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Chile



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CHILE IN BRIEF

Area: 286,396 square miles

Population: 7,100,000¹

Capital: Santiago

Population: 1,409,080

Language: Spanish

Principal Products: Minerals, grains, vegetables and fruits, livestock, and wool.

Principal Exports: Copper, nitrate, iron, wool, beans, rye, and lentils.

Principal Imports: Sugar and other foodstuffs, machinery, tools and implements, cotton yarn, and petroleum.

Monetary Unit: The *peso* (\$0.019). At the free exchange rate 500 pesos equals one U. S. dollar.

Topography: Chile's 2,653-mile coastline extends from 17°30' to about 56° south latitude. This long, narrow land has four geographic regions: the northern desert, the high Andean section, the Central Valley, and the southern lake district and archipelago. Some of the highest mountains in the world, next to the Himalayas, rise from the eastern barrier formed by the Andes. Approximately 463,000 square miles of the Antarctic Territory are claimed by Chile.

Climate: The climate varies according to latitude and altitude; it is for the most part temperate. The northern region is hot and dry; the central region, with its mild, wet winters and dry, hot summers, has a delightful climate; the southern region has lower temperatures and heavy rains. Chile's hottest months are December and January, and its coldest, July and August.

International Communications: By sea: regular cargo and passenger services are maintained by international steamship lines between numerous Chilean ports and those of North and South America and Europe. In addition, Chilean vessels serve all ports along the coast. By air: national and international airlines link Chile and countries of the Western Hemisphere and Europe. By land: railways and highways, including the Pan American Highway, link Chile with its neighbors—Peru, Bolivia and Argentina.

Independence Day: September 18.

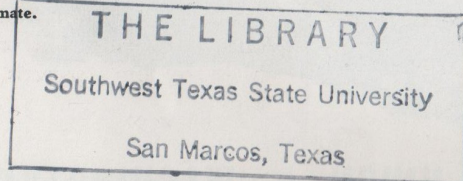
National Hero: Bernardo O'Higgins.

Flag: Chile adopted its present flag in 1817. The lower half is red and the upper half white, with a field of blue in the upper left corner containing a five-pointed white star—a symbol taken from the battle pennants of the Araucanian Indians.

Coat of Arms: The Chilean coat of arms consists of a shield divided into two equal parts, the upper blue and the lower red; in the center is a five-pointed white star. The shield is supported on the right by a condor of the Andes, and on the left by a *huemul*—a member of the deer family native to Chile—and is crowned by a tuft of three feathers—blue, white and red. Beneath it is the motto "Por la Razón o la Fuerza" ("By Right or Might").

National Flower: Copihue, a lovely lily that thrives in the Central Valley.

¹1956 estimate.



THE CHILEAN landscape is a vivid canvas portraying parched deserts, snowcapped mountains, deep blue lakes, lush valleys, fiords, and glistening glaciers. Democratic and orderly in its system of government, businesslike in its industrial development, and abounding in mineral deposits, Chile's true wealth is many-sided.

The Land

PRESSED between the giant walls of the Andes to the east and the Pacific Ocean to the west, this long, thin land seems, on a map, to be but a ribbon bordering the western edge of Argentina. Its 2,653-mile coastline gives it the greatest inhabited north-south range of any country in the world, though at no point is the country wider than 250 miles.

COVER: Ore cars entering copper mine in Andes

ABOVE: Snow-capped Mt. Osorno overlooks Lake Todos los Santos

Nobody knows exactly how Chile received its name. Perhaps its origin is the Aymará word *chilli*, which means "place where the earth ends." The country does taper off at the Antarctic end of the world, with its back to the rest of the South American continent. Chile's 286,396 square miles are set off from Peru in the north by an immense desert and from Bolivia and Argentina, on the northeast and east, by the formidable Andean Cordillera. Southern Chile is an archipelago with Cape Horn at its tip; here the Atlantic Ocean merges with the Pacific, and farther south are the icy waters of the Antarctic.

From east to west, Chile is divided into three parallel belts: the central Andean chain which, with its twenty peaks rising more than 20,000 feet above sea level, contains the world's highest mountains next to the Himalayas; the longitudinal Central Valley; and the low coastal range which seldom exceeds 3,000 feet.

From north to south, the country falls into four fairly distinct zones: the northern mineral-rich region; the agricultural area; the forested lake region at the end of the Central Valley; and the southern plateau, largely submerged.

The north is dominated by the Atacama Desert, one of the earth's driest regions. The northernmost section, between the Peruvian border and the Copiapó River, is cut up by mountain spurs and ridges. Except for a few irrigated zones, the area is desolate. The only river that is not lost in the sandy earth between the mountains and the sea is the Loa, Chile's longest. Wide, white tracts of sand, lava and nitrate stretch southward along the craggy Pacific coast. The barren Atacama Desert, like the rest of the region, is rich in natural nitrate, copper, borax, and sulphur. Although there are some fertile oases, the northern desert would be practically uninhabited if it were not for the activities connected with mineral exploitation.

From the port of Copiapó to the vicinity of Valparaíso, the land is less arid. Crops are grown in transverse valleys that lie between spurs of the great eastern mountain barrier. Here the Andes, rich in gold, silver, copper, nickel, lead, manganese, and other minerals, reach great heights. It is claimed that Ojos del Salado, in northern Chile near the Argentine border, is America's loftiest peak. A recent climbing expedition set its altitude at 23,236 feet—higher than Aconcagua in Argentina.

Within the middle zone, extending from north of Santiago roughly to Puerto Montt, is the Central Valley. This longitudinal valley, hemmed in by the central and coastal ranges of the Andes, is about 550 miles long

and from 30 to 150 miles wide. A temperate climate, numerous rapid-flowing rivers that provide irrigation and water-power, and a rich, dark soil with alluvial deposits as deep as 300 feet, make it one of the world's most fertile garden spots. Wheat, corn, barley, beans, potatoes, lentils, grapes and a variety of other fruits, as well as chickens, cattle, hogs, and prize-winning horses come from this bountiful valley. Its mines yield copper, manganese, molybdenum, gold, silver, and cobalt. Another source of wealth is lumbering, for trees grow in abundance south of the Bío-Bío River.

The farther south it extends the more the Andean Cordillera is cut by rivers and transverse valleys. In large basins excavated by glaciers centuries ago lie Chile's famed lakes, forming a chain extending into Argentina. This region—one of the most beautiful in the world—is called the "Switzerland of South America." Snow-capped volcanoes like Villarrica and Osorno give unsurpassed dignity and beauty to the lake district. The snowcapped cone of Mt. Osorno, perhaps the most beautiful of all Chilean peaks, is reflected in the emerald-green waters of Lake Todos los Santos.

Extending south from Puerto Montt to the Strait of Magellan is a land of rich virgin forests bordering one of the finest sheep-raising regions of the world; a land of year-round rains, of magnificent mountains mirrored in blue, glacier-fed lakes, and of small steamers threading their way among fiords and canals. This vast, picturesque region formed by water, wind and glacial ice into a maze of islands, peninsulas, fiords and channels is known as Patagonia and extends into Argentina.

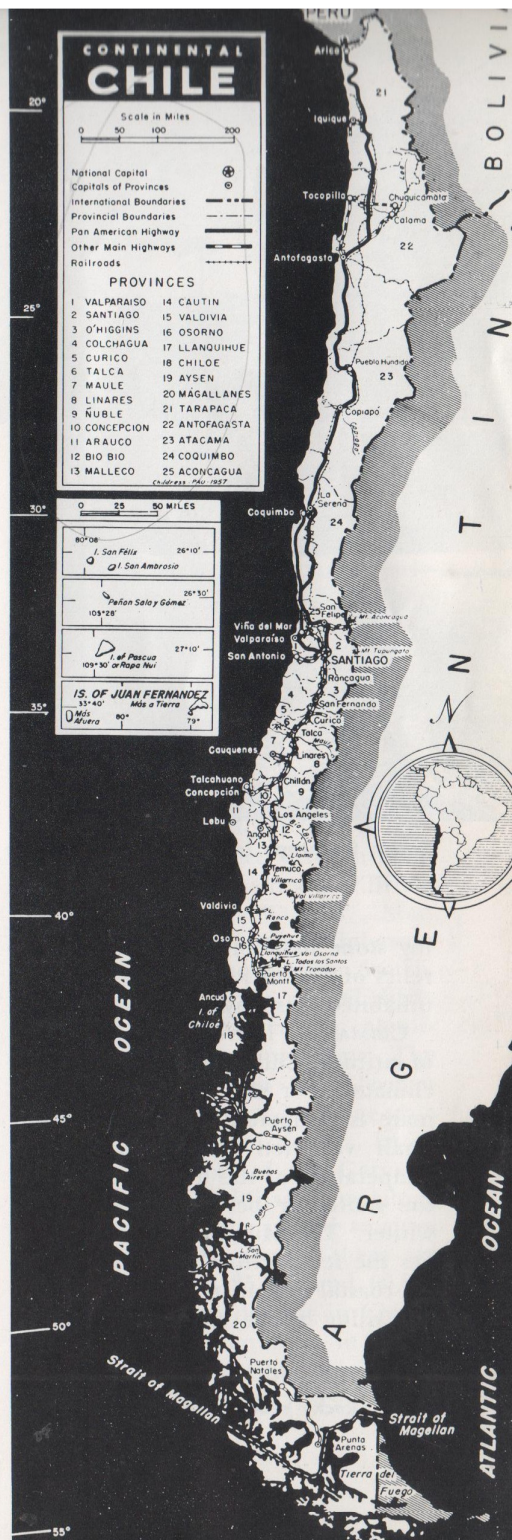
The western arm of the Strait of Magellan separates the island of Tier-

ra del Fuego from the mainland. One of the stormiest passages in the world, this Strait was the only ocean channel between the Atlantic and Pacific before the opening of the Panama Canal.

The Andean Cordillera rises again to heights of more than 6,500 feet on Tierra del Fuego. The islands between the Strait of Magellan and Cape Horn belong to Chile, except for the eastern part of the largest, Tierra del Fuego, which is part of Argentina. Drake Strait separates the southern tip of Chile from its claims in Antarctica.

Two of the country's largest lakes are in Patagonia; they are jointly owned by Chile and Argentina. Lake Buenos Aires is situated on the Chilean-Argentine border; the western half, belonging to Chile, is surrounded by snow-topped peaks and empties into the Pacific through the Baker River. The waters of Lake San Martín, which also lies between the two countries, are carried to the sea by the Pascua River. Patagonian rivers, noted for being the only ones that cross the Andes, are swift and large.

Chile's island possessions include the large island of Chiloé, the Diego Ramírez Islands southwest of Cape Horn; the small, barren islands of San Félix and San Ambrosio, about 450 miles off the Pacific coast; and the island of Sala and Gómez, farther west. The Juan Fernández Islands, some 400 miles due west of Valparaíso, are also Chilean. One of them, Más a Tierra, is better known as Robinson Crusoe Island, because the adventures of Alexander Selkirk, a Scottish buccaneer who spent four lonely years there during the eighteenth century, provided the material for Daniel Defoe's classic novel. On Pascua or Easter Island, about 2,000 miles offshore, there are strange look-





Scenic landscape in southern lake district

ing stone monuments and carvings—relics of the ancient people who once inhabited this tiny Pacific paradise.

CLIMATE.—Traversing 39 degrees of latitude, Chile has a wide variety of climates. For the most part the climate is temperate, with a relatively small variation between the mean temperature of the north and that of the south, or between summer and winter. The Humbolt Current modifies the temperature of the sub-tropical coastal region in the north, while prevailing winds and high altitudes

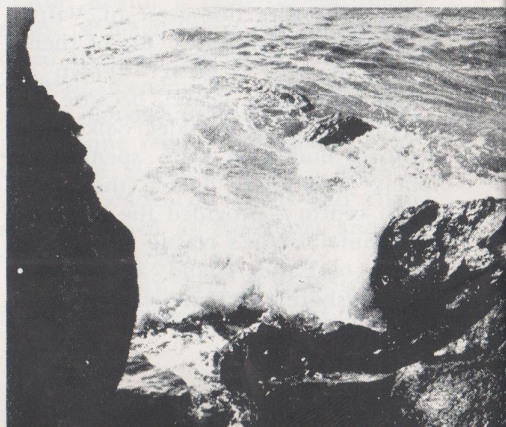
Rocky seacoast near Puerto Aisén

lower the temperature of the interior. The climate of the Central Valley, around the capital, is stimulating. During the mild, wet winters the average low temperature is around 37° F. and seldom drops below freezing. On hot, dry summer days the temperature climbs to around 84° F. Despite icebergs and ice fields, the far south has a milder temperature than one would expect; it varies from cool to cold, with extremely low temperatures being rare except at high elevations. Because Chile is situated below the Equator, its seasons are the reverse of those in North America.

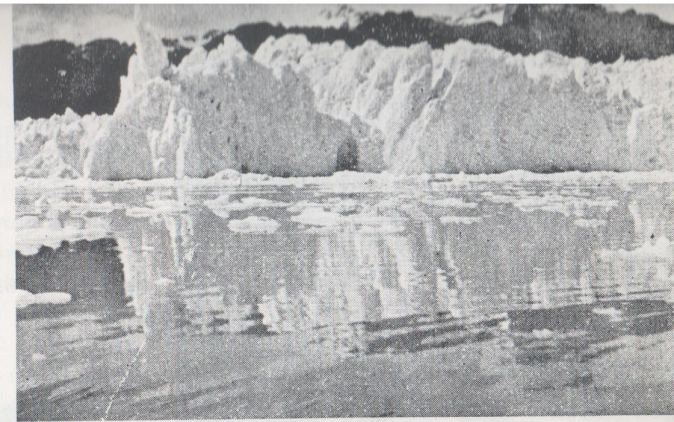
Differences in rainfall are more marked than temperature variations. In the desert region of the north, years may pass with scarcely more than an occasional drizzle. Rainfall is more abundant in the Central Valley, where it rains during the winter, and heaviest in the far south, where it rains throughout the year. At Santiago, for example, the total annual rainfall is about 13.8 inches, and at Concepción it is 30.1 inches. Although annual rainfalls of more than 100 inches have been recorded farther south, Punta Arenas, which is sheltered by mountains, has only 19.4.

The People

The energetic, self-reliant Chilean people are mostly of white European



Picturesque ice formation in the Patagonia region



Alfalfa harvest in the bountiful Central Valley



ancestry, predominantly Spanish, and to a lesser extent of native Araucanian stock. Although a complete fusion of the two races has not come about, few, if any, South American nations have a more homogeneous population. Pure-blooded Araucanians of south central Chile number about 130,000 and are increasing slowly. Although they once bitterly opposed the redistribution of their communal holdings, they now live on their own lands and enter more and more into the life of the country. Even so, in certain regions there are groups of Indians who, although citizens of Chile, retain their tribal customs. There are no Negroes in Chile.

During the colonial period, European immigration to Chile was limited almost entirely to Spaniards. Early colonizers were chiefly from the Basque and Castilian provinces. A notable exception was Ambrosio O'Higgins, father of Chile's national hero. Irish-born O'Higgins sought his fortune in Chile together with other Irish and English immigrants whose families were later to play important roles in Chilean history; thus it happens that distinguished Chilean families today bear such names as O'Brien, Cochrane, Walker, Tupper, MacKenna, and Edwards. After Chile won its independence more Irish, Scotch, and English immigrants settled there.

In 1845 an official Chilean colonizing agency was set up in Europe. The arrival of more than 225 German colonists in 1850 started a large-scale German immigration which lasted ninety years. Most of the Germans settled in the Valdivia-Llanquihue-Chiloé region; others moved to cities farther north. At present there are probably between 35,000 and 60,000 people of German descent in Chile.

Spaniards immigrated in even greater numbers to Chile during the past century. The peak year for Span-



Valdivia's skyline shows German influence

A huaso on his handsome horse inspects a ranch near Concepción



ish immigration was 1889-1890, when nearly 5,000 arrived. During the nineteenth century small numbers of Italians, French, Swiss, British, and Yugoslavs came. Immigration declined early in the twentieth century, but as a result of World War II more than 3,160 displaced persons resettled in Chile in the years 1947-1949.

Chile's population of 7,100,000 is unevenly distributed among the nation's 25 provinces. More than 91 per cent of the inhabitants is concentrated in the provinces of the central agricultural heartland. The northern desert provinces have only 6.5 per cent of the people, and those south of Puerto Montt, about one per cent.

One result of Chile's industrialization program is the development of a middle-class within the past thirty-five years. Of Chile's gainfully occupied population in 1952, 30.8 per cent was engaged in agriculture. Manufacturing industries provided a livelihood for 17.4 per cent while mining, de-

spite its importance, employed only 4.6 per cent.

History

The most important of the native peoples—indeed, the most numerous and characteristic of Chile's primitive inhabitants—were the unconquerable Araucanians. These vigorous, war-like people had no organized government, but in order to defeat a common enemy they often formed loose alliances. Their love of homeland and liberty was nowhere more evident than in their tenacious struggle against the Incas and then the Spanish conquerors.

The King of Spain bestowed on Diego de Almagro—Francisco Pizarro's partner in the conquest of Peru—the "land of Chili," which was renamed New Toledo in the royal grant. However, the boundary limits established by the Crown failed to make clear which of the two territories included Cuzco, the ancient Inca capital in southern Peru, which both the royal governors claimed. The bloody contest over the possession of Cuzco ultimately brought death both to Almagro and Pizarro.

After an arduous two-year expedition to Chile (1535-37), in which they failed to find the avidly sought gold, Almagro and his men returned to Peru and seized Cuzco; in the ensuing civil war, Pizarro's forces defeated those of Almagro, who was executed as a "traitor." Seeking revenge and goaded by insults from the Spaniards of Peru, who called them derisively "Men of Chili," a group of Almagro followers surprised Pizarro in his palace in Lima in 1541. Shouting "death to the tyrant!", they burst into his living quarters while the cry of alarm was raised: "The men of Chili—they have come to murder the Marquis!" Pizarro died from an assassin's dagger, while defending himself with his sword.

Almagro's young son, who inherited New Toledo from his father, never possessed it. He, like his father, was executed in Cuzco for defending his claims. Meanwhile, in 1540, Pizarro sent an able lieutenant, Pedro de Valdivia, to Chile to establish a permanent colony. Despite the hostility of the Araucanians, Valdivia founded Santiago on February 12, 1541, and other settlements. Colonization progressed slowly. The bitter war between

the Spanish and the Araucanian forces, the latter led by their chief Caupolicán, is dramatically described in the famous epic poem *La Araucana* by Alonso de Ercilla, a Spaniard who took part in the bloody struggle.

Not until 1641 did the gallant Indians' attempts at reconquest end. In that year the Pact of Quillín was drawn up, recognizing the independence of the native provinces south of the Bío-Bío River. Even after this compromise, however, intermittent warfare continued. After Chile won its independence from Spain, Bernardo O'Higgins, the first President of the Republic, worked hard to absorb the Indians into Chile's national life and in 1825 the Government granted them the same rights of citizenship enjoyed by other Chileans. Far from disappearing from Chilean society, the Araucanian tribe has left an indelible mark on the racial and cultural make-up of the nation.

The political organization of the colony followed the same pattern

Casa de la Moneda, the president's official residence, faces Plaza Constitución



adopted by the Crown for its other Spanish American colonies. Chile was not one of the four viceroyalties of Spain in America, but was designated a captaincy-general and was under the jurisdiction of the viceroy of Peru until the end of the 18th century. The captain-general, or governor, was appointed by the King of Spain and headed the Royal Audiencia. Geographically, this was similar to a judicial district, presided over by a supreme body charged with the administration of justice. In addition to functioning as a court of appeals, the Royal Audiencia also exercised administrative, advisory, and some legislative functions. Under a new administrative system of *intendencias* established by Spain at the end of the 18th century, the provinces were governed by *intendentes*, whose enlarged military, political, and judicial powers made them independent of the viceroy's jurisdiction for all practical purposes.

The *cabildo*, or municipal council, was an important institution in Chile, as in the other Spanish colonies, from the beginning. Each province was divided into municipal districts governed by a *cabildo*. Open sessions of this municipal council (*cabildo abierto*) were the nearest approach in the Spanish colonies to a popular assembly and later played a major role in declaring independence from Spain.

The Catholic Church, as powerful as the political authority, especially during the early years of the colony, dominated morality and culture and exerted a considerable influence in government. The different orders built cathedrals and churches, founded religious communities and Indian missions, schools and universities.

Despite growing dissatisfaction with the colonial economic, political, and

social system, Chileans remained loyal to Spain during the first decade of the nineteenth century. The idea of self-government gradually took hold among enlightened colonists, who were influenced in part by the inspiring philosophical writings of the time and by the North American and French Revolutions.

After Napoleon Bonaparte invaded Spain in 1808 and placed his brother on the Spanish throne, provisional *juntas* representing the authority of the deposed king, Ferdinand VII, were established not only in Spain but also in many of its American colonies including Chile, which set up a governing Junta on September 18, 1810. Revolutionary doctrines were disseminated in the *Aurora de Chile*, a newspaper printed on the first press to arrive in the country in 1811.

Under the leadership of the patriots Bernardo O'Higgins and José M. Carrera, a Congress was convoked in Santiago on July 4, 1811. The first republican Constitution vested supreme authority in a junta of three members, headed by Carrera; it also recognized the sovereignty of Ferdinand VII. The movement for complete independence was fanned by O'Higgins (son of Ambrosio O'Higgins, former Governor of Chile and Viceroy of Peru), who had been influenced while studying in England by his tutor, Francisco de Miranda, the great precursor of Venezuelan independence.

Led by Carrera and O'Higgins, the Chilean patriots took up arms against the Spanish royalists, but after being badly defeated in the battle of Rancagua in October, 1814, many of them crossed the Andes to join General José de San Martín at Mendoza, Argentina. Here the great Argentine general, who ultimately liberated

San Martín's Army of the Andes crossed ranges such as this

half the Continent from Spanish rule, was quietly organizing a campaign to free Chile. O'Higgins joined him in the audacious plan.*

In January 1817 the Army of the Andes was ready to march. Two small divisions were sent ahead of the main army to act as decoys for the Spanish forces and thus divert them away from the main expedition, which crossed the Andes a week later through the passes of Los Patos and Uspallata. It took 18 days for the army of around 5,000 men and 1,600 horses to struggle up and over America's highest mountain range.

This brilliant campaign—one of the great feats of military history—culminated in the decisive defeat of the Spanish forces in the battle of Chacabuco on February 12, 1817. Two days later, San Martín and O'Higgins led the victorious army into Santiago, from which the Spanish royalist authorities had fled. After a joyful reception, San Martín was proclaimed Governor by the Assembly. He declined this honor in deference to General O'Higgins, who was named Supreme Director of Chile. O'Higgins declared the absolute independence of his country early in 1818.

Liberation of the southern half of Chile from Spanish domination occupied the Chilean-Argentine forces for another year. The patriots suffered a serious defeat at Cancha Rayada, when taken by surprise by a Spanish army. Reorganizing their army, San Martín and O'Higgins won final victory on the plains of Maipú on April 5, 1818. Although gravely

* For a complete biographical sketch see *José de San Martín* (Young Readers Series), Pan American Union, 15 pp., 10 cents.



wounded, General O'Higgins embraced San Martín with the words: "Glory to the savior of Chile!" The victory of Maipú paved the way for the liberation of Peru, which was finally accomplished in 1824 under San Martín's leadership.

Turning to the difficult task of building a secure nation, O'Higgins created a navy, encouraged the use of new methods of agriculture, promoted trade, improved the more important cities, and opened public schools and libraries throughout the land.

Despite these reforms and the period of prosperity which they brought, opposition to some of O'Higgins' policies developed. Under pressure of public opinion, he called a constituent assembly to draft a new constitution in 1822. This code, never put into effect, granted broad powers to the executive. In the face of several uprisings, O'Higgins abdicated in January 1823, transferring his powers to a governing junta.

Beginning with President Prieto's administration in 1831, Chile embarked on a period of economic prosperity and political stability that was to last more than fifty years. Between 1831 and 1871 four presidents held office, each concluding his ten-year administration under normal conditions. Orderly constitutional government continued for the next twenty years, when four presidents completed their five-year terms. Agricultural production was increased, highways were built, foreign commerce was stimulated, and natural resources were developed. European immigration was encouraged and the living standard of the people raised.

In 1902 the boundary questions with Argentina were settled. The heroic statue of Christ the Redeemer, erected under the shadow of Mt. Aconcagua on the boundary between the two countries, symbolizes this "perpetual accord," which settled the question of Chilean sovereignty over the Strait of Magellan, Argentine sovereignty over eastern Patagonia and the northern line of demarcation.

As a result of the War of the Pacific (1879-1883)—between Bolivia and Peru on the one side and Chile on the other, over the rich nitrate fields on the Pacific Coast—Chile's territory was extended as far north as Tacna. In 1929 Chile returned Tacna to Peru in a final settlement of the claims.

The twentieth century began with a period of prosperity, which skyrocketed during World War I. The majority of Chileans, however, did not benefit materially. In 1920 the middle class and laboring groups backed Arturo Alessandri Palma who was elected president. Alessandri instituted many reforms, chief of which was the enactment of a labor code which formed the basis of Chile's

advanced social legislation. He was forced to resign in 1924, but in 1925 returned to office as the result of a coup d'état.

A new coup d'état again forced Alessandri into exile and Carlos Ibáñez, after a year's time, was elected president; he governed until 1931. There was a period of economic and political unrest through 1931-32. At the end of 1932 the Supreme Court declared the Constitution of 1925 to be in full force and called for an election. Alessandri was returned to office and, together with his financial minister, Gustave Ross, managed to pull Chile out of its economic slump.

World War II ushered in a period of increased industrialization and built up a demand for Chilean copper, but postwar conditions gave rise to a shortage of foodstuffs, a drain on foreign exchange and, for a period, a serious drop in copper and nitrate prices. At this writing Chile is contending with a spiraling inflation. (See Budget and Finance).

In September 1952 Carlos Ibáñez was elected president for a six-year term. Under his administration there has been a heavy increase in public investment for promoting economic development programs; efforts to improve the economic situation of the wage earners; and a large expansion of social security benefits.

Political Organization

Chile has been relatively progressive in its political evolution. When the country declared its independence, the constitution of 1818 was promulgated, concentrating political authority in the hands of the Supreme Director, O'Higgins. A later constitution, that of 1822, established some civil liberties and separated the three powers of state. Another constitu-

Custom House
at Valparaíso, the country's
chief port



tion, adopted in 1823, established administrative decentralization and restricted executive powers. Succeeding constitutions created a federal government; a centralized republic; a conservative government with a strong executive; and the parliamentary form of government in 1891.

The constitution of 1925 which, with some modifications, is still in force, provides for a republican form of government with legislative, executive, and judicial branches. It restores, increases and fortifies presidential authority; provides for the direct election of the president; bars immediate reelection; and establishes the separation of Church and State.

The Constitution guarantees freedom of thought and religion; assures protection to labor, industry and works of social betterment; and provides for universal suffrage. Women received the right to vote in national as well as municipal elections in 1949.

However, members of the armed forces in active service and priests or ministers of any denomination do not have the right of suffrage. The Constitution stresses the duties of the State in matters of health and education and favors the sub-division of land and family proprietorship.

CITIZENSHIP—The Constitution recognizes four types of citizens: those born within the territory of Chile, except for the children of non-resident aliens or foreign officials, who may choose between the nationality of their parents and that of Chile; children of a Chilean father or mother, born in foreign territory who become residents of Chile; aliens who, after renouncing their former nationality, obtain letters of naturalization according to the law; and, finally, those who obtain a special (legal) grant of naturalization.

LEGISLATIVE BRANCH.—The National Congress, made up of a Senate and

a Chamber of Deputies, is elected by direct vote. It meets regularly each year from May 21 to September 18. The term of a senator is eight years, and the Senate renews itself in part every four years. There are five senators for each of the nine provincial groups; constituencies are arranged so as to give representation to the interests of all the different regions of the Republic. Deputies serve a four-year term. There is one deputy for every 30,000 inhabitants and fraction of not less than 15,000.

Congress exercises considerable control over finance, ratifies treaties, declares war, and authorizes the President's absence from the country. A two-thirds majority of both Houses can overrule a presidential veto. Mixed commissions composed of an equal number of Deputies and Senators resolve legislative differences between the two Houses.

EXECUTIVE BRANCH.—The President is elected by direct vote for a term of six years. He may not serve for two consecutive terms and must be a native Chilean. There is no vice president. If the President dies in office, new elections are held.

Ministers of State, whose number and respective departments are not fixed by the Constitution, assist the President. The cabinet is now (1957) composed of the following ministries: Interior; Foreign Affairs; Treasury, Economy and Commerce; Education; Justice; National Defense; Public Works and Communications; Agriculture, Lands and Resettlement; Labor; Health, Social Security and Welfare; and Mines. Ministers are obliged to give account of their acts, but there is no political responsibility of the Cabinet before Congress.

JUDICIAL BRANCH.—According to the Constitution, the power to judge

civil and criminal cases belongs only to the tribunals that are established by law. In addition to the Supreme Court at Santiago, there are Courts of Appeal, Tribunals of the First Instance, and lesser courts in various parts of the Republic.

Civil Code.—Fundamentally, the original text of the *Código Civil*, prepared by Andres Bello in the first half of the nineteenth century, is still in force, although over the years it has been amended and changed.

Bello, who was born in Venezuela but lived in Chile from 1829 until his death in 1865, holds a pre-eminent place in Chilean history. Poet, educator, philosopher, and philologist as well as jurist and internationalist, he helped shape the intellectual life of the new Republic. His *Civil Code*, which has served as a model for other American nations, covers persons, property, obligations, contracts, family or domestic relations, successions, and inheritance. In addition to this basic Civil Code, national legislation covers the fields of commercial, administrative, criminal and labor law.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT.—The political subdivisions of Chile are called provinces. These are governed by intendants appointed by the President for a three-year term. The provinces are divided into departments headed by governors, appointed by the President; the departments are divided into sub-delegations governed by subdelegates; and the subdelegations are districts governed by inspectors.

Principal Cities

SANTIAGO (Pop. 1,409,080). — Chile's charming capital, situated in a scenic Andean setting, is the fourth largest city in South America. Founded by Pedro de Valdivia in 1541 under the

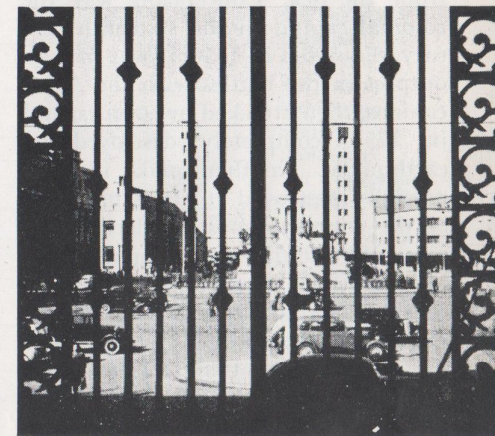
View of Santiago from Santa Lucía Hill

name *Santiago de Nueva Extremadura*, it is a bustling metropolis whose Spanish colonial architecture and modern skyscrapers reflect its progressive history as political, cultural and industrial center of the nation. The Mapocho River and the Avenida Bernardo O'Higgins, or *Alameda*, set apart the main business district; here one finds Santo Domingo Church, the National Capitol, the Supreme Court, the University of Chile and Catholic University of Santiago.

The heart of the city is the Plaza de Armas. Nearby are the National Archives, the National Library—which contains one of the finest historical collections in the world—and the Museum of Natural History with its records of Chile's past and archaeological relics. Here, too, is the *Barrio Cívico* (Civic Center), an area of civic and administrative buildings including the colonial Casa de Moneda, formerly the Mint and now the President's residence.

High in the mountains, not far from Santiago, are the popular ski resorts Farellones and La Parva.

VALPARAÍSO (Pop. 218,800). — Valparaíso, first port and second largest city of the Republic, is one of the major seaports on the West Coast. Ships from all parts of the globe anchor in its sheltered harbor, where Admiral Farragut saw his first naval action as a 14-year old cadet aboard the United States frigate *Essex*. Settled in 1536, the city is built in tiers on the rocky hills rising from the bay. Flights of steps, steep cobbled streets, and elevators connect the different levels of the city. Valparaíso's modern business section, rebuilt after a disastrous earthquake and tidal wave in



A busy dock in Valparaíso and nearby Plaza Sotomayor



Viña del Mar, luxurious Chilean resort

1906, is on level land in the inner circle of the amphitheater of hills.

A few miles from Valparaíso is Chile's luxurious playground, Viña del Mar. One of the world's finest resorts, its beaches, excellent hotels, sumptuous Casino and stately mansions enjoy international fame.

CONCEPCIÓN (Pop. 119,887).—The most important city in south central Chile is Concepción, third largest city in the Republic. Located on the banks of the Bío Bío River, not far from the sea, Concepción was the colonial capital in the sixteenth century. Founded in 1550, it was first an outpost in the battles with the Araucanians, then attacked by corsairs, and in 1751, completely destroyed by earthquake. Another quake in 1939 partially destroyed it. It is now one of the country's most modern cities, most of its buildings being designed to withstand earthquakes. Concepción's sedate university, with one of the largest campuses in Latin America, is unique in that it is financed chiefly from profits of the city's lottery. Lota, Chile's biggest coal mining center is nearby, with the coal shafts running deep under the ocean. A half-hour trip brings one to the Huachipato steel mills.

ANTOFAGASTA (Pop. 62,844).—This port is the chief outlet for the vast copper and nitrate industries and is the largest and most important city in northern Chile. Rail terminus for two international railways, it is a busy port with a cosmopolitan population.

PUERTO MONTT.—This important commercial center in the south is the capital of the province of Llanquihue. A port city, its character—like that of Osorno—has been shaped by the Germans who settled there long ago. Its chief business is the export of lumber and wool. It is also the southern railway terminus.

PUNTA ARENAS.—A prosperous city situated on the strategic Strait of Magellan, this attractive, modern capital of the province of Magallanes is the second southernmost city in the world. Founded as a penal colony in 1849, it is today the center of one of the world's great sheep-raising areas. The largest sheep-farming company in the world (Sociedad Explotadora de la Tierra del Fuego) owns approximately 200,000 acres of land in this region of long twilight and sudden blinding storms. Punta Arenas is also a coaling station and a fur-trading center.



Panoramic view of Antofagasta's harbor

Provinces	Area in square miles	Capital
Tarapacá	21,346	Iquique
Antofagasta	47,515	Antofagasta
Atacama	30,843	Copiapó
Coquimbo	15,401	La Serena
Aconcagua	3,940	San Felipe
Valparaíso	1,860	Valparaíso
Santiago	6,727	Santiago
O'Higgins	2,746	Rancagua
Colchagua	3,255	San Fernando
Curicó	2,215	Curicó
Talca	3,722	Talca
Maule	2,172	Cauquenes
Linares	3,792	Linares
Ñuble	5,487	Chillán
Concepción	2,201	Concepción
Arauco	2,222	Lebu
Bío-Bío	4,342	Los Angeles
Malleco	5,512	Angol
Cautín	6,707	Temuco
Valdivia	8,803	Valdivia
Osorno	3,507	Osorno
Llanquihue	7,107	Puerto Montt
Chiloé	9,053	Ancud
Aisén	34,357	Puerto Aisén
Magallanes	52,284	Punta Arenas

National Economy

For the past twenty years or more Chile has been in a state of economic transition. The economy, based on mineral production, depended largely on foreign sales of copper and natural nitrates. Synthetic nitrates caused a drastic decline in exports after the first World War and have since forced the country to begin to diversify its production in order to become more stable and self-sufficient.

Through the Development Corporation created in 1939, the government undertook an intensive program to establish heavy industry and public utilities. Projects included electrification, steel production, agricultural mechanization, oil production, and irrigation. Private enterprise, meanwhile, has advanced considerably along the lines of light consumer industries.

While agriculture employs a larger number of Chile's working population than any other occupation, it is the processing industry which has made the greatest progress in recent years and which produces the largest share of the national income.

Chile is known internationally for her mineral products, particularly copper, ranking second only to the United States as world producer of this vital commodity. Foreign sales of Chile's mineral wealth enable her to buy abroad not only industrial equipment but also raw materials and foodstuffs not produced in sufficient quantities at home. Approximately 50 per cent of the national revenue comes from taxes paid by the mining companies.

AGRICULTURE.—Chile has a total area of 49 million acres devoted to agriculture and animal husbandry. An additional 30 million acres are forest land, and the remaining 104 million acres are considered unsuitable for any sort of farming. About six million acres are actually utilized for crops, orchards, vineyards, or are lying fallow; the remaining agricultural acreage is made up of pasturage or meadows. In 1952, 634,100 Chileans were engaged in agriculture.

The principal crops are grains, including wheat, rice, oats, and barley, which occupy over two million acres. Wheat is the leading agricultural

crop but is generally insufficient for the domestic demand. The rice yield is good and usually there is a considerable margin for export. Oats, rye and barley are all export crops.

Beans, corn, potatoes, chick-peas, and lentils, which occupy 607,000 acres, are the chief non-cereal crops. Production of potatoes is sufficient for domestic consumption.

Fruit-growing is of increasing importance to Chilean agriculture; the most important fruits domestically are citrus fruits and plums. Fruits grown for export include apricots, peaches, grapes, apples, pears, plums, and almonds.

World-famous for its wines, Chile is Latin America's second greatest wine producer and has roughly 247,000 acres in vineyards. There are more than 35,000 individual vineyards, most of them less than three acres in size. In a normal crop year the country produces 85 million gallons of wine.

The livestock industry is quite extensive, particularly since the development of additional grazing lands in the far south. In 1955 meat produc-

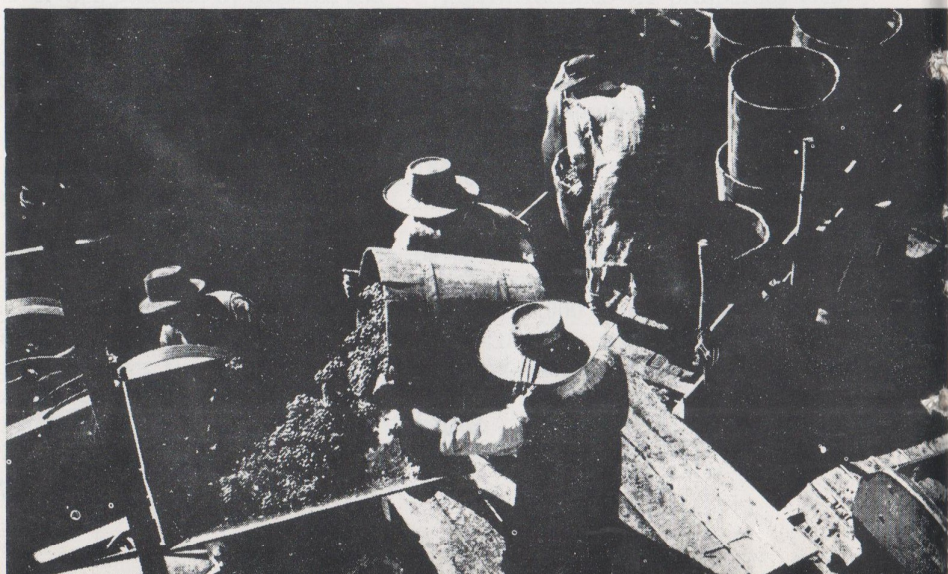
tion totaled 176,000 short tons and meat consumption 198,000 tons. Wool production in 1953-54 was 20,000 metric tons, enough to supply domestic needs and also permit foreign sales.

A vast technical cooperation program called "Plan Chillán" was undertaken in June 1953 to improve agricultural development and rural hygiene in the Central Valley provinces of Maule, Ñuble, and Concepción. The projects include soil conservation, contour plowing, irrigation systems, development of pasturage, reforestation, drainage, and forage seed multiplication. Acres developed under the program total 41,000.

Technical experts direct such projects as health and sanitation, "aided-self-help" housing, farm-to-market roads, and underground water location; technical assistance is also given to industries, and to the production, canning and transportation of food.

This program is not only increasing production but it is also creating a new feeling of confidence among farmers and a new philosophy of mutual assistance.

Grapes from the Central Valley are being thrown into wine presses



Harvesting activities in the Central Valley



MINERAL RESOURCES.—About 75 per cent of the Republic's exports are mineral products. As the world's leading producer of natural nitrates, the second ranking copper producer, and the first copper exporter, Chile occupies an important position in world mineral trade.

From 1850 to about 1930 the production of natural nitrates was a major industry; but the increasing use of synthetics had reduced nitrate exports to about half their former peak by the early 1930's. An intensified development of copper resources, however, compensated for these losses in part.

Nitrate is generally mined by blasting in deep shafts sunk in the ground. The resulting product, known as *caliche*, is then crushed, refined into sodium nitrate, and exported. Production in the late 1920's reached 3.2 million metric tons, but now averages half this amount. The principal fields are near Tocopilla and Antofagasta.

Probably no other region in the world has been more richly endowed with copper deposits than the Chilean Andes. Major deposits extend from the Atacama Desert region in the northern province of Antofagasta into Central Chile, south of Santiago. Chile was the world's chief source of copper until 1875, and in 1955 regained its position as one of the world's largest copper producers with an output of 390,246 tons; however, it has not yet achieved the peak reached in World War II of nearly 500,000 tons. Because Chile sells approximately 90 per cent of her copper abroad, she is the world's greatest net exporter. Copper, mined in open pits, is processed in both electrolytic and standard or blister bars, for export.

The recent copper production gain was stimulated by the enactment in May 1955 of new legislation which corrected measures considered unfair to producing enterprises. It removed discriminatory exchange rates applied

Chuquicamata, Chile's largest open-pit mine, and El Teniente, one of the world's greatest underground copper mines (at right)



Drillers prepare to blast nitrate from the ground. The explosion makes a dramatic backdrop in the stark region



to the companies, eliminated the over-price previously given exclusively to the State, and established a single tax on profits.

Three North American companies produce roughly 95 per cent of Chilean copper. The largest and best-known of the Chilean mines is Chuquicamata, located between the Atacama desert of northern Chile and the Western Cordillera of the Andes, at an altitude of 10,000 feet. It is the leading copper-producing property in South America and one of the largest copper deposits in the world. The present capital invested in Chuquicamata (apart from the sulphide plant) is estimated at more than \$100 million.

In 1948, because of the gradual diminution of oxide ores, initial construction was undertaken of a vast new plant for the treatment of sulphide ores which lie in abundance beneath the oxidized portion of the ore body. The sulphide concentrator began to operate in the spring of 1952 and the smelter soon after.

El Teniente, one of the great underground copper mines of the world, is located high in the Andes at an elevation of more than 8,000 feet. Block-carving extraction of the ore is carried on at various levels within the great ore-bearing mountain. After extraction, the ore is crushed and treated; the resulting concentrate is then conveyed to the smelter at Cale-

tones, four miles away, by aerial tramway. The finished product, in the form of blister or fire-refined copper, is transported by rail to the Pacific Coast for shipment abroad.

Chile's third great copper deposit is located at Potrerillos in the northern Andes. Although the ore body is large, the copper yield is usually under two per cent. A new deposit at El Salvador is now being developed.

The National Smelter at Paipote, inaugurated in 1951, draws its raw material from the country's numerous smaller mines and produces blister and bar copper on a substantial scale. Now operating well above its rated capacity, it plans to produce 20,000 tons of blister copper a year.

Chile normally ships 80 per cent of her copper to the United States. The current output averages roughly 15 per cent of total world production.

For three decades Chile has been a large exporter of high-grade iron ores. Official studies show that in the twenty-odd deposits discovered so far between Antofagasta and Talca, there are 180 million tons of ore assaying at 63.25 per cent iron. Lack of transportation during the war forced large cutbacks in production, but the industry recovered rapidly and in 1953 production figures totaled 1,723,000 tons. Nearly all of the iron ore was exported in the past, but the development of a domestic iron and steel industry has increased internal consumption.

One of the largest producers, Bethlehem Chile Iron Mines, a subsidiary of a North American company, recently transferred its main operations and equipment from the El Tofo deposit to the new El Romeral mines near La Serena. El Romeral ore travels by sea to the Huachipato steel mill from the port of Guayacán.

In 1953 Chile's gold output was 4,065 kilograms, making the country one of America's leading gold producers. Shortly before the war production of this metal reached ten million grams. Silver production in 1953 was 46.6 metric tons. Chile also produces many other minerals, including molybdenum, manganese, and mercury, in commercial quantities, but production of most of them has fallen off in recent years.

Chile is almost self-sufficient in the production of coal, turning out over two million tons annually. Recent increases in the use of coal for heating has brought domestic consumption to the point where small amounts must now be imported. The quality of Chilean coal is not, in general, sufficiently high for industrial purposes. The mechanization of the important Lota coal mine is being completed.

Petroleum reserves were legally declared state property in 1926; it was not until 1945 that the first Chilean oil gusher "came in" on the island of Tierra del Fuego. Today, national wells provide about a third of the Republic's petroleum requirements. The center of drilling operations is at Manantiales in Tierra del Fuego.

A government agency called the *Empresa Nacional del Petróleo* (ENAP) manages the oil fields. ENAP was set up in 1950 as an autonomous, wholly government-owned corporation. In 1955 Chile took steps to attract foreign investment in its oil industry. Under a new petroleum law, ENAP will sign contracts with private firms for drilling and exploration. Concessions are not being granted at present. The Government will retain at least a 20 per cent interest in any venture.

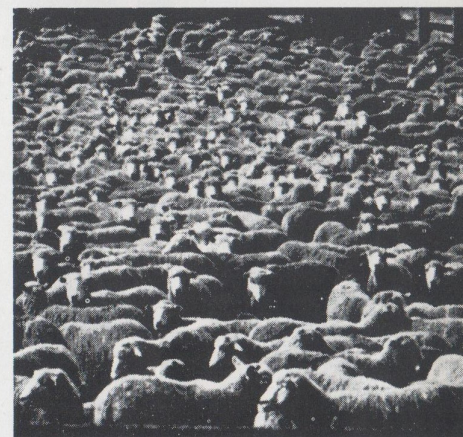
The petroleum output goes to the new refinery at Concón, opened in

1954, which has a capacity of close to twenty thousand barrels a day, enough to cover the national demand. However, Chilean petroleum production of about 8,500 barrels daily is insufficient, so crude oil is still imported. The petroleum output in 1954 was 4.6 million barrels as compared to 1.7 thousand in 1950. The high cost of expansion and the limited number of local technicians available retard a thorough exploration of the country's reserves.

INDUSTRY.—One of South America's leading industrial nations, Chile's industrial development is continually expanding. In 1952, 358,650 persons were employed in manufacturing as compared with 92,550 in construction and 95,450 in mining. Plants connected with the processing of the country's mineral wealth for export are among the largest of their kind in the world, modern and highly mechanized. The mining and smelting of copper is the greatest industry.

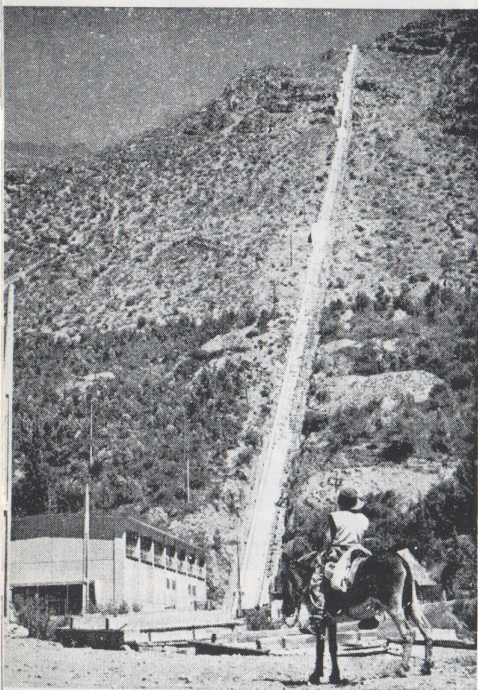
The iron and steel industry, which began in the early part of the century, is still in the process of development. The plant at Valdivia turns out 18,000 tons of pig iron annually, and its rolling mill has a capacity of 10,000 tons a year. The steel plant at Huachipato has a capacity of 203,000 tons. The new iron and steel mills near Concepción are increasing in importance.

Chile also processes many of her other minerals, including gold, lead, silver, and sulphur. Chemical indus-



In a steel plant near Valdivia (top). Sheep raising is an important industry in southern Chile (center). Bringing in a tuna catch (bottom).

tries produce a limited number of basic industrial chemicals, such as sulphuric and hydrochloric acids, carbonates, ammonia, glycerin, and some sodium products. Several large plants manufacture explosives. Chile is the world's leading producer of iodine.



Los Molles power plant brings water from a high ridge, utilizing its power for operation of plant

The processing of foodstuffs is also a major industry. Except for its sugar refineries, this industry uses mostly domestic raw materials. It includes flour mills, canneries for the nation's large fruit and vegetable crops, meat packing plants, wineries, and fish canneries.

The wool textile industry, which processes native wool, is well developed and able to supply almost the

entire domestic demand. The cotton textile industry, too, supplies most of the nation's needs but, since Chile is not a cotton producer, relies on imports. Knitting mills, rayon mills, a silk spinning mill and a linen spinning mill also produce for the domestic market. The textile industry as a whole is a high-cost producer and operates under a high protective tariff.

Chile's cement plants supply most of the domestic demand. The country also produces most of its automobile tires and tubes. A plant, producing tires and tubes under three United States trade names, has an annual capacity of about 108,000 tires. It also manufactures a variety of other rubber products and automobile batteries.

The paper industry is expanding. Chile plans to complete its second cellulose and paper mill by 1958. This will be the second in a total of eight such plants.

Under the eight-year agricultural development plan, nineteen new milk dehydrating plants and nine modern slaughterhouses are to be built.

Electric power production is increasing rapidly. Most of the output is for industrial use. Although water power resources are abundant, less than half of the installed capacity is hydroelectric, the remainder is steam or diesel. The Development Corporation, however, is carrying out a plan designed to increase hydroelectric output. The new hydroelectric plant of Los Cipreses opened in 1955, is an important step toward solving the power problem in Santiago during the winter months.

BUDGET AND FINANCE.—After World War II Chile encountered a series of financial problems such as balance of payment difficulties resulting from the unstable market for the country's basic export products, copper and

nitrate; a rapid industrial development without a similar development in agriculture and transportation; a large population increase without a corresponding rise in the rate of investment; a widening of state responsibilities without adequate fiscal adjustments; and the pressures resulting from a wage-price spiral.

Government deficits have increased steadily since 1951. In 1955 the deficit was estimated at 38 billion pesos. Deficits have been covered by increases in the floating debt which represents mostly the issue of new currency.

The government has worked closely with various economic missions and on their advice is setting up an anti-inflationary program. In 1956 steps were taken to readjust wages and salaries, balance the budget, restrict price and credit policies, and overhaul the exchange system. The results were a uniform exchange rate, advance deposits in domestic currency for imports, a well-balanced list of permitted imports, and strict control of credit.

The new free exchange rate, established in April 1956, is supported by a \$75 million Exchange Stabilization Fund, negotiated by the International Monetary Fund, the United States Treasury, and several private banks on a "stand-by" basis. In January 1957, the rate of exchange was 500 pesos per dollar. The Central Bank of Chile is the sole bank of issue.

FOREIGN TRADE.—Chile's exports amounted to \$375 million in 1954 while imports totaled \$349 million, leaving a favorable trade balance of \$8,526,652. Chile exports mainly to the United States, Germany, Argentina, Brazil, the United Kingdom, Spain, Italy, and the Netherlands. It

imports chiefly from the United States, Peru, Germany, Argentina, the United Kingdom, and France. In 1955 the United States supplied \$90 million worth of Chile's total imports, which amounted to \$376 million, and purchased \$200 million of the total exports.

Chile's principal exports are copper, nitrate, iron, beans, wool, rye, and lentils. Its principal imports are sugar and other foodstuffs, machinery, tools, textiles, and petroleum.

Labor and Social Welfare

A pioneer in social legislation in America, Chile began early in this century to adopt progressive laws in the fields of labor, low-cost housing, and accident insurance.

THE LABOR MOVEMENT.—Trade unions grew out of the mutual aid societies organized in the mid-nineteenth century. At the turn of the century, these organizations began to defend their interests in their relations with employers. The first unions were organized in Valparaíso, in the manufacturing center of Santiago, and in the mining provinces of Tarapacá and Antofagasta.

Between 1910 and 1930 labor organizations developed slowly because economic conditions were good. After World War I, when the country achieved considerable industrialization, workers' rights came to be recognized more fully by the government. During the administration of President Alessandri (1920-25), a series of labor laws that laid the groundwork for Chile's present social legislation was drawn up by the eminent Chilean sociologist Moisés Poblete Troncoso. Although Congress did not adopt this labor code immediately, it passed in 1924 a series of laws based on some of its provisions, especially

with regard to labor contracts, unions, labor arbitration tribunals, and work accidents. Many new laws and decrees were promulgated, some of them aimed at extending social security and retirement benefits to employees of private industry and professionals.

The world-wide depression and the anti-labor reaction of the Chilean administration during the late 1920's and early 1930's brought about new interest in unions, as did the establishment of the Socialist Party in 1933. Socialist and Communist trade unions joined forces in 1936 to form the Confederación de Trabajadores de Chile (CTCH), which became one of the most powerful trade union federations in South America. The opposing political factions split the confederation in 1946. Many unions then existed unaffiliated with any central organization; the most important national association was the National Council of Employees of Chile, which had an estimated membership of 110,000 in 1951.

A law of 1942 established the Superior Council and three years later the official Labor Code of Chile, embodying provisions of previous legislation and decrees, was approved. The Code permits the organization of craft and industrial unions. In 1947 agricultural workers received the right to organize, but as yet agricultural unions are ineffective.

The Government permits the formation of federations for purposes of relief, education, provident institutions, and for the study, promotion, and legitimate defense of their common interests. Federations of agricultural workers are not permitted.

In 1953 existing trade unions combined to create the Central Unica de Trabajadores de Chile, or CUTCH, (Central Union of Chilean Workers).

CUTCH represents virtually all organized labor in the country. In 1954, 2,198 legal trade unions claimed a membership of 293,700. An estimated 150,000 workers were members of unrecognized unions. Roughly 20 per cent of Chile's labor forces and 30 per cent of the non-agricultural labor force is organized. Mining is the most heavily organized. CUTCH is not affiliated with any international labor organization. However, a number of member unions are affiliated with various international trade union movements.

Chile, in 1954, was beset with 61 legal strikes and 247 illegal strikes. Strikes are considered illegal if they are not preceded by legally established procedure of conciliation. These 308 strikes which involved 74,696 workers, were the means by which labor hoped to enact wage increases necessitated by Chile's spiraling inflation.

SOCIAL INSURANCE.—Chile's social security legislation is based on the conviction that assistance given those who need it is not charity but a right of citizenship and an investment in the nation's future. The Workers' Compulsory Social Security Fund, established in 1925, set an example for similar institutions in other American republics. Benefits include medical attention for insured employees and for their wives, before and after childbirth; milk for babies; medical care for children up to two years of age; some dental care; old age and disability benefits; and funeral expenses. Preventive medicine—with special attention to tuberculosis and venereal, cardio-vascular, and infectious diseases—is an important function of the Fund. These benefits are financed by contributions from workers, employers and the government.

Besides the Workers' Compulsory Social Security Fund, more than forty other institutions known as *cajas* or funds, offer protection and benefits to workers. Among the most important are the National Public Employees' and Journalists' Fund and the Security Fund for Private Employees, which is really more of a savings institution than a social security agency. Together these organizations make immense contributions toward raising the standard of living in Chile.

The establishment in Chile of Latin America's first School of Social Work (1925) and the accompanying development of welfare services has had a wide influence by giving professional training to social workers of Chile and other countries; many of the latter have established national welfare codes and schools of social work modeled in part on those of Chile.

Chile in July 1952 enacted a Social Insurance and National Health Service Law. The most important innovation under this law was the integration of a Social Insurance scheme with the National Health Service under a unified administration, the Ministry of Health, Social Security, and Welfare. The Service is headed by a director general who directs a board consisting of five representatives of executive agencies, four members of Congress, and three workers' and three employees' representatives. In this manner, four major national health agencies were merged into a single organization responsible for the public health service of the entire population and for the medical care of about three-fourths of Chile's seven million inhabitants.

PUBLIC HEALTH.—The Service now handles the 30,000-bed public hospital system developed by private philan-

thropy; in recent years this system has derived more than 80 per cent of its income from the national budget. It also manages the national Children's Service, an international biological and research institute, as well as a number of agencies dealing with sanitation or industrial hygiene.

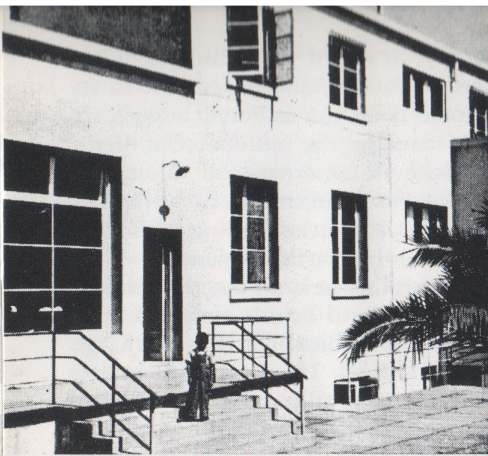
Under this new set-up, the country is divided into health zones. A full-time chief medical officer is in charge in each zone. He directs integrated preventative and curative services through a decentralized system of health centers. Local units combine the operation of public health and medical care services with the small rural health centers having a two-way communication with the big regional hospitals.

The Service is financed by contributions from the Social Security Fund, the national budget, private endowments, and other funds. It combines the resources of various agencies and keeps a balance between the rather weak health and sanitation services and the more elaborate medical care program.

The country's most important public service is free medical attention. Chile played a pioneer role in authorizing health insurance organizations to request insured persons to undergo periodic health examinations with a view to preventing sickness.

The School of Public Health offers public health training to persons with a background in social sciences, in order to provide leaders for national health education programs. Medical schools give much attention in their curriculums to occupational health.

HOUSING.—Low-cost housing has been a major concern of the government since 1906, when the Council for Workers' Housing was created. Chile's first housing project opened in 1911.



Antofagasta Health Center



Company housing of the Anglo-Lautaro Nitrate Corporation

Chilean legislation, enacted in 1947, requires the forty social welfare institutions to invest at least 20 per cent of their annual income in the purchase of land and the outright construction of low-cost houses.

The present housing agency, *Caja de la Habitación Popular* or People's Housing Fund, undertakes direct con-

struction of housing projects as well as loans to individuals. The *Caja* receives part of its funds from the tax proceeds on copper and coal. Large industrial and mining companies must invest five per cent of their annual profits in the *Caja*, with the alternative of investing directly in housing for their employees. The investments of the various welfare and social security agencies supplement these resources. The Security Fund for Private Employees, for example, offers mortgage loans to its members for the purchase or construction of homes, and the Public Employees' and Journalists' Fund provides loans as well as carrying out some construction. The Workers' Compulsory Social Security Fund has built numerous housing units in Arica, Iquique, Antofagasta, Tocopilla, Valparaíso, and other cities.

In the rural housing field, the Agricultural Colonization Fund or *Caja de Colonización Agrícola*, handles the housing problem.

*Culture

Chile has always been receptive to currents of universal thought. Its cultural heritage has been enriched by the contributions of eminent foreigners who, even before independence, took up residence there, as well as by those of numerous gifted native Chileans.

EDUCATION.—Chile had a limited educational program in colonial days, carried out by the Church. After independence there was a movement to provide a school for every village. Andrés Bello, the Venezuelan-born scholar, José Joaquín de Mora, a Spanish writer, and the Argentine educator and statesman, Domingo Faustino Sarmiento aided native Chileans such as Valentín Letelier and José Abe-

lardo Núñez in building the country's centralized school system.

In 1842, when the University of San Felipe (1758) became the University of Chile, a teacher-training college was set up. Twenty years later an effective system of public education was in operation. In the latter part of the nineteenth century, the government brought in a group of German teachers to take charge of many classes in normal and other schools. Educational psychology and new teaching methods were introduced and the curriculum was improved.

Since 1920 elementary education for children between the ages of seven and fifteen has been compulsory and the number of schools has increased continually. From 1920 to 1947 there was an increase of 2,847 schools, an average of almost 100 a year. Because of the enforcement of compulsory education, over 75 per cent of the population is literate. Out of the 756,450 illiterates in 1952, 498,480 lived in rural areas.

Evidence of the continuous interest of the government in education is the creation in 1955 of a special fund for school construction which, during the first six months of its operation, collected more than 365 million pesos. Furthermore, in that same year new provisions were made for raising teachers' salaries and for increased funds for aid to school children.

Schools operate under a centralized, national program, with government-approved private schools continuing to play an important part. Approximately 30 per cent of the students attend private schools.

Four-to-six-year-olds may attend private or public kindergartens. Elementary education is offered in the following schools: city and country primary schools, preparatory sections in secondary schools, practice schools connected with teacher-training institutions, classes given in connection with trade schools, and several other



Imposing entrance to the University of Concepción



A class recitation in a secondary school

kinds of specialized schools. Most elementary school courses last six years.

The government has a primary school program for physically and mentally defective children, a fundamental education program for prisoners and an adult education program.

From elementary schools, students may enter public secondary schools (*liceos*) or private and church schools (*colegios*). A new progressive program for secondary education is being tried out in a small number of schools in the larger towns. It aims at coordinating the plan of studies with the students' actual economic and social needs and their mental aptitudes. Courses emphasize the problems of life and intellectual and moral formation by means of integrating practical and theoretical aspects of culture.

All students in the first part of the six-year course of secondary studies take Spanish, mathematics, physical and natural sciences, social studies, foreign languages, art courses, manual art, and physical education. After their first year they may take some elective courses. In the fifth and sixth years they may take complementary courses which serve as a base for later professional studies.

Vocational education is highly developed in the country, in accordance with the growing needs of the nation. There are schools of agriculture, trade and industry, mining, business, art, and nursing. Enrollment in these schools exceeded 65,000 students in 1950. One of America's oldest vocational schools is the School of Arts and Trades in Santiago; instruction in this well-equipped institution is at the secondary and junior college levels.

The national university is the University of Chile in Santiago. There

are also the Catholic University of Santiago, the University of Concepción, Catholic University of Valparaíso, Santa Mariá Technical University of Valparaíso—outstanding because of its advanced methods of training in technical and engineering courses—the *Universidad Technical del Estado*, and the *Universidad Austral del Chile* in Valdivia. Chile also has a School of Industrial Engineering and three Schools of Social Service. Only the University of Chile (National University) is authorized to grant advanced degrees and professional titles and it must approve candidates of other universities. The country also has naval, military, and aviation schools.

* **CULTURAL INSTITUTIONS.**—The Chilean Government maintains a number of libraries and museums, including the National Library in Santiago, the public library in Valparaíso, more than a hundred provincial libraries; museums of fine arts, history, and natural history in the capital, and museums in Valparaíso, Concepción, and Talca.

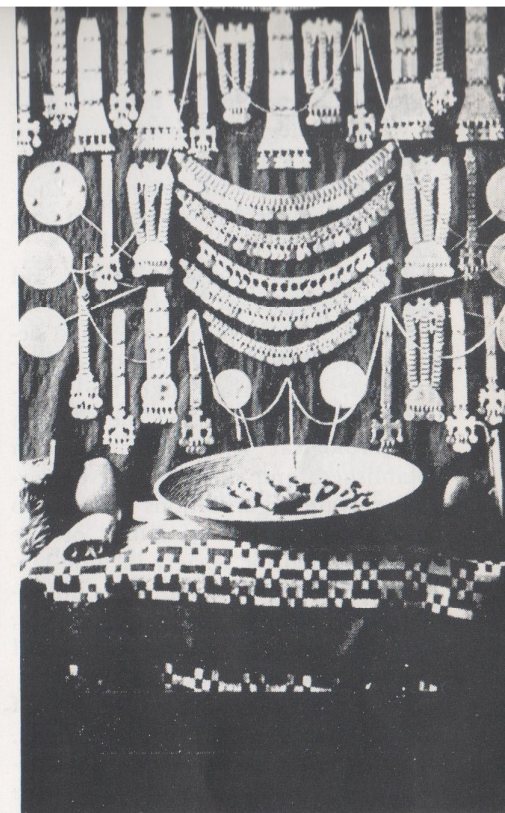
Some of the country's numerous scientific, learned, and cultural societies are directly connected with universities and others receive aid from the government to carry on their activities. The Chilean Academy of Natural Sciences is under the supervision of Catholic University; the National Committee on Geography, Geodesy and Geophysics receives funds through the budget of the government-run Military Institute of Geography; and the Chilean Historical and Geographic Society is given some government support. The Chilean-North American Cultural Institute, the Chilean Academy of the Language, and the Society of Chilean Writers are but a

few of the other organizations that influence the nation's cultural life.

Within recent years university groups have taken the lead in providing Chileans with good drama. The University of Chile's Experimental Theater not only stages first-rate performances of classical and modern drama for Santiago audiences but also, through its Department of Extension Theater, travels the length of the country, playing at schools, army camps, labor-union halls, and rural centers.

In 1945, a School of Dramatic Arts was set up which offered, in addition to its courses, scholarships to study abroad. In order to stimulate literary activity among Chileans an Experimental Theater Prize, in the form of an annual cash award, was also established. Another important experimental theater group is a part of the School of Fine Arts of the Catholic University. It has been successful in presenting works by Chilean and foreign playwrights and offers a three-year specialized course of study. Organized more recently than these two groups, the Free Theater encourages the production of national dramatic literature by sponsoring regular broadcasts of new works and round-table discussions on the problems of the Chilean theater.

NATURAL SCIENCES.—Chile has been explored, studied, and charted for more than a century by Chileans and foreigners alike. Among the scores of scientists from other countries who have contributed to the knowledge of Chile and its resources were the British naturalist Charles Darwin, who originated the theory of evolution, and Claudio Gay of France, whose physical and political history of Chile was published by the Chilean Government. Another famous naturalist,



Gold and silver ornaments of the Araucanians

who studied the anthropology, ethnology, and archaeology of Chile and neighboring countries, was Ricardo Eduardo Latcham. This British-born scholar and teacher founded the Faculty of Fine Arts at the University of Chile and, until his death in 1943, was director of the Chilean Museum of Natural History in Santiago. Within recent years Isaiah Bowman, an American educator and authority on geopolitics and physical geography, explored the Atacama Desert in northern Chile.

Carlos Emilio Porter (1870-1942) is the great figure of modern Chilean

science. Author of more than 300 valuable studies in the fields of zoology, physiology, anthropology, and botany, Dr. Porter headed the Institute of General and Systematic Zoology and taught at several Chilean universities.

Every branch of science receives aid and encouragement from the Government. New and purely scientific departments have been added to universities; institutions like the Institute of Bacteriology and the Chilean Meteorological Institute have been established; and support is given several private organizations devoted to scientific research. Activities of the Chilean Scientific Society include laboratory experimentation, the publication of scientific essays and journals, and the organization of national and international scientific conferences.

HISTORICAL WRITING.—"No part of Chile's past has been left unstudied, no document in its archives unpublished or unexplained," wrote the eminent Spanish critic Marcelino Menéndez y Pelayo. History is one of Chile's most original and widely cultivated literary forms. By the middle of the nineteenth century, it had become a vigorous expression of national consciousness.

A trio of historians, Miguel Luis Amunátegui, Benjamín Vicuña Mackenna, and Diego Barros Arana, were leading figures in the intellectual life of the second half of the last century. Amunátegui, an indefatigable writer who worked closely with his brother Gregorio Victor, another brilliant historian and a militant liberal, won wide acclaim for his studies on the forerunners of independence and on the role of Bernardo O'Higgins in Chilean politics.

In eloquent journalistic style, prolific Vicuña Mackenna pictured many

different stages of his country's past; his histories of the independence and republican eras are considered among his most important works. Perhaps the most comprehensive general history of Chile, from primitive times up to the constitution of 1833, is Barros Arana's monumental sixteen-volume work. In addition, he described specific periods and events in Chilean history and prepared a valuable textbook on the history of America. Another famous national historian of about the same time was Ramón Sotomayor Valdés, whose studies deal especially with the 1830's.

In this century Crescente Errázuriz, former archbishop of Santiago, wrote a classic history of the Chilean Church. The reputation of the illustrious Amunátegui family has been kept alive by Domingo Amunátegui Solar (son of Miguel Luis Amunátegui), whose works include accounts of colonial and revolutionary days and important studies of Chilean literature, and by his cousin, Miguel Luis Amunátegui Reyes. Gonzalo Bulnes is famous for his studies of the War of the Pacific, and Alberto Edwards has written significant books on philosophy and history.

For more than a half a century, José Toribio Medina (1852-1930) made so many valuable contributions to Chilean history, archaeology, etymology, and literary criticism that he earned the respect and admiration of the entire Continent. Over 320 titles are listed in the bibliography of his works, ranging from an ethnological study of Chilean Indians to a translation of Longfellow's *Evangeline*.

Contemporary historians include Alejandro Fuenzalida Grandón, who traced the social and intellectual development of Chile; Luis Galdames, a

student of constitutional history; and Ricardo Donoso, author of several biographies and of a study of Chilean politics and society since 1833. Since its appearance in 1940, Francisco Encina's controversial history of Chile from prehistoric times until the end of the nineteenth century has been a best-seller.

The essayist Jaime Eyzaguirre also presented a significant historical interpretation of his country. Histories of everything from Chilean foreign relations to cookery have been written by Eugenio Pereira Salas; and outstanding histories of Latin American literature by Arturo Torres-Rioseco and Ricardo A. Latcham.

IMAGINATIVE WRITING.—In the midst of the Spaniards' struggle with the untamed natives of Arauco, a young captain named Alonso de Ercilla jotted down verses on bits of paper, strips of leather, or whatever else he could lay his hands on. When he returned to Spain he incorporated them into a long poem and published the first part in 1569. *La Araucana* records Chile's beginnings as a nation and is one of the greatest epics in Spanish American literature. Most Chilean students know parts of its 37 *cantos* by heart before they enter high school. Numerous editions and translations have appeared throughout the world. The *Araucaniad*, a version in English verse, was published in the United States in 1945.

Ercilla and Arauco provided Chilean writers of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries with most of their inspiration. Poets as well as chroniclers set out to study the Araucanian Indians at home and in battle. Best among Ercilla's imitators was Pedro de Oña, whose *Arauco domado* (published in English as *Arauco Tamed*) skillfully recounts events of

the same wars but lacks the heroic quality of the earlier masterpiece.

During the chaotic struggle for independence, creative writing lagged behind revolutionary literature. New life was dramatically injected into Chilean letters around 1842 when the controversy between classicism and romanticism was at its height. While Sarmiento, the self-taught Argentine educator, called for romantic freedom of expression, a progressive concept of culture, and emulation of the French writers, Bello and his followers defended a strict literary standard, the purity of the Spanish language, and the supremacy of Spanish culture. Even after Bello withdrew from the debate, some of his disciples continued the argument. Later, opponents of Sarmiento's principles—and even Bello himself—adopted romantic tendencies in their writings. A leader of the "Generation of 1842" (a group of liberal writers who agitated for the political, economic, and cultural progress for Chile) was José Victorino Lastarria, an orator, historian, critic, novelist, and editor.

Toward the end of the nineteenth century, *costumbrismo*, the literary form which presented various phases of contemporary life in short, informal sketches, made its way from Europe to America. The humorist José Joaquín Vallejo ("Jotabeche") was a forerunner of the Chilean *costumbrista* school, which later turned to longer stories or novels of manners and customs. The greatest novelist, who followed the pattern of Balzac, was Alberto Blest Gana, whose works are detailed, full-scale portraits of Chilean society. Luis Orrego Luco was a realistic novelist of the following generation. The novelist, short story writer, and literary critic Mariano Latorre has for years headed the

criollista school, faithfully reproducing landscapes, types, and customs of rural life. Luis Durand is another leading contemporary *criollista* writer.

Joaquín Edwards Bello, in his harshly realistic novels, presents a complete picture of Chilean city life as seen through the eyes of a naturalist. The first Chilean short story writer to point up his country's social problems was Baldomero Lillo, who was influenced by Zola and other European naturalists. Santiago's middle class came in for direct study by the two novelists Augusto d'Halmar and Eduardo Barrios. Barrios was a master of abnormal psychology. A crude realist in his earlier works, d'Halmar turned to oriental exoticism and escapism in his later novels and short stories. Poetic yet realistic short stories have also been written by Benjamín Subercaseaux. Even greater fame came to this Chilean author for his provocative book translated into English as *Chile: a Geographic Extravaganza*.

One of the continent's foremost writers of philosophic novels is Pedro Prado, who is also well-known for his essays and poetry. In his best novels Prado's perfection of style is matched by a sublimity of thought. His masterpiece *Alsino* is unsurpassed as a symbolic novel. Another Chilean representative of the psychological and philosophical tendency in recent Spanish American fiction is María Louisa Bombal, whose highly sensitive novels, *The Shrouded Woman* and *The House of Mist* have appeared in English.

In 1888 Rubén Darío's volume of poetry entitled *Azul* was published in Santiago. The appearance of this first work by the Nicaraguan apostle of modernism marked the beginning of a new mode of thinking and feeling,

although perhaps more slowly in Chile than elsewhere in the Spanish-speaking world. Marcelino Menéndez y Pelayo observes, in his history of Spanish American poetry, that while Chile has always been rich in historians, grammarians, and men of science, the practical, positivist character of the people has not favored the production of poetry.

The first half of the twentieth century has shown that Chile has its share of poetic inspiration. Symbolism, musicality, and perfection of form became watchwords of the modernists; fresh pictures of Chilean life, types, and landscapes appear in the writings of poets like Carlos Pezoa Velis; and subjectivity, melancholy, and delicate imagery characterize the lyrical poetry of the group to which Juan Guzmán Cruchaga belongs. While cubism, surrealism, futurism, ultraism, and super-realism were battling for supremacy in Europe and America during the first decades of this century, Vicente Huidobro (1893-1948), a Chilean exponent of this new art, founded a revolutionary "creationism" school almost entirely divorced from human experience and feeling.

International recognition of Gabriela Mistral as a major poet of America resulted in her winning the Nobel Prize for literature in 1945. This former rural school teacher and member of Chile's diplomatic service first made her reputation in 1914, when she received a Chilean poetry prize. Her poetry—simple, direct, and lyrical in tone—reveals a tragic sense of life, an intense love of mankind, a type of mysticism and paganism. Translations of her poems appear in anthologies of Latin American poetry. Her death in January 1957 was mourned by her many friends and colleagues throughout the world.

"Sand Witch" by
Robert Matta



Pablo Neruda is another Chilean who joined the front ranks of contemporary poetry. His complex verse, packed with word-ideas, dramatic symbols, metaphors, and concrete images, mirrors his extremely personal universe. One of his best-known works was published in English in 1947 as *Residence on Earth*. After the Spanish Civil War, Neruda's poetry turned toward political and social questions, some of it highly controversial.

ART.—During the colonial period, Chilean convents, churches, and private homes were adorned with statues and altar pieces brought from Mexico, Peru, and Spain and with some polychrome work done by native artists. Earthquakes, especially the one in 1647, destroyed most of this early colonial art. Painting during the late seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries followed the Cuzco school and later a baroque style combining

Spanish and Indian elements. The political, intellectual, and economic enlightenment of the late 1700's favored the development of art. In architecture, an Italian, Joaquín Toesca, led the transition from American baroque, with its extreme ornamentation, to neo-classicism, in which simplicity of line and correctness of proportion predominated. His most important work was the *Palacio de la Moneda*, once the colonial mint and now the President's residence.

Pedro Lira (1845-1912) represents a vital phase in the artistic development of Chile, not only because of his numerous paintings but also because of his leadership in art education and criticism. His principal works, including landscapes, portraits, and historical compositions—all following the naturalist tendency—are on display in the Santiago Museum. Three of his contemporaries were Chilean



A gay cueca, Chilean folkdance, is part of a rural gathering

pioneers in modern painting; Alfredo Valenzuela Puelma's work, at times impressionistic, at times realistic, defies classification in any particular school; Alberto Valenzuela Llanos, despite his training with Lira, was a bold impressionist whose peaceful landscapes are considered masterpieces; and Juan Francisco Gonzales, a brilliant colorist, was the arch-enemy of academic studio art.

Traditionalism crept back into Chilean art around 1910, when the Spaniard Fernando Alvarez de Sotomayor, who later became director of the new School of Fine Arts, introduced a tendency toward the imitation of old forms. The battle between realism and impressionism was carried through the first decades of this century. Chilean students who had been in Europe began to follow the popular trends of the School of Paris. Nevertheless, despite recent attempts to bring about a new artistic orientation, Chilean art is, for the most part, rather conservative. Mostly European in spirit, it expresses only a slight na-

tionalist trend and practically no indigenous influence.

Leaders of contemporary Chilean painting include José Perotti and Israel Roa. Robert Matta has won considerable recognition in the United States and Europe as an exponent of the current international surrealist movement. Vaporish landscapes, molten, amorphous forms, spiraling lava, and psychotic symbols in exuberant yellows, reds, greens, and blues flow across his canvases. Boldly and with a personal charm, Luis Herrera Guevara a primitive painter who is also well-known beyond the borders of Chile, paints native scenes. A trace of national feeling can be found in two young artists; Pablo Buchard, Jr. is noted for his tempera interpretations of popular crafts and Nemécio Antúnez gives dramatic expression to the Chilean Cordillera in his work.

Modern sculpture first achieved importance around the middle of the nineteenth century with Nicanor Plaza's works. The lead is being taken today by sculptors like Raúl Vargas, who has modeled delicate terra cotta figures; vigorous Samuel Román, whose "Monument to Two Teachers," in Santiago, caused considerable controversy; and Tótila Albert, whose philosophical beliefs are expressed in the "Monument to Rodó" and other works.

Fine arts are not the only form of artistic expression, for the creativeness of the Chilean people produced a fresh, forceful popular art too. Today descendants of the ancient Araucanian tribes are skilled craftsmen. They turn out beautiful ornaments of silver, weave lovely blankets, make fine saddles and other leather goods, and mold attractive pottery.

Music.—The history of Chilean music, from pre-Columbian times to

the middle of the 19th century, is traced by Eugenio Pereira Salas, leading music historian, in *Los orígenes del arte musical en Chile*.

Most of the folk and popular music follows the Spanish tradition. The Araucanian Indians have preserved some of their ancient musical forms, instruments, and dances, because centuries-long isolation from the nation's cultural centers prevented a fusion of native and Hispanic forms.

By far the country's most popular dance, the *cueca*, or *zamacueca*, has come to be identified with Chile. Pereira Salas agrees with Carlos Vega, the outstanding music folklorist of South America, that it came to Chile from Peru. The dance, marked by a feeling of lightness and gaiety, has been described as the popular love dance, or dance of conquest. An audience of men and women surrounds the dancing couple, sometimes commenting in loud voices upon the development of the simulated contest between the partners and often clapping in time with the music. As the dance progresses, the movements become more rapid and energetic until, finally, the woman accepts the courtship of her partner.

As early as the eighteenth century, the *zapateo*, a tap dance popular throughout Latin America, and the Spanish *fandango* were performed in Chile. The *cuando*, widely danced in the nineteenth century, differed from most creole dances; it is believed to have been introduced into Chile from Argentina in 1817, when San Martín and his army crossed the Andes to aid the Chilean struggle for independence. Scarf dances (*danzas de pañuelo*), in which partners dance separately, are especially popular in Chile.

Domingo Santa Cruz, vice rector and dean of the College of Music of

the University of Chile, is the leader of Chilean music today. A prominent composer, Santa Cruz has composed in all musical forms. Perhaps his most significant work is the *Cantata on the Rivers of Chile*, for chorus and orchestra. As the guiding spirit in the Bach Society, founded in 1918, Santa Cruz fostered a group of contemporary composers which ranks among Latin America's most distinguished. In 1940 he was named president of the University's Institute of Musical Extension. This government-sponsored organization administers the National Conservatory of Music, the National Symphony Orchestra, major concerts, opera, and ballet.

Other notable Chilean composers are Enrique Soro, a conductor and teacher as well as a prolific writer; P. Humberti Allende, who is considered a pioneer of modern music in his country; and Carlos Isamitt, an educator and folklorist who has made numerous studies of Araucanian music and whose own compositions reflect an Indian influence.

Claudio Arrau, one of the top-ranking pianists in the world today, is a Chilean. Since his first appearance in the United States in 1924, he has won wide acclaim in Europe and America. Rosita Renard, before her death in 1949, appeared as guest soloist with several United States symphony orchestras. Arnaldo Tapia Caballero and Armando Palacios are other Chilean pianists who have played before enthusiastic audiences throughout the world.

Transportation and Communications

RAILWAYS.—As early as 1849 a North American pioneer railway builder, William Wheelright of New England, built a short railway from the mining city of Copiapó to the

Pacific Coast port of Caldera. Some years later, another Yankee, Henry Meiggs of New York completed the railroad from Valparaíso to Santiago in 1863.

Today, Chile's 4,600-odd miles of railways, which roughly resemble a spinal column, unite the northern two-thirds of the republic from Pisagua to Puerto Montt. Private companies dominate rail communications in the two northern desert provinces; there is a longitudinal line from Pisagua to Pueblo Hundido which joins the main state system, as well as a group of isolated rail networks used to ship minerals. The largest private company, the Antofagasta and Bolivia Railway Company, operates the international line and most of the State longitudinal line of the desert zone. Smaller networks are the Chuquicamata, the Potrerillos, the El Tofocruz Grande, the Taltal, the María Elena-Pedro de Valdivia network which runs to Tocopilla, and the 400-mile line of the Nitrate Railways Company.

Most of the railway network south of Puerto Hundido is part of the national State system. The exceptions are the El Teniente-Racagua and the Concepción-Curilahue railways. The 2,000-mile main trunk line, which has numerous branches, ends at Puerto Montt. Farther south there is a short line between Ancud and Castro.

Five international railways unite Chile with its neighbors. The Arica-Tacna line links Chile and Peru; the Arica-LaPaz line is a short route from Bolivia to the ocean; the British-owned Antofagasta-Mejillones-La Paz line is a longer route, while the Antofagasta-Salta line and the Trans-Andean Railway from Los Andes to Mendoza unites Chile with Argentina.

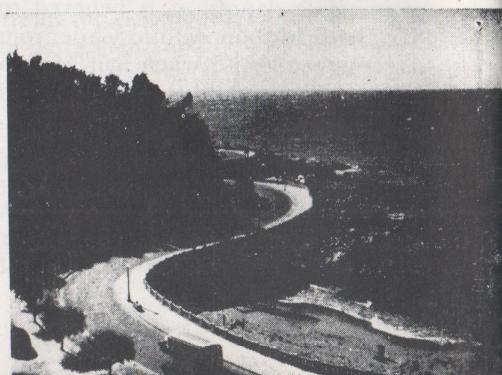
The railway network is interlinked by a maritime service from Arica to Punta Arenas, operated by the State Railways Board. Coastal trade between Chilean ports is the monopoly of Chilean vessels. The country has several leading ports: Valparaíso, Antofagasta, Coquimbo, Lota, Iquique, Coronel, Tocopilla, Puerto Montt, Arica, Castro, and Punta Arenas.

ROADS.—Chile's 24,000-mile highway system is fairly extensive but not all roads are improved. Roads are best in the Santiago area and the Central Valley, but the highway network



Los Cerrillos Airport at Santiago

A scenic highway south of Valparaíso



in the desert-mineral area is good. The Republic recently approved a five-year, 24.1 billion peso road program aimed at meeting the basic requirements of an adequate system for the entire country. Under the program, 7,000 kilometers of principal routes will be paved and an additional 18,500 kilometers will be improved, thus providing all-weather roads for 95 per cent of the highway traffic.

The 1,482-mile Chilean section of the Pan American Highway runs from the Peruvian border to Santiago via Los Andes. At Los Andes, the road forks and continues over the international highway to Mendoza in Argentina. This route is paved for 228 miles, all-weather for 1,126 miles, and a dry-weather road for 128 miles.

AIR TRANSPORT.—Chile was one of the first countries in Latin America to have a national air corps. It now has two airlines which together fly 35 or more planes over 4,702 unduplicated route miles, serving 34 cities. The government-owned National Airlines of Chile, LAN or *Línea Aérea Nacional*, which began operations under the Chilean Air Force in 1929,

operates international flights to neighboring countries in addition to its domestic service. LAN's main route covers the full length of Chile, from Arica to Punta Arenas, and spur routes out of Punta Arenas serve the southern region. Chile is also served by international airlines of other countries.

TELECOMMUNICATIONS.—Besides State Telegraph, run by the government, there is a small, privately owned telegraph company operating in the central region of the country. The railroads also maintain telegraph systems and are authorized to accept messages for points not served by State Telegraph. All American Cables and Radio, Inc. and the West Coast of America Telegraph Company, Ltd., provide international service.

Although there are seven telephone companies in Chile, about 95 per cent of the subscribers are served by the Chilean Telephone Company. The International Radio Company offers, in addition to radiotelegraph service, world-wide telephone connections through an agreement with the Chilean Telephone Company.

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THE ORGANIZATION OF AMERICAN STATES C

The Organization of American States (OAS) is an international organization created by the 21 American republics to achieve an order of peace and justice, to promote their solidarity, to strengthen their collaboration, and to defend their sovereignty, territorial integrity, and independence. The member states are Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela.

The ideal of Western Hemisphere unity was conceived by the Liberator Bolívar and found its first expression in the Treaty of Union signed at the Congress of Panama in 1826. The present organization is an outgrowth of the Inter-American Union of American Republics, created in 1890 during the First International Conference of American States, held in Washington, D.C.

The inter-American system was reorganized and given its present name by the Charter adopted at the Ninth International Conference of American States (Bogotá, Colombia, 1948). The Charter brought together the principles of American international law that had developed during the preceding years; it also specified the organs through which the Organization was to accomplish its purposes. The OAS now functions through six principal organs:

1. The Inter-American Conference, supreme organ of the Organization, meets every five years to decide general action and policy.
2. The Meeting of Consultation of Ministers of Foreign Affairs, which meets at the request of one or more of the member states to consider problems of an urgent nature and of common interest and which serves as the Organ of Consultation to deal with threats to the peace and security of the Continent.
3. The Council, which is composed of one representative from each member state, may act provisionally as Organ of Consultation. The Council has three organs: the Inter-American Economic and Social Council, the Inter-American Commission of Jurists, and the Inter-American Cultural Council.
4. The Pan American Union, which is the central and permanent organ of the Organization, with headquarters in Washington, D.C.
5. The Inter-American Specialized Conferences, which deal with special technical matters and develop specific aspects of inter-American cooperation.
6. The Inter-American Specialized Organizations, which have specific functions with respect to technical matters of common interest to the American states. There are six such agencies: The Inter-American Children's Institute, the Inter-American Commission of Women, the Inter-American Indian Institute, the Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences, the Pan American Health Organization, and the Pan American Institute of Geography and History.

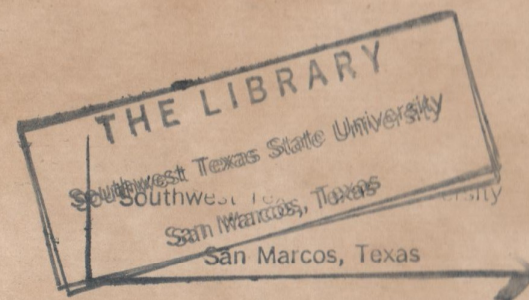
Through these organs and agencies, the OAS functions effectively to strengthen the peace and security of the Continent; to prevent possible causes of difficulties; to ensure the pacific settlement of disputes; to provide for common action in the event of aggression; to seek the solution of political, juridical, and economic problems that may arise among the American states; and to promote, by cooperation, their economic, social and cultural development.



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