another, that in the tropics the luxuriance of the vegetation overpowers the efforts of man. . . . The ‘primeval’ forest can be converted into rich pasture and meadow-land, cultivated field and garden, with half the labor and in less than half the time required at home. . . . In the whole Amazon no such thing as neatness has ever been tried.” He recommends the Rio Negro country for settlement and cultivation.

On February 16, 1852, he starts on another ascent of the Uaupes, with seven of the Uaupe Indians with him, some of whom break their promise. Speaking of the superstition of the Indians, he says women are killed who

even accidentally behold a certain musical instrument. At the Uarucapuri village he sees handsome men of the Co-beu nation. It was with difficulty he succeeded in buying two or three baskets of farinha. On March 12th he reached Mucura, his destination, having passed fifty rapids and falls. The Indians were naked. "One woman appeared as ashamed with a petticoat on as civilized people would be if they took theirs off." He was in a part of the country never before visited by a European; but he was disappointed in his expectation of finding rare and handsome birds, and starts on March 28th on his return trip. He names a couple of white men who with a sufficient force had engaged in the amiable business of attacking the Carapanas tribe with the hope of getting a lot of women, boys, and children to take "as presents" to Manáos. On April 4th he records that they "arrived with a fleet of canoes and upward of twenty prisoners, all but one women and children. Seven men and one woman had been killed; the rest of the men escaped; but only one of the attacking party was killed." Of course, it did not often happen that a witness like Mr. Wallace was present to report such innocent little expeditions!

Parties meeting on the river, having lost their date, ask, "What day is it with you?" Dwellers along the banks of the river Negro, wishing to do a little shopping a few hundred miles below, frequently ask passers to bring them, on their return, what they require.

Mr. Wallace reached Manáos on May 17th. He had obtained in the Amazon Valley five hundred species of birds, and thought a thousand might be got. He found two hundred and five species of fish in the Rio Negro, and thought there were many more. The dry season, he states, is from June to December, and the wet season

from January to May. On the upper Amazon he once experienced a hail-storm. On getting back to Pará he found that it had much improved. He declares that its climate is exceptional, being one of the most agreeable in the world. But there were some drawbacks, a "universal and insecure system of credit"; and the three great vices prevalent were "drinking, gambling, and lying."

With reference to the province of Pará he says: "There is perhaps no country in the world so capable of yielding a large return for agricultural labor, and yet so little cultivated; none where the earth will produce such a variety of valuable productions, and where they are so totally neglected; none where the facilities for internal communication are so great, or where it is more difficult or tedious to get from place to place; none which so much possesses all the natural requisites for an immense trade with all the world, and where commerce is so limited and insignificant. . . . Nature presents but a monotonous scene. In the interior of the country there is not a road or path out of the towns along which a person can walk with comfort or pleasure; all is dense forest, or more impassable clearings. Here are no flower-bespangled meadows, no turfy glades, or smooth shady walks to tempt the lover of Nature; here are no dry, graveled roads, no field-side paths, . . . no long summer evenings to wander in at leisure; nor long winter nights with the blazing hearth." He expresses the opinion that the large extent of flat land in the Amazon Valley would continue to be flooded till raised by renewed earthquakes.

Fourteen years pass, and a new actor appears on the scene. Prof. Agassiz made his indefatigable and most valuable scientific journey on the Amazon just after the close of the American civil war. He spent from August,

1865, to March, 1866—a period of fully six months—in most active research in the Amazon Valley, assisted by Mrs. Agassiz and by several talented young Americans of scientific education. One part of the result of this tour was a fine volume, entitled “A Journey in Brazil,” by Prof. and Mrs. Agassiz. These enlightened travelers had, of course, good opportunities to see both Nature and society, and I shall venture to make some extracts from their narrative. The Brazilian Company of Amazon River Steamers generously placed at the disposition of Prof. Agassiz and party, for a month, the use of one of their best steamers for the trip from Pará to Manáos, which is usually made in five days. On August 20th, the first day of the trip, Mrs. Agassiz thus describes the accommodations :

“Thus far the hardships of this South American journey seem to retreat at our approach. It is impossible to travel with greater comfort than surrounds us here. My own suite of rooms consists of a good-sized state-room, with dressing-room and bath-room adjoining; and, if the others are not quite so luxuriously accommodated, they have space enough. The state-rooms are hardly used at night, for a hammock on deck is far more comfortable in this climate. Our deck, roofed in for its whole length, and with an awning to let down on the sides, if needed, looks like a comfortable, unceremonious sitting-room. A table down the middle serving as a dinner-table, but which is at this moment strewn with maps, journals, books, and papers of all sorts; two or three lounging-chairs, a number of camp-stools, and half a dozen hammocks, in one or two of which some of the party are taking their ease—furnish our drawing-room, and supply all that is needed for work and rest.”

From Manáos they continued the trip up the Amazon on another steamer, which was furnished by the Brazilian Government. Of course, their accommodations were better than ordinary travelers would receive. On September 12th Mrs. Agassiz writes: "Nothing can be more comfortable than the traveling on these Amazonian boats. They are clean and well kept, with good-sized state-rooms, which most persons use, however, only as dressing-rooms, since it is always more agreeable to sleep on the open deck in one's hammock. The table is very well kept, the fare good, though not varied. Bread is the greatest deficiency, but hard biscuit makes a tolerable substitute. Our life is after this fashion: We turn out of our hammocks at dawn, go down-stairs to make our toilets, and have a cup of hot coffee below. By this time the decks are generally washed and dried, the hammocks removed, and we can go above again. Between then and the breakfast-hour, at half-past ten o'clock, I generally study Portuguese, though my lessons are somewhat interrupted by watching the shore and the trees—a constant temptation when we are coasting along near the banks. At half-past ten or eleven o'clock breakfast is served, and after that the glare of the sun becomes trying, and I usually descend to the cabin, where we make up our journals and write during the middle of the day. . . . At three o'clock I consider that the working-hours are over, and then I take a book and sit in my lounging-chair on deck, and watch the scenery, and the birds and the turtles, and the alligators if there are any, and am lazy in a general way. At five o'clock dinner is served (the meals being always on deck), and after that begins the delight of the day. At that hour it grows deliciously cool, the sunsets are always beautiful, and we go to the forward deck and sit there till

nine o'clock in the evening. Then comes tea, and then to our hammocks; I sleep in mine most profoundly till morning."

"*September 17th.*—These upper stations on the Amazons are haunted by swarms of mosquitoes at night, and during the day by a little biting fly called *pium*, no less annoying.

"*September 18th* (the day before reaching Tabatinga).—The scenery is by no means so interesting as that of the lower Amazons. The banks are ragged and broken, the forest lower, less luxuriant, and the palm-growths very fitful. . . . The steamer is often now between the shores of the river itself instead of coasting along by the many lovely islands which make the voyage between Pará and Manáos so diversified. . . . Then the element of human life and habitations is utterly wanting; one often travels for a day without meeting even so much as a hut. But, if men are not to be seen, animals are certainly plenty; as our steamer puffs along, great flocks of birds rise up from the shore, turtles pop their black noses out of the water, alligators show themselves occasionally, and sometimes a troop of brown capivari scuttles up the bank, taking refuge in the trees at our approach."

With reference to the state of society, Prof. Agassiz says: "Two things are strongly impressed on the mind of the traveler in the upper Amazons: the necessity, in the first place, of a larger population; and, secondly, of a better class of whites, before any fair beginning can be made in developing the resources of the country. . . . Not only is the white population too small for the task before it, but it is no less poor in quality than meager in numbers. It presents the singular spectacle of a higher race receiving the impress of a lower one, of an educated class

adopting the habits and sinking to the level of the savage. In the towns of the upper Amazons the people who pass for the white gentry of the land, while they profit by the ignorance of the Indian to cheat and abuse him, nevertheless adopt his social habits, sit on the ground, and eat with their fingers as he does. . . . The white man engages an Indian to work for him at a certain rate, at the same time promising to provide him with clothes and food until such time as he shall have earned enough to take care of himself. This outfit, in fact, costs the employer little; but, when the Indian comes to receive his wages, he is told that he is already in debt to his master for what has been advanced to him: instead of having a right to demand money, he owes work. The Indians allow themselves to be deceived in this way to an extraordinary extent, and remain bound to the service of a man for a lifetime, believing themselves under the burden of a debt, while they are in fact creditors." He thinks that neither Americans nor Englishmen would degrade themselves to the social level of the Indians as the Portuguese do.

The following is very true to-day: "The Brazilians are very happy in their after-dinner speeches, expressing themselves with great facility, either from a natural gift, or because speech-making is an art in which they have had much practice. The habit of drinking healths and giving toasts is very general throughout the country, and the most informal dinner among intimate friends does not conclude without some mutual greetings of this kind."

At Manáos Prof. and Mrs. Agassiz also attended a ball given at the residence of the president of the province, and, there being no carriages in the place, different parties of invited guests were to be seen groping through the streets at the appointed time, lighted with lanterns.

“The dresses,” says Mrs. Agassiz, “were of every variety, from silks and satins to stuff-gowns, and the complexions of all tints, from the genuine negro through paler shades of Indian and negro to white. There is absolutely no distinction of color here; a black lady (always supposing her to be free) is treated with as much consideration and meets with as much attention as a white one. It is, however, rare to see a person in society who can be called a genuine negro; but there are many mulattoes and *mingucos*—that is, persons having black or Indian blood. There is little ease in Brazilian society, even in the larger cities; still less in the smaller ones, where to guard against mistakes the conventionalities of town-life are exaggerated. The Brazilians, indeed, though so kind and hospitable, are formal, fond of etiquette and social solemnities. On their arrival, all the *senhoras* (married ladies) were placed in stiff rows around the walls of the dancing-room. Occasionally an unfortunate cavalier would stray in and address a few words to this formal array of feminine charms; but it was not until the close of the evening, when dancing had broken up the company into groups, that the scene became really gay. At intervals trays of *doces* (confectionery and cake) and tea were handed round, and at twelve there was a more solid repast, at which all the ladies were seated, their partners standing behind their chairs and waiting upon them. Then began the toasts and healths, which were given and received with great enthusiasm.”

Again, Mrs. Agassiz writes: “Whenever we have been present at public festivities in Brazil—and our observation is confirmed by other foreigners—we have been struck with the want of gayety, the absence of merriment. There is a kind of lack-luster character in their *fêtes*, so

far as any demonstration of enjoyment is concerned. Perhaps it is owing to their enervating climate, but the Brazilians do not seem to work or play with a will. They have not the activity which, while it makes life a restless fever with our people, gives it interest also; neither have they the love of amusement of the Continental Europeans." At the time of their visit Brazil was engaged in the long and costly war with Paraguay, which possibly might have been one cause of the sober manners of the people.

There was not at that time, and probably there is not now, a decent hotel throughout the whole length of the Amazon, and any one who thinks of stopping at the towns had better provide himself with such letters as will secure accommodation in private houses. "One is quite independent in the matter of bedding; nobody travels without his own hammock, and the net, which in many places is a necessity on account of the mosquitoes. Beds and bedding are almost unknown, and there are none so poor as not to possess two or three of the strong and neat twine hammocks made by the Indians themselves from the fibers of the palm." The refreshment of a hammock is the first act of hospitality in the upper Amazon offered one arriving from any distance. "One does not see much of the world between one o'clock and four in this climate. These are the hottest hours of the day, and there are few who can resist the temptation of the cool, swinging hammock, slung in some shady spot within doors or without. . . . Smoking is almost universal among the common women here, yet it is not confined to the lower classes. Many a *senhora* (at least in this part of Brazil, for we must distinguish between the civilization on the banks of the Amazon and in the interior and that in the cities along

the coast) enjoys her pipe, while she lounges in her hammock through the heat of the day."

It would be a mistake to suppose that this valley is abundantly supplied with subsistence. "In the midst of a country which should be overflowing with agricultural products," Mrs. Agassiz states, "neither milk, nor butter, nor cheese, nor vegetables, are to be had. You constantly hear people complaining of the difficulty of procuring even the commonest articles of domestic consumption, when, in fact, they ought to be produced by every land-owner." In the upper Amazon "a well-stocked turtle-tank is to be found in almost every yard, as the people depend largely upon turtles for their food."

Mrs. Agassiz gives some uncommonly fine sketches of aboriginal life, though the Indians, on account of the forced recruiting that was going on, were not seen at their best. The Indian women said "the forest was very sad" then, because all their men had been taken as recruits, or were seeking safety in the woods. As a general thing, the houses of the Indians were found more tidy than those of the whites. "However untidy they may be in other respects, they always bathe once or twice a day, if not oftener, and wash their clothes frequently. We have never yet entered an Indian house where there was any disagreeable odor, unless it might be the peculiar smell from the preparation of the mandioca in the working-room outside, which has, at a certain stage of the process, a slightly sour smell. . . . Although the Indians are said to be a lazy people, and are unquestionably fitful and irregular in their habits of work, in almost all these houses some characteristic occupation was going on. In two or three the women were making hammocks."

While even the partly civilized Indians of the Amazon

Valley would seem to live from hand to mouth, it must be remembered that as gatherers of rubber in the forest wilds they supply a large part of one of Brazil's leading commercial products.

In October Prof. Agassiz and party were taken by the president of the province, and some other Brazilian gentlemen, on an excursion to a lake some hours distant by row-boat from Manáos, on whose shore they spent a couple of days at the house of one of the Indian gentry. It was the first visit of the new president of the province to the Indian village of which this house formed a part. Mrs. Agassiz thus describes the place: "This pretty Indian village is hardly recognized as a village at once, for it consists of a number of *sítios* scattered through the forest; and, though the inhabitants look on each other as friends and neighbors, yet from our landing-place only one *sítio* is to be seen—that at which we are staying. It stands on a hill sloping gently up from the lake-shore, and consists of a mud house, containing two rooms, besides several large, open palm-thatched rooms outside. One of these outer sheds is the mandioca-kitchen, another is the common kitchen, and a third, which is just now used as our dining-room, serves on festal days and occasional Sundays as a chapel. It differs from the other in having the upper end closed in with a neat thatched wall, against which, in time of need, the altar-table may stand, with candles and rough prints or figures of the Virgin and saints. We were very hospitably received by the senhora of the mud house, an old Indian woman, whose gold ornaments, necklace, and ear-rings were rather out of keeping with her calico skirt and cotton waist. Besides the old lady, the family consists, at this moment, of her god-daughter, with her little boy, and several other women employed about

the place. . . . The situation of this *sitio* is exceedingly pretty, and as we sit around the table in our open, airy dining-room, surrounded by the forest, we command a view of the lake and wooded hill-side opposite and of the little landing below, where are moored our barge, with its white awning, the gay canoe, and two or three Indian *montarias*. After breakfast our party dispersed, some to rest in their hammocks, others to hunt or fish, while Mr. Agassiz was fully engaged in examining a large basket of fish just brought up from the lake for his inspection. . . . Dinner brought us all together again at the close of the afternoon. As we are with the president of the province, our picnic is of a much more magnificent character than our purely scientific excursions have been. Instead of our usual make-shifts—tea-cups doing duty as tumblers, and empty barrels acting as chairs—we have a silver soup-tureen, and a cook, and a waiter, and knives and forks enough to go round, and many other luxuries which such wayfarers as ourselves learn to do without. While we were dining, the Indians began to come in from the surrounding forest to pay their respects to the president for his visit was the cause of great rejoicing, and there was to be a ball in his honor in the evening. They brought an enormous cluster of game as an offering. What a mass of color it was!—more like a gorgeous bouquet of flowers than a bunch of birds. It was composed entirely of toucans, with their red and yellow beaks, blue eyes, and soft white breasts bordered with crimson; and of parrots, with their gorgeous plumage of green, blue, purple, and red. When we had dined we took coffee outside, while our places around the table were filled by the Indian guests, who were to have a dinner-party in their turn. It was pleasant to see with how much courtesy

several of the Brazilian gentlemen of our party waited upon these Indian senhoras, passing them a variety of dishes, helping them to wine, and treating them with as much attention as if they had been the highest ladies of the land. They seemed, however, rather shy and embarrassed, scarcely touching the nice things placed before them, till one of the gentlemen, who has lived a good deal among the Indians and knows their habits perfectly, took the knife and fork from one of them, exclaiming: 'Make no ceremony, and don't be ashamed; eat with your fingers as you're accustomed to do, and then you'll find your appetites and enjoy your dinner.' His advice was followed, and I must say they seemed much more comfortable in consequence, and did more justice to the good fare."

Indian society presents one peculiar feature. Many a family gets along without the presence of men-folks; and, if the husband and father is likely to be worthless, his absence is a source of happiness. The home of an Indian family of gentle condition, and living in comfort in the village just mentioned, was visited, and when the grown daughter was asked as to the whereabouts of her father, the mother answered, smiling: "She hasn't any father; she is the daughter of chance"; and when the daughter was asked if the father of her two little children was away in the war, she replied, "They haven't any father." The partly civilized Indian women seem to lead, on the whole, a happy life. "The life of the Indian women," says Mrs. Agassiz, "so far as we have seen it, seems enviable, in comparison with that of the Brazilian lady in the Amazonian towns. The former has a healthful out-door life; she has her canoe on the lake or river, and her paths through the forest, with perfect liberty to come and go; she has her appointed daily occupations, being busy not

only with the care of her house and children, but in making farinha or tapioca, or in drying and rolling tobacco, while the men are fishing and turtle-hunting; and she has her frequent festa-days to enliven her working-life. It is, on the contrary, impossible to imagine anything more dreary and monotonous than the life of the Brazilian *senhora* in the smaller towns. In the northern provinces especially, the old Portuguese notions about shutting women up and making their home-life as colorless as that of a cloistered nun, without even the element of religious enthusiasm to give it zest, still prevail. Many a Brazilian lady passes day after day without stirring beyond her four walls, scarcely ever showing herself at the door or window; for she is always in a slovenly *deshabille*, unless she expects company. It is sad to see these stifled existences; without any contact with the world outside, without any charm of domestic life, without books or culture of any kind, the Brazilian *senhora* in this part of the country either sinks contentedly into a vapid, empty, aimless life, or frets against her chains, and is as discontented as she is useless."

With reference to the mixture of races, Prof. Agassiz records the following opinion: "Let any one who doubts the evil of this mixture of races, and is inclined, from a mistaken philanthropy, to break down all barriers between them, come to Brazil. He can not deny the deterioration consequent upon an amalgamation of races, more widespread here than in any other country in the world, and which is rapidly effacing the best qualities of the white man, the negro, and the Indian, leaving a mongrel nondescript type, deficient in physical and mental energy."

During this exploration Prof. Agassiz collected from the waters of the Amazon Valley nearly two thousand

different species of fish, a result the significance of which will be recognized when one is told that in all the rivers of Europe there are less than one hundred and fifty species of fresh-water fish. The artist of the expedition, Mr. Burkhardt, painted more than eight hundred sketches of different fishes from life—that is, from the fish swimming in a large glass tank before him.

Near the close of his work, Prof. Agassiz, in a letter to the Emperor, bore generous testimony to the co-operation the Brazilians had given to his labors: “From the president to the most humble employés of the provinces I have visited, all have competed with each other to render my work more easy.”

I shall finish this chapter with some testimony on the situation of American settlers in the Amazon Valley, by Dr. Herbert H. Smith, author of the valuable work, “Brazil, the Amazons, and the Coast.” His visit there was ten years after that of Prof. Agassiz, namely, in 1875. At Santarem he met with Mr. P——, one of some fifty Americans who had come from the Southern States in 1866, and who were engaged in farming about six miles distant. Originally the colony had been much larger, for “with a few good families there came a rabble of lazy vagabonds who looked upon the affair as a grand adventure. Arrived at Santarem, they were received kindly enough, but after a little the good people became disgusted with their guests, who quarreled incessantly, and filled the town with their drunken uproar. Government aid for the colony was withdrawn; gradually the scum floated away, leaving the memory of their worthlessness to injure the others. The few families that remained had to outlive public opinion, and a hard time they had of it, with poverty on one side and ill-will on the other. But in

time the Brazilians discovered that these were not vagabonds; they learned to respect their industry and perseverance, and now all through the Amazon you will hear nothing but good words of the Santarem colony." Dr. Smith accepted an urgent invitation from Farmer P——, a tall Tennessean, to go out to the settlement for a few days, where he met with a cordial welcome. The farmer's home was situated a few miles distant, in a large clearing in the forest, at the base of a plateau that is some hundred feet above the river. All around there were splendid masses of green cacao-trees, and lime-trees, and great pale banana-plants, and coffee-bushes straying up into the woods; and beyond those a bit of untouched forest, with a giant Brazil-nut tree towering over it. He says: "With all the beauty of the site, P—— evidently has a hard time of it; he looks care-worn, and a little discouraged. The land is excellent, but the stream is too small to give him a good water-power, and without that he can not manage a large cane-plantation. He complains of the low prices that he receives for his produce; the Santarem traders take advantage of his helplessness, and he is often obliged to sell below the market value. All the Americans are cultivating sugar-cane; the juice is distilled into rum, which is sold at Santarem. Probably coffee or cacao might pay better, but our colonists came here without money, and they could not wait for slow-growing crops. Mr. P—— tells how he and his family were housed, with the others, in a great thatched building; how the colonists were supported for a while on Government rations, until they could locate their plantations and get in their first crops; how they had to struggle with utter poverty, work without tools, live as best they could until their fields were established. P——

saved a little money, and bought this ground of an old Indian woman; it was only a small clearing, with a dozen fruit-trees. The family lived in a rough shed until they could build a thatched house, and P—— himself had to bring provisions from Santarem on his back. It was a long time before he could cut a road, and longer before he had horses for his work. . . . He had to grind his cane with a rough wooden mill until he could procure an iron one from the United States; he had to get his still on credit, and pay a high price for it; horses, oxen, carts, casks, were all obtained by slow degrees and at a great sacrifice. He has been his own carpenter, mason, machinist—everything; it was a long time before he could even hire an Indian to work for him. And now, after seven years of hard struggle, he finds himself with—what? A plantation that he could not sell for one fourth of its real value, simply because there are no buyers; a burden of debts that it will take him a long time to pay; and himself with a broken-down body and discouraged heart.

“‘The children have no schooling,’ complains Mrs. P——; ‘they can’t even go to a Brazilian master, for we are too far from town.’ She talks of sending them to the States, but I fear it will be a long time before her husband can afford that. The family are Protestants, but they never hear a Protestant service now, unless rarely, when a missionary or traveling minister passes this way. Sometimes they visit with the Americans, but the plantations are far apart, and the roads are rough, and it is not often that they can make a holiday, unless it be of a Sunday. . . .

“After a while we find our way to other American houses; the nearest of these are at Diamantina, a little settlement two or three miles beyond P——’s house. . . .

R——'s house is really very pretty ; to be sure, it is covered entirely with palm-thatch, but the wide hall through the middle looks cool and inviting ; there are orange-trees on either side, and a flower-garden in front, with a beautiful clear stream, where R—— has built a bathing-house over the water. The whole looks so neat and tasteful that we half believe in Mr. Wallace's romantic dream, after all. But there is the drunken Indian at the still, and R——'s tired face taking the color from the picture. Mrs. R—— speaks sadly of her Charleston home, and the intellectual society which she has left there. I fear that this family is hardly better satisfied than are the others." In course of time Dr. Smith leaves his pleasant quarters at P——'s and visits other American families at Panéma, five miles away, where, among other homes, was the most advanced establishment of the colony, and which he thus describes :

"The proprietor was a Methodist clergyman in Mississippi ; like many of his class, he had a ready capability for all kinds of work ; was, in fact, the very best man that could be chosen for a pioneer. Moreover, he had a little money to start with, and two stout boys to assist him in his work ; he was sensible enough to choose a most desirable location, where the land was rich, and there was abundant water-power. With these advantages, he has advanced steadily. At first he was content to live in a log-house, and work with such machinery as he could get in the country ; when his plantation was well advanced, and he thoroughly understood his needs, he made a trip to the United States expressly for the purpose of bringing out machinery and tools. One of these importations was a saw-mill ; with this he sawed out boards and beams for a good frame house, and a great deal for sale besides ; he has built mills for grinding corn, thrashing rice, cutting

cane-tops for his cattle; a blacksmith-shop, very well equipped; a fine cane-mill, and evaporators for sugar. He has reason to look forward with hope to the future.

“This man and Mr. R——, at Diamantina, are the only ones in the colony who have achieved anything like success. But they came alone, chose their ground carefully, and worked carefully with a fixed end in view; and, having capital in the outset, they were independent of the traders, and could get a good price for their produce. . . . The Americans at Diamantina and Panéma are generally discontented with their lot, and no wonder; they began work without capital, or with very little, and they have been struggling all along for a bare existence. Their example shows plainly enough, I think, that the Amazons is not a good pioneering ground for a *poor* man.”

Dr. Smith afterward speaks of the experience of Mr. R. J. Rhome, a practical American, who had a theory that the Amazonian highlands were fitted for successful farming. He took the managing partnership of a Brazilian plantation, twenty miles below Santarem, and put his theory into practice. “At the end of twelve years the estate has become the finest on the Amazon, and American enterprise has built up an American home.”

Dr. Smith shows that the gatherers of Brazil-nuts in the Amazon Valley suffer a great deal of sickness from their exposure and poor diet. But there are direct perils also:

“Sometimes the gatherers are lost in the woods; sometimes canoes, loaded with nuts, are overturned in the rapids, and the boatmen are drowned. But the grand danger—the one most dreaded—is that of the falling nut-capsules. They are five inches in diameter, and weigh two or three pounds; falling a hundred feet or more, they

come crashing through the branches like cannon-balls. The gatherers keep to their huts while the morning wind is blowing, and if their roof is at all exposed it is inclined strongly, so that the fruits will glance off from it. While the fruits are falling, the gatherers occupy themselves at home, cutting open the hard cases with their heavy knives, and drying the nuts in the sun. When the wind dies away, men and women sally out to the gathering, bringing the nuts on their backs in great baskets."

It is true the trade of the Amazon Valley has rapidly increased within the past few years, but it has not been such a development as makes a very good showing for the country, since the principal article of this commerce—rubber—has been produced at the cost of the natural wealth of the forest; being much on the same principle in which lumber is produced from our pine-forests in the United States, with total disregard of regrowth and the future. For the proper development of the Amazon Valley there are needed just what is required in the other large unoccupied areas of Brazil—people and capital.

CHAPTER XVII.

BEASTS OF PREY.

OF all the beasts of prey in Brazil, the most formidable and the most common is the jaguar, or South American tiger, called in Brazil the onça. There are three kinds—red, spotted, and black, the last two kinds being the largest. This animal does not stand as high as the Asiatic tiger, but is very powerfully built, and carries off cattle. The length of a large specimen is from six to seven feet, but an ordinary one measures about four feet from the nose to the root of the tail. “Its manner of killing its victim is, after springing upon it, to strike it to the earth by a blow of its powerful paw.” It seldom attacks human beings, unless interfered with or wounded; and I have seen people who had seen an onça in the forest, and who said they were not afraid of meeting one.

The spotted onça is handsomely marked, and the skin of one sells at Rio for ten dollars. The English naturalist Wallace, while out alone with his rifle in the forest solitude of the Amazon, saw a black onça cross his path a little way ahead of him, walking leisurely along. The animal stopped a few moments and looked at him; and Mr. Wallace, who was an excellent shot, relates that he was so astonished and impressed by the magnificence of the beast that he never thought to fire at him, and, while he stood fixed in admiration, the onça disappeared.

The few anecdotes I have heard of the Brazilian onça are not, I am happy to say, of a very thrilling character. Some of them are ludicrous rather than dreadful. A queer experience with an onça is related of one of the American settlers on the forest shore of the big lake of Juparana, in the province of Espirito Santo. The man lived alone, two miles from any neighbor, in a small cabin, having an open doorway, but no door. One night he was awakened from sleep by what he thought were the footsteps of some person; and, getting up and going to his open doorway to see who could be making him a visit at that time of night, lo and behold! there was an onça standing opposite the entrance and looking toward him. He was greatly alarmed, for he had no weapon of defense, and there was nothing to prevent the prowling intruder attacking him. He had an axe, but it was out in the shed, and he did not dare to step beyond the threshold. The only thing he could think of for safety was to seize a tin pan, which happened to be among his household utensils, and climb aloft on one of the timbers of his cabin, and scare off the onça by beating the pan. He kept beating the tin pan till daylight, when he cautiously descended and looked about. The onça had disappeared, and, so far as is known, never came back.

I once asked an English civil engineer who had resided twenty-three years in Brazil, and had been a good deal through the country exploring railway routes, if he had ever come across an onça. "No," said he, "never. The onça is a humbug. I should have no fear of one. It is no bigger than a calf, and I consider it a humbug. I have traveled thousands of miles in Brazil, and never carried and never needed a weapon."

While examining with Dr. Herbert Smith his large

and new natural history collection from Matto-Grosso at the National Museum of Rio de Janeiro, and, among other things, the skull of an onça, which indicated a powerful animal, he told me that the onça in question, before being taken, had killed two dogs, and said the instinct of the beast was to seize his victim by the throat. I naturally inquired if he would be apt to attack a man in that way, and was informed that the onça, in fighting a human being, would first try to deal a knock-down blow on the head with his paw. He mentioned this case, which came under his knowledge: A man was attacked by an onça, and had only a knife for a weapon. He, however, wore a pretty thick and strong leather pouch or bag, and had the presence of mind to put his hand into this, and with it, thus protected, to thrust it into the onça's mouth. While the beast was trying in vain to bite through it, the man dispatched him with his knife, but got some bad scratches on his breast.

A Brazilian, living about sixty miles from Rio, was in the woods with his gun not long ago, and was startled by a noise and growl which he supposed were from an onça close by him. He was frightened almost out of his wits, but braced himself against a tree, and brought his rifle to his shoulder to be ready to fire. In a moment more he saw that it was nothing more dangerous than half a dozen screeching monkeys in a furious chase up a tree, as badly frightened, perhaps, as he.

Prof. Facchenetti, a landscape-painter of Rio, once, when up in the Organ Mountains alone, had just got his brushes out, ready to begin work, when his attention was arrested by the noise of a movement near him. Looking that way, he saw passing, as if on the scent of prey, a large and beautifully marked onça, which twice turned

its head to regard him. He had no weapon, but simply looked at the beast with an opera-glass, and he walked quietly off.

A leading botanist, now at Rio, while on a scientific tour in the interior province of Minas-Geraes, accompanied by a servant and a scientific assistant, camped one night in a sort of stone cave, having only a small opening. They brushed away the rubbish, among which were a few bones, and, as it was already night, the botanist, being tired, had lain down and was asleep. The assistant was in the act of making a cigarette, when suddenly he dropped it, threw up his hands, and gave a terrible cry of alarm. They had unconsciously appropriated to themselves the den of this most dreadful wild beast, and he had come back, his eyes glaring fire, to his accustomed lodging. His appearance at the mouth of the cave caused the shriek which awakened the botanist and actually made the servant's hair to stand on end. He went off, however, yet every little while through the night they saw at the mouth of the cave a pair of eyes looking like balls of fire. They also heard his disagreeable growl while he was wandering about outside. They sat up every minute of the night, and kept up a blazing fire to frighten him away. Every time he appeared the servant's teeth chattered with fear.

In the end of one of the streets of the village of Linhares, on the river Doce, province of Espirito Santo, an onça killed a horse only a few months ago. Well, when an onça gets that near, he must be killed, or he will destroy all the live-stock; so a hunting-party was got together, and went out and succeeded in killing the beast, but not till he had dispatched a score or so of venturesome dogs. An American planter, living in that vicinity, in-

forms me that he has seen several live onças in the woods, and that there are three sorts in that region—the black, the spotted, and the red. It is his opinion that they do not attack a person unless they have been first interfered with or wounded. They seem to respect people who mind their own business. He related this anecdote: The farmers often have their poultry-yards robbed by opossums. One night a disturbance was heard among the fowls, and some of the people went out to see what was the matter. From all the sounds and appearances they were convinced there was an opossum in the yard, and they determined to wait there till daylight, and then administer summary justice for his depredations. At length dawn arrived. They opened the door and looked in, and, behold! there was an onça, at sight of which they gave a scream and ran off. The onça escaped, though it was rather a small and young one.

There is a man living in that neighborhood who carries on his back the scars left by the paw of an onça. In the woods he had shot at and wounded the animal, which went off. He followed it, thinking it would be dead; but it was alive and very mad, and turned and pursued the hunter, who took to a tree as fast as he could. The tree, however, was small, and bent down somewhat with his weight, so that the onça was able to reach him with his paw and deal him a bad scratch. The man, however, had a big hunting-knife in his belt, which he drew and gave the infuriated beast his quietus, otherwise the issue might have been fatal to himself.

People do not hunt the onça for amusement, as a rule. They prefer to go a-gunning for almost any other sort of game. It is only when a planter or farmer has lost sheep after sheep, or other kinds of live-stock, and the

circumstances point about conclusively to the onça as the depredator, that he assembles his neighbors with their guns and dogs, and they all sally out to bring the dreaded beast to destruction.

There are authentic instances of his attacking and killing human beings. In the course of the past year an onça was killed at the very door of the Superintendent of the Grão Pará Colony, in the province of Santa Catharina.

A newspaper in the south part of the province of Minas-Geraes recently published the following: "Traces of an onça having been noticed on a farm near Santo Antonio do Machado, some hunters resolved to go in search of it. Meeting with her in the woods, one of the hunters, from fear or some other cause, attempted to climb a tree, when the onça sprang on him, catching him by the leg and then by the neck. The other hunters began to fire at the animal, which was enormous, and at last, giving it a mortal shot, caused it to spring up in the air, carrying with it the unhappy victim, falling down dead, and leaving the unfortunate man in a horrible state, with a great part of the scalp torn off, but still with life."

With regard to serpents, the two larger kinds—the anaconda and the boa constrictor—are understood to exist only in the Amazon Valley. The last-mentioned is not regarded as dangerous, and is even sometimes domesticated for the purpose of keeping away vermin. An acquaintance informed me that during a tour in the back country he heard at night, in the unfinished ceiling of the room in which he lodged, a movement of things at different times, and when he awoke in the morning he found the noise had been caused by a domesticated boa constrictor.

Generally in Brazil there are several species of venomous serpents besides the rattlesnake. I am glad to say that I have had but little opportunity to extend my knowledge in this branch of natural history. From my little observation I would think Brazil is no more troubled with the ordinary sorts of venomous snakes than most other new countries. The only incident under this head that has occurred in my experience—and perhaps it is not worth relating—was during our residence in the mountain suburb of Tijuca. About the middle of a warm sunny day I heard a shriek from the kitchen, and, on going to see what was the matter, I saw that a snake, about a yard long, had got into the entry through the open outside kitchen-door, and was about advancing with his head raised. From its brown and bright colors I instinctively felt that it was one of the venomous sort. He had paused for a moment, but then began to crawl farther along. At this I seized a broom and killed him by a blow or two with the handle, and got him out of the house as soon as possible. An old resident pronounced him one of the venomous sort.

Mr. Bates, in his valuable narrative of explorations in the Amazon Valley, "The Naturalist on the Amazons," gives some interesting anecdotes of the hideous anaconda. Describing an experience while on the Cuparí River, a branch of the Tapajos, he writes: "We had an unwelcome visitor while at anchor in the port of João Malagueita. I was awoke a little after midnight, as I lay in my little cabin, by a heavy blow struck at the sides of the canoe close to my head, which was succeeded by the sound of a weighty body plunging in the water. I got up; but all was again quiet, except the cackle of fowls in our hen-coop, which hung over the side of the vessel about three

feet from the cabin-door. I could find no explanation of the circumstance, and, my men being all ashore, I turned in and slept till morning. I then found my poultry loose about the canoe, and a large rent in the bottom of the hen-coop, which was about two feet from the surface of the water; a couple of fowls were missing. Senhor Antonio said the depredator was a *sucuruju* (the Indian name for the anaconda, or great water-serpent—*Eunectes murinus*), which had for months past been haunting this part of the river, and had carried off many ducks and fowls from the ports of various houses. I was inclined to doubt the fact of a serpent striking at its prey from the water, and thought an alligator more likely to be the culprit, although we had not yet met with alligators in the river. Some days afterward the young men belonging to the different *sitios* agreed to go in search of the serpent. They began in a systematic manner, forming two parties, each embarked in three or four canoes, and starting from points several miles apart, whence they gradually approximated, searching all the little inlets on both sides the river. The reptile was found at last sunning itself on a log at the mouth of a muddy rivulet, and dispatched with harpoons. I saw it the day after it was killed; it was not a very large specimen, measuring only eighteen feet nine inches in length, and sixteen inches in circumference at the widest part of the body. I measured skins of the anaconda afterward twenty-one feet in length and two feet in girth. The reptile has a most hideous appearance, owing to its being very broad in the middle, and tapering abruptly at both ends. It is very abundant in some parts of the country; nowhere more so than in the Lago Grande, near Santarem, where it is often seen coiled up in the corners of farm-yards, and detested for its habit of carrying off

poultry, young calves, or whatever animal it can get within reach of.

“At Ega a large anaconda was once near making a meal of a young lad, about ten years of age, belonging to one of my neighbors. The father and his son went one day in their *montaria* a few miles up the Teffé to gather wild fruit, landing on a sloping sandy shore, where the boy was left to mind the canoe while the man entered the forest. The beaches of the Teffé form groves of wild guava and myrtle-trees, and during most months of the year are partly overflowed by the river. While the boy was playing in the water under the shade of these trees, a huge reptile of this species stealthily wound its coils around him unperceived, until it was too late to escape. His cries quickly brought the father to the rescue, who rushed forward, and, seizing the anaconda boldly by the head, tore his jaws asunder. There appears to be no doubt that this formidable serpent grows to an enormous bulk and lives to a great age, for I heard of specimens having been killed which measured forty-two feet in length, or double the size of the largest I had an opportunity of examining. The natives of the Amazon country universally believe in the existence of a monster water-serpent said to be many score fathoms in length, which appears successively in different parts of the river. They call it the *Mai d’agoa*—the mother or spirit of the water. This fable, which was doubtless suggested by the occasional appearance of *sucurujús* of unusually large size, takes a great variety of forms, and the wild legends form the subject of conversation among old and young over the wood-fires in lonely settlements.”

Mr. Bates had this experience with a boa constrictor: “One day, as I was entomologizing alone and unarmed, in

a dry *ygapó*, where the trees were rather wide apart and the ground coated to the depth of eight or ten inches with dead leaves, I was near coming into collision with a boa constrictor. I had just entered a little thicket to capture an insect, and while pinning it was rather startled by a rushing noise in the vicinity. I looked up to the sky, thinking a squall was coming on, but not a breath of wind stirred in the tree-tops. On stepping out of the bushes I met face to face a huge serpent coming down a slope, and making the dry twigs crack and fly with his weight as he moved over them. I had very frequently met with a smaller boa, the *cutim-boia*, in a similar way, and knew from the habits of the family that there was no danger; so I stood my ground. On seeing me the reptile suddenly turned and glided at an accelerated pace down the path. Wishing to take a note of his probable size, and the colors and markings of his skin, I set off after him; but he increased his speed, and I was unable to get near enough for the purpose. There was very little of the serpentine movement in his course. The rapidly moving and shining body looked like a stream of brown liquid flowing over the thick bed of fallen leaves, rather than a serpent with skin of varied colors. He descended toward the lower and moister parts of the *ygapó*. The huge trunk of an uprooted tree here lay across the road; this he glided over in his undeviating course, and soon after penetrated a dense, swampy thicket, where, of course, I did not choose to follow him."

The author of "Pioneering in South Brazil" relates this anecdote, showing the usefulness of the toucan in giving the alarm against snakes: "One evening a *camarada* came to me to have a tooth extracted, but, as it was then dusk, I told him he must wait till the following day,

when, if he would come to me directly it was light, I would do what he wanted. I was kept awake most of the night by being pestered by fleas, with which the camp had at this time begun to swarm. When morning came, being then almost worn out by many nights of sleeplessness from the same cause, I was in a state of torpor, and had not aroused myself as usual immediately it became light. The man with toothache came three times, at intervals of about ten minutes, and found me asleep each time. A minute after, coming the third time, he heard the toucan screaming in my rancho, and thinking I was the cause, and that he should now find me awake and up, at once returned, only too anxious to have his toothache cured without more delay. I was not awake when he returned, but his vigorous shout of '*Doutor, doutor, cobra!*' ('Doctor, doctor, snake!') twice repeated, roused me to a certain state of consciousness—when, on opening my eyes, the first thing I saw were two young frogs jumping in a great hurry along the floor of the rancho, closely followed by a black snake. The spectacle, for the two seconds during which it lasted, was superb. The snake was evidently absorbed in the chase, oblivious to the sudden shout of the man, or the screaming of the toucan. Its eye was flashing like a diamond, and its long, forked tongue was shooting in and out with lightning rapidity, as, with head erect and held perfectly steady, it glided with a swift, rocking motion of its supple body in pursuit, seeming as though moved by some invisible, magic force. For these two seconds the picture was absolutely perfect. I had never beheld so fascinating an object, when, lo! just as I expected to see it strike one of the frogs, a big, rude paddle descended upon its back, and only a hideous writhing object remained, biting the dust in agony. I was quite angry

with the man for the moment for summarily spoiling the chase; but when I knew that the reptile, to whose existence he had thus put an end, was only less deadly than the *cascavel*, and withal far more active in its movements, I lost my momentary sympathy for it. In this case, if it had not been for the toucan in the first instance, the snake might have remained lurking about my rancho beneath the boxes with which it was filled for days, until perhaps its presence had been made known after the disagreeable manner of Morant's snake.

“The Brazilians say that there is a certain snake which they call *cobra casada*, or married snake, which it is dangerous to kill near any habitation; or, having killed it, to trail it along the ground to any house, because its mate is certain to follow it by scent, and, on finding it dead, will savagely attack any person it can find in the neighborhood. I do not know what foundation there is for this story. I should think that I have seen and myself killed at least a hundred snakes of various kinds in Brazil, but I never knew one that showed any disposition to willfully attack. The utmost any have done has been to remain still, in readiness to strike when touched or threatened. In the majority of instances they have tried to flee.

“Soon after this I had a very disagreeable rencontre with a *jararaca*, which dropped into my canoe from an overhanging branch as I was paddling gently up-stream under the bank. As the snake dropped in, I tumbled out into the river. Fortunately, it happened close to the camp, and, in answer to my shouts, somebody came down to the landing-place and captured the canoe as it was drifting past, and killed the snake.”

The adventure of Morant, which he refers to, occurred two hundred miles distant, and is thus related: “It ap-

peared that one night, after he and his tent-companion, Von Sydow, had retired to bed, the latter was aroused by feeling, as he thought, some animal sucking his finger. He drew his hand away, and then struck a light, to find out what it might be that had taken such a fancy to him, but could see nothing. Meanwhile Morant was lying asleep on his low camp-bed at the other end of the tent, about ten feet distant. The night being very warm, and there being no mosquitoes to guard against, he was lying with one arm and shoulder nude above the blanket. The constant movements of Von Sydow, who was doctoring his sucked finger, at length caused him to arouse himself slightly, but just sufficient to make him conscious that there was something wrong about him. 'I felt,' he said, 'something heavy on my chest, and cold around my arm; I opened my eyes, and, by the light that Sydow was using, to my intense horror and dismay beheld a long head and neck waving backward and forward a few inches above my face. It was a snake. I dared not stir, for I felt that its body was twined round my arm, and that the slightest motion on my part might cause the reptile to drive its fangs into me. I called out gently to Sydow, and said, 'Sydow, there is a snake on my arm—what is to be done?' Sydow answered, 'Yes, yes! ya, ya! very good,' as though he thought it an excellent joke; and I knew that he did not understand me, but probably imagined that I was talking about his finger. (Von Sydow was a Swede, and only knew a few words of English.) I spoke to him again and said, 'Sydow, snake, snake!' but he did not understand me, and only laughed, and answered, 'Ya, ya!' I did not dare to shout out loud for fear of exciting the snake, which was still gently waving its head before my face. Something had to be done, and

that very soon, for no mortal could long bear this agony of suspense.

“The moment came when I could restrain myself no longer. I jumped up in bed, and simultaneously, with all the force of long-restrained fear and horror, threw out my arm, with the cold, deadly folds of the snake still twined round it, hurling the reptile violently on to the ground by the suddenness and energy of the movement, before it had time to strike.

“While I was looking for a weapon of some sort with which to kill it, it had glided out beneath the wall of the tent and disappeared. . . .

“Von Sydow to this hour believes that Morant’s snake was the very animal that sucked his finger.”

The same author relates several other anecdotes, but says the number of snakes found on the prairie—where this last incident occurred—is small when compared with the multitudes which exist in the forests. It was in the forest that he was employed, and scarcely a day passed without what might be termed a snake adventure happening to some one of the party.

CHAPTER XVIII.

SLAVERY AND EMANCIPATION.

THE first and greatest sugar-growing region of Brazil, Pernambuco, is exactly opposite the valley of the Congo; the mouth of the Amazon is opposite that of the Niger. With Africa thus so handy, it is no wonder the early planters in Brazil availed themselves of Ethiopian labor, and that the slave-trade soon grew into a profitable and persistent business. Immediately after Portugal's recognition of the independence of Brazil in 1826, a treaty was made between Great Britain and Brazil for the suppression of the slave-trade; however, in those times and for many years afterward, the influence of the slaveholding class in Brazil was powerful enough to counteract the wishes of any humane magistrate or statesman in that country who may have urged the enforcement of that treaty, and the slave-trade continued to flourish. Mr. Christie, a former British minister in Brazil, in his "Notes on Brazilian Questions," published in 1865, says of the action of the Government: "Left to itself, it did nothing; it treated for a long time with neglect representations of the English Government; it did not answer notes. When obliged to reply, it protested that its dignity did not allow it to act while pressed by a foreign government; it resented interference, and clamored to be left free to exe-

cute its own laws, forgetting that treaty stipulations gave a right to England to interfere. At last, after force had been used, and the English Government was known to be serious, and there seemed no help for it, it has done what it ought to have done long before." Speaking of the action of the Brazilian authorities in regard to the treaty for the suppression of the slave-trade, Lord Aberdeen, in 1845, said, "With rare exceptions the treaty has been by them systematically violated from the period of its conclusion to the present time." At that time the clandestine importation of African slaves into Brazil was estimated at seventy thousand annually, of whom, no doubt, some are still toiling on plantations. Mr. Christie states that it was estimated that a million slaves had been imported since the formal abolition of the trade by treaty.

John Candler and Wilson Burgess, members of the Society of Friends, went from England to Rio de Janeiro, in 1852, with an address to the Emperor, and on their return from Brazil they wrote: "The late conduct of Great Britain in chasing slavers into the harbors of Brazil, and making seizures of them under its very forts, has contributed mainly to stimulate the Government of Brazil to put down the African slave-trade in that country. It deeply wounded the pride of the nation to see its past insincerity and bad faith thus exposed before the whole world; the Emperor, therefore, resolved to take the matter at once into his own hands, and by bold measures to crush the traffic." So the dispatch of Mr. Henry Southern, the British diplomatic representative in Brazil, of May 10, 1852, shows the admission of the Brazilian Minister of Foreign Affairs that it was the compulsory measures of Great Britain which enabled the Brazilian Cabinet to influence their countrymen in co-operating to support,

or, at least, in not opposing, measures to put down the slave-trade.

In a letter of the distinguished Brazilian, Mr. Joaquim Nabuco, who has spent several years in England, and who received very strong support as candidate for deputy in his native city, Pernambuco, published September 11, 1884, he says: "The Conservative opposition now denounce the Emperor as the chief of the abolition propaganda, ascribe the Dantas project to the pressure of the Emperor, and endeavor by every means to identify him with abolitionism. Some of the Republicans—I say some, because the Republican party is to-day divided on the question of emancipation—declare that the Conservatives are serving the republic by their attacks upon the monarchy. . . . There is no doubt but that from 1840 to 1850 the Emperor struggled constantly for the suppression of the slave-trade, encountering the greatest resistance; that from 1865 to 1871 he made great efforts for the freedom of the future offspring of slave mothers; and, finally, that in 1884 he resolutely decided on the liberation of slaves of sixty years of age and upward, and of others by means of emancipation. But this will not compare for example with the act of Alexander II. Dom Pedro II has reigned forty-four years, and the capital of the empire which boasts of being the first city in South America is yet a slave-market."

Slavery having existed, as it still does, in all latitudes of Brazil, it has never occasioned that bitter local or sectional feeling which it caused in the United States. It could, therefore, have scarcely led to such a catastrophe as it produced in our country. Still, the Brazilians, in taking steps for emancipation, were probably somewhat influenced by American experience, as well as by the

reprobation of mankind, the steady and industrious behavior of the freed people in the United States affording an especially powerful argument in favor of liberation. And, it appears to me, the Brazilians are entitled to praise for wise statesmanship in having solved their slavery problem in a peaceful manner, even though their system of emancipation is slow.

The one important feature of the Emancipation Act of Brazil of September 28, 1871—sometimes called the Rio Branco law, from the name of the prime minister of the time—is the provision that all children born of slave mothers after the passage of that act shall become free on attaining the age of twenty-one years. A few hundred slaves belonging to the Crown were declared free; but the great mass of slaves born previous to September 28, 1871, were left in bondage. However, the act made some provision for a fund for the purchase and liberation of slaves. It provided that the tax on slaves, the tax on their sale or bequest, the proceeds of certain lotteries, the fines collected under the act, together with public appropriations and private donations, should constitute an emancipation fund, to be duly apportioned among the several provinces. The whole amount raised from these sources since the passage of the act has been, in round numbers, six and a half million dollars. By it some 20,000 slaves had been purchased and set free up to 1885, being at an average price for each one of three hundred and twenty-five dollars. It is estimated that from 80,000 to 100,000 have also been set free by private emancipation in the same time; also that 200,000 have died, making a decrease of about 320,000 in the number of slaves since the passage of the law. The number of slaves in Brazil, September 30, 1873, according to the registration

which was then assumed to be complete, was 1,540,796, so that the number now in the empire must be fully 1,200,000. Private emancipation is a matter of frequent occurrence all over the country, and is apparently encouraged by the popular sympathy. Indeed, in some localities the cause has advanced with enthusiasm. Especially in the early part of 1884, say in March, there was a strong anti-slavery agitation, resulting in the formal declaration of liberation in two of the northern provinces—Amazonas and Ceará. However, a senator has lately declared that slaves are still held in both those provinces, and I have myself had misgivings as to whether abolition or emancipation had been fully carried out there. In Rio de Janeiro mass-meetings and fairs were held, eloquent speeches delivered, streets were decorated, and other displays made in behalf of the abolition movement, which seemed to have the support of a considerable portion of the influential classes. Still, it must be remembered that there are over a million slaves in the empire, the most of whom are tenaciously held in the richest agricultural districts.

In regard to the children born of slave mothers after September 28, 1871, and who, by the terms of the law, are absolutely free at the age of twenty-one years, it may be supposed that such jealous and rigorous means of identity have been thrown around them that they will be able effectually to claim their liberty on the very day of their majority. As a means, and the only means, to this end, the Emancipation Act provides that they should all be registered in books kept by the parish priests. It must occasion regret to know that the work does not appear to have been very carefully attended to. The Minister and Secretary of State for the Department of Agriculture, Commerce, and Public Works, in his annual report, dated May

10, 1883, stated that the returns scarcely showed with certainty that, in the city of Rio de Janeiro and in thirteen provinces, on June 30, 1882, the number of children who had been born of slave mothers since September 28, 1871, was 173,776. Returns in respect of such minors were wholly wanting from seven provinces, including the three large and populous agricultural provinces of Bahia, São Paulo, and Minas-Geraes.

On large and rich plantations, where there are several hundred slaves, the organization, discipline, and treatment in every way are likely to be much better than on plantations where there are but few. On plantations having, say, twenty slaves or thereabout, one will sometimes see them hurried in their steps and work by pricking them with a long stick having a sharp-pointed iron in one end of it. Women as well as men are to-day goaded like beasts on many Brazilian plantations. Flogging is a very frequent method of enforcing discipline. Indeed, in early times flogging seems to have been a pretty general system of punishment. Once a Brazilian offender claimed to be exempt from it from being half *hidalgo*; but the magistrate ordered half his body to be flogged, and left him to determine which half was *hidalgo*!

A recent authoritative and fair account of slavery as it now exists in Brazil is contained in the speech in the Brazilian Senate, which was delivered June 9, 1884, by Senator Ottoni, an old statesman, representing in part the great province of Minas-Geraes, and who is distinguished for the independence and candor of his views:

“Ever since this question has become somewhat heated,” said he, “I have constantly heard the staunchest supporters of slavery say, ‘I, too, am an emancipator.’ Who is not? We all are. But, when any measure is

mentioned, they say, 'Not that, because the planters can not bear it.' They want emancipation, they say, yet no efficacious step in this direction pleases them. They only want a drawling progress—I am wrong; they want the mystification of the Emancipation Act of September 28, 1871. According to the progression with which we are executing that law as it stands, the real emancipator is Death. There have died, since 1871, at least some half-million of slaves, while in the same period the state has emancipated less than twenty thousand. Let us calculate the end of slavery according to the present state of things. The youngest slaves are those born in 1871 prior to the passing of the law; many of these will attain to eighty years of age, some even to one hundred, but let us say eighty years of age; and thus only in 1950, the very middle of the twentieth century, will Death complete his work. This state of things is unworthy of a civilized nation. . . . I know not if I am a pessimist—God grant that I may be! God grant that I may be a simple visionary!—but the present state of the Brazilian nation appears to me critical and beset with dangers. Certain events are taking place around us which, in my opinion, are imperiling public peace, tending to thwart the execution of the laws, annulling the action of our tribunals, and are on the high-road to establish a ferocious and bloody anarchy. First, then, the effronteries and crimes committed by the slaves against their masters, overseers, and drivers have multiplied deplorably and with disquieting frequency of late years. It is a lamentable fact which ought to be studied by the authorities. When attention was called to this fact in the lower house, it was answered that it was nothing new, that such had always been the case; but that answer, if sincere, showed very little reflection. What

we are witnessing now has never been seen before. The few crimes of this kind, committed at long intervals, did not present the serious characteristics which distinguish these crimes now. Formerly, the criminal fled, or he denied the fact, or he tried to escape the penalty of the law; now, however, he murders, and goes immediately to the authorities and delivers himself up, saying, We have committed a murder; we want to be punished. It is this which increases the gravity of the situation. I, Mr. President, have completed my seventy-third year; for more than half a century I have had the full use of my faculties. I see, I hear, I observe, and I can bear witness that the treatment of slaves in Brazil has gone on steadily improving.

“Before the slave-trade was abolished, and while the slavers were deluging our shores with legions of dull-witted Africans, who were bought for a mere song, the slave-owners generally were careless of the duration of the lives of their slaves; even those (and they happily constituted the majority) who were incapable of ill-treating them, or of cruelly punishing them, even they recklessly sacrificed the life of the slave to excess of work. There were twelve or fourteen hours of severe labor in sun and rain; there were still two hours at night in cultivating cereals for their own food and that of the domestic animals; and there was in addition an hour at daybreak in cleaning up the drying-ground ready for the coffee—making fifteen or sixteen hours of grinding toil, which no constitution can stand. And to this must be added insufficient or inadequate food, and for clothing something just short of absolute nakedness.

“It was commonly held among the slaveholders, and I have heard it from many, that the net proceeds of the

first year's labor of a slave were at least enough to cover his cost; that the second and following years were clear profit. Why, then, said they, should we bother ourselves about them, when we can so easily get fresh ones at such a low price? But when the slave-trade was extinguished the price of the slave advanced, and his treatment began at once to be more humane. The cholera, which decimated the slave population, resulted in vastly improving his treatment, his dwelling, his clothing, in his being withdrawn from the field in wet weather, etc.; and the law of the 28th of September still further improved his condition. To-day there is no question that the condition of the Brazilian slave is no whit inferior to that of the laborer in the great nations of Europe; and yet, at the very time that his condition has been so immensely improved, his irritability and ferocity are on the increase—facts well worthy the attention of all those who bestow a thought on the future of this country.

“But, parallel to these facts, there are arising others equally lamentable, still more reprehensible, for they are committed by free men. I refer to the expulsion from their domicile of those judges who have given certain decisions, by individuals collected and armed, and who have been called the populace. I refer to the expulsion of advocates who petition the courts for the judicial freedom of a slave; and, on a par with these still more astounding abuses, the invasion of the jails, and the forcible withdrawal of criminals, who are hacked to pieces in the public square. And, what is most alarming, is the silence preserved about each one of these facts! To the expelled judge the Government gives another district; as to the citizens violently assailed in their rights, they are left to settle those matters among themselves; and no one has

yet heard say that the author or authors of a single one of these attacks on jails and of murders of prisoners had been discovered—people content themselves with saying, ‘It is lynch law.’

“Among the planters of a large part of the south of the empire there is a wide-spread compact to bring pressure upon the jury to acquit slave offenders so they may be handed over to their owners, who naturally administer justice with their own hands. That this is the general inclination among the coffee-planters I know for a fact.

“There are yet other symptoms which are equally serious. Let the Senate just mark the line which is being followed by the planters’ clubs founded in nearly all the municipalities of the provinces of Rio de Janeiro, Minas, and São Paulo. The statutes of some clubs contain articles which imply that they are constituting themselves an *imperium in imperio*, completely eliminating the application of the laws and the action of the authorities. . . . One great reason the planters give for taking such steps for their mutual protection is the failure of the Government to execute the death-penalty for high crimes committed by slaves. But the gallows is no remedy for the state of things which I have described to the Senate; what we have to do is to clear up the point to our countrymen, and leave the Crown free to exercise the power conferred upon it by the Constitution. . . .

“For five years, from 1866 to 1871, the promise of the freedom of the wretched slaves, like a ray of sunlight, penetrated from the throne to every corner of the empire. We all remember the journeys into the interior which the chief of state made at that time, and how, if it was not a working-day, the slaves lined the road on both sides, and on their knees blessed their redeemer as he passed. The

five years of these golden hopes passed, the hour of their realization arrived in the law of the 28th of September, and the undeceiving of these poor wretches was sad and complete. The law declared that those who should be born thenceforward should be free, but as a fact it made no such provision, for it left them in bondage until they were twenty-one years of age. Still, it at least assured them of freedom on their attaining their majority. But what did it do for the existing generation? It spoke of their gradual emancipation in such terms as we are accustomed to describe as '*para Inglez ver*'" (for the English to see).

Mr. DA MOTTA: "They were hoodwinked."

Mr. JAGUARIBE: "It is the administrators of the law who have not carried it out; that's what's the matter."

Mr. OTTONI: "No, sir; it comes from the law and its administrators."

Mr. DA MOTTA: "Hear, hear!"

Mr. JAGUARIBE: "The law was the thin end of the wedge; and, had it not been for that, there would be no propaganda to-day."

Mr. OTTONI: "The report of the Minister of Agriculture for the present year only too justly laments that the state has succeeded in emancipating only nineteen thousand slaves, when during the same period there have died, according to the report, one hundred and ninety-one thousand. But far greater would be the regret and the disappointment of the noble ex-Minister of Agriculture were he to reflect that the figures of this part of his report are notoriously and willfully false!"

Mr. DA MOTTA: "Hear, hear!"

Mr. OTTONI: "Notoriously and willfully false, as has already been proved in the Legislative Assembly, without

any steps having been taken in consequence! These figures would give, calculated progressively, an annual death-rate of a little over one per cent, barely one and a quarter per cent. Now, I will venture to say that no nucleus of population in the whole world, even of free men, shows so low a death-rate; it is everywhere over two per cent. Besides, who does not know that the deaths of the plantation slaves are never registered? Who is there that is ignorant that the planters of a certain class have cemeteries on their estates, where they bury the corpses of their slaves without holding themselves accountable to any one, and without any oversight on the part of the authorities?

“The regulations for the execution of the law of the 28th of September require that notice shall be given of the deaths of the registered slaves, and impose fines for non-compliance; but the required notice is never given, and no fine has ever been inflicted yet. And here is the proper place for me to reply to the noble senator who just now interrupted me: the executors execute ill whatever is mischievous in the law, and destroy all the good that it may contain. The result is, that while the state emancipates nineteen thousand slaves, death liberates half a million probably—some four or five hundred thousand, perhaps. . . .

“I am an emancipationist, but profoundly discontented with everything that has been done, and still more so with the obstinacy which wants to do nothing in the direction of developing this principle. The result of this discontent must necessarily be the going over to abolition. I regret, as I have already stated, this tendency; but I wish still to hope on, especially after hearing the promises made by the ministry. . . . It is to be presumed that any radical measure which it may propose in this direction

will meet with the assent of the majority of the Chamber. Should such, however, not be the case, it would be a glorious mission for the ministry to present its radical measure, and to dissolve the Chamber for that reason; thus facilitating the organization of the two parties—emancipationist and pro-slavery—the only two which have any right to exist at the present time.”

The Cabinet of Senator Dantas, including much of the best talent and parliamentary influence of the Liberal party, and a chief of undoubted capacity for government, came into office June 5, 1884, for the purpose of carrying through some further measure of emancipation. On the 15th of July following, the long-looked for plan was presented in the Chamber of Deputies by a member from Bahia, Mr. Rodolpho Dantas, a son of the prime minister. The main provisions of the bill were, that slaves who have attained or shall attain the age of sixty years are declared free, without pay to their owners; a new registration was to be made, and a tax of five per cent on all slaves, according to a specified valuation, collected for an emancipation fund.

Mr. Penido, Liberal, submitted this motion: “The Chamber, disapproving the Government bill on slavery, denies its confidence to the Government,” which was adopted by fifty-nine votes for it to fifty-two against it.

The ministry then decided, with the Emperor’s approval, on appealing to the country, if the right of suffrage of two hundred and fifty thousand in a population of thirteen million can be so called. A dissolution of the Chamber, whose term of four years was nearly up anyhow, was decreed; but meantime the General Assembly devoted its attention to the appropriation bills.

On the 20th of March the prime minister, Mr. Dantas,

had delivered a speech in the Senate principally with reference to his scheme of emancipation, but in which, from the turn of the previous discussion, he was diverted into a number of topics. In the course of his speech he said that, while twenty thousand slaves had been freed by the emancipation fund, some three hundred thousand had been emancipated by death since the act of September 28, 1871.

The following is a speech which he did *not* deliver: "Mr. President, the Prince of Wales, as presiding officer of a public meeting in London in August last, delivered an address, in which he said: 'Then, as to Brazil, you are probably aware that, while all the small republics of South America put an end to slavery when they ceased connection with Spain, Brazil alone retains the curse she inherited from her Portuguese rulers. At the present moment Brazil possesses nearly a million and a half of slaves on her vast plantations, many of whom lead a life worse than that of beasts of burden.' Our country is getting the ill-will of foreigners in consequence of slavery. Besides, there is an important anti-slavery sentiment in our own country which demands some additional and reasonable measure of emancipation. The business and industrial interests of the country require that something be done to allay agitation and discontent. The plan of the ministry is to emancipate absolutely and without compensation to the owners all slaves who have reached the age of sixty years. Objection is made to this on the ground that it imposes on the slaveholder too great a sacrifice. Well, it would be pleasant for the state to buy the freedom of these slaves if it could afford to do so. The state, however, is now so deeply in debt, and the currency so greatly depreciated, that it would not be pru-

dent to increase the indebtedness for this object. To increase taxation would be equally objectionable, because taxes on imports and exports are now exceedingly high. Indeed, a part of the public financial burden was incurred for railroads and other improvements which have enhanced the value of plantations. Were it not for the very difficult financial situation of the country, we would all, I think, most cheerfully compensate the masters for every slave proposed to be liberated.

“But, after all, is it much of a sacrifice for the owners to liberate without pay those slaves who are sixty years old? In briefly considering this question, I do so with feelings of respect and kindness to the slaveholding planters, who, collectively, are as estimable a class of people as we have. Let us look at the matter in the light of the present day—and which, be assured, has penetrated to the cabin of the slave—as a simple question of labor and wages, devoid of sentiment and of traditional prejudice. We find, then, in our country a class of men and women of African descent, aged sixty years, who have been kept at compulsory labor for forty years without receiving wages. What have they earned? What gain have the masters derived from their toil all these forty years? If we can ascertain this, then we can better understand whether or not it will be a sacrifice for the masters now to terminate without indemnity this relation of compulsory labor without wages. The average wages of an agricultural laborer in Brazil have been one milreis per day; and, in addition to the work he would do to earn this amount, he would perform the labor necessary to raise the subsistence for himself and family. The slave, fulfilling daily an allotted task, unquestionably has earned more than the average free laborer working for wages; but, to

be surely in the limits of moderation, let us assume that the average net earnings of a slave, male and female, have been only half a milreis a day, and that there have been in each year as many as eighty-five days in which he did not work. His net earnings, then, have amounted to one hundred and forty milreis (at present exchange, fifty-two dollars of United States money) per year. Since he was twenty years old, or during forty years, he has, at this rate, earned five thousand six hundred milreis. But, when he had finished twenty years' work, he had, at the same rate, earned half that amount—say, two thousand eight hundred milreis—which sum, if it had been put at interest, would have doubled in the next twenty years. Add this to his earnings, and we have eight thousand four hundred milreis (8,400\$000; in United States money, \$3,108) as the net amount of what his master has derived from his labor during forty years, and at the time he has reached the age of sixty years at half a milreis a day. Twenty years ago the average value of a field-slave was fifteen hundred milreis, and forty years ago it was less. Even deduct from these net earnings the original cost of the slave, and interest thereon, and we see that the master can liberate him at the age of sixty, and still hold a very substantial balance of earnings in his hands.

“Mr. President, the world moves. We live in a time when, by steam communication, telegraphs, and newspapers, thought travels rapidly. However illiterate the slave may be, he is not to-day ignorant of public sentiment and of what is due to labor. I appeal to the planters and their representatives to be wise in time, and to accept the proposition now offered. If they do not, who can guarantee that in the future they will receive one as favorable? The United States was a peace-loving and

tranquil country, yet African slavery, just such as we have among us, threw it into a paroxysm of civil war which, during an entire generation, involved the slaveholders in distress, and in many instances caused their absolute ruin. Let us profit by their experience, and give some token that we respect the anti-slavery sentiment of our country."

For several succeeding days one or two speeches a day on the slavery question were made by different senators, and of length sufficient to fill about a whole page of the big "Jornal do Commercio," but, as a rule, they were characterized by vagueness.

On the 29th of April a decree prolonging the extra session of the General Assembly to the 19th of May was read in the Senate and in the Chamber of Deputies. In the latter branch some inquiries were made, apparently to embarrass the ministry. Then, on the taking up of the report in the contested election case for the second district of Rio Grande do Norte, a very disorderly scene ensued, and the presiding officer suspended the session for fifteen minutes. It was reported that one member had assaulted another member. There was some jeering and hissing in the galleries, and subsequently one or two members were jostled by a crowd in the street, but no one received any bodily injury. However, the disorder was made the ground of complaint the next day by certain senators, who imputed to the ministry an inability to maintain public order. In the Senate a strong attack on the Government was made by Senator Brandão, of Pernambuco, who moved for information as to what steps had been taken to guarantee the independence of the Chamber of Deputies and public order. His speech, which was frequently interrupted, was replied to, in the absence, from

sickness, of the prime minister, by Senator de Sa, Minister of the Empire, who denied any responsibility of the Government in the matter, and said there had been no disturbance of the peace. He called attention to the fact that the disorderly persons had been spectators in the Chamber, where they could only enter by cards, and that these cards were furnished by the officers of the Chamber. He explained how the Government were the chief sufferers from the occurrence, and the injustice and absurdity of charging them with complicity in it. The minister was constantly interrupted by opposition senators, but seems to have retained his coolness under great provocation.

On the 2d of May Prime-Minister Dantas appeared in the Senate, and, being still unwell, made some remarks, seated in a chair, partly in reply to the inquiry of Senator Junqueira, as to whether the prolongation of the extra session had been made after consulting the Grand Council of State. He thanked the Conservative Senator de Souza for yielding him the floor, and said that, while his health was far from satisfactory, his sense of duty and what he had read in the papers about the previous session had brought him to the Senate. He repeated Senator de Sa's assertion that no blame could be placed on the Government as to the disorderly occurrences at the Chamber. He would stand or fall with his emancipation project.

The opposition in the Chamber of Deputies, however, seized the opportunity to renew its attack on the ministry; and, on Monday, the 4th of May, Mr. Antonio de Siqueira, of Pernambuco, moved that "the Chamber of Deputies, convinced that the ministry is unable to guarantee the public order and security, which are indispensable for the solution of the slavery question, refuses to it its con-

fidence," which was carried by a vote of fifty-two to fifty. Immediately after this the Cabinet ministers, driving, as usual, each in a close carriage with two mounted guards, held a meeting at the office of the Minister of Agriculture, and then the prime minister, Senator Dantas, started for Petropolis to confer with the Emperor. At six o'clock a large anti-slavery mass-meeting was held in the Lapa Square, which, after listening to some address, went in an orderly manner to the Rua Ouvidor and cheered in front of the offices of four prominent newspapers which supported the Government plan of emancipation. The "Paiz" newspaper the next morning said: "It rests now with the Crown to pronounce upon the new conflict which has arisen between the ministry and the accidental majority. Public order never has been so assured as now, as can easily be understood, seeing that the people are in favor of the Government and of its political programme."

On the 5th of May the Emperor came down from his summer residence to Rio with Senator Dantas, and the same day at the palace consulted with some of the leading statesmen, and, first of all, with Senator Saraiva. The result was that Mr. Saraiva accepted the invitation of his Majesty to form a new ministry, which was organized the 6th of May.

The emancipation project of the new ministry was presented in the Chamber of Deputies May 11th, the distinctive features of which consisted in a large increase of the emancipation fund, namely, two and a half million dollars annually by a Government five per cent loan, the interest on which is to be paid by a five per cent additional tax on imports; the payment to masters of two hundred milreis—say, eighty dollars—for each slave aged sixty years, four hundred milreis for slaves aged fifty years, six

hundred for those aged forty years, eight hundred for those aged thirty years, and one thousand milreis for those under twenty years of age. Slaves upward of sixty-five are declared free, without pay to the master. All freedmen over sixty years of age to remain with their masters, who must feed, clothe, and care for them in sickness, availing of their services, provided the orphans' court does not decide that the said freedmen can earn their own living. Slaves between sixty and sixty-five will be obliged to work for three years. A new registry of slaves to be made, but not including those over sixty. The master will pay a fee of one milreis for the registry of each slave, and those not registered within the time fixed will be considered free.

The prime minister, Mr. Saraiva, made some remarks on the subject in the Senate on May 23d. It was his conviction that no country could transform slave into free labor without an outlay by the state. If labor could be reorganized on ten, fifty, sixty, or eighty plantations, the slavery question was finished. The project was a large expansion of the original law. From the time he had first considered the question he had said that such a project must be formulated as would need no future improvements; hence, his opposition to the former project, which was not definite, and he believed the present would finally settle the question. Again, on June 1st, in the Chamber of Deputies, he said that if it was objected that the project did not propose a pecuniary indemnification for slaves of sixty-five years, it must be remembered that many planters would prefer to employ these old slaves as teachers of the younger ones, rather than receive one or two hundred milreis for them. He thought that a fixed period was the worst means that could be employed, and it was

for the purpose of defeating anarchical and revolutionary principles that the Government organized the project as it was. The project did not limit itself to freeing the slave; it had a more serious aim, that of the transformation of labor; and, unless the planters are furnished with the necessary means, there could be no transformation of labor. With an annual discount of six per cent on the value of the slave, and two per cent death-rate, he estimated that in ten years slavery would be extinct.

The project, after considerable discussion and some amendments, was passed in the Chamber of Deputies, on August 13th, by a small majority, due in part to Conservative votes; and the following day the Saraiva Cabinet resigned, and the Emperor, after consulting the Presidents of the Senate and Chamber, decided, on August 19th, to call on the Conservatives to form a Government. Their leader, Senator Baron de Cotegipe, promptly undertook the task, as premier, accepting for himself the portfolio of Minister of Foreign Affairs. His Cabinet supported the Saraiva project, and it passed the Senate and became a law on September 28, 1885.

On June 1, 1886, ex-Premier Dantas treated the Senate to a surprise by introducing, in behalf of himself and nine others, a bill for the unconditional abolition of slavery at the expiration of five years from its adoption. It was referred to a special committee, which was elected by the Senate on the following day, and composed of strongly pro-slavery men, among whom were Nunes Gonçalves and Martinho Campos. In five days the committee made an adverse report, declining to consider emancipation as an abstract question, but rejecting the project for its lack of opportuneness and its effects on high social interests. In their view the Saraiva-Cotegipe law was satisfying the

aspirations of the country. According to the official report for 1886, the whole number of slaves liberated by the emancipation fund since 1871 was 24,165, at an average price of \$288 for each slave—being less than 2,000 liberations per year. According to official returns, the number of slaves in the empire on June 30, 1885, was 1,133,228; and it is likely that Americans will drink coffee produced by slave-labor for at least a quarter of a century longer.

CHAPTER XIX.

THE RELIGIOUS ORDERS.

THE fact that the Pope sided with Spain against the crown of Portugal over two centuries ago, probably has made the Catholics of the latter country and of Brazil more national and less Romish, in church matters, than have been the Catholics of some other countries. The Jesuits, who had been especially active and useful in civilizing the Indians in Brazil, were expelled from the country a century and a quarter ago for having influenced the Indians to revolt against the Government.

In its proceedings against the monasteries Brazil has been slower than either Italy, Portugal, or Spain. It is only lately that it began to put in force a law for gradually winding up the monastic institutions. No new members can be received into these orders, but existing members remain unmolested. A commission under the Government was appointed to ascertain and appraise the revenue-yielding property of the different monasteries, which is understood to be large; this property was to be sold and its proceeds invested in interest-bearing securities, and out of it the surviving members of the orders were to be supported during life, after which the funds would revert to the national treasury. This action by the

legislative and executive power of the state has been hotly denounced by the Catholic clergy and some of their political friends as confiscation and robbery. Sermons have been preached, and voluminous articles published in the newspapers, denunciatory alike of the Emperor and Government for permitting the law to be carried into execution. The result has been that the law seems to be rather at a standstill.

The Franciscan Convent on São Antonio Hill is an antique massive pile, which from its long stretch of steps reminds one of the old Roman Capitol. The visit which I made to it was on one of the festival-days of the order. I was ushered into the reception-room of the provincial, or chief of the convent, where, besides three or four gentlemen, who appeared to be making a social visit, were two rather distinguished-looking men dressed in long black robes tied about them with a white cord, and whom I naturally took to be the higher officials of the order. The one of these, who took the leading part in the conversation, and who impressed me at once by his dignified manner, his deep fine voice, and fluent speech as an ideal abbot, such as Sir Walter Scott describes, I supposed was the head of the convent. I felt a gratified astonishment in meeting such a character; but I was destined to disappointment, for I learned later on that he was a Rio lawyer and politician. It was Dr. Antonio F. Vianna, a leading member of the Chamber of Deputies from Rio de Janeiro, distinguished as a debater, and who, as syndic or solicitor of the convent, was present on this occasion in the capacity of a lay member, wearing the regalia of the order. The conversation gradually led to the character of Brazilian monasteries, a subject on which I wished information from the monks themselves. Dr. Vianna launched out

into an eloquent historical review of the operations of the brotherhoods in Brazil, beginning over two centuries back, and touching their work in civilizing the Indians, in promoting education, in caring for the needy, and withal touching on the manner in which they had been oppressed. He dwelt with emphasis on the fact that there had never been religious persecution in Brazil. From him and Provincial Costa I learned that this convent had become rich; that some property was originally granted to it by the Government; that about fifty thousand dollars in money had been annually expended by it in recent times for the poor; that there are many thousand lay members of the order, and that a large hospital for their benefit is maintained by the convent; that there are now only three monks belonging to this convent, and only about twenty monks in all the twelve convents of the Franciscan order in Brazil. When the convent was in full operation the ordinary duties of the brothers, who were all educated men, were to administer the sacrament to the dying, solicit alms, and visit the sick and poor. "When the convents took charge of the poor," said Dr. Vianna, "we had no beggars among us." "Where did the brothers take their exercise and recreation?" "Out here on the mountain"—pointing to the adjacent São Antonio Hill.

They took me to see the churches, of which there are two, having much ornamentation; also the vestries, library, and other places of interest about the convent. The library is in a separate and higher building than the others. There were a couple of thousand or more ponderous volumes in calf-gilt binding, the most of them being works of the church fathers in both Latin and Greek, in opposite columns on the same page; and, though a hundred years old, the pages of several that I opened looked as

clear and fresh as if they had just come from the press. There did not appear to be a single modern book in all the collection, and the thought struck me that the library was symbolic of the convent as an institution failing to keep up with the times.

In a niche of one of the churches there was pointed out to me the tomb of some of the royal princes who had been buried there in colonial days. As we were walking over the stone-slab pavement of one of the lower corridors opening on the interior court, I was told that underneath was the former burying-place of the brothers. The vestries are spacious rooms, with marble floors, and contain many big drawers made of Brazil-wood in natural colors, in which are kept the priestly vestments. Some of these, very rich in gold embroidery, were taken out by Provincial De Costa and shown me. When the beautiful vase of solid gold, and other golden vessels used in celebrating mass, were exhibited, one or two humorous remarks were dropped at the expense of those who in these days are trying to get hold of the convent's effects.

I took leave of both these gentlemen, who had courteously spent an hour or two in showing me about the convent, and in explaining its history, very favorably impressed by their frank and manly character.

The Benedictine Convent of Rio de Janeiro, founded in 1590, is situated in the busiest corner of the city, on a hill about a hundred feet high, close to and overlooking the harbor. The street, on which are the Post-Office and new Merchants' Exchange, abuts on this hill, and it is from that street that the convent is entered. The approach up to it is over a solid and ancient-looking way, partly of steps cut from long and whole blocks of granite, and is partially shaded by the green foliage of trees through

which, as I passed under them, shone the afternoon sun of a perfect summer day.

The building is in the form of a square with an ample stone paved interior court. The church occupies one whole side. The upper story of another side is occupied by the large school which the convent sustains. The corridors are long and of good width and paved with stone. At two corners are tile-paved reception-rooms, hung with several portraits, and having windows which overlook the island-studded bay. Immediately below the convent on the north side are the Government's iron ship-yard and machine-shops, the noise from which would be almost sufficient to abolish the convent without other proceeding. The establishment of these works so near the convent was literally a flank movement against it.

My visit to the abbot of the Benedictine Convent of Rio de Janeiro, the Rev. Manoel de Santa Catharina Furtado, took place at his private parlor in the convent on Saturday, the 11th of October. I sent in my card, and, although my visit was unexpected, I was soon admitted and received by him in a cordial manner. The abbot is a man, I should say, about forty-five years of age, a little over five feet in height, inclined to be fat, complexion, hair, and eyes dark, an open, intelligent countenance, and animated manner. He wore a long tunic, cape, and scapulary of black serge, also a standing collar, but no cover on his head. At his request I took a seat on the cane-seat sofa, he sitting in one of the arm cane-seat chairs, of which two rows were ranged perpendicular to the sofa. Though in a very old building the room was modern and furnished like almost any tidy Rio parlor. On a marble-topped center-table and on some cabinets were several branched candlesticks with figured glasses to surround the

candles, and one or two stands of artificial flowers. There was a rug in front of the sofa. The floor was made of narrow cedar boards neatly finished in natural color. Two windows in the room afforded an extensive view of the port and shipping. After some casual remarks, I said, "It has been the fashion in late years for writers of books in the English language on Brazil to speak unfavorably of Catholic priests and monks."

"That," said he, "was because they did not take the trouble to come and see us and learn the truth about us. You should have seen," he continued, "the crowds of people who came up here, with tears running down their cheeks, at the time the Government had in view the appropriation of the convent's property, and who were afraid they would be deprived of the donations they had been accustomed regularly to receive. The Government finally arranged that these charitable contributions might be continued, and the convent now pays out monthly in charity sums varying from two to twenty-five milreis (one to ten dollars) to over a hundred people, say in all seven hundred dollars a month." The abbot stepped to his adjoining bedchamber and produced a large blank-book wherein he showed me a list of one hundred and twenty-three names of citizens—which, of course, I did not think it my place to read—with the monthly allowance set opposite each name. The convent also expends, as he informed me, eight thousand dollars annually in maintaining a free primary and secondary school for boys, in the latter of which they can fit for the higher scientific and professional schools. This school was established in 1858, by a brother of Mr. Sariva, the Liberal statesman, and now has an average attendance of about four hundred pupils. He cited the fact that the convent had produced

some men of acknowledged learning and usefulness, naming as one of them the brother or friar who was the instructor of the Imperial Princess—the exemplary wife and mother who is now next in succession to the throne. Another was the Professor of Philosophy in the College of Dom Pedro II.

In the course of his rapid observations he cited other facts that would tend to reflect credit on the brotherhood, but which I do not recall. Naturally the maintaining of regular public worship in the church of the convent would be an important claim to consideration.

“The income from the property of the convent,” said the abbot, “is three hundred contos (one hundred and twelve thousand dollars) annually; but the Government levies a tax on this of twenty-two per cent. The income of the convent in 1850 was only twenty-five thousand dollars.”

“When the convent was in a flourishing condition, what were the rules for admission to membership?” I asked.

“In former times candidates were admitted not younger than the age of fifteen years, and had a trial of half a year, during which they did not leave the convent. At the end of that time they could make their profession to become one of the brotherhood or they could leave. This was changed in 1856 so they were admitted at fifteen years of age and upward, and then had a year’s trial, during which they remained constantly at the convent, at the end of which time they could make their profession, or they could go on and finish the regular six years’ course of study required in all cases, and, when ready to be ordained, they could make the solemn declaration to become a member, or they could simply become a priest and leave

the order entirely. The course of study is about the same as at Catholic theological seminaries. Though candidates were usually admitted while young, the convent once received a man at the age of forty because he was distinguished. He was a Frenchman, and favored by the Emperor, who appointed him librarian. No pecuniary qualifications were required of any candidate, but it was necessary he should be of a thoroughly respectable family. Practically the question of color was undoubtedly regarded, as none of African descent have been admitted. No one could be admitted without a knowledge of French, Latin, geography, and history; he must have had about the same literary training required for admission to a theological seminary."

"What were the duties of the monks and the discipline they were subjected to? Could they go into society? Could they dine out?"

"There was no regulation to prevent their going into society or dining out. They could not, however, lodge out of the convent, but were required to be present every evening at eight o'clock. After completing the six years' course of study required at every convent, a brother, if twenty-three years of age, but not younger, could be ordained and exercise the office of priest. Till they had finished their studies their duties and discipline were those of students; afterward, as priests, to conduct divine worship, preach, teach, and care for the poor—in fact, to do any service a priest could do. If a brother could not preach, he could, perhaps, sing and assist in public worship. Formerly the convent owned plantations, and a brother would be detailed to have charge. Thirteen years ago it freed about a thousand slaves, and gave some land to well-behaved slaves. The collection of rents is through

secular agents or attorneys. The convent has enjoyed a large annual revenue."

"Who controlled the spending of the money?"

"The abbot. He is responsible for the expenditure of the money. It is for him to determine the current expenses. He gives a written report of the money he has expended every three years. On any very important matter he receives the advice of a council of the order.

"Our order," continued the abbot, "is quite a republic. It obtained independence from Leo XII (Pope, 1823-'29), since which we have our congregation in our own country, and change our ruler or general every three years. There are now ten Benedictine Convents in good order in Brazil. The principal one is at Bahia, where the general resides, but this is the richest one. In 1850 there were, perhaps, seventy-five brothers of the Benedictine Order in Brazil; now there are only twenty-five, of whom about twelve are here. Six have died in the last three years."

"I understand that, owing to the spirit of legislation in recent years, a stop has practically been put to any increase in the number of monks, but I suppose they will be allowed to spend the rest of their days quietly in the convents where they now dwell?"

"We do not know," said the abbot. "We live in apprehension. In defending their interests during the late controversy with the Government, two orders paid sixty-six contos (twenty-six thousand dollars) to journals and lawyers."

In answering some further inquiries of mine relative to the dress of the brothers, the abbot explained the matter in a friendly and off-hand manner. He let me examine the cloth of which his tunic was made, and which he

said is called serge. The pleated slip worn over this, and extending down over the stomach, is called the scapulary. He went into his adjoining bedchamber and brought out his black gown, which he put on. It was a loose black robe of serge, with train, and he told me it was such as he or any brother wore when preaching, and that they were also buried in it. He put on his gold cross and chain; also bent down his head to show me how those of his order had their heads shaved. The part shaved is in form of a ring, an inch or more wide on the top of the head, leaving some hair in the center.

At the conclusion of our talk I expressed to the abbot my sincere thanks for the kind manner in which he had given me so much information. As I was coming away, he took me into the choir of the church and pointed out several things of interest. He also invited me to visit the church on some Sunday, and I promised to do so.

“Do not come, however,” said he, “next Sunday, for I shall be absent.”

I shook hands with him very heartily, and, as I descended the old stone stairs, I thought of the time when Brother Martin Luther himself was a monk, and that, while monasteries seem now out of date, probably the brothers are somewhat better than in the time of Luther, when every monk had “two cans of beer and a quart of wine for supper, with gingerbread, to make him take to his liquor kindly.”

The academical course of study which a theological student takes in Brazil before he can be ordained as a priest of the Catholic Church occupies twelve years. When he has finished this course, he has generally reached the age of twenty-four years. He can not, anyhow, be ordained or consecrated as a priest till he has attained that

age. Having graduated at a seminary, and being of the proper age, he can be consecrated as a priest without any other examination. As soon as he becomes ordained, he is immediately assigned by the bishop as an ordinary or assistant in some parish; and, after serving in that capacity four or five years, he can be assigned to duty as a full priest in charge of a parish. The bishop, however, in no case appoints for a longer term than one year. At the end of the year every priest must ask for re-examination, and to have his mission renewed. The salary which the Government pays each priest is four hundred milreis—say one hundred and sixty dollars—a year. The parish he serves makes up the balance, according to its means and disposition. Some parishes pay about one thousand dollars; others pay less. In addition to his salary, the priest receives some remuneration for such services as the celebration of marriages and the like. There is no fixed fee for performing the rite of baptism or of marriage, but parties requiring either service give according to their will and ability—for a baptism usually about two dollars, and for a marriage five to ten dollars. For performing mass there is a fixed fee of two milreis—say eighty cents—but probably more is voluntarily paid, as a rule.

CHAPTER XX.

PUBLIC LANDS AND IMMIGRATION.

THE only wild lands that are surveyed, and that are practically open to settlement, are those which have been set apart for colonies in the provinces of Espirito Santo, São Paulo, Paraná, Santa Catharina, and Rio Grande do Sul. The areas surveyed in each of these provinces do not much exceed the size of an ordinary county in the United States. Such new land, adapted, we will say, for coffee-growing, and situated in the province of Espirito Santo, twenty-four hours by steamship from the port of Rio de Janeiro, in the neighborhood of German and Italian colonies, can be bought of the Government in tracts of one hundred and twenty-five acres at three hundred dollars, being at the rate of two dollars and forty cents per acre. Payment may be made, if desired, in five annual payments. The land has an elevation of two thousand feet above the sea, is hilly, and covered with woods. A good part of the local transportation would be on mule-back or by boat. Though the manner of life is attended with the usual drawbacks of new settlements, the colonies, as a rule, enjoy good health, and are prospering financially.

There are extensive areas in the far interior which, on the maps, purport to be occupied by Indian tribes, and

which in most cases it is safe to conclude are not private lands. During three centuries the Crown has been making grants of land to various parties, the records of which do not appear to exist in any accessible form, if they exist at all. A man might expend weeks in exploring the wild lands, and, if he should then find a tract he wished to purchase, he would not be sure of a clear title. If he resolved to run his risk and buy of the Government, his first proceeding would be to formally request, in writing, the president of the province in which the land was situated to cause the tract to be surveyed. The president of the province would designate a surveyor to make the survey and report upon the land, after which the Government would fix the price and conditions for its sale. If a sale should be effected, the purchaser would take the land subject to the claims of other individuals, which, if any were preferred, would, unless amicably adjusted, have to be determined by expensive and dilatory proceedings before a judicial tribunal.

The wealth and future greatness of Brazil lie in the fertility of her soil. Admitting that much the greater part of her territory is waste land, yet the area that is susceptible of cultivation is immense, forming a resource which deserves to be husbanded in the wisest manner; but it will never attract enterprise till there is more certainty about titles. Even if a commencement of the work should be made to-day, the titles would not all be cleared up in fifty years. It is all the more important, therefore, that a beginning should soon be made. There should be established in each province a competent commission to settle land-titles, the whole acting under a central or general land-office. A great part of the uncultivated land is held, not by the state, but by individuals, and in tracts

large enough often to make good-sized counties. It is not taxed; and, having been obtained at a small price, the proprietors hold on to it year after year for speculation, or to gratify their vanity.

The Brazilians do not appear to realize that it is necessary to offer ownership of land as an inducement to immigrants. In this, I think, they are greatly in error. There is nothing in Europe that is so much prized as land. To own there even a few acres, and especially a hundred acres or more, carries with itself a certain dignity and social rank.

Up to this hour the Brazilian planters seem to expect to get European and island laborers by contract, to work on shares or for wages, and to live like tenants or laborers, without the expectation of an acre in their own right. This seems the more surprising in view of the expected labor crisis arising from the gradual extinction of slavery.

Official returns of the arrival of third-class passengers—the most of whom were assumed to have been immigrants—at the port of Rio de Janeiro, show the number to have been 25,845 in 1882, 26,789 in 1883, 17,999 in 1884, and 22,727 in 1885. A great majority of the immigrants are habitually from Portugal and Italy.

A scheme was projected in 1884 for introducing Chinese laborers for contract work on plantations, but it met with signal failure. A committee of Chinese subjects visited Brazil to see for themselves how the plan would work, but decided and reported against it for its lack of the element of freedom. They could not, they said, be a party to anything but free immigration. In recent years the River Plate countries have been receiving a much larger share of immigrants than Brazil. For example, while from 1857 to 1862 Brazil received 92,467 immi-

grants and the Argentine Republic 33,020, the situation was altered in the period from 1878 to 1882, during which the Argentine Republic received 176,385, and Brazil only 92,620. And yet, it is said, that during the five years of 1874 to 1879 the state expended the immense sum of \$13,000,000 to promote immigration and support immigrants.

On the interior highlands, especially in the more southern provinces, where the climate is salubrious, agriculture can be followed with profit and pleasure; and it only requires the adoption of proper measures to secure for Brazil a very great increase of her immigration. The Government appears to desire immigration. It has at Rio de Janeiro a Bureau of Colonization and of Immigration, with a director-general, assisted by several clerks. It has published documents, accompanied with fine maps, in respect of as many as five different provinces, with descriptions of their geography and resources, in the Portuguese, French, German, and Italian languages. Individuals, and especially large parties, wishing to emigrate to Brazil would do well to address themselves to that office; but the ground ought to be looked over in person or by a competent and reliable agent, before fully deciding to emigrate. While a family alone, or even a group of families, with slender means, would probably find themselves struggling with unexpected difficulties and discouragements, a considerable colony would, on the other hand, if well organized and prepared, and fully resolved on a permanent settlement, probably meet with success. It may be taken for granted that the Brazilian Government would live up to its engagements with a colony or party of immigrants; and, to show its liberality, I may mention that, though the state church is Catholic, the Government has

sometimes aided in the building of religious meeting-houses for Protestant German colonies. As the ministries are frequently changed, however, to meet the shifting majorities of the legislature, it is of the most absolute importance that any set of immigrants or colonists who purpose coming to Brazil, on any understanding with the Government, should have their contract most explicitly written, and signed by the proper officer before they start, or make any sacrifice with a view to starting. Since the beginning of the civil war probably three thousand Americans emigrated from the Southern States to Brazil, of whom many were experienced agriculturists, and possessed means; but four fifths of them have returned to the United States, and many others look forward to doing the same. Why? Not because Brazil is a bad country, but because they prefer the United States.

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