

are now abandoned; and those of the province of Arque in Cochabamba are not now regularly worked. The rich silver mines of Lipez also lie fallow, as do those of the department of Oruro. In 1870 great silver deposits were discovered at Caracoles, about 120 miles inland, in the desert province of Atacama, drawing thither a rush of miners from all parts of Chili and Peru.

Among the other mineral riches of Bolivia copper takes the next rank, and is also widely distributed. The province of Ingavi in La Paz possesses mines from which 15,000 to 20,000 cwts. of copper are annually taken. The departments of Potosi, Chuquisaca, Oruro, and Atacama are also rich in copper. Tin is mined to some extent in Potosi and Oruro, where it is found along with the silver. Lead is also frequently found in the neighbourhood of silver, as well as quicksilver. The methods hitherto employed for the reduction of the ores of this country are exceedingly imperfect and inefficient. More skill and capital are requisite to render them productive and remunerating. Coal and iron have been found in the departments of Chuquisaca, Oruro, and Beni, though the extent or value of these products is yet unknown. Precious stones, chiefly the hyacinth and opal, have been found in the department of Santa Cruz, and diamonds in Beni.

Very valuable beds of guano extend along the Pacific coast between 23° and 25° S., those of Mexillones being specially famous. Nitrate of soda also exists in great quantity in the deserts of Atacama, and is profitably worked.

**Roads.** The roads which form the means of communication between Bolivia and the surrounding countries, and between the various provinces of the republic, are in no respect sufficient for the important purposes which they are destined to serve. By inattention to the formation and preservation of roads, the Spaniards and their descendants have fallen greatly behind the ancient Peruvians, whose industry and civilization they affected to despise, and laboured hard to depreciate. The present route, for it can scarcely be designated by the name of road, from Potosi to Jujuy, the first city belonging to the Argentine Republic, is about 310 miles in length; and this place forms the point where a road commences for carriages and waggons as far as Buenos Ayres, an additional extent of land carriage of about 1617 geographical miles. The various routes from Bolivia to the coast of the Pacific, by the way of Cobija, by Tarapaca, and by Oruro to Tacna, can only be passed on mules or horseback; and travellers are sometimes exposed to great perils and hardships from exposure to the storms which occasionally prevail at such great elevations. The President Ballivian, however, while in office, did much to obviate these difficulties, and initiated a new era of things by the construction of a splendid highway, which leads from Sucre, and passing Santa Cruz, connects Mojos and Chiquitos and the fertile plains of the Beni and Madeira. Although railroads are as yet unknown in the greater part of Bolivia, and though the country presents the most formidable natural difficulties in the way of engineering, a beginning has been made in this direction. The only line at present constructed in Bolivian territory is a short one from the bay of Autofagasta, south of that of Mexillones on the Pacific coast, in Atacama, to the nitrate of soda works of Salar el Carmer; it is intended to extend this line inland to the nitrate fields and to the silver mines of Caracoles. It is also proposed to extend one of the southern Peruvian coast lines, starting from near the point of Iquique to Oruro in Bolivia. At present one of the main outlets of western Bolivia is by the Peruvian railroad from the port of Mollendo and Arequipa to Puno, on Lake Titicaca, completed in 1870. Puno, its inland terminus, is connected with Bolivia by steam navigation across Lake Titicaca.

The productions furnished by Bolivia as articles of commerce are chiefly the precious metals, vicuña and alpaca wool, guano, nitrate of soda, leather, coffee, cacao, and chinchona bark; but from the fact that no direct commercial intercourse has ever existed with the outer world, these products are frequently ascribed to the countries through which they must pass. Thus the metals and wools of Bolivia are looked upon as Peruvian, and the cinchona bark and gums passing out eastward are credited to Brazil or the Argentine Republic. The rude and simple fabrics manufactured by the Peruvian Indians are usually appropriated to their own domestic uses; while the valuable vegetable productions, and the herds of cattle and mules which are reared in the eastern parts of the republic, have hitherto scarcely been sufficient for the supply of the inhabitants of those populous mining districts that are principally dependent on them for subsistence.

Before the war of independence a very extensive traffic was maintained between the upper provinces of Peru (or Bolivia) and the provinces of the Rio de la Plata for supplies of cattle and mules. These were reared in great numbers in all the interior Argentine provinces expressly for the use of those countries, and were first sent by easy journeys to the luxuriant pastures of Salta and Jujuy, where they were carefully fed and tended during the winter, previous to their being conveyed to their final destination in Bolivia and Peru. Some idea may be formed of the extent of this traffic from the statement that, besides all those furnished by the other Argentine provinces, the province of Salta alone supplied annually to Upper and Lower Peru from 60,000 to 80,000 mules, on all of which they realized considerable profits, the prices being proportioned to the distance to which they were conveyed. The customs derived from the import of cattle from the Argentine Republic still form an important source of revenue. The trade is now in a great degree diverted from the Argentine provinces to the ports of the Pacific called the Puertos Intermedios. Tacna and Arequipa, with their respective ports, have now become the principal channels through which Bolivia receives the produce and manufactures of other countries, the Bolivian port of Cobija being of little value, owing to the difficulties of transport from it by mules and llamas across the desert track and the mountains. There are no certain returns of the value of the trade of Bolivia; the importation by Tacna and Arica is valued at 5 or 6 millions of dollars, that of Cobija at 1½ to 2 millions. A new and very important channel of communication for commerce will be opened between Bolivia and the Atlantic, whenever commercial enterprise and increasing civilization shall have established steam navigation on the Rio de la Plata and its tributary streams, or from the mouth of the Amazons to its distant tributaries the Beni and the Mamore.

The population of Bolivia consists of a mixture of various races, chiefly of the Spaniards with the Indian natives. A third of their number live in towns or "villas," the rest in smaller villages, or in the open camp. Besides the native Indians there are in the country some descendants of African negro slaves, and not a few Guaranis, who came over from the regions east of the Paraguay, and settling in the plains, have increased in numbers. The Indian population may be considered as the civilized, the half civilized, and the wild. To the first class belong the *Quichua* and *Aymara*, or the Inca Indians, who are by far the most numerous, who have come most closely into contact with the Spanish invaders, and who occupy chiefly the highlands of the west. The Indians of Mojos and Chiquitos may be considered as representing the half-civilized class,—retaining part of the civilization introduced among them in the 17th century by the Jesuits. The nomadic or wild Indians of the eastern lowlands in

Bolivia belong to the following tribes:—The *Stroncos*, who inhabit the banks of the Rio Grande or Guapay, and of the Rio Pirai; the *Hichilos*, who occupy the pampas north of San Carlos in the department of Beni; the *Penoculguias*, living in the upper or southern districts of the River Itonama or San Miguel; the *Guarañocas*, inhabiting the western portion of the space between the rivers Tucabaca and Latiriquique; the *Potororos* in the north-west of the same district; and the *Chiriguamos*, occupying the country along the north of the upper Pilcomayo below the confluence of the Pilaya. To these may be added the *Tobas*, who though they generally occupy the lower basin of the Rio Vermejo in the Argentine portion of the Chaco, occasionally make raids into the departments of Tarija and Chuquisaca, plundering and destroying the villages, and carrying off women and cattle. The *Quichua* and *Aymara* have no relations or sympathies with the Indians of the plains, who in their turn hold the civilized Indians in great contempt. These descendants of the Peruvians under the empire of the Incas are still numerous, notwithstanding the many causes which have tended to diminish their numbers, and form a distinct race, preserving the language and manners of their ancestors, their habits having been only somewhat modified by the circumstances in which they have been placed since they came under the dominion of the Spaniards. The *Quichuas* are mild in character, apparently subdued and apathetic,—qualities which are but the natural result of the state of subjection and debasement in which they were long held by their conquerors; they are, however, robust and muscular, and capable of great endurance, though little inclined to labour; their customs are rude and simple, their mode of living poor in the extreme. The *Aymara* are perhaps more mobile in character, but in other respects similar. Both are cultivators of the land according to their rude notions of husbandry; vegetables, especially maize and potatoes, form the staple of their food, and they indulge freely in their favourite *chicha*, an intoxicating liquor prepared from maize; many are employed as drivers of llama trains, or are breeders of the llama, sheep, or goats, which they possess in great numbers. Among the half-bred population of Bolivia, who stand in relation of numbers to the Inca Indians as about one to two, there are distinguished the *zambo*, or half-negro half-Indian, powerful in frame and intelligent, but unfaithful and cunning; the *mulatto*, or offspring of the Spaniard and negro; and the *cholo*, the descendant of the alliances of the Spaniards with the Inca Indians. The last generally resemble their fathers in character, and occupy themselves chiefly in mining. It is to the *Cholos* that Bolivia owes its political independence.

The population of Bolivia has greatly increased since the year of independence, 1825, when the whole number did not exceed 979,000; in 1831 it exceeded 1,000,000; at the census of 1846 it had risen to 1,380,000. The following table shows the population of each department, as given by Ondarza in 1858. This is the most recent detailed statement of the population of Bolivia, but an estimate of the population of the ecclesiastical divisions of the country for 1874 is appended to it; the provinces into which each department is divided are also named, on the authority of Herr Reck:—

Departments.	Provinces	Population, 1868.
LA PAZ	La Paz	475,322
	Omasuyos	
	Ingavi	
	Sicasica	
	Muñecas	
	Yungas	
	Larecaja	
Inquisivi		
	Carry forward.	475,322

Departments.	Provinces Brought forward.	Population, 8168.
COCHABAMBA	Cochabamba	349,892
	Cliza	
	Tapacari	
	Mizque	
POTOSI	Arque	281,229
	Ayopaya	
	Potosi	
	Porco	
CHUQUISACA	Chayanta	223,663
	Chichas	
	Lipez	
SANTA CRUZ DE LA SIERRA.	Yamparaes	153,164
	Tomina-azero	
	Cinti	
ORURO	Santa Cruz	110,931
	Valle Grande	
	Chiquitos	
TARIJA	Cordillera	88,900
	Oruro	
	Paria or Poópo	
BENI	Carangas	53,973
	Tarija	
	Salinas	
ATACAMA	Concepcion	5,273
	Mojos	
	Caupolican or Apocobamba	
	Juracares	
	Upper and Lower Deserts	
		1,742,352
	Wild Indians	245,000
	Total	1,987,352

The *Archbishopric of La Plata*, including the departments of Potosi, Chuquisaca, Oruro, Tarija, and Atacama, contained in 1874 706,989 inhabitants; the *Bishopric of La Paz*, the department of La Paz, 519,465; the *Bishopric of Santa Cruz*, the department of Santa Cruz, 205,131; and the *Bishopric of Cochabamba*, the department of Cochabamba, 379,733,—total, 1,811,368. Decrees of 1866 and 1867 ordered the formation of two new departments, viz., *Melgarejo*, to be formed of part of the existing department of Cochabamba, and including the town of Tarata, and *Mexillones*, on the coast.

The populations of the chief towns, in 1858, were as follows:—La Paz, 76,372; Cochabamba, 40,678; Chuquisaca or Sucre, 23,979; Potosi, 22,580; Santa Cruz, 9780; Oruro (the seat of Government since 1869), 7980; Tarija, 5680; Trinidad, 4170; Cobija, 2380. Among the small number of foreigners in the country, Italians, Spaniards, and French are in a majority.

The area of Bolivia, hitherto very uncertain, on account of the indefinite state of the frontier on the east and south, has been calculated at Gotha, on the basis of the recent determination of the boundary with Brazil, at 536,200 English square miles, or about ten times the extent of England.

The religion of the people is Roman Catholic. Since the commencement of the republican government a considerable part of the revenues of the minor convents and monastic establishments in Bolivia has been diverted from their original purposes to form a fund for the establishment and support of seminaries of education. Colleges on improved modern principles are formed in each of the departments. A university having long existed at Chuquisaca for the education of the youth of Upper Peru, the utility of the establishment was greatly augmented, during the administration of General Sucre, by an improvement in the modes of instruction, and an increase in the number of the departments of education. In Potosi, likewise, efficient means were adopted by General Miller, while prefect of that department, to establish there a college for the study of mineralogy,—a branch of education of great importance in a place wholly dependent on mining.



The constitution given to the country by Bolivar, which, in the frequent revolutions of later times has often been modified and altered, and sometimes set aside altogether, is founded on the strictest principles of justice, in as far as regards the civil rights and privileges of the community; but in other respects, and particularly in reference to the supreme executive authority, its provisions savour strongly of a monarchical spirit. The supreme authority is vested in a *presidente vitalicio*, or president for life, with the power of naming his successor. It guarantees to the Bolivians civil liberty, security of persons and property, and equality of rights; the free exercise and communication of thoughts and opinions, either by the press or otherwise; liberty to remain or leave the territory of the republic with their property, at their pleasure, but without prejudice to others; equality in the imposition of taxes and contributions, from the payment of which none can be exempted; and the abolition of all hereditary employments, privileges, and entails. No profession, trade, or employment can be prohibited, unless repugnant to public feeling, or injurious to the health and security of the community; and every inventor is secured in the benefits of his discovery. No one can be arrested without previous information of the alleged fact of delinquency, unless when taken *flagranti delicto*. All trials and judgments are public; and in criminal cases none can be imprisoned more than forty-eight hours without having presented to him the charges preferred against him, and being delivered over to the proper tribunal or judge.

By this constitution all legitimate power emanates directly from the people, and is in the first instance exercised by all who can justly claim the privilege of citizens. Of these every ten nominate an elector, who exercises his delegated authority for a period of four years. At the commencement of each year all the electors assemble in the capitals of their respective provinces, and regulate their proceedings and the exercise of their various functions by a plurality of votes. They elect the members of the three legislative chambers, the number of each amounting to thirty; those for the chamber of tribunes being nominated for four years, and renewed by moieties every two years; those for the senate for eight years, and renewed by moieties every four years; and those for the chamber of censors being nominated for life.

The executive government consists of a president, vice-president, and three secretaries of state. The president of the republic is named for the first time by a majority of the collective legislature, and retains the dignity during life, with the power of naming his successor. He is the chief of the administration of the state, and is not responsible for the acts of his administration. The constitutional privileges of the president are the most limited that have been intrusted to the supreme chief of any nation. They extend only to the nomination of the officers of the revenue, of peace, and of war, and the command of the army. The administration belongs wholly to the ministry, which is responsible to the senate, and is subject to the jealous vigilance of the legislators, magistrates, judges, and citizens. The judicial department enjoys the most perfect independence, the members composing it being proposed by the people, and chosen by the legislature. Slavery in every form has long been abolished, and the exercise of religion is free from all restraints. The armed force is composed of the regular army, amounting to about 3000 officers and men, to garrison and defend the frontiers; of the national militia to preserve internal order; of the preventive service to protect the revenue; and of a navy when circumstances may require its formation.

The financial budget of Bolivia for 1873-74 was as follows, the amount being given in Bolivian dollars of the value of about 3s. 3d. sterling:—

RECEIPTS—		
Customs	{ Arica .....	405,000
	{ Cobija .....	250,000
Export of Silver.....		193,676
Sale of Guano.....		300,000
Stamps.....		27,628
Cattle Customs (Argentine Republic).....		20,880
English Loan.....		650,000
Indian Tribute.....		686,307
Departments.....		396,423
		<hr/>
		2,929,914
EXPENDITURE.....		4,505,504
Public debt 1873 = 16,428,329 bolivianos, including £1,700,000 sterling of the loan for railways.		

The early history of that part of the empire of the Incas which now forms the Republic of Bolivia is so intimately connected with that of Peru, that the consideration of it may with propriety be deferred until we come to treat of that country, in which Cuzco, the capital of the Incas, is situated. Attention will therefore at present be directed chiefly to that period of its history which is more recent, and which has so materially influenced its present condition.

The Peruvians, ever since the conquest of their country by the Spaniards in the 16th century, have been subjected to a system of tyranny and oppression which has few parallels in the history of the universe. They were treated little better than beasts of burden. By their toil the gold and silver were obtained from the mines, the lands were cultivated, the flocks and herds were attended to, and all the domestic and menial offices performed. Yet the fruits of their labour, especially that of mining, which was attended with numerous privations, and often with great loss of life, were altogether devoted to enriching their oppressors.

One of their principal grievances was the *mita*, a compulsory kind of personal labour, either in the working of the mines or in the cultivation of the fields, exacted from the Indians generally for the space of one year. The proprietors of mines and land to be worked or cultivated were privileged to claim as their undoubted right the personal services of the Indian population of the district surrounding that in which their property was situated. By the regulations of the *mita* a proportional number of the Indians of the district were annually chosen by lot for the purposes required; and some idea may be formed of the effects of such a regulation from the fact that 1400 mines were registered in Peru alone, and that every mine which remained unworked a year and a day became the property of the first claimant. So much was the labour of the mines dreaded by those persons on whom the lot fell, that they considered it as equivalent to a sentence of death, and made all their arrangements accordingly, carrying with them their wives and families to their new and dreaded place of abode. An estimate may be formed of the extent of this evil from 12,000 Indians having been annually required by the *mita* of Potosi alone; and it is calculated that, in the mines of Peru, no less than 8,285,000 Indians have perished in this manner. Besides the *mita* for the service of the mines, the Indians were also compelled to labour for their superiors on their cultivated estates, their *estancias* or grazing farms, and also in their *obrajes* or manufactories.

The tribute exacted by the Government from every Indian between the age of eighteen and fifty-five was a capitation tax of 8 dollars. This was levied with the greatest rigour, and the official persons charged with its collection frequently committed great injustice in doing so,—obliging the Indians to commence these payments at fifteen, and continue them until seventy years of age, and putting the amount of tribute for the years before and after the legal period into their own pockets. In proof of

the extent to which this evil was carried, and of the rapacity of the Spanish Government, it may be stated that a law was enacted for the express purpose of augmenting the number of the people liable to pay tribute. By it the Indians were obliged to marry, the men at the age of fifteen, the women at thirteen. The governor of each province was responsible to the Government for the amount of the tribute, which was regulated by a census of the tributary Indians, taken every seven years; and in this many frauds were practised, the actual number being often underrated.

Besides all these, the Peruvian Indians were long subjected to another system of extortion no less grievous and unjust,—the law of *repartamiento*. This was originally established with the best intentions,—the governors or *corregidores* of the districts being intrusted with the charge of supplying the inhabitants under their care with such articles as they might require at a fair and equitable price. But the law, which had so plausible an origin, was shamefully abused; and it was made compulsory on the Indian population to purchase worthless articles at an extravagant price.

The constant and extensive operation of these demoralizing practices, although more immediately affecting the aboriginal population, could not fail to produce the most pernicious effects on the Creoles or descendants of the Spaniards; but, in addition to these causes of debasement, the latter were subjected to numerous unjust and oppressive laws, all tending to paralyze their advancement.

The raising of those vegetable products which form the principal objects of culture in Spain, as articles of commerce, was strictly prohibited to the South Americans, however favourable the soil and climate of their native country might be for the production of them. No kind of manufacture of cloth or articles of clothing was permitted which could interfere with the commerce of Old Spain, excepting only the coarse fabrics manufactured and worn by the Indians. Even the valuable mines of mercury and iron found in South America were, in a great measure, hermetically sealed by prohibitory decrees, lest they might interfere with the traffic carried on by Spain in these articles. And, not only was the commerce of South America confined entirely to Spain and prohibited with other nations, under the severest penalties, but the colonies were not permitted to have any commerce with each other.

The grievances under which they suffered at length exceeded even the powers of endurance possessed by the pacific Indians, and gave rise to the insurrection of 1780-81, led by the Inca Tupac Amaru, who spread fire and sword against everything Spanish from Cuzco to Jujuy; twice the city of La Paz was besieged by a force of 20,000 Indians; and in the battle before that town Tupac Amaru was made prisoner and put to death in the most barbarous manner by the Spaniards. The insurrection was finally put down in 1782, and with it ended the last power of the Incas. The aboriginal population, having failed in their arduous undertaking, after the destruction of great numbers of their nation, and finding their chains now rivetted with double force, never again recovered their wonted energies. This accounts for the comparative indifference with which they viewed the rise and progress of the war of independence.

From the causes already stated, the war of independence was principally carried on, as regards Bolivia, by the resources of, and in concert with, the neighbouring provinces of the Rio de la Plata and Peru, all of which had equal cause to avenge themselves on their oppressors, but were placed in circumstances somewhat more fortunate for accomplishing their purpose. When the patriots of Buenos Ayres had succeeded in liberating from the dominion of Spain the interior provinces of the Rio de la Plata, they turned their arms against their enemies who held Upper

Peru. An almost uninterrupted warfare followed, from July 1809 till August 1825, with alternate successes on the side of the Spanish or royalist and the South American or patriot forces,—the scene of action lying chiefly between the Argentine provinces of Salta and Jujuy and the shores of Lake Titicaca. The first movement of the war was the successful invasion of Upper Peru by the army of Buenos Ayres, under General Balcarce, which, after twice defeating the Spanish troops, was able to celebrate the first anniversary of independence near Lake Titicaca, in May 1811. Soon, however, the patriot army, owing to the dissolute conduct and negligence of its leaders, became disorganized, and was attacked and defeated, in June 1811, by the Spanish army under General Goyeneche, and driven back into Jujuy. Four years of warfare, in which victory was alternately with the Spaniards and the patriots, was terminated in 1815 by the total rout of the latter in a battle which took place between Potosi and Oruro. To this succeeded a revolt of the Indians of the southern provinces of Peru, and the object being the independence of the whole country, it was joined by numerous Creoles. This insurrection was, however, speedily put down by the royalists. In 1816 the Spanish general Laserna, having been appointed commander-in-chief of Upper Peru, made an attempt to invade the Argentine provinces, intending to march on Buenos Ayres, but he was completely foiled in this by the activity of the irregular *gaucho* troops of Salta and Jujuy, and was forced to retire. During this time and in the six succeeding years a guerilla warfare was maintained by the patriots of Upper Peru, who had taken refuge in the mountains, chiefly of the province of Yungas, and who frequently harassed the royalist troops. In June 1823 the expedition of General Santa Cruz, prepared with great zeal and activity at Lima, marched in two divisions upon Upper Peru, and in the following months of July and August the whole country between La Paz and Oruro was occupied by his forces; but later, the indecision and want of judgment displayed by Santa Cruz allowed a retreat to be made before a smaller royalist army, and a severe storm converted their retreat into a precipitate flight, only a remnant of the expedition again reaching Lima. In 1824, after the great battle of Ayacucho in Lower Peru, General Sucre, whose valour had contributed so much to the patriot success of that day, marched with a part of the victorious army into Upper Peru. On the news of the victory a universal rising of the patriots took place, and before Sucre had reached Oruro and Puno, in February 1825, La Paz was already in their possession, and the royalist garrisons of several towns had gone over to their side. The Spanish general Olañeta, with a diminished army of 2000 men, was confined to the province of Potosi, where he held out till March 1825, when he was mortally wounded in an action with some of his own revolted troops.

General Sucre was now invested with the supreme command in Upper Peru, until the requisite measures could be taken to establish in that country a regular and constitutional government. Deputies from the various provinces to the number of fifty-four were assembled at Chuquisaca, the capital, to decide upon the question proposed to them on the part of the Government of the Argentine provinces, whether they would or would not remain separate from that country. In August 1825 they decided this question, declaring it to be the national will that Upper Peru should in future constitute a distinct and independent nation. This assembly continued their session, although the primary object of their meeting had thus been accomplished, and afterwards gave the name of Bolivia to the country,—issuing at the same time a formal declaration of independence.

The first general assembly of deputies of Bolivia dissolved itself on the 6th of October 1825, and a new congress