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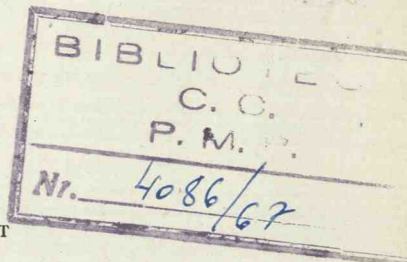
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RUMANIA IN 1900

BY

G. B E N G E R

R. RUMANIAN CONSUL-GENERAL IN STUTTGART



AUTHORISED TRANSLATION

BY

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CENTRAL AMERICA; SOUTH AMERICA; THE BOER STATES; ETC. ETC.

*14 PLATES, A MAP, AND 26
ILLUSTRATIONS IN TEXT*

LONDON

A S H E R A N D C O.

13 BEDFORD STREET, COVENT GARDEN, W.C.

1900

722.190/4860

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Preface.

THANKS especially to the improvement of the technical arts, and to the strides made in opening up the natural resources of the land, as well as in the expansion of railways, steam navigation, and international intercourse, most agricultural States have during the latter half of the nineteenth century made such progress as to command the general interest of political economists. More than any other of these States, the young self-made kingdom of Rumania has become a power to reckon with, a valued factor in the comity of European nations in political, military, and economic respects.

Only a few decades ago the Danubian States, as the portals of the East, still presented a world looking askance at European culture. They were accordingly regarded even in Germany merely as 'Semi-Asiatic' lands in which but little interest could be taken. Yet in a short time Rumania has cast the slough still clinging to the person, to the industries, to property and capital: to do this it needed only as many decades as the West European lands did centuries. The Paris Exhibition has sufficed to make this evident to a wider circle, and to dissipate antiquated prejudices. But it cannot be fully grasped without a survey of the earlier conditions, and of the progress of

modern culture. To supply such an indispensable survey is the object of the present work, the immediate incentive to which was an 'exploring expedition' undertaken by the author in the kingdom of Rumania in the autumn of 1892.

During that journey I beheld with wondering eyes the mighty strides the land had made. These strides have further revealed themselves through two weighty events in contemporary Rumanian history—the share taken by the national army in the Russo-Turkish War of 1877, and the opening of the great bridge at Cernavoda in August 1895: one the touchstone of the nation's politico-military training and preparedness, the other a landmark in the accomplishment of a self-conscious programme of more earnest cultural work.

Both incidents are indications of different stages of development. The first embraces that period when nearly the whole strength of the people had to be concentrated in one aim—to achieve its political autonomy and equality for the land hemmed in by all-powerful neighbours. In the *Leben des Königs Karl* we perceive with what wariness and energy Rumania had to go to work in order to win her way to the status of an independent and respected member of the European States. The war of 1877-78 was merely the crowning result of the long years of struggle for that political freedom which was the ideal of every citizen and the long yearned-for goal of their King.

After the external position of Rumania had been assured, a new epoch was ushered in—a period of economic work. As amongst the more important triumphs of this period I may mention the increase of highways, the expansion of the railway system, regulation of the larger rivers, the Constantza harbour-works, erection of the great corn-elevators and opening of the cattle-markets in the seaport of Constantza and in Turnu-Severin, the agricultural reforms—inland colonisation—re-adjustment of the State finances, the industrial and

mining enactments, and the strengthening of the public credit. All this brought about the free development of the economic resources of the land, together with a marked increase in its producing and consuming capacity.

Another object of this work is to make the trading and industrial circles of West Europe better acquainted with all this progress, and thereby rouse them to a more active economic intercourse with Rumania.

G. BENDER.

STUTT GART, *April* 14, 1900.

NOTE.—The decimal system for money, weights and measures has been adopted by Rumania ; and owing to the impossibility of always securing perfect accuracy with vulgar fractions, the values have for the most part been retained in the present edition. Subjoined are their approximate English equivalents:—

Bani = centime = $\frac{1}{10}$ d. nearly.

Leu (pl. lei) = franc = $9\frac{1}{2}$ d. nearly.

Gramme = 15.43 gr. tr.

Kilogram = 2.205 lbs. av.

Quintal (metric) = $220\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. av.

Litre (liquid) = 1.76 pint.

Hectolitre $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{liquid} = 22 \text{ gallons.} \\ \text{dry} = 2.75 \text{ bushels.} \end{array} \right.$

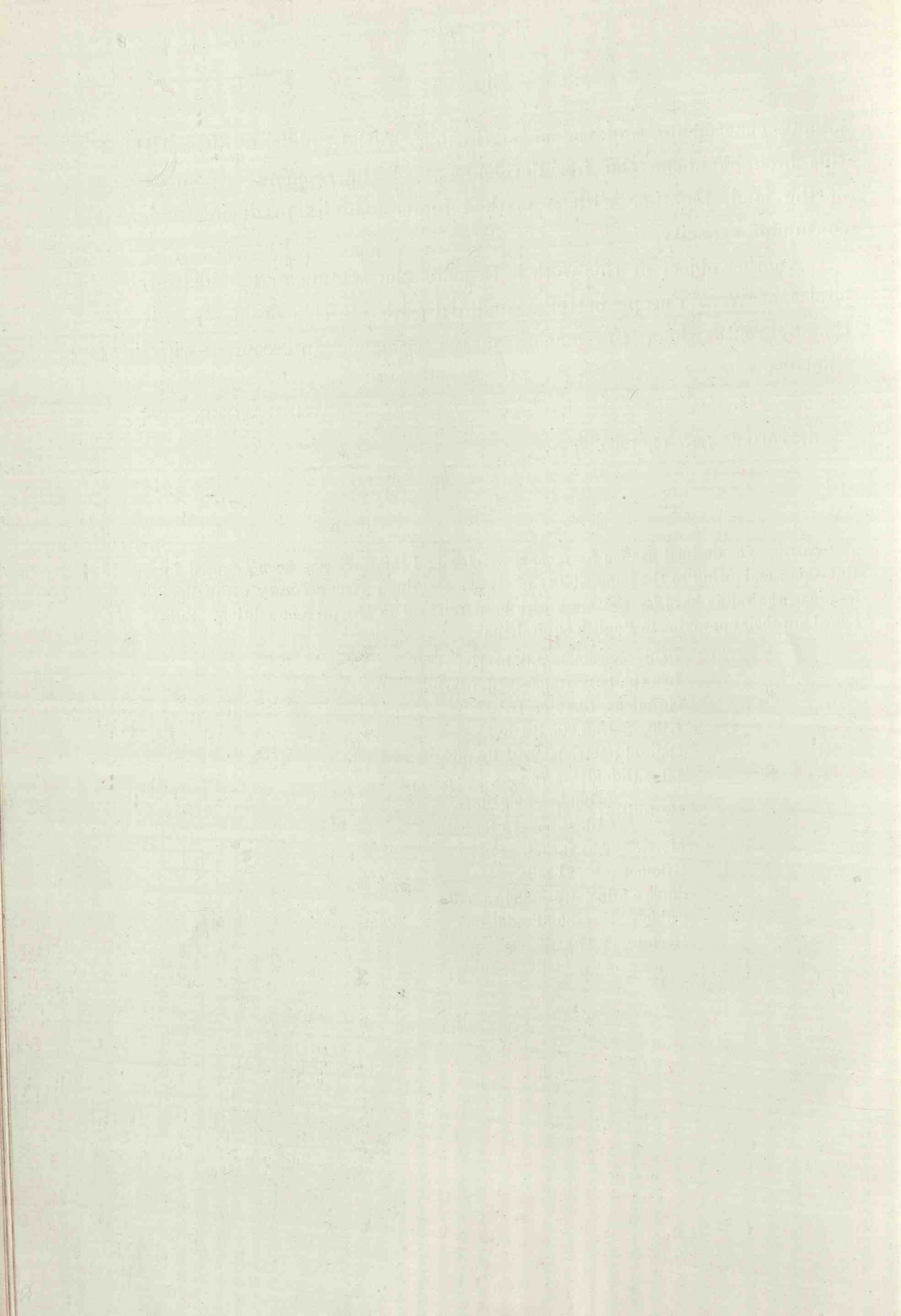
Metre = 39.37 inches.

Kilometre = .621 mile.

Square kilometre = .386 sq. mile.

Cubic metre = 35.31 cubic feet.

Hectare = 2.47 acres.



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PETROASA GOLDFINDS—
REPUTED TREASURE OF
ATHANARIC.

Introduction.

BETWEEN the Black Sea, the Carpathians, and the left bank of the Danube lies a spacious depression ample enough for a population of some fifteen million souls. This depression has ever been both the natural trade route and the main highway of hostile and peaceful movements, for peoples penetrating from the south and east up the Danube to Central Europe, or advancing from the north towards Constantinople. To the strategic importance in historic times of the Lower Danube region—ever exposed, as it was, to rude contact with foreign nations—its present inhabitants are indebted for that racial tenacity which has enabled them to survive the storm and stress of such a position. For this characteristic trait the Rumanian has a national saying: *Apa trece, petrele remain*, 'Water flows by, the rocks remain.' In any case the Rumanians have stood fast, although their political independence dates only from a few decades.

* * *

*

A

AS at present constituted, Rumania consists mainly of the old Roman province of Dacia—a fertile and highly favoured land 131,357 square kilometres in extent. Eastwards it borders on the Black Sea and Bessarabia, northwards on Bukovina, westwards on Transylvania and Servia, southwards on Bulgaria. According to the estimate made in December 1894 by the Ministry of Finance, the population exceeds five millions (*Monitorul Oficial*, June 2, 1895).

But more accurate would appear to be the calculations of D. A. Sturdza, who arrives at an estimate of 6,100,000 souls (*Suprafața și populațiunea regatului României*, in the *Bul. of the Soc. Geogr. Româna*, 1895, vol. XII., iii. and iv.). Of the inhabitants, 4,800,000 belong to the Orthodox Greek Church; 154,000 are Roman Catholics or Protestants; 490,000 Jews;¹ 43,000 Muhammadans. To the Rumanian stock belong altogether more than ten million souls, of whom 2,800,000 reside in Hungary; 1,000,000 in Bessarabia; 800,000 in Macedonia, Epirus, and Albania; 150,000 in Servia, 50,000 in Bulgaria, and 30,000 in Northern Greece.

This race, thus distributed over five different States, is united together by the ties of common descent (from Trajan's Roman Colonists: Romani), by speech, national characteristics, usages; partly also by history and religion; while its various branches never intermingle with any of the surrounding populations. As stated by the *Allgemeine Zeitung* of September 10, 1899, 'we have to reckon with a numerically important nationality, which is endowed with a vigorous vitality, and has moreover during the last three decades made considerable progress both in mental culture and in economic respects—a people animated by national sentiment and devotion,

¹ Thanks to a steady immigration from Russia and Galicia since 1880, the Jews have increased by 55 per cent. Most of them (76 per cent.) are settled in Moldavia, and especially in the northern frontier districts (40 per cent).

and which in its educational establishments, in its church, its press, and its rising literature, possesses zealous fostering institutions and champions of the national spirit. It is also a significant fact that the Rumanians in the southern and south-western districts of the Theiss valley, as far as the Hungarian frontier towards Rumania, dwell in compact bodies, extensive tracts being almost exclusively occupied by them. This is especially the case in those borderlands where they are in direct contact and active intercourse with their kinsfolk of the conterminous kingdom of Rumania.¹

The Rumanian nation is thus seen to stretch, with few interruptions, continuously from the Theiss to the Black Sea: in this spacious domain dwell nearly eight million Rumanians, who, although politically divided, feel that from the standpoint of social culture they form a single people. As thus constituted, the Rumanian nation is destined to build up a barrier on the one hand against the 'Jingo' tendencies of the Hungarian Magyars, on the other against the Panslav pressure southwards, that is, towards the Carpathians and the Balkan lands. The Rumanian nation possesses the same significance towards the close of the nineteenth century as did those Roman colonists who were settled in Dacia in the year 104 A.D.; and (according to Ranke) were all the more important,

¹ In a speech addressed to the Rumanian Senate on December 9, 1893, Demetrius A. Sturdza pointed out that 'the strength of the kingdom of Rumania rests on two foundations. In the kingdom we constitute a uniform homogeneous nationality, amid which are here and there scattered only a few inhabitants of alien origin, as indeed is everywhere the case. In respect of this position, we can but congratulate ourselves on the Berlin Convention of 1878, thanks to which we have on the one hand no further occasion to set up any religious distinctions in the Rumanian body politic, while on the other it has enabled us to safeguard our land from falling into the power of foreign or hostile States. From the Berlin Convention has emanated the 7th Article of our Constitution, which provides for the maintenance of the strength of the kingdom and the integrity of the Rumanian nationality. We should accordingly uphold this 7th Article as a priceless possession. The second foundation on which our strength rests consists in the fact that beyond our political frontiers the kingdom is girdled round by Rumanian communities. That is a consideration of the greatest moment. For we are thus less directly exposed to pressure from foreign and antagonistic nationalities; nay, rather are the efforts of these hostile nationalities thereby in some measure weakened. . . . The stronger the resisting forces of the Rumanians beyond the kingdom, the safer is the position of the kingdom itself, no one being able to attack it directly. In other words, the danger comes from that side of the kingdom where the national life of the Rumanians beyond the kingdom is imperilled.'

since they opposed a strong rampart against the half-nomadic movements in the Trans-Danubian regions.¹

¹ Towards Hungary the relations are always somewhat strained, because here there is a conflict between national and economic interests. In the spring of 1900 friction was again caused by the Chauvinistic national policy of Hungary in connection with the Rumanian school at Kronstadt, and the introduction of Rumanian wheat through the flour-mills of Pest.

The Rumanians of Hungary demand in the first instance equal rights (the restoration of Transylvanian autonomy is a mere party cry) for Transylvania, the fusion of which with Magyarland is regarded by the Rumanian people as its chief grievance. Further demands have reference (1) to the reform of the franchise, which is at present so manipulated that the non-Magyars, even where they constitute a considerable majority, are outvoted by the Magyar minority; (2) to the law on the equal rights of the nationalities, the enforcement of which law is called for by the Rumanians; (3) to a revision of the laws affecting educational, municipal, press, and agrarian matters. The Rumanians protest against the aim and tendencies of these laws towards the practical 'Magyarising' of their nationality; that is, its absorption in the dominant Magyar element.

CHAPTER I.

Geographical Relations.

THE Danube is the natural main highway of intercourse for the kingdom. Of the navigable section (2743 kilometres) of this mighty stream, more than one-third (955 kilom.)—from the frontier rivulet Bahna above Vercerova to Sulina—belongs to Rumania. Its political, military, and economic importance for this State has been considerably enhanced since the successful execution of the works carried out under the international Danubian Commission for regulating the navigation of the Sulina branch of the delta, and since the completion in 1896 of the corresponding works at the Iron Gates.

After forcing its way through a rocky gorge 150 metres wide, the Danube enters Rumania at Vercerova, beyond which it follows a winding course as the frontier stream towards Servia. Below Calafat it again develops a considerable bend, after which it takes an easterly trend, here flowing between Rumania and Bulgaria. It then follows a northerly course between Dobruja and the rest of the kingdom, and after its junction with the Pruth turns eastwards, maintaining this direction for the rest of its course to the Black Sea, which it enters through several mouths. In breadth the Lower Danube varies from 800 to 1400 metres, with a depth of from 4 to 30 metres. Fluvial islands, often several thousand yards long, and planted with poplars and willows, are far from rare. In the Danubian plain, ranging from

3 to 24 kilometres in width, there occur, as in other large river valleys, both swamps and fens, and (especially along the left bank) numerous extensive lagoons, which apparently represent old water-courses, and are well stocked with fish. In the delta, the Kilia branch, some 500 metres broad, receives 63 per cent. of the whole volume, the rest flowing to the Tulcia branch, which, 14 kilometres below the head of the delta, again ramifies, sending about one-fifth of the discharge to the Sulina mouth, and four-fifths to the St. George. The latter, however, is so choked with sands as to be of little use, so that the Sulina branch serves as the main channel for traffic on the Lower Danube.

Of the numerous affluents, taking them in their order from west to east, the first to claim attention is the Yiú (Shyl), which rises in Hungary, has a course of 180 kilometres, and in its turn is joined by two considerable tributaries, the Gilort on its left and the Motru on its right bank. Next follows the Alt (Aluta), which for 300 kilometres of its upper course flows through Transylvania, and receives the Topolog, a tributary of some size, on its left bank.

From the Fogarash range comes the Arges, which joins the Dambovitza at some little distance from the Danube, and is followed further east by the Yalomitza, with its numerous head-streams.

In Moldavia the largest arteries are the Sereth, with its Suceava branch, the Moldova, Bistritza, Trotus, and Buzeu.

Towards Russia the frontier river is the Pruth, which winds for 512 kilometres through a deep valley 358 kilometres long. It is 60 metres broad, with an average depth of from one and a-half to two metres in its upper, and from four to five in its lower course.

Round the Danubian lowlands is developed an amphitheatre of encircling hills, which gradually merge in the Carpathian highlands.

In his *Roumanie et les Roumains* (Florence, 1898, p. 114) Alberto de Gubernatis compares the topographic features of the present Rumania with those of North Italy: in the upper parts mountainous, fertile on the plains, and lying between uplands and the sea, it contains within its own limits nearly all the economic resources of the broad and smiling valley of the Po in Upper Italy. The Danube has, moreover, the advantage over the Po that, throughout its seaward course, it is accessible even to large sea-going vessels.

From the Transylvanian Alps the land has a general south-easterly incline. Geologically it belongs for the most part to the Carpathian system, which, in the districts of Mehedintzi, Goryu, Valcea, Arges, and Muscel, consists mainly of crystalline schists, with intrusive jurassic and chalk beds in the first two districts. Walachia is traversed throughout its entire length by Eocene formations, as well as by strongly folded Miocene strata, which often contain salt and petroleum.

West of the Prahova valley lies the isolated Buceciu mountain mass, which is 14 kilometres long and 7 wide, and falls abruptly on all sides. Specially imposing is the lofty Caraiman peak, which attains an altitude of 2495 metres on the north-eastern escarpments facing the Prahova valley.

East of the Alt the Fogarash range stretches for a length of sixty-four kilometres, as far as the Buzeu, scarcely anywhere falling below 2000 metres, and rising in the Negoii, Coltzu Vistea Marea, and Sarul peaks to 2536, 2520, and 2288 metres respectively.

From the Negoii a view is commanded towards the north-east of the lofty Papusa range, stretching away for over forty kilometres, and presenting altitudes of 2400 metres. West of the Alt rises the Lotru range, which is fifty kilometres long, and culminates in the Pareng peak, 2520 metres high. With the Lotru is connected the volcanic ridge, which towers to a height of 1800 metres.

Between the south-east Carpathians and the Pruth the Moldavian plateau, consisting of late Tertiary formations, is 350 kilometres long and 90 broad, with a normal south-easterly incline. It is divided by the Sereth into two halves, of which the eastern section presents the more elevated rising grounds.

The extreme north-west, consisting of crystalline schists, is disposed, especially in the deeply eroded Bistritza valley, in huge rocky masses. At Brosteni, on the left side of the valley, rise the Pietra Doamnei (1632 metres) and the Rareu (1648), while close to the Hungarian frontier stands the Crenesesu (1866). Between Bistriciora and Bicaz the precipitous Ciahlau rises to a height of 1900 metres.

Amongst the more important mountain passes are: (1) Vercerova, at the Iron Gates; (2) Vulkan, between Petroseni and Craiova; (3) Rotenturm, between Hermannstadt and Craiova; (4) Torzburg, between

Campulung and Kronstadt; (5) Tömösh, at Predeal; (6) Buzeu, between Buzeu and Kronstadt; (7) Oituz, between Ocna and Kronstadt; (8) Ghimesh, between Comanesti and Ghimesh; (9) Tölgyes, or Prisa-cani, between Piatra and Borszek; (10) Sarul-Dornei, at Dorna.¹

The climate is not so mild as might be expected from the southern position of the land, which lies under the same parallels as North Italy. It also presents great extremes, which are due to the fact that here the influences are felt both of the Mediterranean and of the East European mainland, the former causing sub-tropical summer heats, the latter bitterly cold winters. 'Rumania,' says Carmen Sylva, 'has only three seasons, and of these one alone—autumn—is fine; in these parts there is no spring.' Often, as for instance in 1899, the warmth of a late summer is felt at Christmas, to be followed in a few days by intense cold; or else, as in the middle of December 1899, a persistent steppe wind ('krivetz'), accompanied by fierce snowstorms, burying the whole of Rumania in snow, and interrupting all communications on the plains from the Pruth to the Iron Gates. Spring lasts only a few weeks, scarcely long or mild enough to form an intermediate season, so that rather severe cold weather is suddenly followed by great heat. The almost rainless summer presents few charms, but is compensated by a long and pleasant autumn, at least when not too abruptly terminated by the north-easters, which prevail on an average for 150 days, and often bring snow as early as the beginning of November.

The absolute extremes of temperature show a great range, the summer heats rising to 50° C. (122° Fahr.), the winter colds, as in 1891, falling to -36° C. (-32·8° Fahr.). In summer the glass also falls considerably at night.

The mean seasonal temperatures are:—

Spring,	. . .	+11·7° C. = 53° Fahr.
Summer,	. . .	+22·5° C. = 72° ,,
Autumn,	. . .	+12·8° C. = 54° ,,
Winter,	. . .	+ 2·5° C. = 36° ,,
Mean for the year,		+11·6° C. = 52° ,,

¹ The Vercerova, Rotenturm, Predeal, and Ghimesh passes are crossed by railways, which, with the Itzkani-Burduyeni line, complete the communications between Rumania and West Europe.

For Bucharest the annual mean is stated to be 10.5° C. (51° Fahr.). Here the chief rainy season would appear to extend from May to August, but with much fluctuation. The rainy days number little over 100, while for the whole country the annual rainfall is said to range from 40 to 50 centimetres. The Danube is icebound almost every winter, often for three months. The frost is most intense about the New Year.

CHAPTER II.

History.

a. Early Period.

I.

IN early times the banks of the Lower Danube were inhabited by the Getæ or Dacians, probably a warlike Aryan people, who ranged to and beyond the present Transylvania and Bessarabia. They made frequent incursions into the neighbouring lands, to protect which Alexander the Great found himself compelled, as King of Macedon, to undertake a military expedition in the year 335 B.C., on which occasion he twice crossed the Danube.¹ The Romans also repeatedly sent their legionaries against them. In two great expeditions (101-106 A.D.) the Emperor Trajan, surnamed *Dacicus*, conquered Dacia, and, after the submission of King Decebalus, made it a Roman province. For the safeguarding of the frontiers of the empire he displayed an immense colonising activity, drawing from every part of the world-wide imperial domain numerous settlers to reoccupy the depopulated plains of the Danube. Thus were founded in the present Bulgaria and Servia the colonies of *Nicopolis* (on the northern slope of the Balkan Peninsula), *Novæ* (the present Nikopoli),

¹ According to an hypothesis of R. Ranke (*Rumänien*, 1877), some Keltic tribes also made inroads into this region in the second century B.C.

Prista (Ruschuk), *Transmarisca* (Turtukai), *Bononia* (Widdin), *Ratiana* (Arcer Palanka), *Durostorum* (Silistria); in Dobruja: *Cius* (Hirsova), *Troësmis* (Iglitza), *Arrubium* (Machin), *Viodunum* (Isakcha), *Istrus* (Karaharman), *Tropæum* (Adam-Klissi), *Tomi* (Constantza), *Kallatis* (Mangalia); in Walachia: *Drobeta* (Turnu-Severin), *Malva* (Celeiu), *Castra Nova* (Craiova), *Romula* (Resca), *Sorium* (Rusii de Vede), *Pelendava* (Bradesci), *Acidava* (Jenusesti), *Rusidava* (Dragasani), *Castra Traiana* (Gura Vaii Valcea), *Arutela* (Bivolarii), *Pons Vetus* (Caineni), *Komidava* (Petroasa), *Ramidava* (Buzeu); in Moldavia: *Dinogetia* (Tiglina); in Hungary and Transylvania: *Ulpia Traiana* (Gradistea), *Apulum* (Alba Julia), *Potassia* (Turda), *Napoca* (Klausenburg), *Porolissum* (Mojgrad), *Tibiscum* (Karansebes), *Tierna* (Orsova), *ad Mediam* (Mehadia), *Ampelum* (Zlatna), *Alburnus* (Abrud), *Salina* (Vint).

Mining and intercourse were now developed, and the former Dacian capital, Sarmizegetusa (changed to Ulpia Traiana), received its forum and its consuls, like Rome itself. In order to safeguard the communications with Dacia, the whole of the Illyrian seaboard was civilised, and the new province became so prosperous that it earned the title of *Dacia Felix* ('Happy Dacia').

To the Roman colonists the Rumanians owe their distinguishing characters. These are still seen in their dress and daily habits, in their usages and peculiar temperament often betraying a strong affinity with the other Romance peoples, and in their speech, which in its vocabulary and structure is for the most part of Latin origin. Imposing monuments of that glorious period are the *Tropæum Trajani*, on the right bank of the Danube at Rassoava (Adam Klissi) in Dobruja, a round stone structure 100 feet in circuit and 40 feet high, with numerous figures in low relief, commemorating Trajan's conquest of the barbarians, now preserved in the Bucharest Museum;¹ and further, the bridge spanning the Danube at Turnu-Severin, which, with its twenty arches still visible, would seem to have exceeded in length any similar structure in the Roman empire.

But towards the end of the next century (271 A.D.), the new province of Dacia had already been exposed to the ravages of the

¹ Gr. Tocilescu, *Das Monument von Adam-Klissi*, Vienna, 1895.

Goths¹ advancing from the north, and these intruders were soon followed by other Germanic tribes, and then successively by the Huns (375-453), the Gepidæ, the Avars (555), and the Bulgars (680). In the wake of the last mentioned came the pastoral Slav tribes, who settled in the wasted districts extending from West Bulgaria to the rivers Save and Drave, and also founded stations in Rumania, but were either gradually merged in the Roman stock or else driven eastwards by them. From the fusion of these peoples with the survivors of the Roman settlers sprang the present Rumanian people, who have from that time faithfully preserved the consciousness of their origin and racial unity.²

About 813 the Rumanians formed an alliance with the Bulgarians. Their contemporary ruler, the warlike Khan (Prince) Sheremus, founded a great Bulgarian State, comprising the present Rumania, Bessarabia, Bukovina, Transylvania, Hungary as far as the Theiss, the Banat, half of Servia, and the present Bulgaria, together with Dobruja. This vast Bulgarian empire was overthrown by the Byzantine emperor, Basilius, in 1010. But in the year 1186 the two Rumanians, Peter and Asai, raised the standard of revolt against the Byzantine oppressors of their people, and founded a new Walacho-Bulgarian State—the kingdom of the Asanides.

Soon after these events the Kumans, advancing from the district of Kiev on the Upper Dnieper, made their appearance on the left bank of the Danube, occupied the present Rumania, and reduced the Walacho-Bulgarian State to its territory south of the Danube.

On the subsidence of all these conflicting ethnical movements, the Rumanians on both sides of the Carpathians began again to group themselves in petty states—the so-called waywodeships—until Radul Negru I. in the year 1241 founded the state of Walachia, with its seat of government at Campulung. This new kingdom soon expanded not only

¹ A monument dating from those times is the famous Treasure of Petroasa, supposed to have belonged to Alaric, King of the Visigoths. It is preserved in the Bucharest Museum, and was also to be seen at the Paris Exhibition of 1900. Copies now form part of every antiquarian collection of any importance.

² Their conversion to Christianity had already taken place during the period of Roman colonisation, as is attested by numerous monuments dating from that time.

over the whole of Walachia, but also over a portion of Transylvania and the present Moldavia as far as the Sereth.

Less than a hundred years later (1354) the Rumanian leader, Bogdan Dragosh, emerged with his people from the hitherto inhabited primeval woodlands of north-east Hungary—the so-called Marmaros—crossed the Carpathians in the present Bukovina, and invaded what was then Kumanian territory. This he partly reduced, and under the name of 'Moldavia' erected into a separate state ethnically akin to Walachia and with its first capital at Baia on the Moldova. Bogdan Dragosh, having conquered a few other districts, received from the contemporary emperor of Constantinople the title of Lord or Despot.

With the foundation of these two principalities the early period of Rumanian history is brought to a close. Then follows the later period, which lasts till the principalities fall under the sway of the Phanariot rulers. Throughout this second period the main tendencies are twofold, to maintain their independence by force of arms against the neighbouring rivals, Hungarians, Poles, and Turks, and to free themselves from dependence now on one now on another of these peoples. From the machinations of these neighbours, the frequent alliances and ruptures with them, there arose endless civil strife, by which the land was incessantly wasted.

From the first a grave peril for the two newly founded states lay in the steady advance of the Turks. As early as the year 1392, after the battle of Kossovo, the Walachian Waywode, Mircea I., found himself compelled to make a treaty—a 'capitulation,' as it was called—with the Turkish Sultan.

Stephen VI., who had become Great Waywode in the year 1456, drove back the Tatars, who had for the first time invaded the country; he at the same time also defended himself successfully against Turk, Magyar, and Pole. But their incessant attacks obliged his son, Bogdan II. (1504-1526) to make his land a vassal state of the Sultan, Selim II.

The energy and endurance of the Rumanian people were especially manifested during the period when the Turks were pressing westwards up to the very walls of Vienna. Even in these stormy times Moldavia and Walachia never lost their independence, while the Sultans had

often to renew the treaties concluded with Mercea and Bogdan, expressly recognising that these lands 'were not subdued.' Their internal autonomy was thus assured down to the latest times. These treaties embody the substance of the so-called 'privileges' of the Danubian principalities, which were often curtailed but never denied by the Turks. In fact, the full text of the capitulations afforded the ground for ever more persistent and urgent claims and demands on the part of both states. Possibly their geographical position, standing somewhat apart from the main line of Turkish invasion, may have helped to save the principalities from absolute conquest. But even so, it is still remarkable that, while Transylvania and Hungary groaned under the direct Turkish rule for some one hundred and fifty years, the Moldavian and Walachian princes were able, despite several wars with the Turks and their Transylvanian allies, to safeguard those treaty rights in virtue of which no mosque could be built, nor any Turk settle permanently in Rumanian territory.

It is under such relations that the commanding personality of Michael the Brave (1573-1601) stands out conspicuously. After successively overcoming the Turks (in 1594 at Floci, in 1595 at Calugareni), the Hungarians (in 1599 at Schellenberg), the Moldavians and Poles (in 1600 at Trotush), and after long negotiations initiated in 1598, Michael received the stadtholdership of Transylvania from the Emperor Rudolf II., so that from the beginning of 1600 to August 1601 he bore the official title of 'Michail Valachiae Transalpinæ Vaivoda Sacratissimæ Cæsareæ Regiæque Maiestatis Consiliarius, per Transsilvaniam Locumtenens et eiusdem cis Transsilvaniam partiumque eidem subiectarum fines Exercitus Generalis Capitaneus.' Of him, Johan Christian von Engel wrote in 1804: 'Let us strew flowers on the grave of a Walachian prince who enjoys a world-wide historic interest. He too helped, and helped mightily, to turn aside Turkish barbarism from the rest of Europe. Had he received a better education, had he not fallen on such dark and difficult times, had he not to do with Bastas, with Sigismund Bathoris, and Jeremiah Movilas, this man would have wrought wonders, he would have been the compeer of Themistocles and John Hunyades. Had it lasted longer his rule would have been decisive for the higher destinies of the lands about

the Lower Danube. But in his forty-third year his career was violently arrested; the results of his undertakings have, as it were, vanished in the void of time; Walachia and Moldavia are still in the same degraded state as heretofore; but let it be the work of history to quicken the hopes of those who anticipate better things for humanity in the fair Danubian lands.'

A turning-point in the prospects of both principalities was the victory of the Turks over the Russians at Stanilesti on the Pruth, followed by the treaty of July 13, 1711. The Moldavian prince, Demetrius Cantimyr, who had openly allied himself with the Tsar, had to fly with his adherents to Russia, while the Walachian prince, Constantine Brankovan, secretly in league with Peter the Great, was beheaded by the Sultan in Constantinople.

From that time the Turks completely abolished the free election of the Rumanian princes, which had been guaranteed by the old treaties. Members of the Phanariot families were now appointed rulers of the principalities directly from Constantinople, and this arrangement continued down to the year 1821. Thus the nation sank lower and lower, and at last forfeited all sense of its moral worth. Soon there was no further question of a nation in the strict acceptation of the term, that is, of a people ready to sacrifice blood and treasure for an independent fatherland.

The country was plundered in the most shameless manner by the Turks and a corrupt Boyard aristocracy, the former especially by a system of forestalments in respect of the produce of the whole land. On this point details are given by Baicoianu in his *Rumänische Zollpolitik* (1896), pp. 3, 12, 23.

II.

The Phanariots, so called from *Phanar*, the quarter of Constantinople where they resided, were powerful Greek capitalists, or, to speak more correctly, collectors of tribute. It should be explained that, besides the annual tribute, each prince had at his investiture to pay the Porte considerable sums, averaging £50,000, which, to indemnify himself, he had in his turn to squeeze out of the land. Naturally the

Porte was always ready to grant new investitures as often as possible, and thus it happened that in the course of a century as many as thirty-one 'successions to the throne' took place in Moldavia, and twenty-nine in Walachia. To mention one instance, Constantine Mavrokordatus was installed within three decades six times in Walachia and four times in Moldavia.

For the year 1796 the revenue of Moldavia was stated to be £550,000, and that of Walachia £875,000, the larger half of which went to the Sublime Porte, the smaller to the vassal princes. After a reign of not more than two years a prince might save as much as £400,000.

For the people, this blood-sucking process by foreign tyrants, supported by alien troops, doubtless marked the hardest period in their history. The results are still perceptible in the apathetic attitude of the peasantry. In respect of their dwellings, food, and everything affecting mere human existence, so modest are their pretensions, that one might almost fancy nothing but extreme destitution could give rise to such a wretched everyday existence. But the true explanation would seem to lie rather in those earlier conditions, when every outward show of improvement suggested to the tax-gatherer the suspicion of more ample means, which, once brought to light, were as good as lost.

For the land itself little was ever done. It bled at every pore from the frequent wars, the oppressive imposts, and the wholesale emigration due to these evils. Towards the close of the eighteenth century half of the villages were depopulated, while the inhabitants still numbered only 750,000; a hundred years later they had increased more than fourfold.

With the opening of the eighteenth century the position of both principalities became more and more precarious, owing to the efforts at political expansion developed by Austria and Russia. Henceforth they formed the starting-point of all military operations, and at every treaty of peace they usually paid the reckoning, either in loss of territory or of privileges. During the period from Peter the Great's campaign on the Pruth (1711) to the Treaty of Paris (1756) these lands were occupied no less than ten times by Russians, Turks, or Austrians, deprived of self-government, and in every instance exposed to the danger of absorption in Russia or Austria.

Catherine II's third campaign (1768-1774) brought about the first formal occupation by the Russians; and although they had to withdraw after the treaty of Kuchuk-Kainarji (1774), their influence was increased, while another result was the incorporation of Bukovina in the Austrian Empire (1776). The seventh Russian campaign (1805-1812) ended with the cession of Bessarabia to Russia. The eighth (1820-1826) and the ninth (1828-1834) concluded with the treaties of Ackerman and Adrianople, which yielded the overlordship of the principalities to Russia. But the Greek War of Independence brought an end to the rule of the Phanariots, who were replaced by native princes chosen from the Boyard class. On the other hand, the principalities were again occupied by the Russians and the Turks in 1848-1850, until, shortly before the Crimean War, they were seized by Russia as a mortgage for claims against Turkey. In the period of the reinstated native rule (1834-1856) began the seething process of economic and political development, inspired by growing contact with West European cultural influences.

About this time there set in those tendencies, which aimed partly at the introduction of internal organisation and West European civilisation, partly at political independence and the union of both principalities. Such strivings, however, were kept under control by Russophile Hospodars, such as George Bibesco in Walachia and Michael Sturdza in Moldavia, aided also by the Porte. When 150,000 armed peasants marched in 1848 to join the insurgents at Bucharest, Bibesco had no doubt to abdicate, while in the same place the provisional government (Golescu, Eliade, Tell) openly burnt the constitution which had been framed in St. Petersburg. Nevertheless, the old order was soon restored by the Russians.

III.

With the Crimean War a new era dawned on Rumania. Its landmarks were: the union of Walachia and Moldavia in the year 1859; the emancipation of the peasantry in 1864; Prince Charles's assumption of the Rumanian crown, and the abolition of the Turkish suzerainty

B



by the war of 1877. By the Treaty of Paris of August 30, 1856, the Russian protectorate over the principalities had been set aside and the southern part of Bessarabia attached to Moldavia. It was further stipulated that the inhabitants of both principalities should themselves be consulted on the settlement of their political relations, and this (as arranged by a Commission appointed by the Great Powers) in popular assemblies, to which all classes were to send their representatives. The two Assemblies of October 1857, held for this purpose, voted for the union of both principalities in a single Rumanian State, and for the election of a hereditary prince from one of the reigning European dynasties.

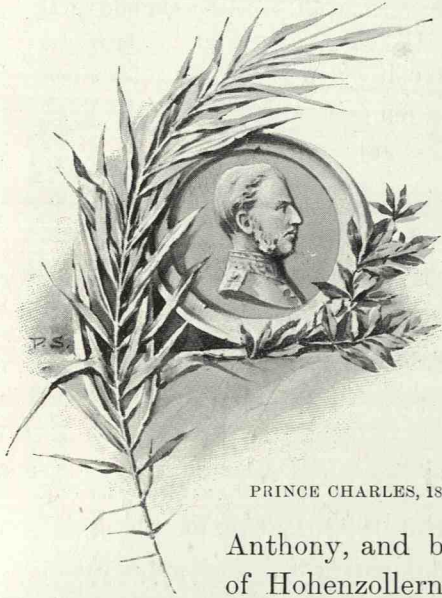
In the subsequent Convention of Paris of August 19, 1858, further dispositions were made by the Great Powers respecting the election of the ruling prince, the amount of the tribute to be paid to the Porte, and the law regulating the election of members to the Chamber of Deputies. Expression was given to the fusion of both principalities at the Central Commission, which met at Focsani, to draw up the organic laws of the new State. New provisional governments, each consisting of three members, were installed in November 1858, and next year presided at the double election made by the new electorate at Yassy (January 17), and Bucharest (February 5), when Colonel Alexander Cuza was chosen and ascended the throne under the name of Alexander John I.

In December 1861 the *de facto* union of the two principalities was ratified by the Porte, and the first National Assembly met at Bucharest on February 5, 1862.

In the movement resulting in the union of the two States, all classes had taken part, and with their co-operation the government was able easily and rapidly to carry through several radical reforms in the legislative, executive, and military departments. Such were the partition of freeholds amongst the peasants; their complete release from feudal service; the secularisation of the so-called Greek monasteries, which yield an annual revenue of £1,250,000 to the State.

But against such immemorial cancers as public corruption and the dominant favouritism Cuza neither could nor would take any steps. These evils, together with the financial and administrative disorders,

heavy commercial depression, and the licentiousness of Cuza himself, led to his deposition.¹ A movement taken in concert with the army compelled him to abdicate on February 11th (23rd new style), when the administration of the State was undertaken by a provisional government and a ministry elected by the people.



PRINCE CHARLES, 1866.

b. Recent History.

After Cuza's abdication the legislative bodies elected the Count of Flanders, who, however, on the advice of Louis Napoleon, declined the honour.

Then followed the plebiscite of April 2/14—8/20, which chose Prince Charles of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, born on April 2, 1839, as son of Prince Charles Anthony, and brother of the now reigning Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen. The negotiations were conducted by Jon Bratianu, one of the foremost statesmen of Rumania, and the young prince accepted the appointment without hesitation.

After a difficult journey through Austria-Hungary, where the war with Prussia had just been concluded, he set his foot on Rumanian territory at Turnu-Severin for the first time on May 8/20, 1866, and two days after made his public entry into Bucharest, capital of the State, as Prince Charles I. of Rumania.

At the Constituent Assembly, which met on the same day, the Prince delivered the following address in French :

‘Having been spontaneously chosen by the nation as Prince of Rumania, I have without hesitation left my country and family, in response to the call of this people, who have intrusted their destinies to me.

‘On setting foot on this hallowed soil I have become a Rumanian. The acceptance of the plebiscite, I am well aware, imposes great duties on me ; I trust I may be enabled

¹ Prince Cuza left Rumania and died in 1873 at Heidelberg in his fifty-third year.

to fulfil them. I bring you a loyal heart, pure intentions, a firm will to do good, a boundless devotion towards my new country, and that unwavering respect for the laws which I have inherited from my forefathers.

‘A citizen to-day, to-morrow if need be a soldier, I shall share with you both good and bad fortune. Henceforth all is common between us. Trust in me as I trust in you. God alone can know what the future has in store for our fatherland. On our part, let us be satisfied with doing our duty. Let us strengthen ourselves by concord, and unite our forces to be ready for all hazards. Providence, which has so far guided me, your elected ruler, and removed all obstructions from my path, will not leave its work unfulfilled.—Long live Rumania!’

The solemn pledge thus given was faithfully kept by the Prince. Both in times of peace and war he has ever been at the head of the State, of its leading politicians, of the army, and the whole nation. To-day, after working and doing battle four-and-thirty years for his people, King Charles may indeed look forward to the realisation of his programme.

The tasks imposed on the young Prince were as varied as they were onerous. During the long years of Phanariot misrule the people had been impoverished, the dominant Boyard class corrupted and split into hostile factions. Over the whole land there prevailed a state of ominous unrest. Every step towards economic and financial reform was thwarted by party interests, and these further complicated by considerations of ‘high policy.’ For some years the country had doubtless enjoyed many economic and political reforms, but these had not yet been assimilated. The towns presented a sorry aspect. The few public buildings, not excepting the princely residence itself, were dilapidated, while most of the officials shifted their quarters from one rented building to another. Roads were wanting, and railways not yet heard of. In the absence of banking establishments, the money market remained in the hands of the usurers. The army was unfit for service, the arsenals without powder or cartridges, and the recently purchased arms found to be useless. Administration and justice were still quite at the ‘Oriental-Russian’ stage—pilfering and corruption rampant in every branch of the public service, in all government offices. Of three thousand village communes scarcely a thousand had any schools, and these were wretched structures without light or air (Sydakoff, *König Karl*).

The question now was, how to raise Rumania from this deep moral slough of despond and neglected political condition, and bring her more under West European influences ; how to prepare the land for the critical moment when the Eastern Question would again come to the surface ; how to transform the little principality to a civilised national State abreast of the times, to a power capable of stemming the Slav torrent threatening to flood Europe—a State that might take its place by the side of its all-powerful neighbours on a footing of equality, with like rights, and solely with a view to its own interests.

Such were the problems by which Rumania was confronted at the accession of Prince Charles to power, as indicated by Schultze-Gävernitz in the following passage of his recently published *Studien aus Russland*, p. 48 :—‘ Proximity to the West with its technical progress, combined with the military aims of foreign Powers, once more compelled, and still compel, the State to hasten economic improvements tending to the development of Capital. In Russia exchanges and monetary transactions followed in the wake of the railway. This mighty upheaval found its expression in the reforms introduced by Alexander II. The conditions of modern industrial expansion were not laid until the construction of railways substituted competition for the monopolies, thereby stimulating technical progress, and throwing open the markets ; and until provision was made for the legal protection of a rapidly growing trade by the creation of civil law-courts independent of the government.

‘ Another consequence of the new era of Capital was the emancipation of the peasantry. When the peasant was in a position to sell his corn, he began to earn ready money, and the nobles were thereby enabled to convert the labour of their serfs into capital wherewith to meet the claims of their creditors.’

In Rumania a beginning was at once made in every department, although it may readily be believed that it was no easy undertaking. The external position alone presented a great number of problems. The national sentiment and feelings, like those of the Greek people, inclined more towards France, whereas common-sense should have attracted them towards Germany and Austria-Hungary. The conterminous States were Servia, which is still oscillating between Austrian and Russian tendencies, and Bulgaria, which contained constant elements of combustion, and did

eventually wade through blood to its emancipation. In the interior a poverty-stricken peasantry stood face to face with a discontented class of Boyards, who, like the Polish nobles of the eighteenth century, sought to maintain their influence by the usual political intrigues. The Boyards left nothing undone to perpetuate the Turko-Russian systems of misrule, and to baffle all attempts at reform.

So early as April 15, 1866, they had tried to nullify the election of Prince Charles by means of an insurrection instigated by Russian agents in Yassy, and this was followed in 1867 by a recrudescence of the old separatist movements in Moldavia, thus in every way obstructing the action of the government.

Much excitement was also caused in various parts of Moldavia by the outcry now raised against the Jews. Advantage was taken of the agitation by the elements hostile to Prince Charles, as on July 2, 1866, two months after his arrival in Rumania, when the synagogue in Bucharest was destroyed, and the Bulgarian bands let loose by Russia began to scour the land.

Then came the failure of Strousberg in 1870, by which the still-unfinished construction of the railways was imperilled. The completion of the system was, however, ensured by an arrangement with the Berlin banking establishments—Bleichröder and the Discount Association.

When these troubles were got over, and the Boyard revolt suppressed, fresh embarrassments were caused by the outbreak of the Russo-Turkish War of 1877, in which the young State found itself 'between the devil and the deep sea.' The Turks still looked upon Rumania as a subject province, while the Russians took it as a matter of course that the Rumanians should render them military service. A decision was all the more difficult, since the Rumanians were no doubt aware of Russia's designs on Bessarabia, and on the other hand already took a milder view of the waning power of the Turks.¹ However, they took sides with the Russians when the

¹ Despite the suppression of all progressive movements, the Turks are not regarded by the Rumanians as their hereditary foes, as was shown by the occupation of Dobruja in 1878. These have already forgotten the antagonism of the Turkish nomads—for such they still are—to West European culture, and the oppression which stifled every effort at

Russian commander-in-chief, Grand Duke Nicholas, after losing several battles, appealed to them for help in June 1877.¹

The telegram of July 31, 1877, despatched by the Grand Duke to Prince Charles—‘at the Rumanian headquarters wherever they happen to be’—was thus worded: ‘The Turks who have massed their main strength at Plevna are crushing us. Pray make strong demonstration, and if possible cross the Danube as you wanted to do between the Yiul and Corabia. This demonstration is indispensable to facilitate my movements.’ On August 21st the request was repeated: ‘When can you cross? Do so as soon as possible.’ At Plevna the Rumanians turned the scales (seizure of the Grivitza redoubt, capture of Osman Pasha)—a brilliant proof of the zeal previously displayed by Prince Charles in the organisation and equipment of the army. Eventually they received the Dobruja as the only fruit of the sanguinary victory, and even for this they had to restore to Russia the district of South Bessarabia acquired by them in 1856. But they had none the less proclaimed their military and political status amongst the Powers, achieved their complete independence by their own efforts, and crowned the whole by the elevation of Rumania to the rank of a kingdom. Its independence was recognised by Austria-Hungary in 1878, by Italy in 1879, and in 1880 by all the other Powers.

The coronation of Charles took place on May 10/22, 1881.

May 10 has remained the national feast-day, and has a threefold significance. It was on May 10 that the newly elected Prince entered Bucharest in 1866; on May 10, 1877, Independence was proclaimed; and on May 10, 1881, Rumania’s first king was crowned.

progress. The Rumanian people are now almost grateful to the Turks, because they at least did not systematically stamp out the Rumanian nationality which under another suzerain power would assuredly have been endangered. In any case, not much love was lost between them and their assumed Russian liberators.

¹ In his letters from Turkey in 1841, Moltke clearly shows that in the Turkish provinces no progress from barbarism or adoption of Western appliances and culture can be made by the peoples themselves, but must be forced on them from above, the peoples being the conservative, the governments the revolutionary factors. For the men at the helm of the State alone recognise the necessity of innovations, and these must be carried out against the will of the interested parties themselves. The remark was applicable at the time even to Rumania, which fortunately obtained the services of such far-seeing and energetic men of action.

To the initiative of the King and of the eminent statesmen consulted by him—John and Demetrius Bratianu, L. Catargiu, Demetrius Ghika, Cogalniceanu, Costache - Jepurescu, Constantine Rosetti, Demetrius Sturdza, Carp, and many others—Rumania is indebted for almost unparalleled progress in political as well as military and economic respects, within little more than three decades.

What this means will be seen in its proper light by a comparison with the neighbouring Turkish lands.¹

In his above-mentioned correspondence, Moltke continues (p. 412) : 'At the end of the twenties Turkey had completed its career of destruction, and reached the period when better things should be expected. Unfortunately it now became evident how much easier it is to recognise the faults of a political system than to remedy them, how much harder to build up than pull to pieces. Amongst his own people Sultan Mahmud found not a single enlightened person who

¹ Compared with the other Danubian States, Rumania shows the following results (see also p. 25):—

	Area in sq. kms.	Pop. in millions.	Revenue per sq. km.	Public		Debt.
				Revenue.	Expenditure.	
Rumania,	131,357	6.7	£1 15 6	£9,250,000	£9,250,000	£49,600,000 (Interest) 3,310,000
Servia,	48,303	2.38	1 19 0	2,735,000	2,735,000	16,585,000
Bulgaria with East Rumelia }	96,660	3.3	1 12 6	3,425,000	3,435,000	6,980,000
Bulgaria alone,	63,160

	Imports.	Exports.	Railways.	Telegraphs.	Post Offices.
			Length in kms.		
Rumania,	£14,410,000	£9,080,000	2894	16,539	3062
Servia,	4,335,000	2,265,000	570	8,106	184
Bulgaria with East Rumelia,	2,940,000	2,695,000	993	10,789	198

might have stood by him with aid or counsel in his innovating measures. A European finds it almost impossible to fathom the depth to which the state of intelligence in the East has really fallen.'

Immediately after the end of the war, the finances of Rumania were regulated in conformity with the new requirements. The State domain, which in 1872 yielded a revenue of £750,000, figured in the budget of 1898-1900 for £1,235,000. The public expenditure rose from £4,500,000 in 1874 to £10,850,000 in 1897-98, while the credit of the State was strengthened by establishing a balance between outlay



COLUMN OF VICTORY AT PLOESCL.

Photograph by FRANZ DUSCHEK.

and income. The public monopolies, hitherto farmed out, were now administered by the State; the railways were purchased and completed by the government, which also founded three mutually advantageous land-credit associations and savings banks. Education, Justice—in a word, every branch of the administration—underwent new improvements from year to year. The produce of the land and the well-being of the people were increased in all directions, and progress was specially shown in the enhanced value of ground-rents and real estate.

Hospitals and asylums were founded, and in 1885 the National Church was disestablished and placed on the same footing as the other Christian Churches.

Restorations were undertaken of the old Rumanian monuments, as for instance, the cathedral in Curtea de Arges, which was rebuilt in its former splendour at an outlay of £60,000. Then were taken in hand the Metropolitan Church, those of the Trinity and St. Nicholas in Yassy, and others elsewhere.

Full civil liberty, with complete freedom of the press and of speech, with many other rights, were granted to the people.

But neither the Russians nor the Boyards could long brood patiently over the disappearance of 'the good old times.' The former grudged the blocking of the way to Constantinople, the latter the loss of all possibility of regaining their ascendancy. They set to work to stir up street riots in Bucharest, and risings of the peasantry in the rural districts. Rumania is all the same permanently lost to Russia, and has become what it was destined to be—a bulwark against the northern Colossus, a strong rampart against the occupation of Constantinople. In home politics also it has acquired a stability which compares favourably with the frenzied action of former times. Rumania thus presents a thoroughly satisfactory contrast to the other bodies politic in South-East Europe.

Devotion to the dynasty has struck deep roots in the people. This was made evident in the clearest way in the year 1897, when the Crown Prince was attacked by a severe illness. The great anxiety felt by the King was shared not only by statesmen, but by the whole nation. Fortunately for the prospects of the monarchy, the life of the Prince was saved, and thereby certain possible contingencies averted, by the skill of his physicians, two Rumanians (Dr. Constantine Cantacuzene and Dr. Buiucliu) and one German (Dr. Kremnitz).

CHAPTER III.

Political Organisation.

POLITICALLY the kingdom comprises three distinct territories—the Danubian principalities of Moldavia and Walachia, which jointly form the foreland of the Carpathians, and Dobruja, which lies on the right bank of the Danubè. The first two regions were united in 1859, and since December 9, 1861, constitute the single State of Rumania. With it was incorporated by the Berlin Treaty of 1878 the former Turkish province of Dobruja. Walachia, with the capital, Bucharest, comprises an area of 77,593 square kilometres, with a population (1894) of 3,400,000, and consists of the ‘Oltland,’ or Little Walachia, to the right of the river Olt (Alt), and Great Walachia to the left of the same river. Moldavia (capital, Yassy) has 38,224 square kilometres, with 2,200,000 inhabitants, and Dobruja (capital, Constantza or Kustenje) 15,536 square kilometres, with 280,000 inhabitants. Politically, Rumania is divided into the following thirty-three Judetzi, or districts:—

DISTRICT.	Pop. per 1000 hectares.	Population. 1876.	Population. 1899. ¹
<i>Oltland.</i>			
1. Mehedintzi,	495	282,000	321,000
2. Doly,	656	349,000	415,000
3. Gory,	469	205,000	220,000
4. Valcea,	424	222,000	226,000
5. Romanatzi,	457	214,000	246,000
	2503	1,274,000	1,430,000

¹ At the beginning of the year 1900 an accurate Census was undertaken.

DISTRICT.	Pop. per 1000 hectares.	Population. 1876.	Population. 1899.
<i>Walachia.</i>			
6. Olt,	282	155,000	173,000
7. Teleorman,	468	216,000	282,000
8. Arges,	443	198,000	238,000
9. Muscel,	295	107,000	139,000
10. Dambovitza,	345	211,000	235,000
11. Vlasca,	449	191,000	240,000
12. Ilfov (Bucharest)	579	380,000	438,000
13. Prahova,	466	306,000	333,000
14. Buzeu,	486	207,000	259,000
15. Yalomitza,	679	130,000	213,000
16. Braila,	436	98,000	149,000
17. Ramnicu-Sarat,	327	133,000	168,000
	<u>5256</u>	<u>2,337,000</u>	<u>2,870,000</u>
<i>Moldavia.</i>			
18. Putna,	325	160,000	186,000
19. Tecuciu,	254	119,000	141,000
20. Covurluiu,	296	116,000	157,000
21. Tutova,	239	119,000	134,000
22. Bacau,	397	207,000	242,000
23. Neamtz,	399	242,000	181,000
24. Roman,	209	107,000	138,000
25. Vaslui,	229	107,000	128,000
26. Falciu,	220	96,000	115,000
27. Yassy,	312	162,000	220,000
28. Suceava,	342	133,000	161,000
29. Botosani,	314	129,000	182,000
30. Dorohoiu,	282	130,000	184,000
	<u>3822</u>	<u>1,734,000</u>	<u>2,174,000</u>
<i>Dobruja.</i>			
31. Constantza,	691	...	141,000
32. Tulcea,	862	...	140,000
	<u>1553</u>	<u>...</u>	<u>282,000</u>
Total,	<u>13,135</u>	<u>5,546,000</u>	<u>6,757,000</u>

Subjoined are the populations of the capitals and chief district towns in December 1899 :—¹

TOWN.	POPULATION.	REMARKS.
1. Bucharest	239,000	In the Dambovitza district ; capital of the kingdom ; in recent years has acquired the aspect of a large European city ; centre of all the inland trade ; university.

¹ The figures are those published in *Monitorul Oficial* from the weekly returns of the Sanitary Department for the movement of the population in the chief towns.



CARMEN-SYLVA STREET, BUCHAREST.

Photograph by FRANZ DUSCHER.

TOWN.	POPULATION.	REMARKS.
2. Giurgiu	16,400	On the Danube ; port of Bucharest.
3. Ploesci	28,400	Wool market.
4. Galatz	58,800	On the Danube ; fifty years ago still a mere hamlet ; chief outlet of Moldavia for wheat and other produce ; shipbuilding ; large corn docks.
5. Braila	53,300	On the Danube ; chief port of entry for Walachia, and one of the chief Rumanian forwarding ports, especially for wheat ; corn docks.
6. Yassy	67,500	Old capital of Moldavia, near the Pruth ; camping-ground for Russia ; considerable trade in local produce ; largely frequented fairs ; university.
7. Botosani	32,500	Brisk trade with Poland and Galicia.
8. Constantza	10,600	Seaport and watering-place on the Black Sea ; steadily growing in importance.
9. Craiova	38,800	Near the river Yiu ; trade ; salt-works.
10. Bacau	14,900	On the Bistritza, not far from its confluence with the Sereth ; chief centre of the inland traffic.
11. Buzeu	20,100	On the river of like name, at the southern foot of the Carpathians ; junction of several railways ; trading place.
12. Berlad	22,300	Wheat trade.
13. Calarasi	10,200	Riverside port on the Danube.

TOWN.	POPULATION.	REMARKS.
14. Campu-Lung	11,900	South of the Törzburg Pass leading to Transylvania.
15. Caracal	11,100	
16. Dorohoiu	11,600	
17. Focsani	20,300	Cattle and corn trade ; viniculture.
18. Fâlticeni	9,300	
19. Husi	14,700	
20. Pitesci	13,800	Trading place on the Arges.
21. Piatra	18,000	
22. Ramnicu-Sarat	12,400	
23. Roman	15,600	On the Moldova.
24. Ramnicu-Valcea	5,800	
25. Slatina	6,400	
26. Tulcea	19,700	In Dobruja ; port on the Danube.
27. Tergu-Yiu	5,300	
28. Turnu-Severin	16,600	In Walachia ; important port on the Danube ; considerable trade.
29. Tergoviste	8,600	
30. Tecuciu	10,900	
31. Turnu-Magurele	7,800	
32. Vasluiu	8,400	



BOULEVARD ELISABETH IN BUCHAREST.

In recent years the larger towns have successfully endeavoured to throw off the Oriental aspect that still clung to them. Bucharest is

already a modern West European city, with boulevards and promenades, large hotels and magazines, tramways, gas and electric lighting, picture gallery, theatre, many factories, etc.

The other towns answer to the picture of Bucharest drawn in 1888 by E. Laveleye in his *Peninsule de Balcan*: 'The houses have only one floor. A large gate gives access to the garden, where are located the outhouses and kitchen, connected by a passage with the dwelling. When the city is viewed from the top of a tower, all the roofs disappear beneath the foliage, which reminds one of Moscow. But in the centre of the city, where building plots are dearer, houses are built as high as in Paris.'

Organic Laws and Constitution.

The Constitution was framed in the year 1866, on the accession of Prince Charles, and modified in 1878 and 1884.

In the terms of this Constitution Rumania is a hereditary monarchy with direct and lateral succession in the male line. But King Charles having no male heirs, Prince Ferdinand of Hohenzollern, son of Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern and nephew of the King, was named successor to the throne (Crown Prince) in the year 1889.

The Legislative bodies are the Chamber of Deputies with 183 members elected for four years, and the Senate with 120 members elected for eight years. *Ex officio* members of the Senate are, amongst others, the rectors of both universities, the two archbishops, and the six bishops. Voting is effected by colleges, of which the deputies form three and the senators two.

All measures before they become law ('Acts of Parliament') must be passed by both of these bodies, and every royal decree must bear the signature of at least one responsible minister. Under the Constitution complete freedom of meeting, of the press, and of speech is guaranteed. In Rumania there is no aristocracy, all the titles and privileges of the Boyards having been abolished. For administrative purposes there are eight ministries: Foreign Affairs; Justice; Home; Worship and Instruction; War; Finance; Agriculture, Trade, Industry, and Public Domain; Public Works.

1. SUCCESSION TO THE THRONE.

In the year 1880 Demetrius Sturdza brought forward the question of the Succession in a memorial laid before the Senate and based on the Constitution. The object was that, in the event of the King remaining childless, Rumania should not have again to resort to a royal election, which might plunge the country in disorder and calamities, as had so often happened before. 'In an elective monarchy,' Sturdza pointed out, 'the citizens live in a constant state of strife, passions and enmities never cease. In any case such elections are merely the result of unforeseen chances and selfish intrigues. There is moreover the imminent risk of the intervention of the neighbouring States.'

According to Articles 82 and 83 of the Constitution, Leopold, brother of King Charles, had the first claim to the throne. He formally accepted the succession on behalf of his sons, whereby the question, as was recognised by the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies, was settled in accordance with the Rumanian Constitution.

The Crown Prince Ferdinand, second son of Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, was born in the year 1865, and, like all Hohenzollern princes, received a careful education in accordance with the principle laid down by his grandfather, Prince Charles Anthony, that 'it is not enough to be born a prince; we must also endeavour to show that we deserve the title.'

Prince Ferdinand passed his youth in Düsseldorf, where he followed the curriculum of the Gymnasium. He then entered the military school at Kassel, as Lieutenant in the 1st Potsdam Regiment of Guards; two years later, entered the Universities of Tübingen and Leipzig (political economy, finance, business, common and Roman law); and then (April 1889) took active service in the 3rd Foot Regiment of the line at Bucharest, of which he had already been appointed Colonel in November 1886. On May 9th of the same year he took his seat in the Rumanian Senate.

On January 4/16, 1893, Prince Ferdinand was married to Princess Marie, daughter of Alfred, Duke of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, born October 29, 1875. Offspring of the union are: Prince Charles, born at Sinaia on October 3/15, 1893, who is destined one day to occupy the throne; and the two Princesses, Elisabeth and Marie.



Prince Ferdinand and Princess Marie
with their Children Carol and Elisabeth.

2. DIPLOMATIC SERVICE.

I. *Embassies* at :

Athens, Belgrade, Berlin, Brussels, Constantinople, London, Paris, St. Petersburg, Rome, Vienna.

II. *Consuls-General* :

(a) with stipend, at

Sophia and Constantinople ;

(b) without stipend, at

Antwerp, Berlin, Breslau, Buda-Pest, Christiania, Frankfort-on-the-Main, Genoa, Hamburg, Leipzig, London, Monaco, Munich, Paris, Rotterdam, Stockholm, Stettin, St. Petersburg, Stuttgart, Vienna.

III. *Consuls* :

(a) with stipend, at

Buda-Pest, Odessa, Ruschuk, Saloniki ;

(b) without stipend, at

Amsterdam, Ancona, Barcelona, Bari, Berne, Bremen, Brindisi, Brussels, Cephalonia, Cernovitz, Corfu, Ghent, Liège, Leghorn, Malta, Manchester, Mannheim, Marseilles, Messina, Moscow, Naples, Nice, Palermo, Patras, Piræus, Smyrna, Spezzia, Trieste, Turin, Venice, Zürich.

IV. *Vice-Consuls*, without stipend, at

Antwerp, Cardiff, Florence, Genoa, Gothenburg, Helsingfors, Leghorn, Ostend, Paris, Stockholm, Trieste, and Varna.

Foreign States are represented in Rumania as under :

I. *Embassies* are maintained by :

Austria-Hungary, Belgium, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Servia, Turkey.

II. *Resident Ministers* by :

Greece, Netherlands, and the United States.

The leading commercial nations have further a more or less numerous consular service in the more important towns of Rumania.

Germany maintains Consuls at Bucharest, Galatz, Yassy ; Vice-Consuls at Bacau, Botosani, Braila, Constantza, Craiova, Giurgiu, Roman.

Austria-Hungary has Consuls-General at Braila, Constantza, Yassy, Sulina; Vice-Consuls and Agents at Berlad, Craiova, Focsani, Giurgiu, Ploesci, Roman, Tulcea, Turnu-Severin.

Justice and the general administration are organised as under :

The above-mentioned thirty-two districts have each a prefecture and collectively 119 sub-prefectures (Plasi). The prefecture is assisted by a district council, and both prefects and sub-prefects are appointed by the State, while the chief burgomasters are elected.

3. LEGAL STATUS OF FOREIGNERS IN RUMANIA.

In 1879 all citizens and all religions were placed on a footing of equality before the law, landed proprietors alone excepted. In this respect the Rumanian still lacks his full legal rights. According to the well-known and much-contested 7th Article of the Constitution, no aliens can acquire real estate, and can only rent land, although this provision was mitigated under the reform measures of 1900.¹

Aliens can obtain naturalisation only after ten years' residence, and then by a special resolution of Parliament. Compliance with the preliminary conditions may, however, be dispensed with in the case of proprietors of large establishments or trading firms.

Aliens are exempt from military service, and from the burden of providing quarters for the troops.

In the case of travellers or casual residents, the Regulations of April 7 and November 12, 1881, affecting foreigners require all new arrivals to take out papers of residence. All foreigners intending to visit Rumania, if desirous of avoiding possible unpleasantness, will do well to provide themselves with passports and other certificates of identity. The permission of the local police is required for a residence of more than ten days, or for settling in any place.

Commercial agents have to produce for registration at their

¹ According to a royal decree, published in *Monitorul Oficial* of October 28 (November 9), 1899, foreigners wishing to establish a factory may acquire the ground needed for the purpose (1 to 5 hectares) at least for a period of ninety years, while the Rumanian by birth enters into the full and unrestricted possession of the land ceded to him. Foreign associations are now also enabled to acquire real estate, but only when the majority of the directors enjoy Rumanian civil rights.

Chamber of Commerce certified vouchers from their firms (Law of March 29, 1884).

Commercial travellers in Rumania must be furnished with a travelling passport viséd by a Rumanian consul, and with a certificate from their own authorities. They have further to report in writing the names of the houses which they represent to the Chamber of Commerce, or else to the respective municipalities, and at the same time produce a certified copy of the papers authorising them to take orders. For objects introduced as samples, and liable to custom-house duties, they are entitled to recover the amount paid. Samples of arms can be introduced only by special permission of the War Office, while applications for permits to introduce ammunition must be addressed to the officials of the State monopolies.

To settle questions of international private right an agreement was made in 1896 with nearly all the Continental States, the chief clauses of which are as follows:—

ART. 11. When subjects of one of the Treaty States appear as plaintiffs or interveners before the Courts, should they have their domicile in any of the said States, they shall not be required, under any pretext whatsoever, to give any sureties or deposits, either in their quality as aliens, or because they have no domicile or residence in the country.

ART. 12. Sentences in which the costs of the suit are charged to the plaintiff or intervener, who by Art. 11, or by the law of the State in which the action is raised, was exempt from the obligation of giving any sureties or deposits, are to be declared valid in all the other Treaty States by the proper authorities in conformity with the laws of the land.

ART. 17. In civil or commercial matters, the arrest of aliens belonging to any of the Treaty States shall be lawful only when it would also be lawful in the case of natives. Nor shall it make any difference whether the arrest be made as a distraining process, or merely a precautionary measure.

Those settling or trading in Rumania will also be interested in the changes made in 1899 in the industrial enactment of 1887 (see Appendix), the dispositions regarding official notifications, summonses, evidence, and sentences.

Ambassadors, consuls, and other representatives of the Rumanian government abroad are instructed freely to impart the fullest information to all inquirers on the political and economic relations of the country. It may be mentioned in conclusion that a large number of

Germans are settled in Rumania, most of whom take an active part in the local crafts and industries. Many of them have earned for themselves distinguished positions and honoured names in the capital. Besides many German clubs, the oldest of which was founded in the year 1852, the steady increase of the colony led in 1894 to the formation in Bucharest of an association of subjects of the Empire, who have now built themselves a suitable home in the Strada Brezoiana. As in Bucharest, German unions are also found in other centres of trade, such as Turnu-Severin, Craiova, Pitesci, Braila, Galatz, Yassy.

In Dobruja are found many exclusively German agricultural settlements, the oldest of which were established over forty-five years ago. Several colonists from Würtemberg came by the route of the Danube as early as the year 1817.

Foreign life insurance companies have to enter in their policies the Rumanian court to whose jurisdiction they have to appeal.

Foreign joint-stock associations require the authorisation of the ministry for the establishment of branches or other agencies in Rumania. Before such authorisation, the application must be indorsed by the Chamber of Commerce where the company is domiciled.

For the dispensation of justice there are communal and district courts and quarter-sessions. Only simple cases are decided at the quarter-sessions or circuit courts, and from these appeal is to the district courts. For more serious offences, every district has its courts of jury which hold sessions at stated times. Appeals and demands to have the proceedings quashed are brought before the *Curtea de Apel* ('Appeal Courts') in the cities of Bucharest, Yassy, Galatz, and Craiova. The highest tribunal is the *Curtea de Casatie* ('Court of Cassation'), which has its seat in Bucharest. The civil and penal code is modelled on that of the West European States, and approximates nearest to the *Code Napoléon*. Marriage is legalised by the civil contract. Capital punishment is abolished. Proceedings are conducted orally, but are both tedious and costly, owing to the many adjournments and postponements of sentences, and also because there is no absolutely fixed rate of charges for pleaders. Yet the advice of clever and influential lawyers is indispensable in all cases of any moment.

CHAPTER IV.

Agriculture.



HARVEST.

A CORRECT estimate of agricultural work in the East is possible only by bearing in mind the conditions of land tenure in their historic development.

If for purposes of comparison we glance at the Balkan States conterminous with Rumania, we shall find

that in those regions till a few decades ago the very first elements of economic progress—personal freedom and private ownership—were unknown quantities. After the inhabitants had been subdued by the Turks, the land was divided amongst the conquerors, and the rayahs (literally ‘herd’)¹ had to till the soil in serfage or villenage for the Muhammadan landlords. This system lasted till 1878 in Bosnia and Bulgaria, in Servia till the wars of independence, and was not only degrading but wasteful. It is thus described by Gopçevic in his *Servia*, Leipzig, 1888, p. 106: ‘We can understand that, so long as he had to work for his Turkish landlord, the native could have no interest in improving the estate by more labour than was strictly needed. Hence

¹ Arab. *ra'āya*, rayahs or ryots, from *ra'a*, to graze.

in the course of centuries the peasant acquired the habit of working no more than was absolutely necessary. The after-effects of this habit are even still perceptible. Many districts which, owing to the excellent quality of the soil, should have produced specimens of real model-farming, display on the contrary a very primitive state of husbandry. The superabundance of arable land enables the people to cultivate it on the fallow system. So rich is the ground that they are able to raise heavy crops for years together, without manure, irrigation, or any other artificial processes.'

With certain reservations, this picture applies also to Rumania. In virtue of the Capitulations, corn and cattle could be sold to Turkey alone, and these at prices which were arbitrarily determined. At the same time there were no free peasantry till quite recent times. The landed estates were owned by the Boyards and the clergy; the farmers, the real tillers of the soil, had since the fifteenth century become, with few exceptions, forced-labour tenants, in some cases even under foreign monasteries, such as those of Mount Athos, Jerusalem, and others. On the other hand, large operations on the leasehold estates were hindered by two circumstances—the right conceded by the State to Turkey of forestalling the wheat crop, whereby its export was hampered; and the leasehold system (five years' lease) under the wealthy Boyards and the Greek capitalists. In letting their estates, these landlords had nothing in view beyond securing the highest possible rents, caring little whether the live stock flourished or perished, whether light or heavy burdens were imposed on the peasantry, who for the most part owning no land themselves were dependent either on the Boyards or the leaseholders.¹

¹ A picture of the condition of the peasants in the first half of the nineteenth century is given by the then reigning Moldavian prince, Michael Sturdza, in a document of the year 1829 (*Dokumente Hurmuzaki*, Supplement I. vol. v. p. 30 *sq.*): 'One of the numerous and mischievous abuses of the Moldavian administration is that of honorary titles. Under the pretext of rewarding imaginary services, a shameful trade in such distinctions was set going. The number of these Boyards, *i.e.* of those who, having no means, live on the people, has now increased to over 800 families. Each of these titles of nobility involves the right to a number of retainers (*Socotebnici*, *Reslasi*, *Slugi*), who had been exempted from feudal service under the State or other owners. In this way 60,000 peasant families have been placed at the service of the Boyards, while the whole burden of statute and forced labour presses heavily on the rest of the peasantry. Besides service, the Boyards exact from the *Socotebnici* a direct annual tax of 24 piastres, amounting to a yearly total of 700,000 piastres. The state of these bondsmen is as wretched as that of

Towards the middle of the nineteenth century, the so-called 'half-lease system' was introduced into Walachia. Under this system, the produce of the land was shared 'half-and-half' between the farmer and the landlord, who also supplied the seed. In due course, the arrangement spread more and more, and some ten years ago also found its way into Moldavia. Moreover, the agrarian crises of 1864, 1893, and 1896 have obliged many of the great landowners to farm their estates themselves, and pay more general attention to husbandry.

With the political and economic innovations of the last few decades, agriculture has necessarily undergone a radical transformation in respect of the relations between owners and workers. The very first question was concerned with the creation of a class of small freeholders, and the transition from a superficial to a more thorough system of farming.

I. Agrarian Politics.

a. CREATION OF SMALL FREEHOLDS.

In the year 1861, serfdom was abolished in Russia, and the peasants permitted to acquire separate holdings. In 1864 a similar pioneer movement of reform followed in Rumania. All peasant families subject to forced labour under the State, monasteries, and private landowners, were declared free. According to their status as 'double-hoofed' peasants (owning four oxen and a cow), 'one-hoofed' (two oxen and a cow), and 'half-hoofed' (a cow), they were also provided with arable, meadow, and grazing lands to be redeemed in fifteen years by payments to the tax commissioners. For private estates alone the reimbursements amounted to £4,280,000. In the case of the great landed proprietors the expropriation was to be extended only to two-thirds of their estates. To enable the peasants to meet their engagements, 10 per cent. State scrip was issued for the specified amount, whilst the State renounced

the other peasants subject to forced labour. They pay their tax-masters dearly for their release from statute and forced labour. The whole of the peasantry are entangled in the meshes of oppression and extortion, and the state of the Moldavian and Walachian peasant is lamentable. He is treated as a beast of burden that must serve the will of others, a prey to all officials—from the clergy and the highest State functionaries down to the obscurest notary—plundered by landlords and farmers alike. His plight is such as to excite horror; yet we complain that he is lazy and indolent.

both for itself and the monasteries all claim to their share in the reimbursements. By the same law the small holdings thus created were declared inalienable till the year 1895, and in 1884 this period was extended to the year 1916.

The size of the several allotments, together with the corresponding redemption charges, is shown in the following table :—

Allotments.	Size in Hectares.		Rate payable by Instalment by the Peasants in Fifteen Years.		Reimbursements to Private Landowners in 10 % Scrip.	
	Moldavia.	Walachia.	Moldavia.	Walachia.	Moldavia.	Walachia.
Double-hoofed . . .	7.88	5.51	...	49.36 fr.	...	563.43 fr.
Plains	49.26 fr.	...	563.43 fr.	...
Highlands	34.91	...	398.52	...
One-hoofed . . .	5.73	3.55	...	37.26	...	425.37
Plains	37.26	...	425.37	...
Highlands	27.06	...	358.90	...
Half-hoofed . . .	3.58	2.31	...	28.48	...	302.22
Plains	26.48	...	302.22	...
Highlands	19.22	...	219.28	...
House and Court-yard . . .	1790 sq. metres	...	For each detached tenement having no claim to an allotment a total redemption charge of 11.75 francs was reckoned.			
Plains	1548 sq.m.				
Highlands	1161 sq.m.				

The leaseholds thus created are distributed as under :—

	Number of Double-hoofs.		Number of One-hoofs.		Number of Half-hoofs.		Total.	
		p. cent.		p. cent.		p. cent.	Number of Peasants.	Hectares.
Moldavia . . .	6,554	5.3	58,569	47.9	57,302	46.8	122,425 30.4 %	615,592 36 %
Walachia . . .	64,445	22.9	140,313	50.2	75,720	26.9	280,478 69.6 %	1,021,364 64 %
Total . . .	70,999	17.6	198,882	49.3	133,022	33.1	402,903 100 %	1,636,656

But the yearly sum of 13,700,000 francs provided by the budget was not sufficient to extinguish in fifteen years the 10 per cent. scrip for 107,250,000 francs. Hence, by an enactment of April 1881, for the

unredeemed 25,800,000 francs 6 per cent. scrip for the nominal value of 31,600,000 francs was issued terminable in forty-four years; later (1895) the remainder of this fund was converted into scrip bearing 4 per cent.

The hoped-for results of the emancipation of the peasantry were long delayed. One reason was the premature and precipitate character of the measure. From early times the peasant had suffered from diverse shortcomings which stood in the way of his independent advancement. But the measure itself had some serious defects. As pointed out by D. Creanga (in Schanz's *Finanzarchiv* for 1899, vol. ii. p. 126), the lands intended for the peasants were measured on too small a scale. Of the 500,000 or 550,000 emancipated,¹ only two-thirds, or about 400,000, received any land, while the allotments were so small that the labour of the freeholders was not fully utilised. Another defect in the law lay in the fact that the indemnity awarded to the great landowners was excessive,² while the amount was levied at the same time as the land-tax, so that the farmers found it very difficult, often even impossible, all at once to pay such a large lump sum at a fixed time.

Far more favourable results attended the 'inland colonisation,' that is, the settlement on the State domains of parties provided with allotments, and of newly engaged couples (*Insureteii*). This measure was introduced in 1868, partly to provide land for the 150,000 families which had remained without holdings even after the emancipation, and partly to cover the deficits of the exchequer. On these two grounds recourse was had to the sale of the public and monastic domains in complete lots to the highest bidders. On taking possession, the buyers had to pay cash down for one-third of the purchase money, and the rest with 6 per cent. within twelve years. In the measure passed in 1864 the State had already reserved to itself the right of selling public and monastic lands to the peasantry, in order in this way to indemnify the treasury for the above-mentioned surrender of the payments due to it

¹ According to another account, the peasants numbered scarcely more than 450,000 for whom allotments were to be provided in 1864. Land was assigned at that time to 400,000, and in 1878 to 50,000 more. But then came the natural increase of the peasantry, which in 1880 was estimated at 100,000, all lacklanders, but by later enactments settled on State domains and secularised monastic estates.

² This statement can scarcely be quite correct. The rate of interest was too high, and the period of redemption (fifteen years) too short, consequently the yearly payments too heavy.

for the holdings assigned to the freedmen. The sale was to be at the rate of $117\frac{1}{4}$ francs per hectare, which for 107,250,000 francs, with 10 per cent. scrip, represents a total extent of 912,612 hectares. By later enactments (Bratianu 1881, Carp 1880 (?), Pallade 1896, Sturdza 1899) the sale of entire estates was inhibited, and it was decreed that State and monastic domains should be sold to the peasants only in separate lots of five hectares, and this at prices fixed in the several districts. The repayment of the purchase money, with 4 per cent. interest, was moreover to be spread over sixty years. Thanks to this arrangement, between the year 1881 and the end of 1898 as many as 149,442 peasant families purchased 754,805 hectares, of which 20,440 were secured by 1503 large holders in lots of from 10 to 25 hectares. Highly beneficial was also the provision by which advancements of from 600 to 700 francs were made to the colonists by *Creditul Agricol*, to defray the cost of removal to the settlements. Altogether 2,391,761 hectares were shared amongst 556,336 peasant families in the period of thirty-four years, between 1864 and 1898. According to another summary statement now to hand there were sold between 1868 and 1896, 566,000 hectares as under:—

	1000 hectares.	Total Price (in millions of francs).	Average per hectare.
1868-72,	77	24.5	316 fr.
1873-77,	18	5.6	313
1882-86,	53	19.0	355
1886-90,	35	13.7	381
1890-96,	381	147.3	529
	<u>566</u>	<u>210.1</u>	<u>371</u>

During this period the value of land had increased twofold in Rumania. This is shown by the various average estimates of a hectare made by the Land Credit Institute (*Creditul Agricol*). In the district of Ilfov (Bucharest) the estimate for 1873-77 was 313 francs, for 1885-87 426, and for 1893-97 no less than 626. In the district of Doly (Craiova) the figures for the same periods were 238, 293, and 421; in the district of Roman 195, 319, and 414; and in that of Yalomitza (Calaras) 162, 199, and 335 francs respectively.

A holding which, for instance, in 1870 might be had for £5000 would fetch at present as much as from £7200 to £8000.

II. Indirect Promotion of Agricultural Interests.

a. ENCOURAGEMENT OF IMPROVEMENT IN FIELD OPERATIONS.

If the value of an orderly, purposeful government was made evident in the difficult task of creating a system of small freeholds, it was still more clearly demonstrated in the enactment of various indirect measures tending to promote agricultural enterprise. Such were especially the rapid construction of a network of railways and their purchase by the State, the regulation of the transport of the raw materials, the erection of great warehouses at Braila and Galatz and of the cattle-market at Turnu-Severin, the great reduction of tariff charges, the organisation of public and real estate credit, and lastly, of instruction in agricultural matters. Here it is interesting to draw a comparison with such a competing state as Argentina, whose rivalry would be much more dangerous but for the great economic abuses which prevail in that republic, both as regards railway rates and all public departments.

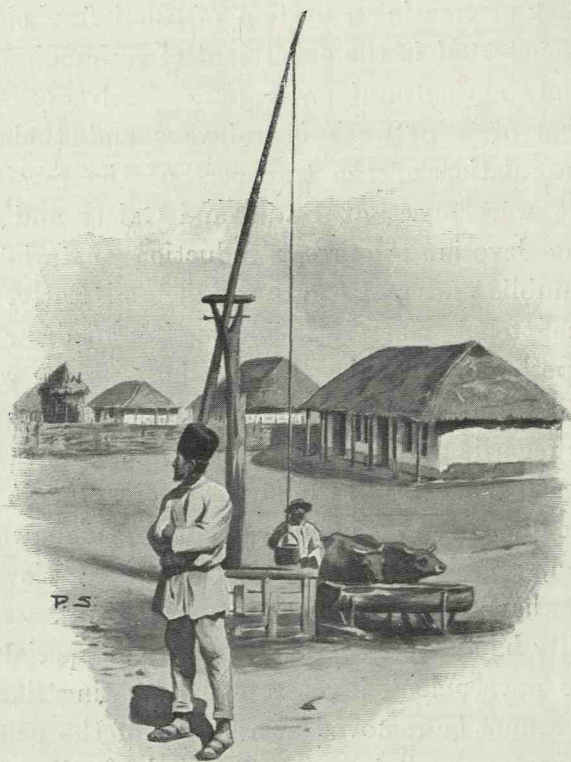
The chief drawback, even on the larger estates, lies in the deficiency of capital and the difficulty of managing extensive tracts with a relatively sparse population, combined with the exaggerated views entertained regarding the inexhaustible natural fertility of the soil.

It may readily be understood that, despite the special and practical provisions of the government, inveterate evils eating like cancers into the body politic cannot be removed at a stroke of the pen. Frequently the allotments are too small to render a whole family self-supporting. Thus is again and again brought about a state of dependence on the great landowners or leaseholders, which tends to weigh heavily on the peasantry and to create much bad blood.

Many districts have none the less made undeniable progress; for instance, in the careful selection of seeds, and in field operations. Owing to the continual fall in the price of wheat several of the great landed proprietors have also found themselves driven to adopt a more thorough system of tillage, combined with a regular rotation of crops. A considerable number of large estates are now met with, which are managed in a model way, and far more thoroughly worked than formerly.

During the last twenty years, the primitive Rumanian plough has also been more and more replaced by more effective implements, notably the so-called 'Saxon plough' from Plagwitz, near Leipzig. Since 1880 over 200,000 ploughs have been imported from Germany.

Nevertheless very much more obviously remains to be done. Of the present situation the subjoined picture is given by the *Gazeta Sateanului*



A VILLAGE NOOK.

of October 1899: 'Too little is done for the improvement of the breeds of cattle, for the formation of artificial meadow lands, for the improvement of the arable lands, for the reclamation of waste lands, for forest culture, the regulation of the rivers, and irrigation. All these sins of omission, combined with a reckless system of cultivation, aiming exclusively at immediate profits, have jointly tended to make the bad harvest of 1899 more disastrous than would have been the case under a more careful treatment of the soil and a more methodic system of

culture applied to every description of agricultural produce. As moreover the majority of our farmers put nothing by for a rainy day, while our tenantry live mostly from hand to mouth, a single bad harvest has sufficed almost to pauperise not only the agricultural classes, but also the producing and consuming sections of the population.'

b. AGRICULTURAL SYSTEMS OF CREDIT.

Amongst the most important public reforms are the organisation effected in 1873 of the agrarian system of credit, and the foundation of the National Bank in 1887. In the year 1873 the Bucharest Land Banking Institute was founded on the principle of reciprocity. The first mortgage deeds issued by this Institute bore 7 per cent., and in 1874 circulated at 79, but were quoted at 104 in 1882, when their further issue was inhibited. The 5 per cent. mortgages circulated in the beginning of 1882 at 86, and in 1898 rose nearly to par. The present 4 per cent. mortgages were recently quoted at over 90. In the twenty-four years between 1874 and the end of 1899 there were issued altogether mortgages to the amount of 361,217,700 francs, of which 106,990,564 are already redeemed, so that deeds to the value of 254,227,136 francs are still in circulation. The Institute in question showed in 1899 a reserve capital of 13,048,147 francs; and besides this Rumania possesses two similar establishments—at Bucharest and Yassy—also based on reciprocity. In 1893 an attempt was made to found an 'Agricultural Bank,' with a capital of 12,000,000 francs, for the large landed estates. But owing to bad organisation and mismanagement the project failed. More successful were the 'Agrarian Credit Institutes,' which are intended for those smaller freeholders who occasionally need pecuniary assistance. The year ending March 1898 showed a lending capital of 20,500,000 francs, as against 20,800,000 for the previous year. On March 31, 1898, the reserve fund already amounted to 900,000 francs. Sureties for advances are agricultural produce and live stock. In the course of the year 1898 loans were made to the total amount of 30,500,000 francs, of which the greater part was punctually repaid, a trifling sum being recovered by legal process. Moreover, an advance of 1,108,758 francs was made to those peasants who undertook to build model farmsteads; in 1898 the net receipts amounted to 1,400,000 francs.

c. PROMOTION OF SALES.

As already stated, the water transport was greatly facilitated by the rapid completion and purchase of the railway system, by the dispositions taken for forwarding the raw materials, by the docks constructed at Braila and Galatz, and so on.

In view of the increasing competition of the markets of the world, the urgency of facilitating the corn trade and lowering current prices becomes more and more evident.

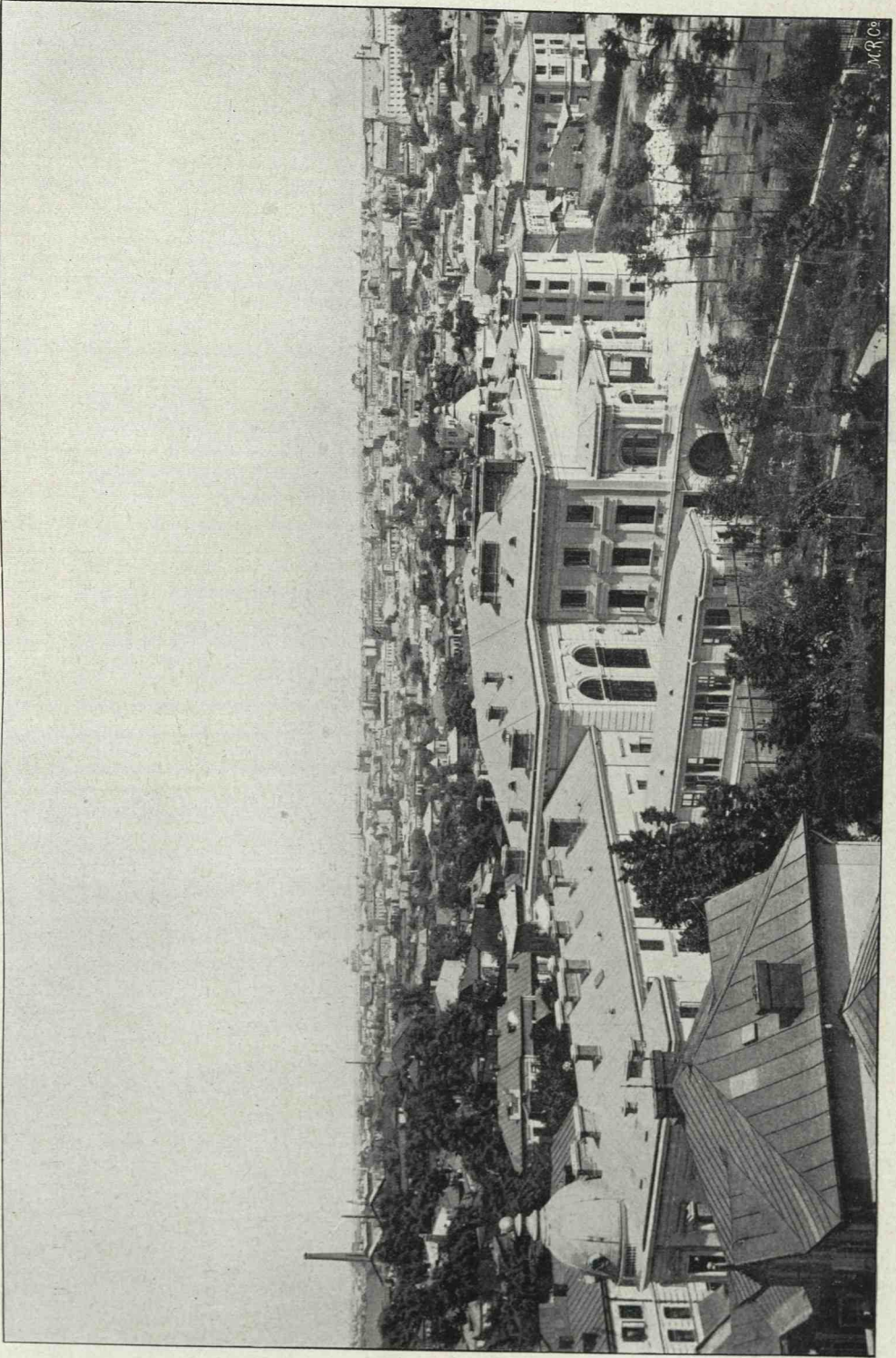
The first step to be taken should be the erection of corn-silos, granaries on the plan of the American country-elevators to co-operate with the public export-elevators at Galatz, Braila, and Constantza. In the year 1899 the government had a project elaborated, by which in the first instance 48 granaries, with a total capacity of some 750,000 tons, are to be erected at the stations in the districts between Dorohoiu and Tecuciu, and between Berlad and Galatz. With the silo-granaries at Galatz and Braila, the Rumanian railway administration will have at its disposal a total capacity of 1,250,000 tons.

By further mechanical improvements in the appliances for measuring and weighing, and (in the forwarding service) by supplying warehouse warrants officially certified and indorsable, the carriage rates from the inland stations to the ship may be lowered by about £3 15s. the wagon-load. A considerable reduction will thus be effected on a total export of nearly 200,000 of such loads.

d. THE CAROL-ELISABETHA FOUNDATION.

Mention has still to be made of another fund established in the interest of the rural populations. This is the Carol-Elisabetha Foundation, which was established on the occasion of the silver wedding of the royal couple. It consists (1) of 200,000 francs deposited by the King and the Queen; (2) of 500,000 francs granted by the Chambers; (3) of a yearly contribution of one-fourth of the annual income (some 400,000 francs) of the Cattle Plague Fund, which has moreover a reserve of 5,000,000 francs; lastly (4), of private contributions, which already amount to a considerable sum.

The Foundation took active steps especially to relieve the extra-



Bucharest.

From a Photograph by Franz Duschek, Bucharest.

ordinary distress of 1899. In the month of May of that year it had already bought in various parts of the country 120,000 hectolitres of maize, to be dispensed as needed. When the famine began to be really felt, a beginning was made with the gratuitous distribution of 5000 hectolitres in Dobruja, where the distress was greatest. In the districts bordering on Bulgaria it was hoped by such aid to keep the stricken area within bounds, as good results had been yielded by the millet crop sowed in May at the instance of the Ministry of the Public Domain.

In the second place came the relief buildings connected with the communications which were to be taken in hand by the State for the purpose of affording employment to the destitute during the winter. Such buildings were undertaken in seventeen districts—seven in Moldavia, seven in Great Walachia, one in Little Walachia, and two in Dobruja. In nine districts a preliminary advance of 1,200,000 francs was for this purpose, the largest share (800,000 francs) falling to the four great Walachian districts of Ilfov, Vlasca, Yalomitza, and Prahova.

A further method of relief took the form of advances of maize in kind made by the district administrations. For this purpose a credit of 4,200,000 francs was required. Such advances were to be distributed altogether over twenty districts; consequently two-thirds of the whole land.¹

The main point, however, was to discover some means of preventing similar calamities in the future. One of the most obvious remedies might perhaps be artificial irrigation.

Unfortunately all the preliminary conditions needed for such a purpose are wanting precisely in those parts of Rumania which experience shows suffer most from a deficient rainfall and droughts. The possibility rather suggests itself of modifying the climatic relations by planting timber. The woodlands form the natural water-reservoirs, which in times

¹ That the here specified aids were insufficient to relieve the distress appears from the fact that the government laid before the Chambers a measure authorising the appropriation of 3,000,000 francs for the purchase of seed, maize, barley, and oats, to be distributed amongst the farmers. Of this sum 300,000 francs were assigned to the district of Constantza, 400,000 to Covurlui, 261,000 to Doly, and 300,000 to Tecuci. As there can be no doubt of the bill being passed, the seeds will at first be advanced to the farmers free of charge, but on the condition of refunding the amount in three annual payments.

of drought restore the moisture to the atmosphere. Hence the proximity even of a moderately sized wooded tract suffices at least in some measure to protect the young crops from the injurious effects of the dry parching summer winds. In any case it is a fact that during the prevalence of the excessive dry winds of the summer in 1899 the fields situated near the forests suffered least from the protracted drought. Long recognised and valued as impediments to the full force of the winds, the forest tracts, even in the driest seasons, harbour great quantities of moisture, some of which they restore to the atmosphere in periods of drought. On the other hand, in times of continuous rains, or when the snows are melting, the woodlands act like a sponge in absorbing the excessive moisture of the surrounding district.

e. ADMINISTRATION OF THE CROWN DOMAINS.

The Crown domains, which consist of twelve estates, exercise great influence as model establishments. The benefits derived from their management as a means of educating the people can be rightly estimated only by those who are aware how backward the rural populations were, and still are, in every respect. That the sacrifices already made have not been in vain is evident from the single fact that even the country people have begun to build schools. Thus Kalinderu, one of the administrators of the Crown domains, has written a pamphlet about a farmer in the Dobrovetz districts, who had a beautiful school erected with his own money, although he could himself neither read nor write.

The examples presented of an intelligible cultivation of the land could not of course fail to produce the desired imitators. In fact the management and administration of the Crown domains has become typical not only for Rumania itself, but also for the West. On these lands both field operations and large industries, as well as a highly developed house industry, are carried on. Surprising results have also been obtained in the judicious treatment of forests, although at a heavy outlay.

On the domains are carried on the following pursuits:—

Malini Estate.—Three large sawmills belonging to Messrs. Eichler and Schlesinger, of Gera, Germany; agriculture.

Bicaz.—Two large sawmills of Messrs. Török, Dobreanu and Co., and another belonging to the Crown Domain Administration; also wagon-making, and woollen cloth-mill.

Busteni.—Turnery.

Cocioc.—Rope-making and wicker-work; hop-culture, besides a modern dairy: the latter is very important and on a large scale.



MODEL SCHOOL AT BUSTENI (CROWN DOMAIN).

The administration deserves special credit for its systematic encouragement of a rational style of husbandry, for the introduction of home industries amongst the rural classes, and of such branches of industry as ensure a profitable treatment of agricultural produce. At the cost of the administration of the Crown Domain, thirty-nine model schools have been erected, which, jointly with the public schools, impart instruction in various crafts. Thus, in the model school at Sagarcea, straw hats, lace, and textiles are prepared; in Sadova, reed-plaiting and straw hats; in Predeal, finer plaiting and pasteboard; in Busteni,

turnery ; in Gherghitza, carpets, straw and willow plaiting ; in Dobrovetz and Cocioc, ropes, tow, bridles, wagons, and earthenware, straw and reed plaiting ; in Malini, Draceni, Gainesci, Borcu, Madein, and Farcaa, wagons and staves ; in Rusi, Dumasca, Slobodia, Piscu-Domnitza, Damian, Listeava, and Lipov, straw-plaiting and reed-work ; in Panaghia, pasteboard ; in Ciumatzi, buhl-saw work ; in Domnitza Lacu-Turcului, straw, willow, and reed plaiting.

In twenty-three communes, bi-weekly advanced courses for adults are conducted by the teachers, who are paid by the administration of the Crown lands. The schools possess a few libraries, and, besides other duties, prepare the ground for the introduction of the practical and easily understood treatises issued by the administration on horticulture, stock-breeding, market-gardening, agriculture, sericulture, the manufacture of divers objects, and so on. They are also supplied with various journals and periodicals.

Moreover, on eleven of the estates agricultural societies have been established and provided with libraries ; they have also been gratuitously accommodated with quarters, heated and furnished. Conferences are held regularly on land and forest management.

Thanks further to the generous initiative of Dr. Kalinderu, a General Savings, Mutual Aid, and Co-operative Institute has been founded, under excellent management and superintendence, for the collective body of officials and assistants.

In connection with the general improvement of the masses, school-children's church choirs as well as singing societies have been established in several communes.

With a view to the encouragement of horticulture, the administrators distribute young fruit-trees free of cost, while the teachers are to give instructions in their treatment. Special prizes are awarded to those teachers who are able to show the best results.

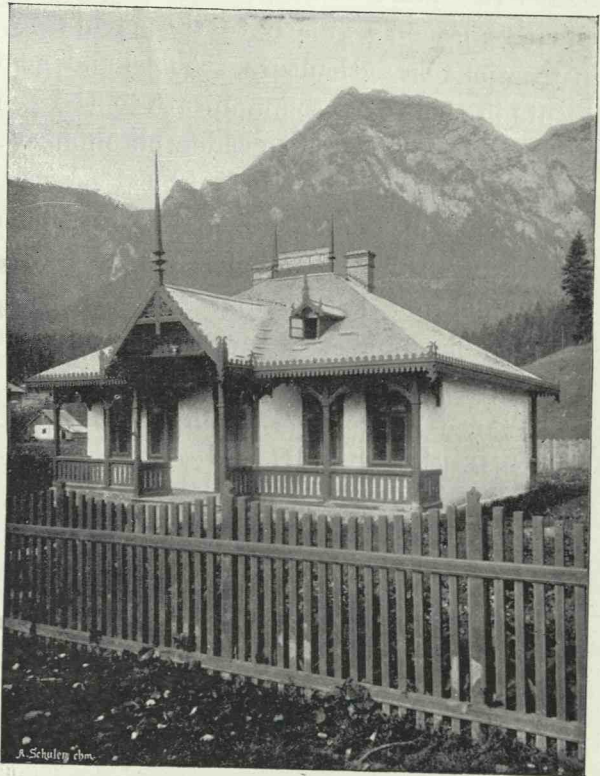
Another field of activities is concerned with the carrying out of the building regulations, the required stimulant being supplied by the erection of model dwellings. It should be mentioned in this connection that some ten years ago the government found it necessary to issue a building ordinance for peasants' houses. Hitherto rural dwellings were for the most part too low, and conformed little or not at all

to sanitary requirements. By this decree new houses have now to stand half a metre above the street level, and be enclosed by a bank of earth. The rooms, at least two and a half metres high, must be provided with two windows and have a ground space of at least twenty square metres. Thanks to this enactment the aspect of the villages has undergone such a favourable change that many, especially on the Crown lands, are past all recognition.

All these innovations were and still are inseparable, not only from a heavy outlay, but also from many difficulties. But the results are great, and the Crown domains have proved a real blessing to the people.

The administration has at its service capable, well-instructed, and energetic agents, whose duty it is to educate the people, to help them in every way, and make them clearly understand the advantages of a judicious treatment of the land, and of other operations associated with husbandry.

The head director, and the very soul of the administration, is Dr. Jean Kalinderu, Member of the Rumanian Academy, who has already acquired a distinguished name by his numerous works on agrarian policy, history, jurisprudence, etc. He has been the superintendent since the establishment of the department in 1884. It is owing to his unflagging and devoted efforts, his genuine patriotic zeal, that such surprising results have attended the noble intentions of the King



A MODEL HOUSE.

to promote by all available means the moral and material welfare of the peasants on these domains.

Kalinderu omits no opportunity of benefiting the rural populations by his rich store of knowledge in the department of agriculture. His circulars, issued regularly to the agents on the various estates, contain instructions on agriculture, schools, and general management, which the agents in their turn communicate to the people. His *Patrie, Éducation et Travail* embodies a considerable number of public speeches which he has already delivered, and aims not only at educating and stimulating, but also at quickening the patriotic sentiment of the nation.

Naturally, the example thus set of a systematic treatment of the land could not fail to find the looked-for imitators. At present a considerable number of large farms are found, which are conducted in a model way and cultivated far more thoroughly than heretofore. Such, for instance, are : in the Rimnic-Sarat district, Datculescu ; in Botosani, Goilav Brothers ; in Neamtz, Cozadini ; in Buzeu, P. Cazotti and J. Marghiloman ; in Roman, Ciuntu. Datculescu has already been working fifteen years for the improvement of agriculture.

III. Tillage.

Rumania is essentially an agricultural state. Its natural wealth and productivity depend on the extraordinary fertility of the soil, which even under moderately good management and in normal weather yields rich results.¹

The greater part of the arable land does not yet require manuring or deep ploughing, although, as above stated, the methods of cultivation have considerably improved in recent years. Iron ploughs have almost everywhere superseded the frail old wooden implements which required many hands and great motive power to be worked. For the small farmers' holdings preference has been given to single-share ploughs, making not too deep a furrow, while those penetrating deeper are used on the large estates, where larger teams are available. Owing to the

¹ Mulhall estimates the whole capital invested in Rumanian agriculture approximately at £250,000,000 : land, £204,300,000 ; cattle, £22,500,000.

expense of the driving power, two- or three-share ploughs are still less in favour.

Since 1880 there has been a large demand, especially for the Saxon ploughs (Reudnitz, Leipzig), hundreds of thousands of which are now in use. They range from 7 to 10 inches, those of 8 inches being drawn by two, and those of 10 inches by three pair of oxen; but the possible depth is never reached. Owing to lack of proper care, the teams are as a rule too weak to drive the ploughshare more than from 4 to 6 inches into the ground.

Harrows also, which till recently were not sufficiently valued, are in yearly-increasing request, since the farmers have learned to appreciate their value in weeding and levelling the ground. Although sowing is still mostly done by the hand, still hand-sowing and broad-sowing implements have already made their appearance. Of these the ridge-drills are but little valued, owing to their complicated character.

On the other hand, reaping and binding machines have been largely introduced, hand labour being scarce and costly at harvest-time.

Formerly the corn was treaded out by oxen on cleared floors in the fields. Now the farmers mostly use threshing-machines, and on the large estates steam threshing-machines. Even small holders have often combined to procure a steam implement, which they work in common.

During the period from 1890 to 1897 the imported machines were valued in millions of francs as under :—

	1890.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.
From Germany, . . .	8.8	11.4	5.9	7.6	10.4
„ Austria-Hungary,	4.9	5.7	4.4	5.5	8.8
„ Great Britain, . .	6.3	3.5	2.0	2.7	4.6
„ France,	0.5	0.8	0.2	0.6	0.4
„ Switzerland, . . .	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.003	0.03
„ America,	0.05	1.2	0.3	0.7	0.9
Total,	21	23.1	13.7	17.7	26.0

The benefits derived from such a rational management become more and more evident. Formerly the cornfields of small farmers were so

overgrown with weeds that the grain was of inferior value, and seldom fetched high prices.

Even still in some districts the necessary attention is not bestowed on the sowing corn. Perhaps there is also a general want of agricultural buildings and granaries.

Recently the Minister of the Public Domains has proposed to form agricultural syndicates, the object of which is to introduce improved methods of tillage through private enterprise. Such associations are to be established, as may be needed, in various parts of the country. Their members may acquire by instalments agricultural implements and sowing-corn of good quality, while the crops may be sold on account of the associations directly to the consumers over the head of the middlemen. The various provincial syndicates may be placed under a central syndicate in touch with the National Bank, in order to have command of the required funds when needed. It is also intended to start small local banks in the more important agricultural districts.

Such measures are urgently needed in consequence of the bad harvests and inundations which are caused from time to time by the weather, and fall heavily especially on this section of the population. According to a general report prepared by the Minister of the Public Domains, as many as 187,108 persons suffered loss from these causes in 1897. An area of 435,729 hectares under wheat, barley, oats, rape, maize, and hay was ruined, involving a total loss of 33,860,986 francs, while 329 head of cattle and 6075 smaller animals, valued at 93,006 francs, perished in the floods. Of houses 5356, of magazines, barns 667 were injured, besides 3994 bridges and conduits, and 1676 dams and embankments. All this represented an approximate value of some 4,517,022 francs.

In 1899 also similar losses were incurred, so that the government had to strain every nerve to relieve the general distress.

Thanks, however, to the excellent quality of the soil, the relations are much more favourable in prosperous years.

According to the analysis made by the director, V. C. Munteanu, the Rumanian soil has, on an average, the same constituent elements as the black earth of Russia, and is to some extent even richer in phosphorus. For instance, there are tracts in the Bacau districts which

contain sufficient phosphorus to raise 516 crops. The humus has often a depth of from 50 to 100 centimetres.

There are estates in Rumania which, although they have long been cultivated not by any means in the most suitable manner, and have never been manured, nevertheless give a yearly return of 21 hectolitres to the hectare. Others more scientifically conducted yield as much as from 28 to 30 hectolitres per hectare. On this depends the power of the land to compete in the markets of the world, and the fact that the Danubian States rank with Russia, Argentina, and North America as one of the chief wheat-growing countries on the globe. In fact the whole future of Rumania, as of North America, depends on this productiveness of the soil.¹

Tillage and stock-breeding still outweigh all the other resources of Rumania to a greater extent than in most other European States. An area of 43,000 square kilometres—actually 8000 more than in Great Britain—is under wheat. In this respect Rumania is rivalled only by Russia (633,000 square kilometres), North America (581,000), Austria-Hungary (148,000), France (147,000), Germany (138,000), Italy (75,000), and Argentina.²

In a land so well adapted for wheat-growing, the chief crops are naturally wheat and maize. Relatively to the whole surface under the plough, in no other region of the globe are so many square miles

¹ But there is a darker side to the picture, as clearly shown by the various economic crises which Rumania has passed through. One of the members of the German Embassy at Bucharest, who is an expert in agricultural matters, has made a report, from which we take the fact that nearly 86 per cent. of the whole population resides on the land, and the rest, some 14 per cent., in seventy-one towns. The rural population lives almost exclusively on the products of cereals, the urban for the most part on the corn trade. In this connection the report further states that this excessive importance of the corn interest, far outweighing all other economic resources, is no blessing for Rumania. This is made clearly evident with every bad harvest. How severely trade and the industries suffer on such occasions is shown by the circumstance that every failure of the crops is followed by numerous bankruptcies in all branches of business. The bad harvest of 1899 was also attended by a general crisis. Rumania will continue to suffer from such economic depression so long as it remains exclusively dependent on the results of each recurrent harvest, and on foreign countries for even the most trifling products of the manufacturing industries.

² According to Mulhall the total arable area of these countries stood, in the year 1895, in thousands of square kilometres as under:—

Russia,	1020	Germany,	260
United States,	904	Austria,	208
France,	268	Italy,	152

sown with wheat. Rye, which is less in favour, occupies no more than a tenth of the wheat area. During the last few decades hundreds of thousands of hectares have been brought under cultivation; and since 1872, 800,000 for wheat alone. As for wheat, the area under maize, barley, rye has been doubled since 1862; that under oats increased four-fold, and that under rape tenfold.

At present nearly half of the whole surface—over 6,000,000 hectares in a total of 13.1 millions—is under cultivation, whereas in the neighbouring state of Servia, for instance, the uncultivated area still comprises six-sevenths of the land. Yet forty years ago (1862) not more than 2,500,000 hectares had been reclaimed. From year to year more and more land has been cleared, and in 1898 the cultivated land with its output stood thus, as compared with the averages for previous years:—

	1862-66.		1887-97.		
	(a) Area in 1000 hectares. 1862-66.	1898.	(b) Yield in 1,000,000 hectolitres. 1862-66.	1887-98.	1898.
Wheat, . . .	717	1453	8.8	20.3	20.6
Rye, . . .	79	193	0.9	2.7	2.7
Barley, . . .	476	654	3.9	7.9	10.4
Oats, . . .	66	306	0.8	3.9	6.1
Maize, . . .	1048	2120	13.2	22.6	35.9
Millet, . . .	99	94	1.04	0.6	1.0
Rape, . . .	7	13	0.8	0.69	0.1

According to another return (*Oesterreich. Statist. Nachrichten*) the area under crops with their total yield was as under in 1894-99:—

CROPS.	AREA.		YIELD.			
	1898-99.	Average for 1894-98.	Per hectare.		Total.	
			1899.	Average for 1894-98.	1898-99.	Average for 1894-99.
	Hectares.		Hectolitres.			
Wheat, . . .	1,661,266	1,476,910	5.5	13.3	9,184,830	19,606,600
Rye, . . .	189,340	207,970	3.7	14.1	700,700	2,936,400
Barley, . . .	638,670	610,330	2.5	14.1	1,620,920(!)	8,596,000
Oats, . . .	310,210	281,910	7.1	15.6	2,204,410	4,306,300
Rape, . . .	38,260	44,200	4.2	10.8	160,280	477,630
Flax, . . .	20,860	27,183	0.6	7.8	12,130	212,670

It is here to be considered that in 1897 and 1899 Rumania suffered a total failure of the crops, such as in the memory of man had not previously occurred.

From the above data it is at once evident that the increase of agricultural produce is due mainly to the expansion of the area under tillage, and less to a more thorough system of cultivation.

The still unreclaimed land consists for the most part of forests (2,000,000 hectares) and natural pasture.¹ In many districts the grazing grounds, following one on another, very often form waterless plains, the percentages on the whole area being:—

	Germany.	France.	Austria-Hungary.	Great Britain.	Italy.	Russia.	Rumania.
Arable land,	48.4	50.0	38	18.8	40.0	26.2	37
Meadows and pastures,	20.3	13.9	23	42.7	25.0	15.9	20.5
Forests,	25.7	15.8	30	3.6	15.7	38.8	16.3
Vineyards,	0.3	4.9	1	...	6.3	...	11
Heath,	5.3	13.4	6	34.9	13.0	19.1	24.5

A closer study of the chief crops, and their yield from year to year, shows striking differences in the general results. Thus for the sixties the yield in hectolitres was:—

Maize,	1865, 8.7 mill.	1863, 19.2 mill.	1898, 35.9 mill.
Wheat,	1865, 2.8 ,,	1864, 13.3 ,,	1896, 25.1 ,,
Rye,	1865, 191,000	1866, 2.1 ,,	1896, 4.3 ,,
Barley,	1865, 1.6 mill.	1864, 7.3 ,,	1896, 11.2 ,,
Oats,	1865, 460,000	1864, 1.5 ,,	1896, 25.1 ,,
Millet,	1866, 145,000	1864, 2.4 ,,	
Rape,	1866, 48,000	(1871, 890,000)	1896, 0.4 ,,

Compared with the five years' average for 1893-97, the extent and yield of the crops in 1898 were:—

	WHEAT. ²			RYE.			BARLEY.			OATS.		
	mill. ha.	mill. hl.	p. ha.	mill. ha.	mill. hl.	p. ha.	mill. ha.	mill. hl.	p. ha.	mill. ha.	mill. hl.	p. ha.
1893-97,	1.4	19.7	13.7	0.1	2.9	14.9	0.6	9.0	15.1	0.2	4.2	15.7
1898,	1.4	20.6	14.2	0.1	2.6	13.9	0.6	10.4	16.0	0.3	6.1	20.1
Difference,	...	0.9	0.5	...	0.3	1.0	...	1.4	1.0	0.1	1.9	4.4

ha. = hectares; hl. = hectolitres.

¹ According to Mulhall, Rumania has at present 10,400 square kilometres meadow, 38,400 grass, and 38,400 woods, compared with 42,400 under corn.

² According to an official report of the Ministry of the Public Domains, 1,500,000 hectares had been sown with winter wheat at the beginning of the year 1900; hence,

	MAIZE.			MILLET.			RAPE.			LINSSEED.		
	mill. ha.	mill. hl.	p. ha.	mill. ha.	mill. hl.	p. ha.	mill. ha.	mill. hl.	p. ha.	mill. ha.	mill. hl.	p. ha.
1893-97, . . .	1.8	22.6	12.2	0.8	0.5	7.3	0.04	0.4	11.0
1898, . . .	2.1	35.9	16.9	0.09	0.9	10.6	0.01	0.1	9.0	0.02	0.1	6.4
Difference, . . .	0.3	13.3	4.7	0.01	0.4	3.3	0.03	0.3	2.0

ha. = hectares ; hl. = hectolitres.

Besides the above-mentioned crops, there were further sown and garnered :—

	AREA.	1897.	YIELD.	AREA.	1898.	YIELD.
	hectares.		hectolitres.	hectares.		hectolitres.
		6,840	50,030	6,610	62,130	
			double quintals hemp.		double quintals hemp.	
Hemp,	6,840		20,840	6,610		26,750
			hectolitres.			hectolitres.
Beans,	36,527		411,400	54,280		566,740
			double quintals.			double quintals.
Potatoes,	12,810		552,700	16,600		1,100,000
Beetroot,	2,840		485,900	6,070		1,619,620
Tobacco,	4,510		37,900	2,340		25,500
Artificial Meadows,	79,780		2,134,000	74,000		2,018,750
Natural Meadows,	574,740		10,918,700	562,650		11,955,500

On the importance of the Rumanian wheat crop in the markets of the world, the following report by the agricultural expert at the German Embassy in Bucharest appeared in the *Mitteilungen der deutschen Landwirtschaftsgesellschaft* for April 21, 1900, Supplement No. 9 :—

If we compare the area under cereals in Rumania with that of the other competitors in the world's markets, it will be found that none of them can show an equally large proportional area yielding breadstuffs. Thus :—

	Wheat.	Rye.	Maize.	Total.
	1000 hectares.			
Rumania,	1,453	193	2,120	3,766
Hungary,	3,012	1,083	2,344	6,440
European Russia,	16,770	25,582	1,049	43,403
United States,	15,950	689	32,412	49,071
British East Indies,	9,396	...	2,337	11,733
Argentina,	1,393	2,332

including the land under summer wheat, the whole area under wheat in this year cannot fall short of the 161,360 hectares under the same crop in 1898-99. It may be incidentally remarked that this figure represents the largest extent of land that has yet been sown with wheat in Rumania.

Compared with the whole area of the land, that devoted to the production of breadstuffs amounts to 28 per cent. Nor should the fact be overlooked, that in Rumania a very large extent of the total area is unsuitable for corn-growing. Such is the tolerably wide zone of the Carpathians, comprising about a fifth of the land, besides the broad tracts subject to be flooded by the rivers, which are still practically unregulated. The rivers are not themselves very wide; but during heavy rains, and especially when the snow is melting, some, as for instance the Sereth, often overflow their banks for miles. Naturally the range of the inundations of the Danube is very great, averaging at least 15 kilometres in breadth in the section which stretches for 193 kilometres from Kalarash (over against the Bulgarian town of Silistria) to Braila. Hence this periodically inundated riverside tract, the so-called Balten, must have an extent of some 3000 square kilometres. An area of equal size is also covered by the Danubian delta, which cannot be reclaimed without much embanking. In this area are not even included the very extensive marshes, which form a continuation of the delta south of Delda, between the Beshtepé hills and the large Bazim lagoon on the seashore. Hence the uncultivated tracts which skirt the Danube in Rumania, and are exposed to floodings, must in the relatively short stretch between Kalarash and Sulina have alone an area of from 7000 to 8000 square kilometres; that is to say, a space which is about equal to the whole area under cereals in Great Britain (7226 square kilometres).

For the markets of the world, of more importance than the extent of land under corn is the total yield, and the surplus of breadstuffs which the several countries may have available for export. Hence here may be appended a table, showing the position of Rumania in this respect also, compared with the other countries under consideration:—

YEARS.	Yield of				Export of				Percentage of Products exported.			
	Wheat.	Rye.	Maize.	Total Breadstuffs.	Wheat.	Rye.	Maize.	Total Breadstuffs.	Wheat.	Rye.	Maize.	Breadstuffs.
	Millions of double quintals.				More than millions of double quintals.							
In the 5 years 1887-1891, . . .	74.0	9.3	81.9	165.2	38.5	7.7	30.6	77.3	52.0	82.8	37.4	46.8
In the 5 years 1892-1896, . . .	82.9	10.2	87.6	108.7	43.4	7.7	33.3	84.9	52.3	75.5	38.0	47.0
1897,	9.9	1.7	11.1	22.7	4.3	1.4	7.8	13.5
1898,	15.9	1.9	27.0	44.8	5.8	1.2	11.2	18.2
1899,	7.0	0.5	?

It thus appears that in Rumania the maize crop is nearly always larger than that of wheat, whereas the relations are reversed in the export trade. The rye crop is not large, but by far the greater portion—82.8 and 75 per cent. respectively—is exported. On a calculation of five years, 52.3 per cent. of the wheat crop, but only 37.4 and 38 of the maize, and 46.8 and 47 of all these cereals, are exported from Rumania.

A more detailed study of the report gives the following results:—

	The Five Years 1887-91.			The Five Years 1892-96.		
	Wheat.	Rye.	Maize.	Wheat.	Rye.	Maize.
Harvest,	74.0	9.3	8.9	82.9	10.2	87.6
Export,	38.5	7.7	30.6	43.4	7.7	33.3
Left for home consumption, }	35.5	1.6	51.3	39.5	2.5	54.3

These figures clearly show the paramount importance of maize for the local consumption. *Mamaliga*, that is, the thick maize porridge known as *polenta* in Italy, something like the English pease-pudding in appearance, constitutes the staple of the national diet. The quantity of maize reserved for the distillation of spirits is but little, forming only some hundredths of the home consumption. Thus the figures for 1897-99 were:—

1897-98,	0.55 millions of double quintals.
1898-99,	0.74 „ „

It is difficult to determine the quantity of maize used for fodder purposes, or for sowing, as the grain is sown most irregularly.

It may, however, be presumed that the large export of wheat and rye is rendered possible only by a correspondingly large cultivation and home consumption of maize.

After this survey of the pertinent relations in Rumania, the broad results as compared with those of other countries may here be added:—

COUNTRIES.	WHEAT.			RYE.			MAIZE.			BREADSTUFFS.		
	Harvest in 1000 tons.	% of the World's Harvest.	Kilograms per head of the Population.	Harvest in 1000 tons.	% of the World's Harvest.	Kilograms per head of the Population.	Harvest in 1000 tons.	% of the World's Harvest.	Kilograms per head of the Population.	Harvest in 1000 tons.	% of the World's Harvest.	Kilograms per head of the Population.
The Whole World,	67,800	37,500	57,700	162,000	...	207
United States,	13,717	20.20	191	748	2.00	10	44,969	77.92	632	59,426	36.57	833
Russian Empire,	10,829	16.00	93	20,513	54.30	193	568	0.98	5	31,910	19.63	291
Austria-Hungary,	5,242	7.70	124	3,227	8.80	76	3,315	5.74	76	11,784	7.20	276
France,	8,574	12.70	223	2,144	5.80	56	705	1.22	18	11,423	7.03	297
Germany,	2,983	4.40	57	7,258	19.30	139	10,241	6.30	196
India,	6,679	9.80	30	?	?	?	6,679	4.11	(30)
Italy,	3,214	4.70	103	112	0.30	4	1,845	3.20	59	5,171	3.18	166
Rumania,	1,532	2.30	223	178	0.46	33	1,870	3.24	346	3,580	2.20	602
Argentina,	1,679	2.50	420	993	1.72	248	2,672	1.64	668

The wheat crop yielded :—

COUNTRIES.	Average for the Years		
	1892-1895.	1896-98. (From Beerbohm's <i>Evening Corn Trade List.</i>)	
		In 1000 tons.	
United States,	13,717	15,660	+ 1943
Russia, including Siberia,	10,829	10,404	— 425
India,	6,670	5,843	— 836
Rumania,	1,532	1,635	+ 103
Argentina,	1,679	1,483	+ 216
Canada,	1,347	1,413	+ 66
Australia,	920	1,004	+ 44
Chile,	414	385	— 19

According to the above survey, Rumania's average wheat crop of 1,152,000 tons is exceeded only by that of some much larger countries—the United States, Russian Empire, France, India, Austria-Hungary, Italy, Germany, Spain—and only slightly by that of Argentina (1,679,000 tons). And here it is to be considered that, with the exception of the bad harvest of 1894, by which the average for Rumania is considerably reduced, 1,740,000, 1,650,000, 1,860,000, and 1,930,000 tons of wheat were produced in the years 1892-1896 respectively.

For rye Rumania is greatly behind most other countries, although, owing to the slight local demand, there is a not inconsiderable export of this cereal. In the quantity exported to Germany, Rumania is even surpassed by the Russian Empire alone.

Its average maize crop is exceeded only by those of the United States and Austria-Hungary. It is even somewhat larger than that of Italy, and about double that of Argentina.

Rumania's yearly average of wheat, rye, and maize is collectively 3,580,000 tons. It thus takes the eighth place, and is surpassed only by the two largest states, and by some of those which are most densely peopled and most thoroughly cultivated. Rumania produces fully as much breadstuffs as Spain, which is nearly four times larger and three times more thickly peopled. Its annual average yield of cereals exceeds that of Argentina by one-third, and is double that of Canada, and four times that of Egypt or Australia.

To the total produce of the world Rumania contributes 2·30 per cent. of wheat, 0·46 of rye, 3·24 of maize, and of these three most important cereals collectively 2·20 per cent. This relative position does not at first seem very great, but it acquires importance when we consider that the United States and European Russia, although respectively sixty

and forty-one times larger, produce only 16.5 and 8.9 times more breadstuffs than Rumania. Thus:—

	The Yearly Demand.					
	Wheat.	Rye.	Maize.	Wheat.	Rye.	Maize.
	Million double quintals.			(Wheat taken as 1.)		
United States, . . .	100	3.50-4.00	485-510	1 :	0.04	5
Rumania,	4.60	0.42	20-22	1 :	0.09	4.6
Servia,	2-2.30	0.30-0.40	6.50-6.80	1 :	0.15	3.1
Bulgaria,	6-7.50	2.20	9.10	1 :	0.3	1.4
Argentina,	7-7.5	...	8-9	1 :	...	1.2

Of maize Rumania produces 346 kilograms per head of the population, being in this respect surpassed by the United States alone, Argentina ranking third.

In these three sparsely-peopled corn-growing regions the average quantity of breadstuffs per head of the population of the world (some 207 kilograms) is exceeded three and even four times (United States 833 kilograms, Argentina 668, Rumania 602), and for this enormous excess the countries in question have in no small measure to thank their extremely high yield of maize. These three states are amongst the largest consumers of maize.

Hence the capacity of these regions to supply the world's markets with relatively large quantities of wheat must be attributed, not merely to their extensive cultivation of wheat and their sparse population, but also in no small degree to the fact that their home consumption of breadstuffs is covered mainly by maize. Here maize plays the same part as rice in Southern and Eastern Asia. Thanks to its consumption of this cereal, India also is able to export wheat, although producing on the average not more than 30 kilograms per head of the population.

The capacity of the United States and of Argentina to export immense quantities of wheat is no doubt to be attributed, in the first instance, to their small population compared with their extensive cultivation of wheat, and only in the second place to their prevailing consumption of maize. But in Rumania the question is affected less by the slight density of the population than by the excessive consumption of maize; and it is for this reason that I have here dwelt more fully on the influence which the large home demand for maize has on the export trade in wheat. Doubtless Rumania also is but thinly inhabited, but by no means so thinly as the other more important wheat-exporting lands.

Rumania's relatively large export trade in wheat is accordingly to be explained, in the first place, by its exceptionally large cultivation of wheat; in the second, by the prevailing use of maize; and only in the third by its sparse population,

Compared with the other corn-exporting regions of the globe, the exports in millions of double quintals were as under in the year 1898 :—

From	Wheat.	Rye.	Maize.	Wheat.	Rye.	Maize.	Wheat, Rye, Maize, collectively.
				Average of the Years			
	1898.			1894-98.	1897-98.	1897-98.	1894-98 compared with 1897-98.
The Whole World,	138	20	88	127	18	80	226
United States, . . .	58.00	4.00	54.73	47	3	55	105
Russia (European and Asiatic), . . .	30.00	11.00	7.50	33	10	5	50
Rumania,	6.50	1.50	8.00	8	1	6	16
Hungary,	8.50	1.60	2.30	12	1	1	14
Argentina,	9.80	...	10.00	7	...	6	14
India,	9.76	5	5

Apart from the transit trade, the surplus of the produce over the local demand is alone exported. It follows that in all countries the quantity from year to year available for export is subject to far greater fluctuations than the harvest. Thus, during the five years from 1894 to 1898 the quantity of wheat forwarded, for instance, by Rumania varied from 5 to 12 millions of double quintals, by Argentina from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 12, by Canada from 3 to $6\frac{1}{2}$, by India from 1.20 to 9.76. Hence it would be a very superficial view to estimate the importance of the several exporting countries in the world's markets from the figures furnished by a single year; for this purpose a period of at least five years is needed. As regards rye and maize, I have been unable to obtain the returns of the exporting lands for more than two years. I do not think, however, that any serious errors will be caused by these limited returns, since we have the exports for five years, at least of wheat, which is the determining crop, while the figures for Rumania, and partly also for the United States, can be completed from other sources.

For Rumania the exports in millions of double quintals were :—

	Rye.	Maize.
In the year 1893 . . .	1.31	12.12
„ 1894 . . .	1.36	6.94
„ 1895 . . .	1.95	3.31
„ 1896 . . .	2.33	4.44
„ 1897 . . .	1.43	7.88
„ 1898 . . .	1.50	8.00
Mean for these six years . . .	1.67	7.12
Mean for the six years } 35.05 millions of hectolitres; or from 1892 to 1898 } 26.29 millions of double quintals.		

As a base for the rectification of these figures, we quote the averages for the exports of Rumania and the United States in millions of double quintals as under :—

From	Wheat.	Rye.	Maize.	Total.
The United States,	47.16	3.25	26.29	76.70
Rumania,	8.15	1.67	7.12	16.94

Excluding the United States and the Russian Empire, of all the other states Rumania, small as it is, contributes nearly one-fifth of the wheat forwarded to the corn-importing countries, more than a third of the rye and maize, and nearly one-fourth of these cereals taken together.

Excluding the United States, the Russian Empire, and Hungary from the table, there remains for the remaining fourteen corn-exporting lands an average yearly export of :—

34.56 million double quintals of wheat 8.18	} of which for Rumania.
2.81 " " rye 1.50	
18.21 " " maize 6.75	
Total	55.58 million double quintals of breadstuffs 16.40	

Thus Rumania alone supplies nearly one-fourth of the wheat, more than half of the rye, more than a third of the maize, and 10.33 per cent. of all the breadstuffs forwarded by these fourteen corn-exporting lands.

This result is all the more surprising, since many of these fourteen countries, such as Argentina, Canada, India, Chili, and Australia, would appear to enjoy even a higher reputation than Rumania as competing lands. Yet of these fourteen lands—nearly all of great extent—Argentina alone approaches the little Rumania in its export of wheat. But even Argentina's five years' average export falls below that of Rumania by nearly a million double quintals; and as it forwards no rye to speak of, its total export of cereals is 2.31 million double quintals less than that of Rumania. In other words, taking the yearly average, the Danubian state alone forwarded fully as much breadstuffs as Argentina, Chili, and the Cape together, and some two million double quintals more than Canada, India, and the continents of Australia and Africa collectively.

b. THE VARIOUS CROPS AND THEIR EXPORT.

Of raw produce, maize and wheat claim the first consideration in the export trade, the former averaging from 500,000 to 700,000 tons, the latter 800,000 tons. There is also a considerable forwarding trade in

barley and rye, the respective averages being 300,000 and 160,000 tons; and lastly, in linseed and rape.¹

Maize.—As everywhere in East Europe, so also in Rumania, the cultivation of maize (*kukurutz*) still takes the first place. Of all the countries under consideration, this state has the largest extent of land under maize relatively to its total area, not being surpassed in this respect even by the United States. The second and third places are perhaps taken by Italy and Hungary.

The districts which rank first in the production of maize are Doly, with over three million hectolitres (in the year 1898); then Teleorman, Ilfov, and Vlasca, which raised over two million hectolitres in 1898; lastly, Yalomitza, Mehedintzi, Romanatzi, Dambovitza, Braila, Buzeu, Covorlui, Dorohoiu, Olt, Tecuciu, and Ramnicu-Sarat, which jointly yield over a million.

The best qualities are grown in the districts of Dambovitza (from 78 to 62.50 kilograms); Teleorman (77.80 to 62.30); Bacau and Tutova (77.40 to 62).

As in the United States, the quantity raised in Rumania is affected by the current prices in the markets of the world. During the last ten years the extent of land under maize, which requires careful cultivation, has either decreased or remained stationary, owing to the steady fall in the market prices. Such was also the case with wheat in 1892, in consequence of which more maize was again sown.

The area under this crop averages about 1,900,000 hectares; but in 1898 it rose exceptionally to 15 per cent. more, because maize promised to yield better returns than wheat, owing to the depression in the wheat market. In the year 1898 the total yield was 36 million hectolitres, or 17 hectolitres per hectare, and exceeded the previous five years' average by 22,600,000 hectolitres, or 12.2 per hectare. In 1899 some two million hectares were sown with this crop, but the yield was only 9.7 hectolitres, or 70 per cent. less than in 1898.

In Rumania itself there is a large consumption of maize, from which the peasant prepares his polenta, or mamaliga. Yet a considerable quantity still remains for export. The forwarding trade is, however,

¹ The land under these crops increased from 38,260 hectares in 1898-99 to 262,240 at the beginning of 1900.

subject to serious fluctuations, varying, for instance, in thousands of tons from 733, 376, 1212, 694, 330, 443, and 782 to 1119 in the years 1886-87, 1887-88, 1892-93, 1893-94, 1894-95, 1895-96, 1896-97, and 1897-98 respectively.

In 1898 the chief importing countries, with the figures relative to the previous year and to the averages for the decade from 1887 to 1896, were as under :—

	1887-96.	1896.	1897.	1898.
Total export,	642	443	782	1119
To England,	358	145	180	170
„ Germany,	89	25	19	19
„ Belgium,	79	130	312	325
„ Austria-Hungary,	44	75	173	428
„ Italy,	29	42	59	120
„ France,	20	13	20	20
„ Holland,	5	3	1	6

Wheat.—Two kinds are chiefly cultivated—the soft friable, and the so-called red wheat. The latter, which is the more valued and dearer, goes chiefly to Switzerland, South Germany, Belgium, France, and the Netherlands. It is grown especially in Moldavia, while Walachia raises more of the soft kind for the German and Italian markets. For bread the red wheat is stated to be better adapted than the white, which is used more in the preparation of macaroni.

For wheat-growing the chief districts are Doly, Teleorman, Vlasca, Yalomitza, Ilfov, and Romanatzi. In 1898 over two million hectolitres were raised in Doly, Teleorman, and Ilfov, and over one million in Vlasca, Yalomitza, and Romanatzi.

At the request of C. Datculescu, E. Maggi of Zürich has made the following analysis of Rumanian wheat :—

Samples.	Weight of a hectolitre in kilograms.	Percentage of waste.	Yield of the flour.	Percentage of gluten.	Quality of the gluten.	Absorbing power (per cent.).
No. 1	80	1	52	41·2	fairly good	48
No. 2	81	0·3	48	44·6	good	49
No. 3	79·7	0·2	47	40·2	„	50
No. 4	81	0·5	59	41·2	„	48
No. 5	81·5	0·5	65	41·8	„	48
No. 6	81	0·6	60	42·2	„	48

The wheat export compared with the average for the decade from 1887 to 1896 in thousands of tons was :—

1886-87,	514	1893-94,	703
1887-88,	851	1894-95,	684
1888-89,	967	1895-96,	971
1889-90,	945	1896-97,	1225
1890-91,	922	1897-98,	434
1891-92,	661	1898-99,	580
1892-93,	771		

	Average of the years 1887-96.	1896.	1897.	1898.
Total of Wheat,	780	1224	433	580
Chief importing countries :—				
England,	360	450	63	36
Belgium,	233	605	243	273
Italy,	47	35	2	29
Austria-Hungary,	45	23	98	176
Germany,	35	67	15	24
France,	24	23	5	15
Holland,	7	5	1	4
Turkey,	4	3	0.3	18
Total of Rye,	156	233	142	117
England,	74	94	62	37
Belgium,	30	77	33	39
Germany,	24	20	8	10
Holland,	12	22	5	7
Italy,	4	7	6	5
France,	1	0.7	0.9	1
Austria-Hungary,	3	7	23	16

	Average of the years 1887-96.	1896.	1897.	1898.
Total of barley,	278	396	332	364
Chief importing countries :—				
England,	153	235	176	128
Germany,	48	91	89	15
Belgium,	40	91	89	147
Turkey,	12	10	14	30
Austria-Hungary,	9	21	32	18
Holland,	6	9	3	8
France,	3	5	4	0.9
Italy,	1	0.5	2	12

Oats.—In 1898 the quantity exported was 54,000 tons, compared with 58,200 in 1897, and an average of 40,800 in the decade from 1887 to 1896. The chief importers are England (average 10,000 to 12,000 tons), and Germany (average 10,000, but in 1898 exceptionally 2100); then come Austria-Hungary, Belgium, and France, as under:—

	1887-96.	1896.	1897.
Austria-Hungary,	7	20	16
Belgium,	4	8	17
France,	4	4	5

Oatmeal goes chiefly to Turkey. In relation to the average for the decade from 1887 to 1896 (150,000 double quintals), it amounted to 236,000 and 98,000 double quintals in 1896 and 1897 respectively. The average export for 1887-1896 was 172,000; for 1896, 1897, and 1898, 243,000, 102,000, and 185,000 double quintals respectively.

The cultivation of potatoes is steadily increasing, having advanced from 9000 hectares in 1893 to 12,800 in 1897, and 16,000 in 1898. In 1898 the yield reached the highest figure, with 1,000,000 double quintals.

A similar increase has attended the cultivation of beetroot, thanks to the erection of new sugar-mills. In the year 1896-97 it rose to 2800 hectares, with a yield of 486,000 metrical quintals; and in 1897-98 this was doubled with 6070 hectares and a yield of 1,619,620 metrical quintals. This industry is centred chiefly in the districts of Putna, Bacau, Roman, Ilfov, and Tecuciu.

Tobacco.—The tobacco monopoly was introduced into Rumania in 1872. Since then its cultivation has been under Crown management, and has acquired a considerable expansion.

Since 1872 the yield per hectare has increased from 339 kilograms, valued at 217 francs, to 666 kilograms, valued at 400 francs. It is cultivated chiefly in the Ilfov district. For the period from 1894 to 1898 the land under tobacco averaged 5135 hectares, the number of plants 14,160, and the product 34,000 double quintals, valued at thirty million francs. In the chief tobacco-growing districts the number of hectares and plants is as under:—

	Hectares.	Plants.
Ilfov,	1197	3145
Vlasca,	766	1846
Dambovitza,	736	3240
Yalomitza,	966	2327
Romanatzi,	569	1011

In recent years attempts have been made to grow cotton in Dobruja, and the Bucharest Botanical Institute has succeeded in discovering a *Gossypium* variety which appears to agree with the climatic conditions of the land. In the year 1897-98, ripe seeds of a good quality were obtained. A Dutch company had been granted by the government a concession to lay out a cotton plantation in the Danubian delta, with the right of exploiting it for fifty years, four years being reckoned for the preliminary operations alone. But the project came to nothing through lack of sufficient capital. Meanwhile the prospects of such an investment remain a moot question.

IV. Viniculture.

Amongst the European wine-growing countries, Rumania already takes the fifth place. Both soil and climate are well suited for the cultivation of the vine. Hence it may be expected that, as soon as a greater demand is created in foreign states, the industry will acquire an economic position of national importance.

Considering the great increase of the area under vineyards, such results might have already been looked for. But unfortunately this is not the case, and in 1865 the vineyards, comprising a total extent of 96,000 hectares, yielded only 640,000 hectolitres. In 1898, 139,000 hectares produced 517,000 hectolitres, valued at 18,700,000 francs, and for the year 1899 the corresponding figures were 148,000 hectares and 2,060,000 hectolitres, worth 28,700,000 francs.

In 1899 the land planted with vines had increased in some of the chief districts, such as Teleorman (9970 hectares, compared with 7860 in 1898), and Bacau (5200, as against 4570); but in others there was a falling-off, as in Doly, from 14,170 in 1898 to 12,170 in 1899, and in Ramnicu-Sarat, from 10,150 to 8970 in the same years.

The chief wine-growing districts are Putna, Rimnic-Sarat, Tecuciu, Doly, and Bacau, which collectively produce nearly half of the whole vintage.

The most esteemed wines are grown in the beautiful hilly tracts at the foot of the Carpathians. Although the soil is here siliceous and calcareous, it produces the best wine, whereas the rich soil of the low-lying regions yields inferior sour wines, which moreover keep badly.

In 1898 the area under the vine was in hundreds of hectares :—

	Cultivated.	Uncultivated.
Oltenia (Little Walachia),	492	8
Walachia,	417	98
Moldavia,	564	63
Dobruja,	84	26
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	1557	195
In 1895 the area was,	1679	205
	<hr/>	<hr/>
Decrease,	122	10

The total area is estimated at 20,000 hectares less by the Minister of Agriculture. According to his official reports, the state of the industry in the more important wine-growing districts was as follows in the year 1898 :—

	Area. Hectares.	Yield in 1000 hectolitres.	Value in 1000 francs.
Bacau,	4,570	25.8	810
Buzeu,	2,790	13.9	565
Covurluiu,	6,540	34	1,172
Doly,	14,170	0.3	16
Falciu,	3,700	49	1,113
Gory,	6,320	34	1,523
Yassy,	5,900	38	1,269
Ilfov,	3,660	2	87
Mehedintzi,	4,740	0.840	49
Putna,	14,130	91	3,510
Ramnicu-Sarat,	10,150	66	2,579
Romanatzi,	7,970	0.4	20
Tecuciu,	6,630	8	293
Teleorman,	7,860	0.8	31
Tulcea,	5,160	34	1,526

	Area. hectares.	Yield in 1000 hectolitres.	Value in 1000 francs.
Tutova,	5,440	21	767
Vasluiu,	3,720	51	1,214
Valcea,	8,080	10	635
Vlasca,	5,770	8	385
Total,	139,220 ¹	517	18,756

The best-known brands are those of Cotnar, Nicoscesci, Odobesci, Dragasani, Orevitza, and Golul-Drancei. Formerly Dealu-Mare produced the best and most esteemed wines, which were in constantly increasing demand in Bucharest. But now the name alone survives, the vineyards of this district having been utterly ruined by phylloxera.

The spread of this pest since its first appearance in the year 1885 has caused a great falling off in the yield of the Rumanian vintages. The districts of Romanatzi and Teleorman alone have hitherto escaped its ravages.

The value of the wine exported to France fell from 5,000,000 francs in 1888 to 2400 in 1895.

In battling with phylloxera the government showed no lack of energy. But the rural populations could not understand the rapid spread of this insect, and resisted the extirpation of the vines. Brute force had actually to be employed in the destruction of hundreds of hectares. But in the careful replanting of the uprooted vineyards the government displayed no less energy. It placed at the disposal of the growers millions of shoots from American stock free of all charge. Schools of viniculture were also established in various places, where young American vines were planted.

With regard to the various kinds of wine, many are highly alcoholic, those of the Tutova district with 8 to 10, Yassy and Prahova 8 to 15, and Putna 9 to 12 degrees. Those of the uplands contain more alcohol, but are not so rich in tannin.

It has often been vaunted of the Moldavian red wines that, owing to their alcoholic and tonic properties, as well as to their fine aroma and dark colour, they are not only calculated to replace the light French *vins ordinaires* in North Germany, but may also, when properly and

¹ Average yield per hectare 3.7 hectolitres, valued at 36.2 francs per hectolitre.

effectively stored, compete with the best French wines. Those of Nicoresti, Costalupu, and Yonasesci (this last including the Piscul-Cerbului, most famous of all) have the aroma of the Bordeaux wines, while in alcoholic strength (11 to 14 degrees) they approach those of Burgundy. The Orevitza and Golul-Drancei wines contain much alcohol, and have the appearance of liqueurs with quite a peculiar aroma. That of Cotnar in the district of Yassy resembles Tokay,¹ while Odobesti in the Putna district produces an excellent white wine. Dealu-Mare and Dragasani in the Prahova district also yield very fine white and dark red vintages.

Hamm, one of the foremost experts, who has tested the Rumanian growths on the spot, declares that some of the white wines were so clear that at first he took them for water. But on tasting them he found them sweet, light, and very piquant. Of Cotnar he says: 'With good management, the strong golden Cotnar is a really noble wine, resembling Tokay, but more generous and drier. Old Cotnar is thoroughly sound, extremely fiery, highly aromatic, and like the dry Spanish Malagas.' The ruby red Nebuna should be dry and palatable, and is stated to resemble the best Santorin, but stronger. The Piatra wines are also said to be like Tokay; but Hamm complains especially of their careless treatment, and of the lack of good cellarage and vats. He thinks that, under proper management, the Rumanian wines might be greatly improved.

The present writer has submitted thirteen kinds of various red and white wines to the 'Württemberg Wine-improving Association,' whose verdict agrees with Hamm's: 'Good to very good; but there is a lack of careful storage, by which the wine would be much improved.'

The Berlin chemist, Bischoff, who was commissioned to examine the Rumanian red wines, has also pronounced them to be fully equal to

¹ Genuine old Cotnar is now scarcely to be had; nor can its further production be depended upon, the few and small vineyards having been almost completely ruined by phylloxera. What is still procurable is in the hands of a large grower, who is endeavouring to introduce a rational system of treatment, and, besides extensive cellarage, has also established a workshop capable of turning out vats of sufficient capacity. But the attempts made by Vladoianu to create a foreign demand have failed, partly perhaps because Cotnar requires to be kept for several years before it acquires the condition required for the foreign markets, where it has long been all but unknown.

claret and the best Italian wines. Efforts are accordingly being made to open a wine business in Berlin, and induce the growers to submit samples to the agricultural exhibitions yearly held in Germany.

Many may be interested to know that, animated by the desire to earn for the Rumanian wines the favour which they deserve, the author, nearly ten years ago, also tested their capacity for making champagne. He sent for a Dragasani of medium quality, and had it transformed to a champagne in Stuttgart, with surprising results. The wine acquired a wonderfully fine and piquant flavour, and the essay was universally pronounced a decided success.

Unquestionably a large export trade in wine may yet be developed, although the treatment still continues to be sadly defective. The vintage is begun too early, without any regard for the maturity of the grape, but always on a certain day fixed from time immemorial for the commencement of operations in the various wine-growing districts. Then the ripe and unripe grapes are all mashed together, and as they have been gathered in too warm a season, the fermentation takes place too rapidly and impetuously. The proportion of alcohol also is too slight to allow of the ordinary wines being kept for any length of time. So it happens that no benefit accrues to the smaller growers from the more abundant vintages, which depend primarily on them. Owing to the want of technical knowledge and of proper wine-presses and cellarage, they produce an article of inferior quality, quite unsuited either for export or for storing; or else they sell the whole vintage to the dealers, who garner the crop, and apply a proper system of vat and cellar treatment to the mash.

To defective management is also due the fact that hitherto the export has not yet exceeded 30,000 hectolitres; in 1894 it fell even to 1200 hectolitres.¹

Improvements might be possible under the co-operative system. In

¹ For the period from 1894 to 1898 imports and exports were in hectolitres as under:—

	Imports.	Exports.
1894-95	2260	1,203
1895-96	2070	14,560
1896-97	2210	30,440
1897-98	2470	13,030

places where the growers are intelligent enough, vintners' associations might greatly stimulate and strengthen some common method of wine-pressing, and also impart instruction in the general management of the industry.

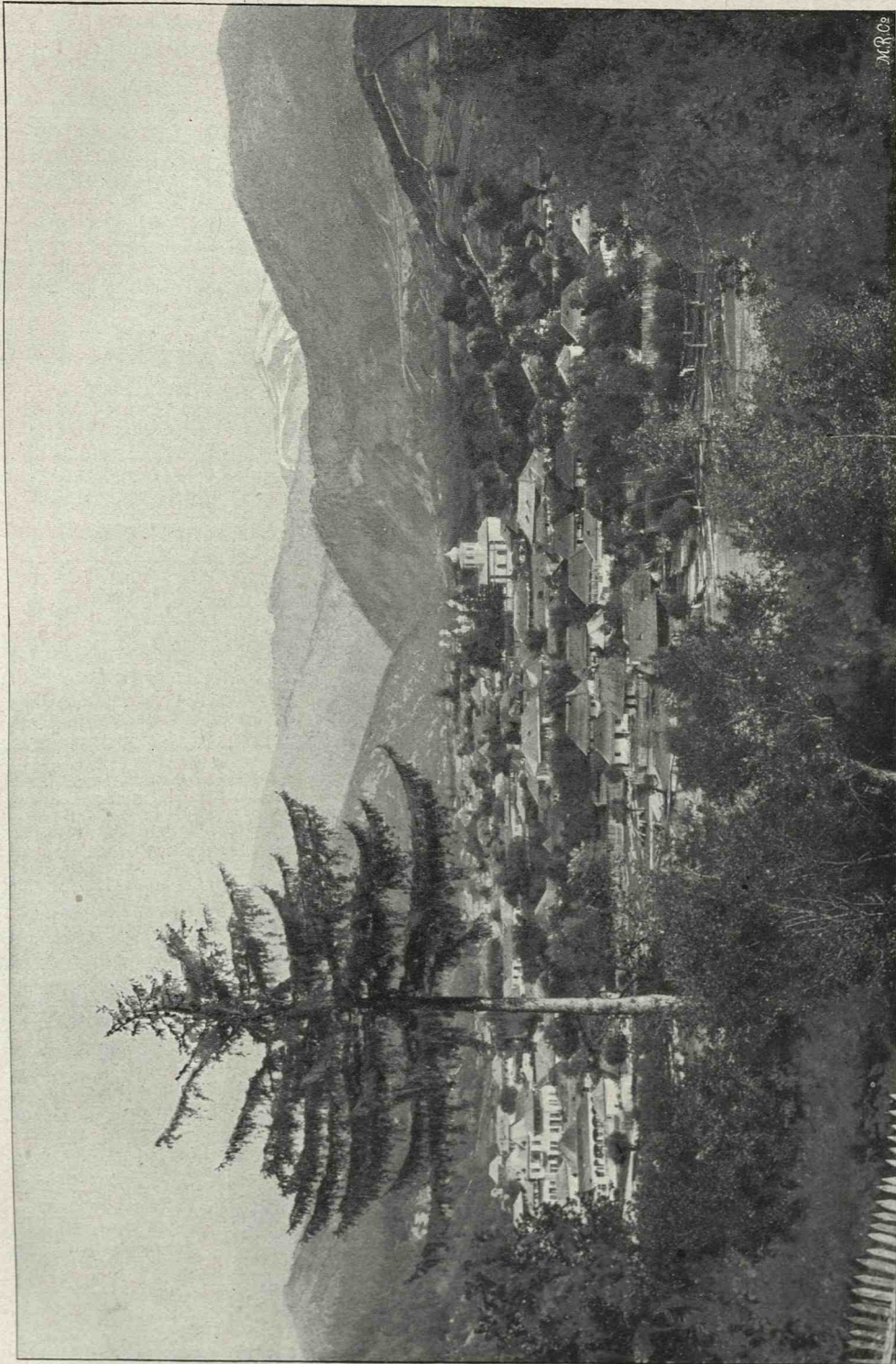
Other expedients might be the erection of government model cellars, cash advances to small producers on the security of their bonded stock, and similar aids to stimulate the export trade. In Bucharest the 'Vinicultura' Society, disposing of a large capital, has been founded with a special view to the furthering of such projects.

In the year 1891 the State had already laid out five nurseries with a total area of 86 hectares, and by 1895 over a million layers had been planted. In other ways also the government continues to show its readiness to aid in the development of viniculture and the introduction of scientific processes. Thus in 1893 grants were voted for building model cellars, in which the vintners might store their wines, and for laying out model vineyards to serve as schools of viniculture. But such provisions are still far from receiving practical effect. The contributions asked for and voted by Parliament are also inadequate merely for the establishment of such plantations as might assist the industry, and make the output what it might well be, regard being had to the favourable conditions of soil and climate. It is even a serious consideration that most of the growers have too small a capital for the efficient working of their vineyards. Nor is a proper treatment of the wine at all possible owing to the want of vats, which is itself due to the same cause. There is often even a lack of cellars, or else they are in such a state that the wine in its first stage is often irreparably deteriorated. Moreover, the wine trade itself is carried on by persons of insufficient means, so that no help can be reckoned on from them.

Attention should also be directed to the reclaiming of the sandy wastes, which in Little Walachia cover an area of 26,500 hectares. The planting of such districts with the vine is all the more important inasmuch as they have hitherto lain waste.

V. Horticulture.

In Rumania the chief species of fruit is the damson, from which a much-esteemed brandy (*tzuika*) is extracted. It grows especially in



M. B. 02

Village y Rucír.

From a Photograph by Franz Duschek, Bucharest.

the districts of Prahova, Valcea, Muscel, Arges, Buzeu, Gory, and Dambovitza.

In 1898 the planted space and crop stood as under :—

	Hectares.	Yield in hectolitres.	Value in 1000 francs.
Oltland,	17,820	197,100	1801
Walachia,	35,850	376,520	3015
Moldavia,	2,490	355,100	1357
Dobruja,	10	600	1.8
Total,	56,170	929,320	6176.8

The 1898 harvest was deficient, the largest crops being those of the Vlasca district (225 hectolitres to the hectare), the smallest those of Yalomitza (0.4 hectolitres to the hectare). In 1899 plum-culture showed a marked development, the planted area increasing from 52,000 hectares in 1896 to 70,000 in round numbers in that year, while the production rose from 967,000 hectolitres to 2.6 million, and valued at 12.1 million francs. In 1896 and 1897 the values were 5.4 and 3.2 million francs respectively.

Plum-culture is still capable of great development. When more attention is paid to the selection of the proper varieties and to the drying-grounds—points at present too little considered—Rumania will become a dangerous competitor with the Bohemian and Servian growers.

In Moldavia the damsons are not even properly prepared for distillation, so that the sale price is only from 3 to 4 francs per hectolitre, as against 8 to 9 in Walachia.

Besides damsons, plums, apples, pears, cherries, agriots, apricots, peaches, nuts, melons are also grown; essays have even been made with figs, which also thrive, although nobody takes the trouble to make more exhaustive experiments.

Since the sixties, horticulture, unlike the other land industries, has, on the whole, declined. For this branch of husbandry Rumania betrays the same indifference as is noticed in the wine-growing districts of West Europe. In recent years, however, the government has established horticultural institutes, while some schools of fruit-cultivation have been founded in several villages. But the results of these essays will not be apparent for some years. Yet the rural populations, especially of the uplands, might greatly benefit from this pursuit. It would be well

worth while to develop the cultivation of apricots, the climate being exceptionally suited for growing this species, which in Rumania is of excellent flavour and quality. The establishment of unions and co-operative associations should also be encouraged with a view to the advancement of fruit-growing, and more particularly the proper management of the crops.

For such purposes three teaching and experimental institutes are at work in Bucharest, Visanu, and Pietrosa. Amongst the general educational establishments, the Botanic Garden and the Botanic Institute deserve special mention. They were founded at an outlay of £80,000 for theoretic and practical purposes. The buildings of the Institute are amongst the finest edifices in Bucharest. It comprises sections for floriculture, for arboriculture, and for medicinal plants, besides a department for roses with over 400 varieties.

The few essays that have here been made in cotton, almond, and fig planting have yielded favourable results, and show that these species can thrive in Rumania.

The Visanu Institute has an area of 23 hectares, five of which are devoted to viniculture. Here are raised 11 kinds of vines, 61 of apples, 48 of pears, 21 of plums, etc. In Pietrosa, Bezeu district, which comprises 32 hectares (of which 10.2 are for wine-growing), 110 varieties of apples, 91 of pears, 26 of plums, etc., are cultivated. In 1895 this institute supplied free of charge 11,000 saplings to landowners, and 36,000 in 1896, thus continually increasing the supply, until at last from 100,000 to 150,000 trees are now yearly available for distribution.

Strange to say, hops are scarcely at all cultivated, although the essays hitherto made have proved very satisfactory, while in the opinion of experts the soil is specially suited for the purpose. This view is supported by the fact that in many places hops are found growing wild. At the same time, brewing is steadily increasing, creating a demand for hops which has to be met from abroad. Thus in 1898-99 as much as 43,500 kilograms, valued at over 174,000 francs, had to be imported, and the demand increases from year to year. It is most desirable that more attention should be bestowed on hop-culture, which might not only meet the local requirements but also create an export trade.

VI. Stock-Breeding.

According to the report of the Minister of Agriculture, Industries, Trade, and Domains, the live stock numbered in thousands:—¹

	Horses.	Asses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.	Goats.	Swine.
In 1860, . . .	506	7.6	2,741	4,815	42	1,088
1873, . . .	426	6.6	1,917	4,786	194	837
1884, . . .	532	2.4	2,376	4,654	245	886
1897, . . .	617	5.2	2,138	6,847	287	1,079

The relation of stock-breeding to that of the Western States is seen in the following comparative table, showing the number of animals to 1000 of the population:—

Horned Cattle.		Sheep.	
Rumania,	356	Rumania,	1140
Hungary,	371	Great Britain,	755
Austria,	362	France,	540
Germany,	355	Hungary,	488
France,	336	Germany,	274
Great Britain,	274	Italy,	223
Italy,	161	Austria,	133
Swine.		Horses.	
Rumania,	180	Rumania,	112
Hungary,	404	Hungary,	127
Germany,	246	Germany,	77
France,	157	France,	73
Great Britain,	149	Great Britain,	53
Austria,	96	Austria,	65
Italy,	58	Italy,	23

In stock-breeding, which is carried on chiefly in the districts of Roman, Falciu, Vaslui, and Yassy, the rearing of cattle plays the chief part. In the year 1897 the 2,410,000 head of cattle included 1.2 million oxen, besides 17,000 buffaloes as pack-animals for heavy loads, and 30,000 cow-buffaloes. Hitherto cattle as well as horse rearing and forestry have generally suffered from the greater attention that has been devoted to the more profitable corn-growing industry. Compared with it the ruling prices for meat (from 40 to 50 centimes per kilogram) have been too low.

¹ In the returns for 1860 and 1873 Bessarabia is also included, while the figures for 1884 and 1897 apply to the whole of Rumania with the exception of Bucharest.

Cattle are bred chiefly for the sake of their use in field operations, the rearing of cows for their milk being only a secondary consideration. Great importance is also attached to the rearing of calves, so that there is probably not a single farmer who does not keep at least one cow. After an ox has been employed one year in agricultural work, it is fattened for the shambles.

But nowadays an advance in agricultural ground-values is no longer anywhere possible unless cattle-breeding is conducted mainly with a view to fattening for the urban meat-markets and the supply of milk. But these objects are defeated not only by the prevalent employment of horned cattle on the farm lands, but also by the spread of the cattle-plague, the decrease of the exports, and the reduced acreage of the grazing-grounds. The general management also leaves much to be desired; the animals are sent to work too soon, not fattened enough, and sold at a sacrifice in poor condition.

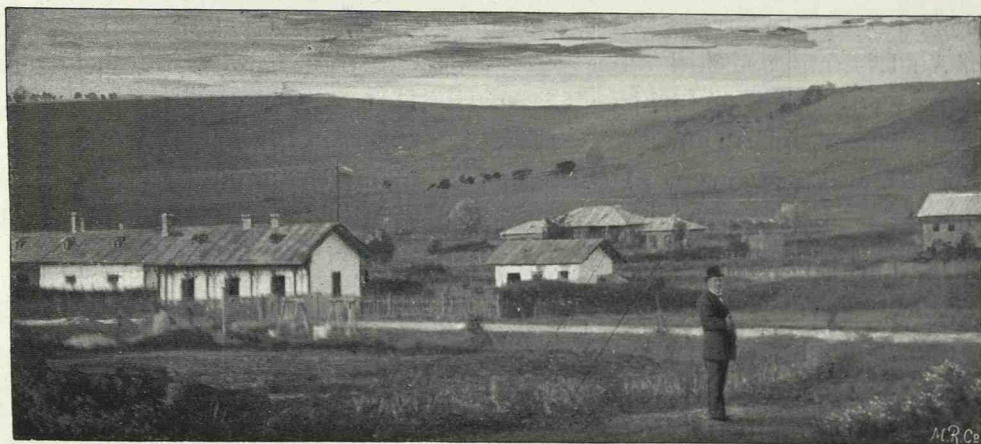
A country like Rumania, in which tillage and stock-breeding are so developed, should have also made more progress in meadow-culture than, unfortunately, has hitherto been the case.

The total yield of the meadow-lands—76,000 hectares artificial, and 505,000 natural—averages about eleven million double quintals (in 1892, 14.3; in 1893, 8.4 millions), or from 600 to 700 kilograms of hay per head of the beasts of burden. But both the extent and the production of the meadow-lands might be greatly increased by better management. Rumania yields only 1800 kilograms per hectare, Belgium and Russia just double.

In many districts the landowners find stock-breeding rather a burden than a source of income; for the rearing even of those animals which are indispensable for field work is attended with serious difficulties. The grazing-grounds, for instance, are more and more encroached upon and broken up for tillage. Even the great plains of the delta are becoming poorer in cattle, because the floods have a disturbing influence on stock-breeding. On the other hand, the Rumanian peasant still takes reluctantly the growing of fodder and roots, so that he often lacks the necessary food for his cattle. Ample supplies can be had only in winter, when dry fodder, mostly maize straw, is procurable. Otherwise, however, the animals are left to

themselves for the greater part of the year in the open, a few head being sold when the taxes and interest on advances have to be paid. The outcome of all this is that the stock shows scarcely any increase. But not to draw too dark a picture, we may mention, as indications of improvement, that the cattle-show held in 1898 at Braila has given evidence of substantial progress in stock-breeding. Moreover, the stall-fed oxen of Podolia have been almost entirely driven from the large meat-markets by those of Rumania.

In various parts of the country large dairy-farms have been established, and are systematically conducted, the most important and



DAIRY FARM AT DOBROVETZ (CROWN LANDS).

the best being those of the Crown domains at the Cruina station. To this the accomplished administrator of the Crown lands, Jon Kalinderu, devotes his special attention. In the years 1898 and 1899 for this dairy-farm large purchases were made of stud animals, which thrive well. The milk is used almost exclusively in the preparation of butter and cheese. Both are of excellent quality, and the cream-cheese made on the French plan is in no way inferior to those imported from abroad.

Clover-fields should also soon be a feature of the landscape. At least, during his interim-directorship of the Domain department, the minister, D. Sturdza, ordered clover to be grown on all the model farms and the public lands administered by the State, and the seed

gratuitously distributed to the peasants. Although this is undoubtedly a step in the right direction, it may be questioned whether the farmers will take kindly to the innovation, which is attended by much trouble and labour.

Hitherto the results of stock-breeding have been entirely controlled by the foreign demand. Under such conditions, the export trade must have suffered many checks, which began in the sixties with the outbreak of the foot-and-mouth epidemics amongst the horned cattle. Between 1863 and 1869 as many as 116,000 animals perished of these diseases. In consequence of the increasing inter-communications of East and West, caused by the development of railway enterprise, the quarantine regulations needed to arrest the spread of the epidemics began on the side of Austria, and are still enforced. To these troubles was added, in the eighties, the war of tariffs with Austria-Hungary, by which the swine trade was especially affected.

An accurate survey of the exports during the nineties is given in the following table prepared by the Finance Minister :—

	Horses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.
		<i>In thousands.</i>		
1890,	456	84	51.1	14.9
1891,	630	34	71.2	55.0
1892,	283	2.9	55.8	19.8
1893,	453	1.9	25.8	18.5
1894,	812	22.7	46.0	25.1
1895,	655	34.3	57.3	14.2
1896,	525	20.5	30.4	39.0
1897,	280	6.3	11.5	15.5
1898,	375	8.5	35.8	40.8

To further the cattle-transport business and ensure proper sanitary conditions, three cattle-markets have been established. One of these, at Turnu-Severin on the Austrian frontier, showed in 1887-88 an increase of 20,000 in the swine trade.

The new shambles at Yassy have hitherto been exclusively engaged in meeting the local demand, and the hope that a wholesale export trade in dead meat might be developed in connection with them has not yet been realised. From the surrounding district some 10,000 oxen and as many cows are yearly forwarded to Yassy.

The Netherlands Government has established a special slaughter-house at Rotterdam for cattle imported from Rumania.

In the summer of 1899 an effort was made to start a regular meat-export business with Berlin. The transit service between Yassy and Berlin takes no more than thirty hours, and the meat forwarded by this route might be sold in the German capital at one shilling per kilogram, whereas the local price is 1s. 5d. and upwards. The Yassy firm, which is endeavouring to create an export trade with Germany, is of opinion that some 30,000 kilograms might be daily forwarded from the Moldavian capital. The meat is packed in cold-air wagons between May 1st and October 1st, and for the rest of the year in wagons specially adapted to this business.

On the Rumanian State railways the rate of charges is so moderate that a wagon carrying 7000 kilograms of meat might be sent from Yassy to the frontier station of Burduyeni for as little as 21 francs. The Berlin butchers who buy this meat should at the same time open a special establishment at Yassy, and there appoint four associates to sort the meat intended for exportation in various categories, in conformity with the practice of the Berlin market. The service should be so organised as to be available not only for the wholesale dealers and the great landowners, but also the peasants who have only a single ox ready for the shambles. Meanwhile negotiations have been suspended with the Prussian railway administration.¹

Horse-breeding.—The Rumanian horses are of a different breed from the small animals met in Albania, Bosnia, and Servia. They are of Oriental blood—small, active, very enduring, but of rather weak draught power. The best draught, saddle, and stud horses are found in Moldavia. Formerly this breed was famous, but it has degenerated. In the eighteenth century Moldavia exported nearly as many horses as oxen,

¹ The vacillating action of the Prussian Government, due to the opposition of the Prussian farmers, would appear to be chiefly to blame for the failure to create a Rumanian meat-export trade. Moreover, a policy is pursued in Germany which is based on the enactment passed by the Reichstag respecting the sale of meat. This Act requires the animals destined for the shambles to be examined not only before and after being killed, but the examination has also to be rigorously extended when killed to all the offal, as, although most of the diseases attack not the tissues of the flesh, but the offal, they have none the less an injurious effect on the flesh itself.

or some 20,000 yearly, whereas at present they have to be imported. The explanation is that the peasants let them run free in the open till the snow falls, and when stabled provide them only with wheat-straw and maize-stalks.

Horned cattle being more suitable for strictly field operations, horses are met only here and there in the villages.

What was stated by Franzos over a century ago, on the whole still holds good: 'According to the Turkish saying, nothing is so beautiful as a Persian youth and a Moldavian horse. But although the saying is still current, and the Persian youth may still be fair, it is assuredly no longer true of the Rumanian horses. The breed has degenerated, and with it the most profitable branch of the export trade dried up.'

Most of the horses employed in the towns come from Russia, Hungary, and Turkey. No doubt some of the large landowners have taken steps to procure better stock. But their essays appear to have been made partly on too costly a scale, partly without the right technical knowledge, and partly also without sufficient perseverance. Besides, stallions from the State and military studs are yearly placed at the service of the large breeders—105, for instance, in February 1897. These animals are of English, French, Syrian, and Arab stock. The industry is also encouraged by horse-shows and races with country-bred animals.

In 1897 the stock numbered 142,400 in Moldavia, 454,500 in Walachia, 74,200 in Dobruja, with a total of 670,000 for the whole of Rumania. In the opinion of Rumanian veterinary surgeons, the Dobruja horse is destined again to supply the country with sound, handsome animals. They are most numerous in the districts of Doly, Braila, Ilfov, Yalomitza, and Teleorman.

Swine-breeding, although injuriously affected by the war of tariffs, is still largely carried on, and the whole stock is estimated at about a million. All the farmers, without exception, keep at least a few pigs. Besides the common breed, the Moldavian and Servian are also kept, as well as the swamp hogs, which are met in very large herds on the islands of the Danube. The export is mostly to Austria, Russia coming next.

The yearly export, which in 1877 amounted to 196,000, fluctuated in 1878-83 between 110,000 in 1880 and 153,000 in 1879. After 1884

it steadily declined, averaging in recent years only from 10,000 to 15,000, although it reached 55,000, 39,000, and 40,000 in 1891, 1896, and 1898 respectively.¹

The efforts made to develop an export trade in fattened pigs by the Suceava route have had no results. The local consumption, with the prevailing low prices of bacon and lard, is too inconsiderable for the farmers to regard swine-breeding as a remunerative pursuit.

Sheep-breeding is everywhere carried on for the production of mutton, cheese, and wool, but is declining, especially in the hilly districts.

After the Russo-Turkish War of 1877-78 many flocks were dispersed and the industry diminished, although the stock was returned in the year 1887 at 6,800,000. From the returns it appeared that in the district of Constantza each farmer owned on an average 175 sheep, but in the district of Doly not more than 20. The animals are stalled only in winter, but even in this season for the most part fed in the open. Many of the flocks migrate in winter and summer between the plains and the uplands.

The flesh both of wethers and lambs is of prime quality, and has from olden times been highly esteemed; for instance, at the Sultan's court and in the households of the great officials. Lamb, which is very largely consumed in the towns, seldom reaches the table of the peasant, who enjoys his roast lamb only at Easter. Lambskins are extensively used in the preparation of various garments, especially caps.

Sheep's cheese, which resembles 'Liptau,' is also everywhere in great demand, and even the Romans are said to have imported large quantities. It is forwarded in sheepskins specially prepared for the purpose. Its quality depends on the richness of the pastures, and the price ranges from 50 bani to 2 lei (francs) per kilogram.

Cheese-making is conducted in a large way mainly in the upland

¹ In 1899, owing to the standing orders against the importation of swine, not more than a few hundred were forwarded to Austria-Hungary. Although the orders were suspended by the Austrian Government in February 1899, they were renewed on May 6 of the same year, cases of swine-plague having been certified presumably in connection with the importation from Rumania. Negotiations have now been re-opened between the two governments for the withdrawal of the prohibitive measures against the import of swine from Rumania.

districts of Walachia—Prahova, Buzeu, Dambovitza, Arges, and Muscel—where some forty factories produce cheese to the yearly value of £50,000.

Besides these districts, the industry has acquired special importance in Dobruja, where large flocks are still tended. Yet since the acquisition of Dobruja by Rumania, sheep-breeding has declined in consequence of the steady development of tillage causing the large grazing-grounds to disappear. But this falling-off in the trans-Danubian province is of the less importance, since it is mainly a question of abandoning pastures belonging to Rumanians from Hungarian territory. Formerly these intruders looked on the Dobruja sheep-runs as their own property, because definite conventions had been made between Austria-Hungary and Turkey regarding their exploitation. Even in the commercial treaty of 1876 between Austria-Hungary and Rumania, special arrangements were agreed to regarding the passage of the flocks and the management of the lambs cast during the grazing period, and the very width of the routes was laid down which the flocks had to follow. Herein partly lies the explanation of the fact that during the last decade the export of sheep and sheep's cheese has decreased by one-tenth, and one-third compared with the previous ten years. Thus, in the respective years 1879, 1884, 1885 the export was 200,000, 170,000, and 117,000; but in 1896 and 1897 only 34,400 and 11,500. In the period from 1891 to 1895 it still ranged from 30,000 to 70,000, forwarded for the most part to Paris.

In 1898 the export of sheep's cheese amounted to 8090 double quintals, valued at 566,000 francs (6350 double quintals to Turkey alone), while in 1881 and 1884 the respective figures were 18,550 and 14,711 double quintals.

The production of wool in the Lower Danube lands has lost much of its importance for the markets of the world. This is partly due to the deterioration of the quality, while both in this respect and as regards prices other lands (Australia, the Cape, and Argentina) have presented the most favourable returns. But, on the other hand, during the last decade the local weaving industry has made rapid strides, thereby increasing the home demand.

Formerly the Rumanian wool was known on the London and

Liverpool market as 'Turkey'; apparently also as 'Danubian' wool. It was used in Bradford for the preparation of weaving-yarn, in Halifax for knitting-yarn, and in Dewsbury for carpet-yarn, and considerable quantities were also forwarded from Liverpool to the American carpet-mills.

The annual yield may be estimated at from about 7 to 10 million kilograms, which is equivalent to a production of some 12 million francs.¹ Of the whole crop, 2.7 million kilograms were classed as shoddy wool, 1.5 as coarse, and 3 as mixed.

The Rumanian wools are sold on the markets chiefly as 'wool in the yoke,' less as 'glover's wool,' and is rarely in a cleansed condition.

Two qualities are practically distinguished :—

1. A fine improved zigaya wool.
2. A coarser long cotgare (refuse) or cotgare-like wool.

As regards the place of production, that raised in Little Walachia is the coarsest, that of Great Walachia less so, while those of Moldavia and Dobruja (usually known as Dobruja wool only) the best.

The finest kinds of Rumanian wool are suited for the coarser and medium cloths (army cloth), the coarser for flannel and upholstering. The medium qualities are better adapted for counterpanes, friezes, knitting-yarn, carpets, selvage, while the inferior kinds are used only for felts, horse-cloths, and the like.

In Constantza the government has established a State sheep-stud farm with a view to the improvement of the native stock, and here experiments are made with all the better European breeds.

The sheep-breeders themselves attach no great importance to the wool crop, so that manufacturers are obliged to import the raw material. As the quality of the home article does not meet the requirements of the makers, only 2½ million kilograms of the 7 to 10 million kilograms of wool in the yoke actually produced are accepted and worked up in the three large mills at Buhuși, Azuga, and Piatra-Neamtz. These are supplemented by 3 million kilograms from abroad, while from 1 to 1½ millions remain for export.

¹ The average yield is from 2 to 3 lbs. per sheep, the Rumanian zigaya breed yielding from 3 to 3½ lbs. In 1898 zigaya wool fetched from 1.15 to 1.30 francs per kilogram; but coarse mountain fleece was 30 per cent. cheaper.

Poultry.—As in Italy, poultry-breeding and the production of eggs might be a profitable source of income. Yet these branches of industry are much neglected, the export trade showing but inconsiderable returns.

The stock of poultry is estimated at 13 millions, while the eggs exported in 1898 were valued at 2.9 million francs.

In the year 1898 a joint-stock company, with a capital of 100,000 francs in 50-franc shares, was founded for the development of poultry-breeding, and established in Bucharest various poultry-yards for all kinds of domestic and game fowls.

Silkworms.—Formerly the rearing of silkworms formed an important house-industry in Rumania, but had almost entirely disappeared in recent years. At the beginning of the nineties, the government directed its attention to the improvement of the culture, and a mulberry nursery and cocooneries were established in connection with the agricultural schools and the monasteries. Silkworms were also imported from abroad (South France and Italy), and distributed gratis to dealers. Courses were also opened for the instruction of the teachers in the monastery and State schools. These steps are already beginning to bear fruit, and the already numerous mulberry-plants are continually increasing, and coming more and more into requisition. Owing to the rough weather at the critical period when the insects are developing, the crop has in some years been damaged, but that of 1899 was favourable, and in Ploesti the yield was 7000 kilograms in 1898, although it fell to only 1500 in 1899.

A kilogram of cocoons fetches from 2.40 to 3.20 francs, while the silk thread is worth from 50 to 60 francs per kilogram. It is worked up as a house-industry in the homes, and the silks thus produced are intended more for personal use than for trading purposes.

Silk-growing is conducted most systematically in the districts of Teleorman, Dambovitza, Ilfov, Vlasca, and Muscel, where is produced 63 per cent. of the whole Rumanian crop.

Bees—Apiculture, formerly of great importance, has in later times been neglected. Scientific processes based on modern principles are little known in Rumania. The rearers are estimated at 1600, and

the state of the industry was for the two years 1865 and 1892 about as under :—

	No. of Hives.	Yield of Honey.	Yield of Wax.
1865, . . .	150,000 kilograms	332 kilograms	62,000 kilograms.
1892, . . .	168,000 ,,	236 ,,	48,000 ,,

The average prices on the spot are 75 centimes (about sevenpence) the kilogram of honey, and 4.5 francs the kilogram of wax, showing a total production of 428,000 francs. As apiculture yields good returns for a small outlay and little trouble, it is well worth systematic treatment. With a view to its general development, at the commencement of the year 1890 the government founded a model bee-farm under a practical breeder, on a tract 228 hectares in extent belonging to the public domain. The manager had to build at his own cost the necessary structures, which after ten years revert with the whole establishment to the State. He has further to receive and train ten pupils recommended by the Ministry, and also to set up and look after the hives required for rearing the bees at the agricultural schools. Moreover, three weekly courses were opened at the institute, which a teacher from each district has to attend at the public cost. Recently a joint-stock company has also been formed with a view to the encouragement of apiculture, the establishment of a workshop for turning out properly constructed hives, the publication of a technical periodical, the establishment of a model institute for the management of bees, and so on.



CHAPTER V.

Fisheries.

WITH her vast fluvial system, Rumania ranks amongst those European lands which are most abundantly watered and best supplied with fish. Of freshwater fisheries those of Rumania are the most important, next to those of the Volga. But, as in the other states, the natural abundance of fish has diminished with the progress of civilisation, the regulation of the fluvial steam-navigation, and partly also the reckless and senseless exploitation of the fishing-grounds. In the year 1881 Rumania imported 1730 and exported 2500 tons of fish, whereas in 1893 the corresponding figures were 4500 and 750, so greatly had the local production fallen off, not to say been driven from the foreign markets, in that short time.

This decline the government has endeavoured to meet by a scientific system of pisciculture, and by the enactment of 1895 a close period has been introduced combined with a strict supervision of the farming and management of the State fisheries. The lakes have been put in order, and the waters everywhere again stocked both with indigenous and foreign fishes. The government is also encouraging oyster-culture and herring-fishing. These strenuous and persevering efforts of the various administrations, and especially also of Dr. G. Antipa, director of the piscicultural section of the public lands department, have not proved fruitless. In the year 1898 the exports rose to 5551 tons, while the imports fell to 3606 tons. In 1895 the imports were 74·5 and exports 25·4 per cent. of the whole fish trade, the corresponding figures

for 1898 being 39.3 and 60.6 per cent. From Dobruja alone were forwarded in thousands of double quintals:—

	Fresh Fish.	Salt Fish.
In 1895-96,	6.0	1.2
„ 1896-97,	7.8	2.0
„ 1897-98,	8.0	3.3

Of the various species frequenting the Rumanian waters the carp is the most important. It acquires quite a remarkable size, weighing as much as 20 kilograms, and is distinguished by its better flavour from the ordinary pond carp. The chief markets for its sale are Galatz, Tulcia, and Braila, Bucharest and Craiova coming next.

In a fishing-village on the St. George mouth of the Danube sturgeon-fishing and the preparation of caviare are actively carried on, the latter yielding from 12,000 to 14,000 kilograms annually. The Rumanian caviare, which is coarse-grained and grey, is preferred to the small-grained Russian. The whole production is forwarded to Berlin, where it is blended with the Russian caviare, and commands a price of from 12 to 22 francs per kilogram.

In 1898 the choice sturgeon-fisheries yielded 10,000, and the common kind 2000 double quintals.

The various species of fishes fetch, according to the seasons, the following prices per double quintal:—

	Winter.	Summer.
Carp (large, weighing up to 20 kilograms),	80 to 100 fr.	30 to 40 fr.
Carp (small, up to 2 kilograms),	50 „ 70 „	10 „ 20 „
Pike-perch,	60 „ 100 „	20 „ 50 „
Tench,	40 „ 60 „	15 „ 20 „
Sturgeon (choice and common kinds),	120 „ 150 „	70 „ 100 „
Sterlet,	120 „ 140 „	50 „ 70 „
Flounders,	15 „ 22 „	5 „ 12 „
Mullet,	15 „ 20 „	10 „ 12 „

The import and export returns fluctuate, and are untrustworthy. But the fact remains that the total foreign trade advanced from 4.2 million kilograms in the year 1881 to 9.1 million in 1898. The highest figure was reached by the imports—for the most part salt-fish from Russia—in the year 1895 with 6.7, and by the exports in 1898 with 5½ million kilograms. The latter show a steady increase, advancing from

764, 1640, 1308, 2306, 2280, and 2685 to 5550 thousands of kilograms in the respective years 1892, 1893, 1894, 1895, 1896, 1897, and 1898. Most of the imports come from Russia (95 per cent. of the whole), which on the other hand takes about half of the exports. In recent years the exports to Austria-Hungary, which had greatly declined in the middle of the eighties, have again increased, rising from 358,000 kilograms in 1894 to 3.3 millions in 1898. The demands of Turkey also show a similar development; after falling from 166,000 in 1881 to no more than 10,500 in 1889, they have ranged in recent years from 200,000 to 300,000 kilograms. In South Hungary, Bukovina, and partly also in Galicia, the salt fish of Rumanian origin forms the chief article of diet for the rural populations on fasting-days.

Several Viennese fishmongers have formed a syndicate for the purpose of importing fresh fish from Rumania. The Hamburg firm of R. Jürgen also takes large quantities of Rumanian fish for the Hamburg and Lübeck curing factories. Similarly, the Viennese firm of Johan Kattus has introduced skilled workers from Astrakhan to carry on the preparation of caviare at the mouths of the Danube; while a fish-exporting company under the title of 'Dunarea' has been founded at Galatz.

Most of the fish is forwarded in hampers packed in ground ice. Some is also sent to Pest, Vienna, Linz, and Ratisbone in tow-boats fitted specially for the purpose with water-tanks; and the Administration of the Fisheries Department has provided eight wagons with refrigerators for the transit service.

The results of the improvements in pisciculture have made themselves felt not only in the export trade, but also in the increased receipts from the public fisheries. These are partly farmed out, partly administered directly by the State, and the returns in thousands of francs were as under for the period from 1897 to 1900:—

	1897-98.	1898-99.	1899-1900.
Receipts,	1.228	1.199	1.380
Outlay,220
		Net profit,	1.157

In the years 1890-95 the farmed fishing-grounds yielded scarcely half of that amount, or not more than 400,000 francs, whereas in 1898-99

they yielded 1.2 million francs. Here it should be noted that this is not the whole of the revenue derived by the State from its fisheries, as there are many lakes on the public domains which are leased with them. The income derived from this source may be estimated at about £40,000.

In a noteworthy pamphlet lying before us, Dr. Antipa dwells on the necessity for, and the results so far obtained from, the Fisheries Act. Especially is it here made evident that fifteen years before the enforcement of the new law as much as nine million kilograms of fish were imported, and not more than three millions exported.

Meanwhile a complete revolution in the relations was brought about by the favourable effects of the legally constituted close period for fishing. Thus:—

YEARS.	IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
	Kilograms.	Per cent. of the total Foreign Fish Trade.	Kilograms.	Per cent. of the total Foreign Fish Trade.
1894	5,981,444	81.97	1,315,749	18.03
1895	7,583,078	76.62	2,313,071	23.38
1896	7,192,919	75.60	2,322,795	24.40
1897	5,202,760	65.85	2,698,549	34.15
1898	4,238,751	43.25	5,561,959	56.75

Thus, while of the total foreign exchanges (some 7.3 million kilograms) no less than 81.97 per cent. were imports and only 18.03 exports in 1894, in 1898 of the total exchanges (now increased to 9.8 million kilograms) only 43.25 per cent. were imports, these being already exceeded by the exports (56.75 per cent.).

These facts are of themselves alone sufficient abundantly to justify the energetic steps taken to restock the Rumanian waters.

And here it should no doubt be further considered that the fish imported by Rumania is mainly of inferior quality, whereas those exported are the more costly kinds, such as carp, perch, sterlet, and pike-perch. The shifting of the export and import values would thus appear to be still more striking.

It is precisely the more valuable kinds—the caviare-yielding

sturgeon and sterlet—that have most increased, indeed quite to a remarkable extent, in the Rumanian waters since the passing of the Fisheries Act. This is seen in the subjoined returns for the period from 1895 to 1899 :—

YEARS.	STURGEON.		STERLET.	
	Fresh.	Cured.	Fresh.	Cured.
1895-96	148,843	95,276	73,064	37,421
1896-97	149,542	49,768	96,335	22,173
1897-98	208,122	89,357	44,357	33,209
1898-99	1,002,305	37,998	139,311	17,127

The favourable influence of the close season is also exhibited in the following figures, which have reference to the Brates lagoon near Galatz. The output for the years 1895, 1896, 1897, and 1898 was 614,914, 737,915, 1,245,478, and 1,260,615 kilograms of fish respectively. The yield was consequently fully doubled in this period.

From all this it follows that Dr. Antipa has amply succeeded in establishing the economic value of the enactment for the nation.

CHAPTER VI.

Mining.

MINING has had two flourishing periods in East Europe—that of the Roman epoch (Trajan's *procurator metallorum*), and that of the fourteenth century (German miners from Saxony; gold trade with Ragusa)—the former ruined by the migrations of the peoples, the latter by the irruption of the Turks. Both periods have also left their mark on Rumania, as, for instance, in the district of Gory, where traces of systematic mining operations dating from early times are found at Baia de Arama and other places. Historic research, however, has still to establish the more definite points of evidence.

The mineral treasures of the land consist chiefly of the salt-deposits situated in the Carpathians, and the numerous and copious petroleum-wells. But the development of these rich underground stores suffers from the same adverse conditions that have also hitherto retarded that of all other branches of industry—lack of native capital and enterprising spirit, combined with the defective and inadequate state of the communications.

In countries like Rumania, where the urgency is felt of developing the rich natural resources of the land that still lie fallow, it is clearly seen how largely the improvement of the highways and means of transport must contribute to the advancement of fruit-bearing, elevating, and refining influences. The first step to be taken for the encouragement of the capital, which is nowadays above all needed for the higher requirements of the mining industry, was the legal regulation of the associated interests and the scientific survey of the workings.

The relations in respect of mining rights were regulated in 1895 by an enactment based on the modern mining laws of France and Austria. Under this law everybody is free to dig and search for workable ores, for which purpose nothing is required except an official licence or concession. Owing to the larger national interests growing out of the industry, the owner of the land must so far yield to whoever is willing to undertake the industrial development of the explored deposits, that the applicant receives a seventy-five years' concession to work his claim, set up appliances for the treatment of the ores, build roads, canals, harbours, and a number of other structures mentioned in Articles 42 and 52 of the enactment, for which he may claim compensation on the expiration of the lease. Should the landowner not have a share in the mine, besides compensation for wear and tear he will be entitled to an indemnity of 5 per cent. on the whole output (formerly 3 per cent. of the clear annual receipts). And further, to the State has to be paid a fixed royalty of 50 centimes per hectare, with 1 per cent. of the gross produce (formerly 3 per cent. of the net income). Of socio-political interest is the last clause of the enactment on the compulsory insurance of the miners against accidents, illness, and incapacity for work.

Of more general interest are the following revised provisions of the 1895 Mining Act, introduced on May 2, 1900 :—

SECTION V.—*Relations of the Concessionaire of a Mine to the Surface Landlord.*

ART. 55. The worker of the mine, when he is not himself owner of the surface, must pay a rent for the pegged-out lots, and make good or compensate for all loss or damage.

The Concessionary is for three years responsible for such damage jointly with the *exploiteur* intrusted with the working of the mine. The Administration of Mines and the parties concerned shall determine the amount of the indemnities in accordance with the common law, and must take into account the woodlands and plantations, besides the conditions under which structures have been erected and improvements made by the owners of the surface lands.

In case of any differences recourse may be had to the Court, which has to give its decision as soon as possible, although the effect of the judgment pronounced by the Administration of Mines cannot be set aside.

The rent payable by the Concessionary will be fixed at double that of the unleased neighbouring ground, and assessed every ten years.

For that portion of the surface which may be depreciated by diggings, stores, or other things calculated to impair its later productive power, the Concessionary has to pay the owner an indemnity equivalent to double the value of the adjoining ground.

For lands declared by the Constitution to be inalienable, the indemnity will be calculated at three times the lease value, according to the use and wont of the district. This rent is assessed every ten years, not without, however, taking into account whether the inalienable land has wholly or only in part been taken up.

Besides the rent and the compensation for damages, the Concessionary has also to pay the landowner a 5 per cent. ground-rent out of the net yield, when the latter is not a co-partner in the mine. The conditions respecting the settlement and manner of collecting this rent will be determined by a by-law of the public administration.

SECTION VII.—*The Exploitation of Petroleum.*

ART. 70. The petroleum wells situated on the State lands are subject to the general provisions of the Mining Act.

The extent of a petroleum concession shall be limited to 100 hectares at most, and the longest diagonal of the polygon, in which is included the periphery, shall not exceed a length of 2500 metres.

A regulation of the public administration will determine for the State, as proprietor, the amount of the ground-rent for petroleum-wells, to be fixed according to the importance of the district, its distance from lines of communication, and the duration of the concession. The regulation will specify the several conditions which are to be observed at a given moment on taking up or surrendering a petroleum concession, as well as the various measures affecting all persons exploiting the land, whoever may be the owner of the property.

SECTION XIV.—*Special Mining Charges.*

ART. 93. All workers of mines are required to pay the State a fixed yearly tax, and a duty proportional to the net output.

ART. 95. The proportional duty will equal one per cent. of the net yield.

ART. 97. The workers of the various quarries and mineral springs have to pay the State 1 per cent. of the net yield.

SECTION XIV.—*Provisions for Dobruja.*

ART. 99. The owner of the surface land has no right to the ground-rent provided for in Art. 55. He can receive compensation only for the occupation of the land and the damage done to the surface, in accordance with the dispositions of Art. 55 and of the others having relation to the damage done by the workings. As regards the 5 per cent. ground-rent levied on the net production, the same shall be paid to the State by the exploitateur without prejudice to the taxes provided for in Art. 95.

On the geological relations of the land, we now possess thorough treatises both by Rumanian surveyors, such as Draghiceanu, Cobalcescu,

G. Stefanescu, S. Stefanescu, etc., and by foreign geologists, such as Cm. Mm. Paul, Herlich, Fötterle, Richard, and others. Nevertheless, the extent of the mineral wealth of Rumania has not yet been even approximately determined.

At present a considerable number of engineers and geologists are engaged on behalf of the government in an exhaustive exploration of the underground treasures. Their researches have already been so far crowned with success that in several districts the presence has been ascertained of some hitherto untapped large coalfields, as well as of various ores. Whoever is desirous of studying the relations on the spot may rely on every assistance, especially on the part of the government.

Those in any way concerned will be interested in the subjoined extract from M. Draghiceanu's monograph, published in 1893 :—

Geological Relations.—The whole of the central mass in Walachia consists of crystalline schists traversed by eruptive rocks.

This crystalline mass forms, so to say, the backbone of the Carpathians in a zone some 240 kilometres long and 22 broad, with an area of 5200 square kilometres. At Verciorova it is interrupted by mesozoic sedimentary rocks consisting mainly of limestones.

The western limestone beds are jurassic, and have a length of 45 and a breadth of 4 kilometres, while the eastern extend to and beyond Baia de Arama. The eruptive rocks—syenites, diorites, and serpentines—form the zone of transition, and contain numerous deposits of ores, such as those of copper and oligist-iron (hematite) at Baia de Arama; magnetic ironstone at Podeni; manganese and copper-pyrite at Bahna and Obirsa.

Highly developed, although still little explored, are the steep craggy masses which occur within the crystalline horizon, and are recognised as jurassic.

The mesozoic sedimentary rocks form isolated reefs, and throughout their whole extent are associated with eruptive matter and mineral beds. Remarkable is the occurrence of iron-spar, red and brown hematite, argillaceous clay-iron ore, copper-pyrites and manganese, besides anthracite and graphite.

The mountain range which stretches from the Dambovitza river watershed along the frontier to Bukovina is primitive, and belongs to quite a different petrographic system. Here is noticed a crystalline zone, which along the Golden Bistritza is associated with mesozoic limestones, igneous and metalliferous deposits. The crystalline zone is overlain in the west by nummulitic strata which rest on a vast trachytic mass, and in the east by the belt of Carpathian sandstone 15 kilometres broad. Southwards this eastern sandstone belt forms the whole range along the Moldo-Transylvanian frontier for a distance of 200 kilometres.

The so-called 'Flysch' zone comprises a considerable mountain tract, where the soft

components of the layers show tremendous disturbances, due to the lateral pressure which accompanied the upheaval of the Carpathian highlands. The Flysch system is disposed in two horizons—the lower cretaceous, the upper Old Tertiary. The cretaceous Carpathian sandstone recurs in North-west Moldavia. The lower chalk of the Flysch zone rests in Moldavia and Walachia, directly on the crystalline schists—a peculiarity of the Carpathian sandstone—and consists of bluish-green ‘hieroglyphic sandstone’ and calcareous schist, micaceous grey rocks, and marly limestone. The marly limestones are suited for the production of concrete, which is prepared in several factories. They also yield the cement required in the construction of the fortifications of the capital. The whole of the Carpathian sandstone system is overlain by reddish salt and gypsum yielding marls, variegated clays, and sandstone.

The Old Tertiary Carpathian sandstones form a zone 20 kilometres wide, extending into the Dambovitza valley; further on they occur only in isolated nummulitic limestones, which partly yield excellent building material, especially beautiful marbles. The Old Tertiary formations contain inexhaustible quantities of rock-salt. Very important is also the occurrence of liquid petroleum and ozokerite in the vicinity.

The hilly ‘Neogen’ zone, as it is called, is noted for its clay sandstones, potter’s clay, and clay schists. It comprises three sections: (1) a marine bed belonging to the Mediterranean phase; (2) a saline (Sarmatian) bed; (3) freshwater deposits.

Characteristic of the marine rock-salt range is the presence of rock-salt and saline springs. Here landslips and subsidences are of frequent occurrence, and such disturbances point at extensive underground salt-beds, which get saturated by water. This formation is poor in petroleum.

The Sarmatian regions form the great mass of the Moldavian uplands (excluding the drift), and cover an area of 24,000 square kilometres. Here two sections are clearly distinguished. The lower consists of bluish-grey potter’s clay traversed by a thin layer of very fine micaceous sand. The upper, which is several yards thick, forms layers of clay and calcareous sandstone.

With the Sarmatian series of South Moldavia and the zone of Walachia are contiguous the associated lacustrine beds, which in their lower strata consist of white marly schists and masses of rubble.

In Rumania there are two petroleum-bearing horizons—one in Moldavia, in the Carpathian sandstones of the Flysch zone; the other, much higher up and more extensive, in the later ‘Neogen’ deposits of Walachia. The Walachian reservoirs are far more copious than those of Galicia and Bukovina, where the occurrence of oil is limited to the horizon of the Carpathian sandstones.

Another source of mineral wealth is found in the very extensive lignite beds of the recent Neogen system, which also contains many saline springs. These with the clay conglomerates, gypsum- and salt-bearing hallite (Websterite), gypsum beds, and the inexhaustible masses of rock-salt, comprise an area of 67 square myriametres. Amongst the Neogen deposits are also sulphur, gypsum, and coal, while saline mud volcanoes are found at Berka in the Buzeu district.

The drift formations have a thickness of from 0.30 to one metre. The drift and

alluvial gravels of several rivers, such as the Olt, the Arges, and Golden Bistritza, contain particles of native gold of varying size.

The Dobruja is formed by the last offshoots of the Carpathians and Balkans. Here are (1) the Palæozoic formations, connected more with the Balkan system; (2) crystalline schists and eruptive rocks; (3) mesozoic limestone, slate, and sandstone formations. With the eruptive rocks are interspersed ironstone, lead, and copper pyrites.

Lead (sulphuret of lead) is found in the districts of Suceava (Vanata) and Muscel (Badeni-Ungureni and R. Sarat), and, thanks to its abundance and quality, may be profitably worked.

Manganese has been discovered in the district of Suceava, where it occupies a space of 20 square kilometres, and also in the districts of Neamtz, Muscel, etc.

Copper abounds in the districts of Suceava, from Brosteni to Barut and Mehedintzi, and also in Gory and Dobruja. In remote times copper-mining was systematically carried on at Baia de Arama, where, however, only traces of the workings are now visible. Here also, and in other places, are found copper ores, lapis lazuli, and malachite. Copper especially is believed to occur in large quantities in many places, and in the unanimous opinion of experts the quality of the ores equals those of Spain, Portugal, England, and Germany.

The products of the Rumanian mines may be classed in two categories—those which lie on the surface or are easily accessible, and those which require a considerable capital to be profitably worked. To the first belong petroleum, lignite, salt, and building materials; to the second the ores, copper, iron, manganese, gold, silver, nickel, cobalt, etc., besides the various kinds of coal, which occur in the West Sarmatian formations.

Amongst the precious metals are:—

Silver in ferruginous lodes. Competent geologists are of opinion that silver should also be found in the districts of Neamtz and Suceava. These most highly mineralised districts of Moldavia have hitherto been but little explored.

In the year 1898 an argentiferous mine was discovered in the district of Babadag.

Gold in particles and scales is found in the rivers Olt, Arges, Buzeu, Bistritza, and especially in larger scales in the Oltetzul rivulet. Under the Turkish rule gold-washing was carried on as a monopoly, the gypsies as former slaves being required to do the work as a sort of tribute on behalf of the reigning prince. But after the emancipation it was given up as unprofitable. There can be no doubt that the auriferous gravels and lodes of Transylvania extend also into the Rumanian mountains.

Thus in 1896 the government engineers Murgoci and Mrazek found gold in Valcea (Rudarie) and on both banks of the Dambovitza and the Arges. The auriferous district stretches for more than 50 square kilometres and up to a height of 60 metres above water-level. Here the washings were found to yield 68 grammes of gold to 3 metres, a proportion which should allow a profit on the working of the beds.

Iron.—In the Gory district and in other places distinct evidence has been found of prehistoric mining operations. According to the researches of the Belgian chemist, M. Hanon, and of the English geologist, Dr. Ansted, the Bistritza valley is traversed by a bed of pure brown hematite which almost crops out on the surface of the ground.

Moreover, bog-iron ore is found at Bahna, Baia de Arama (Mehedintzi district), Baia de Fer (Gory district), as well as at Dorna and Prisacani (Suceava district). These ores are met also in Dobruja, as at Macon and elsewhere.

The Bahna ores contain from 30 to 43 per cent. of metal, and the Podeni magnetic ironstone as much as 66 per cent.

At Podeni and Badeni-Ungureni ores of arsenic, nickel, and cobalt ores have also been found, while subsulphuret of iron occurs in very large quantities in the R. Valcea and the Gory districts.

Hanon believes the iron deposits of Brosceni and Cotargasii to be unlimited, and is of opinion that these stores will suffice to meet the requirements of East Europe for centuries. From the analysis of a specimen of the Brosceni ores taken almost on the surface in which he found 35 per cent. of iron, he infers that the ore at greater depths will yield as much as 50 per cent. of metal. Meanwhile these stores, as well as the coalfields, still remain untapped and undeveloped.

Quicksilver.—Even at an early period it was expected that quicksilver would be found in Walachia. But only in recent times have Rumanian as well as foreign surveyors ascertained beyond question that native mercury of unsurpassed quality occurs in very large quantities. The chief deposits have been found at R. Valcea, near the monastery of Arges, at Potesti, Gressani, and Bercari.

Cinnabar also occurs in large quantities, and from the analysis already made should contain 85 per cent. of quicksilver. The above-mentioned engineer, Richard, is of opinion that native quicksilver will be

found in the whole district, extending a distance of 180 kilometres between R. Valcea and R. Sarat.

Sulphur has so far been found, amongst other places, at Valea-Boului (Buzeu district), Sotinga (Dambovitza), and Putna.

Cobalt and *nickel* have been discovered only in ferruginous seams; those of Badeni-Badeni contain 21.93 per cent. of cobalt.

Ozokerite occurs chiefly at Solotz in the Bacau district, where it yields 800 kilograms per week. Rumania is also rich in *bitumen*, which, however, has not yet been tapped, although well suited for exportation.

Hitherto the most extensively worked mineral products of Rumania have been *salt* and *petroleum*, and these two industries have also the advantage of being regularly and systematically conducted. To the latter, owing to its future prospects, we devote a special chapter.

The salt deposits of Rumania cover an enormous area, beginning in the Suceava district, North Moldavia, and stretching, with a breadth in some places of 30 kilometres, along the Carpathians all the way to the district of Gory in Walachia. As the beds attain a thickness of 250 and even 350 metres, Rumania might supply the whole of Europe with salt for hundreds of years. At R. Sarat there is a mountain of salt, which being partly exposed presents a brilliant sight in the sunshine. Its excellent quality appears from the analysis, which shows for the best 99 to 830, for the second best 97 to 163 of sodium chloride.

The salt-beds run mostly at a depth of from 10 to 30 metres below the surface, and have lately been worked on the gallery system, which has replaced the funnel-shaped pits formerly in use. A small number of cutting machines has just been introduced, which turn out blocks one cubic metre in size, and weighing about 60 kilograms.

But, owing to its cheapness, the old quarrying process is still largely preferred, although thereby 25 per cent. of the pickings are wasted, while thrice as many workmen are required. The daily output is everywhere brought to the surface by means of steam-engines, which hoist as much as 1200 kilograms. Since 1862 the salt industry is a State monopoly, which is carried on at the four great workings of Slanic, Doftana, Targu-Ocna, and Ocenele-Mari.

Slanic, in the Prahova district, is connected by a branch 35 kilometres long with the Bucharest-Predeal railway. The salt obtained

from this place is of very good quality, and white as snow. The workings cover an area of 12,000 square metres down to a depth of 100 metres, the yearly output in block salt being about 40,000 tons.

Doftana, in the same district, is exploited in two galleries about 10,000 square metres in extent. The product is bluish and less good; annual yield about 25,000 tons.

Targu-Ocna in the Bacau district is connected at Adyud by a railway 50 kilometres long with Bucharest-Roman line; worked in four galleries collectively about 13,000 square metres in extent; yearly output about 15,000 tons.

Ocnele-Mari in the R. Valcea district is worked over an area of 9000 square metres to a depth of 100 metres, yielding about 12,000 tons a year.

The salt-mines are all provided with electric lighting and good machinery, mostly from Germany.

The works are carried on by convicts, who receive a daily pay of from 60 to 80 bani (centimes), and number on an average from 150 to 200. But in the Slanic mines convict labour has been abolished since 1894, and here some 300 free hands are now employed.

Besides what is needed for the workings, the mines are everywhere protected by special apparatus against subsidence and floodings.

The yield, which in 1863 was 56,740 tons valued at £170,000, rose in 1895-96 to 90,200 tons worth £280,000, not far from double. In 1897-98 the output was 112,650 tons, of which 90,000 were sold, realising £304,000.

For the State, which as mentioned has a monopoly of the salt industry, the income was £88,000 and £212,000 in the years 1862 and 1895 respectively, about one-sixth of the annual production being exported. The salt exports rose from 19,600 tons, worth £60,000, to 30,900, worth £42,800, and 38,600, worth £52,000, in the respective years 1862, 1895-96, and 1897-98.

The salt is for the most part exported to Servia, which, in accordance with the commercial treaties, imports salt only from Rumania, and only in vessels belonging to the Rumanian monopoly department. Some goes also to Bulgaria, and smaller quantities to Russia.

In this direction, and also to India and Africa, there is room for a great expansion of the trade. The same remark applies also to those industries which are based on the conversion of the chlorates.

During the last ten years the rates on the forwarding of a ton of salt from its extraction to its sale have averaged 18.62 francs.

Brown Coal (Lignite).—So far the best-known beds are those of Slanic (Prahova district), Lainici (Gory), Horez (R. Valcea), Comanesti (Bacau), Falticeni (Suceava), Sotinga (Dambovitza), etc.

Lignite of good quality is also found at Filipesti (Prahova district), Bahna (Mehedintzi district), and elsewhere. Large beds occur also at the monastery of Lainici in Little Walachia, where they cover a space of 36 square kilometres, with a thickness of as much as 10 metres. Still more important is the deposit at the monastery of Tismana, which is stated to have an area of 250 square kilometres.

According to C. Alimanestianu (*L'Exploitation des Mines en Roumanie*, Bucharest 1899), brown coals whose calories average 3000 occur in several parts of the districts of Mehedintzi, R. Valcea, Buzeu, R. Sarat, Putna, Bacau, and Suceava. But whether they can be profitably worked cannot be determined pending more thorough investigations.

The brown coal from the districts of Brandusa and Piscu-cu-Brađi possesses a very high heating power (from 5850 to 7300 calories).

But the average range, according to the varying degrees of purity, is only from 2500 to 3300 calories, consequently still too low a heating power to dispense with special firing and draught appliances in the consumption of large quantities. But it would appear to lend itself to the profitable preparation of briquettes and cokes, as well as to the extraction of raw gas, this last being of special importance in connection with the brown coal industry.

A fuel like briquettes, costing no more than from 18 to 23 francs a ton, is in immense demand in the city of Bucharest and the other towns of the lowlands, where, as in Bucharest, a ton of wood costs 26 francs.

The possibility of producing briquettes at these prices is established by the fact that at the pit-mouth lignite costs 5.50 francs, including lift charges, repayment of capital, and contractors' profits, while the

rates of carriage to the place of consumption do not exceed 5 francs per ton.

A further application of lignite capable of development is found in a process of mixture with petroleum residues on the 'Holden' method. During the last two years, 200 locomotives and some steamers have already been supplied with this petroleo-lignite fuel.

In Bucharest a ton of lignite costs 10, and a ton of petroleum residues 48 francs. When the two are blended in the proportion of 70 and 30 per cent. respectively, a fuel is obtained which costs only 21.40 francs, and in heating power is fully equal to Cardiff coal, which fetches 45 francs, and to the coal from Petrosani, which costs 35 per ton.

By this process a saving of some three million francs is effected for the Rumanian national economy, while the millions of cubic metres of lignite now lying fallow are becoming a valuable substitute for the coal which has now to be imported in large quantities. The results are already seen, for instance, in the fact that the coals from the Filipești de Padure and Sotinga mines, which, owing to their indifferent quality, had hitherto been held in almost no account, are now more in request.

The output of lignite amounts altogether to 68,000 tons, of which 51,000 are from the State mines at Margineanca, and 12,000 from the Sotinga and Doicesti mining companies. Of this output 90 per cent. are consumed by locomotives, and only 10 per cent. in factories, while the State derives a clear revenue of £20,000 from its lignite deposits.

Rumania is still dependent on foreign countries for fuel to the amount of £560,000. This money might be spared to the country, seeing that in most places the output of coal is easy, and with the high price of wood the workings pay well.

Anthracite has been found at depths of from 1200 to 1500 metres in many parts of Walachia, as, for instance, at Skelea (Larga-Stancești and Dragosti), at Moroieni (Dambovitza), and Baia de Fer (R. Valcea).

To work the anthracite beds of Skelea (in the Gory district), the English capitalist, W. Thompson, has leased the whole tract for seventy-five years. Railway connections have been sanctioned, and several galleries and crossways opened. But soon after operations were begun it became evident that the results left something to be desired, as there

was a lack of the means of conveyance needed to dispose of the product. The quality of the coal was also found to be ill suited for the local blast-furnaces. It was accordingly determined to suspend operations pending the completion of the Skelea-Tirgu-Yiu private railway.

Coalfields of more or less importance occur in the districts of Mehedintzi, Gory, Valcea, Muscel, Prahova, etc. As shown by the few borings that have hitherto been made, extensive coal-beds lie concealed, especially in Dobruja. Quite recently extensive beds have been discovered in the district of Valcea which stretch along the slopes of the Olt valley towards the Transylvanian frontier. In the Dambovitza district also the presence of coal of a good quality has been ascertained, and at the same time experts have shown that it exists in paying quantities.

Quarrying and Building Materials.

Concrete, cement, and gypsum have still to be imported, although the materials exist in the country itself, and are of excellent quality. Nothing is needed except capital, the search for and opening of beds that may be profitably worked, as well as a scientific examination of the properties and utility of the building materials.

Till a few years ago the railway rates were also too high; these, however, have now been reduced from 5 to 3 centimes a ton per kilometre.

Concrete has already been prepared for some time, and in many places chiefly by the peasants. Systematic works on a larger scale are conducted by Messrs. Erler (at Azuga), Manoel (at Comarnic), Negroponte, D. J. Cantacuzen, and others. The last-mentioned has a large cement factory at Braila, with a working capital of £80,000. Competition with foreign importers might even be greatly increased were the home makers to use as fuel either petroleum or a mixture of lignite and petroleum.

In the year 1896 the Ministry of Domains began to develop the employment of stone as a building material at reduced prices, with encouraging results. The public revenue from the products of the quarries rose from £5600 in 1896-97 to £14,000 in 1898-99.



Trei Erarchi Church, Yassy.

From a Photograph by Franz Duschek, Bucharest.

Granite is found both in the Carpathians and in Dobruja. The more enduring kinds are quarried in Yacob-Deal and Piatra-Rosie, and also in Greci.

Owing to their good quality and the favourable conditions of the workings, the industry is carried on in a large way. For paving purposes a monopoly was formerly enjoyed by the stones from Quenast in Belgium and St. Raphael in France, and for building the cheap stones from Pyrgas in Bulgaria.

But the foreign materials were rapidly driven from the field by the Rumanian products. A great development of the industry may be expected when the management of the quarries is improved, and the native craftsmen, who can mostly work at a cheaper rate than the Italians, are better trained. In Rudina and Valea-Ungurului is found a fine serpentine, which is well suited for the preparation of artistic objects. Granites are widely diffused, and some very fine yellow, green, and red granites are found at Olanesti.

Marble of excellent quality occurs in a great many places, those of Brebu and Valea-Doamnei ranking amongst the best. A yellow marble with red veins, found at Racovitz, covers an extent of 16 kilometres with a thickness of 16 metres. Large quantities of the most variegated kinds are met at Olanesti, while a white marble, said to be superior to Carrara, is found at Dorna in the Suceava district.

To complete the subject, it may be mentioned that Rumania also possesses some excellent argillaceous clays, besides an unlimited store of divers kinds of stones and clays suited for the manufacture of glass and porcelain wares.

Lastly, reference must be made to the Rumanian amber, which is still too little known. According to Hassaloup, clear amber is found in the bed of the river Buzeu, on its banks, and on those of its large and small affluents; also along the banks of the Danube, near Craiova, the Olanesti watering-place, and elsewhere. Characteristic are the numerous cracks and fractures which it shows, and through which the yellow shines like mother-of-pearl. The brown and smoky-grey varieties are most beautifully clouded. A blue fluorescent kind is also found, which, thanks to its fluorescence, is superior even to the Sicilian amber. Frentzel tells us that the peasants when ploughing have occasionally

turned up pieces, and it has also been found, amongst other places, on the Bucharest-Braila railway.

Petroleum.

As in the Carpathians generally, petroleum abounds especially in the Rumanian section, where the deposits extend along a zone some 10 kilometres wide, almost everywhere in association with sulphur springs, salt, and gypsum. Hitherto, however, only a very small part of the Rumanian zone, stretching along the southern and eastern escarpments of the Transylvanian uplands, has been tapped, or at least superficially surveyed by the miners. The chief centres are in Moldavia—Moinesci and Solontzi in the Bacau district, and at Odobesci; in Walachia—Sarata and Berca (in the Buzeu district), Apostolach, Campina, Baicoi, Bustenari, and Doftana (in the Prahova district), and Gara, Monteuru, and Colibashi (in the Dambovitza district).

Before the middle of the nineteenth century, the Rumanian petroleum industry was limited to a few wells, which were worked in a small way, the product being used for lubricating the country carts.

This particular use of petroleum was already known ages ago, as indicated by the names of many villages, such as *Pacuretzi*, from *pacura*, raw petroleum or cart-grease. Not till 1858 were there any signs of a somewhat more developed exploitation.

Hitherto the naphtha industry of Rumania has had to suffer from the above-mentioned lack of local capital and the unsatisfactory state of the communications. Owing to the want of capital the workings could not be taken in hand systematically in accordance with the requirements of modern times. But what foreign capitalists suffered most from was the fraudulent way in which the workings were conducted. Thus borings 30 metres deep, which could not have cost more than £1200, were not unfrequently debited four or five times that amount to the company. Various companies—French, English, Austrian, German—which had tried to establish themselves in the seventies, have again suspended operations. The first decisive result was obtained by the 'Steaua Româna,' which, in association with the 'Buda-Pest International Naphtha Company,' laid out £400,000 on its successful borings at

Bustenari. It erected a refinery capable of treating 21,000 cartloads of petroleum, and large reservoirs at Constantza, from which the petroleum is drawn off directly to the tanks one and a half kilometres distant.

The oil-bearing region of Rumania is very extensive. Almost everywhere where persistent search has been made positive results have been obtained. At present the centres of activity are the districts of Prahova, Dambovitza, Buzeu, and Bacau. The first place is taken by the Prahova wells, which yield more than half of the total production of the raw material, which rose from 15,000 double quintals in 1873 to 440,000 in 1896, and as much as 830,000 in 1898. Fresh productive wells are daily brought to light by the borings of the Steaua Româna, whose grounds yield 10,000 cartloads of petroleum.

The prominent position taken by Prahova is primarily to be attributed to the fact that it has introduced every imaginable facility for the transport service. The oil-yielding places in the district lie between two railways, with which they are connected by an underground conduit system, one 5, the other 10 kilometres long, conveying the produce directly to four railway stations.

The second place in respect of the total output is taken by the district of Dambovitza with a yield of 175,000, and the third by the district of Bacau with a yield of 135 double quintals.

Most of the oil-fields, and those the most productive—Campina and surroundings—are owned by the above-mentioned Steaua Româna joint-stock company. Numerous pits are also owned by an English company, three Dutch—with capitals of £40,000, £80,000, and £120,000 respectively—and an Austrian, on the lands of the communes of Campina, Bustenari, Doftanetz, and Baicoi-Zintea, which have an average daily production of from one to two cartloads of raw petroleum. Those producers who have wells on their own lands but far from any railway station, and work them in a primitive fashion, often suffer great losses in bad weather, the conveyance to the nearest collecting railway stations over the bad country roads being very difficult and attended by considerable cost. An important turning-point was reached in 1898 by the deep and wider borings undertaken by the Steaua Româna Company, and resulting in an increase of the annual production from 12,000 cartloads in the year 1897 to 30,000 in 1899. The Galician output is thus

already exceeded, while a yield of even 100,000 cartloads is anticipated in a not very distant future. This vast development has attracted the attention of English, Dutch, and Belgian capitalists and company-promoters to the Rumanian oil-fields. English companies are taking steps to open up more especially the Egyptian and Sudanese markets for the supplies of oil which lie nearest to hand, while the petroleum associations have been much restricted in their operations by the Russian industrial law of 1897. The value of the new works opened in the two last years is estimated at £640,000, and the total number of borings undertaken by these new agencies at about thirty. The pits opened by borings range from 140 to 345 metres in depth, and the outlay for such a pit averages £600, whereas that of a well runs to no more than £200. At Prahova the annual yield of a well 100 metres deep, when only the upper naphtha-bearing strata are tapped by hand labour, averages 2000 double quintals, and in the other districts 1200. But the production of *the deep borings* is far greater. In the Bacau district a single boring of this description has an average yearly output of 2600 double quintals.

Last year the Steaua Româna sunk three deep shafts, one of which gives a daily yield of 450 double quintals, and the other two 150 each. But its richest find was at Campina, where it opened a pit which has hitherto yielded 900 double quintals daily. In 1898 a shaft sunk by the company to a depth of 400 metres suddenly discharged a tremendous stream of rock-oil, thereby revealing the existence of a second productive horizon, which had not hitherto been suspected.

In the Prahova district the price of the raw material usually ranges, with the position of the deposit and the quality and purity of the oil, from 130 to 150 francs, and in the Campina district from 150 to 180 francs per double quintal, exclusive of the cartage and transport charges.¹

As regards the quality, according to the analyses of several chemists

¹ The price, which falls with the increased production, varied from 90 centimes to 2 francs at the beginning of September 1899 as against 4 francs in 1895 and 7 in 1897 per 100 kilograms. To prevent a further fall, a corner in raw oil was formed by the producers (excluding the Steaua Româna), with the understanding that raw oil should no longer be sold in the country under 2 francs per 100 kilograms. But in the course of the year 1899 the Steaua Româna, by buying up the supplies, found itself in a position to rule the market.

the Rumanian petroleum contains more pure, clear oil than the Galician, American, and Caucasian.

The yearly production, which in 1862 was only 30, and in 1873 not more than 139,000 double quintals, shows a steady increase during the last decade—from 74,000 in 1886 to 234,000 in 1896. In 1897-98 the total yield was 1,341,000 double quintals valued at £260,000, and in 1899 there was a further increase of 25 per cent.¹

The production might be considerably increased were its local consumption not so greatly shackled in many towns by municipal charges. Thanks to these imposts, petroleum is dearer in Rumania than in the countries to which it is exported.

A larger increase is in store for petroleum as a fuel through the above-mentioned process of mixture with lignite on the Holden method. In March 1900 the Royal Austria-Hungarian Consulate at Bucharest expressed itself on this subject as follows:—

An important factor in the development of the Rumanian petroleum industry is the process of heating with petroleum residues. This heating system, which for some decades has been employed in America and Russia with the best results, is also gaining more and more ground in Rumania. At first applied only in a small way to the heating of a few locomotives on the Rumanian lines, this combustible is at present already used by as many as 180 locomotives. It has also won its way into the largest government establishments, the factories, mills, and shipping of the country. Thus the administration of the State monopolies has adopted the petroleum firing for three tugs for the river navigation with the Korting injector, and for three others with the Wolff injector.

At the normal price of coal the saving on coal fuel is about 40 per cent., where it is to be further considered that the handling is much easier and considerably cleaner. In face of the enormous advance in the price of coal, even the most obdurate factory and mill owners have been fain in recent times to modify their plant for the combustion of residues, and it may be assumed that nearly 8000 cartloads of oil are already applied annually to heating purposes. In the year 1900 double that quantity is expected to come into use.²

According to a report prepared for the government by the engineers

¹ The total production of purified refined petroleum was in 1896 as under:—

United States, 99.4 million hectolitres, of which 37.6 were exported.

Russia, 58.7 " " 9 "

Austria, 7.6 " " 1 "

The increase in the output of naphtha in bulk between 1888 and 1895 has been:—

In Russia from 1.9 million tons to 6.9 million tons.

In Austria „ 0.4 " 0.9 "

Filiti and Puscariu, Rumania in 1898 possessed 179 workings owned by companies and private individuals, and situated in 47 places, with 68 productive borings and 56 unproductive or completely exhausted; further, 882 bucket-wells still yielding a supply, and 886 already exhausted.

Of refineries there are 73, of which, however, only about one-ninth are distilleries in the strict sense of the word; the others give unsatisfactory returns. The most important are owned by the Steaua Româna Company of Campina, and the Bucharest Company. The latter has special appliances for the preparation of paraffin and the heavier oils.

Of these establishments only ten are conducted in a systematic way, all the rest being in a very primitive state. Three-fourths of the raw material, and seven-eighths of the refined oil, are in the hands of the Steaua Româna, which, with its joint-stock capital of £800,000, besides £200,000 5 per cent. scrip, commands the largest capital of any Rumanian Company. In the year 1898-99 it realised a profit of £880,000, which, after setting aside £440,000 for redemption and transference to the special reserve, left a nett profit of over £40,000, and a dividend of $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for the bondholders.

The competing power of the Rumanian petroleum industry depends on the proximity and low rates of the railways, combined with the general cheapness of labour on the spot. The three oil-yielding districts are encircled by a network of railways, which are easily accessible on all sides. This is also true of the riverside ports, especially those of Galatz, Braila, and Constantza for Russia and the West, Giurgiu for the Balkan States, Turnu-Severin and Vercerova for Austria-Hungary and South Germany.

The exports, which ranged from 16,000 to 20,000 tons in the years 1891-97, rose in 1898 to 40,000 tons. This trade lies almost exclusively in the hands of the Steaua Româna, which began the sea-borne traffic at first in drums forwarded to Genoa, and is now already introducing tank-steamers in order to supply the Scandinavian, Greek, Egyptian, and Levant markets.

When the refining of Rumanian petroleum is carried to greater perfection, it will be able successfully to compete with the American petroleum ring in Germany by utilising the Danube route. The Steaua

România has already had large reservoirs constructed at Ratisbon, and has the oil also forwarded thither by tank-steamers. In 1897 the government occupied itself with this project, which might be equivalent to a monopolising of the petroleum business. Recently, however, a disposition has been shown to leave the export trade to private enterprise. It has further to be stated that in December 1896 the duty on the product of the petroleum wells was raised to 7 centimes per litre. Hitherto it had been only 4 centimes, and yielded a revenue of £20,000. In Austria the tax is 13 centimes, in Russia 10, in France 9, in Germany 7, so that it is still almost lowest in Rumania.

In recent times the companies have begun to compete severely for the expansion of their concessions, which has resulted in an extraordinary rise in the ground-values. Thus, one of the Dutch companies has lately paid £60,000 for seven allotments in the Prahova valley.

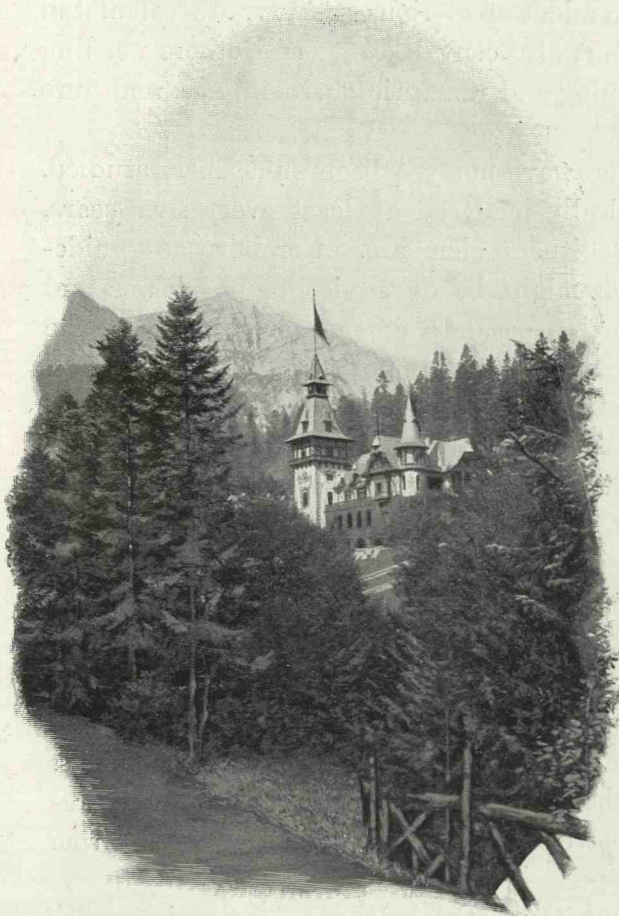
Just now there is a project to lay down a pipe-line with a capital of £2,800,000, and to establish a petroleum bank. The success of such a project would result in a sudden and marked increase in the production—well-informed circles estimate it at threefold within a year—and should also cause a considerable development of the export trade. Even now large quantities are already forwarded to Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, Turkey, the Levant, Italy, Germany, Norway, and other lands. Altogether, the petroleum of Rumania should play a great part in the near future, and especially in Germany. At least it should have little to fear from the establishment of the Russo-German Petroleum Importation Company recommended by Dr. Zöpfl.¹ Until the Russian petroleum business is in the hands of the Russian government itself, such a German importation company would always be confronted by the danger of the severest struggle against a possible combination of the American Standard Oil Company with the Russian private concerns. On the other hand, the contingency need not be excluded of German capital being able to exploit the contiguous Carpathian petroleum-basin, and thus put an end to the reckless action of the American Trust, at least so far as Germany is concerned. Rumania and Galicia are to be regarded as *the natural rock-oil reservoir of Europe*. ‘It is almost inconceivable.’

¹ *Considerations on the Development of the Russian Petroleum Import Trade with Germany.*

says Dr. K. Oebbeke in the *Allgemeine Zeitung* (No. 27, Jan. 28, 1900), 'that it should have taken so long to grasp this simple fact. When the Carpathian oil region is exploited as thoroughly as the American and Russian, the latter, owing to their remoteness, will cease to be of any account for the supply of Central Europe. It is surprising that in the whole literature of the petroleum monopoly the struggle between Russia and America is alone discussed, while that region has, so to say, been overlooked, or only incidentally mentioned, which, being independent of both of those countries, contains within itself the natural and self-evident solution of the conflict. It is here that the lever should be applied, and it is incumbent precisely on Germany to open such a source for herself, so as, in case of international entanglements, not to be cut off from a supply of this product, so important in itself, and also so necessary for military purposes.'

CHAPTER VII.

Medicinal Springs and Health Resorts.



ROYAL PALACE OF PELEŞ AT SINAIA.

RUMANIA abounds in mineral waters, of which the sulphur, iodine, and mud baths are amongst the best known. These are far from being utilised and exploited as much as they deserve. In the Arges district ruins are still to be seen of some Roman baths, remains of the *Buli vada* Thermæ, which date from the year 138 A.D., and have a temperature of 28° C. (83° F.).

According to D. J. Felix

(*Raport general asupra Igienei si asupra Serviciului Sanitar*, Bucharest 1899), so far some 140 medicinal sources have been chemically examined. Waters rich in iodine and acids, such as Lacul-Sarat at Braila, occur also in Yalomitza and Constantza (Tekir-Ghiol). In the R. Valcea district there is quite a variety of bathing-places, which, thanks both to their properties and to the beauty of their surroundings, may look forward to a great future. Meanwhile, however, the rapid increase in

the popularity of these places is greatly retarded by the existing law which prevents foreigners from acquiring real estate.

At Mangalia there are sulphur baths, and mineral baths at Piatra-Neamtz and Saru-Dornei. Many other waters, rich in iron, bromine, sulphur, salts, etc., lying in the midst of glorious scenery, are calculated to attract not only the ailing, but also convalescents and others needing change and rest, by their charming and romantic surroundings, and pure mountain air.

Unfortunately all the waters have not yet been sufficiently studied. Besides, they should be chemically analysed at least every five years, as they often change their constituent elements. Nor have any guide-books yet been published which might be of service to physicians and the public, by giving trustworthy accounts of the composition of the Rumanian waters, and thus affording the means of comparing them with those of other countries. Thus it is that a number of springs, such as the ferruginous thermal waters of Bivolari in the Arges district, those of Cozia in Valcea, Borcia in Suceava, etc., all of excellent quality, have hitherto remained unutilised.

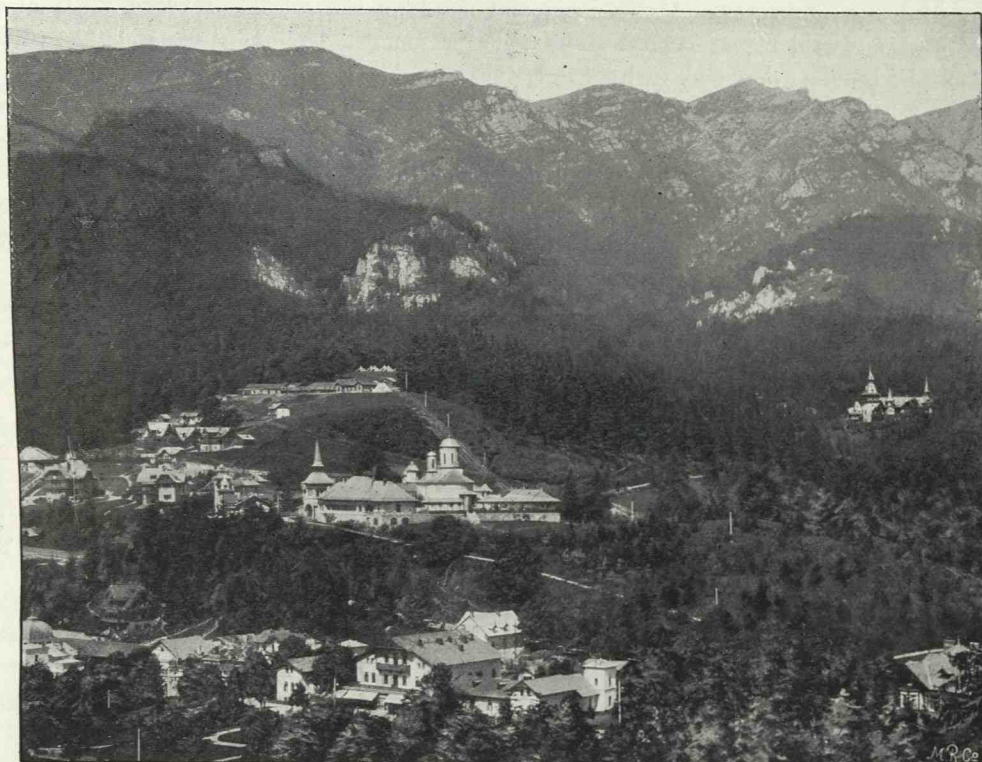
Many valuable waters are neglected merely through the lack of convenient communications. In this direction the administration of the Civil Hospitals (*Ephorie des Hospiteaux civiles*) has already done good work, for instance, by opening the road to Mount Tigvele, where the first sanatorium for tuberculosis was erected.

Moreover, many resorts are deficient in the necessary comforts. To meet this drawback the baths of Slanic, attached to the administration of the Yassy Hospital, receives a yearly subvention of £2000 from the government.

At present the most frequented baths belong to the Ephorie des Hospiteaux civiles. These are at Sinaia, which is pleasantly situated three hours by train from Bucharest in the Prahova district; at Slanic in the same district; and at Oenele-Mari in that of Vlaşca.

Scarcely more than a century ago Sinaia consisted merely of a few huts, and the monastery, dating from the year 1695, whose lands, after the secularisation of the Church property, were assigned to the Ephorie des Hospitaux civiles. Thanks to the labours of this institution, the little town is now the most charming and the best equipped with every

comfort of all the Rumanian health-resorts. But the foundations of its prosperity were really laid when the royal family selected it as their summer residence, and here erected the Peleş palace. The example



SINAIA (KLOSTERBERG).
From a Photograph by FRANZ DUSCHEK.

thus set by royalty was of course followed by the most distinguished families in the country.

In his work on this palace, *Das rumänische Königsschloss Peleş*, Vienna 1893, the well-known art historian, Jacob von Falke, says :—

Sinaia, a rapidly thriving place, which has to thank the summer residence of the court for its rise, may be reached by a three hours' railway trip from Bucharest. It lies even nearer to the Transylvanian boundary, being only half an hour from the frontier station of Predeal—a short rapid journey, but one which transports you from the solitude and wildness of the highlands to modern civilisation. The railway from Predeal descends the valley of the Prahova, until it reaches the plain an hour's distance below Sinaia.

A real Alpine stream, the Prahova rushes wildly along at one time, flowing at

another with a gentle, smooth current. You see that it is a river capable of tearing away its banks and demolishing its bridges. It seeks and carves itself a way with many windings through a broad bed strewn with rubble, like the *mürs* (detritus) in the Austrian Alps. On both sides it is joined by foaming torrents, tumbling down between green hills or high-towering crags. Above fields and meadows rise woods of proud pines and beeches, and still higher jagged, rocky walls, or rounded mountain crests clothed with short herbage, no doubt also with everlasting snows on the peaks and in the gorges, for we are here in the heart of the Carpathians. On these heights also the eagle has his eyrie, and here is the resort of not a few bears and numerous chamois, the site of herdsmen's chalets, and flocks of browsing sheep which in autumn move down to the valleys. Here also blooms an Alpine flora, amongst it the edelweiss, to which the Rumanians have given the name of 'the queen's flower.' Below, where a few years ago there was scarcely a road—for Roman legions and Roman culture did not penetrate by this route, but through the Rothethurm Pass into Transylvania—below lie friendly houses and hamlets, and a little life animates the highways, and factories have even already gained a footing in the dale. At Azuga are already seen cloth, cement, and glass works, a paper-mill at Buşteni, a needle factory and a pottery at Sinaia. Petroleum is obtained at Campina, and all down the valley follow windmills, sawmills, kilns, and stone quarries. At Buşteni, the last station before Sinaia, a new little Greek church peeps out with its copper dome, a neat manse, a roomy school, and, in the foreground, farmers' dwellings, with their verandahs supported on pillars, nearly all standing alone on a green plot—everything fresh, clean, typical—as if set up to serve as models.

And in fact it is so. Self-conscious culture which aims at elevating, improving, and doing good has here found a suitable field for its activities. The hovel has become a house, the rude settlement a village, the water a driving-power, the forest a grove, and fields and pastures carefully cultivated tracts. Thus, where a few years ago all was a primæval wilderness, the most refined and modern culture has found a home. To the poetry of nature has been added the poetry of art. From the royal castle refining influences have radiated down into the Prahova valley; and although this savage stream has not yet been quite tamed, its waters have been brought into the service of man. Bright groups of habitations, friendly model-like farmsteads, schools, and churches, it mirrors along its banks, and is fain to lend water-power to rising factories. Well-tilled plots follow from its margin to the woodlands; a railway connecting two lands brings life and intercourse to both.

But nothing speaks more eloquently for the transformation of this district than the rise of a whole town of villas, the township of Sinaia, which now falls from the old abbey in successive terraces down to the river. Under the careful management of Prince Demetrius Ghika, director of the Ephorie Institution, the town has grown with extraordinary rapidity. The court has been followed by the courtiers and the diplomatic corps, and by all the most distinguished and wealthiest circles in Bucharest, eager like others to escape from the hot capital during the summer months. Thus have sprung up houses and villas, fine promenades and avenues, ornamental grounds, modern hotels, musical and other resorts. And now when the gaze sweeps from the heights of the

abbey down to the valley, it sees at its feet a town presenting all the refinement of modern life, with a bustle and animation in the summer season like that of a West European watering-place.

Slanic in the Prahova and Oenele-Mari in the Valcea districts, both flooded and abandoned salt-mines, are farmed out, and have warm and cold baths now supplied with all the needed appliances.

The Tekir-Ghiol lakelet at Tugla Ghiol in the Tulcea district, an hour by train from Constantza, contains four times as much salt as the sea. Here the Ephorie has erected a sanatorium with beautifully laid-out grounds for poor scrofulous children.

Of great importance are also the Şirul springs in the Buzeu district, which stand 550 metres above sea-level; they have a strong alkali reaction and a temperature of 36° C. (97° F.).

In the same district are the promising Meledic baths, with some twenty-five springs containing iron, bromine, sulphur, and especially iodine in very large quantities. Here are also several saline lakes covering a total area of about four square kilometres. These baths, which lie in a romantic mountainous district 750 feet above the sea, have been leased for rather a long term of years to a French company. The export of the waters is somewhat considerable.

Of the watering-places which belong to the State and are administered by the Ministry of Domains, the most prosperous are Govora, Calimanesci, and Caciulata.

Calimanesci, on the right bank of the Aluta in the Valcea district, is a favourite health-resort, provided with good appliances and comfortable hotels. The sulphurous springs of this place have a higher proportion of sulphur than those of Aix-la-Chapelle and Aix-les-Bains. The water is used only for bathing.

Caciulata, which lies in close proximity to Calimanesci, has saline and magnesium drinking-waters, of which from 20,000 to 22,000 bottles are exported.

Govora, 15 kilometres from R. Valcea, has large hotels, a modern pump-room, various bathing establishments, inhalation appliances, etc. The water contains bi-ioduret without sulphur, is slightly ferruginous, and rich in iodine. It rises in petroleum-bearing strata; receives about 1600 visitors, and in 1898 some 29,000 baths were taken.

Lacul Sarat, which also belongs to the State, lies 5 kilometres from Braila, with which it is connected by an electric railway. In the opinion of well-informed experts the mud-baths of this place surpass all others for their special and uninterrupted supply as well as their curative properties. The mineral waters contain salt, iodine, and sulphur in a proportion of forty-five per cent., and are consequently amongst the strongest of similar waters in Europe. The analyses of the mud and of the waters, as well as the experience of the last ten years, have proved their great efficacy in female complaints, syphilis, and scrofula. Despite the primitive arrangements, these mud-baths, which are rich in iodine and organic acids, are yearly visited by over 1000 patients.

The mineral waters department of the central administration of the Ministry of Domains has provided some 10,000 free baths for 453 persons at the watering-places belonging to this department—305 at Lacul-Sarat, 101 at Govora, and 47 at Calimanesci.

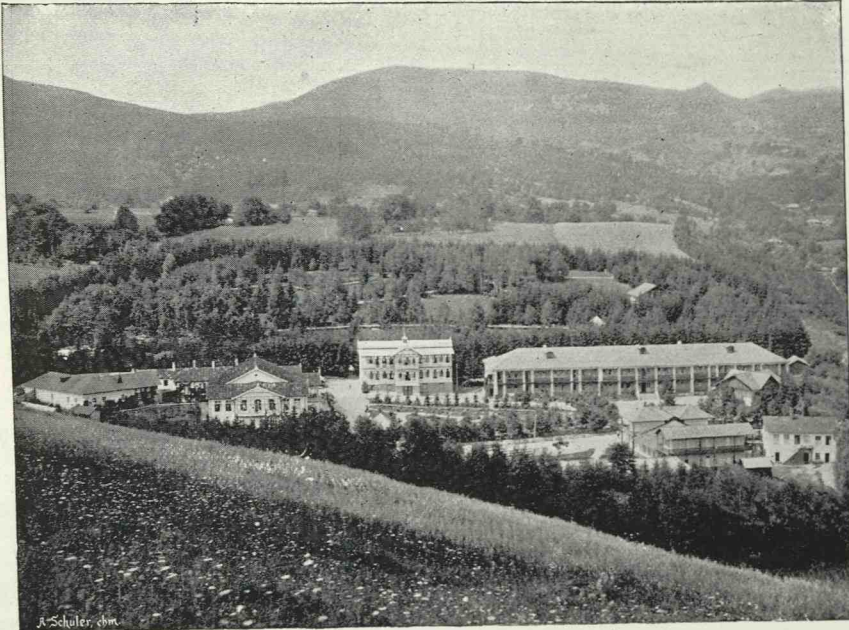
Formerly Slanic, in the Bacau district, belonged also to the State, but is now attached to the administration of the St. Spiridion Hospital at Yassy. This place abounds in sulphurous and lithium springs, which contain salt, iodine, alkalis, bicarbonate, and iron, and in their efficacy approach those of Selters, Ems, Gleichenberg, Kissingen, Spa, and Hall. By the erection of spacious structures the Hospital administration has put Slanic on a level with modern watering-places. Amongst the specialities are hydropathic and hot-air sections. Lying at the foot of the Carpathians, 530 metres above sea-level, and surrounded with pine-woods, Slanic is also suited for the pure-air treatment, and valued accordingly. Of its seventeen springs, ten are used for bathing and for drinking. Yearly visitors, 2000; baths, 12,000, besides 2500 free.

Of the watering-places on private estates and conducted by the owners, the most noteworthy are:—

Strunga, in the Roman district near the Tirgu-Frumos railway station, where are three sulphur springs and notably a chalybeate spring, which have been known since the year 1834; here are also mineral mud-baths, inhalation rooms, etc.

The Saru-Dornei springs contain, besides all this, arsenical com-

binations, and the water is exported under the name of *Isvorul Crucei* ('Holy Cross Well'). It has a pleasant acid taste, and is also taken with wine. Although discovered so early as the year 1788 by the Austrian naturalist, Hacquet, it was long before the efficacy of these waters was duly appreciated.

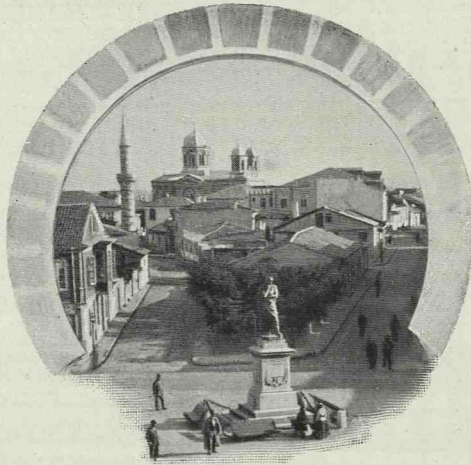


BALTZATESTI BATHS, NEAR PIATRA-NEAMTZ.

At a distance of 27 kilometres from Piatra-Neamtz lies the Baltzatesti watering-place, which is beautifully situated at an altitude of 470 metres above the sea. In the year 1872 these baths came into the possession of the late Dr. Cantimir, who raised them with much energy and many sacrifices to the position of a modern bathing and hygienic establishment. They are visited in yearly increasing numbers by patients not only from Rumania, but also from Austria, Hungary, Bulgaria, Greece, and Turkey.

There may further be mentioned : Meteor, in the Buzeu district ; Bughea, in Campu-Lung ; Puciosa and Vulcana, in Dambovitza (the latter very rich in iodine) ; Valeni de Munte (baths on the Kneipp system) ; and many others.

As a seaside resort, Constantza is very popular and much visited. Here are three bathing establishments, besides sand-baths, which are coming more and more into favour. For sea-bathing, the growth of Constantza goes hand in hand with its development as a seaport.



THE OVID MONUMENT, CONSTANTZA.

CHAPTER VIII.

Forestry.

THE extent of land under timber is less than the normal average, especially on the spacious plains of Moldavia and Walachia, where large wooded tracts are now rarely met. The extensive Baragan region and a great part of Dobruja are absolutely treeless. On the other hand, the Carpathian zone presents great stretches of woodlands, rich in forest growths, extraordinary quantities of which are, however, utterly wasted. Nevertheless, Rumania is distinguished from the neighbouring states by the considerable extent of land still under forest. This amounts at present to from about $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $1\frac{3}{4}$ million hectares, or one-sixth of the superficial area of the kingdom.¹

The character of the woods in the mountainous region is determined by the fir, beech, and green alder; on the foot-hills by the fir. On the plains the prevailing forms are the common and variegated oak; on marshy places, the black alder. The species most in request amongst cabinetmakers and coopers is the *Quercus conferta*, which grows to a height of 30 or 40 metres, while the ash attains 30 and the elm 35 metres, with a girth of $1\frac{1}{2}$ metre.

The Carpathians and Transylvanian Alps are clothed with pines, larches, firs, dwarf junipers, and birches, whereas in Little Walachia and the eastern parts of Moldavia yews are found on the higher mountains.

Wherever the woodman's axe has not yet penetrated, the mountain

¹ If the land under mere scrub be included, the area will exceed two million hectares. Of this over one million belongs to the State alone, yielding a revenue of £140,000.

ranges are still clothed with primæval forest. Access to the uplands is at times obstructed by blown-down timber strewing gigantic and already partly decayed stems amid the tall firs. Higher up, stretches of bare rock alternate with stunted growths and dwarf juniper. Here are also situated the extensive upland pastures, which have continually encroached more and more on the pine-forests, whereby the aftergrowths get seriously injured. In places the slopes are carpeted with grasses and Alpine growths, and a hard and fast climatic line can seldom be drawn between the leafy and coniferous woodlands. Extensive beech-woods occur in the rolling hill-tracks, where also the apple and pear, as well as the medlar and walnut, grow wild. In a few places in Little Walachia the chestnut is also met.

The plains are planted with various species of maple, besides white beech, elms, acacias, whitethorn, and wild-plum trees, while the most diverse kinds of willows, poplars and alders, aspens and tamarinds thrive on the islands of the Danube, as well as along the banks of the lakes and rivers.

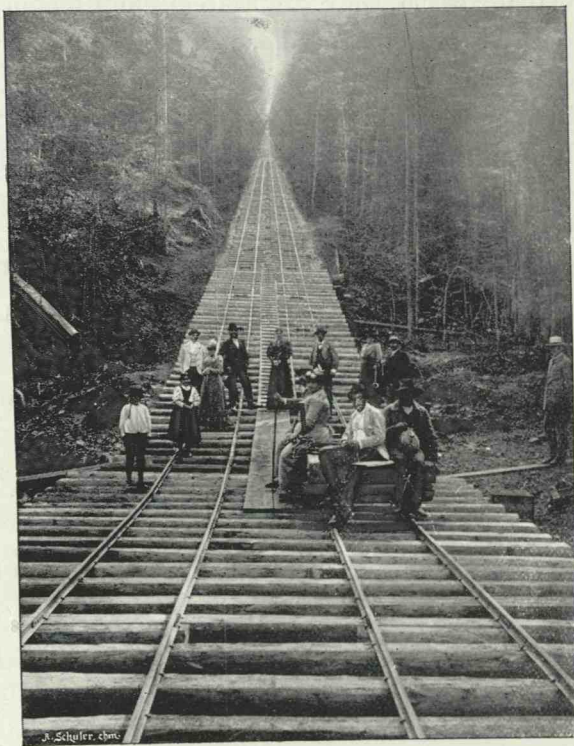
Everywhere in East and South Europe the forests are exploited in the most reckless manner. Such was also long the case in Rumania, where wood had in fact no market value.

But a change was brought about by two innovations—the secularisation of the monastic lands in the year 1868, by which the State acquired over a million hectares of forests; and the development of railway enterprise and of the lumber industry. Thereby timber gradually became more valuable, while more system was applied to the management of the forests. At first academically trained officials were secured for the Crown lands; then the State forests were provided with the necessary hands educated for the purpose, while the private woods were brought under some control. By these means, followed in 1886 by the introduction of government regulations in effecting clearances, an attempt was made to put an end to the hitherto prevailing wastefulness.

But there is still much to be done. Between 1882 and 1891, eighty-two of the private forests, comprising 98,836 hectares, and fifty-three belonging to the State, comprising 75,558 hectares, or presumably some 10 per cent. of the whole area under timber, had been brought under economic management.

In December 1899 the Austrian Consul at Bucharest gave the following account of the present situation :—

The intended thorough organisation of the Public Forest department, and the general radical improvement in forest culture, could not be brought about till the present time. Even so recently as some eight years ago, operations were exclusively restricted to the exploitation of the forests, without the slightest thought being given to their suitable replanting or general improvement. From this it may be inferred into what an unsatisfactory state they had fallen. Tracts with only 0.3 per cent. of full-grown timber are by no means rare. The magnificent and extensive oak forests, once so highly prized, have almost entirely disappeared in the vicinity of the railway tracks. The patches of stunted oaks and undergrowths here and there surviving on the formerly wooded, now cultivated lands, alone remain to recall a wealth of forest vegetation vanished beyond recovery. On the other hand, the upland woodlands, remote from the highways, were left untouched, through reluctance to incur the outlay needed to open them up. And if so far the State has kept in good condition its 1120 woods, of which, however, only 725 are exploited, the same is even still very far from being true of the large wooded tracts in private hands. Cases are by no means rare in which plantations are leased for thirty years at mere prairie value, from which brokers and middlemen have drawn and will continue to draw quite disproportionate returns.



A FOREST RAILWAY.

In fact, the forests of the Rumanian Carpathians present far too tempting a field for speculating capitalists, who, thanks to the impetuosity of private owners, have an easy game to play. A systematic management of the woods is also often hindered by ignorance of forestry, a lack of practical and trained foresters, their bad treatment and poor pay, and the defective inspection of the private woods by the govern-

ment officials. Thus, during the last decade, a frightful extent of woodlands has been cleared. Where, till quite recently, magnificent timber was still standing, nothing is now to be seen except worthless herbage, poor unproductive arable ground, or else plantations so badly managed that they can scarcely any longer be regarded as such.

At present there are scarcely ten of the private owners who have their estates systematically managed, while hundreds allow their woods to be wasted by reckless lumber-dealers or ignorant officials. In Rumania the prices of timber are in places so favourable, that the woods might yield decidedly more than bad pasturage and poor tillage. Hence the landowner can only be recommended to consult one, or, better still, several practical and professional forest officials before clearing the forest tracts for agricultural purposes, which doubtless may under certain circumstances be justified.

In the years 1888 and 1897 the imports and exports of building and cord wood were in tons as under :—

	Imports.	Exports.
1888,	156,756	111,740
1897,	560	50,690

Here it is to be considered, that till 1886 the importation of wood from Austria was free. But in that year a timber duty was imposed, which had the effect of driving the Austria-Hungarian dealers to discontinue the forwarding trade. What a wide field is open to exporters is seen in the following table showing the quantities in tons forwarded in 1898 to various countries :—

Bulgaria,	10,683
Turkey,	9,025
Russia,	8,309
Austria-Hungary,	7,602
Italy,	4,903
France,	3,687
Netherlands,	3,309
Greece,	1,897
Egypt,	997
Belgium,	18

To Russia are sent chiefly petroleum drums for Batum ; to Austria,

staves for casks, oak and walnut logs; to Turkey and Bulgaria, mainly floated timber.

How important for the climate replanting might be has already been emphasised at the end of the chapter on agriculture. It would also help to supply the keenly felt want of timber in the treeless regions of Dobruja and of the great Baragan district, where the shelled maize cobs alone, or mixed with dried and chopped cow, horse, and camel dung, serve as fuel. Nor can there be any doubt that in these regions forest culture would well repay the large landowners, apart altogether from the consideration that by partly replanting, especially such thinly inhabited districts as Yalomitza, Braila, Covurlui, and Constantza, a more thorough cultivation of the arable ground reserved for tillage would then become possible.

Meanwhile, however, the afforesting experiments are much impeded, as also, for instance, in Italy and Istria, by the communal fire-bote and cattle-grazing rights of the poor, causing much damage to the young undergrowths.

The wood industry is spreading more and more, and instruction in wooden-ware work is given in thirty-four model schools.

As will be more fully explained further on, as many as forty-two sawmills have been established in recent years, besides six factories for inlaid woodwork, and in Comanesti (Bacau district) a joint-stock company with a capital of £320,000 for developing the woodwork industry.

Most of the pitch-pine and deal comes from Moldavia, and more particularly from Piatra in the Neamtz district, Targu-Ocna and Steresti. The deal business of the Valcea district in Little Walachia, where 100,000 cubic metres are yearly worked up, is of the first importance.

In winters when little snow falls, causing a state of low water in the mountain streams, there is often a falling-off in the supply of lumber, which cannot then be floated down from the uplands. Oak wood is often still clumsily and wastefully cut up in small sawmills, five or six in number, which are able to make both ends meet only through the cheapness of the raw material. Railway sleepers, staves, and timber for building are prepared with handsaws. In the year 1898, the price of oak logs ranged according to quality from fifty to seventy francs per square metre, while pitch-pine and deal fetched up to forty-three francs.

The measures taken to preserve the older woodlands have been attended by less success than the efforts made by the government to replant the bare rising grounds of Dobruja and the extensive sandy tracts, where, as already stated, the most diverse species of vine are cultivated with good results. These are best seen in the so-called Piscul district, which was abandoned by the peasants in the year 1883, because their houses were threatened by the drifting sands. Now the plantations in that district—at once an ornament and a protection to the land—cover an area of over 10,000 hectares.

It is pleasant to add that the farmers are following the good example of the government, planting in their turn little thickets and nurseries.

CHAPTER IX.

Industries.

IN dealing with the industrial life of the East, the house industries of the peasants, supplying all their personal needs, have to be distinguished from those of the towns, each of which is confined to some special craft. The first and more generalised activity corresponds to the most primitive stage of domestic economy, going hand in hand with husbandry and stock-breeding, and serving to meet independently the earliest requirements in respect of clothing, habitations, food, as well as household utensils and economic appliances. At this stage is still found the whole of the eastern world subject to Turkish rule.

This is due partly to racial characters, partly to the fact that the rural classes have not yet reached the cultural stage represented in the towns by the division of labour and the banking system.

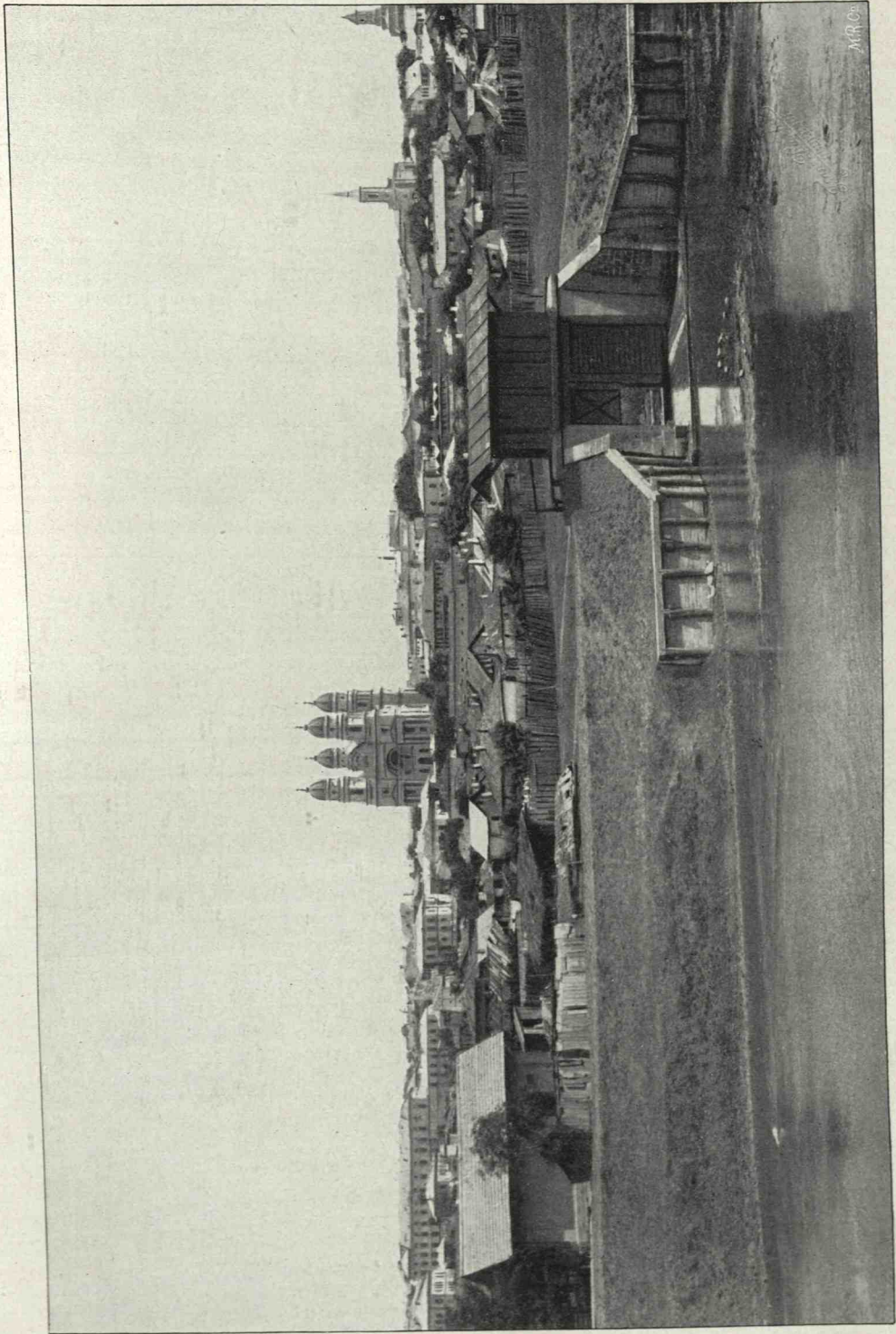
In Rumania itself nearly two-thirds of the inhabitants are still occupied with agriculture. In the villages, apart from the innkeeper, the only craftsman to be met with is the smith, who is usually a gypsy, and also undertakes the mending of agricultural implements. The wooden household utensils are mostly made by the peasants themselves, who also build their own dwellings. The underclothing and other garments fall to the women, who spin and weave the flax and wool which they have themselves gathered, and from which they make all the family clothing, in all these handicrafts displaying remarkable skill. The trades properly so called as regular pursuits, though still only in small way,

were till a few decades ago in the hands of immigrant foreigners—Jews, Austrians, Germans, etc.—while large industries were absolutely non-existent. For the natural products which the country was able to supply there lacked for the most part that technical treatment which is looked for in commodities intended for the markets of the world. Moreover, all means of transport were absolutely undeveloped—no roads, railways, or canals.

Not till a few decades ago was there any question of a vigorous utilisation of the resources of the land—the woods, the coalfields, mineral stores, abundant water-power. Most of the raw products had to be exported or allowed to run waste, while, despite its wealth of local produce, the country had to import great quantities of provisions. Flour came from Buda-Pest, wine from Hungary and France, butter and meat from Transylvania, cheese from Switzerland and Paris, beer from Austria, petroleum from America.

In the new industrial movement the first step was the local manufacture of the more primitive wares, such as cloth, leather, carpets, etc. About the beginning of the sixties two factors combined to quicken the development of Rumania as a modern industrial country—its political and economic consolidation after the Crimean War, and the introduction of railways.

At the Congress of Paris in 1856 the Lower Danube was neutralised, and the international Danubian Commission appointed, one of its objects being to regulate its navigation. From that moment the two Western Powers, France and England, set to work to bring the Balkan Peninsula, and more especially Rumania, into permanent dependence on their industries, and in this they succeeded all the more easily since exchanges were possible only by sea. This state of dependence lasted till the end of the sixties. Meanwhile, however, the natural resources of the land had attracted much capital and intelligent enterprise, speculators, contractors, and engineers. By the construction of railways the opening of many mines and of the rich forests became possible, and hand in hand therewith followed the expansion of the highways, the increase in the public expenditure, above all by the State for the army, by the communes for schools, irrigation, and so on. Everywhere throughout the land canalisation works, aqueducts, electric lighting, and other



Yassy.

From a Photograph by Franz Duschek, Bucharest.

innovations were planned and partly even carried out in all the towns, while large French, Italian, and other building concerns, electric works and the like, have either been founded or else have established branches in the country.

Thus was the industrial spirit planted and stimulated, and within a decade Rumania had already developed a national industry which has even been in evidence at the world's shows, as may be seen in the statistical tables in the Appendix. A vivid picture of its prosperity has been presented by the Paris Exhibition of 1900.

Several local exhibitions have been opened, the first at the suggestion of D. Butculescu in the year 1883 at Bucharest, where the exhibitors numbered 675. The second was that of Yassy in 1884, with 740; the third that of Craiova in 1887, with 860; the fourth in 1894, again at Bucharest, with 1300; and the fifth in 1896, at Constantza, with 1740 exhibitors.

An encouraging side of the industrial energy and manual skill of the Rumanians is presented by the artistic products of the house industry, such as lace-work, wood-carving, rush and willow basket-work, executed for the most part by the female section of the population. Especially after field operations are over they ply the loom and the spindle almost exclusively. The self-spun silk, the woollen and flax yarns, are worked up in the looms, mostly of a primitive type, producing durable white and coloured fabrics of diverse kinds and qualities, all agreeable to the eye, and with them are blended large quantities of cotton yarns imported from abroad. Usually such tissues are either directly offered for sale or intrusted to some local packman to be hawked about, or else bought up by the dealers for the market.

In the upland districts the men occupy themselves with wood-carving, table and kitchen ware, tubs, pails, and suchlike common utensils. They also take in hand basket and rush work, the products being offered for sale at very low prices in the town markets. The innate taste for artistic wood-carving had slumbered for ages amongst the people; but the small household wares ornamented with designs—spoons, tubs, milk-pails, buckets—formed an attractive show at the Paris Exhibition of 1889 on the Quai d'Orsay, and met with a rapid

sale. The home industries will receive a fresh impulse, when the government or private companies direct this manual skill, as has already been done in Upper Bavaria, Switzerland, Tyrol, and Norway, to more remunerative fields—wood-sculpture and carving of furniture, for instance—and thus open up larger and richer markets.

The original motives and patterns of the lace and woven goods, such as caused well-earned astonishment at the first universal exhibition of Paris, are now utilised as stimulating designs in the West European art industries.



NATIONAL COSTUME.

All visitors to Rumania are at once struck by the fine sense of form in the female dress, and by the inborn feeling of the people for a harmonious arrangement of lines and colours. Queen Elizabeth has founded schools in Bucharest with stalls attached, where may be procured both woven goods and the picturesque and beautifully embroidered national costumes. The government has also established workshops for weaving at the nunneries of Agapia, Valeni, Horezu,

and Dintr'un Lemn. Besides the necessary materials and designs, all the peasant women wishing to learn weaving receive a daily pay of 50 bani—about fivepence. Of their handiwork 50 per cent. are purchased on behalf of the State treasury; 25 per cent. are distributed amongst them proportionately to the quantity of work done by each,

and for the remaining 25 per cent. they receive the full price in cash when the goods are sold.

Further details are given below of the general progress in technique, the normal schools for weaving, carving, and other specialities, and the opening up of new markets.

Over fourteen years ago the Vienna *Allgemeine Kunstchronik* thus wrote on Rumanian weaving as a home industry :—

‘The coverlets, shawls, cretonnes, display an eminently decorative character. The colours are thoroughly fast, while they show perfectly correct linear designs. Plant motives are rarely presented, and even then are almost exclusively restricted to the conventional pink which the Rumanians have borrowed from their neighbours, the Saxons of Transylvania, whose artistic and home-made wares everywhere exhibit this flower, one might say, as the national emblem. Weaving is almost universally diffused as a house industry. There are few homes where the wife does not possess her loom, a most primitive contrivance, with which her skilful hand nevertheless turns out beautiful fabrics with strictly correct artistic designs. In many villages she works the whole year, in others only in winter, when field operations are over. The Rumanian dwellings are for the most part completely decorated with many-coloured tapestries, in combination with which the rafters, black with smoke, and the great Dutch stove form a pleasant interior.’

In the large towns the petty industries are being more and more developed. In Bucharest especially, boot and shoe making and peltry, besides the preparation of clothes and underclothing, and small ironmongery, have reached a fairly prosperous state. In this category must also be included many establishments engaged in the preparation of various kinds of preserved vegetables and meats, and of confectionery. For all these industries about sixty small engines are kept going in Bucharest. The textile industry also can point to many establishments of this sort at Ploesci and Buzeu, which hold their own against the large factories, and are gradually expanding.

The last crisis, in the autumn of 1899, has again shown how seriously the steady development of a country may be imperilled, so long as its purchasing power is mainly dependent on the fluctuating harvests, while the chief articles of primary necessity have to be imported. It is at variance with the principles of political economy for a modern State which has to study international credit and the markets of the world, to be dependent on the whim of the weather and crops for its purchasing

power, its development, and its credit. The merchant who calculates on a normal harvest often finds his stock a drug in the market, and suffers loss on his investments. Besides, the disposal of the raw produce itself and its market price are more and more affected by international competition beyond the seas.

In this dependence on incalculable factors, as well as in the feudal elements peculiar to the Rumanian economic system, and so out of harmony with the requirements of the modern body politic, lies the chief cause of the constantly recurring wholesale failures and commercial crises. These disasters are partly due also to the reckless straining of the credit system, while too little is done by traders with their own resources.

This antagonism between the economic and financial relations of the country can be removed only by awakening and stimulating its industrial and manufacturing productiveness. To achieve economic independence more encouragement must be given to the local industries, to foreign capital, and to skilled labour.

Agriculture and forestry, the exploiting of the mines and petroleum wells, are still both capable and in need of a far more thorough treatment than they have yet received. For the wood, cellulose (lignine), and paper industries, for sugar, glass-blowing, and cloth-weaving, for brewing, etc., the natural conditions are highly favourable. Another base for the expansion of a really national industry might be the establishment of such factories as might deal with the natural and agricultural products of the land. Amongst these would be establishments for the preparation, for instance, of meat extracts, tinned and cured meat. The American Union has taken practical steps to protect itself from all the vexatious tariff and frontier worries, introduced on the pretext of danger from the cattle-plague, by forwarding to the European markets the produce of its stock-breeding industry in the form of packed meat. This American system should also prove a great help to the Rumanian stock-breeders. Meanwhile there is nothing but a single joint-stock company at Bucharest engaged in the preparation of all kinds of preserves. There have also to be established large wine-exporting societies to aid in the systematic treatment of the native wines, the diffusion of mechanical weaving, of hardware and nail-making, and so on.

A company with the command of capital should also find it profitable to invest, especially in the purchase or renting of mineralised lands, estates, forests, quarries, etc., whether to work them itself, or sub-let, grant concessions, or re-sell partly or altogether. It might also provide motor power, sawmills, and all kinds of establishments aiming at a systematic exploitation of underground, agricultural, and forest produce.

A company with such a working programme was founded in 1899, under the title of *Speranza* ('Hope') at Bucharest, with a capital of £60,000, and another in the summer of 1898, more especially for electric undertakings, with a joint-stock capital of £100,000.

The 'Belgo-Rumanian Trading and Industrial Joint-Stock Company,' founded in September 1898, with a capital of £320,000, aims more at the development of steam-factories and local railways. There had already been established the 'Rumanian Metallurgic Joint-Stock Company,' and the 'Société anonyme roumaine de Tramways et de Tramcars,' with £40,000 joint-stock.

From the returns of imports it appears that precisely the produce of those industries which are more or less directly connected with agriculture, and might therefore be best and most economically manufactured in the country itself from its own raw materials, are imported from abroad. For instance, Rumania imports from France linens, coarse linen cloth, jute, and hempen cordage to an average yearly value of £640,000, besides paper, leather, and vegetable oils valued at several more tens of thousands of pounds. All this might be produced on the spot, as shown by a few flourishing factories. So also the stearine and soap works even yet import the greater part of their raw materials, amongst which tallow ranks first in importance. But by a scientific treatment of the offal, bones, etc., the local shambles might be made to yield enough tallow to supply all the Rumanian soap-works and still leave some over for exportation. Just as the timber, flour, leather, and spirit industries have already been largely developed, the above-mentioned branches, and even others also, might and will yet flourish in Rumania. Such, for instance, are, particularly in the seaports, mineral-oil refineries, linoleum-works, rice-hulling, vegetable oil, and coffee-cleansing mills.

Encouragement and information of all kinds might also be imparted by some central technical institute, such as the Commercial Museum,

established over ten years ago in Buda-Pest, and the various chambers of commerce founded more than half a century ago in Brussels, London, Vienna, Stuttgart, and such as this writer nearly ten years ago recommended to the Rumanian government in a special memorial. So early as 1877, also, the Ministry of Domains had taken into consideration the erection of an Industrial Museum, which might provide the more important appliances for the technical institute. The centralisation and systematic direction of all efforts aiming at the general good, scientific instruction in new technical systems, machinery, and implements, the establishment of normal schools and libraries, the judicious encouragement of new branches of industry and the opening up of the markets—all this would benefit the home industries in the first instance, and also the small crafts—as may be plainly seen, for instance, in Austria. Were a permanent exhibition superadded, as, for example, in Vienna, Buda-Pest, and Stuttgart, the taste and judgment of the public would be improved, and their range of purchase enlarged. Direct dealings as between consumer and producer would be to the advantage of many manufacturers, while the central establishment would serve all the purposes of an inquiry office. In a land where everybody looks to the government in all matters of industrial progress, a thorough specialist might, with the aid of such an exhibition, achieve surprising results.¹

The so-called Industrial Act of April 21, 1887, which had already been projected in 1883, was passed for the same reason that the protective tariff system had been adopted at the beginning of the eighties—to stimulate urban and industrial development, attract foreign capital, and encourage industrial settlements.

This Act—which, as modified on November 9, 1899, will be found in the Appendix—grants to all new undertakings similar advantages to those provided for in the Servian Law of 1887, or in that of 1891, for the former free port and district of Trieste, more especially freedom from imposts, gratuitous concession of building-ground, and fifteen years' exemption from taxes.² The factories mentioned in Appendix I.

¹ The erection of such a museum has been decided upon, and intrusted to the architect, M. Artonesco, whose plans are already prepared.

² The most advantageous condition is the fifteen years' exemption from taxes for new establishments; moreover, low transit rates are conceded on the Rumanian railways, and

have also availed themselves of the 1887 enactment. The table will at the same time show the extent to which the national industries have profited by their privileges.

The number of establishments enjoying the benefit of the Industrial Act rose from 120 in 1893 to 227 in July 1899. Owing to the lack of full returns, it is unfortunately impossible to ascertain the number of factories in Rumania, the amount of the investments, and the number of hands employed in them. In the Appendix, however, we have at least attempted to present a picture of the factories which have availed themselves of their privileges, and thus at the same time give some idea of the more important branches of industry. With a view to the further advancement of the home industries, all government officials were legally bound in 1897, as in the 1899 enactment in Austria, to supply their wants from the home makers.

An important innovation which was introduced by the revision of the Act, and is also, for instance, provided for in the Hungarian law of 1899 passed for the promotion of the national industries, enables the

the Act also holds out a prospect, even for the older firms, of fifteen years' freedom from duty on machinery, and all its appurtenances, as well as on materials intended for use in the factories, provided such materials are not procurable in sufficient quantities in the country itself. When the concession of a plot of public land seems required for the erection of a factory, such will be freely granted under certain conditions, and industrial establishments can especially obtain plots up to five hectares, whether on State, Communal, Crown, or Domain lands, either as freeholds or on a ninety years' lease, according as the millowner is a Rumanian or a foreigner. Further, they are released from all State, Communal, Domain, or Crown services in connection with the opening of communications—roads, railways, canals, etc.—which might serve to give the factory access to a highway, a railway station, a river, or a navigable canal. For imported products, such as cannot be supplied by the country itself, they are allowed to recover all duties when these are re-exported and have undergone any industrial change.

For the period of fifteen years they are :

- a.* Exempt from all direct State, District, and Communal taxes.
- b.* Are allowed lower railway rates on wares, machinery, raw materials, and all else used in their works.
- c.* Reduced postal charges on the carriage of these wares in the interior of the country.

The enjoyment of the reductions under *b.* and *c.* is dependent on the fulfilment of the following conditions :

- (1) The parties concerned must invest not less than £2000, and employ at least twenty-five hands daily for at least five months in the year.
- (2) Within five years two-thirds of the hands must be Rumanians.

communes in future to exempt from communal taxes those industrial undertakings also which do not come within the strict provisions of the Act. This encouragement of the local municipal bodies to stimulate the home industries should bear good fruit, since the State can grant privileges only to such branches as possess importance from the general economic standpoint of the nation, whereas all industrial enterprise is important for the local corporations and interests, increasing as it does the local consumption and the industrial resources of the people.

The expectations inspired by the Industrial Act have no doubt been but partly fulfilled, as indeed could scarcely be otherwise. While fully recognising the good intentions of the government, it has still to be confessed that the old experience has here again been confirmed that all such privileges are unable to create a really vital industry. After all, petty enactments must always remain of secondary importance, while the other factors—capital and skilled labour—are everywhere of slow growth. Special obstacles to the development of new industrial branches are presented by the sparse population, the lack of capital, and impaired credit, depending on the fitful nature of the political economic system. Under the present conditions, such establishments alone can at first flourish as are independent of the Rumanian banks, whose advances are made at high rates of interest. It is precisely owing to this want of capital that a number of the new undertakings have failed.

Towards the middle of the year 1900, the 1886 Commercial Law was further modified in order to facilitate the establishment of foreign joint-stock companies, with a view to the encouragement of those financial operations which are needed for the expansion of the great industries. The previous legal provisions aimed at leaving the direction of joint-stock affairs in the hands of Rumanian administrators. But such control often proved unsatisfactory, and the new law consequently requires only one-third of the directors to be Rumanians, while at the same time excluding the former interference of the government in the internal management of the associations. Moreover, greater facilities were afforded for the acquisition of ground for the erection of factories, and for dispensing with the guarantees hitherto exacted. A further change concerns the national and foreign life insurance companies, the

former of which have to leave one-fourth, the latter one-half, of the paid-up premiums in the State Deposit Bank. Henceforth this need no longer be done exclusively in Rumanian stock; but to this purpose may also be applied such other values as may be declared admissible by the treasury, as well as any good securities on real estate in Rumania. Further, the right hitherto conceded to the government of annulling concessions granted to companies is surrendered, and the decision in controverted cases left to the courts. Mining and railway companies whose capitals are absorbed in the initial outlays are bound to apply a certain portion of the yearly profits to the redemption of a number of shares. Lastly, those conditions are also abrogated which required the representative of a company to be approved of by the government. Henceforth he has only to produce an authenticated copy of his certificate.

On the subject of wages, the following data may serve to form a general estimate:—In 1898 the Azuga Cement Mills paid the men 2.50 and the women from 1.50 to 2 francs daily; the Azuga Cloth Factory, men from 2 to 4, women from 1.50 to 1.80 francs daily; the Saltworks, from 1.20 to 1.50 francs daily; while convicts receive from 60 to 80 bani (centimes).

In Bucharest a mason's daily wage averages from 6 to 7 francs, a good day-labourer's 4, a gravedigger's 4.50 to 5.50 francs; while the stonecutters in quarries are paid by the piece, and earn from 5 to 10 francs.

CHAPTER X.

Communications.

I. Railways.

IT has been said by the American political economist Carey that the highest and heaviest charges which labour has to pay are the costs of transport. How oppressive are these charges and how greatly they retard progress is even still seen in some of the Turkish provinces; while on the other hand the influence exercised by the modern steam transport on the economic development of a country may be clearly observed in the more recent economic history of the Eastern States. Only a few decades ago, traffic was still carried on in Rumania on utterly neglected tracks by means of rude ox-wagons. Nothing was done for the highways because, as for instance also in many German districts, people feared they would prove more harmful if found practicable by hostile forces. The first roads were taken in hand by the government over seventy years ago, and at the beginning of the sixties they had a total length of 775 kilometres. But a new and unknown factor was, so to say, sprung upon the land by the sudden appearance of the locomotive.

On November 1, 1869, the first Rumanian railway was opened, between Bucharest and Giürgiu, a distance of seventy kilometres. This was followed by the Itzcani-Roman line (102 kilometres); and the network advanced from 936 kilometres in 1872 to 1514 in 1883.

Amongst the more important sections are those running from Bucharest to Vercerova on the frontier (382 kms.); from Bucharest

through Buzeu, Bacau, and Paşcani to Burduyeni, also on the frontier (446 kms.); from Paşcani through Yassy to Ungheni on the Russian frontier (97 kms.); from Bucharest through Ploesci to Predeal on the frontier (144 kms.); from Bucharest through Buzeu and Braila to Galatz (261 kms.); from Bucharest through Feteşti (Danube Bridge) to Constantza (227 kms.); from Comanesti to Palanka (56 kms.). Of the Danubian ports the following have railway connections: Turnu-Severin, Calafat, Corabia, Turnu-Magurele, Zimnicea, Giurgiu, Calaraşi, Feteşti, Cernavoda, Braila, and Galatz.

In 1879 the government began the nationalisation of the railways, and since 1888 all the lines have been State property. That the administration not only of the railways, of railway buildings, and of the docks, but also that the control of the National Bank and of all large credit establishments should be in the hands of the people themselves, implies for the land and its inhabitants a great advancement both in technical and economic as well as in moral respects.

Of the railways, which have at present a total length of 3140 kilometres, 1270 kilometres were constructed by concessionaires at an expenditure of £18,672,000, and 1870 by the State for £11,108,000, making a total of 3140 kilometres and an outlay of £29,380,000.¹

In the period from 1889 to 1897 the income, expenditure, and net profits were as under:—

YEARS.	Lines. Kilo- metres.	RECEIPTS.					Expendi- ture.	Net Profits.
		Passen- gers.	Goods.	Quick Service.	Goods Trains.	Total.		
In millions of francs.								
1889	2402	11.7	0.3	0.8	20.4	36.2	24.5	11.7
1890	2416	12.5	0.4	1.0	22.7	40.1	26.0	14
1892	2462	15.2	0.4	1.1	23.0	42.7	29.9	12
1893	2488	16.0	0.4	1.1	27.6	49.0	34.8	14
1894	2505	16.6	0.4	1.2	24.6	47.0	34.6	12
1895	2526	16.1	0.4	1.2	23.8	44.8	33.7	11
1897	2872	18.3	0.6	1.1	26.3	48.9	37.0	11

¹ In connection with the public outlay on the construction of railways, it has to be considered that the required capital had to be borrowed, so that the actual outlay is correspondingly higher.

In the same period the number of passengers and the tonnage of goods per kilometre was as follows :—

YEARS.	Passengers per kilometre. Millions.	p. kilometre. Receipts. Francs.	Tons per kilometre. Quick Service. Millions.	p. kilometre. Receipts. Francs.	Tons per kilometre. Goods Trains. Millions.	p. kilometre. Receipts. Francs.
1889	174	4876	3	362	370	8,505
1891	325	5828	3	475	485	10,237
1892	364	6175	4	465	448	9,337
1893	374	6436	4	534	556	11,081
1894	390	6637	5	502	494	9,828
1895	375	6380	5	474	477	9,401
1897	385	6380	6	472	500	9,150

The budget for the financial year 1900 shows the following items : receipts, £2,480,000 ; expenses, £2,000,000. Of the receipts one-third (£840,000) are credited to the fares of passengers and their luggage, £120,000 to the sea-going service, £68,000 to the dock business, £1,260,000 to goods traffic, and £72,000 to the express service.

In 1898 first-class passengers numbered 235,000, second-class 900,000, and third-class 4,400,000, the passenger traffic yielding altogether £780,000.

Owing to complaints of the lack of rolling stock, 300 additional trucks and 30 locomotives were procured in 1899, and the deficiency thus in great measure made good. A sum of £580,000 was also expended on the construction of large repairing workshops at Bucharest and Yassy, whereby damaged plant can now be more rapidly repaired. Recently also the speed of the express goods trains has been considerably increased, and a more rapid passenger service thereby made possible.

For the Rumanian goods traffic the corn export trade is naturally of the greatest importance. Hence the legislature has laid down the principle that the primary duty of the railways is to facilitate the sale of home produce abroad by low rates. The charges have accordingly been so greatly reduced that they are now almost everywhere lower than those of most other European railways. All special and exceptional tariffs are on a sliding-scale of charges. Thus for wheat 5.90, 5.50, 5, 4.50, 4, and 3.50 centimes are charged on the respective

distances of 50, 50 to 100, 100 to 150, 150 to 200, 200 to 250, and 250 to 300 kilometres, and beyond that 3 centimes on all distances. Of the European State railways that of France alone forwards at lower rates than the Rumanian up to 300 kilometres, beyond which both tariffs are equal. As the distances for wheat average 165 kilometres, the rates are about 3.9 centimes a ton per kilometre.

As for goods, the fares for passengers were also reduced in 1890, especially for long distances, and a zone tariff introduced up to 25, and from 25 to 50 kilometres. Thus 1 to 10, 11 to 15, 16 to 20, 21 to 25, 26, and 27 kilometres cost 25, 40, 50, 60, and 70 centimes respectively, and beyond that every kilometre 5 centimes. According to the latest returns of the railway administrations, the passenger fares, compared with those of other countries, stand thus:—

		I.	II.	III.
Rumania,	10 km.	0.90	0.65	0.25
	300 „	23.40	15.75	10.50
Hungarian State Railways,	10 „	0.63	0.32	0.21
	300 „	18.90	12.60	8.40
Austrian State Railways,	10 „	0.80	0.43	0.27
	300 „	23.79	14.15	7.73
North-west and North Bohemian Lines,	10 „	0.95	0.63	0.32
	300 „	24.11	16.07	8.04
Prussian and Saxon State Lines,	10 „	1.00	0.75	0.50
	300 „	30.00	22.50	15.00
Bavarian, Baden, and Alsatian Lines,	10 „	1.00	0.66	0.43
	300 „	30.00	19.89	12.75
French State Lines,	10 „	1.00	0.75	0.50
	300 „	30.60	22.70	14.80
French North, South, East, West, Orleans, Paris L.M.,	10 „	1.10	0.75	0.50
	300 „	33.60	22.70	14.80
Belgian State Lines,	10 „	0.75	0.55	0.40
	300 „	22.70	17.10	11.35
Italian Mediterranean Line,	10 „	1.13	0.79	0.51
	300 „	33.90	23.73	15.27
Switzerland, North-east Line,	10 „	1.05	0.75	0.50
	300 „
Servian State Line,	10 „	1.00	0.75	0.50
	300 „	30.00	22.50	15.00

For workmen's trains the determining rates are 80 centimes per carriage and kilometre with at least 40 persons, and 1 franc with at least 50 persons per carriage.

Amongst the economic reforms projected at the end of 1899, one had for its object the furtherance of local lines. A start in this direction had already been made in the summer of that year by the concession of a private line from Bucharest to Bucşani for a projected distance of forty-three kilometres.

The route through Rumania forms a rapid and safe connection between West and North Europe on the one hand, and the East on the other, including also the way by the Rumanian section of the Black Sea Coast; hence its paramount importance for German commercial relations in the Levant above all.

On March 1, 1898, an agreement was concluded between the German Empire and Rumania, stipulating, amongst other arrangements, that the postal and express train between Berlin and Bucharest through Cracow, Lemberg, and Czernovitz shall have at least a bi-weekly service in direct connection with an express train from Bucharest to Constantza, thus establishing a further connection with the Rumanian steam-packets plying between that port and Constantinople.¹

By the new route the journey from Berlin to Bucharest, which, under favourable conditions, has hitherto taken from 41 to 42 hours *viâ* Vienna and Bucharest, will be reduced to 33 hours; similarly that from Berlin to Constantinople, which took 64 hours across the Balkan Peninsula *viâ* Belgrade and Sofia, and 56 by the Oriental Express *viâ* Bucharest, will be reduced to 48 by the new line, which does not touch Bucharest, but branches off from Buzeu directly to Constantza. There

¹ The fares by this *train-de-luxe* have been fixed as follows:—

	I. Cl.	II. Cl.
From Bucharest to Berlin,	108.10 marks.	77.60 marks.
" " Breslau,	108.10 "	72.30 "
" " Hamburg,	134.80 "	97.40 "
From the port of Constantza to Berlin,	119.70 "	85.20 "
" " Breslau,	116.30 "	75.40 "
" " Hamburg,	146.40 "	106.00 "
From Constantinople to Berlin,	148.80 "	103.10 "
" " Breslau,	145.40 "	93.30 "
" " Hamburg,	175.50 "	122.90 "

is good reason to think that the Rumanian government intends to build a line from Focşani to Faurei, whereby another hour will be saved. The government has also in view an increase of the quick steamers plying between Constantza and Constantinople, so that in the near future this bi-weekly will develop to a daily service. King Charles and the then Prime Minister, D. Sturdza, took an active part in bringing about this treaty while the negotiations were conducted by M. Beldiman, Rumanian Envoy in Berlin.

It is further intended to establish a German-Rumanian Travellers' Bureau as a branch of one in Berlin, aiming chiefly at developing the connections between Berlin, Bucharest, and Cairo. It should be explained that Egypt is yearly growing in favour as a winter station for German tourists, who will thus find the trip considerably shortened by taking the Bucharest route. This bureau may also open a branch in New York for the purpose of deflecting the stream of tourist traffic from New York and London to the Berlin-Bucharest route for Alexandria. It is expected that the convenience of the *train-de-luxe*, combined with the advantage of a relatively short journey by sea and the opportunity of a trip by day through the Bosphorus, may attract to the Rumanian route a considerable number of the 95,000 tourists who yearly return to Europe from Alexandria by such luxuriantly equipped services.

II. Postal and Telegraph Departments.

Till 1869 Austrian and Russian post-offices were still maintained in Rumania, the former having charge of the postal service with West Europe. But these foreign agencies were abolished on April 1, 1869, and since then this department has been in the hands of the Minister of the Interior. The number of post-offices rose from 38 in 1863 to 345 in 1893, showing nearly a tenfold increase in that period. In 1892-93 the inland service had 2740 offices, and in the period from 1888 to 1899 the general business done was as under:—

	1898-99.	
Printed Matter,	36.6 mill.	(1894-95: 13.8 mill.)
		(1888-89: 4.9 „)
Samples,	1.0 „	

	1898-99.	
Letters,	19.3 mill.	
Postcards,	11.1 ,,	(1888-89: 3.4 mill.)
Money Orders,	524.3 ,,	francs.
Packages,	633,000	(1894-95: 148.8)
Postal Mandates,	835,000	(1894: 590)

The first telegraph line had already been opened by Prince Cuza. In January 1869 there were 50, and in 1895, 476 telegraph offices, including those of the railway stations. In 1897 the system comprised 6903 kilometres, and the despatches forwarded in that year numbered 2,300,000.

The telegraphic messages between Rumania and various countries were:—

Year.	Germany.	Austria-Hungary.	Gt. Britain.	France.	Russia.
1874,	8,000	96,000	10,000	16,000	9,000
1883,	31,000	135,000	23,000	32,000	29,000
1893,	60,000	129,000	41,000	45,000	49,000
1898,	81,225	217,641	47,825	44,875	54,712

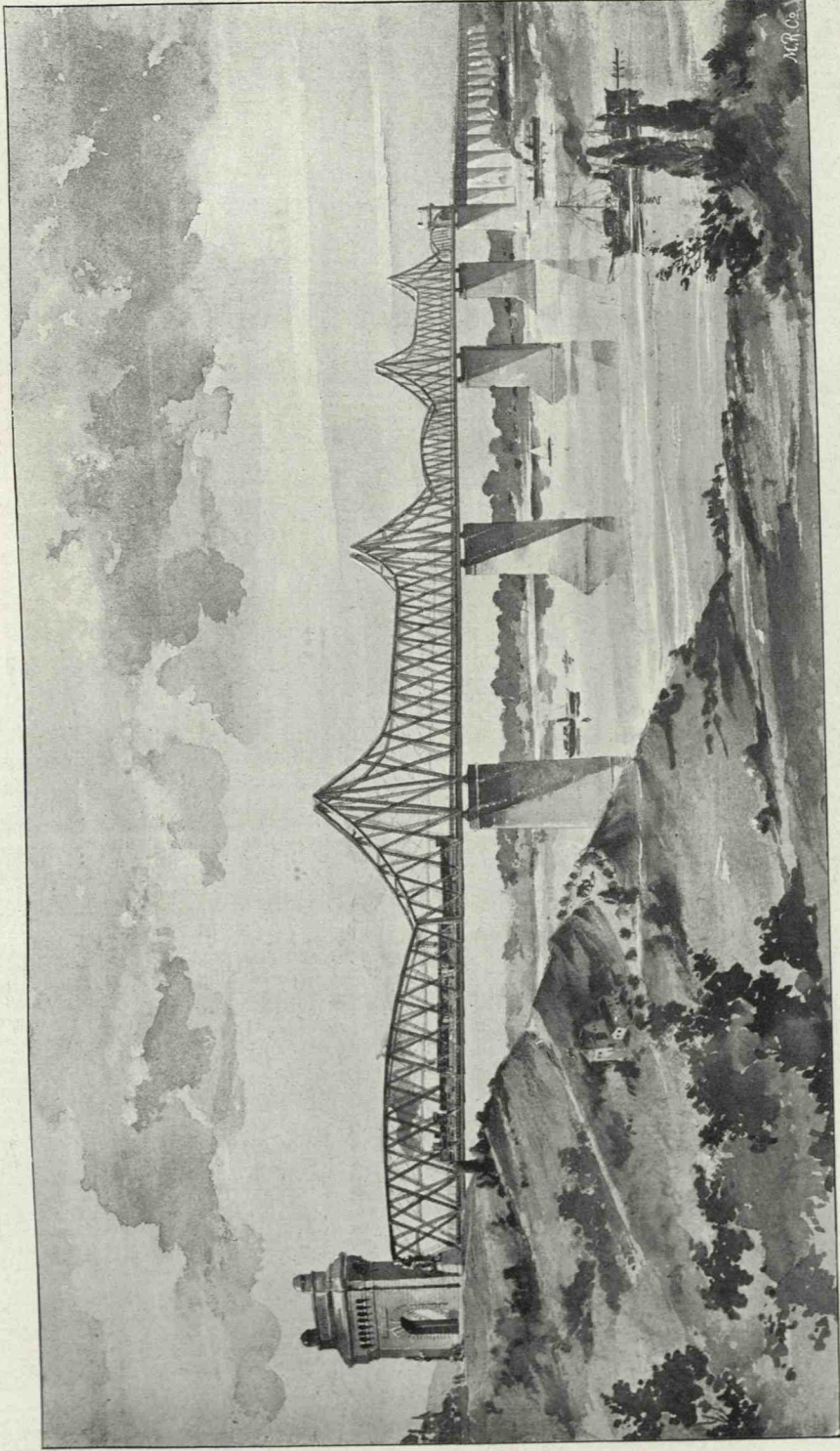
The total number of despatches forwarded in the same years were in thousands:—

	1874.	1883.	1893.	1898-99.
Foreign,	185	322	475	614.5
Home,	569	723	1040	1799.3
Total,	754	1045	1515	2813.8

The Income and Expenditure of the Postal and Telegraph Services were:—

YEAR.	RECEIPTS.			Expenses in millions of francs.	Difference in francs.
	Post Office in millions of francs.	Telegraphs in millions of francs.	Total.		
1863	0.5	0.8	1.3	2.5	-1,200,000
1874	1.2	1.1	2.4	3.3	- 928,000
1883	2.5	1.5	4.0	3.8	+ 201,000
1893	4.09	3.18	7.27	7.2	+ 70,000

Telephone Service: At the beginning of the year 1898 there were 893 telephone stations; 2600 subscribers; receipts £8840 compared with £4120 in 1894-95.



The „Regele Carol I.“ Bridge over the Danube.

III. Highways.

By the development of railway enterprise a fresh impulse was also given to that of the highways. Between the years 1891-94 a total sum of £600,000 was devoted to this department, and in 1896, according to MM. C. Staicovici and F. Robin's *Stat. Româna* (1898), Rumania possessed :—

State Highways,	2860 kilometres
District Roads,	4366 „
Communal Roads,	3861 „
Total,	19,977

involving for maintenance a yearly expenditure of from £160,000 to £200,000.

THE BRIDGE OVER THE DANUBE AT CERNAVODA AND THE PORT OF CONSTANTZA.

Of great economic importance is the great Danubian bridge 'Regele Carol I.' at Cernavoda, which forms the connecting link with the Black Sea ports. Henceforth England, Holland, Belgium, France, West and South Germany, Italy, and Switzerland are in a position, in forwarding their wares to the Banat, Transylvania, Bukovina, and part of Galicia, to utilise the cheap sea-route to the very utmost and then avail themselves of the land-route through Rumania.

The bridge seems moreover destined to improve the Rumanian sea-borne trade to a very considerable extent, as the Danube had hitherto afforded the only means of access to the sea, so that all traffic was suspended in winter while the navigation of the river was blocked by ice. The through communication by rail between Rumania proper and its outlying province of Dobruja is also of political and military importance. The new structure is distant 280 kilometres from the mouth of the Danube, and with the approaches stretches over a length of 20 kilometres. The broad riverside zone subject to inundations made its erection a most formidable undertaking, especially as, besides the double bridge, two costly viaducts had to be built, together with a strong stone dam across the Balta, as the marshy island is called which lies between

the Borcea and the Danube, and is flooded every spring. The total cost was £1,360,000.

The rail-head of the Bucharest-Fetești line carried over the bridge is at Constantza, to which point the journey from the capital is now



REGELE CAROL I. BRIDGE OVER THE DANUBE.

Photograph by FRANZ DUSCHEK, Bucharest.

shortened by six or seven hours. The harbour works are being vigorously pushed forward at Constantza, where the small natural haven will be enclosed, and the new harbour sheltered, by two great breakwaters. The basins will have a total area of 80 hectares, lined by quays 5 kilometres long, so that fifty large deep-sea vessels will be able

to moor close up to the wharves. The breakwaters are built of concrete blocks, which are placed in position by divers.

The works, which are to be finished out of hand in July 1902, comprise two basins, one of which—for the imports—is provided with large warehouse space and all the necessary appliances for rapid and direct unloading either into these depots or on to railway trucks. The other, reserved exclusively for the exports, is supplied with ample space for silo storage, together with practical loading contrivances. At one end of the harbour, special landing-stages are constructed for coal, and especially petroleum. The works will cost altogether some £2,000,000. In the year 1893 the English Johnston Shipping Company had already established an agency at Constantza, and organised a regular trading service between this port and Liverpool.

During the year 1898 the entries at Constantza were 654 ships with 126,315,000 kilograms of goods, and 14,718 passengers. In the same year 678 ships cleared with 231,000,000 kilograms of corn, 10,500,000 of other wares, and 13,955 passengers.

In the year 1899 the Rumanian government endeavoured to direct the trade between America and Egypt over the Constantza route. It projected—(1) a New York, Hamburg, Berlin, Czernovitz, Burduyeni, Constantza, Constantinople, Alexandria line; (2) a New York, Havre, Paris, Vienna, Vercerova, Bucharest, Constantza, Constantinople, Alexandria line. Thus would be secured a considerable transit trade both for the Rumanian railways and for the Rumanian shipping in the Black Sea and the Mediterranean. Hopes are accordingly fostered that Constantza will yet take rank as one of the most important harbours in the Black Sea. In support of such sanguine views it may be pointed out that only ten years ago a square metre of land in the outskirts of Constantza was sold for 10 centimes, whereas now it would fetch from 10 to 15 francs. Here is a field for a substantial building association, which might in a single decade raise Constantza to a level with Odessa.

Lastly, it may be mentioned that it has been decided to construct a second bridge over the Danube at Turnu-Severin, between Rumania and Servia, and that the preparation of the plans has been intrusted to the Rumanian engineer, A. Saligny, builder of the bridge. Moreover,

in the course of the last few decades no less than 19 iron bridges, with a total length of 4460 metres, have been erected at an outlay of £1,200,000.

A correspondent of the *Kölnische Zeitung* (No. 69, January 1897) gives, amongst other matters, the following vivid description of a trip on the Black Sea :—

A visit to Rumania is nowadays scarcely any longer to be thought of without an excursion to Dobruja, a peep at the great railway bridge and its accessories spanning the Danube at Cernavoda, and a view of the Black Sea at Constantza, or, as it was formerly called, Kustenje. Nor is such an expedition any great undertaking. Trains run daily from Bucharest to Constantza, covering the distance (237 kilometres) in about seven hours, while the short-tempered traveller who wants special comforts may once a week reach the Black Sea by the Orient Express, equipped with sleeping, saloon, and dining carriages. To be sure, for quite the greater part of the distance he need not expect to find it, as locally spoken of, an interesting railway trip—a shifting landscape of hill and dale, woods and meads, and running waters.

Dobruja, wrested from Turkey, and geographically if not also ethnographically belonging to Bulgaria, was the most worthless region that changed hands after the Russo-Turkish War. It was of some value only so far as in the port of Constantza it possessed an outlet to the sea which remains open while Braila and Galatz, the great Danubian corn-ports on the section of the river trending northwards between Fetești and Galatz, are blocked for months with frost and floating ice. Only, to utilise this waterway, there was needed an outlay of £8,000,000 and upwards to bridge the Danube at Cernavoda and build at Constantza a harbour with all modern conveniences and appliances suited for a really large trade. The young upward struggling kingdom has not shrunk from this formidable undertaking, and the first great result of its efforts was the Danubian bridge which now lies before us.

In its lower reaches the artery of the Danube acquires an imposing breadth. On the map you see a wide space coloured blue, where stand out a series of branches or channels. The whole of this tract, which in many places expands to over 30 kilometres, is flooded at high-water, and at many points has had here to be spanned by large bridges and viaducts, and elsewhere by a high stone barrage for a total length of 23 kilometres. First comes a three-arched bridge 420 metres long, thrown from the left bank across the so-called Borcea channel or arm of the Danube. The bridge proper is continued by a viaduct with 30 spans, and 650 metres long, which carries the rails over the strong stone causeway. Then this causeway traverses for a great distance the space subject to inundations, which at low-water forms a marshy island and, gradually rising, leads at last to a viaduct 900 metres long, which is disposed in fifteen 60-metre spans, and gives direct access to the Danubian bridge proper. This slender iron structure, spanning the main stream with a length of 750 metres, is disposed in five arches, of which the central is 150 and the others 140 metres wide. It has a weight of 4000 tons, and rests on two

mighty abutments on either bank and six stone pillars with ice-breakers. Of these, four are built in the stream and carried 30 metres above extreme high-water level, so that the tallest vessels ply freely under the bridge. The works were carried out by the French Fives Company of Lille, and this bridging of the Danube has cost Rumania £1,360,000. But a work has thus been created such as had not been seen in this part of the world since the days of Trajan—a work to which king and people, and especially their engineer, may point with just pride in proof of a high creative faculty.

Many a traveller grows dizzy as he glides over the bridge and looks down more than 100 feet on the surface of the stream. Below; on its margin, lies Cernavoda, a little riverside town of some 2000 inhabitants, which presents a far from inviting aspect. It is an Eastern settlement, whose dreary surroundings remind one of some American and Australian diggings. Here in Dobruja the country has the character of an elevated plain, without however attaining any great altitude. The railway track takes the direction pointed out by nature, through a long, very wide, and flat gully which is at once recognised as the old, or an old, bed of the Danube. The supposition is that during long ages here in the East the Black Sea coastlands have been rising and alluvium deposited, just as on the German Ocean the seaboard is subsiding and the ground washing away. But it must be left to others to decide to what extent the gradual upheaval is progressing, or whether in Dobruja other natural forces may not have shared in the work in prehistoric times. In any case the Danube may have once, perhaps many thousand years ago, here found no obstructions, and was thus able to take the nearest way to the sea. In this broad flat fluvial bed now graze numerous herds, partly owned by the descendants of those Tatars who, after the Crimean War, migrated thence into Turkey. Since the annexation of Dobruja to Rumania many have again wandered into Asia in the wake of the Sultan's waning star. Their withdrawal is reluctantly witnessed, for they are esteemed doubtless not as a fine but as a stout and vigorous race, and as a valuable section of a motley people now declining and difficult to replace. At present the population has fallen from over 250,000 to less than 200,000, of which the Rumanian element forms one-third, Turks and Bulgarians each a twelfth, and Tatars a sixth. The rest came from every imaginable nationality, the Greeks forming no inconsiderable proportion. Amongst this motley gathering there is even a little German community, which had originally wandered hither from Bessarabia. The government is making strenuous efforts to attract settlers to Dobruja, especially favouring Italians, on the natural ground that, as shown by experience, they merge most readily in the Rumanian nationality, and adapt themselves best to the climatic conditions.

Constantza is a bright little seaport which, during the eighteen years of Rumanian rule since the Berlin Congress, has greatly prospered, the population increasing from 3000 to nearly 10,000. The best standard of comparison is presented by the Bulgarian seaports of Varna and Burgas. No doubt these also have made considerable progress; but compared with Constantza, Varna with its 25,000 inhabitants, and Burgas, which may now number 7000, have lagged far behind. Varna, which long controlled the traffic of North and Central Europe with Constantinople, is, despite many new buildings, still a wretched Oriental town, with scarcely a single tolerable hostelry for European travellers. Burgas

has made relatively far greater strides than Varna ; but the surroundings have preserved a rustic aspect in keeping with the backlands and the local traffic. Constantza, on the other hand, has become a pleasant watering-place and seaport, with a distinctly European stamp, although Dobruja with its sparse and diversified population assuredly presented no favourable basis for such a development. Altogether, it is the merest justice to say of the Rumanians that pretty well everything that they have taken in hand since 1866 has from first to last been carried through with a definite aim. In this, the memory of the great Romans to whom Rumania owes its name, its speech for the most part, and to a certain extent its origin also, has been as fruitful as the intimate association which many of its best and most distinguished men have fostered for generations with the great cultured peoples of Europe. They aim higher than their neighbours, and have hitherto given solid proof that they possess the measured strength to reach the goal.

But Constantza is still much restricted in space for shipping, as well as for warehousing and corn-elevators. It will not enjoy the full advantage of its position for some years yet. On the inland side of the present harbour much level space will be obtained by shooting rubbish on the surface. Large docks and silo-depots have also been projected, while on the other side building operations are already in progress near the headland, from which the large new mole and breakwater is to be carried 800 metres seawards at right angles with the long-existing present little pier. The foundation stone of this great work was laid late in the year 1896. The harbour works and other new structures have been planned on a large scale in view of future developments, and when completed, at a contemplated expenditure of £2,240,000, should cover somewhere about the same area as those of Odessa. Besides the considerable advantages which the Constantza harbour will derive from its accessibility at all times, while those of Braila and Galatz on the Lower Danube are obstructed for months by frost and drift-ice, it is also hoped in Rumania that it will secure a certain portion of the Indian postal business. There can be no doubt that, under present conditions, by a well-organised steam service between Constantza and Egypt, a saving of twenty-four hours at least for North Europe would be effected on the present through route by Brindisi between Europe, India, and the Far East.

In this part of the world there is still room for all kinds of business. Fortune favours the brave and the enterprising, and those who have had an opportunity of closely observing the strenuous efforts of the Rumanians will wish them all success in their steamship and cattle-export ventures.

All things considered, it would merely be a return to the olden times were Constantza to acquire a great development, for this place had already played a great part in the ancient world. Then it bore the name of Tomi, Tomis, or Tomes, a name which even figured on the coins as that of the metropolis of the Euxine. That it was in those days an important and brilliant city appears from the remains of columns and statuary, of reliefs and inscriptions, which turn up in all directions. The Turks and their predecessors have built these remains into their house and garden walls without sense or system, and only a few years ago it was by no means a rare thing to find a sarcophagus doing duty as a cattle-trough for buffaloes and horses. Since the annexation the best and most valuable

objects have been brought to light and placed before the public by M. Tocilescu, a lover, connoisseur, and collector of the remains of classical antiquity. Many are now to be seen in the Bucharest Museum. A few years ago Tocilescu also found and exposed to view at Adam-Klissi, a few hours to the south-west of Medjidieh, Trajan's great triumphal monument, a massive cylindrical tower, 30 metres high by 30 in diameter, embellished with frieze-work and divers other carvings. The monument recalls the tomb of Cecilia Metella at Rome. The frieze has also been removed to the Bucharest Museum. Later, Tomi was re-named Constantia from the sister of Constantine the Great, and in the time of Theodosius is again described as a great and opulent city and metropolis of Pontus, but appears to have gradually declined, until at last it fell into the hands of the Bulgars and then of the Turks. It thus lost every vestige of its former significance; in place of which it was transformed by the Turks to a fortress, which in 1812 earned for it the distinction of a bombardment by the Russians. To the Russians also it surrendered in 1829 without drawing a sword; since then the fortifications have been razed, and, luckily for it, not again erected.

The most illustrious guest and resident of the ancient Tomi was Publius Ovidius Naso, author of the *Metamorphoses*, the *Amores*, and the *Ars Amandi*. Ovid was banished by Augustus to Tomi, where he mourned away the last eight years of his life.

IV. Navigation.—The European Danubian Commission.

Rumania's natural trade route is the Danube, which traverses the land for a distance of 955 kilometres—34·5 per cent. of its entire navigable length of 2743 kilometres—from Vercerova at the Bahna rivulet to the seaport of Sulina. At the head of the deep-sea navigation stand the great commercial cities of Galatz and Braila, the latter with a large wheat-export trade. This mighty waterway, which from remote times had maintained the commercial relations between East and West, has lost nothing of its economic importance by the expansion of the railway system and the development of navigation. The fluvial navigation, which by the mechanical perfection of the river craft has secured a considerable reduction of the transport charges, is now in a position to carry freights at one-half of the former rates, thereby rendering possible the furtherance of many articles which could not bear higher charges.

This circumstance is of great advantage, for instance, for the wheat-export trade. A wagon-load of wheat weighing 10,000 kilograms costs 345 francs from Galatz to Buda-Pest, but only 160 by tow-boats. For the down-stream service there are even lower rates. Thus considerable

consignments of flour have been sent from Buda-Pest to Galatz (for Rotterdam) by tow-boats at the rate of 60 francs per wagon-load.

The efforts made by Rumania to achieve her economic independence have nowhere met with so many difficulties as in the attempt to secure a controlling influence over the passenger and goods carrying-trade beyond the kingdom itself. Only a few years ago she was in this respect still entirely dependent on foreign countries, and especially on Austria-Hungary, which controlled this traffic on the one hand by the Danube Steamship Company, and by the Austria-Hungarian Lloyd's on the other.

The first inducement to establish a Rumanian steam service on the Danube was occasioned by the Directors of the State Monopoly Department undertaking the export of salt to Servia, whereby great difficulties arose out of the transport question. Rumania was driven to provide ships of her own, and the Directors were commissioned to procure the necessary materials for building them, a total credit of £200,000 being placed at their disposal for this purpose in the years 1890-92. With this sum not only were the required vessels provided, but the wharves constructed by the Austrian Steamship Company at Turnu-Severin were bought up.

This carrying business was so rapidly developed that it was soon able to enter into friendly reciprocal relations with the South German (Bavarian) Danube Steamship Company.

A great influence was exercised on the progress of navigation and of the local transport service by the 'European Danubian Commission,' which was appointed in 1856 independently of the Rumanian government, and in which are represented the seven Powers who took part in the Paris Congress of March 30, 1856, and since 1885 Rumania itself. The Administration, which has its seat at Galatz, is intrusted with the execution of such works as are necessary for the maintenance of the navigation of the Danube, consequently with the regulation of the river, the removal of all obstructions in the Sulina branch and at its mouth, as well as the steady improvement of the waterway, for which purpose large workshops are maintained.

The operations begun by the Danubian Commission in 1857, and comprising the section of the river from Braila-Galatz to the Sulina

mouth, are in every respect amongst the most imposing and successful of such fluvial regulations. They aimed on the one hand at deepening the channel, on the other at the construction of a seaport at Sulina. The first object was achieved by cutting through twenty-three sharp and dangerous windings in the Sulina branch, and thus creating a straight channel which is $22\frac{3}{4}$ kilometres shorter than the old river-bed.

For both objects an outlay of £2,440,000 was incurred between the years 1857 and 1896, £1,400,000 being for completed works, and £1,040,000 for administrative costs.

The Commission also does the policing of the river and its navigation, and levies fixed shipping-tolls determined by a majority of votes. Although the tariff has repeatedly been reduced, the revenue increases none the less from year to year, and now averages about £80,000—£52,000 in 1888, £116,000 in 1893, and £80,000 in 1898. By the London Congress of 1883 the existence of the Commission is assured till the year 1904.

The growth of trade through the Sulina branch and the Sulina mouth during the last decades is shown in the following table:—

	Total.	Sailing Vessels.	Steamers.
1857.			
Ships,	1938	1800	140
Tons, in thousands,	335	288	47
1887.			
Ships,	1678	607	1071
Tons, in thousands,	1203	104	1099
1898.			
Ships,	1419	327	1092
Tons, in thousands,	1476	69	1406

It thus appears that the steam traffic, which is, moreover, estimated to have a carrying capacity three times greater than that of sailing vessels, has increased thirtyfold since 1857.

The second regulating work of international importance is the successful opening of the 'Iron Gates' in 1898, although the operation has not yet been followed by the hoped-for increase in the navigation of the Danube. The intended depth of the waterway has not yet been obtained, so that accidents are still possible, while the tolls levied by the Hungarian Government are so high that they have raised by 18

per cent. the freight-charges between Giurgiu and Buda-Pest.¹ Under this extortionate burden not only does the Rumanian export trade in cheap bulky goods suffer, but also that of South Germany to the Levant and the Danube lands.²

The traffic of sailing craft is conducted by :—

- (1) 450 iron tow-boats of 388,000 tons burden, and 75 tugs, belonging to private owners.
- (2) The Imperial Royal Chartered Danubian Steamship Company, which in 1898 carried 133,000 passengers.
- (3) The Hungarian River and Sea Navigation Company.
- (4) The Rumanian River Navigation Company (N.F.R. = Naviga-tiunea-Fluviala-Româna).

For the period of ten years from 1886-95 the steam navigation of the Lower Danube (Sulina-Braila-Galatz section) was distributed amongst the different States as under :—

Nationality of the Steamers.	Total (with Ballast)		Of these			
			Steam Packets.		Freight Steamers.	
	Steamers.	Thousands of Reg. Tons.	Steamers.	Thousands of Reg. Tons.	Steamers.	Thousands of Reg. Tons.
Austria-Hungary,	87	69	78	62	9	7
France,	43	47	42	46	1	0.7
Italy,	41	34	29	33	12	11
Russia,	83	35	79	33	4	1
Turkey,	49	27	35	25	6	2
Rumania,
Germany,	20	22	20	22
Great Britain,	738	943	738	943
Holland,	3	3	3	3
Norway and Sweden,	22	24	22	24
Greece,	109	137	109	137
Other States,	4	6	4	6
	1191	1347	263	199	928	1156.7

¹ Here is a comparative table of various shipping tolls :—

Danubian Commission,	1.10	Return Voyage.
Pruth Commission,	0.60	
Suez Canal,	9.00	Single Voyage.
North Sea (Kiel) Canal,	0.74	
Danubian Channel at the Iron Gates,	6.79	

² As in the case of the commutation of railway rates (and the introduction of the zone tariff system), so also in that of the regulation of the Iron Gates and of the rapids

The 1199 steamers plying during this period had an average capacity of 1146 registered tons. Since the year 1892 the capacity of the steamers passing Sulina has already averaged 1250 registered tons per steamer.

During the same period the sailing vessels plying on the Lower Danube averaged 500 yearly, with a mean capacity of 178 registered tons each, or collectively 89,000 registered tons.

In 1898 the distribution was as under :—

Nationality of the Steamers.	Total (with Ballast)		Of these			
			Steam Packets.		Freight Steamers.	
	Steamers.	Thousands of Reg. Tons.	Steamers.	Thousands of Reg. Tons.	Steamers.	Thousands of Reg. Tons.
Austria-Hungary,	142	181	51	60	91	121
France,	34	43	32	41	2	1
Italy,	81	103	38	51	43	52
Russia,	119	56	75	29	44	26
Turkey,	38	46	11	6	27	40
Rumania,	40	27	35	23	5	4
Germany,	27	32	27	32
Great Britain,	446	694	446	694
Holland,	7	6	7	6
Norway and Sweden,	5	6	5	6
Greece,	143	192	143	192
Other States,	10	16	10	16
	1092	1402	242	210	850	1190

The 1092 steamers which in 1898 cleared from the Sulina mouth averaged 1288 registered tons, showing in this respect little change since the year 1892.

in the Lower Danube, the former Hungarian Minister Baross acted too precipitously. The yearly outlay required for the regulated stretch of the Danube is far from being covered, even in favourable periods, by the enhanced river tolls. How then in such years as 1899, when there was a total failure of the crops in Rumania? Hence there were next to no exports from this kingdom, and the Danubian waterway remained unutilised on its part, so that the anticipated revenue from the river tolls appeared as a deficit of £20,000 in the Hungarian budget.

In 1898 the 327 sailing vessels plying on the Lower Danube had a total capacity of 69,000 registered tons (213 per ship).

The exports of the more important cereals by the Sulina mouth were as under for the last decade :—

Year.	<i>In thousands of quarters.</i>				
	Wheat.	Rye.	Maize.	Barley.	Oats.
1889,	4607	1157	2052	1552	361
1893,	3451	729	7162	2005	782
1896,	7434	1395	1354	1999	134
1898,	2413	705	4419	2123	538

After the opening of the Danubian bridge at Cernavoda it became necessary that the Oriental Express trains, which had hitherto taken the Bucharest-Giurgiu-Varna route, should have a corresponding connection *viâ* Constantza. The Directors of the State Monopolies were empowered to make all necessary arrangements, and provide the materials required for this purpose. This was all the more urgent, since a second express service from Ostend by Constantza to Constantinople had been projected. Constantza thus became the terminus of the Rumanian system on the Black Sea, and the connecting station for the express service from London, Paris, and (since 1900) Berlin, to Constantinople. The connection with these trains is effected by the two rapid saloon steamers of the 'Service Maritime Roumain,' which have a speed of eighteen miles an hour, and cover the section between Constantza and Constantinople in twelve hours. Henceforth the Turkey postal service also takes the Constantinople route, which is moreover preferred to the Sofia line by travellers because it is both cheaper and shorter, the journey from London, Paris, and Berlin to Constantinople taking only 72, 60, and 48 hours respectively.

Later, the sea navigation was placed under the railway department, which on taking over this branch had at its disposal the two steamers *Meteor* and *Medea*. But these were unsuited for the service as, besides other drawbacks, they were too slow to maintain an efficient postal traffic between Constantza and Constantinople. Hence, to meet its engagements, the government was compelled to charter from its Hamburg owners the *Cobra*, which for several years has performed the service in a thoroughly satisfactory manner.

A credit of £400,000 having been voted in 1896 to enable the government to provide new vessels, two others—*Regele Carol I.* of 2368 registered tons, and the *Principesa Maria* (1604)—were procured. By their means the connections are kept up between Constantinople and the Paris and Ostend bi-weekly express trains *viâ* Vienna on the one hand, and on the other between the same place and the direct Berlin-Lemberg-Burduyeni-Constantza quick trains, which since May 1899 also run twice a week.

As a tentative step, these services have been extended to the Piræus, Smyrna, and Saloniki, but regularly only to the last-mentioned port.

Naturally these connections by swift steamers, as in all such cases, could yield no returns at first. But in view of the prospective transit carrying-trade the slight deficit is of no account.

Besides this passenger and postal sea connection, a goods service was also started in order to establish a direct connection with the North European seaports, with a view to removing the many obstacles by which the Rumanian corn-trade is still hampered. For this purpose five trading-ships were procured—three in England, of 1451.6 registered tons, equivalent to a carrying capacity of 3200 tons; and two in Germany, of 1415 registered tons (capacity 3000): all five have a speed of ten knots.

In the first year (1898) only 48 voyages could be made to Rotterdam. Altogether 68,924 tons of wheat, flour, pulse, timber, etc., were shipped at Sulina, and 77,501 tons of coal, hardware, and miscellaneous goods freighted at Rotterdam. There was a clear profit of £21,920, which must be regarded as a favourable result. In 1899 as many as 54 trips were made, which should yield still better returns.¹

The establishment of these steamship connections has the further advantage of securing a certain control over the quality of the corn sent forward for export, and of providing a seaport where buyers can satisfy

¹ In 1896 the total outlay of the maritime service was £67,240, and the income only £17,480, thus showing a deficit of £49,760. In 1897 the corresponding figures were £40,000, £100,000, and £60,000; and in 1898 £112,000, £120,000, and £8000.

In 1899 the introduction of Oriental Express trains caused a further considerable increase in the passenger and goods trade with Constantinople, with a corresponding increase of revenue.

themselves that Rumania is in a position to supply corn of excellent quality. The selection of the port of Rotterdam must be regarded as fortunate. Apart from the facilities which it affords for loading and unloading, the lowest freight-charges can here also be obtained for the Rhine. Moreover, Rumania has thus also created an interest for her trade in Holland, which had hitherto scarcely taken any part in its development. For the German industries also this maritime connection has a far from contemptible significance, and more especially for those industrial centres which lie nearest to the Rotterdam outlet of their trade. Besides lower transit dues, there is the further convenience that since August 1, 1899, goods can be forwarded at fixed rates from Rotterdam to all railway stations and Danubian riverside ports.

Besides the general agency of the Rumanian maritime service at Rotterdam, reference is given to the German houses of F. W. Dehlatroin at Hamburg and Heinrich Marx at Mannheim, which not only undertake to answer all inquiries, but also arrange for the further transmission of goods.

The Government Navigation Department drew up the following report for 1898 :—

The State Commercial Marine consists of six passenger vessels, amongst them *Regele Carol* of 1000 horse-power, five tugs (one of 650 horse-power), and 48 tow-boats (39 of 650 tons). These were provided at a total cost of £220,000—£44,000 for passenger boats, £44,000 for tugs, and £128,000 for tow-boats. In 1898, 432,000 passengers, 33,000 tons of goods in bales, and 95,000 tons of wares (in tow-boats) were forwarded.

The most frequented line is that from Braila to Galatz, by which 240,300 persons were carried; for the transport of goods the returns for the Galatz-Turnu-Severin line were 27,500 tons of bales and 94,900 tons of goods by tow-boats.

The goods shipped by tow-boats amounted to 95,000 tons, that is, 42 million tons per kilometre, of which 31 up and 11 down stream. It thus appears that the carrying business up the Danube to Buda-Pest and Raab was more important than that to the Lower Danube.

In 1898 the receipts were £56,000, including from £17,600 to £17,680 for each of the three classes of tow-boat goods, bales, and passengers.

The working expenses were £52,000, showing a clear profit of £1800. Apart from the interest and terminable charges on the £200,000 initial outlay on plant, etc., the Rumanian River Navigation Service has thus already completely covered its expenditure, with a little to the good, and this despite the competition with which it has to contend.

At present Rumania maintains the following steamship lines :—

I. *Constantza-Constantinople*, to and fro, bi-weekly, in connection with the Oriental and Ostend Express trains and the Berlin-Constantza quick through service.

II. *Constantza-Constantinople-Archipelago*, bi-weekly, once directly from Constantza with the handsomely fitted-up steam-packets *Regele Carol I.* and *Principesa Maria*, and once with landing at Constantinople and connection with the quick saloon steamers.

III. *Braila-Galatz-Sulina-Constantza-Rotterdam*, fortnightly with the steamers *Bucuresci*, *Constantza*, *Dobrogea*, *Yassy*, and *Turnu-Severin*.

	I.	II.	III.
Fares in francs : Constantza-Constantinople, .	36	22	8
„ Constantza-Piræus,	80	55	20
„ Constantinople-Piræus,	50	36	12
(exclusive of bed and board).			

Time : From Constantza to Constantinople, 12 ; from Berlin to Constantinople, 48 ; from Paris to Constantinople, 65 ; from London to Constantinople, 72 hours.

In 1898 the following sea-going steamship lines were maintained by foreign companies :—

The Austrian Lloyd, trading with Constantinople and the Levant.

The First Imperial Royal Chartered Danube Steamship Company, carrying passengers and goods up stream and to Batum.

The German Levant Line.

W. Johnston and Co. (English).

The Italian Navigazione Generale Italiana Florio e Rubattino.

The Russian Black Sea and Danube Steam Navigation Company.

The Turkish Steam Navigation Companies : Courdjie and Co. ; Machsoussé, and Egée.

The French Companies : Fraisinet and Co. ; and Messageries Maritimes.

To these has recently been added the already mentioned Rumanian Sea Navigation Company, 'Serviciul-Maritim-Român' (S.M.R.).

On the Pruth, where important regulating works have also been undertaken by the International Pruth Commission (Austria-Hungary, Rumania, Russia), steamers laden chiefly with wheat now ply as far as Sculeni.

On the Sereth and the Bistritza, timber, and to a less extent wheat also, are sent down to Galatz. The Yiu, too, has been made navigable in its entire length, so that by this channel also the transportation of wheat to the mouth of the Danube has been facilitated. In 1898 the Pruth was navigated by 766 river craft with a total burden of 77,000 registered tons.

In 1896-97 the budget of the treasury in thousand francs was :—

	Receipts.	Outlay.
From Water Carriage,	806	509
From the Turnu-Severin Dockyard,	343	403
Total,	1149	912

showing a surplus of nearly £9500.

SHIPPING.

In 1897 the movement in the Rumanian seaports was as under :¹—

	Entered.		Cleared.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
Total,	4362	3,632,000	4379	3,726,000
Rumanian,	406	265,000	409	260,000
Foreign,	3950	3,336,000	3970	3,466,000

Of the foreign vessels 156 flew the German, 1175 the English, and 108 the French flag.

When this traffic is compared with that of the Russian ports on the Danube—Reni, Ismael, Kilia, and Vilkovo—they show in 1897 arrivals 294 of 101,000 tons, and departures 245 of 88,000 tons.

¹ These data are taken from the *Reports on Trade and Industry*. Rumanian reports give for entries 339 vessels and 9.4 million tons; for clearances 335 and 9.2 million tons. This great discrepancy is explained by the various methods of calculation, whether registered tons, whether ships under 50 tons are included, and so on.

In the chief Rumanian ports the shipping returns for 1897 were :—

	ENTRIES.			CLEARANCES.	
	Total in hundreds.	Registered Tons in thousands.	Foreign Ships in hundreds.	Total in hundreds.	Registered Tons in thousands.
Braila,	52	1810	41	51	1776
Galatz,	45	1483	34	44	1482
Sulina,	49	1927	27	50	1910
Giurgiu,	25	368	19	24	377
Turnu-Severin,	22	650	17	20	527
Oltenitza,	13	190	13	13	188
Orşova,	13	254	11	13	249
Calafat,	15	254	10	14	249
Corabia,	10	236	10	10	536
Tulcea,	12	266	10	10	246
Turnu-Magureli,	11	170	10	10	167
Cernavoda,	8	241	7	8	221
Constantza,	7	574	5	7	575

The revenues of the Rumanian ports are derived from the customs ($\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the value of the imports and exports) and wharfage dues, and in 1896-97 amounted to £109,238. The import duties amounted to £21,433, the average for 1891-95 being £26,160; the export duties £24,433 (average for 1891-95, £58,480). The dock dues yielded £10,823.¹

These were distributed as under :—

	In thousands of francs.	
	1894-95.	1896-97.
1. Braila,	688.0	891.2
2. Galatz,	545.0	464.4
3. Giurgiu,	165.5	106.8
4. Corabia,	161.1	151.9
5. Calafat,	150.8	152.6
6. Turnu-Magureli,	133.2	179.0
7. Calaraşi,	65.6	125.6

¹ In the summer of 1899 the dock dues were fixed at the uniform rate of 20 bani (centimes) per registered ton.

Grain Elevators.

To increase the competing power of Rumanian wheat in the world's markets the government has erected at the two ports of Galatz and Braila harbour basins and silos (corn elevators), which were built on the plans and under the direction of Rumanian engineers at a cost of close upon £720,000, and handed over to the trade in 1892. Both ports, which are distant only twelve miles from each other, have received identical appliances, and now dispose severally of over 170 silos, one half with a capacity of 100 tons each, the other of 50 tons each.

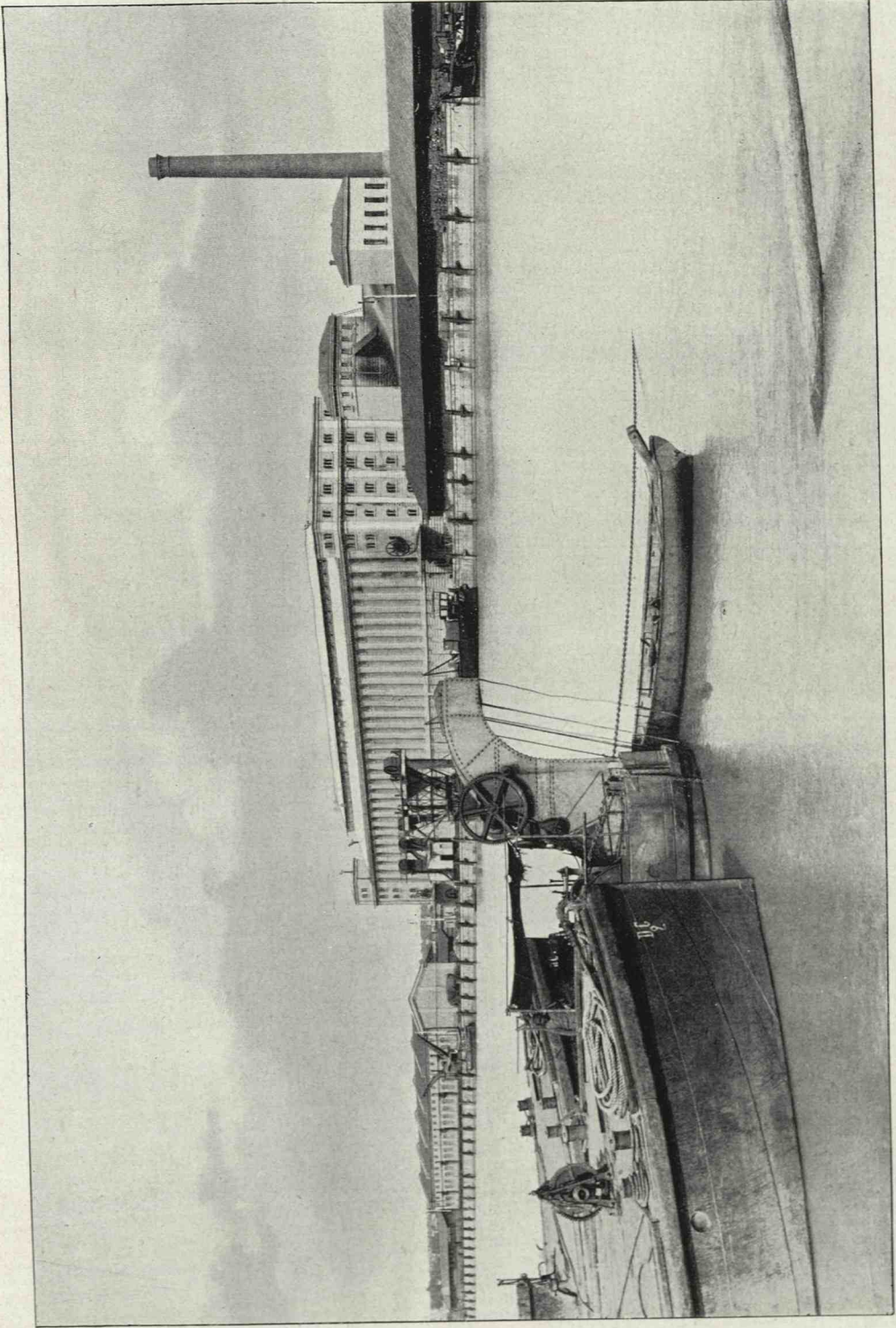
The mechanical arrangements allow of 600 tons of corn being warehoused and 300 simultaneously shipped in an hour. These extensive structures were needed to meet the requirements of the corn trade, which in the busy season (September) forwards to Braila from 500 to 700 wagon-loads daily. Besides the convenient storage, these elevators also facilitate the mortgaging of the deposited corn, as well as a rapid interchange of the stock in hand between the two ports to meet any sudden demands of the markets.

In the year 1898 both docks handled 202,470 tons of wheat and 133,209 of general wares, or about one-fifth of the total export business of Galatz and Braila.

An indication of the expansion of trade is seen in the fact that in 1899 and 1900 large warehouses were erected at Braila by German engineers on account of Mannheim merchants.

Mention may also be made of the slaughter-houses erected at Yassy in compliance with the cattle-plague quarantine, and of the Geagoga customs and bonded warehouses administered by the city of Bucharest.¹

¹ Owing to the various impediments imposed on the exportation of live stock for the meat-markets, these slaughter-houses must acquire still greater importance, as shown by the example of those at Belgrade.



Docks at Galatz.

From a Photograph by Franz Duschek, Bucharest.

CHAPTER XI.

Foreign Trade.

FOREIGN trade affords a picture not only of the international relations of a country, but also of the constitution of its social classes. In his *Description of Moldavia and Walachia* (1854), J. F. Neigebauer has aptly dissected the salient features of the foreign trade some forty or fifty years ago—on the one hand the masses who had no needs, on the other the extravagance of the wealthy nobles; on the one hand a bounteous soil, on the other a lack of all industries. ‘The importation of articles of consumption,’ he remarks, ‘cannot be considerable in a land where the peasant, after the manner of the Turks, buries his money when he has any,—where there are only the poor and the rich, but no middle and urban classes. But what is imported must be manufactured wares, as there are absolutely no industries in the country; not even are the existing iron deposits utilised.’

Within two decades this remark had already ceased to be applicable. In the year 1877 a sudden revolution took place in the balance of trade. In 1876 the exports still exceeded the imports by £2,760,000 (in 1871 by no less than £3,800,000). But since 1877 the imports have been considerably in excess of the exports, and from that time Rumania has ceased to maintain the same favourable balance of trade as is otherwise characteristic of agricultural states. This is shown in the subjoined table:—

	Imports.	Exports.	Difference.
	In millions of francs.		
1877,	355	141	194
1880,	255	219	36
1884,	294	184	110
1885,	268	247	21
1886,	297	255	42
1887,	314	265	49
1888,	310	256	54
1889,	367	274	93
1890,	362	276	86
1891,	436	274	162
1892,	380	285	95
1893,	430	370	60
1894,	422	294	128
1895,	304	265	39
1896,	338	324	14
1897,	355	224	131
1898,	390	283	107

Thus for the last fifteen years the average excess of imports has been about £3,200,000, or a total of £48,000,000 for the whole period.

There is little to say against such a negative balance of accounts in the case of those more favourably situated States which draw interest on capital invested abroad, and profits on their foreign undertaking. But it is different with Rumania, which has over and above to pay £3,600,000 yearly interest on her foreign loans. The negative balance of trade finds its explanation in more recent events which will not be so readily changed, and especially in the international pressure on the current prices of the raw materials, due to the competition of countries beyond the seas, as well as in the reduced profits of stock-breeding caused by the quarantine measures enforced by the neighbouring States during the last ten years, in the ravages of the vineyards by phylloxera, and so on. To these factors constantly at work is to be added the yearly recurrence of great fluctuations in the productiveness of such an agricultural State as Rumania.

In these relations, which, however, may be expected to undergo some improvement in a few years, lies the chief cause of the commercial crisis which occurred in the autumn of 1899.

On the other hand, it should be considered, as was rightly pointed

out by the Austrian vice-consul Wipperrn in the *Handelsmuseum* for March 1900, that the administration of the Tobacco monopoly realises about £120,000, and that about £1,200,000 are expended on agricultural and industrial machinery, and £220,000 on railway rolling-stock and rails. Further, some £2,000,000 are applied to the purchase of pine resin, caustic soda, tanning stuffs, hides, wool, etc.; in other words, such raw and half-worked materials as are required by the local petroleum, leather, glass, cloth, paper, soap, and candle works. Lastly, it now depends on the favourable beetroot crop whether an item of some £320,000 will henceforth vanish from the list of imports. In the light of these facts the negative balance appears more favourable than at the first glance.

In 1898 the foreign States ranked as under in respect of their trade with Rumania :—

	Imports.	Exports.	Total.
	Millions of francs.		
Austria-Hungary,	109	85.8	194.8
Germany,	110	12	122
Great Britain,	76	37	113
Belgium,	14	93	107
France,	25.7	7	38
Italy,	14	17.7	31.7
Turkey,	15.7	14.6	30
Russia,	7.9	4.9	12.8
Holland,	3.3	3.3	6.6
Switzerland,	4.6	...	4.6

I. Exports.

According to the trade returns for the last decade, the chief articles of export are as under:¹—

¹ Till recently the decline in prices has not been taken into account for several articles of export, so that the returns are too high, for instance, by 18 francs the double quintal for wheat, 10 for maize. Now the returns in question are given on the following estimates :—

Wheat,	12	} francs per double quintal.
Barley,	8	
Rye,	10	
Maize,	8	

	Value in millions of francs.			Highest and Lowest Figures.	
	1898.	1897.	1886.	1887-1896.	
Breadstuffs,	241.4	179.7	184	1893: 339	1895: 195
Fruits, vegetables, and other plants,	10.1	14.7	20	1895: 34.5	1894: 6.4
Products of stock-breeding,	4.2	4.0	2.5	1893: 4.2	1888: 2.3
Woven goods,	2.7	2.5	6.9	1893: 4.2	1888: 2.3
Wood and wooden ware,	4.9	...	7.0	1896: 7.4	1893: 2.8
Live stock,	4.2	2.3	7.0	1893: 8.4	1889: 2.1
Mineral fuels and resins,	3.7	2.2	1.7		1890: 1.2
Hides, divers leather, shoe, and peltry work.	1.1	1.6	6.0		1892: 1.0
Drinks,	0.6	2.6	12.7	1887: 16.5	1894: 0.4
Animal products, produce of various kinds,	2.3	1.2		
Metals and metal ware,	2.4	1.8	1.6	1888: 4.7	
Dyeing and tanning stuffs, colours, and gum-lac,	0.07	0.1	0.2		
Vehicles, paper, cardboard,	0.1	0.3	0.09		
Wares manufactured from the above,	0.1	0.1	0.1		

According to this survey, corn stands at the head of the exports (£9,640,000 in 1898), and woven goods of the imports (nearly £6,000,000 in 1898). The export of agricultural and forest products (in 1898 £9,660,000, or 85 per cent. of the total exports) ranges from 85 to 90 per cent. of all the exports. Compared with this item, petroleum alone has some importance.

In 1898 the export of corn and oleaginous seeds reached 2,400,000 tons, and in the period from 1889 to 1896, 2.2, 2.0, 1.9, 1.8, 2.8 (1893), 1.9, 1.9, 2.4, and in 1897 1.8 million tons.

Till the end of the eighties these two articles—corn and oleaginous seeds—were forwarded chiefly (about 65 per cent.) to England; then followed Belgium (from 12 to 15), Italy (from 4 to 9), and France (from 3 to 5 per cent.). In recent years the share of England has fallen to from 26 to 40 per cent. (in 1898 only 13), and that of Belgium to 13½, rising, however, in 1889 to 33 and 38 per cent.

The corn exports to Germany were in thousands of tons :—

Year.	Tons.	Percentage of total exports.
1888	48	2
1889	116	5
1890	97	4
1891	177	9
1892	249	13
1893	1100	39
1894	437	22
1895	219	11
1896	143	5
1897	61	3
1898	74	...

Here it is to be considered that Belgium is only a zone of transit for by far the greatest part of the Rumanian cereals consigned to her seaports, only a very small quantity being consumed in Belgium itself. The largest share passes on to Germany, whose consumption of Rumanian produce must be rated much higher than appears in the values and percentage columns of the commercial statistics (1898, £500,000, or 4·43 per cent.), because she receives large quantities of Rumanian corn indirectly through Belgian and Dutch seaports, and also through Austria-Hungary. The same remark applies to the Austria-Hungarian imports, which in 1898 were valued at £3,420,000, or 30½ per cent., so far at least as Austria is the transit zone for Switzerland, which consumes considerable quantities of Rumanian corn.

Of the different kinds of cereals, the quantities with their values were as under in the period from 1893 to 1898 :—

	1893.	1894.	1896.	1897.	1898.
	In thousand tons.				
Wheat,	703	683	1124	434	580
Rye,	131	136	233	142	117
Maize,	1212	694	444	782	1119
Barley,	460	290	396	334	363
Oats,	149	28	58	54	95

	1893.	1894.	1896. 1897		1898.
			In millions of francs.		
Wheat,	136	123	171	60	81
Rye,	14	16	23	14	11
Maize,	121	69	35	62	89
Barley,	41	26	31	26	29
Oats,	11	2	4	4	7

The second article of importance is petroleum, the export of which in 1897 reached 21,000 tons valued at £84,000, and in 1898 32,000 tons worth £140,000.

Another item of importance is rock-salt, exported in 1897 and 1898 to the extent of 34,000 and 32,000 tons respectively, valued at £44,000 and £40,000.

In nearly all other products the exports have fallen off during the last decade—an illustration of the depressed state of Rumanian stock-breeding and wine-growing for over ten years.

Relatively, the most serious is the decrease in the export of drinks, due chiefly to bad vintages, which in 1896 and 1897 yielded only £92,000 and £104,000 respectively. Their value fell from between £480,000 and £640,000 in the years 1896-97 to £36,000 in 1898.

The export of cattle should take the next place after that of breadstuffs. At the beginning of the seventies it was still valued at £1,000,000, but in 1893, 1894, 1897, and 1898 had fallen to £80,000, £276,000, £92,000, and £168,000 respectively, the decrease being due to the Austrian and German frontier quarantine regulations. These have at the same time caused such a fall in prices that stock-breeding ceased to pay and declined more and more. At present the export is mainly limited to swine, of which for instance 18,500, worth £44,000, and 25,000, worth £60,000, were forwarded in 1893 and 1894; in 1895, 1896, and 1897, 14,200, 39,000, and 15,500 respectively; and in 1898 41,000, worth £80,000.

For the year 1898 the Austrian vice-consul, Dr. Wippern, communicates the following summary to the *Handelsmuseum* for March 1900:—

In value farinaceous stuffs and their products take the first place with £9,640,000 or 85 per cent. of the whole. Then follow fruits and vegetables with £400,000 and 2·5 per

cent. ; wood and wooden wares with £196,000 and 1·7 per cent. ; live stock with £172,000 and 1·5 per cent. ; mineral fuels with £148,000 and 1·3 per cent. Of some consideration are also textiles with £108,000 and 0·97 per cent. ; metals and metal ware with £100,000 and 0·88 per cent. ; hides, leather ware, and peltry with £40,000 and 0·39 per cent.

The export of horned cattle fell gradually from 22,000 head in 1894 and 33,800 in 1895 to 8500 in 1898 ; similarly that of sheep from 46,000 in 1894 and 57,350 in 1895 to 35,000 in 1898. The export of swine, which stood at 25,000 in 1894, fell to 14,200 in 1895, but again rose in 1896 to 39,000, and the next year sank to 15,500 in order again to rise in 1898 to 40,800.

In the group of 'animal alimentary substances' a perceptible advance is noticed, both in quantity and value. Thus under this head the years 1897 and 1898 showed a respective increase of 238 tons and £11,235, and of 4655 tons and £130,411 on the year 1896.

Of the items comprised in this group which are able to show a steady increase of trade, the most important are eggs, the export of which gradually rose from £46,840 in 1894 to £115,320 in 1898. Further (not specially designated), fresh, salt, and dried fish, whose export value advanced from £23,880 in 1894 to £91,440. The export of the different kinds, not further specified—sturgeon, *nicetre*, carp, pike-perch, *chefal*—increased from £6120 in 1894 to £48,000 in 1898.

In 1898 the export of the staple 'farinaceous stuffs and their products,' by far the most important category, stood thus :—

	Value in millions of francs.
Wheat,	81.2
Rye,	11.7
Maize,	89.5
Barley,	20.0
Oats,	7.5
Millet,	5.3
Wheat Flour,	5.5
Dried Pulse,	10.3

On the basis of the export returns for the quinquennial period from 1894 to 1898 the following averages were obtained for the above-mentioned articles :—

	Value in millions of francs.
Wheat,	103.1
Rye,	16.5
Maize,	53.9
Barley,	26.1
Oats,	4.3
Millet,	2.4
Wheat Flour,	6.3
Pulse,	3.8

Of the articles comprised in the category 'fruits, vegetables, and other plants,' the export of oleaginous seeds alone is of great importance. In 1898 it had a total value of £252,000. On the basis of the export figures for the period from 1894 to 1898, the average exportation of this item is shown to be 43,228 tons valued at £432,000.

As regards drinks, the exports of wine have greatly fallen off in recent years. In 1898 they were valued only at £2160 compared with £72,926 in 1896.

The exports of hides and wool also have steadily decreased, chiefly owing to their increasing consumption in the country itself. For the first item the exports were valued in 1898 at £37,810, compared with £61,880 and £107,600 in 1894 and 1895; for the second £81,120 in 1898, against £152,640 and £190,120 in 1894 and 1895.

For Rumania the export of petroleum is steadily growing in importance. The quantity of crude oil exported rose from 16,630 tons in 1894 to 27,225 in 1898, while that of refined oil gradually advanced from 606 tons in 1894 to 3252 in 1898.

II. Imports.

Textiles, which form the staple of the import trade, have steadily increased during the last decade, their value rising from £4,000,000 in 1884 to £6,000,000 in 1898.

There is also a considerable importation of *metal, colonial, and leather wares*, and these items also show a steady increase. The value of the metal wares has been doubled in the last decade (in 1898 £3,670,000), that of colonial produce advancing from £680,000 in 1884 to £1,040,000 in 1894 and £1,000,000 in 1898, while that of leather ware has on the contrary decreased by one-half (680,000 in 1898).

The importation of paper goods rose from £260,000 in 1884 to £588,000 in 1893, but fell to no more than £264,000 in 1898, which is due to the development of the Rumanian paper industry.

The greater and increasing importation of combustibles is to be regarded as a favourable indication both of increasing trading relations and of the growing productive and consuming capacity of the country. Their value for the respective years 1887, 1894, 1895, 1896, 1897, and 1898 was £160,000, £588,000, £376,000, £392,000, £400,000, and £452,000.

In point of fact the desire for more comfortable living has become general, and spread even to the villages. At the same time the per-

sistent and even increasing negative balance of trade means a constant danger for the circulation and for the public credit. An accurate picture of the importation movement and of the significance of the several items is presented by the subjoined table. Here it is to be noted that, owing to the persistent lowering of prices, the value of all the items has decreased during the last decade, so that the bulk and quantity is to be estimated at a correspondingly higher rate for recent years:—

	Value in millions of francs.				Highest and Lowest Figures of the last decade.	
	1898.	1897.	1896.	1886.		
Products of the textile and similar industries,	149.7	150	151	116	1895:	168
Metals and metal wares,	91.7	74	61	53	1894:	104
Colonial produce and tropical fruits,	25	21	21	17	1894:	32
Hides, belting, and divers leather wares, boot and peltry wares,	16	16	15	23	1892:	12
Mineral fuels and resins,	11.3	10	9	10	1887:	4 1893: 15
Paper, cardboard, and their products,	6.6	6	6	6	1893:	14
Minerals, earthen and glass wares,	11.2	7	8	13	1889:	17
Chemical stuffs and products,	12.9	12	9	6	1894:	13
Oils, fats, wax, and their products,	9.4	7	6	6	1887:	5 1894: 12
Wood and wooden wares,	5.3	5	6	11	1881:	4 1895: 8
Vegetable extracts and drugs,	6.9	5	6	2	1894:	8
Products of stock-breeding,	5.1	5	7	3		
Dyeing and tanning materials, colours, and lac,	6.8	7	5	3	1894:	8
Caoutchouc, guttapercha, and their products,	3.0	3	4	1.6		
Flour and its products,	6.4	5	4	4.8		
Vehicles,	2.8	1	1	2.4		
Preserves and confectionery,	4.3	3	3	1.5		
Live stock,	2.3	2	2	1.1	1889:	4

In 1898 these imports were distributed according to their values amongst the leading forwarding countries as under:—

IMPORTS.	Total		From Germany	From Gt. Britain	From Austria	From France	From Belgium	From Italy
	Weight in tons.	Value in thousand francs.						
Value in thousand francs.								
1. Live stock, . . .	2,517	2,361	16	1	1,893	2
2. Products of stock-breeding, . . .	5,881	5,158	551	24	426	106	12	88
3. Farinaceous substances and their products, . . .	34,293	6,534	265	2,151	365	177	332	306
4. Fresh and dried fruits, seeds, etc., . . .	7,665	3,633	358	103	856	26	2	5
5. Colonial produce, . . .	31,363	25,051	2,867	795	8,835	1,393	656	2,497
6. Drinks, . . .	515	1,094	193	32	138	572	3	45
7. Preserves and confectionery, . . .	4,370	4,366	222	142	211	951	18	69
8. Medicines, . . .	5,780	6,951	2,392	649	2,350	954	139	39
9. Perfumery, . . .	113	600	179	8	66	334	...	4
10. Chemical products, . . .	11,666	12,999	2,209	2,121	6,582	567	1,210	160
11. Dyes, etc., . . .	7,020	6,808	931	1,120	3,244	407	279	17
12. Oils, fats, etc., . . .	9,205	9,458	754	1,248	1,809	1,954	646	207
13. Animal products, . . .	117	220	73	2	74	15	1	2
14. Skins, hides, leather, and their products, . . .	4,004	16,936	7,152	793	6,512	1,269	278	535
15. Caoutchouc, gutta-percha, and other products, . . .	317	3,024	1,132	26	1,595	36	4	29
16. Textiles, . . .	29,023	149,710	43,774	47,052	32,761	10,806	1,414	8,372
17. Paper, etc., . . .	4,840	6,637	1,537	49	3,341	1,338	40	139
18. Wood and wooden wares, . . .	16,368	5,368	1,149	140	3,082	304	60	225
19. Fuels, . . .	417,785	11,364	2,835	4,233	2,174	47	102	109
20. Earthenware, glassware, and minerals, . . .	135,630	11,288	1,818	325	4,922	711	1,015	580
21. Metals and their products, . . .	148,992	91,769	36,781	15,051	24,090	2,926	7,809	561
22. Vehicles, . . .	3,705	2,800	992	26	1,656	55	42	3
23. Ships, . . .	312	63	3	...	38	...
24. Art objects, . . .	42	207	12	...	58	9	1	20
Total with the items not specified above,	882,000	390 mill.	110 mill.	76 mill.	109 mill.	26 mill.	14 mill.	14 mill.

In the spring of 1900 the Austrian consuls at Bucharest and Yassy contributed to the *Handelsmuseum* some serious studies on the general trade of Rumania, accompanied by some valuable suggestions and advice to the various exporters. From this source we take the analysis of the commercial movement for 1898 which Dr. Wipperrn, Austrian vice-consul at Yassy, attempts to give in the following remarks :—

The total value of the imports was returned in the year 1898 at £15,596,000, which shows a respective increase of £1,360,000 and £2,040,000 on the years 1897 and 1895. As in all previous years, the products of the textile industry take the first place in 1898 also, with 38·4 per cent. of the whole valued at £5,988,000, compared with 42·1 per cent. and £6,000,000 in 1897, and 44·6 per cent. and £6,036,000 in 1896. Metals and metal wares follow in the second place with 23·5 per cent. and £3,668,000. Then come (3) colonial produce and southern fruits, with 6·4 per cent. and £1,000,000; (4) hides, leather and leather-work, and peltry, with 4·3 per cent. and £676,000; (5) chemical stuffs and their products, with 3·3 per cent. and £516,000; (6) mineral fuels and their products, with 2·9 per cent. and £440,000; (7) minerals, earthen and glass ware, with 2·8 per cent. and £440,000. Then follow in due order: oils, fats, wax, and their products, with 2 per cent. and £360,000; vegetable extracts, drugs, and medicines, with 1·7 per cent. and £276,000; dyeing and tanning materials, colours, and gum-lac, with 1·7 per cent. and £272,000; paper and paper goods, with 1·7 per cent. and £240,000; farinaceous stuffs and their products, with 1·6 per cent. and £260,000; wood and wooden ware, with 1·3 per cent. and £212,000; animal alimentary substances, with 1·3 per cent. and £204,000; preserved eatables and sweetmeats, with 1·1 per cent. and £172,000; fruits and vegetables, with 0·93 per cent. and £144,000; rubber and guttapercha and their products, with 0·7 per cent. and £120,000; vehicles, with 0·7 per cent. and £112,000; and lastly, drinks, with 0·2 per cent. and £40,000.

Both in quantity and value the following eight classes show a steady increase in the years 1896-98:—farinaceous stuffs and their products (+15,700 tons and £76,000); colonial produce and southern fruits (+4400 tons and £160,000); drinks (+84 tons and £8676); chemicals and their products (+3100 tons and £128,000); oils, fats, wax, and their products (+3500 tons and £124,000); hides, leather and leather-work, and peltry (+125 tons and £72,000); mineral fuels, asphalt, and their products (+85,400 tons and £76,000); and iron and hardware (+58,400 tons and £1,220,000).

Moreover, in 1898 all the eight classes here mentioned, drinks alone excepted, attained, as regards quantity, the highest import figures of the last ten years. But in respect of values this is true only of the 'farinaceous stuffs and their products,' while for the two classes of 'chemicals and their products,' and 'metals and metal wares,' in the previous decade the year 1894 alone shows higher values.

In the same period a steady decline of the imports is observed both as to quantity

and value in the two classes of 'animal alimentary substances' and 'wood and wooden ware,' which is explained in the one case by the continuous development of the home fisheries, in the other by the expansion of the corresponding industry. Compared with the year 1896, the first class shows a decrease of 3141 tons and £76,000, the second of 30,939 tons and £25,000.

The fact that the importation of paper and paper goods still maintained a value of over £240,000 in the years 1896-98 implies that, despite the prosperity of the Rumanian paper industry, a not inconsiderable field still lies open to the import trade.

The Chief Consigners.

In her trading relations Rumania has undergone a remarkable change during the last few decades. Thus, till the fifties she imported chiefly from Austria-Hungary and (for fancy and fashionable wares) from France. But after the union of the Danubian principalities resulting from the Crimean War, England of all European States profited most by the Rumanian import trade, while since the eighties Germany and Belgium are coming more to the front, thanks to the commercial treaties following on the Russo-Turkish War. Austria-Hungary lost much ground by the tariff war of 1886, and partly also by the growth of the 'national industries.'

Apart from a few Parisian fancy articles, France is far from any longer holding such a leading position as is commonly supposed.

Taking the average of the ten years from 1888 to 1897, the shares of the chief consigners and competitors stand thus:—German Empire, 28½ per cent.; England, 20; Austria-Hungary, 22; France, 8; Belgium, 4; and Switzerland, 2·4.

In recent years a certain rivalry has been developed amongst the producing States to improve their commercial relations with the Danubian lands. Thus the Russian manufacturers represented at the Craiova Exhibition of 1887 decided to open in several towns depots of sample goods and retail stores.

At the beginning of the nineties the Vienna, Paris, and Brussels exporters also began to turn their attention to Rumania.

In the order of importance in the import movement the leading States here in question rank as under. Germany forwarded:—

Year.	Thousands of tons.	Per cent.	Millions of francs.	Per cent.
1888,	37	8	83	26
1889,	84	17	108	29
1890,	83	15	109	80
1891,	116	16	139	34
1892,	66	10	113	29
1893,	64	8	116	27
1894,	71	10	117	29
1895,	50	8	80	26
1896,	77	11.78	95	28
1897,	69	10	99	28

	Average for the years 1888-1897.				1898.			
	1000 tons.	Per cent.	Million francs.	Per cent.	1000 tons.	Per cent.	Million francs.	Per cent.
1. Germany,	72	11.5	106	28.6	175	19.9	110.5	28.3
2. Great Britain,	262	42	87	23	232	26	76	19.5
3. Austria-Hungary,	144	23	81	22	196	22	109	28
4. France,	27	4	31	8	17	89	25	6.6
5. Belgium,	32	5	17	4	39	4	14	3.6
6. Turkey,	24	3.8	13	3	39	4	15	4
7. Russia,	17	2.8	9	2.4	25	2.8	8	2
8. Italy,	7	1.1	6	1.8	16	1.8	14	3.6
9. Switzerland,	0.9	0.15	9	2.4	0.5	0.06	4	1.1

It is noteworthy that in recent years not only Austria-Hungary and Germany, but Turkey and America also, and above all Italy and Holland, have enjoyed a steadily growing increase in this movement, the imports from both of the first-mentioned States showing an advance in round numbers of £480,000 compared with the year 1897. In the period from 1896 to 1898 Italy has nearly doubled her consignments in the branch of textile goods, while Holland has increased them almost fivefold, thanks to the Braila-Rotterdam steamship line opened in 1897. The imports from Great Britain, which in 1898 showed an advance on 1896, declined by over £100,000 compared with the year 1897, this being mainly due to the falling-off in the coal trade. The imports from France, Belgium, Russia, and Switzerland show symptoms of fluctuation.

In the following tables is shown the relative position of the several States in the import trade of the ten most important classes of goods for 1898, which alone in that year represented 87 per cent. of the whole import movement :—

I. TEXTILES.

States.	1896.	1897.	1898.
		In millions of francs.	
Great Britain,	47.5	48.1	47.0
Germany,	48.6	49.3	43.7
Austria-Hungary,	32.0	29.3	32.7
France,	10.9	10.2	10.8
Italy,	4.0	6.5	8.3
Switzerland,	2.9	2.6	2.8
Belgium,	2.0	1.9	1.4
Bulgaria,	0.6	0.5	0.9
Turkey,	0.7	0.5	0.8

II. METALS AND METAL WARE.

States.	1896.	1897.	1898.
		In millions of francs.	
Germany,	23.3	26.1	36.7
Austria-Hungary,	16.3	20.4	24.0
Great Britain,	10.3	12.9	15.0
Belgium,	3.6	7.4	7.8
France,	4.3	3.4	2.9
America,	0.7	0.9	1.9
Switzerland,	1.2	1.0	1.2
Italy,	0.5	1.2	0.5

III. COLONIAL PRODUCE AND SOUTHERN FRUITS.

States.	1896.	1897.	1898.
		In millions of francs.	
Austria-Hungary,	8.8	7.9	8.8
Turkey,	6.1	5.9	6.0
Germany,	1.3	2.0	2.8
Italy,	1.2	1.7	2.5
France,	1.2	1.2	1.4
Greece,	0.4	0.3	1.2
Great Britain,	0.9	0.9	0.8
Belgium,	0.5	0.6	0.6
Russia,	0.1	0.2	0.5

IV. LEATHER AND LEATHER-WORK, AND PELTRY.

States.	1896.	1897.	1898.
		In millions of francs.	
Germany,	7.1	7.0	7.1
Austria-Hungary,	5.7	6.0	6.5
France,	1.0	1.0	1.2
Great Britain,	0.5	0.6	0.8
Italy,	0.1	0.3	0.5
Belgium,	0.2	0.5	0.2

V CHEMICAL STUFFS AND THEIR PRODUCTS.

States.	1896.	1897.	1898.
		In millions of francs.	
Austria-Hungary,	3.8	6.0	6.5
Germany,	1.6	2.1	2.2
Great Britain,	2.3	2.3	2.1
Belgium,	1.0	0.8	1.2
France,	0.7	0.6	0.5

VI. MINERAL FUELS.

States.	1896.	1897.	1898.
		In millions of francs.	
Great Britain,	6.0	7.4	4.2
Germany,	0.8	0.5	2.8
Austria-Hungary,	1.3	1.2	2.1
Russia,	0.7	0.4	0.5

VII. MINERALS, EARTHENWARE, AND GLASSWARE.

States.	1896.	1897.	1898.
		In millions of francs.	
Belgium,	3.6	7.4	7.8
Austria-Hungary,	3.2	2.7	4.9
Germany,	1.6	1.6	1.8
France,	0.5	0.6	0.7
Holland,	0.6	0.4	0.6

VIII. VEGETABLE EXTRACTS, DRUGS, AND MEDICINES.

States.	1896.	1897.	1898.
		In millions of francs.	
Germany,	1.7	1.3	2.4
Austria-Hungary,	2.0	2.1	2.3
France,	1.0	0.9	0.9
Great Britain,	0.5	0.5	0.6

IX. DYEING AND TANNING STUFFS, COLOURS, AND GUM-LAC.

States.	1896.	1897.	1898.
	In millions of francs.		
Austria-Hungary, . . .	2.4	3.3	3.2
Great Britain, . . .	1.1	1.6	1.1
Germany,	0.8	0.9	0.9
Turkey,	0.3	0.4	0.5
France,	0.4	0.3	0.4
Belgium,	0.2	0.3	0.3

X. PAPER AND PAPER GOODS.

States.	1896.	1897.	1898.
	In millions of francs.		
Austria-Hungary, . . .	3.0	2.9	3.3
Germany,	1.4	1.6	1.5
France,	1.1	1.1	1.3

In textiles and metal ware, the two most important imports, the participation of the leading consigners is as under :—

I. TEXTILES.

From	In millions of francs.			
	1888.	1891.	1897.	1898.
Great Britain,	60.3	80.1	48.1	47.0
Germany,	34.4	56	49.3	43.7
Austria-Hungary, . . .	13.1	19 (1893 : 30.8)	29.3	32.7
France,	9	12.8	10.2	10.8
Belgium,	1.3	1.8	1.8	1.4
Switzerland,	12	6.3 (1889 : 13.8)	2.6	2.8
Italy,	1.6	2.4	6.5	8.3
The Netherlands, . . .	1.8	0.7 (1890 : 4.6)	0.26	0.40
Russia,	0.8	1.6	0.34	0.40
Turkey,	0.9	1.08	0.5	0.8

II. METAL WARE.

From	In millions of francs.			
	1888.	1894.	1897.	1898.
Germany,	19.1	36.6	26.1	36.7
Austria-Hungary, . . .	11.8	27.3	20.4	24.0
Great Britain,	9.6	14.1	12.0	15.0
France,	2.6	9.1	3.4	2.9
Belgium,	7.8	12.7	7.4	7.8
Switzerland,	0.7	1.7	1.0	1.2
America,	0.003	1.2	0.9	1.9

In a closer study of the foreign trade, two points attract special attention. In the first place, we see how greatly the Rumanian imports tend to fluctuate, and that always in accordance with the results of the wheat harvest. In the second place, we are struck by the increasing relations with Germany, which in fact are greater than appears from the tables. Thus the numerous vessels sailing for orders to Gibraltar are registered as if bound for Great Britain. Hence the shipments are credited to the consignments to Great Britain, whereas, in point of fact, a considerable number of these vessels proceed to other ports, especially Belgian, whence their freights are forwarded to Germany. In the same way, many goods imported by Rumania from Antwerp are of German provenance, while the raw materials exported from Rumania to Antwerp are similarly destined not for the Belgian but for the German market.

The Rumanian exports to Germany were in tons as under :—

	1889.	1898.	Highest and Lowest Figures for the last decade.	
			1890 : 1,279	1897 : 1
Meat and other animal alimentary substances,	549	1,046	1890 : 1,279	1897 : 1
Flour and its products,	116,089	73,845	1893 : 10,824	1897 : 2,517
Fruits, vegetables, and vegetable products,	571	5,140	1891 : 1,413	1894 : 2
Drinks,	364	16	1891 : 1,413	1894 : 2
Vegetable extracts (drugs),	3	...		
Dyeing and tanning stuffs, colours, and lac,	160	10	1890 : 121	
Sundry chemical products and refuse,	594	52	1891 : 1,739	1897 : 21
Hides, leather, boots, and peltry-work,	37	29	1890 : 39	1894 : 4
Products of textiles and allied industries,	105	100	1891 : 287	1893 : 3
Wood and its products,	17	958	1891 : 1,395	1894 : 8
Coal, asphalt, and their products,	3,300	1896 : 14	
Metals and metal-ware,	37	166	1891 : 113	1896 : 8
Total with the products not specified above,	118,691	85,003		

For the period from 1890 to 1897 the export of flour was in 1000 tons : 96 in 1890 ; 175 in 1891 and 1892 ; 1099, 437, 219, 142, and 61 in the respective years 1893, 1894, 1895, 1896, and 1897.

During the period from 1884 to 1889 the imports from Germany rose from £1,720,000 to £4,320,000, and this to the loss of those from Austria, which fell from £5,720,000 to £1,960,000. Such was the result of the Austro-Rumanian tariff war, although the dislocation was not really

so severe as indicated by these figures. Even previously, many German wares had been introduced through Austria, and these now appear in the returns as German, without implying any corresponding increase or decrease of business. Nor was the falling-off so great for Austria as shown by the figures, because many manufactured wares were introduced from Austria through German, Dutch, and Belgian ports as 'nationalised' goods. It is noteworthy that even after the end of the tariff war the imports have maintained the same level. On the other hand, the imports from Germany have not been substantially increased by the recently established 'German Levant Line' or by the regular departure of steamers from Antwerp, which nevertheless afford such convenient opportunities of shipping freight. Wares which formerly took months to reach Constantza (Kustenje) are now landed in from twenty to twenty-five days.

The German imports were in millions of francs :—

	1898.	1897.	1895.	1891.	1884.
Total,	110	99	80	139	43
Chief items :—					
Textiles,	43	49	35	36	18
Metals and metal-wares,	36	26	21	35	13
Hides, sundry leather, shoe, and peltry-wares,	7	7.5	4	16	3.8
Paper, cardboard, and their products,	1.5	1.5	2	5	0.5
Minerals, earthen and glass ware,	1.8	1.6	2	4	0.8
Colonial produce and southern fruits,	2.8	2	1	5	0.7
Drugs and medicines,	2.3	3	2	2.2	0.6
Dyeing and tanning stuffs, colours, and lac,	0.9	0.9	1	1.6	0.4
Chemicals and their products,	2.2	2	1.7	1.7	0.3
Caoutchouc, gutta, and their products,	1.1	2.2	2.6	2.2	0.3
Wood and wooden wares,	1.1	1.2	1.1	2.3	0.9
Vehicles,	0.9	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.2

In both of the chief items—textiles and metal-ware—Germany takes the first place. In 1898 it consigned woven goods worth £1,750,000 (£220,000 less than the previous year), and metal ware or metal products worth £1,460,000, or £420,000 more than the previous year.

In the textile market Germany was overtaken by England (for the first time since 1895) in 1898 with imports worth £1,880,000, while

the Austria-Hungarian competition amounted only to £1,308,000. In metal-ware Austria was represented by £960,000, and England by £600,000.

In Rumania the textiles most in demand are ordinary linen (Crettonne, Indienne, Calico, Madapolam) and the cotton prints known as 'Amériques,' which are in high favour among the working-classes.

From Germany come chiefly cottons, fustian, velvets, pure woollen and mixed ladies'-dress materials, silk stuffs for the dressmakers, half-silk plushes and velvets (velveteens), pure woollen and mixed cloths, such as cheviots, buckskins, 'Eskimos,' worsted goods, etc. etc. Paris still leads in the superfine fancy articles.

In 1898 German-imported woollens were valued according to the various customs rates at 13.89, 8.84, 3 (ready-made woollen garments), 1.6, and 1.5 millions of francs.

In the same year German-imported hose were valued at £50,000; cotton fabrics, £37,480; cotton clothing, £29,600; cotton spun goods, £31,280; sewing cotton, £13,800.

Carpets come chiefly from England, and finer goods also from Rhineland and Silesia.

Army cloth, considerable quantities of which were formerly imported from Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy, has in recent years disappeared altogether, because the government has on principle ceased to accept tenders from abroad.

Ladies' plain dress materials and the so-called carriage-cloths come mostly from Germany, fancy goods from England, mattress drills and linings from Belgium. For light (summer) cotton prints and heavy (winter) fustian Italy has in recent years begun to compete largely, and her total consignments rose from £60,000 in 1888 to £332,000 in 1898.

Gunny and gunny-bags (jute-sacks) for flour and corn continue to come chiefly from England, and partly also from Italy. Rumania, which has such facilities for this industry, has not yet begun to compete, although the local demand is considerable and presumably increasing.

In coco-nut carpeting and matting Germany has in recent years driven the English makes from this market.

Of silk goods Crefeld consigned over £40,000 in 1898; but these come chiefly from Italy (Como), Zürich, and Lyons, while for cotton

velvets, woollen and silk upholstering plushes, Germany has almost completely supplanted England, which had hitherto monopolised this field.

Of late years the German traders have advanced the prices of metal-ware and hardware by their excessive activity in many branches (merchant iron, for instance), and have left the field to the Belgian competitors rather than make any concessions. On the other hand, for some iron and forged iron articles Germany has again driven out the hitherto dominant Hungarian imports.

In 1898 the imports of the various items were as under :—

	Millions of francs.
Machinery of all kinds, steam-engines, electric and gas motors, agricultural and industrial machinery,	14.49
Iron and steel implements,	1.60
Iron and steel machinery and parts of same,	1.52
Rough hardware,	1.51
Rolled iron of special forms,	1.47
Leaf gold for gilders,	1.43
Polished iron and steel wares,	1.28
Hoop-iron for wheels, etc.,	1.25
	Thousand francs.
Rolled sheet-iron,	952
Carriage axles, iron pipes, anchors, and chains,	928
Iron bolts, rivets, etc.,	879
Iron wire goods, and iron and steel sheeting,	550
Copper, brass, cast bronze, etc., wares,	512

In 1898 iron girders for building purposes, of the normal German types, were for the first time forwarded, besides Germany, by Belgium and Hungary, which had hitherto rolled only heavy work of this type. For these wares, Hungary has the advantage of shorter and cheaper means of transport.

Great Britain, Germany, and America share in the importation of agricultural machinery, ploughs, etc. America supplies the steam-ploughs, corn-reapers, grass-mowers; England three-fourths of the threshing-machines; Germany the ploughs. Since 1880, when the primitive Rumanian plough was superseded by the Plagwitz firm with their improved 'Saxon plough,' as it is called, 10,000 ploughs, worth £53,000, are yearly imported from Germany.

The demand for hardware is met chiefly by Westphalia, Great Britain and France ranking next to this German province. Since 1897 the United States have also begun to compete, and are represented by Hamburg and Westphalian houses.

In sheet-zinc the German works are preferred to the Belgian, although dearer. For this they are indebted to the excellent quality of their wares, and also to the packing in frames of 250 kilograms, which have been adopted with advantage.

Steel, on the other hand, is supplied chiefly from the Austrian (Styrian) and British factories.

The main demand for screws is covered by France. The better sorts, however—those especially consigned to the government—fall to the share of Germany, despite their somewhat higher price.

Lacquered metal ware (household utensils) are imported almost exclusively from Würtemberg, to an average yearly value of £20,000. The Austrian imports are steadily declining, although Austria takes the lead for enamelled tin-plated articles.

White metal wares, especially knives, forks, and spoons, come from Austria-Hungary, although an upward tendency of the German industry may be noticed. In tinned-steel knives, forks, and spoons Germany has outstripped the Austrian trade.

Cheap table and hanging lamps come from Germany, better qualities from Austria.

In merchant iron and tin, a large increase of Hungarian imports is noticed, while in iron structures and iron railway materials there has been a similar increase of imports from Italy and Austria-Hungary, as well as from France.

Important items of the import trade are coffee and tea, which are supplied by Hamburg houses in increasing quantities—about £120,000 at present.

In the supply of chemical products and dyes, the German industry has maintained its supremacy in the Rumanian market. The importation of drugs fell from £108,000 in 1894 to £48,000 in 1897, but in 1898 again rose to £96,000.

III. Rumania's Tariff Policy.

Before the year 1875 Rumania did not enjoy the right of concluding independent commercial treaties, being in this respect subject to the same conditions as were agreed to by Turkey. But despite the protests of the Turkish suzerain, she concluded in 1875 commercial treaties, first with Austria, and then with Russia and France and the other Powers.

At the beginning of the year 1880 two innovations caused a return to the protective policy. One was the increasing competition of the oversea corn-producers in the markets of the world; the other, the increased duties imposed by all the Western States on the importation of raw materials. What was at first perhaps not clearly seen was felt.

The only means of gradually saving agricultural interests from the ruinous effects of the growing oversea competition lies in the furtherance of the home industries and their consuming capacity. In this way a great demand for agricultural produce is created in the home market, while the surplus labour is kept on the spot by being assured of constant employment. With this consideration in view, various agricultural States have, during the last two decades, endeavoured to foster a 'national' industry by artificial means, and primarily by introducing a protective tariff. But all industries are most effectively encouraged by ensuring the consumption of the local produce. For this purpose the further exclusion of the foreigner was, for instance, already aimed at so early as 1880 in Hungary by the enactment requiring the wants of the State, of the communes, and of the institutions controlled by the State to be supplied exclusively from the home industries.

Starting with this fundamental principle, the Rumanian government also set about the systematic furtherance of the national industries, both by special prizes in conformity with the 1887 enactment, and also by high tariffs, aiming at the exclusion of foreign competition. The protectionist policy was ushered in by the tariff war with Austria-Hungary in 1886; but it cannot hope for decisive results until the Balkan States jointly agree to a Balkan Tariff Union, which,

however, still lies far afield. Without such a Zollverein, these States—condemned by nature to depend on agriculture and the allied pursuits—are too small, too thinly peopled, too destitute of capital, and still too little developed to attempt an aggressive commercial policy.

With Austria-Hungary, as well as the other Western Powers, Rumania was able in 1892-93 to renew the treaties on the basis of mutual concessions.

There are commercial treaties with the following States: Germany, October 21, 1893, terminable on December 31, 1903; England, August 31, 1892; Austria-Hungary, December 21, 1893; Belgium, January 22, 1894; France, February 28, 1893; Switzerland, March 3, 1893. An agreement on the basis of the most favoured nations exists with Bulgaria, in virtue of a yearly renewable treaty of 1895-97, and with Russia, based on a note issued by the Russian government on October 1, 1893.¹ As no agreement could be come to with Turkey, that Power imposed in the spring of 1900 differential duties on Rumanian products, by which the flour and petroleum industries in particular have been seriously affected.

Free transit is conceded to all those States with which Rumania has concluded commercial treaties, the others paying on an average a one per cent. through tax. Formerly the cities of Galatz, Braila, and Ismail were free ports; but these privileges were withdrawn in 1876 and 1883, Galatz and Braila being at the same time raised to the position of national entrepôts.

The legal protection of trade-marks was regulated by the law of 1879.

On international trade-marks² there exist the following treaties: with Germany, January 19, 1893; England, May 4, 1892; Austria-Hungary, January 23, 1893; Belgium, March 8, 1881; France, April 31, 1889.

¹ The Rumanian customs tariff and commercial treaties were collected and published in 1899 by C. Braileanu (Bucharest, C. Göbl).

² Printed verbatim in C. Braileanu's *Conventions de la Roumanie avec les états étrangers* (Bucharest, C. Göbl, 1899).

CHAPTER XI

The Inland Trade and its Organisation.

I. Currency.

AFTER the Crimean War, in harmony with the monetary union of the Latin nations (1861), the bi-metallic system was introduced, and the franc (*lei*) = 100 centimes (*bani*) made the money unit. As a result of the Russo-Turkish War, the Russian silver rouble, being rated above its value, encroached on the general circulation to such an extent as to oust all the other metal coins. In order to remedy the disorder, a gold standard was adopted in 1888 (see p. 196). This step contributed substantially to strengthen the public credit, and to restore confidence in the currency. Nevertheless, the small stock of Rumanian gold was so much felt during the crisis of the year 1899, that the *agio* (premium) advanced 4 per cent., and the exchange was high.

Of silver pieces there were coined 5, 2, 1, and $\frac{1}{2}$ lei, exactly on the precedent of the Latin union. All customs and taxes must be paid in gold; gold coins are minted only in small quantities, so that the short supply of the national coins is supplemented by foreign pieces.

Of these the most widely circulated are the French 20-franc piece, the Russian imperials, the Turkish gold liras and 20-shilling

pieces, which are rated as under by the Rumanian and Bulgarian governments :—

20-franc piece	= 20.000	gold-lei.
Old Russian imperial	= 20.60	„
Turkish gold lira	= 22.70	„
20-mark piece	= 24.70	„
Sovereign	= 25.22	„

A law of April 1900 introduced nickel coins of 20-centimes, and withdrew from circulation all gold, silver, and copper coins which were worn down or drill-holed and had lost more than one-tenth of their legal value.

II. Extent of the Home Trade.

According to the tax-office register there are no less than 100,000 persons engaged in trade, a number which is probably three times in excess of the actual needs of the country. In 1898 there were enumerated :—

		Increase since 1889.
Liabile to taxation generally,	951,200	127,000
Special traders,	100,460 = 10.6%	14,600
Including :—		
Rumanians,	66,447 = 66	„ 9,700
Foreigners,	11,162 = 11	„ 593
Jews,	22,854 = 22	„ 4,319

III. Retail Trade.

In most of the chief towns the condition of the retail business is not unfavourable. It is materially affected by the good or bad harvests in the country, as the inhabitants of the towns and urban districts are the only buyers, while there is little foreign business done. Hence when the landowners, tenant-farmers, and peasants have money to spend after a good harvest, business also becomes brisk. From the competition of the co-operative stores the retail dealers have not yet suffered, nor are they any longer affected by the peddling business since the enactment of

the law of March 17-29, 1884. That law on the 'itinerant trade remains still unchanged, and is from time to time enforced with more or less rigour by the various district administrations, while attention is also frequently called to its provisions by the Chambers of Commerce.

The so-called 'warehouses,' in the foreign acceptation of the term, have not yet made their appearance. Nor are there any legal or regulating measures respecting retail dealing. Whoever wants to start a business has only to have his firm entered in the commercial register of the local court, and even this legal requirement dates only from April 18-30 of the same year, 1884.

Fairs are held in the months of July, August, and September, the most important being of course those of the large towns, especially Folticeni, Caşin, Tecuci, and Roman. In the last-mentioned large quantities of corn change hands on market-days.

Recently the efforts of the Chambers of Commerce have been directed more especially at the abolition of these annual gatherings, on the ground that they are presumably injurious to the wholesale trade, and cause many failures. But so far no active steps have been taken in the matter.

IV. Hawking, Co-operative Unions, Commercial Travellers, Clearance Sales.

Before the year 1884 the stationery retail business in Rumania had to contend with a keen competition on the part of pedlars, especially in manufactures and smallware, but also in colonial produce, etc. But in that year, as already stated, a law was passed on itinerant dealing, which imposed serious restrictions on hawkers and packmen, as well as on auctioneering. Since then the competition of the 'nomadic industry' has considerably abated. According to an estimate made at Yassy, the proportion of pedlars to shopkeepers was scarcely one to four in the year 1893; but in reality the relation is much more favourable, because in these figures are included those hawkers whose dealings are illegal within the meaning of the Act, and who have consequently recourse to all manner of devices to carry on their business.

Hawking is forbidden in the municipal districts, where the ministry can grant licences only for the products of agriculture, the forests, market-gardens, and house industries. In such cases the otherwise indispensable consent of the communal officials is not required.

On the other hand, peddling is permitted—unless barred by special regulations—in the rural communes and at the officially recognised markets. Hawking licences, which take the form of a ‘packman’s booklet,’ can be obtained only after payment of all rates and taxes, and are withheld on various grounds—police sanitary considerations, the youth of the applicant (before his eighteenth year), or his past or present disorderly life. Penalties of from £4 to £40 are imposed for violations of the chief requirements of the Act.

Commercial travellers plying for private custom are subjected to the same conditions as the hawkers. Article 5 of the law deals with commissionaires, agents, and brokers acting between producers and traders. They can offer goods for sale or take orders only on behalf of the wholesale and retail dealers whom they represent. They are bound to enter in the Chamber of Commerce, or in default thereof in the mayor’s office, the names of such firms, and produce the certificates authorising them to act for those houses. Hitherto commercial travellers had not been troubled much by such formalities; but these have again been rigorously enforced by a decree of April 1900.

Retail dealers and hawkers are subject to no special taxes; like the stationery merchants, they pay the charge on their certificates, and that is all.

As already stated, co-operative unions have had no great success in Rumania. Many are of opinion that the severe competition between the small shopkeepers lowers the prices to such an extent that there is absolutely no need of co-operative stores. In Bucharest there is an establishment of this sort under the general direction of the railways, for which the management has organised a section for the purchase and sale of goods to railway officials and workmen at moderate prices.¹

¹ More success appears to have attended some other forms of co-operation in Rumania. Thus in Bucharest there are two shoemakers’ unions which, by purchasing in common, supply their members with the raw materials, tools, etc., and hold general sales. Both associations have held their ground well, and command adequate capital.

V. Chambers of Commerce and of Trades.

Of these there are no less than ten—almost too many for vigorous action. Nevertheless they display more initiative than those of many other States, especially in their efforts to improve the public credit. Such chambers are found in Botoşani, Braila, Bucharest, Constantza, Craiova, Focşani, Galatz, Pitesci, Ploesci, and Yassy.

VI. Inquiry Offices.

The offices hitherto opened, of which there are two at Bucharest, had already been placed under the control of the local Chamber of Commerce. According to a decree issued at the end of the year 1899 by the Domains Department, such offices must henceforth be attached to each of the ten Chambers of Commerce, and placed under their control.

VII. Credit and Cash Business.

A bad feature of Rumanian trade is the excessive use made of credit. Cash transactions, which would be of great advantage, are rare even when large discounts are allowed. This is due to the custom of giving credit for three to six months, or even longer, which has everywhere been introduced amongst manufacturers. It is done even in the case of large and well-established houses, so that it gives no clue as to their solvency.

You have but to open a business and hang out a sign, and lo! there is a rush of wholesale dealers, brokers, agents, and petty bankers, who are often nothing but usurious money-lenders, all eager to stock your store to overflowing, and in their reckless rivalry ready to jeopardise their own and other people's capital.

When the crisis comes, and credits are everywhere foreclosed, owing to the panic caused by the general economic state of affairs, there is the inevitable crash not only of small but not unfrequently of large houses.

At the end of 1899 the crisis due to the unsound long-credit system recalled many economic lessons. The small bankers, for instance, sought to battle with the storm by means of a syndicate, mutually binding

themselves to agree to no settlement without security, and grant no accommodation beyond 30 francs without first satisfying themselves of the borrower's solvency by the production of his books. But the syndicate came to nothing. At the same time the Rumanian importers saw that they would have to be more careful in the choice of their retail customers, and forbear the practice of ordering double the quantity of goods required to meet the demand.

In the spring of 1900 the Austrian vice-consul Wipperm had some remarks on this, amongst other points, in the *Handelsmuseum* :—

‘Our merchants will do well always to inform themselves first of all on the solvency of their customers, either through the Imperial and Royal Consular Agencies, or through some first-class banking firm, and from time to time renew their inquiries. Our exporters should likewise proceed with the greatest caution in the choice of their representatives and agents on the spot, and especially, before appointing them, make sure not only of their reputation, but also of their business capacity. Let the agents be instructed, in taking orders, to be most accurate, have the terms specified in writing, where possible according to accompanying samples, and see that the orders are subscribed by the customer. Running accounts should be avoided to the utmost, while all possible despatch should be used in getting the acceptances, which is usually done through the agents. The cashing of bills by agents is as a rule not to be recommended, and it is wiser to trust these matters to good banking houses. Our merchants cannot be too urgently advised, in regard of their local customers, not to confine themselves exclusively to the action of their agents, be these ever so energetic and trustworthy.’ ‘Our manufacturers,’ adds the vice-consul, ‘should seek where possible to enter into personal relations with their Rumanian clients, and for this purpose either themselves visit the consumers’ districts from time to time, or else have them visited by members of the firm. For the local agents are usually occupied with the sale of the most diverse objects, so that they cannot possibly possess such thorough information in all branches as is desirable. The travellers should be familiar with the language of the country and with the habits of the local trading classes. In the advertising department more might also be done than hitherto.’

VIII. Insolvency Proceedings.

From the facilities for obtaining credit in Rumania is also explained the spread of fraudulent credit and the general abuse of the credit system, made especially by dishonest bankrupts. In November 1899 the Bucharest Chamber of Commerce again handed over to the criminal judge the ‘black list’ of those who make it their business to bring about ‘artificial failures’ in order to plunder both

debtor and creditor. At the same time, the government called on the prefects to direct their special attention to the alarming increase of incendiarism in the establishments of insolvent traders. With a view to the further improvement of the credit system, and of the legal protection of the trading classes, a bill was introduced at the end of 1899 for the purpose of modifying the bankruptcy law of 1895. The government aims by this measure at putting a stop to the practice of debtors who prepare their case long before filing petitions by 'putting up' imaginary creditors to the detriment of the real creditors, reduce the liquidation adjustment to the very lowest percentage, and then get off without paying anything. In the draft of the bill, the proposed amendments declare that the statement of a creditor on the precarious financial state of a merchant made before the proper authorities will suffice for them to demand the production of his account-books. According to the 1895 Act, the compulsory liquidation is substantially arranged as in the German insolvency proceedings. The bankrupt cannot obtain his discharge unless at least 40 per cent. of their claims are ensured to the creditors; but the new enactment (1899) proposes to raise the proportion from 40 to 60 per cent. This minimum offer, however, the insolvents can cover by their own note of hand—a power which they on their part frequently abuse, especially to the injury of foreign creditors. Such a fraudulent proceeding might be restricted were the law to declare those discharges alone to be valid under which the payment of the accepted offer is made in cash or else guaranteed by good securities. Another means of providing such security might be obtained by the insolvent offering to continue his business under the inspection of a representative body of his creditors, authorised to deduct from the receipts enough to cover the amount of the accepted offer. The control of the creditors would, of course, cease on payment of their proportionate claims. Unfortunately, it is precisely such guarantees that are overlooked in the newly projected law, which takes no account of the many suggestions made in this direction. No doubt it enables a discharged insolvent who fails to fulfil his obligations to be prosecuted for fraudulent bankruptcy on the petition of all the creditors. But owing to this required preliminary consent of all the creditors, the provision is inoperative in the case of the foreign creditors.

Of the other modifications, one, for instance, is to the effect that a discharge shall not be valid until all the objections eventually brought by individual creditors against the legal claims of others are finally disposed of by the competent commercial tribunal. Further, all future purchases of goods are declared invalid which are made for the family of the insolvent debtor or for his relations to the fourth degree six months prior to his suspension of payments. Lastly, the amended law proposes the abolition of the 'Juges Commissaires' (Judges in bankruptcy), whose functions are in future to be intrusted to the 'Syndics' to be chosen from the judicial body. Formerly these Commissioners were chosen from amongst the lawyers or the merchant class. Since 1895 a Commissioner could be appointed only from the judicial or official bodies, as they offer better guarantees for impartiality, and also acquire by experience a greater knowledge of routine than can be expected from a lawyer or a trader.

The clause in the projected law may also perhaps be found interesting which affects the hawking business in connection with clearance sales. Article 3 runs: 'A clearance sale, except of surplus stock at the end of the season, shall not be commenced or advertised without the previous consent of the Chamber of Commerce and, where none exist, of the Communal authorities.' Article 4: 'Such consent can be given only in case of failure, death, or retirement from business. The consent is given only for a fixed time; but the period may be prolonged should its necessity be shown.'

CHAPTER XIII.

State Finance.

I. State Finance and Credit.

AT the union of Moldavia and Walachia in a single Rumanian principality there was no public debt, but neither was there any public credit or public estate. The administration of the finances was simple enough. Spending little on public objects, the State had need of but a relatively small revenue. But with the political and cultural emancipation all this was soon changed. The public expenditure rose from £3600 in 1874 to £8,880,000 in round numbers in 1899. Since 1874, merely for the re-organisation of the army and putting the country in readiness for war, £16,000,000 have been spent. At present Rumania has a public debt of £57,280,000, for which a yearly interest of £3,600,000 has to be provided. Consequently the annual expenditure is higher than in States of equal size. Nevertheless in recent years the State has succeeded in balancing the public accounts.

As a first great financial operation, required by the growing needs of the young cultured State, a public loan of £880,000 was contracted in 1864. First and foremost the rivers had to be bridged, highroads and railways built. With the roads a beginning had been made in 1833, and by 1863 775 kilometres had been constructed. Then, for the erection of 19 iron tubular bridges a sum of £80,000 was

raised, and this increased in 1896 by £540,000, redeemable by 17 years terminable annuities.

In 1865 annuities to the value of £840,000 were issued for the construction of the Bucharest-Giurgiu railway. Of the subsequent loans the heaviest was that of 1880, contracted for the nationalisation of the railways. The several lines were leased in his lifetime to the well-known Dr. Strousberg, and later the system was completed by the Rumanian Railway Joint-Stock Company, which had taken his place. For the purpose of this great and highly important operation, the government emitted 6 per cent. State scrip, which it converted to the bonds and preference shares issued by the company. For 100 francs nominal value in ordinary stock it gave 60 francs nominal in 6 per cent. scrip with a 2 per cent. premium. For 100 francs 8 per cent. railway preference shares it gave $133\frac{1}{3}$ francs in 6 per cent. scrip with a $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. premium.

Altogether, the government paid in 6 per cent. scrip premiums to the amount of £8,880,000, and also took up for £1,900,000 the 6 per cent. bonds issued by the railway company. In 1871 it had paid the company £380,000 cash, so that the government transactions amounted altogether to £11,160,000.

This successful arrangement of the railway interests contributed not a little to meet the financial embarrassments with which Rumania had to struggle during the seventies. Since then the financial position of the country has steadily improved, while its foreign credit has been rapidly strengthened.

On the financial operations between 1864 and 1880 only $73\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the nominal capital could be realised. The 4 per cent. loan of 1898 was quoted at $92\frac{1}{2}$. But it should not be overlooked that the lowering of the international rate of interest, which was unchecked till 1899, also contributed to this result.

In the financial development the agio constituted a further danger, the significance of which may be estimated by the fact that the exchequer has yearly to pay £2,280,000 in gold for annuities, while Rumania has to send a yearly sum of about £15,600,000 abroad in payment of her foreign imports.

After the retirement of Joan Bratianu from office in 1888, the

financier M. Ghermani (*ob.* January 1899) was intrusted with the highly responsible task of introducing order into the State finances, which had been seriously disturbed by a heavy burden of debts, and by the results of a high premium on gold. He carried through the financial reform with an able hand. The rapid introduction of a gold currency, effected at very little cost, was especially a politico-financial master-stroke.¹

With the year 1889 the agio had also disappeared, and both the government and trade were relieved from the injurious effects of the gold premium.

At the same time, for Rumania as for all agricultural States, there remained a permanent vital question—What guarantee does the country offer for its lasting productive power, so long as it is dependent on recurrent failures of the crops? This became a critical question, for instance, in 1894, when the exports, owing to the bad harvest of that year, fell to nearly £4,000,000 below the average. At that time Dr. M. Ströll, Director of the Bavarian Notenbank, remarked in *Schmoller's Year Book* (1895), p. 1162 :—

Agriculture is capable of far more thorough management. The by-products of the land are still largely neglected, though capable of much profitable development. One drawback of landed property is absent from which Central Europe suffers. In other words, Rumanian agriculture will still survive long after that of Central Europe has given up the struggle. . . . Another question also, whether dangers may not be increased through the country's indebtedness in gold to foreign States, may be answered in favour of Rumania. When the gold premium began to threaten a serious advance towards the end of the eighties, the country made energetic and successful efforts to introduce order into the currency relations. It got rid of its superfluous silver at a sacrifice by purchases, and of the injurious excess of its paper circulation by taking up a gold loan for the purpose of redeeming the mortgage deeds.

By these measures the gold circulating in the arteries of commerce was increased, the national economic system based altogether on gold and on a sound settlement of accounts, and the ruinous agio once for all set aside. Its return is not to be feared. A land with an inland gold currency, which sells its cereals in the foreign markets exclusively for remittances in gold, can on the other hand contract debts in gold, and pay the interest in gold without risk to its currency. Above all, Rumania possesses in its well-

¹ Amongst other steps he also undertook the repayment of the £1,020,000 mortgage stock issued in 1877. This enabled him to issue 4 per cent. exchequer bonds redeemable in 44 years, and in the country itself quoted at 80 per cent.

conducted National Bank a credit system which, by means of an elastic paper circulation covered by a gold reserve, regulates the metal currency of the country, provides for the means of effecting settlements, and of maintaining a general equilibrium.

To this view we may still adhere, although the satisfactory developments suffered a rude shock in the autumn of 1899. It came about in this way.

As already above explained, the private and public economic systems are dependent on the results of the harvests. For years the country has had to meet a yearly deficit of £3,600,000 in the balance of international trade. In private transactions the debit side, and in leasehold farms the rents, have increased to such an extent, that both ends can be made to meet only in prosperous years. For years the commercial classes and the leasehold farmers have been working too much on credit, for which reason crises had already been felt for some years, although only here and there sporadically in one or another branch. But during the summer of 1899 a monetary pressure was developed both in Rumania and the neighbouring Poland. Then, owing to the unsatisfactory prices, the great landowners and merchants speculating in corn, who had still large reserves from the previous harvest either in their own magazines or in those of their bankers and agents, could not make up their minds to sell at the low current prices determined by the circumstances and by the foreign markets.

In the summer of 1899 there was a widespread failure of the crops in every part of the country. Wheat yielded only one-third of the average, and many farmers did not even save enough for the next year's sowing. Rye, oats, rape, and barley were total failures, so that the local demand for these cereals had to be almost exclusively supplied from abroad. Even the maize crop was indifferent, and of course the whole trade of the country was affected by this blow.

There came a crash, which had its explanation chiefly in the reduced purchasing power of the agricultural populations. It caused serious embarrassment in all the trading and financial circles, which found its expression in the increase of the agio and the rates of discount, but, owing to the unfortunate coincidence of the unfavourable state of the European money market, led also to failures of trading and other houses, some relatively well-established and of high standing.

The situation was rendered still more acute by the circumstance that the government itself was in urgent need of money. Trade and agriculture were in arrears with their rates and taxes, and the treasury suffered a loss of revenue, roughly speaking, of £1,600,000 through reduced customs, dues, and farm rents. Then, agrarian disturbances having broken out especially in Little Walachia with the opening of the year, and again in June 1899, the government found itself compelled to assist the distressed districts with sowing seeds, relief works, and so on. For several years the State had begun to make short treasury advances, which had reached a total of £120,000, and these had now successively fallen due at the inopportune time when all the public coffers were empty. The government found itself hard pressed to meet these difficulties, which, despite their temporary nature, were keenly felt, since, as already stated, the European money markets were under an unpropitious constellation, owing chiefly to the Transvaal War.

Then came, at the end of November 1899, the loan of £7,000,000 on exchequer bills, which brought gold again into circulation. The trading classes gradually became more confident, and the State creditors conceived great hopes that the Finance Ministry would once more effect a balance between receipts and expenditure.

In order to form an estimate of the future state of the financial position we should, in the first place, take a retrospective view of what Rumania's financial capacity was even a few decades ago, and consider what it still is in the other Balkan States. The requirements of a modern State in respect of railway and road building, military equipment and fortifications, had as it were fallen by night suddenly on the land, before its productive and taxable capacity had been at all developed.

Hence the means needed for these purposes could be raised only in the international money market. The young struggling State soon earned general confidence, not only by balancing its revenue and outlay, but also by its upright commercial and financial dealings, a primary condition of the modern credit system. But the other Balkan States have not yet bridged over the gap between lavish expenditure and limited means, and are consequently in a state of either half or complete insolvency. After the emancipation Rumania rapidly introduced order into her financial department, and, thanks to the influence of the King

on the German Hohenzollern dynasty, secured the required measure of credit. By far the greater part of her borrowings is met by a productive capacity the creation of which was aimed at by the loans themselves. The national railways and domains alone suffice to cover the whole of the present public debt.

Besides the revival and increase of various taxes, at the end of 1899 the State introduced a series of projected economic reforms which are expected to promote a more thorough exploitation of the rich natural resources of the land. One of the proposals is that foreigners also may acquire landed property for industrial purposes. Another facilitates the establishment and administration of joint-stock companies; a third the disposal of the domains in allotments, the purchasable size of which has been reduced to from 5 to 2 hectares, according to the demand in the more thickly peopled districts. It is also proposed to leave the construction of local railways to private enterprise, and repeal those enactments which require the National Bank to deposit all its reserves in the Rumanian State funds, instead of which it shall in future keep a gold reserve.

These combined efforts should succeed in improving the economic relations of the Danubian State to such an extent that bad harvests, like that of 1899, may no longer have such disastrous consequence as heretofore. As, for instance, the neighbouring kingdom of Hungary, which had suffered even more severely in 1874, rose from its distress to new life and vigour, Rumania also, with its prospective wealth, will be able equally well to weather the storm.

II. Public Debt and Expenditure.

Compared with that of some States of equal size, the debit side of the budget for 1898 stood thus:—

	Population in millions.	Public Debt in millions of £ stg.	Interest on the Debt.	Expenditure.
Belgium,	6.5	104.0	4.02	17.6
Bavaria,	5.8	70.7	2.4	18.97
Rumania,	5.4 (or 6.1)	49.6	3.3	9.0

As in all modern States, the chief heads of the expenditure are the large sums needed for the interest and terminable payments ('amortisation') of the public debt, military equipment, and the new requirements of education.

The 'National Public Works Programme,' projected by the government in 1880 on large lines, and since carried out, involved an outlay between 1880 and 1894 in round figures as under :—

	Million £
Railways,	23.
Bridges,	1.2
Docks in the Ports,	0.7
Transport Appliances,	0.6
Highways and Byways,	2.7
Fortifications and Armaments,	5.8
Railway Stock, Monopolies, Agricultural Funds, National Bank, etc.,	1.8
Introduction of gold currency and the redemption of the 1889 mortgages,	1.5

In view of the present financial condition, of special interest may be the following statement on the origin and actual state of the public debt (see the Tables and Summary on p. 201).

This summary differs from that in Schanz's *Finanzarchiv* (1889, ii. p. 127), as well as from that in Saling's *Börsenhandbuch*, inasmuch as the nominal sum there given is 1545 million francs. This, however, is due to an error. Thus Saling gives the items :—

5 per cent. Annuities,	1879, 44.6 million francs.
6 per cent. Agrarian Loan,	1880, 31.6 „
5 per cent. Railway Bonds,	1882, 47.9 „

These, however, have been redeemed and converted, so that they appear twice over in Saling's addition.

To the summary has now to be added the December 1899 subscription for 175 million francs in 5 per cent. exchequer bills issued by the Rumanian government, in order with the proceeds to effect the complete redemption of the now circulating six months exchequer bills for 37,850,000 francs (£1,514,000), £700,000, and 7,850,000 lei (£314,000), and further to cover the payments required for the completion of the railway system and other public works.

Lending Houses.	Year.	Nominal	Realised	Redeem-	Convert-	Public
		Capital.	Amount.	able by 31st Mar. 1899.	ible by 31st Mar. 1899.	Debt on 31st Mar. 1899.
In million francs.						
Stern,	1864	22.89	17.79	22.89
Barkley and Stanifoth,	1864	12.02	12.02	12.02
" "	1866	13.75	13.75	13.75
Oppenheim and Co.,	1866	31.61	18.22	31.61
G. Heliarde,	1872	3.77	3.77	3.77
Lemberg-Yassy Railway,	1868	51.53	51.53	0.51	...	51.02
Rum. Ry.-A. G. 7% Oblig.,	1868	248.13	248.13	4.84	243.29	...
" " 6% "	1880	237.50	232.66	6.54	230.96	...
" " 4% Annuities,	1890	274.37	233.90	14.72	...	259.65
" " 5% Oblig.,	1881	47.94	47.94	44.79	...	3.15
Domain Obligations,	1871	78.00	58.50	21.98	56.02	...
5% Terminable Annuities,	1881-88	436.52	395.81	51.54	37.47	347.51
Mortgage Bonds,	1871	26.26	26.26	0.51	25.75	...
4% Annuities,	1889	32.50	26.75	3.35	...	29.15
Trust Funds,	1872-75	10.28	9.52	4.51	0.30	5.47
" "	1886-88	12.53	12.53	2.65	9.88	...
" "	1889	13.30	10.18	13.30
4% Annuities, terminable,	1889	50.00	42.35	4.85	...	45.15
4% " "	1891	45.00	37.60	3.56	...	41.44
5% " "	1892	75.00	70.27	3.65	...	71.35
5% " "	1893	50.00	46.78	2.00	...	48.
5% " (internal),	1894	6.50	6.50	0.23	...	6.27
4% " "	1894	120.00	104.55	4.37	...	115.63
4% " (external),	1896	90.00	75.40	1.57	...	88.43
5% Perpetual Annuities,	1875	44.60	28.99	14.37	30.23	...
6% Rural Obligations,	1880	31.60	25.88	4.81	26.79	...
4% Annuities,	1898	180.00	180.00
Total,		2245.60		292.69	660.69	1292.22

4,456 Bonds at	100 francs =	445,600 francs	Bonds	1235.74
584,868	" 500	" = 292,434,000	" L. C. J. E.	51.02
237,957	" 1,000	" = 237,957,000	" Deposit Accounts	5.47
82,639	" 2,500	" = 206,597,500		1292.23
96,233	" 5,000	" = 481,165,000		
857	" 20,000	" = 17,140,000		
1,007,010 Bonds worth		1,235,739,100 francs		

These various stocks were quoted on the Berlin Exchange on December 31st of the several years as under :—

	Amount. Million francs.				
5 per cent. Terminable Annuities of 1881-88 (of these 37.4 million francs converted at 98 to 4 per cent. Terminable Annuities),	436.5	1882	91.20	1898	100.60
5 per cent. Railway Bonds,	47.9	1881	98	1898	102.25
4 „ Loan (internal) for 1889,	32.5	1889	83.40	1898	91.90
4 „ „ (external),	50	1889	85.40	1898	92.60
4 „ „ 1890, for redemption of the 6 per cent. Railway Loan,	274.3	1890	85.70	1898	92.60
4 per cent. Loan, 1891,	45	1891	83.10	1898	92.60
5 „ „ 1892,	75	1892	96.75	1898	101.10
5 „ „ 1893,	50	1893	95	1898	101.10
4 „ „ 1894,	120	1894	84.40	1898	92.70
5 „ „ (internal), for 1894,	6.5				
4 „ „ (external) „ 1896,	90	1896	88	1898	93.20
4 „ „ „ 1898,	180 1st quotation	94		1898	92.90

The quotations for the 1896 4 per cent. annuities issued at 86 per cent. were :—

	1898.	1897.	1896.
Highest,	95.50	93	88
Lowest,	92.50	92.50	81

In the year 1899 :—

	Quotations.	
	Highest.	Lowest.
5 per cent. Rumanian Terminable Annuities,	101.60	93.60
4 „ „ 1889 Annuities,	93.00	82.50
4 „ „ 1890 Terminable Annuities,	92.40	82.10
4 „ „ 1894 „ „	92.40	82.00

This public debt stands in direct ratio to the value of the productive State property thus : Railways, 750 ; Domains, 250 ; Fisheries, 50 million francs ; total, 1050 = £42,000,000. Besides the receipts from the domains, a further indirect set-off to the liabilities of the State is presented both by the taxable power of the nation, which we have here still to set forth, and by the national property, which is estimated at £660,000,000.

Such a heavy burden as the interest on the public debt is no doubt otherwise a danger for the economic development of a country. But Rumania may presumably be regarded as an exception to the rule. The capital procured by borrowings has been so advantageously invested that the taxable capacity of the people has been increased, and the ultimate extinction of the debt thereby secured. More serious for the public credit, as already indicated, is the persistence of the adverse balance of the foreign trade. But this honourable government, ever punctual with its payments, has earned so much confidence in the international money markets that it will still be able to master both its present embarrassments and those passing difficulties which may spring up in the near future.

III. Taxable Capacity of the Nation: Public Revenue and Expenditure.

The public receipts and expenses in the 1899-1900 budget are balanced in millions of francs as under :—

A. RECEIPTS—	1899-1900.	1898-99.
Total,	228	222
Direct taxes (land, buildings, trades),	34	33.8 or 32.4
Indirect taxes (customs, stamps, spirits),	70	66 „ 79.4
State monopolies (tobacco, salt, matches, playing-cards),	53.9	52 „ 53.2
Domains (leasehold farms, and forests),	25	24.9 „ 22.3
B. EXPENDITURE—	1899-1900.	1898-99.
Total,	228	222
Public Debt,	86.4	81.8
War,	45.9	45.2
Finance,	27.4	26.6
Public Instruction,	30.0	27.8
Home Office,	18.5	18.4
Public Works,	5.6	5.6
Justice,	6.6	6.6

REVENUE.

In the Turkish provinces a feeble effort was first made in the thirties of the nineteenth century to cease farming the taxes, and levy them directly for the State. But the lack especially of honest officials, and the loss of revenue, stood in the way of any serious improvement, and this was at first unavoidable. The second pressing reform was the framing of a system of direct taxation.

Both of these weighty reforms Rumania necessarily regarded as most urgent the moment she acquired the independent administration of her taxes.

In the course of the eighteenth century the indirect taxes had acquired a tremendous mansidedness in the hands of the Phanariots, those most ingenious of financial tricksters. Besides the duties, there were poll, land, salt, corn, tobacco, wine, swine, cattle and sheep assessments, besides slaughter and milk, bee and publicans' licences. Even still the indirect taxes, though in a modified form, constitute the basis of the Rumanian system.

Under those foreign rulers the incidence of taxation fell chiefly on the lower classes, that is, the peasantry, and on this section (83 per cent.) of the population it still presses, so much so that 60 per cent. of the total expenditure is covered by the yield of the indirect taxes.

Before the union of the two principalities there were virtually only a poll and a land tax. But in 1859 a productive public domain was first of all created by the secularisation of the monastic estates; and since 1881 a portion of these estates has been set apart for inland settlement and the creation of small leaseholds. Then were introduced several monopolies, such as those of powder and tobacco in 1872, playing-cards and matches in 1886, besides the trades licences in 1863, the tax on spirits in 1881, and so on.

At present the indirect taxes still yield 60 per cent. of all the receipts, or from 15 to 30 per cent. more than in the West European States.¹ With the introduction of the differential tariffs in 1886 the Customs were also increased. They yielded in millions of francs 22½ in

¹ In England they contribute 29 per cent., in France 33, in Spain 40, in Russia and Austria-Hungary 45, to the total revenue.

1890, $36\frac{1}{3}$ in 1893—the year of the highwater mark for Rumania—and 32.37 in 1897.

The direct system was only gradually developed, and is even still defective and incomplete. In the year 1883-84 it produced in millions of francs 24, and in 1899-1900 34, and figures in the 1900-1901 budget for 41 as a result of the new financial measures.

Now the government is confronted with the necessity of covering all the expenditure provided for 1900-1901 out of the State revenue itself.

Hence during the winter of 1899-1900 various taxes were increased or revived, by which an additional £720,000 should be raised. The direct taxes had a rise of about 10 per cent., and a similar percentage was added to the patent, sugar, brandy, stamp, and registration dues. A new tax of 7 centimes per kilogram was put upon petroleum, and another on servants' wages, besides a war-tax, which are expected to yield £32,000. To these was added a rise of the railway rates, which should bring in a further sum of £200,000. Of the total rise £280,000 come under the direct taxes, and £120,000 under the State monopolies. Among the new imposts is one of 5 per cent. on officials' salaries, which should yield £160,000. But more practical would be a reduction of the excessively numerous official staff—a result of party rule. A radical improvement depends above all on a still further retrenchment of the public expenditure.

In their details the State receipts are organised in the following way:—

1. INDIRECT TAXES.

(a) *Stamp-duty*, in terms of the 1881 and 1886 enactments, for entries in official registers, memorials to officials, legalisation of written agreements, wills, and bequests.

Interesting, as an indication of the growth of business, is the increase in the yield of this tax, which rose from £236,000 in 1880 to £596,000 in 1897.

(b) A duty on legacies in the direct line has not yet been introduced; but those in the lateral lines are taxed from 3 to 6 per cent.

according to the degree of kinship, and 9 per cent. in the case of strangers.

For both duties a large increase (some £280,000) is contemplated, and that amount might still be easily realised. For instance, the incidence of taxation per head of the population in francs is 18.52 in France, 12.35 in England, 5.48 in Austria, 5.12 in Prussia, 5.80 in Italy, and in Rumania only 2.75.

(c) *Spirit-duty* is set down in the 1899-1900 budget for £720,000, or £120,000 more than in 1898-99.

From 1879 to 31st March 1897 the collective receipts were £22,000,000, having risen from £840,000 in 1879-80 to £1,500,000 in 1896-97, thus showing an increase of £648,000.

Between 1879 and 1897 the expenditure amounted altogether to £6,864,000, being £332,000 in 1879 and £412,000 in 1893-1897, so that there has been a yearly increase of £80,000. In the period from 1879 to 1897 the total clear gain was £15,888,000, and £508,000 and £1,084,000 for the respective years 1879-80 and 1896-97. Thus the increase amounts to about £576,000, or 53 per cent.

The *Beer Tax* is very high—30 centimes per litre. For small distillers the spirit-duty is raised in the form of a land-tax of 10 francs per hectare on an orchard planted with plums.

The breweries and distilleries are moreover subject to a special kind of impost, having to pay from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 francs per hectolitre boiler capacity.¹

Before the year 1885 nearly all the publicans were Jews, who 'exploited' the peasants in every way. They not only held out every inducement for the peasants to drink on all occasions, but were also always ready to advance them money at usurious rates of interest, so that the interest was soon larger than the capital. Moreover, they almost always adulterated the liquors with injurious ingredients.

¹ On comparing the duty on liquors with those of other countries, we find that for the hectolitre of alcohol the tax is 189 francs in England; 249½ in Holland; 225 in Norway; 221 in Russia; 156 in France; 140 in Italy and Sweden; 128 in Belgium; 112½ in Germany; 98½ in Austria-Hungary; 97 in Switzerland; 91 in Spain; and 80 in Rumania. The yield of the spirit-duty per head of the population is 10 shillings in England; 9.2 in Holland; 5.5 in France; 2.7 in Germany; and 2.9 in Rumania.

To meet these abuses the government raised the liquor-duty, and enforced the 1885 enactment requiring that those only could be publicans who enjoyed the franchise, thus excluding all but Rumanians. But the result was unsatisfactory, and in consequence the question has already been mooted of making the publican's business a State monopoly. Owing, however, to the prevailing parliamentary strife, this is impracticable, as every party would probably want to have their own licensed victuallers. The trade is heavily taxed, and subject to registration, licence, building-fees, and lastly poll-dues—in a word, to all direct taxes; and all this is not so much on financial grounds as, in the interests of social economy, to reduce the number of public-houses. Nevertheless these are steadily increasing, having advanced from 25,000 in 1880 to 27,000 in 1893; that is, 17,520 in rural and 9590 in urban communes, so that in 1893 there was one for every 237 inhabitants of a village, and one for every 86 of a town.

Taking the 1893 returns, the inland consumption of liquors is: wine £1,240,000, brandy £132,000, and beer £128,000; or annually £2, 11s. 6d. of wine, 2s. 2d. of spirits, and 2s. of beer per head of the population. According to the statistical tables in Conrad's *Pocket Dictionary*, Rumania ranks seventh amongst European States for the consumption of wine, and third for spirits (*cf.* G. D. Creanga in Schanz's *Finanzarchiv* for 1899, part ii. p. 141).

2. MONOPOLIES.

The monopolies yield 24 per cent. of the public revenue, the most important being *tobacco*. This was introduced in 1872, and till 1879 was in the hands of English farmers-general.

In the budget for 1899-1900 the tobacco monopoly figures for £1,548,000; that is, £40,000 more than in 1898-99, the inundations having been very destructive in recent years.

During the last three decades the proceeds of the *salt* monopoly have been doubled, and at present amount to £260,000 (in 1894 still only £220,000).

The *match* and *playing-cards* monopolies yield collectively £140,000.

In February 1900 the *cigarette-paper* monopoly acquired importance. It is a consideration not only for the treasury, but also for the consumption of tobacco, inasmuch as in Rumania nine-tenths of the tobacco is smoked in the form of cigarettes. This monopoly is estimated to yield £40,000 yearly, while the consumers will not have to pay more for the cigarette paper. As this is not actually made in the country, but only cut up into leaflets and gummed together in packages, the monopoly can in no way hamper the development of the home industry.

3. PUBLIC DOMAINS.

The possession of great domain lands contributes above all to the sound state of the finances and of the public credit. Excluding Dobruja, of these lands an extent of 754,805 hectares were sold to the peasants under the government of King Charles between 1868 and March 1897. Thereby much was done, not only for the advancement of the rural populations, but also a total sum of £8,740,000 was raised, and of this over £4,600,000 have been paid into the State coffers. At the same time the revenue of the still unsold tracts increased from year to year, and at present yields over £800,000. No doubt there was a drop to £540,000 in 1899-1900, but this was due to the deferred payment of farm rents, which was granted to the leaseholders of domain lands in consequence of the bad harvests, and will be later made good by the payment of arrears.

The value especially of the public forests is steadily increasing, thanks partly to the improvement of the roads and the development of the railways, but partly also to the effects of a systematic extension of the highways, as well as of scientific planting and a more thorough forest culture, although only the first steps have been taken in this direction. Amongst the improvements in recent years undertaken in the general management of the forests, prominence should perhaps be given to the stop put to the encroachments of the pastures on the State woodlands; the establishment of a new forest technical institute in Branesci, and the completion of the Foresters' Training School in that place; the extension of planting to the flat sandy wastes and to the Baragan district; the laying-out of central and provisional forest-nurseries; etc.

According to the report issued by the Domains Minister at the beginning of 1900, the area of the forests under his administration is 1,085,000 hectares. Of these 600,000 are managed strictly as woodlands, 163,000 lie quite waste, while 320,000, or 30 per cent. of the whole area, are under timber, but not yet exploited. To this category belong, above all, the great primæval forests of the Carpathians, which, owing to the rugged nature of the land, or to lack of communications, remain untapped. Such especially are the tracts in the Arges district (50,800 hectares), in Muscel (50,480), in Valcea (45,000), and in Gory (31,800). In Dobruja also the utilisation of the planted lands still leaves much to be desired. Here the largest stretch of neglected woodlands lies in the Tulcea district (26,660 hectares); in the Constantza district also there are 18,100 hectares which still remain absolutely unexploited.

The most extensively wooded district is Neamtz, with 150,800 hectares, of which 128,170 are being worked. Yet the ten years' yield of these forests from 1889 to 1899 has been only £120,000, or 1s. 8d. per year and hectare less than that of the Ilfov district, which with only 26,360 hectares under timber, and of this only 21,600 worked, yielded £172,000 in the same period, or about 13s. per year and hectare. A similar yield of over 7s. or 8s. per hectare is obtained so far only from the two other districts of Vlasça and Teleorman—both nearly 10s., with 135,000 and 10,400 hectares respectively.

Some of the Domain receipts are of interest in the study of cultural development. Thus:—

	1893-94.	1899-1900.
	Thousand francs.	
Land sales in Dobruja,	354	1700
Payments of newly married couples who have received		
State allotments,	142	90
Tithe receipts in Dobruja,	515	750
Domain receipts in Dobruja,	272	1230
Canals and ponds,
Rushes from Dobruja,
Calimanesci, Lacul-Sarat, Govore, and other baths,
Stone quarries,

4. THE DIRECT TAXES.

These are derived mainly from real estate, and yield about half (in 1893 not one-fifth) of the direct taxes.

The various sources of revenue are as under :—

	1898-99. Receipts.	1899-1900. Anticipated.
Millions of francs.		
Land and building taxes,	15	16
Road tolls,	5.6	6
Licences for sale of spirits,	5.1	5.40
Registration fees (trades),	3.4	3.6

To this is to be added a surcharge of 10 per cent. on all the direct taxes—collectively from £1,280,000 to £1,360,000, and since the last rise in 1900 £1,640,000.

I. *The Land-tax* amounts to 5 per cent. for ground under cultivation, or per square kilometre 84 francs (365 in Italy, 221 in France, 221 in Austria, 139 in Prussia); in urban districts 34 francs (250 in Italy, 211 in France, 202 in Austria, 113 in Prussia). On leasehold plots whose owners live abroad the tax is increased 12 per cent. as a check on the increasing absenteeism.

At present the following are exempt from taxation :—

- (a) Artificially drained tracts for a period of ten years.
- (b) Freshly planted orchards, mulberry groves, and vineyards for five years.
- (c) Newly reclaimed land for three years.

As in France, the tax on trades is fixed on a sliding scale according to the category of the income and the size of the commune, whether under 3000 or over 3000, 15,000, 25,000, and 100,000 inhabitants, as well as on proportionally varying increments.

In the class of direct taxes is also included a kind of poll-tax, such as is raised in all Eastern States, and in Rumania under the title of a 'road-tax.' It amounts to five shillings, and is levied on all male adults from the twenty-first year; but numerous exceptions are provided for in the law.

5. CUSTOMS.¹

The Customs amounted to £132,000 in 1863, to £400,000 in 1872, to £900,000 in 1890, and £1,360,000 in 1898-99. Even after the increased rates introduced in 1891 they continued to rise steadily, amounting in 1892 to £1,188,000, and in 1893 to £1,440,000. Consequently the increase is to be regarded as exclusively due to the internal development of the land.

¹ The Customs policy of the government has been explained in the chapter on Foreign Trade.

CHAPTER XIV.

Banking and Credit Institutes.

TILL the beginning of the sixties the country still lacked the economic leverage of public credit. Little money circulated, and capital was mainly conspicuous by its absence. For its loans the State depended exclusively on the Paris, Vienna, London, and Berlin banks. The commercial and enterprising spirit was destitute of financial support, while individuals had to draw their capital from a few wealthy usurers at exorbitant rates of interest.

This manifold state of dependence and bondage the government sought to remedy by centralising the public funds, by associations based on common interests, by founding companies and banking institutes disposing of large capital, as well as by establishing savings-banks. In this way it gradually succeeded in lowering by one-half the public rates of interest, which ranged from 12 to 18 per cent.

The foremost institution is the *Rumanian National Bank*, the *Rural and the Urban Land Credit Institutes* taking the second place. The first association had its origin in 1869 in the Bucharest 'Societatea Economica,' whose chief object is to discount bills drawn by officials on their salaries. It is at the same time a savings-bank and a mutual credit association; for it buys State scrip, makes advances to the members at moderate interest, and so on. On its model similar corporations have sprung up in the provinces, especially at Yassy, Piatra, and R.-Sarat.

A material help to trade was the foundation on July 1, 1880, with the co-operation of the State, of the Rumanian National Bank with a joint-stock capital of £800,000 (£480,000 paid up). The National Bank has branches at Braila, Galatz, Yassy, Craiova, etc., and was able to declare a dividend of 12 per cent. on its very first year's transactions. The co-operation of the State consists in a joint-stock investment of £160,000 on which it draws dividends according to the yearly balance. The bank has also to credit the government with 20 per cent. of its total earnings.¹

An idea of the operations of this bank is presented by the subjoined survey, from Robin and Staicovici's *Statistica Româna*, which also shows the share of the State in its profits :—

YEAR.	Discount Business. Mill. francs.	Loans. Mill. francs.	Paper in Circulation. Mill. francs.	Specie. Per cent.	Clear Profits. Mill. francs.	Share of the State. Mill. francs.
1882	338	22	44	57·49	1.92	0.7
1892	1386	16	55	53·14	3.08	1.07
1893	996	21	77	57·15	3.05	1.07
1894	1108	19	61	52·31	3.20	1.11
1895	915	17.9	67	56·11	3.20	1.11
1896	1145	18	73	55·39	3.22	1.11

The nett profits in 1897 and 1898 were £132,000 and £164,000; those of the State £44,800 and £86,400 for the same years; the reserve funds £416,000 in 1897, and £456,000 in 1898. On the 1899 business the bank was able to distribute £180,000 nett earnings.

The experience of the 'black year' has shown the necessity of increasing the joint-stock capital. The institute has to rest on such solid foundations that no serious disturbance of its functions may be caused either by passing crises, or by general and exceptional financial disorders. Its administration must, moreover, be kept free from all political influences and vicissitudes.

Another banking business, the *Banque de Roumanie*, was formed

¹ In June 1900 the National Bank offered the government £640,000 for its shares in the business.

in 1884 at Bucharest by foreign (chiefly English) bankers. This is a joint-stock concern, which undertakes financial, industrial, and trading operations, both for outsiders and on its own account, whether in Rumania or abroad, and also finds the ways and means for undertakings in the department of Public Works. Of the original capital of £1,000,000, £300,000 have been paid up. The directorship comprises five London, two Paris, and two Vienna bankers.

Lately, the great banking institutions have been increased by four powerful associations, which have also their headquarters at Bucharest. These are:—1. The 'Banque agricole,' founded on July 10, 1894, with a paid-up joint-stock capital (January 1, 1899) of £360,000, its object being to aid the large landowners in obtaining credit. The directors are Th. Rosetti, C. Varnav, and E. Uhrinowsky. 2. 'Creditul agricol,' founded in 1881 in the interests of the small farmers; in 1897-98 paid a dividend of £60,000 to the State. 3. The 'Banque d'Escompte,' founded April 1898 with a capital of £200,000 (half paid up); is chiefly concerned in promoting business between the National Bank and the trading classes: director, L. Zissu. 4. Lastly, the 'Banque générale de Roumanie' (*Banca Generala*), founded August 1897 by the German Discount Company and Bleichröder of Berlin and some Rumanian capitalists: director, E. Costinescu; nominal capital, £400,000 (£300,000 paid up). Although its chief business is discounting, in the two years of its existence it has, with the co-operation of some Belgian capitalists in Bucharest, effected the transformation of the English Tramway Company to a joint-stock business, and also founded a joint-stock company for the manufacture of sugar.

Under government control, which is exercised by the Minister of Finance, is the Deposit and Trust Fund, an important institution which takes charge of:—

- (a) Voluntary, court, and administration trusts.
- (b) All deposits which are provided for by special articles of the civil and criminal codes, or by special decrees.
- (c) Intestate estates.
- (d) The proceeds of sequestrations.
- (e) Surplus funds of the district and communal administrations.
- (f) The securities deposited by accountants, contractors for public

works, buyers and leasers of estates, so far as these consist of mortgages and immovables.

(g) Securities which payers of duties have to deposit in the cases provided for by the law.

In 1873 the 'Rumanian Land Credit Company' was founded on the principle of the joint liability of proprietors needing advances, who can obtain from the company mortgage deeds up to half the value of their lands. This company began operations towards the end of 1873; at the end of 1874 its 7 per cent. mortgage papers were quoted at 86, and in August 1875 had already risen to 91. Up to September 1895 its issues represented a total sum of £8,800,000.

In 1875 followed the foundation of the 'Bucharest Town-lands Credit,' which grants mortgages on urban ground-plots; also in the form of deeds, which are debited to the acceptor at par. These 7 per cent. mortgage papers were also quoted in the seventies at 86.

In 1880 a mortgage bank was also founded at Yassy.

These credit institutions had in circulation mortgage deeds in millions of francs:—

	Rural.	Bucharest.	Yassy.
1875,	30	2	...
1880,	56	14	...
1885,	98	40	11
1890,	137	53	17
1895,	198	90	18
1896,	215	105	19

The present condition of the minor banking firms—mostly unlimited liability concerns—is shown in the subjoined survey:—

Houses.	Capital in 1000 francs.	Founded.	Directors.
1. Banca 'Colentina,'	200	1 May 1899	S. Nenitescu, D. C. Balacescu.
2. Banca Poporului,	400	13 Nov. 1897	Chr. Staicovici.
3. 'Bucuresci-Noi' A.G.,	800	22 July 1898	J. Poenaru.
4. Creditul Belgo-Roman A.G.,	2500	27 Mar. 1899	Paul Rottenburg, Leopold Withsam.
5. Banca Populara (Pit.),	500	18 May 1899	Gr. T. Coanda.
6. 'Albina' (Bacau),	7	1 April 1896	J. M. Horovitz.
7. Societatea Armeana (Pitesti),	16 Sept. 1897	...
8. Banca Commerciala 'Dunarea' (Braila),	200	5 Sept. 1895	D. N. Negrescu.

Houses.	Capital in 1000 Francs.	Founded.	Directors.
9. 'Albina' (Braila),
10. Speranța (Braila),	100	1 Mar. 1895	...
11. 'Salvarea' (Buzeu),	300	14 Aug. 1898	...
12. Banca de Scompt, Constantza,	400	1 July 1899	L. Jonescu, M. Koiciu.
13. Soc. de economie din Galatz,	May 1886	...
14. 'Covurluiul,' Galatz,	100	16 Oct. 1898	...
15. 'Dunarea,' Galatz,	60	1 April 1894	G. C. Plesnila, Dr. Corivan.
16. Societ. anonima 'Economia,' Dorohoiu,	50	1898	...
17. Banca, Comerțului, Craiova A.G.,	1000	9 Sept. 1899	Tache Andreianu, C. C. Neamțu.
18. Vulturul, Tergoviște,	100	10 April 1885	...
19. Aurora, Slobozia,	10 Mar. 1899	...
20. Banca Mehedințului, T.-Severin,	200	16 Mar. 1899	Tache Habeanu.
21. Caraimanul in Breaza (Prahova),	200	26 Oct. 1893	...
22. Cricovul in Tulga Prahova,	150	1 Jan. 1899	P. Padutescu.
23. Peleşul, Predeal (Prahova),	200	30 May 1897	Achim, Dionsie, Igiroseanu.
24. Soc. Economica din Focsani, Credit Inst.,	980.5	1 April 1897	C. A. Margariteanu.
25. Banca de Credit din Roman A.G.,	40	31 July 1899	A. Bontas, C. Mehinte, A. V. Mortiu, Dr. Rigler, P. Vojen.
26. Creditul Comercial din Caracal,	200	15 Aug. 1899	G. J. Demetrian, A. Constantinescu.
27. Cuza-Voda R.-Sarat, Savings Bank,
28. Soc. economica, R.-Sarat,
29. Societatea Isvorul, R.-Sarat,	1 Aug. 1893	Aristide P. Tataranu.
30. Societatea Podgoria, R.-Sarat,	4 April 1896	G. C. Boldescu.
31. Societatea Prevederea, R.-Sarat,
32. Societatea 'Unirea,' R.-Sarat,	250	10 Oct. 1894	...
33. 'Albina,' R.-de Vede,	300	1 Jan. 1887	...
34. Inalțarea, T. Magurele,	27 Sept. 1898	...
35. Soc. Economica, R.-de Vede,	80	31 Dec. 1896	P. M. Protopopescu, Dim. Letu.
36. Banca Populara 'Dobrogea' in Tulcea,	200	8 July 1898	Laonida Sterea, Dr. Onceanu.
37. Banca Valcea,	100	7 July 1899	A. D. Macincescu, D. Sisciu.
38. Unirea Comerciala in Dragașani,	3 Feb. 1892	...
39. Cooperativa din Bêrlad,	116	6 Mar. 1899	Str. Boellescu, Bistriteanu Lazar.

Besides the above list of financial joint-stock companies and associations, there are also, of course, industrial joint-stock concerns, such, for instance, as the 'Steaua Româna,' mentioned in a previous chapter as engaged in the petroleum business.

As a sequel to our account of these organisations, a few particulars on the savings-bank system may be found interesting.

The government establishments show the following development for the various classes of the community on each September 10 in millions of francs :—

	1896.		1898.	
	Thousand Persons.	Million Francs.	Thousand Persons.	Million Francs.
Military, . . .	4.5	1.5	5.5	2.2
Officials, . . .	7.2	3.	8.3	3.3
Traders, . . .	4.5	2.1	6.	2.5
Workmen, . . .	8.9	2.9	10.	3.4
Servants, . . .	6.8	2.2	7.5	2.6
Sundries, . . .	16.3	6.5	18.5	7.97
Minors, . . .	48.5	5.6	49.4	6.7
Total, . . .	97	24	105	29

These deposits are distributed between towns and country as follows :—

		Thousand books.	Thousand francs.
District Capitals, . . .	32	73	22,620
Other Towns, . . .	39	3.7	571
Village Communes, . . .	2227	28	5,816
Total, . . .	2298	105	29,007

FIRE AND LIFE INSURANCE.

The 'Nationala' Fire Insurance Company showed in its various departments :—

	Premiums in Mill. francs.	Reserve against losses. Mill. francs.	Reserve Capital. Francs.	Dividends. Francs.
1882, . . .	1.6	0.3	194,531	13
1884, . . .	2.8	0.9	322,235	18
1886, . . .	3.7	1.3	418,903	15
1888, . . .	4.6	1.9	506,978	20
1896, . . .	3.7	6.0	1,000,000	35

In 1896 the total losses by fire amounted to £456,000, of which only £180,000 was covered by insurance. On State property alone the uninsured damages by fire represented a loss of £18,260.

Life Insurance shows the following development :—

	Soc. Româna. Francs.	Națională. Francs.	Unirea. Francs.
1875,	0.8
1880,	5.2
1885,	6.8	0.6	...
1890,	14.5	2.9	0.3
1895,	14.4	5.6	1.1
1896,	15.6	5.6	1.2



DEPARTURE FOR THE WAR.

Relief from Tilge's Plate, 'Victory,' Berlin.

CHAPTER XV.

Rumanian Army.

AT the accession of Prince Charles in 1866, the army had rather the character of a national militia, and answered in no way to the requirements of the nineteenth century. Down to the end of the fifties the recruits were still driven together, and left to be drilled by adventurers from all quarters. 'Not every soldier gets a gun,' writes Franzos; 'many only a pike, many only a sabre. And as for uniforms, you saw French, English, Russian, Austrian coats peacefully drawn up together; the Hospodar bought just whatever he could get cheap. Half of the men got no uniform at all, and wore the clothes they stood in till they fell to pieces.'

Although Prince Cuza had introduced several reforms, the army still remained unfit to take the field; the weapons were too defective, the common soldier undisciplined, the officer more at home in the drawing-room than on the drill-ground. The armaments were still more deficient than the training. There were only Minie rifles for 15,000 men, all the rest being armed with quite obsolete firearms of diverse calibres and types. Of ammunition there was so little to be had that one might say there was none at all. Powder was made in small quantities in the country itself.



RETURN FROM THE WAR.

Relief from Tölge's Plate, 'Victory,' Berlin.

Prince Charles at once recognised that the principality, hitherto the trysting-place of foreign intrigue and dismemberment schemes, would find its safest trust in its army, the efficiency of which was the only security for the neutrality, for the future and the independence of Rumania. With this object in view he zealously took in hand the organisation of the army on the German model, and on the basis of universal liability to service. In a few years the equipment was complete, the army accustomed to tactical movements, and filled with a fresh warlike spirit. In October 1874 Prince Charles, creator of the system, was already justified in asserting that his people might face the future with calmness, and rally round their army in all confidence. Three years later, on the outbreak of the Russo-Turkish War, the country was able to muster a formidable force of 114,000 men and nearly 200 guns, that is, as many as the whole of Turkey. Prince Charles had in vain endeavoured to secure the recognition of the neutrality of the country, for the maintenance of which the nation had made so many sacrifices. Turkey showed itself incapable of protecting Rumania from Russia. The conclusion of an agreement with Russia, which was later transformed to a full treaty of alliance, as well as the solemn Declaration of Independence (May 22, 1877), was nothing more than what Rumania owed to her own self-preservation and to the national honour. In this conviction the people felt themselves in harmony with their prince.

The successes of the Rumanian army at Widdin, Nicopolis, and Plevna are a twice-told tale. They gave the land its autonomy and prepared the way for its elevation to a kingdom, which followed a few years later.

As the King showed himself a dauntless hero, so the Queen proved a ministering angel. She erected a hospital at Cotroceni, of which she undertook the control, and everywhere put her hand to the work. For each of the wounded she had a soothing or encouraging word, and took an active part in the treatment of the patients, and especially in serious operations. Her admirable devotion and self-sacrifice were thankfully



QUEEN ELIZABETH AS HOSPITAL NURSE.

acknowledged. The most sanguinary event was the assault of the famous Grivitza redoubt, which the Russians had failed to carry on July 18/30, 1877, before which the Pensa regiment had been half wiped out, and which was regarded as the Malakov of Plevna, and the key to the Turkish position towards the north. On August 30 (Sept. 11) the Rumanian army was called upon to renew the attack, which is thus described in the Memoirs *Aus dem Leben des Königs Karl von Rumänien* (iii. p. 266):—

‘Despite the murderous fire to which the storming column was exposed all along the line, it advanced without wavering, but had at last to pull up and retrace its steps, covering the way with its dead.

'The Turkish grenades fell thickly close to the Prince, who saw with horror the ranks of his troops lying mowed down before him. Twice the forlorn hope of the storming column push up to the trenches of the deadly Grivitza redoubt, only to be twice beaten back. Then the Prince can no longer patiently remain at his post of observation; he bursts down into the midst of his men to encourage them by his presence; he appeals to them, and calls for yet another effort, which must succeed. The fearful losses must not be in vain; now it is a point of honour to capture the redoubt. The battlefield is strewn with dead and wounded; many officers have fallen.

'The troops, inspired to fresh efforts, stand by their Prince, and are ready once more to hurl themselves on the fatal path. Prince Charles orders Colonel A. Anghelisku to try again with all still available forces, and sends orders to General Schilder-Schuldner to have ready a supporting column for the attack.' (Cf. also Vacasescu, *Ueber den Krieg von 1877*, p. 163 *sqq.*)

After the war of 1877 the organisation of the army made still more rapid progress, attention being paid not only to the increase but especially to the more thorough efficiency of the forces.

Universal liability to bear arms had already been introduced in 1876. But the present organisation rests on the law of 1891, which underwent a few modifications with the introduction of the 1900 war-tax.¹

In the terms of this law there are three branches of the service. The first—that of the 'permanent' troops—comprises the army serving under the flag and its reserves; the service in the active army lasts from

¹ According to the law of 1900, those liable to service who are exempted on family or public grounds have to pay a defensive or military tax, while those entirely exempt are at once enrolled in the militia. The military tax is fixed at five shillings, which has to be paid annually during the period of service, and to this is added another tax which amounts to 0.4 per cent. of the land or industrial tax and 2 per cent. of the produce, but must not exceed a maximum of £80 a year. From this military tax are exempt those whose income is under £20. Regarding one-year volunteers, a regulation has been adopted requiring them to pass an examination, which shall decide whether they shall be released from active service after six months, whereas formerly the obtaining of a commission sufficed to secure them this favour.

Subjects of the German Empire can now comply with the German military regulations without having repeatedly to visit Germany. In recent years, German schools abroad have been authorised to certify for one year's service, and German physicians to take evidence of possible incapacity on the part of Germans liable to military service. This convenient arrangement was extended to German residents in Rumania at the beginning of 1900, when the Imperial Chancellor authorised Dr. Scheller, a German physician in Bucharest, to take medical evidence on the incapacity or conditional capacity of Germans liable to service, but permanently settled in Rumania, in conformity with standing orders.

the twenty-first to the thirtieth year, substitutes receiving a bounty of from £40 to £48 and higher pay, and on re-enlistment from £48 to £56.

The second branch—the territorial militia—is formed by those who have served their time in the first and are thirty years of age, and by conscripts directly enrolled in the ‘half permanent’ forces, but not summoned for garrison duty. This section is summoned for a period of five years twice a year, in spring to the shooting-practice, and in autumn to the field-manceuvres. Enrolment in the full service or half service is decided by lot. There is no half service for the artillery, the engineers, the gendarmerie, and the artificers and ambulance corps.

From his thirtieth to his thirty-sixth year, every Rumanian capable of bearing arms belongs to the militia, which musters only in time of war. From this period till his forty-sixth year he belongs to the ‘Gloata’ (*Levée en masse*), which can be called out only in case of war for home service.

The annual contingent of conscripts numbers from 28,000 to 30,000, of whom 11,000 join the standing army and 17,000 the half-service men, called ‘Dorobanzi.’

When mobilised, the active army with its reserves may exceed 200,000 men. In the second line are six classes of the militia, with a total of 150,000; and lastly, ten classes of the ‘Gloata’ with 200,000. Thus the mobilised forces represent a collective strength of over 550,000 men.

In 1897 the peace footing stood at 54,000 men, 3269 officers, 390 field guns, and 11,723 horses, the war footing being 168,000 men, 3670 officers, and 52,000 horses. Peace footing in 1899, 64,000.

The men are armed with the Mannlicher repeating rifles, model 1893, 6.5 mm. bore, with an extreme range of 2750 metres; the artillery comprises almost exclusively cast-steel Krupps.

The army forms four army corps, with a division for Dobruja, the whole being distributed as under:—

1. Corps *Craiova*—Districts of Mehedintz, Gory, Doly, Valcea, Olt, and Romantzi.
2. Corps *Bucharest*—Districts of Muscel, Argeş, Dambovitza, Teleorman, Vlaşca, and Ilfov.

3. Corps *Galatz*—Districts of Prahova, Buzeu, Yalomitza, R.-Sarat, Braila, Putna, and Covurlui.

4. Corps *Yassy*—Districts of Dorohoiu, Botoşani, Yassy, Suceava, Neamtz, Vaslui, Roman, Huşi, Tutova, and Bacau.

Dobruja Division—Districts of Constantza and Tulcea.

Each army corps comprises :—2 infantry divisions, 1 cavalry brigade, 1 artillery brigade of 3 regiments (1 artillery corps and 2 divisional regiments), 1 train squadron, 1 hospital company, and 1 commissariat company (bakers, etc.).

An infantry division consists of 2 brigades of 2 regiments, and to each division is attached a regiment of artillery. A few brigades have also a battalion of chasseurs.

In 1898 the infantry numbered altogether 83,500 men, that is, 28,200 active, 52,500 half-active, 2800 chasseurs, and 10,000 militia.

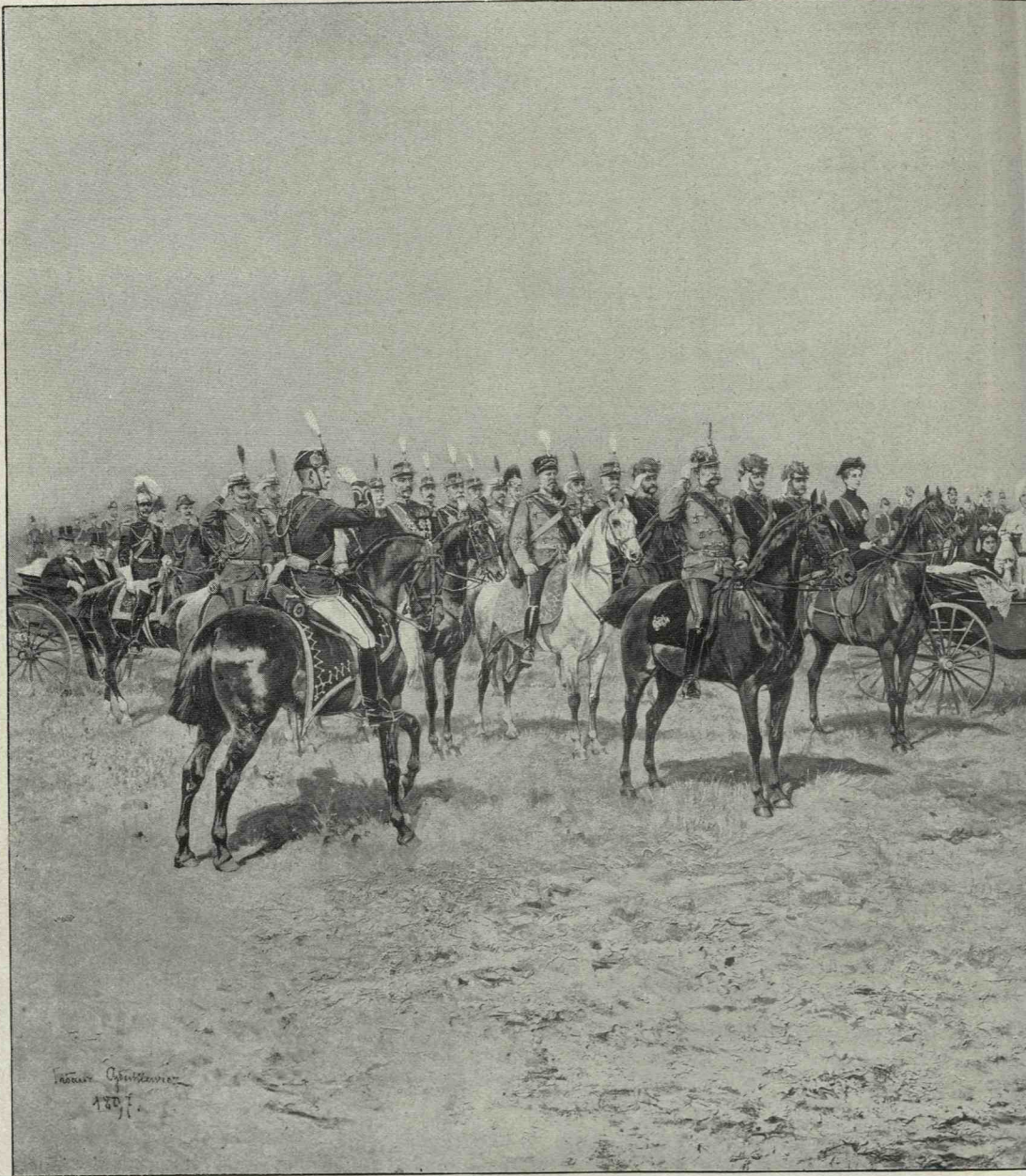
The infantry comprises 35 regiments of *Dorobanzi*, with 3 battalions of 4 companies each. A regiment has a peace footing of 46 officers and 527 men, and in case of war may be brought up to 3000 men.

Besides the infantry, there are 6 battalions of rifles or chasseurs, with 4 companies each, the battalion having an effective strength of 16 officers and 467 men.¹

In 1898 the cavalry comprised 7300 active and 3600 half-active horse. With the gendarmerie, the train, and the various depots there are altogether 12,000 men and 9900 horses.

The cavalry is divided into 17 regiments, with 42 full- and 28 half-service squadrons. Amongst them are 6 regiments of *roshiori* (hussars) with 4 squadrons each; 2 regiments of active *calarashi*, with 4 active and 1 half-service squadron; 8 regiments of *calarashi* (light cavalry), each with 3 half-service and 6 active squadrons; 1 special *calarashi* regiment for *Dobruja* with 4 squadrons (2 active and 2 half-service men). To these regiments there are on an average 35 officers. The active squadrons number 122 swords and 100 horses, the half-service 200 riders

	Rumania.	Bulgaria.	Servia.	Belgium.
¹ Peace footing of the Army, . . .	45,000	38,000	18,000	48,000
Yearly expenditure in million pounds, . . .	1.650	0.900	0.500	2.100
Per head of the population, . . .	6s.	5s. 5d.	4s. 5d.	6s. 7d.
(Turkey, 7s. 11d.; German Empire, 12s. 1d.; Holland, 12s. 11d.; Great Britain, 18s. France; 19s. 7d.)				



Imperial Parade at Cotro

From a Painting



ucharest), September 1896.

Painter Adjukiewicz.

and 200 mounts. Attached to the cavalry are also 3 squadrons of gendarmerie and 4 squadrons of train. There is further in course of formation a squadron of royal guards, comprising 142 men.

The artillery has a total strength of 6200 men and 3665 horses. There are 65 batteries, each of 6 guns, and 12 regiments, of which 8 are divisional (field) and 4 'corps,' each of the latter with 4 mountain and 1 mounted battery. Of the divisional regiments 4 have each 5, and the other 4 each 6 batteries. A mounted battery numbers 120 men and 140 horses, and a mountain battery 70 men and 50 horses. Of siege artillery there are 2 regiments, each with 10 companies and 1 troop; altogether, 2031 men. The more important artillery establishments are: (1) the Bucharest Arsenal for construction, gun-making, metal-casting, and pyrotechnics; (2) the depot and repairing arsenal at Tirgoviste; (3) a smokeless-powder mill at Bucharest; (4) the Laculetz powder-mills, which also make hunters' powder. In these various establishments 800 soldiers are employed under officers and artillery sergeants.

The engineer corps comprises 2 regiments of 3 battalions with 4 companies each, the first two battalions of each regiment consisting of 1 company of telegraphists and 3 of sappers. The third battalion of the first regiment is the railway battalion; the third of the second regiment is a pioneer battalion, and has charge of the pontoon service. On the peace footing the engineer corps has a total strength of 2755 men.

The gendarmerie comprises 360 men, partly on foot, partly mounted. Of the former there are two companies, one stationed at Bucharest, the other at Yassy. The officers are drawn both from the infantry and from the cavalry.

The 'administrative' troops comprise four companies of artificers (one for clothing), and five companies of the commissariat with their various depots. Total strength, 1100 men.

To the hospital service are attached nine military hospitals and four companies of hospital assistants, with a separate section for Dobruja; altogether, 730 men.

In recent years the highly efficient state of the Rumanian military system was revealed, especially in September 1896, when the Emperor

Franz Joseph visited the kingdom. On the Cotroceni plateau, near Bucharest, was held a grand military parade, in which 22,000 infantry and 3000 cavalry with 106 guns took part. On that occasion the bearing of the men met with the full recognition of the Emperor, while his staff and the special reporters were filled with astonishment.

The Rumanian navy consists of:—

	Guns.	Tons displacement.	Horse-power.
1 protected cruiser <i>Elisabeta</i> ,	14	1400	4700
1 training-ship,	2	350	160
1 screw despatch-boat,	2	130	240
5 gunboats,	10	500	1400
1 ship for the mining service,	2	104	150
3 coastguard vessels,	6	135	300
3 torpedo boats, 1st class,	6	168	1734
3 „ „ 2nd class,	4	24	300
4 torpedo sloops,	8	136	600
22	54	2947	9584

There are, moreover, a sloop for the transport of torpedoes, six river-police vessels, and two pontoons for the mining service. The ships are in command of 120 officers and engineers, with a crew of 1670 men, who serve five years, and three years in the reserve. In 1898 the navy was reorganised, and now comprises two divisions—that of the Danube, with headquarters at Galatz, and that of the Black Sea, with headquarters at Constantza.

MILITARY TRAINING ESTABLISHMENTS.

In connection with the army there are a large number of schools. In the regiments elementary instruction is given in schools of the first and second class to persons wishing to become non-commissioned officers. A naval school educates the engineers and cadets for the navy.

The strictly military schools are:—

1. Those of Yassy and Craiova intended for the sons of the military; they prepare young men to become commissioned officers.
2. The Officers' School at Bucharest for the education of infantry

and cavalry officers. Here are received young men not only from Yassy and Craiova, but also others desirous of entering the military profession. The course lasts two years, and on passing their examination the students are appointed sub-lieutenants.

3. The Bucharest Schools of Military and Engineering, with three departments. In the first, called the Polytechnic, are entered students for artillery or engineering, after first passing an examination; course, two years. The second is reserved for the artillery or the engineer guards, also with a two years' course. The third department is devoted to mastering the practical work of the service.

4. The Cavalry School at Targoviște; also practical.

5. The Military School; prepares officers for the regimental staff.

6. The School for Administrative Officers at Bucharest; prepares officers for the various branches of the Administrative Service; course, two years.

7. Subalterns' School at Bistritza. Here are received the non-commissioned officers selected for promotion to sub-lieutenants. After a preparatory course of one year, these can pass into the Officers' School.

There are no schools for medical doctors or chemists. Young men wishing to follow these professions are taught in the respective faculties, after which they complete their studies in the Bucharest Military Hospital, which passes for a model institution of its kind. Besides this there are in Rumania nine other military hospitals—one for each division.

The keystone to the system of national defences is formed by the fortifications, which have cost for such a small state the relatively large sum of £800,000. In the year 1885 Bucharest was girdled round with eighteen forts, which make it, next to Paris, the largest fortified camp in the world.

In case of necessity Bucharest can serve as the base for an army of from 150,000 to 200,000 men. At a mean distance of eight miles from the centre of the city, the eighteen forts form a ring of entrenched lines so disposed as still to leave space for an armed battery between each two of the forts. The connections between the several forts are established by a special circular railway reserved for exclusively military

purposes. The flanks of the system are formed by the two stations of Focșani and Galatz, while the Nemolosa *tête de pont* stands nearly at the centre. Of importance is also the flanking station of Odobești, which was begun in the year 1890. The largest stronghold is at Chitila, converging point of the Bucharest-Pitesci-Plöesci railway system.



DOROBANȚI IN THE YEAR 1877.

CHAPTER XVI.

Instruction, Literature, Art, Religion, and Hygiene.

I. Instruction.

NEXT to the completion of the military system, and the development of the productive resources of the land, the advancement of the people in intellectual and political respects was seen over thirty years ago to be the third most urgent task of their rulers. Many of the West European institutions had no doubt already been adopted, as, for instance, constitutional government, national schools, oral judicial procedure, and so on. But the time had now arrived to give substance and kernel to the outer husks, to raise the people to a ripe majority, to awaken their national self-consciousness, and bring them to an understanding of their political coherence and independence. Tatar and Circassian had gone forth from Dobruja; now Oriental listlessness and corruption had also to follow in their wake, and flesh and blood be given to the dry bones of Western formalities by the introduction of constitutional, judicial, and administrative reforms.

As regards general culture, the percentage of illiterates is still high. This is still to be taken as partly connected with the exceptionally indigent daily life of the rural classes, and the fixed idea transmitted from the time of the Hospodars that all valuables have to be carefully

concealed from the eyes of the officials, and the very appearance be avoided of owning any property. But since their relief from grinding poverty, the lack of mental culture is all the more keenly felt. Only a few decades ago anybody possessed of a little education could easily get a public appointment, because small officials with school instruction were still in great request. Thus it came about that the sons of rural innkeepers, of labourers, and even traders, no longer cared to follow their fathers' calling, and consequently school instruction could strike no deep roots amongst these classes. Since 1864 school instruction is free for State functionaries, and obligatory in those communes where schools exist. Since then also general culture has made considerable progress, especially amongst the intellectual and moneyed classes. A fair criterion on this point is presented by the increase in the quantity of printed matter and newspapers forwarded through the post. The figures for these items rose from 4,900,000 in 1888-89 to 36,500,000 in 1898-99.

For the development of public instruction great services have been rendered, amongst others, by T. Maiorescu, D. Sturdza, and especially P. Poni and Sp. Haretu. As Minister for Religion and Education, Haretu has reorganised the whole administrative machinery of instruction, and is himself the most learned and accomplished scholar in Rumania.

For the instruction of girls the Queen has especially deserved well of the nation. For years together she has brought lady teachers from abroad, and has herself often personally undertaken the superintendence and even the management of the girls' schools.

For the schools and general educational purposes the country devoted £720,000 in 1894-95, and this sum has now been raised to £870,000, whereas twenty years ago only a third of this amount was put aside for this object. The outlay of the various communes on the building and maintenance of the local schools has also to be taken into account.

The organisation of the educational system is shown in the sub-joined survey :—

	Schools.	1894-95.		Schools.	1899-1900.	
		No. of Teachers.	Expenditure 1000 francs.		No. of Teachers.	Expenditure 1000 francs.
Village Schools,	3589	4068	...	4255	5398
Urban Schools,	1919	4187	...	1367	4546
Normal Schools—For Boys,	6	152	1044	6	146	970
„ For Girls,	4			2	52	
Lyceums,	12	351 (?)	2465	20	572	3815
Gymnasiums,	18	226		24
Real Gymnasiums,	10	101	361
Seminaries, Christian,	5	83	495	5	94	532
„ Muhammedan,	1	2		1	3	
Higher Girls' Schools,	8	107	381	10	205	610
Technical Schools,	11	116	319	18	152	463
Universities,	2	279	1764	2	284	2208
Fine Art Schools,	2	12	71	2	19	107
Conservatories for Music and Rhetoric,	2	41	190	2	42	218

I. NATIONAL SCHOOLS.

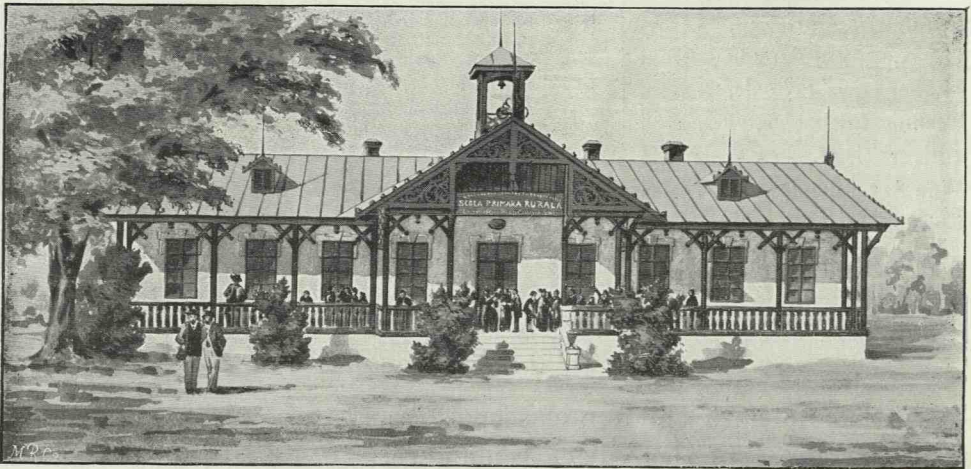
The number of children of school age who receive no instruction is still very great in the village communes. In 1897-98 only about 38 per cent. of the whole number, that is to say 228,000 out of 685,000, attended classes, and of these only 78 per cent. passed their examinations at the end of the scholastic year.

This limited attendance is partly explained by the fact that the school accommodation is still insufficient to receive all the children. In the year 1897 in the whole country there were only 3580 village schools with 246,000 seats, which corresponds to the number of enrolled pupils. Hence much remains to be done in this direction, and the government is certainly making strenuous efforts to remedy the evil. Wherever no schools exist, they have to be erected within the next three years, and the necessary credit advances will be made to the communes in question, which are required to build the schools at their own expense.

Thus in 1898 the erection of 149 new schools was contracted for,

and the total number of scholastic buildings has considerably increased in the last decades, having risen from 1975 in 1872-73 and 2470 in 1882-83 to 3578 in 1898-99.

That the attendance in the villages has also considerably increased is shown in the following figures:—In 1888-89 there were present 88,000 pupils at the examinations, 144,000 in 1895-96, and 180,000 in 1897-98. Moreover, the outlay on village school instruction rose from £24,000 in 1861 and £32,000 in 1870 to £64,000 in 1879, £108,000 in 1889, and £216,000 in 1898.



VILLAGE SCHOOL ON THE 'GHERGHITZA' CROWN DOMAIN.

The village schools on the Crown Domains might serve as models in respect of libraries, teaching appliances, and general equipment.

Of urban schools Rumania possessed in 1897-98 altogether 392, of which 215 are for boys and 177 for girls, whereas in 1872-73 there were only 210 for both sexes.

In 1897-98 the number of town children liable to attendance was 107,625, of whom 70,607, or about 67 per cent., were registered in the public schools. In the same year the number of teachers was 1351, and the expenditure £176,000.

In recent years various urban schools have been provided with kitchens, the cost being met partly by public subscription, partly by the municipalities. In these schools a room is fitted up as a refectory,

where the children get a midday meal for ten, and the poorer for five, centimes (1d. and $\frac{1}{2}$ d.). The arrangement meets with great favour, and steps have been taken to introduce similar 'restaurants' into the village communes, where, considering the great poverty of many families, and in many cases the very great distances of the schools, they could not fail to be most beneficial.

Rumania likewise maintains schools in Macedonia (Rumelia) for the Rumanians settled there at an expenditure of about £8920. There is a school also in Sofia, which was attended in 1898 by about 120 pupils, and has a kitchen attached.¹

2. MIDDLE SCHOOLS.

By the law of March 23, 1898, the middle schools, that is, the gymnasia and 'real' schools (grammar schools, and the like), and the girls' middle schools, have been reorganised.

At present the kingdom possesses 18 lyceums and 14 gymnasia for imparting instruction in science and letters ('humanist' and 'realist' studies). A lyceum has 8 classes, and consequently answers somewhat to a German gymnasium. A gymnasium has only 4 classes, and is analogous to a German under-gymnasium, or a grammar or 'real' school. The new law relieves the teaching body of the management of the establishments, which was hitherto in their hands, and transfers it to the director. Moreover, the number of students in a class is reduced from as many as 100, formerly permissible, to 50 at most in future, and in the upper classes to 40, although this is still too great! Up to Class 4 (fourth form) instruction is in common in the lyceums; but with Class 5 a twofold division takes place in the direction of literary and scientific studies. Amongst the special subjects are included the principles of hygiene and of Rumanian jurisprudence. The study of German and French is obligatory for all the four upper

¹ The Rumanian schools in Transylvania have given frequent occasion to heated parliamentary debates both in Bucharest and Buda-Pest. At last the question was taken up by the Hungarian Chauvinist, Banffy, in 1896. For three whole years the Rumanian establishments had to struggle with penury, because the yearly grant of £1520 was withheld from them. Now that the matter has been put right by diplomacy, the Magyar 'Jingoes' are up in arms against the settlement.

classes; that of English and Italian only for the 'realist' section, while Greek and Latin are prescribed to the 'humanists.'

In the complete and semi-complete establishments girls receive an essentially realist education, which extends to five years. Regular students in the complete establishments can have their names formally entered for certain faculties in the high schools.

Teachers' salaries were considerably increased, and for every four hours' weekly attendance professors now draw £5 a month; female teachers (in the girls' schools there are no male teachers), £4; instructors in religion, £3, 6s.; ordinary teachers, £3. After five, ten, twelve, and twenty years they receive an increase of 15, 30, 45, and 60 per cent. on the original stipend. Thus the salaries of professors, who are limited to twenty-four lectures, rise from £310 to £490 after twenty years' service. Since 1893 the number of teachers has increased from 769 to 1896, and the total expenditure from £148,000 to £180,000.

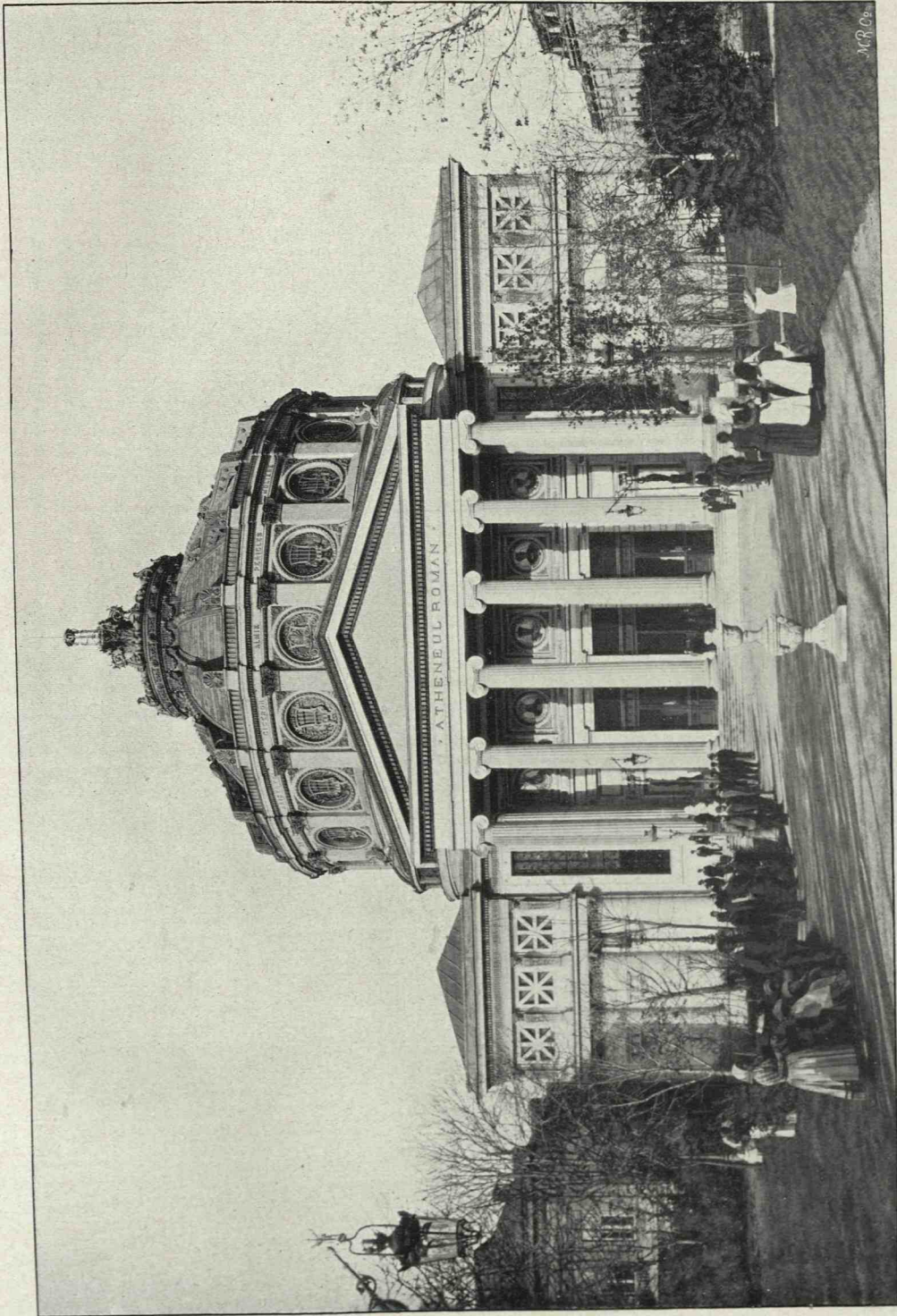
Since 1893 the girls' schools have increased from 23 to 25, and the attendance from 3543 to 4200. According to their organisation the establishments are grouped in 13 professional schools, 8 'externate' (day schools), and 5 normal schools. The teachers number 302, and in 1893 the expenditure was £64,000.

Rumania possesses 390 private schools, some of which adopt the official programme, while others follow a system of their own. Of these 298 are national schools—88 religious, 152 organised on the government model, and 58 with their own system—and 97 middle schools—61 on the government plan, and 36 on their own. In 1897-98 these private adventure schools had an attendance of 22,000, with 1700 teachers.

3. TECHNICAL SCHOOLS.

Besides the middle schools, there are technical institutes—the so-called professional and special schools. Besides the agricultural schools (presently to be dealt with more fully), and the art and artisans' schools at Bucharest and Yassy, these comprise a special school for forestry at Branesci in the Ilfov district, five commercial schools of the first rank at Bucharest, Yassy, Galatz, Craiova, and Ploesci, four lower commercial schools, and one veterinary college at Bucharest.

Of special importance is the gradual development of agricultural



The Atheneum at Bucharest.

From a Photograph by Franz Duschek, Bucharest.

instruction. A great impulse in this direction, together with much information, was given in the first instance by the agricultural college at Herestreu, near Bucharest. Already founded in the fifties, this institution was enlarged with an extension of the courses in 1870, and an increase of the teaching staff in 1887. At present there are nine professors, and the theoretic instruction lasts three years, after which the students receive at the public cost an eighteen months' practical training at a government estate laid out as a model farm. The average number of students is 50, and the expenditure £4880.

There are besides three agricultural schools, founded in the years 1882-85, for educating subordinate administrative officials. Two of these—that of Roman founded in 1882, and that of Slatina in 1885—have a teaching staff comprising a head-master, a farm-bailiff, and a head-gardener, who have each 40 pupils in hand. The third agricultural school also gives instruction in the handicrafts, for which purpose it has an iron and a timber workshop. Here also girls are taught weaving and lace-work. The outlay on the three establishments is £1640, £1920, and £2680. So far, two model farms have been laid out, one in the Vaslui and one in the Romanatzi district, each with a working capital of £20,000 for buildings, implements, machinery, and live stock.

The agricultural experimental station was founded in 1887 for the purpose of analysing the produce and the soil of the country, and of carrying out such investigations as may tend more especially to improve agricultural processes. For instance, numerous analyses have so far been made of wines; and grapes from various districts, with the wines extracted from them, have been studied in the laboratory. The milk from the dairy of the agricultural college and from other sources has been analysed for a period of two years, in order (as also for the wines) to determine its normal constituents. Numerous researches on the nature of the soil have been undertaken. The activity of the station is largely devoted to an experimental plot over three hectares in extent, where numerous essays have been made in tillage and manuring. Amongst other results, it appears that in Rumania beetroot yields good returns, and is rich in saccharine—sometimes over 15 per cent. The staff consists of two assistants and an attendant; the annual outlay is £800.

Of the students who have passed their examinations in the above institutes several are every year sent abroad by the State to complete their training in larger model establishments and more comprehensive agricultural colleges, and then apply their theoretic and practical knowledge to the benefit of their country.

4. HIGH SCHOOLS.

The high schools are represented by an engineers' college for the construction of roads and bridges at Bucharest, and by two universities, at Bucharest and Yassy. In the latter the professorial staff are men of eminence who enjoy a European fame, amongst others, Daniilopulo and Nacu (Jurisprudence), Tocilescu (Archæology), V. A. Urechia (History), Hajdeu (Classical Scholarship), F. Maiorescu and C. Dumitrescu (Philosophy). The Bucharest University, which dates from the year 1864, is attended by over 2000 students, including about 160 ladies. The much-frequented medical faculty more especially enjoys a high reputation. The teaching body numbers altogether about 88 professors.

Besides the direct expenditure on the high schools, grants are also made to specially gifted students, who are thus enabled to complete their studies in various branches of knowledge at the public cost.

5. LIBRARIES.

The principal libraries are those of the *Academy*, which, next to the State Records, contains the most valuable collection of old documents; the *Central Library*; and that of the 'Fondațiunea universitara Carol' (Carol University Foundation), founded by the King on the occasion of his twenty-fifth year's jubilee.

All these are in the capital. Very important is also the State Library at Yassy, as well as that founded by V. Urechia at Galatz, while the fine library of the Nifon Seminary at Bucharest is also worthy of mention. Of some consideration are likewise a few special institutions, such as 'Asilul Elenă Doamna' and 'Fondațiunea Carol,' both in Bucharest.

For orphan girls without means the Elena Doamna affords, besides full support, an excellent education for the female teaching profession, and instruction in all womanly pursuits. This institute, first established

by Princess Cuza and Dr. Davila, has for twenty-five years enjoyed the patronage of Queen Elizabeth, who has discharged her responsibilities in a very practical manner. In 1894 the cost of maintenance amounted to £13,600, which provided for 400 pupils and a teaching staff of 30 persons.

Fondațiunea Carol, which was opened in 1895, is, as already stated, provided with a rich library. Moreover, in conformity with the object of the foundation, it has been placed in a position to aid poor scholars with stipends, and award money prizes for distinguished scientific and literary work.

Mention has further to be made of the *Rumanian Academy* and the *Geographical Society*, in both of which the King has from the first taken a lively interest. The object of the Academy—founded in August 1887 as a literary association—was above all to prepare a uniform *Grammar* and an *Etymological Dictionary of the Rumanian Language*, with a view to uniting, at least on the intellectual ground, the various branches of the Rumanian race dispersed over Hungary, Transylvania, Bukovina, Bessarabia, and Macedonia. It has a capital of £320,000, with a yearly income of £18,600, out of which it awards for Rumanian scientific and literary productions money prizes of £480, £400, £200, etc. It further gives grants in aid—as, for instance, in 1898, 31 stipends of a total value of £2816,—supports schools, and so on. Very valuable are its library, and collections of coins, records, and manuscripts. It is now publishing a large original reference work on Rumanian history, which already comprises twenty-seven quarto volumes for the period down to the Treaty of Paris, and eight octavo volumes for recent times.

Lastly, the Geographical Society is under the presidency of the King, who presides at its meetings. Thanks to the assiduous efforts of its general secretary, Lahovary, it may claim to rank on a level with similar West European associations. In June 1900 it celebrated the twenty-fifth anniversary of its foundation.

II. Literature.

For the beginning of modern literature two men especially have done good service—G. Asaki (1788-1869) in Moldavia, and J. Heliade

Radulescu (1802-1872) in Walachia. Both are also the founders of Rumanian journalism.

Prose and the drama are still in their infancy. But after all, it is scarcely two decades since the questions of a standard form of speech and a script have been finally settled, and since the general spread of national culture has made such forms of literature possible.

The Rumanian literature has taken shape under Slav and Hellenic influences. Its development falls under three main periods: (1) A *Slav* period from the middle of the fourteenth century to 1710, or to the accession of the first Greek prince to the Rumanian throne. (2) The *Greek* period, from 1710 till about 1830. At the end of the twenties the final break with the Greek was completed, and the mighty spread of Western influences ushered in. (3) The modern period, which has not yet reached its goal.

During the Slav period ecclesiastical literature—translations of the Bible, homilies, Liturgy, Catechisms, Lives of the Saints—dominated, in association with history—annals, local and universal history. It is noteworthy that the Slavonic alphabet, which was employed in the first period, was also retained in the second, although the Greek was prescribed in church and school. It was not till the third period that the Latin finally drove out the Slavonic script.

From ecclesiastical to profane literature the transition was a slow process. Church dignitaries and clerics were the first to encourage letters by translating tales with a moral purpose. With these translations were gradually associated purely lyric poetry, and imitations of French, Italian, and German poesy, which grew apace.

Conspicuous amongst the lyric versifiers are the three *Vacarescu*—grandfather, father, and son. Quite apart in his youthful period stands *Vornicul Joan Vacarescu*, with his sonnets, epigrams, and short songs, composed entirely under Greek influence. His contemporary *Barbu Paris Kumuleanu* also belongs to the Phanariot school. *Vasile Carlova*, who died young (1809-1831), shows a warmth of feeling and robust patriotism in his writings. These are all poetic children of Walachia.

But Moldavia also can point to a few distinguished poets in this period, amongst them the Transylvanian immigrant *Vasile*

Fabian Bopp, and above all *Constantin Conachi*. This great statesman (1777-1849), who was familiar with many European languages, has earned a lasting name as a skilful and faithful translator by a number of imitations in a pure, vigorous style. His original works are mostly fugitive pieces.

Simultaneously and jointly with lyrics was developed the novel, at first also under Greek inspiration; but eventually the translator asserted his independence, while rising talent was stimulated to the display of originality. *Simon Marcovici* and *Alexandru Beldimanu* may claim special mention amid the multitude of unwearied translators and imitators. Beldimanu did for the novel what Conachi had done for the song. At the same time historical writers, such as *Neculcea*, *Cogalniceanu*, *Antonie Sion*, *Klain*, *Petru Major*, *Gheorghe Sincai*, *Janaki Vacarescu*, and others, prepare the way for the further successful development of Rumanian letters in a genuine national direction. The language became more ample and richer, while Greek as well as Slav influences are dammed back step by step.

As regards the *national poetry*, the poet *Alexandri* was the first to recognise its high worth, and towards the middle of the nineteenth century set about collecting these precious materials. Others followed in the same praiseworthy direction, so that at present a considerable store of popular lays has been brought together, affording quite a special insight into the national life of the people. The poems of an epic character, a kind of ballad which may in several respects be compared with the Spanish romances, form the chief constituent of the Rumanian national poetry. Especially happy in these compositions are the expressions of hatred against foreign rule; but these of course gradually die away with the close of the Phanariot period. Such is the ballad of *The Waywode Stephen and the Hawk*, which opens with a defiant challenge to the alien to come as a welcome prey into the land. Many have entered who never found their homeward way again; for the Román knew well how to tame such paynim folk, with an arrow for the Tatar, a club for the Pole, a sword for the Turk, a sling for the Magyar.

Attention may also be claimed for the Rumanian *folk-lore* literature, which is pervaded by a breath of Oriental fancy, and often of playful irony.

In the modern period (since 1830), purists have often been overzealous in their efforts to banish foreign elements from the language. *Gheorghe Lazar* (1816) took a specially prominent part in this direction, while his enthusiastic pupil, *Eliade Radulescu* (1802-1872), at once poet and statesman, conceived the daring thought of enriching the national poetry with all the forms which it still lacked. A host of writers, animated by the same sentiment, rallied round him. This group, for whom the year 1848 proved fatal—Eliade had to fly, and exile was the common lot of these inspired leaders of the people,—comprises amongst its more distinguished members: *Constantin Negruzzi* (1807-1868), *Alexandrescu* (1812-1885), *G. Sion* (born 1822), *Bolinteanu* (1827-1872), and *Andrei Mureșeanu* (1816-1863).

A translator and story-teller, *Negruzzi*, had done some excellent work. His historical poem *Squire Purice*, based on authentic documents, is throughout inspired by genuine devotion and fiery love of his country.

Grigorie Alexandrescu's strength and significance culminate in the fable, composed in a popular style. Although under Prince Cuza promoted to the temporary dignity of a Minister of Religion, he died poor, the last five-and-twenty years of his life darkened by an incurable ailment.

G. Sion, banished by Prince Sturdza in 1848, was recalled and appointed Keeper of the State Muniments under Ghika in 1850. Later he devoted himself exclusively to book-making. He wrote reminiscences of travelling, biographies of the poets, critical essays, comedies, and many lyrical pieces after the manner of Béranger.

Dimitrie Cosmad, from his native place called *Bolinteanu*, perished of want and disease—a life embittered by anxiety for his daily bread. He had no doubt been Minister of the Exterior and of Religion under Prince Cuza. But with all his admirable aspirations he lacked the necessary knowledge of the world, and so was unable to maintain himself in that difficult position.

Andrei Mureșeanu, a selection of whose poems was crowned in 1862 by the Transylvanian Literary and Cultural Society, became suspected and was placed under police surveillance for his fiery patriotic appeal: 'Awake, Rumán! Hast not heard the call of Freedom in the deadly sleep in which the foe has wrapt thee? Up! Seize the hour

which may not come again! And carve thyself a future that of thy name may worthy be!

The times, animated by the breath of a loftier freedom, saw also the birth of the Rumanian drama. Only a few decades ago, dramatic literature consisted exclusively of translations. Playhouses had already been opened in the eighteenth century at Bucharest and Yassy, where formerly only Italian and French itinerant companies had appeared. Now came essays at tragedy, which drew its materials above all from the national records. But in comedy no advance was made beyond a clumsy imitation of West European poets. Now the Rumanian drama has surmounted the 'dead point,' and everywhere there is a striving after new substance and new form. The better-known Rumanian playwrights are *Vasilie Alexandri* (1821-1890) and *J. L. Caragiale* (born 1854).

Although very many-sided, *Alexandri* was inferior in depth and passionate sentiment to Bolintineanu and Eminescu. His *Boierii si Ciocoi*, a picture of Rumanian social life, appeared in 1873. His war-songs on the Russo-Turkish War were highly popular in 1877-78. Perhaps his greatest service to literature is his collection of Rumanian national songs and myths, of which there is a German translation by Kotzebue. *Alexandri* has also distinguished himself as lyric, epic, and dramatic poet, and those pieces are also well conceived which touch on the national traditions. Despite many faults and narrow views, from which no pioneer can escape, he has exercised a healthy and educational influence in his plays, through their struggle with the contempt shown for native customs by the upper classes, as well as with the superficial culture which necessarily results from spasmodic attempts to reach the pinnacle of Western civilisation.

In direct contrast to the always buoyant *Alexandri* stands Rumania's greatest lyrist, *Michael Eminescu*, whose mental evolution rests on a German foundation. He is the most important of those poets who have allowed themselves to be swayed by the influence of Schopenhauer. In his own country he received but stunted recognition of his merits, and even still numbers amongst his fellow-citizens as many bitter opponents as he does enthusiastic worshippers. His honourable, straightforward attitude, which could bend and cringe to no man, but above all his conception of true patriotism, combined with his poverty

to hamper his career. He died of insanity in an asylum near Bucharest on June 15, 1889.

At present the poetic world stands under the ban of the pessimistic views of the universe, to which the mature poet has given glorified expression with almost eerie classic perfection. But he must still be called a highly gifted poet, because each of his abruptly shifting notes is deeply and truly felt, and for the most part enshrined in language of classic finish. Venice is painted by the poet as a 'City of the Dead' in a sonnet in which every syllable, as with his German precursor, Von Platen, seems as if sculptured in marble:—

'Quenched of Venice is the glowing life—Beams no festive hall, no strain echoes in the dance—On marble stairs through the gateways old—Shines the moon alone with clear silver flood.

'Round about stream Ocean's hot laments—He, ever young, yearns with heated strain—The sweet bride again to quicken—As against the walls his wavelets beat,' etc.¹

With his four satires the poet remains unrivalled. Here he unfolds before our eyes a panoramic view of all the unwholesome conditions bound up with modern culture.

In the light of the double constellation, Alexandri and Eminescu, most of the other poets, despite manifold merits, seem to be of subordinate importance. Of the early throng of Alexandri's near contemporaries special mention is challenged by *A. Rosetti* (1816-1885), distinguished both as statesman and poet for his elevated sentiments, and also noted for his translation of Byron's *Manfred*; by *Dimitrie Gusti* (1818-1881), known through his stirring war and patriotic songs; *D. Aricescu* (born 1823); *George Taut* (1823-1885), an eminent satirist; *Cretzeanu* (1829-1887), author of the touching *Melodie intime*. An elegiac strain pervades the poems of *Radu Jonescu* (1832-1873); of *Nicolae Nicolescu* (1833-1871); of *Alexandru Sihleanu* (1834-1857), and of *Nicolae Georgescu* (1834-1866). Amongst the chief founders and associates of the *Junimea*, special mention should be made of *Vasile Pogor*, *A. Naum*, *Nicu Canea*, *Nicolae Scheletti*, and *Jacob Negruzzi* (born 1843), son of Constantin Negruzzi.

Besides various lyrical compositions, ballads, novels, and prose

¹ German translation by Frau Dr. J. Minkwitz of Karlsruhe.

sketches, Jacob Negruzzi has also translated into Rumanian the longer dramatic pieces of Schiller. All his pieces are marked by a versatile power of clear, easy expression.

Amongst the numerous living poets prominent are especially *Slavici* (born in 1848) and *J. L. Caragiale* (born in 1854). Slavici's *Lucky Windmill* (German version by Reklam) presents animated descriptions of extreme delicacy of touch. Rumania's greatest dramatist is Caragiale. His novels, however, suffer from a repulsive realism. Of his comedies, the most successful is *A Lost Letter*, an excellent study of Rumanian social life with a political background.

Joan Creanga (1837-1889) claims an honourable position in Rumanian letters, thanks to his excellent prose, and more particularly for his stories, fairy tales, and memoirs.

There remain to be mentioned *Vlahuța*, *De la Vrancea*, *Roman*, and *Cosbuc*. Vlahuța, most gifted of Eminescu's associates, is occasionally distinguished by lofty flights of poetry.

Amongst Rumanian poetesses noteworthy are *Matilda Cugler-Poni*, *L. Suci*, *Veronica Miele* (died 1889—Eminescu's young love), *Julia Hajdeu* (daughter of the eminent philologist, B. P. Hajdeu), *Helena Vacarescu*; the last two versify in French. But above all is enthroned the royal patroness of Rumanian poetry, Rumania's noble Queen, the highly gifted singer, who, as 'Carmen Sylva,' has depicted with a master hand the joys and sorrows of the people whom she has taken to her heart. Honoured by the University of Buda-Pest with the title of Doctor, she may be said to have revealed the national literature to the Germanic peoples. This royal lady's muse is pervaded by a note of sadness—the yearning for an only child, which receives touching expression, especially in a scene from *Master Manole*. Amongst her published poems are:—*Stürme*, Bonn, 1891; *Ein Gebet*, Berlin, 1882, 3rd edition, 1887; *Jehova*, Leipzig, 1882; *Leidens Erdengang, ein Märchenkreis*, Leipzig, 1882 and 1888; *Pelesch-Märchen*, also entitled *Aus Carmen Sylvas Königreich*, Leipzig, etc. Pierre Loti's *Iceland Fisher* (in several versions), 3rd edition, Bonn, 1890, has also obtained the widest circulation.

History presents a more difficult field than amongst many other peoples. The growth of a national sentiment, the struggle with so

much misery caused by hostile inroads, were all the more difficult to describe in the absence of trustworthy documents. But the foundations of serious and scientific studies have been laid by philology, epigraphy, and archæology, as represented by Rumania's most eminent scholars, *Hajdeu*, *Gr. Tocilescu*, and the late *A. Odobescu*.

One of Rumania's best-known savants is P. P. Hajdeu, whose researches in philology and linguistics, as well as his critical essays, are works of the greatest value. Of these may be mentioned: *Critical History of the Rumanians*; *Jon Voda, the Cruel*; *Linguistic Notes*; *Magnum Romanæ Etymologicum*, etc. But in many other branches of literature Hajdeu has also displayed more or less activity, as in the political and economic departments, the theatre, poetry, satire, mysticism, religion, etc.

A worthy pupil of this great University teacher is the learned *Gr. Tocilescu*, author of important epigraphic and archæological works and an accomplished historian, whose unwearied and fruitful labours have resulted in some admirable essays and studies on the Roman epoch in Dacia. Much light has been thrown on the prehistoric times and early history of the land by his *Dacia before the Roman Epoch*; *The Adam-Klissi Monument*; and *Tropæum Trajani*, as well as by his study of numerous inscriptions discovered in Rumania, and of the excavations, especially in Dobruja. *Tocilescu* has also issued many studies in Rumanian history, critical essays on the chronicles, records, etc.

The late *Alexander Olanescu* possessed the qualities of a great historian, and ranks amongst the best national prose-writers. His archæological studies appeared in *The Petroasa Treasure*, and various other writings.

Amongst others who have distinguished themselves in the same department are *V. A. Urechia*, *A. D. Xenopol*, and the late *G. Baritziu*, a Rumanian of Transylvania.

For several years *V. A. Urechia* has been engaged upon a very comprehensive work, *The Modern History of the Rumanians*, which begins with the eighteenth century, that is, with the Phanariot period, and is to be continued down to the present day. With a great wealth of documentary evidence, a shrewd and thorough critical spirit, the

venerable professor issues volume after volume, unfolding the growth of the national life.

Xenopol, Professor in the University of Yassy, has also published a valuable complete history, besides other writings. His works have also been awarded prizes by the Paris Academy.

All these learned men are, or have been, members of the Akademia Romana, foremost of Rumanian cultural institutions.

Besides those here mentioned, reference might naturally be also made to a large number of men of all ages, who have worked, or still are working, successfully in this branch of knowledge.

The press has likewise been vastly developed, and there are probably some forty periodicals in Bucharest alone. Of these the more important are: *Constitutionalul*; *Curierul Financiar*; *Journal universal*; *Monitorul oficial*; *Monitorul comunal*; *Nationalul*; *Natiunea*; *Romanul*; *Telegraful roman*; *Vointa nationala*; *L'Indépendance roumaine*; *Bukarester Tageblatt*; *Rumänischer Lloyd*; *Gazeta sateanului*; *România juno*; *România economica*, etc.

The last mentioned, which is of recent date, appears in Rumanian and German, printed in double column, the German title being *Das wirtschaftliche Rumänien*. Under this follows the intimation that the editor, Dr. Hans Krause, herein fully elucidates the economic condition of the country, so that the paper is frequently quoted by the daily press. The present work also has to thank this publication for much valuable material.

III. Art.

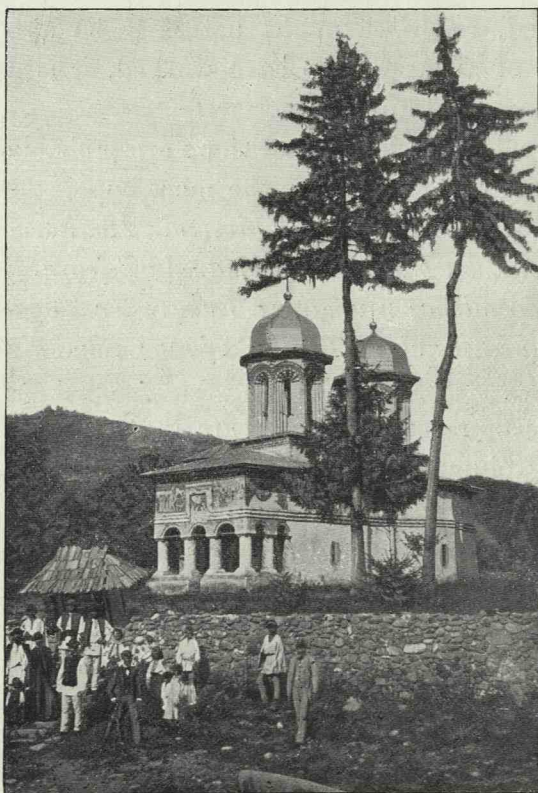
Like Letters, the Fine Arts are still at the inceptive stage.

In architecture, however, Rumania has at least an artistic past. It dates from the days of Stephen the Great, and is characterised by the attempt to create a special Rumanian style, resulting in a wonderful blend of the Byzantine, as is everywhere met in the Curtea de Argeş district as far as Yassy.

Of the early wood-carving an idea is presented by some surviving doorways, such as those of the church at Cotmeana (1396-1418), of the Cislán Castle, and of the Sarect Sara Church at Bucharest. These are preserved in the Bucharest Museum. Their fanciful designs impart to the wood the appearance of delicate tapestry.

But the times were not encouraging for the development of artistic talent. As with every people, so in Rumania also, the strain and stress of the period struggling upwards to a higher political and cultural state had first to be overcome before the lofty aims of the Fine Arts could be understood.

Of those who have distinguished themselves during the brief artistic



VILLAGE CHURCH.

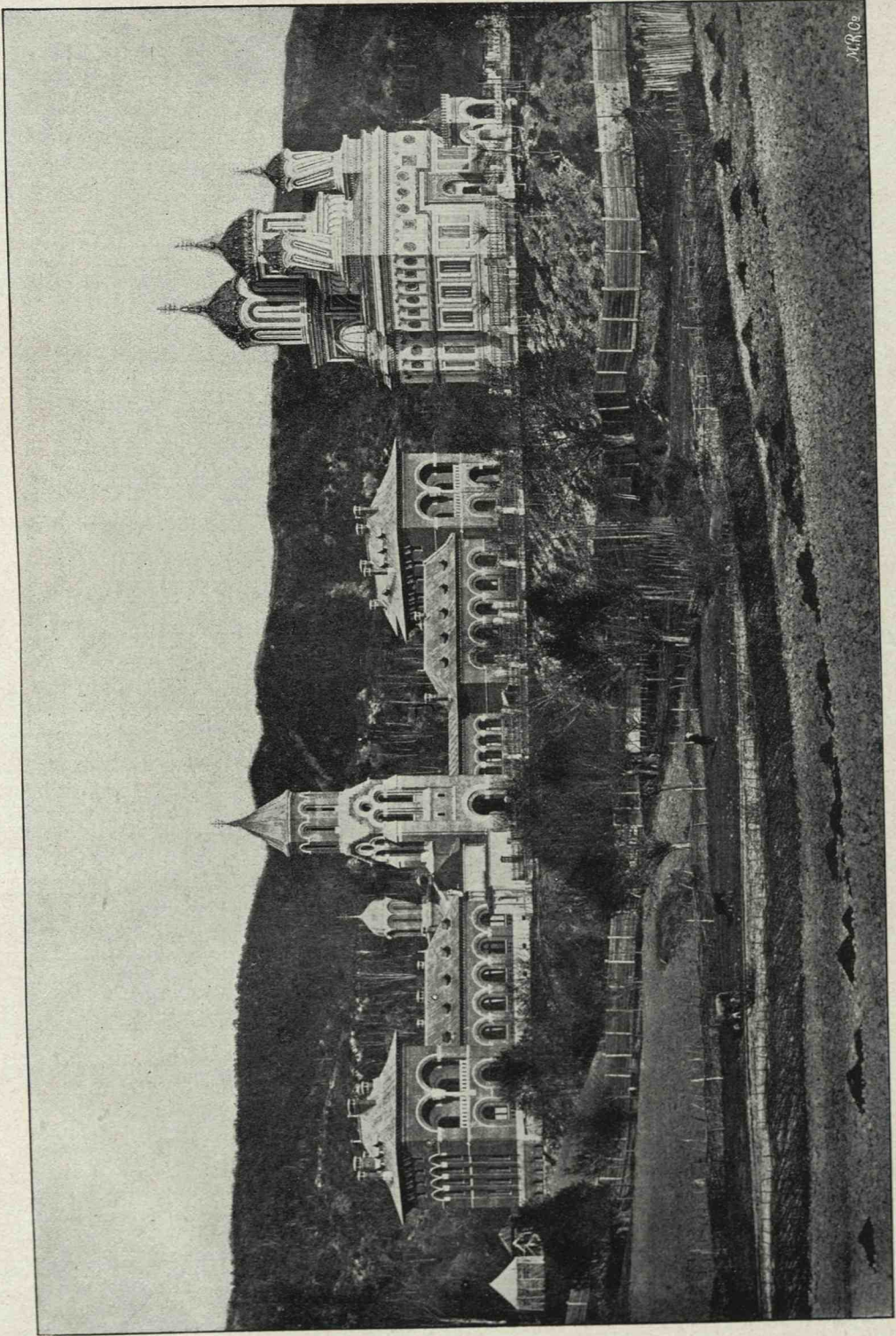
life of the last few decades, mention is first claimed by *Nicola Grigorescu* and *Th. Aman*. Aman, Director of the School of Art from 1858 to 1891, was a most prolific artist. His choicest themes were drawn from Rumanian history, or from the harem. But Grigorescu alone may lay claim to an honourable place in the Art world of the West, and he alone has exercised a dominant influence on the artistic development of Rumania. He also has been singularly prolific, and has earned a reputation as a painter of battle scenes.

Really talented artists are the portrait-painter *Gh. S. Mirica*, since 1892 Professor in the Bucharest School of Art,

and *Serafini*, the first Rumanian to carry off a prize from the Paris Salon.

Of sculptors there are scarcely any noteworthy names; at most *Georgescu*, *Carol Stauch* (father and son), and *Hegel*. This is chiefly due to the fact that sculpture requires a higher level of excellence.

Till some twenty years ago architecture also had left much to be desired. It was fain to yield to the prevailing tendency to build as cheaply as possible, a condition which troubles itself but little with style



M.P.C.

Royal Palace and Cathedral at Arges.

From a Photograph by Spirescu, Bucharest.

or architectural display. Now things have changed, and various monumental structures, such as the Bucharest University and Girls' Central School, are creations of Rumanian masters. In this department, which daily strives after new forms, *Mincu* has especially distinguished himself. The buildings that have been erected since the laying-out of the great boulevard at Bucharest give evidence of the effort to create a national style, as an embodiment of those feeble architectural beginnings, blended with a little local colour and the modern manner.

These efforts display not only good taste, but also some cultural progress.

IV. Religion.

The Orthodox Greek is the Rumanian State religion. Till 1864 ecclesiastical affairs were under the jurisdiction of the Patriarch of Constantinople. But in that year Rumania was declared independent of 'alien prelates,' and the foundations were thus laid of a National Church.

By this emancipation a stop was put once for all to foreign interference in home politics. The metropolitans are appointed by the legislative bodies, and confirmed by the King. The head of the Rumanian State Church is the 'Metropolitan Primate of Rumania,' who has his residence at Bucharest.

At the same time the Church was curtailed in her privileges, as, for instance, exemption from all public burdens, while provision was made for the sequestration of most of the monastic estates, which comprised nearly one-third of the whole land, and had hitherto formed a main source of revenue for the outlandish purposes of the Patriarch of Constantinople.

Out of these estates was now constituted the National Domain, whereby the State was enabled to take over the care of the sick and poor, duties which had heretofore been more or less neglected by the administration of the monasteries.



JOSEPH, METROPOLITAN PRIMATE
OF RUMANIA.

(Photograph by MANDY.)

Since 1864 all questions of a dogmatic, ecclesiastical, and religious nature are subject to the decision of the Holy Synod, which consists of the two metropolitans, six bishops, and their coadjutors. The Minister of Religion and Instruction assists at the convocations as representative of the government.

Preparatory instruction for the clerical profession is imparted in six seminaries, while for the higher instruction a theological faculty has been founded in the University of Bucharest. In 1899 the secular clergy, including deacons, numbered 8000, the regular 1700 with 2700 nuns.

Of Orthodox churches there are 6800, of which 660 are endowments; of Roman Catholic Churches 130, Protestant 18, Armenian 16, those of the Lipovani (Russian dissenters) 28, synagogues 305, and mosques 260.

In Rumania all confessions enjoy full freedom; even the sectaries persecuted in Russia can here worship at their own altars without let or hindrance.

V. Hygiene.

The sanitary department claims general interest, if only because it safeguards the West from cholera, anthrax, and the other epidemics which frequently hover about the Rumanian frontiers. There are altogether 165 hospitals and infirmaries, with collectively 6503 beds, including 11 establishments under the civil hospitals department, 14 of the St. Spiridon foundation, 13 other endowments, 49 district infirmaries, and so on.

The excellent management has been made possible by the generous public subsidy, averaging between the years 1895-1898 £496,000, as well as by the numerous charitable foundations.

The hygienic service has three mainstays: (1) the government institutions, above all the military hospitals, whose organisation has already served as a model for several Western establishments; (2) the institutes of recognised specialists; (3) the charitable institutions. Amongst those of the second category are, for instance, Professor Pușcariu's inoculating establishment at Yassy; the chemical institute in the same place; the hydrophobic institute of the famous bacteriologist, Dr. Babeș, which rapidly acquired a reputation even abroad.

The hospitals depend largely on the benevolent character of the Rumanian people. The treatment is gratuitous both for natives and strangers. There is scarcely another land which in this field can point at such important institutions, which owe their existence exclusively to private benevolence, and are constantly increased by new foundations.

Very large is the number of persons who have bequeathed and still bequeath a considerable part, and even the whole, of their means to charitable purposes, so that numerous monuments of public beneficence are distributed over the whole land. Especially large are the bequests devoted to the care of the ailing. Thus, a Princess Moruzi has recently endowed the Children's Hospital at Yassy with an estate which brings in a yearly income of £4000.

The two most important establishments are the *Eforia Spitalelor Civile* ('Ephorie des hôpitaux civiles,' 'The Civil Hospitals Administration'), founded in 1750 at Bucharest, and *St. Spiridon* at Yassy, with its various outlying branches. Both administrations promote in every way the training of medical assistants.

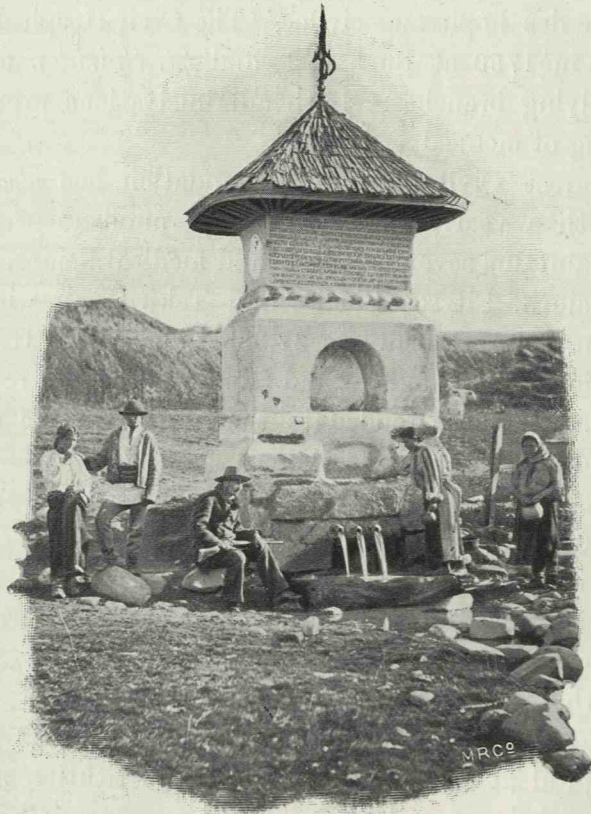
The Bucharest Civil Hospitals Foundation has assets valued at £2,960,000, with a yearly income in round numbers of £180,000. In Bucharest it maintains seven hospitals and medical homes, besides others at Ploesci, Craiova, Pitesci, Sinaia, and Tekir-Gyol, with collectively 1400 beds. In 1897 as many as 21,336 infirm were treated in these hospitals for jointly 459,755 days, and moreover 135,000 received medical advice and aid. Of those tended in the hospitals, 79·5 per cent. were Rumanians, and 20·5 per cent. foreigners.

The St. Spiridon Foundation has an income of over £80,000, derived from 66 estates, 43 woods, 23 buildings, etc. It maintains 14 hospitals with 840 beds, 13 churches, and the baths at Slanic. In 1897, 12,000 sick were tended for an average of nearly twenty days each (225,000 altogether).

Besides these two great foundations, there are 13 others, of which the largest are 'Spitalul Bracovinesc' with 222 beds, and the Elizabeth Hospital at Galatz. By a similar institution are maintained 'Domnita Balasa,' the finest church in Bucharest, as well as a school and an almshouse for aged women.

VETERINARY ADMINISTRATION.

As is fully explained in the Report of the Veterinary Commission issued in April 1900, all animals attacked by a contagious disease are at once killed, and compensation allowed to the owners. The sale of tainted meat is severely punished, and as a rule meat can be sold only with a certificate stating its provenance and condition. The moment an epidemic appears amongst the live stock in any district, said district is declared infected within a radius of eighteen miles, and the sale of cattle in Rumania itself, as well as their exportation abroad and their transit through the district, are absolutely prohibited. The exportation of cattle is in any case allowed only after a quarantine, which is enforced under strict sanitary inspection. All these measures, taken collectively, ensure complete safety for those countries which import Rumanian live stock or dead meat.



MANOLI SPRINGS, CURTEA DE ARGEȘ DISTRICT.

Conclusion.

IN bringing together the foregoing data, we have endeavoured to present a comprehensive view of the relations in Rumania, and feel convinced that these several pictures will leave on the unbiassed reader a generally favourable impression on the cultural state of the land.

In every department beneficial revolutions have been effected. By an intelligent application of economic resources the welfare of the people has been furthered in various directions. This is seen even in the present distressful times. It is further seen, for instance, in the Savings Banks deposits, which rose from £2400 in 1866 to £2,400,000 in 1899; in the rise in ground values and real estate during the last few decades; and in the successful sale of State domains, which never lack buyers willing to offer for large allotments far more than their appraised value.

With the growing purchasing power of the nation, the home industries have found still more profitable markets, while the increasing desire for greater comfort has tended to the development of industrial activity, to the expansion of commercial enterprise, and to greater briskness in the building crafts. The immigration of foreigners also, whether as employers or workers, seeking and finding occupation in the various branches of industry, has helped to raise the level of social life, thereby contributing not a little to increase the consuming and importing capacity of the land.

When Mr. White, English envoy at Bucharest, sought in August 1883 for the deeper causes of the astonishing prosperity of the country, he found them chiefly in the economic reforms; next to the agrarian improvements is the development of the system of communications, as

begun with the appointment of the International Danubian Commission in 1856, and continued by the completion of the network of roads and railways.

But while fully appreciating this fundamental economic cause, the political strengthening of the State should not be overlooked.

Some thirty years ago scarcely a thought was given to the country, which indeed was but little known. To-day it has earned a position commanding respect, thanks to the greater stability of its political status, to the growing culture and political maturity of the people, as well as to its highly efficient armed forces.

In July 1895 Dr. N. Ströll, Director of the Bavarian Notenbank, concluded a treatise on 'The Economic Relations of Germany to Rumania' with the words :—

The course of universal economic events, above all the crushing agricultural rivalries of the oversea States, will lead with irresistible force to a more persistent adherence to and a more rigorous practical application of the principle already adopted by Central Europe of combined exclusion, after the expiration of the present commercial treaties. The individual State no longer possesses the power to change the course of universal economic developments or to mitigate their injurious effects. This can be done only by the collective preponderance of great politico-economical combinations. But should events take this course, of which I have no doubt, then Rumania, as the granary and the market for the Central European industries, becomes a not unimportant member of a future Central European tariff union. And she on her part has a potent interest in joining such a federation, since thereby an end must finally be put to the perils and anxieties caused by the economic nature of the land, and by the uncertainty of its future agricultural status, while an assured and profitable market is guaranteed under the treaties for its corn-export trade. Viewed from this standpoint, the Romano-German relations are seen to be capable of a still greater future expansion. Hence both parties should be advised not to regard the ties with which they are at present mutually connected as burdensome shackles, but rather as welcome beginnings of a still closer union in the future.

From this point of view the right interpretation is for the first time given to State-Secretary Von Bülow's words, when in 1898 he declared in the German Reichstag that the kingdom of Rumania constitutes a weighty factor for order, progress, and culture in the Balkan Peninsula.

APPENDIX I.

Rumania's Industries at the Close of the Nineteenth Century.

I. Alimentary Supplies.

FLOUR MILLS.

THE country-people consume maize-meal almost exclusively, and this is for the most part prepared with primitive water-mills. Rye-flour is scarcely produced at all in the country itself. Thus it came about that the milling industry was relegated almost entirely to the urban market, which, however, was unable to offer sufficient means for the purpose, so that the growers were at an early date driven to the export trade.

The smaller mills, which work exclusively for the requirements of the rural population, should at present number approximately 7500. Of large so-called 'artificial' (mechanical) mills there are 86 (98?), of which about 20 may be regarded as great establishments, which work not only for the local demand, but also for exportation. Their collective output is estimated at 2120 tons a day (in 1898, 1840), while the capital invested in this class of mills amounts to about £640,000.

The largest milling concern in the kingdom was opened at Braila in 1899, with an initial capital of £100,000 and a milling capacity of from 25 to 40 wagon-loads daily.

The larger mills are found in the districts of Botoşani and Dorohoir, where over 200 steam mills were at work in 1892, and produced 30,000

tons of wheat-flour and 40,000 tons of maize-meal. One of the most important flour-mills in Rumania is that of Botoşani, which has a working capital of £60,000, and employs 200 hands. The Botoşani flour is the most highly prized in Rumania, and is also exported to Turkey, and even to England.

Prominent are further the 34 steam mills of the Doly and Mehedintzi districts, which have a working capital of £144,000, and give employment to 300 workers.

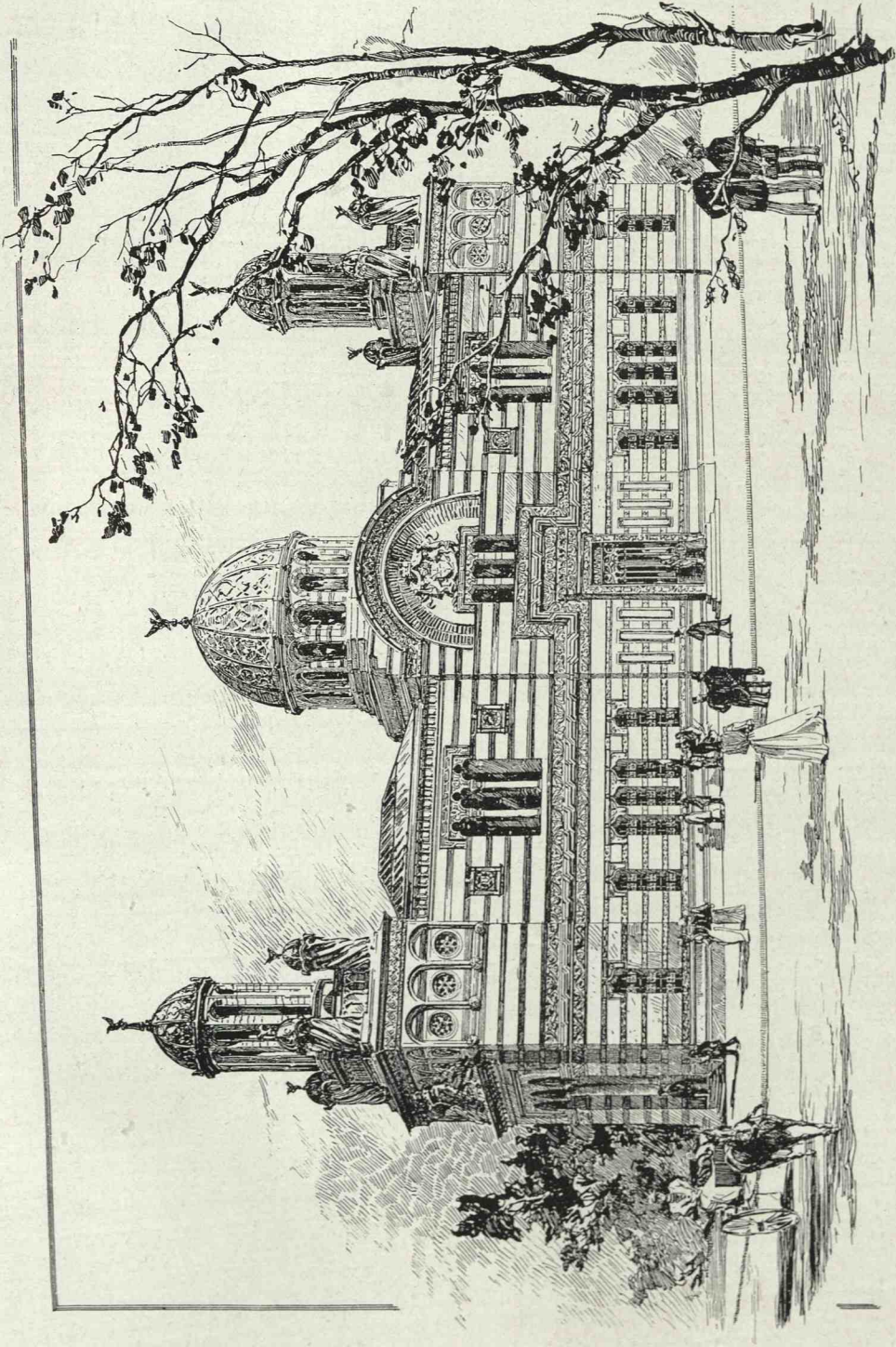
Of their operations the Vienna *Handelsmuseum* for February 1900 gives the following account :—

The competitive capacity of export produce, which depends on the mills situated in the interior, is materially restricted by the circumstance that, owing to the distance of the mills from the railway stations, high transit charges have to be paid, which run from £2 to £2, 8s. per wagon from the station to the mill and *vice versa*. Moreover, to this have to be added the railway transport rates, which are all the heavier since the railways have not yet been induced to allow abatements. Owing to these export difficulties even the large Bucharest mills present more the aspect of bonded stores and silos for stock held on account of the local bakeries. The millowners advance to the bakers on moderate interest two-thirds of the capital required to buy the corn, whereupon the corn brought to the mill is ground on behalf of the several bakers, and then deposited in the magazine, to which each baker receives his own key, and is thus able to keep a constant watch over his stock. Whenever he wants a supply of his flour, he can have it on paying a corresponding amount of the money advanced on its security. In this way the Bucharest mills contrive to get a fair share of constant business. The more capital the millowner has at his command, the more extensive are his operations. As a rule the milling industry is very profitable in Rumania, provided it can obtain sufficient custom and constant work, the capital invested in it being itself subject to interest up to 25 per cent.

The mills engaged in the export business are mostly set up in the seaports. Over those in the country districts they have the advantage of a considerably cheaper supply of coal and of corn. The government, however, is also endeavouring to come to the aid of the inland mills by facilitating the transport service.

The export of flour was in millions of kilograms :—

1876,	1.8	1881,	3.8
1877,	6.5	1885,	15.5
1878,	19.0	1886,	9.5
1879,	10.8	1887,	9.3



Rumanian Pavilion. — Paris Exhibition 1900.

1888,	15.6	1894,	3.3
1889,	16.5	1895,	22.0
1890,	8.8	1896,	24.3
1891,	6.5	1897,	10.2
1892,	17.3	1898,	18.5
1893,	20.4		

Hitherto the export had been almost exclusively to Constantinople. But in recent years the demand from that quarter has fallen off, partly through American competition, partly through the development of the Anatolian railway system, by which an impulse was given to corn-growing in Turkey. Consequently Rumania has sought other outlets in the Levant, in England, and Holland, and in 1899 the government opened a flour exhibition in Rotterdam, the effects of which were very satisfactory.

The analyses of Rumanian wheat-flour give relatively very favourable results. According to 44 different tests it yields from 10.34 to 13.50 per cent. water; 0.32 to 0.83 ash; 8.68 to 18.32 gluten; 9.81 to 13.59 proteine in the dry substance; 0.58 to 1.38 vegetable fats; and from 74.29 to 78.81 carburet of hydrogen combinations. According to Balland good market qualities should contain on an average 25 per cent. proteine and gluten, 14 water, 0.3 to 0.7 ash, and 0.7 to 1.1 vegetable fats.

BRANDY DISTILLING.

Of large establishments employing over 200 hands there are 43, the most important being: D. M. Bradiu, P. Sp. Topale, Rosetti Tetzsanu, L. Juster, O. Brunner, Paxinos Brothers, D. Gabriel, S. Ergas, N. Christovelonu, J. Dolrovici, M. and C. Fischer, Photino, Loehel and Ciruleanu, etc. Half of the distilleries are fitted up on the newest system, the rest operating with the old appliances of Pistorius or Gall.

The houses in question handle raw materials in thousands of kilograms:—

	1898-99.	1897-98.
Maize,	74,353	55,582
Potatoes,	12,642	6,218
Wheat,	630	176
Molasses,	1,514	1,685
Rye flour,	1,188	1,212
Malt,	12,617	9,918
Total, <u> </u>	<u>102,945</u>	<u>74,693</u>

As appears from these figures, Rumanian spirits are prepared for by far the most part from maize.

Excluding the plum distilleries, in the financial year 1898-99 there were 43 distilleries operating in Rumania which yielded for 1899 311 million decalitres proof, compared with 232 in the year 1897-98 (+75,580,753 decalitres proof). In the same year the consumption of spirits rose from 183 to 279 million decalitres proof, showing an increase of 95.9 decalitres proof.

All the distilleries have their own refineries, as refined spirits alone can be forwarded from the establishments. The larger houses operate with improved appliances introduced from Germany. Their refined alcohols attain from 94 to 96 degrees according to the spirit-metre, and may be classed amongst the best and purest products, as here the greatest importance is attached to the selection of the raw material.

Besides the houses above referred to, some 20,000 smaller stills are registered in the excise office, these being subject to a duty. They are used by the country-people for the extraction of their favourite plum whisky.

The Rumanian spirits have earned a respected position in the markets of the Levant, where they have often ousted the Trieste brands. On the other hand, during the last few decades the imports have fallen off by one-sixth of the former demand. Before the year 1896 they greatly exceeded the exports, which since then have immensely outstripped them, as shown in the subjoined table:—

Year.	Imports of spirits (exclusive of those in bottles and jars). kilograms.	Exports ¹ kilograms.
1892,	121,127	62,488
1893,	223,767	2,093
1894,	172,301	6,518
1895,	133,750	3,542
1896,	92,963	1,506,959
1897,	78,359	5,932,365

In 1898-99 the spirit-duty yielded to the State £892,000, compared with £584,000 in 1897-98. In 1898-99 export prizes were awarded to the value of £13,120. In 1899 the duty was increased from 8 to 12

¹ Chiefly to Turkey and Bulgaria.

centimes on the decalitre, the first rise having been in 1896-97 from 5 to 8 centimes. As in other States, this will tend in Rumania also to centralise the industry in large concerns.

For the consumption of corn and for cattle-fattening these distilleries are of great importance.

Of Cognac-makers the following enjoy the advantages afforded by the Industrial Law enacted for the furtherance of the national industries. The data, though somewhat defective, are taken from the last Report of the department (*Buletinul Camerei de Comerciu și Industrie Anul X.*) for October 1899 :—

Naville and Co. at Ulmeni, district Buzeu,	.	with 27 hands and 76,300 francs capital.
Naville and Co. at Berheci, district Tecuci,	. "	28 " 73,400 " "
Jakob Wechsler and Erben at Yassy,	.	45,000 " "
Th. Metaxa at Racac, district Bacau,	. "	30 " 102,000 " "
Joseph and Jon Th. Orovénu Brothers at Tamboesci, district R.-Sarat,	. "	25-35 " 109,000 " "
Ch. Alexandrie at Bucharest,	.	94,200 " "
Z. C. Zamfirescu at Dragoslavele, district R.-Sarat,	.	56,000 " "

The first firm of this class dates only from the year 1895.

BREWERIES.

Notwithstanding its special importance for the export trade, this industry is still much neglected, although, owing to the poor vintages, it has of late years made decided progress. In the financial year 1898-99 only 19 breweries were at work, the output being 111,977 hectolitres, as against 43,966 only in 1895-96. The largest are those of Bragadir, which in 1898-99 produced 46,845 hectolitres; Luther (37,024); and Oppler (20,507). All three are at Bucharest.

Besides the largest breweries, the firm of the Bragadirs has also a yeast-factory with a yearly production of 150,000 kilograms. This great industrial house alone pays to the State and communes a total annual sum of over £120,000.

A limited liability company under the house of Grund, Radulescu and Co., with a capital of £24,000, has been formed to open a brewery at Azuga in the Prahova district. At Bucharest also a joint-stock company has been projected for the purpose of erecting a large brewery with all the latest appliances.

Before 1896 beer-brewing could not possibly flourish, owing to the crushing government and communal duties, which exceeded 100 per cent. of the total value. But in that year the government duty was reduced by one-half—from 30 to 15 centimes per litre. Since then the production has also increased, advancing from 20,000 hectolitres in 1882-83 to 42,000 in 1895-96 and 78,000 in 1897-98. Moreover, the public is taking more and more to the beverage. The importation for 1882, 1895, and 1898, despite the increased home production, was 20,000, 150,000, and 200,000 hectolitres respectively, the exports being 20,000 in 1893, 220,000 in 1896, and 270,000 in 1898. The beer-tax yielded to the State £12,000 in 1892-93, and £24,400 in 1898-99. In 1896, 3.5 million kilograms of barley and 40,000 of hops were consumed.

In compliance with the taste of the consumers, the Rumanian beer is heavy, and in the Bucharest breweries the saccharometer indications show variations of from 13 to 15 per cent. in the wort.

Their hop supplies the Rumanian brewers have to draw entirely from abroad; hence the importation of this article is relatively not inconsiderable, being for the respective years 1892, 1893, 1894, 1895, 1896, and 1897, 24,768, 30,192, 43,273, 34,076, 40,459, and 42,776 kilograms. In recent years experiments have no doubt been made with hop-culture on the State model farms and on the Crown lands. But they have yielded no noteworthy returns, the climatic conditions, and especially the hot dry summers, not being conducive to the growth of better qualities.

SUGAR.

Formerly the only sugar-mill in the country was that of Frati Elias at Sascut. But despite heavy State bounties, even this establishment failed to prosper, having from the first been badly constructed. Later came Prince Bibescu's mill at Chitila, near Bucharest, which also languished, chiefly because the cultivation of beetroot was attended by greater difficulties than had been anticipated. Still later, fresh ventures were wrecked when the sugar-bounties were abolished.

In 1895 the bounties were again introduced, and operations resumed at the two above-mentioned mills in Sascut and Chitila. The latter was

reconstituted as a company with a capital of £100,000, the former merged in the 'Société général de sucrerie et raffinerie en Roumanie'—capital, £360,000. This new concern is stated to handle 70,000 kilograms of root, and to produce as much as two million kilograms of sugar yearly. It would thus alone suffice more than to cover the whole of the home consumption.

In 1896 another mill was erected at Marașești by a company which disposes of a capital of £110,000, and has a yearly output of from 2 to 3 million kilograms.

The importation of foreign sugars has declined, having fallen from £8150 in 1885 to £7400 in 1897. The prejudice entertained by land-owners against the cultivation of beetroot has been removed by the experiments carried out at the Agricultural College of Herestreu and on the Gherghitza Crown domain in 1894. An analysis of the root grown at the latter place showed that it contained from 15 to 17 per cent. of saccharine.¹

While only about 1000 hectares were under beetroot in 1892, we find that the area had already increased to 2800 in 1896, and over 6000 in 1897. The output varied greatly, fluctuating between 200 and 400 double quintals per hectare. The general treatment is still very primitive, so that with a more systematic cultivation an increased production may be obtained.

During the last season, 1898, the total yield of sugar amounted to over five million kilograms, distributed as under:—

Sascut Mill,	2.6 million kilograms.
Marașești,	2.0 „ „
Chitila,	0.7 „ „
Total,	5.3 million kilograms.

¹ The analyses made by a government chemist of both kinds in question yielded:—

	Vilmorin Variety.	Imperial Variety.
Weight of a root,	8309	5179
Proportion of sugar,	16.5 per cent.	15.64 per cent.
Purity,	80.5	80
Technical value,	13.8 per cent.	12.5 per cent.
Non-saccharine substances,	3.8	3.9

As for the present there can be no question of an export trade—the Levant market is monopolised by Austria-Hungary,—it is only to be hoped that the production may not be very great just yet. In such a case a fall might easily take place in the price of sugar, which would also react on the demand for beet. The result would be a withdrawal of the bounty on production, and a great crash in sugar, to the serious detriment of all engaged in the industry. In 1900 the tax on retailed sugar was raised from 15 to 30 centimes per kilogram.

The firms that benefit by the Industrial Act are :—

Firms.	Place.	Hands.	Capital.
Fabrica de zahar Soc. anomina, . . .	Sascut (Putna), . . .	300	£26,800
D. V. Vasiliu,	Brehuesci (Botoşani),	140,000
G. U. Negroponte,	Maraşesti (Putna),
Fabrica de zahar și rafinerie Soc. anon.,	Chitila (Ilfov),
Soc. anon. de Fabrici de zahar și rafinarii in Rumânia,	Near Roman,

MEAT-PRESERVING FACTORIES.

Of these there appear to be at present five on a large scale; yet they are insufficient to meet the home requirements. In 1897 a supply of 4600 double quintals had to be introduced, while the export amounted only to 20.

One or more meat-packing factories are now to be erected, with a view to a sufficient supply for the army in case of war. For this purpose the already mentioned Dr. Antipa has visited the largest establishments in Europe on behalf of the government, and published his collected experiences. As all the essential conditions for the erection of such factories can be complied with in the country itself, this branch of industry will also undergo a further development, to the benefit of the nation.

The following firms are working under the provisions of the Industrial Act :—

Firms.	Place.	Hands.	Capital in francs.
Soc. Elvetiana din Bale,	Turnu-Severin,
E. Noak,	Yassy,	30	220,000
E. Waller and Co.'s Meat-preserving Factory,	Azuga,	31	56,000

VEGETABLE-PRESERVING FACTORIES.

Of these there are three large concerns which operate chiefly for the Rumanian army, but are otherwise inadequate to meet the home demand. These also have submitted to the conditions of the Industrial Act. They are:—

Firms.	Place.	Hands.	Capital in francs.
D. Staicovici,	Bucharest,	23	58,600
Julian Oprescu,	Bucharest,	30 to 40	52,600
Jos. and Jon Th. Oroveanu,	R.-Sarat,	30	66,200

PASTE AND STARCH MAKING.

These are represented by 3 macaroni and 4 starch mills. The imports of these articles have declined from 6100 metric quintals of paste and 5300 of starch in 1886 to no more than 340 of paste and 2011 of starch in 1897.

To the Industrial Act are subject:—

Firms.	Place.	Hands.	Capital in francs.
Starch Mills—			
N. Albu, N. Bradescu, E. Zaharia,	Domna, Neamtz,	45	90,000
B. J. Freifeld,	Botoşani,	151,000
Paste Mills—			
Ludwig Josick and Co.,	Galatz,	16	120,000
E. Schuhmacher and Co.,	Bucharest,	26	110,000
A. St. Solacoglu Brothers,	Bucharest,	25 to 30	82,200
Biscuit Factories—			
Frank Maur,
N. Visner and Cohen,	25	63,900

CHICORY.

There is one factory in Bucharest—a branch of the well-known firm of Heinrich Franck Sons, Ludwigsburg. It suffices for by far the greater portion of the home demand, so that the importation is trifling. It employs 25 hands, has a working capital of £9000, and complies with the terms of the Industrial Act.

CIGARS.

The demand for cigars was formerly covered entirely by Austria. But in course of time the relations have been so far modified that the finer brands, such as in Rumania fetch 30 centimes and upwards each, are now alone imported, while all the other kinds are made in Rumania from the various kinds of leaf purchased for the purpose.

II. Building Materials.

CEMENT, LIME, GLASS.

Apart from a considerable number of small lime-kilns, there are at present 8 black-lime and cement mills, 5 gypsum and 10 brick fields. All are thriving, the demand increasing with the rapid progress of the land, while owing to its cheapness alone preference is given to the material, especially for public buildings. Two Bucharest brick-works employ over 100 men each.

The lime business is important. The Muscel district possesses the largest establishments, which produce both white and black lime, chiefly to meet the Bucharest demand. They are excellently appointed, with annular furnaces and a yearly output of 6000 cartloads of white and black lime.

The Azuga factory employs 84 hands, with a yearly output of 800 wagons of concrete, worth on an average £10 a wagon. The rate of wages is $2\frac{1}{2}$ francs for men and $1\frac{1}{2}$ for women.

Owing to the active development of this industry, the imports from Austria-Hungary are steadily declining.

Of the cement and lime works the following have conformed to the terms of the Industrial Act :—

Firms.	Place.	Hands.	Capital in francs.
E. Erler,	Azuga,	84	160,000
O. J. Negroponte,	Grozesti,	43	140,000
Basil Aldasaro,	Comarnic,	47	96,000
Ernest Manoel,	Comarnic,	56	130,000
J. G. Cantacuzen,	Islaz,	430,000
Axerio Bros. (Gypsum),	Slanic,	20	53,200
Cotinescu and Montesi,	Sinaia,	90	137,500
H. Schorch,	Comarnic,
Davidescu-Breza and Co.,	Breaza,	40	202,000
Renard and Co.,	Azuga,	30	219,500
Ath. Bolintineanu,	Bucharest,
Toma Maroeneanu and C. Garlesteanu,	Gura Vai (Mehedintzi),

Of the firms engaged in the production of other building materials, mention should be made of the following, all working under the regulations of the Industrial Act :—

Firms.	Place.	Hands.	Capital in francs.
Brick Works—			
Fabrica de caramida, Societatea,	Bucharest,	75	427,600
Maximilian Tonola,	Bucharest,	350	583,600
D. Hagi Theodorachi and Co.,	Bucharest,	50,000
N. Cutarida and Co.,	Militari (Ilfov),	350	240,000
Basalt Works—			
Fabrica de basalt artificial,	Cotroceni,	380	1,014,000
Paul Belau, J. Baaniski, T. Erhardt and G. Hillmer,	Simileasca,	50	95,800
Mechanical Joinery—			
E. Lessel,	Bucharest,	46	244,000
Jon Stiefler,	Bucharest,	95	140,000

The glassware industry is represented by the following firms, also subject to the requirements of the Industrial Act :—

Firms.	Place.	Hands.	Capital in francs.
G. Grünfeld,	Azuga,	17	103,000
Weissengrün Bros. & Isak L. Jung,	Bogdanesti,	110	100,000
Fabrica de sticlărie, Societatea,	Storesei (Botoșani),	58	28,500
Soc. Rom. de sticlărie,	Bucharest,	80	1,190,000
S. Meyerhoffer and C. Stützel,	Lespezi,	82	250,000

These firms are constantly turning out more varieties of glass. Of special importance is the ordinary ware for kitchen and house use, for lemonade bottles and the like, which meets the entire demand of the country.

Ordinary round glass, and even some of the better ground sorts, are now but little imported, though the demand continues for the finer foreign ware.

In recent years the makers have formed a ring, by which they have been able to raise current prices by 25 per cent.

III. Chemical Industry.

Of chemical and vegetable oil works there are five. But as the demand has greatly increased, there is still a wide field open to importers. In 1886 and 1898 the production was :—

	1886.	1898.
Chemicals and by-products,	3000 tons	11,700 tons
Vegetable oils,	1900 „	3,015 „

In both branches the home production shows a yearly average of 3500 tons.

The preparation of vegetable oils has undergone a notable development. Besides a few small works, there are four large concerns with a collective annual yield of two million kilograms.

The subjoined firms conform to the conditions of the Industrial Act :—

Firms.	Place.	Hands.	Capital in francs.
Chemical Works—			
Maria Farjon,	Bucharest,	19	130,000
Gt. Etienne and Co.,	Bucharest,	75	42,000
L. V. Broadwel,	Bucharest,	25	120,000
Max Fischer and Co.,	Galatz,	35	105,000
C. Ressu and Co.,	Galatz,	40	95,500
Joseph Honigberger,	Bucharest,	60	196,000
Vegetable Oil Works—			
Assan Bros.,	Bucharest,	15	87,000
Soc. rom. de Uleiü Fleming,	Bucharest,	15	750,000
Paul Münzer and Co.,	Bucharest,	50	317,000
Paul Münzer and Co.,	Bucharest,	25	79,000
Petroleum Works—			
Societatea fabrica de petrol (Dobrescu and Paraschiva),	Ploesci,	7-10	82,800
J. Grigorescu,	Bucharest,	25	181,000
J. Nicolescu,	Ploesti,	25	78,300
Gh. Popp (Steaua Româna),	Campina (Prahova),	100	332,000
P. Petrescu, J. J. Stamatiu and M. Campianu,	Targoviste,	176,000
Fr. Bosel and Son,	Malaesti,	29	189,000
G. Sfetescu,	Ploesci,	25	180,000
Lac and Varnish Works—			
W. J. Drabant,	Pitesci,
Bone-dust and Glue Works—			
J. L. Steinberg,	Mihaileni (Dorohoiu)	30	119,000

Lac and varnish, etc., were imported:—

	1886.	1897.
Lac and varnish,	950 double quintals	4473 double quintals
Colours,	1010 „	2820 „

SOAP AND CANDLES.

Of large concerns there are 14, which almost entirely cover the home demand. Hence the imports, which in 1886 still amounted to

5200 double quintals for common soap and 9000 for composite candles, are now insignificant—in 1897 only 130 and 160 double quintals respectively. The three largest candle-works are those of Mössner and Co. (yearly production 280,000 kilograms); Konzelmann; and Lipa Braunstein (340,000)—all at Galatz. Bucharest also has several important works, with an annual production ranging from 10,000 to 140,000 kilograms.

A further indication of the growing prosperity of the Rumanian candle industry is shown by the fact that the importation of candles fell from 40,000 kilograms in 1894 to 211, worth only £27, in 1898.

Of the raw material (stearine) only a small quantity is now imported—3800 double quintals in 1896 as against 17,800 in 1894.

The soap industry supplies the home market almost entirely, especially with the cheaper kinds. Staple products are the yellowish, fatty hard and soft soaps with resinous blends. Moreover, by the use of etheric oils, a Turkish soap is prepared in Braila for which there is a good demand. For some time finer soaps have also been made. Washing soaps are still often prepared in the house itself for domestic use.

The two largest soapworks are also in Galatz, those of the above-mentioned Konzelmann and J. Mössner, both of which turn out 900,000 kilograms yearly. There are also several establishments in Bucharest capable of a large production. Such are the firms of T. C. Zamfirescu (440,000 kilograms yearly), and Stella and Hayizon (100,000 each).

Besides these factories there are still about 50 smaller works, with a collective output of about three million kilograms.

Subjoined are the firms conforming to the requirements of the Industrial Act:—

Firms.	Place.	Hands.	Capital in francs.
Stearine Candle and Soap Works—			
C. Konzelmann,	Galatz,	52	300,000
T. C. Zamfirescu,	Bucharest,	26	77,000
J. Mössner and Co.,	Galatz,	77,800
Pavel D. Hagi Joan,	Bucharest,	20	100,000
'Stela,'	Bucharest,	45	73,000
Lipa Braunstein,	Galatz,	30	76,000

Firms.	Place.	Hands.	Capital in francs.
Sotir Jonescu,	Braila,	27	67,500
P. H. Cossac and Sons,	Braila,	74,400
G. Nicolaevici Bros.,	Braila,	26	9,000
Coman M. Ureche,	Craiova,	37,500
Ath. Gheorghievici,	Braila,	25	54,000
Jacob Babad,	Galatz,	36	62,900
Wax Candle Works—			
S. Brancoveanu,	Barlad,	15	86,400
Jacob Babat,	Galatz,	30	190,000
Sotir Jonescu,	Braila,	26	77,900

Matches were at first imported almost exclusively from Austria. But factories gradually sprang up in Rumania itself; and after the industry was declared a State monopoly in 1887, these with the depots were bought up by the government.

IV. Metal-ware.

Of iron-foundries there are four, which produce more especially stoves and their belongings (nickel and enamelled doors), ornamental cast-iron objects, etc. The two most important—Lemaitre and Keilhauer—which also make turnery and machinery, have been converted to joint-stock concerns (Rumanian Joint-Stock Company for Metallurgy). To the Industrial Act are subject:—

Firms.	Place.	Hands.	Capital in francs.
P. Keilhauer,	Bucharest,	32	234,200
L. Lemaitre,	Bucharest,	110	358,600
Carol Schnause,	Bucharest,	30	60,500
M. Ortony and Co.,	Yassy,	35	98,200
C. Fernie and Co.,	Galatz,	50	152,400
Bochem and Triefert,	Bucharest,	40	52,500
Jaques J. Catz,	Bucharest,	280	1,011,000

The number of nail-works has risen to five, and their competing power has been so strengthened that the importation fell from 5300 tons in 1883 to 3200 in 1897, while that of wire rose from 482 to 2080 tons in the same years. Altogether the steadily increasing importation of metal-ware shows that the increasing home demand cannot even be approximately met by the existing establishments.

Iron beds and furniture, however, are produced in sufficient quantities by three firms.

The demand for enamelled and tinned utensils can also, for the most part, be met by the two now existing factories.

The advantages of the Industrial Act are enjoyed by the following firms:—

Firms.	Place.	Hands.	Capital in francs.
Wire and Nail Works—			
Oscar Geldner Egmond,	Bucharest,	25	62,000
Z. Foesaneanu and Isidor Grünberg, .	Galatz,	30	170,000
Mendel and David Grünberg,	Galatz,
Agricultural Machinery Works—			
F. Freund,	Bucharest,	18	100,000
Albert Bauer,	Bucharest,
Iron Furniture, etc., Works—			
A. Salomon,	Bucharest,	28	78,500
R. H. Opler,	Bucharest,	90	370,000
Carol H. Opler,	Bucharest,	50	133,100
Fr. Weigel,	Bucharest,	92	114,100
E. Wolff,	Bucharest,	30	180,000
S. Hornstein,	Bucharest,	120	524,000
J. Kraid and Co.,	Heci-Lespezi,	50	55,400

Lastly, reference may here be made to the *copper-mill* at Ramnic-Valcea, which has passed from private hands to an association of local coppersmiths, who have enlarged the business. The works turn out peasants' stills and washing-coppers, hoop-copper, and other hammered ware. They handle 60,000 kilograms of pig and scrap copper, and the association intends fitting up rollers for the manufacture of sheet copper.

V. Textile Industry.

The long-established textile industry is steadily improving in technical respects. At present both plain cloths, flannels, meltons, etc., as also finer and coarser bed and horse cloths, are made, while the manufacture of worsteds and cheviots is still slight. This branch is represented by 7 mills, with a total capital of over £200,000.

Smaller cloth and diaper makers in wool, with from 6 to 12 looms, are met in several district towns.

The largest mill (weaving and diapering) is that of Rhein, Schester and Co. at Azuga, with 235 hands and a capital of £35,500. It produces chiefly medium and coarser cloths (army cloth), and coverlets, besides knitting-worsted for peasants' clothing. The wages are for men from 2 to 4, for women from 1.50 to 1.80 francs a day.

Of Rumanian Zigaia wool 6000 double quintals are worked up every year. The firm of Wolf and Co. at Buhuși, Neamtz district, which owing to lack of capital had to suspend payment in 1895, was converted in 1897 to a 'Joint-Stock Company for Textiles,' and then resumed operations. At present it turns out daily 1200 metres of cloth with 84 looms and about 200 hands.

A large number of workers is also employed by A. L. Juster, cloth and shag maker (60 hands), and Grulich and Co. (40 hands) at Piatra, Neamtz district.

The mills at Buhuși, Azuga, and Targu, Neamtz district, are so far aided by the State that the supplies for the army have been intrusted to them. The first two use for the most part home-grown wool.

From the social point of view it is worth mentioning that the Buhuși factory has provided for its employees roomy and well-ventilated dwellings, a fund for the sick and others needing aid, a school with four courses, and other benevolent endowments.

The textiles manufactured in this mill range in weight from 400 to 800 grammes per square metre. It has certainly succeeded in producing finer goods, but at relatively too high prices. The home industry enjoys special protection in the fact that fine worsted fabrics, such as clothing materials, are liable to a special duty.

The following firms have adopted the regulations of the Industrial Act :—

Firms.	Place.	Hands.	Capital in francs.
Rhein, Schester and Co.,	Azuga,	235	888,600
J. Garofida,	Buzeu,	36	54,300
A. Lippa-Juster,	Piatra,	60	160,000
H. Schubert,	Bucharest,	10	80,700
Wolff and Co.,	Buhuși,	200	1,370,000
C. A. Grulich and Sons,	Piatra,	40	50,000
Philipp Birmann and Sons,	Bucharest,	30	41,000
A. and A. Crompton and Co.,	Bucharest,	33-53	27,500
'Colentina,'	(?)	...	50,000
Jacques Schiesser,	Bucharest,	32	28,000
Blumann, Ashworth, Lees and Wilt,	Bucharest,
Worsted Works—			
Bäsken and Horovitz,	Bucharest,	34	10,000
Max J. Schapira,	(?)	150-180	128,000
Ch. A. Vockerodt,	Yassy,	54	18,000
Cecilia Basseches,	Bucharest,	30	65,000
B. Taubmann and G. Regio,	Bucharest,	32	71,900
Societatea Rom. de Tricotage,	Bucharest,	120-150	44,200

FLAX AND HEMP.

Flax and hemp are both grown in Rumania in sufficient quantities for the home requirements. The Report of the German Consulate at Bucharest for September 1899 to the contrary is based on an error. In 1897, for instance, the local production reached 20,800 double quintals, while the imports were only 7600. From abroad Rumania requires nothing except the finer linen goods, besides jute, which is imported already spun from England and Austria.

Cordage is prepared by 13 ropewalks, and indeed with such good results that the Austrian Consulate at Bucharest complains of the steady decline in the importation. In 1897 the total home production amounted to 17,850 double quintals, the imports to 16,300, and the exports to 700. The home demand may therefore be estimated at 33,000 double quintals.

Ropeworks are steadily increasing. Noteworthy is especially the large and flourishing factory at Yassy.

The following firms comply with the Industrial Act's regulations :—

Firms.	Place.	Hands.	Capital in francs.
Carol Welter,	Ploesci,	34	4,000
Wachtel,	Yassy,	120	6,400
Philipp Birmann,	Bucharest,	44	9,000
Simianu Bros.,	R.-Valcea,	41	12,300
Societatea 'Viitorul,'	Craiova,	36	12,000
J. Boanta,	Braila,	30	19,000
N. Banu,	Braila,	35	18,300
Maria Sarcaianu,	Bucharest,	23	4,500
Vasile Joanov,	Galatz,	32	2,000
Johann Bonim,	Bucharest,	27	2,400
Draghicensu and Co.,	Bucharest,	32	225,000
Max Steinberg and Co.,	Bucharest,	53	23,500

VI. Tanning and Leather-work.

Tanning has developed since 1886, when, owing to the tariff war with Austria, an import duty of 1.20 francs per kilogram, or 35 per cent., *ad valorem* was introduced. Doubtless the old processes and appliances still prevail; nevertheless there are already 16 large leather-works, especially at Ploiesti and neighbourhood, including several worked by steam. Besides the home products, ox-hides imported from America and Galicia are also worked up. Of the latter as many as 50,000 are treated in some of the tanneries, besides about 40,000 calf, goat, and sheep skins. Great skill is displayed in the preparation of sole-leather, so that, despite the imported material, foreign competition can be kept at a distance.

As the most important leather-works might be mentioned those of Bucovetz, which at first belonged to the State. In 1898 both this factory and that of Pitesci handled 20,000 raw skins. Specialities are patent-leather, morocco, and sumac-dressed sheepskins. Alum sheep-leather (some 250,000 skins) is produced in small tanneries at Craiova

and Pitești for lining purposes, and finds a ready sale in Bucharest and environment.

The preparation of sumac-leather in a large way was also begun a few years ago. Formerly it had to be imported from Bulgaria. Finer leathers are in a backward state both as regards quantity and quality, so that the demand for these goods has still to be met by importation.

In the summer of 1899 a Belgo-Rumanian joint-stock company was formed for the purpose of introducing a rapid process of tanning. The new enterprise has a capital of £40,000, and it may be expected to prepare the way for the spread of the new technique.

Scarcely any other branch of industry has made such rapid strides in the export department. Thus the imports for 1886 and 1897 were in millions of francs :—

	1886.		1897.
Hides,	3,850		27,400
Leather,	18,210		5,254
Boots and shoes,	4,979	(15·93)	1,283 (3·26)
Various leather goods,	4,500	double quintals.	500 double quintals.

The export of hides has remained nearly unchanged, being 9056 double quintals in 1883, and 9237 in 1897.

Although Rumania itself exports large quantities of this article, the imports of undressed, salted, or dried skins, mostly from America and Australia, have none the less undergone a marked increase in recent years—£760 in 1896, £1097 in 1897, and £1252 in 1898. The explanation is that the Rumanian leather industry, already in a tolerably high state of development, is now striving to produce goods equal in quality to the foreign. But for this purpose the hides of the native horned cattle, the so-called 'straw-eaters,' are not so well adapted, least of all to turn out a sole-leather comparable to the foreign article.

The glueworks near Craiova prepare a joiners' glue from the waste of the tanneries after the old processes. The total produce amounts to some 30,000 kilograms, and is partly consumed on the spot, partly in Bucharest and the petroleum-works.

The following tanneries and leather-works are subject to the conditions of the Industrial Act :—

Firms.	Place.	Hands.	Capital in francs.
J. M. Constantinescu,	Bucharest,	35	230,000
Fabrica de tabacarie Soc. anonima,	Constantza,	40	124,000
B. Weithase and Co.,	Bucharest,	45	200,000
Rosenbaum Bros. and Moritz Gelber,	Yassy,	35	73,000
Ascher Eschenasy,	Craiova,	65	82,500
Abr. Einhorn and Co.,	Bucharest,	55	77,000
Gheorghiu Bros.,	Ploesci,	38	143,000
Kepich Bros.,	Craiova,	35	83,700
N. G. Trandafirescu,	Bucharest,	40	152,700
Gr. Alexandrescu,	Bucharest,	32	42,000
Fritz Schedlinski,	Bucharest,	25-30	41,000
Hanciu Bros. and Co.,	R.-Valcea,	25	28,300
Rasoi, Cosma and Comsa,	T.-Jiu,	26	48,600
Alb. Einhorn and Co.,	Constantza,	50	400,000
Theodor Sapatino,	Bucharest,	89	63,000
St. and R. Mihailescu,	Ploesci,	40-50	120,800

Boot and shoe factories in the strict sense of the word are still non-existent, apart from the 'Mandrea' Leather and Shoe Works at Bucharest, which supply the army exclusively. But there are a large number of shoemakers, the so-called small manufacturers, mostly Greeks and Armenians, who work in group unions, and turn out goods at much cheaper rates than those of Würtemberg are able to do. Yet the raw material, with the exception of sole-leather, for which Rumania is now independent of the foreigner, has to be imported from abroad. Thus calf and chamois are imported from Germany; elastics from Switzerland; linings, thread, and twist from England; fine kid and morocco from France; sewing-machines and tools mostly from Germany and England. Consequently the shoe traders no longer find it convenient to import their goods from Austria-Hungary, whence Rumania formerly drew nearly all her supplies. On the contrary, every tanner now prefers to keep a stock of the raw material himself, and barter it with the shoemaker for finished goods. The cash payments the dealer has to make are not nearly so large as the duties on imported articles, which, as is well known, run to almost 50 per cent. on the cheaper heavy kinds. What are still imported are chiefly ladies' shoes, although

even in this 'line' the home industry has in recent years much improved and gained ground. Thus ladies' well-finished buttoned kid boots are already delivered for 11 francs.

On the other hand, according to the Austrian Consul's report in the *Handelsmuseum* for April 1900, finer kinds of leather have almost ceased to be produced by the home makers, nor have the local craftsmen yet quite attained the required degree of perfection in the finest qualities of boots and shoes.

VII. Wood Industries.

Of all branches of industry that of wood takes the first and most important place, and gives employment to thousands of hands. Of sawmills there are 42 of some size, which annually turn out about 25,000 cartloads jointly worth £600,000.

The deal alone worked up at the sawmills and woodworks was valued in 1898 at £800,000. In general, the state of the industry is satisfactory. This is chiefly due to the briskness of the local building trade, and the general advance in prices on the Hungarian timber market, which is favourable to the exportation especially of soft woods. Thanks to the support of the Rumanian Constantza-Rotterdam Steamship line, some Hungarian and Rumanian firms have shipped considerable quantities of deal from Rumania, and then forwarded it up the Rhine. In the near future it is hoped, by the route through Rotterdam up the Rhine and also up the Elbe, to find a good market in Germany, where timber for the mines and deal planks alone have hitherto been disposed of.

Both Turkey and Bulgaria usually take floated lumber; Russia, petroleum drums (*viâ* Batum); Austria-Hungary, staves (for cooperage), oak and walnut logs, besides some deal. The sale of oak has become less important, while sleepers, staves, floorings, building timber, and firewood find a larger home demand, though staves and frame-wood are also exported, especially from those forests which are favourably situated for railway and water conveyance. The appearance of representatives of large German and Dutch houses, who traversed the land in search of oak-logs for joiners' work, as well as timber

for mines, gave an impulse to the utilisation of several large forests which had hitherto remained untapped.

Of the sawmills, the largest is that of the P. and E. Götz Joint-Stock Company at Comanesci (Bacau district), with a capital of £320,000 and 150 hands. In Walachia, the most notable sawmills are those of Brezoiu, Valcea district; Slatina, Olt district; and Stroesci, Botoşani district. There are besides many Venetian and other sawmills in the uplands.

In Moldavia, the largest are in the Neamtz and Suceava districts. In the latter 17 sawmills were already at work in 1892, employing altogether 2500 hands, and turning out 300 kilometres of planks daily. The largest is that of V. Tenow at Malini, which employs 400 workers and has a railway connecting line 11 miles long. In the Neamtz district 17 works were operating in 1895, and of these 9, installed on the newest system, kept 1520 hands employed. Another important factory is that of Take Atanasiu, which has also a railway connection 8 miles long, and employs 250 hands. In this district the leading firms are: A. L. Juster of Mesteacan (300 hands); the Moldova Company (130); the sawmill of Vanatois in the Neamtz district (125); J. Chortel, Korbe, and Jonescu at Mesteacani, Neamtz (70), etc. The Plagiersti sawmill is also making great headway.

Woodwork.—The joiners' craft has been notably developed in response to the local requirements. It is represented by several excellently appointed establishments.

Of furniture-works, which compete successfully with foreign makers, and also export to the East, mention may be made of those of Tictin and Finkelstein at Yassy, and Jon Steifler at Bucharest.

The preparation of bent-wood furniture made of red beech is carried on by 13, and that of upholstered furniture by 2 firms.

Reference has already been made to wood-carving as a house industry.

Of inlaid-flooring works there are 6, the more important being at Maraşeşti (Bacau district), and Bucharest (40 hands).

Cooperage is well represented in the Putna and Tecuciu districts. The largest works are at Harlau near Botoşani, which makes casks, etc., to the yearly value of £120,000 for the French market.

The machinery appliances for the woodwork business come for the most part from Germany.

The advantages of the Industrial Act are enjoyed by the following houses engaged in the wood industries :—

Firms.	Place.	Hands.	Capital in francs.
Sawmills—			
Niculescu and Mitenu,	Doftana (Bacau),	140	340,000
Societatea Moldova,	Piatra,	135	170,000
Fr. Teiller,	Cucuetzi (Bacau),	48	93,000
Fr. Teiller,	Moinesti,	87	105,000
Moroianu and Nedele,	Giurgiu,	70	260,000
Stagni and Co.,	Brezoiu,	90	220,000
T. Sabovici,	Bacau,	140	160,000
Tenov and Co.,	Maleni (Suceava),	96	206,000
Fabrica de cherestea Soc. Götz.,	Galatz,	150	8,000,000
Manasse and Grünberg,	Valea-Arinelor,	100,000
Bucher and Dürer,	Grozesti,	71,000
Anton Török,	Bicazu (Neamtz),	90	101,000
N. C. Vamasescu,	R.-Valcea,	45	194,000
J. Pariset and Co.,	Tergu-Jiu,	40	54,700
Ilie J. Miulescu,	Vadeni,	40	69,300
Corbu, Checel and A.,	Mesteacanu,	52	94,000
Cotinescu and Montesi,	Sinaia,	200	157,600
H. Schorsch,	Comarnic,
Ch. Ephraim Rosen,	Dormanesa (Bacau),	98	130,000
J. and C. Wiesbock and N. T. Popp,	Romanesci,	40	84,000
E. Famiu,	Ohaba (Gory)	50	146,000
C. Draganescu,	Catunul Rusii,	40-70	63,000
M. Grünberg and Co.,	Cosmesti (Tecuciu),	100	220,000
Th. Dornescu Steinberg and Dienermann,	Farcasa,	80	203,800
U. J. Negroponte,	Grozesci,	30	169,700
Valerian Ciuntu,	Moşia Hangu (Neamtz),	156	695,600
Asociația Popovici, Corbu Jurist,	Malin (Suceava),	56	850,000
Cherel, Juster and Jurist,	Vanat (Neamtz),	25	117,500
Gr. Palada,	Novaci (Gory),	28	60,700
Michel Juster,	Filiora (Neamtz),	52	102,880
P. Dimovici,	Islazu (Braila),	40	205,500
L. Predinger,	Islazu (Braila),	40	210,000

Firms.	Place.	Hands.	Capital in francs.
Fabrica de cherestea cu vapor Soc. anon.,	Comanesci,	164	1,320,000
Caliopi Zarvatescu,	Islazu (Braila),	30	109,500
Th. Roux and Co.,	Slatina,	40	108,500
Ephraim Aron L. Juster, C. Nath. Agatstein,	Valea Arinilor,	100	176,700
A. A. Badarau,	Piatra,	80	85,000
Abr. Lipa Juster	Mesteacan,	120	590,000
Anton Török and Co.,	Bistriciora,
Inlaid Flooring, Wood Furniture, and Mechanical Cabinet-work—			
Tictin and Finkelstein,	Yassy,	204	147,700
O. Negroponte,	Marasesti,	82	50,000
A. L. Plagino,	Gugesti (R.-Sarat),	55,000
Bucher and Dürer,	Bucharest,	38	25,000
Soc. de Constr. și lucrari puplice,	Militari (Ilfov),	60	380,000
Dimitrie Costandache,	Mireni (Tutova),	29	53,600
Franz Eitel and C. Speéh,	R.-Valcea,	57,000
Ch. E. Rosen,	Bucharest,	27	151,200
L. and S. Rosanu,	Bucharest,	25	63,500
Hornung Bros. and Co.,	Azuga,	130	197,600
Wood-paviers—			
Esra Penchas,	Moșia (Prahova),	50,000
Wooden Pin, Peg, and Plug Makers—			
Gh. Ghica,	Doftana,	28	50,000
Petroleum Drum Makers—			
Soc. de Petrol 'Steaua Româna,'	Constantza,	46	369,700

VIII. Paper.

Paper and cardboard are each represented by four mills, which under the protection of heavy import duties are steadily expanding, and driving foreign competitors from the home market. The importation of ordinary writing-paper fell from 20,700 double quintals in 1886 to no more than 4800 in 1898.

Like most other Rumanian industries, this business has also had to struggle chiefly against a lack of skilful craftsmen. Moreover, despite the abundance of forests, the country has been obliged to import, mostly free of duty, the wood used as a raw material in paper-making. Under these conditions the cost of production is so enhanced that an export trade to the surrounding countries is out of the question.

The more noteworthy works are those of C. and S. Schiel at Buşteni (Prahova district), which employ 355 hands, and have a yearly output of 26,000 double quintals, valued at £53,000.

Other mills at Campulung and Scaeni, near Ploesci, each produce annually 8000 double quintals, while the joint-stock company (capital £80,000) at Letea, near Bacau, turns out 10,000 double quintals. During the summer of 1899 two new mills were built in Moldavia.

A personal visit to the paper-mills has satisfied this writer that they have imported a large number of machines from the well-known Bruderhaus at Reutlingen, in Würtemberg.

The preparation of cigarette-paper and pasteboard is a specialty carried on by the following firms at Yassy: S. Goldenthal (capital £3200, 60 hands); M. Svartz (capital £1300, 30 hands); F. Schiller (capital £12,000, 30 to 40 hands); M. Mates (capital £1000, 15 to 25 hands).

The privileges of the Industrial Act are enjoyed by the following firms:—

Firms.	Place.	Hands.	Capital in francs.
Paper Mills—			
C. and S. Schiel,	Buşteni,	117	206,000
Stefan Jonide,	Campulung,	89	618,000
Esra Penhas,	Scaeni,	70	545,000
Societatea Letea,	Letea (Bacau),	150	2,500,000
D. A. Draghiceanu,	Bucharest,	30	70,000
Societatea Anglo-Româna,	Braila,
Paste-board and Paste-board Ware—			
S. Goldenthal,	Yassy,	38	50,400
Gheorghiu and Hernia,	Ploesci,	120	450,000
D. A. Draghiceanu,	Bucharest,	30	70,000

Besides the above-named establishments representing the various branches of industry, the following also take advantage of the Industrial Act :—

Firms.	Place.	Hands.	Capital in francs.
Army Supplies— M. T. Mandrea,	Bucharest,	450	1,030,000
Shoe Factory— Societatea Moldova,	Piatra,
Sausage Works— J. Abele, jun.,	Bucharest,	20	115,500
Leopold Patac,	Bucharest,	20	220,000
Waller and Co.,	Azuga,	25-30	57,800
Chocolate Works— Chr. Alexandriu,	Bucharest,	25-30	150,000
Firmin Bresson,	Bucharest,	15	85,000
Chocolate and Bon-bon Works— G. Dobricénu,		18	133,000
Confectionery and Bon-bon Works— Em. Calavrezu and Themistocle Andreadis,	Bucharest,	109,000
Lambrou T. Rovancin,	Bucharest,	30	352,600
Economu and Co.,	Bucharest,	50	212,700
Glucose Works— Oskar Jaumotte,	Bucharest,	66,700
Graphic Art Institutes— J. V. Socce and Co.,	Bucharest,	100	500,000
Ralian and Ignatz Samitca,	Craiova,	60	...
Pearl-button Works— Ströer and Kohlert,	Bucharest,	39	70,000



APPENDIX II.

Ordinance respecting the Application
of the Law for promoting the
National Industries.

CHAPTER I.

AVAILABLE ADVANTAGES.

ART. 1. Industrial undertakings already established, and to be hereafter established, may avail themselves of the following advantages:—

- I. According as the mill-owner is a Rumanian or a foreigner, he may acquire a plot in full ownership up to 5 hectares in all State, Communal, or Crown lands. Waterfalls can never be included in such concessions.
- II. He is relieved from all indemnities to the State, Communes, or Crown domains for the opening of communications—roads, railways, tramways, etc.—putting the factory in connection with a highway, a railroad station, a river, or a navigable canal.
- III. The owner is reimbursed for duties paid on imported goods which are not produced in the country when they are re-exported after receiving any industrial treatment in the country.
- IV. Such industries are exempted for a term of 15 years—
 - (a) from all direct taxes to the State, District, and Commune;
 - (b) from payment of the duties on all machines, parts,

and appurtenances of the same, imported for the use of the factory ;

- (c) from the payment of the duties on raw materials imported to be worked up, provided the same cannot be procured at all, or in sufficient quantities, in the country itself.

V. Further, for the term of 15 years the following abatements are granted:—

- (a) Reduced transport rates on the Rumanian railways for manufactured wares, for machinery, raw materials, and all other products introduced to be worked up. For such wares the transport tariff shall never be higher than the government charges plus 20 per cent. The general administration of the railways shall, jointly with the Ministry for Industry, determine the transport rates for such products.
- (b) Reduction of the postal charges for forwarding these manufactures in the interior of the country. These charges shall never be higher than those fixed by the Universal Postal Union.

VI. Other conditions being the same, a preference shall be given to the products of these factories over foreign wares in consignments for the State, Districts, and Communes. This preference shall be enjoyed by all national industries. For this purpose said industries shall make written application to the Ministry, setting forth the nature of the industry and its domicile.

CHAPTER II.

THE CONDITIONS UNDER WHICH THESE ADVANTAGES ARE CONFERRED.

- I. A capital of at least 50,000 lei (£2000), or employment of at least 25 hands daily for a period of not less than 5 months in the year.

- II. Use of the best machines and processes in the factory.
- III. Direction of the factory by persons having special knowledge of the business.
- IV. Within a period of not less than five years at least two-thirds of all the employees must be Rumanians. The period of five years shall be reckoned from the foundation of the factory or, for those already in existence, from the date of the concessions.

ART. 3. The right of participation in all or part of the advantages set forth in the aforesaid Article shall be communicated by the Ministerial Council.

CHAPTER III.

COURSE TO BE TAKEN IN ORDER TO PROVE COMPLIANCE WITH THE CONDITIONS AND TO OBTAIN THE PRIVILEGES GRANTED BY THE LAW.

ART. 4. The industrial undertaking wishing to enjoy the privileges specified in Art. 1 has to make a written application to the Ministry setting forth in detail both the desired privileges and the conditions complied with. The application must be accompanied by the plans and all the documents by which it may be ascertained that the conditions required by the Act and the Ordinance have been fulfilled.

ART. 5. If the application is for the grant of a piece of land, it must be accompanied by the plan of the same, with a statement of its position, size, surroundings, and the estate in which it is situated.

ART. 6. If the application has for its object any of the exemptions or abatements specified in Art. 1, §§ IV. and v., both the said exemptions and abatements, as well as objects for which they are desired, must be accurately stated.

ART. 7. For factories not yet built the application must be accompanied by the plans and proposed outlay on the factory and its accessories. After the Ministerial Council has decided on granting the privileges, all these plans and statements of proposed outlay shall be certified and deposited with the Ministry, in order to serve as a means of control in the erection of the factory. The duplicates of said documents shall also be certified.

ART. 8. After acceptance of the application, and erection of the factory, the Ministry shall delegate a member of the Industrial Commission, or some other competent person, in order to make inquiry on the spot as to everything directly connected with its position and its future.

ART. 9. The Ministerial Council decides specially in the case of each factory, on the Report of the Ministry for Industry.

ART. 10. As regards the grant of ground plots, situated on Crown Domain or communal lands, the Ministry for Industry shall submit the manufacturer's application to the decision of the Ministerial Council only when accompanied by the previously received judgment of the respective officials.

CHAPTER VI.

FORFEITURE OF THE CONCEDED PRIVILEGES.

ART. 11. In all factories to which have been granted the privileges specified in this ordinance, the Ministry for Industry shall have inspections made through their agents, in order to satisfy themselves that the industrial establishment is operating under the conditions required for the granting of the privileges.

ART. 12. Every non-observance of the conditions is followed by the immediate forfeiture of the privileges.

ART. 13. Should the concession of a ground plot be withdrawn, the owner of the same shall be entitled to retain all the structures erected on it on paying the value of the ground, or else may require the builder to remove the tenements without injury to the ground.

ART. 14. Forfeiture of the ground plot follows in case the industrial establishment for which it has been given shall not be erected within two years of the grant.

CHAPTER V.

ON THE INDUSTRIAL COMMISSION.

ART. 15. Besides the Minister of Industry, a Commission consisting of seven members, and bearing the title of the Industrial Commission, shall act as a consulting body on all questions touching the application of this ordinance.

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A SCIENTIFICALLY complete standard work on the Rumanian national economy should, by a separate study of the economic, social, and politico-financial factors, as well as of the psychological elements of the race, create a background for the full display of the maxims of economic life.

Such a work has not yet appeared, nor will the present volume supply the want of a book which could be produced only on the spot by a combination of forces. For its preparation the following list of existing works may be found useful :—

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