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EDITORIAL NOTE

In the spring of 1917 the Foreign Office, in connexion with the preparation which they were making for the work of the Peace Conference, established a special section whose duty it should be to provide the British Delegates to the Peace Conference with information in the most convenient form—geographical, economic, historical, social, religious, and political—respecting the different countries, districts, islands, &c., with which they might have to deal. In addition, volumes were prepared on certain general subjects, mostly of an historical nature, concerning which it appeared that a special study would be useful.

The historical information was compiled by trained writers on historical subjects, who (in most cases) gave their services without any remuneration. For the geographical sections valuable assistance was given by the Intelligence Division (Naval Staff) of the Admiralty; and for the economic sections, by the War Trade Intelligence Department, which had been established by the Foreign Office. Of the maps accompanying the series, some were prepared by the above-mentioned department of the Admiralty, but the bulk of them were the work of the Geographical Section of the General Staff (Military Intelligence Division) of the War Office.

Now that the Conference has nearly completed its task, the Foreign Office, in response to numerous inquiries and requests, has decided to issue the books for public use, believing that they will be useful to students of history, politics, economics, and foreign affairs, to publicists generally and to business men and travellers. It is hardly necessary to say that some of the subjects dealt with in the series have not in fact come under discussion at the Peace Conference; but, as the books treating of them contain valuable information, it has been thought advisable to include them.

It must be understood that, although the series of volumes was prepared under the authority, and is now issued with the sanction, of the Foreign Office, that Office is not to be regarded as guaranteeing the accuracy of every statement which they contain or as identifying itself with all the opinions expressed in the several volumes ; the books were not prepared in the Foreign Office itself, but are in the nature of information provided for the Foreign Office and the British Delegation.

The books are now published, with a few exceptions, substantially as they were issued for the use of the Delegates. No attempt has been made to bring them up to date, for, in the first place, such a process would have entailed a great loss of time and a prohibitive expense; and, in the second, the political and other conditions of a great part of Europe and of the Nearer and Middle East are still unsettled and in such a state of flux that any attempt to describe them would have been incorrect or misleading. The books are therefore to be taken as describing, in general, *ante-bellum* conditions, though in a few cases, where it seemed specially desirable, the account has been brought down to a later date.

G. W. PROTHERO,

General Editor and formerly
Director of the Historical Section.

January 1920.

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I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) Position and Frontiers

Serbia lies between 40° 50′ and 45° north latitude, and between 19° 5′ and 23° 10′ east longitude. It has an area of some 33,900 square miles, and is bounded on the north by Croatia-Slavonia and Hungary, on the east by Bulgaria, on the south by Greece, and on the west (from north to south successively) by Bosnia, Montenegro, and Albania.

The northern boundary is formed by the Save and the Danube; the eastern is formed by the Danube and its tributary the Timok, south of which it climbs the western heights of the Stara Planina, cutting across the Svete Nikola Pass (4,737 ft.), and then running over the crests of high and difficult country till it reaches Lake Doiran; the southern runs from Lake Doiran through Lake Prespa to Lake Okhrida, going over very mountainous country, except to the south of Monastir; the western boundary, going north from Lake Okhrida, to a certain extent follows valleys (e.g. those of the Black and White Drin) and in other places the crest-line of mountains, and eventually follows the Drina till it reaches the Save. The former Sanjak of Novibazar is cut lengthwise from south-east to north-west.

Before the Treaty of Berlin in 1878, the southern frontier of Serbia was to the north of Nish. The upper Morava valley, including Nish, Pirot, and Vranye, was added by the Treaty of Berlin. The Treaty of San Stefano had assigned Nish only to Serbia, Pirot and

Vranye to Bulgaria. The rest of the present Serbian territory was acquired by the Treaty of Bucarest in 1913. The ethnological frontiers are much disputed; but in the Secret Annexe to the Serbo-Bulgarian Treaty of Alliance in 1912 [1] the Serbian claims in the south were limited by a line drawn south-west from near Egri Palanka to Lake Okhrida, which Bulgaria was also prepared to accept as a frontier—Dibra, Skoplye (Skopie, Üsküb), Kumanovo, and Struga being assigned to Serbia, and Okhrida, Monastir (Bitolye or Vitolya), Prilip, Veles (Köprülü), and Shtip (Ishtib) to Bulgaria. On the western frontier also, as drawn by the International Albanian Boundary Commission, the racial division is open to dispute, as there are many Albanians within the present Serbian boundary, and Serbian authorities claim many Serbians outside it.

Some confusion in nomenclature is caused by the fact that, politically speaking, 'New Serbia' means the recently-acquired districts; but, historically speaking, these are often referred to as 'Old Serbia', since they lie around the old Serbian capital of Skoplye.

(2) Surface and River System

Surface

Serbia falls naturally into three divisions: (1) the north-western, which drains into the Danube; (2) the southern, which drains into the Aegean; and (3) the eastern Serbian mountains.

North-Western Region.—The north-western area may be defined as the country contained within the curve made by the Morava over its whole course.

The northern part of this area, between the Western Morava and the Save–Danube line, is the least moun-

[1] For full text see *Eastern Question*, No. 15 of this series, Appendix XI.

tainous part of Serbia. It is for the most part a region of wooded hills, thickly populated. Between Stalach and the Danube the valley of the Morava is broad and fertile. All the rest of the district is really forest, except the Machva plain in the extreme north-western angle between the Save and the Drina, which is for the most part low-lying and swampy. South of this is a high, rather bleak country, part of the Kapaonik mountain system, with heights rising to 6,000 ft. Much grazing is carried on.

The Serbian portion of the old Sanjak is a rugged country, which has been to a great extent denuded of forest while under Turkish rule. The chief heights are between 4,000 and 5,000 ft. There are some fertile valleys, such as those of the Lim (in which is Priyepolye) and the Rashka (in which is Novibazar). Finally south of the former Serbian frontier, within the curve of the upper course of the Southern Morava, is a large portion of Old Serbia, taken from Turkey in the Balkan War in 1912. This includes the famous plain of Kosovo, fertile, well-watered, and populous. Mitrovitsa, on the Ibar, and Prishtina are the chief towns.

Southern Region.—In southern Serbia the lower regions consist of rolling, cultivated downs, the higher of good grazing-ground; the country has long been deforested. The Vardar is the great line of communication between the Aegean and Central Europe. The Salonika–Belgrade railway follows this valley and the Morava valley, the divide between the two being low (only 1,502 ft.).

Eastern Serbian Mountains.—The northern half, the departments of Kraina and Timok, has mineral wealth and also fine vineyards; the southern half is mainly a grazing country. Nish and Pirot, in the Nishava valley, stand on an important natural line of communication.

River System

Serbia shares the navigation of two rivers of first-class importance, the Danube and the Save.

The Danube skirts Serbian territory from Belgrade to the mouth of the Timok. As far as Orsova it borders Hungarian territory, then, passing through the Iron Gates, it flows between Serbia and Rumania. The Save divides Serbia from Croatia-Slavonia.

The Morava is the chief river which flows for the whole of its course through Serbia. Its southern branch rises in the Tsrna Gora (Kara Dagh), north of Skoplye, and about midway on its course towards the Danube receives the waters of the Western Morava. Below Stalach the valley of the Morava loses its mountainous character, and from Tyupriya (Ćuprija) downwards, a distance of over 100 miles, it is navigable for barges; the channel, however, is interrupted by shoals, which are always being formed by the river.

The Vardar rises in the south-west of Serbia, flows through the plain of Tetovo in a north-east direction, then turns south, and by way of Skoplye and Veles reaches the Gulf of Salonika. All Macedonian rivers are negligible as means of transportation or navigation: they have steep banks, are swift and stony, and are liable to flooding.

Two other considerable rivers, the White and Black Drin, neither suitable for navigation, fall only partially within Serbia.

In the extreme south-west of Serbia there are two large, well-known lakes, Okhrida and Prespa, which, like Lake Doiran, a smaller lake in the south-east, are famous for their fish. The scenery in this lake region is extremely fine.

(3) Climate

Serbia is to a certain extent within the influence of the Mediterranean, and has a temperate, healthy climate.

Northern Serbia has a similar climate to northern Bulgaria. The winter is cold, with frequent falls of snow, which lies on the ground for a week or ten days at a time, but disappears about April. The summer is bright and sunny, and sometimes extremely hot. Throughout the year the higher valleys are exposed to cold winds from the north and north-east.

The new territory is rather warmer than the northern region, yet, although the snow does not lie so long, the winter is nevertheless severe, except in the sheltered valleys.

The range of mean monthly temperature and rainfall is as follows:

	Mean Temperature.		Mean Rainfall.	
	January.	*July.*	*January.*	*June.*
Belgrade	29° F. (−2° C.)	71° F. (22° C.)	1·14 in. (29 mm.)	3·15 in. (80 mm.)
Skoplye	29° F. (−2° C.)	73° F. (23° C.)	1·42 in. (36 mm.)	2·24 in. (57 mm.)
Monastir	30° F. (−1° C.)	71° F. (22° C.)	1·93 in. (49 mm.)	2·76 in. (70 mm.)

(4) Sanitary Conditions

Malaria and typhoid are the diseases most prevalent in Serbia. In northern Serbia malaria is worst in the Machva plain and along the Kolubara and Tamnava rivers; it is also bad around Lakes Prespa and Okhrida, and in nearly all the valleys of southern Serbia.

In the villages of Serbia the water, when got from wells, is apt to be contaminated, which explains the frequency of typhoid. Yet before the Balkan Wars, although sanitary conditions were primitive, the health of the country was fairly good. The wars, however, proved too great a strain for the sanitary services of the various States which were concerned;

and since then typhus, spread by body vermin, has become endemic in the country. Privation and want among the inhabitants have aggravated the diseases, and tuberculosis is said to have greatly increased.

It will be noticed that, with the exception of malaria, the severity of the diseases to which Serbia has been subject in recent years is due to conditions of war. There is no reason why, with the exercise of care, better conditions should not be restored. It is possible, however, that with the decrease in cultivation in many valleys, malaria may have strengthened its hold on the country; and widespread and energetic efforts will be necessary to drain the low-lying lands.

(5) Race and Language

Race

While the bulk of the population of Serbia (90 per cent. or even more) consists of Slavs, these are not all true Serbs, but include in Macedonia a considerable population, the precise affinities of which are hotly disputed.

The Serbs, who speak a Slavonic language having distinct characteristics of its own, and belong to their own autocephalous branch of the Orthodox Church (distinct alike from the Greek and the Bulgarian), have likewise a national history and feel themselves to be a distinct people. This consciousness, the result of race, of history, of environment, and of education, is highly developed. At the same time it must be admitted that there are, among the inhabitants of Serbia, some who approximate to the Bulgar type.[1] While the typical Serb is a tall, broad-headed man,

[1] The original Bulgars, a Finno-Ugrian race who arrived in the Balkans in the seventh century, acquired a Slavonic speech and were largely absorbed racially in the people they conquered.

muscular and lithe, the typical Bulgar is rather smaller and more thick-set, with a flatter face, smaller eyes, and with straight black hair, though too much stress should not be laid on these differences. Both types are found all over Serbia, among people who speak and worship in the Serbian fashion, and who are perfectly conscious and proud of their Serbian nationality.

The next largest element in the Serbian State is found in Macedonia and is also Slavonic. Its nationality and language are the subject of much dispute, and offer one of the most difficult of Balkan problems. By the Bulgarians and their advocates these people are claimed as Bulgarians; and the Bulgarian propaganda was very vigorous and successful among them before the Balkan Wars of 1912–13, and was greatly assisted by the establishment of Exarchist bishops and churches and of Bulgarian schools, so that their political and religious sympathies were to a great extent Bulgarian. It has been suggested by some authorities that these 'Bulgarians' (or 'Macedonian Slavs' as the Serbian advocates call them) are survivors of the earlier Slavonic settlements before the establishment of the Bulgarian and Serbian nations. There are between 400,000 and 500,000 of them, out of a total population of 1,100,000, in Serbian Macedonia. This district was assigned to Bulgaria by the Treaty of San Stefano, but restored to Turkey by the Treaty of Berlin. The compromise agreed on in 1912 between Serbia and Bulgaria as to its division is stated on p. 2 above (cf. also p. 46). By the Treaty of Bucarest the whole was assigned to Serbia, and was in respect of this element of the population a source of weakness to the kingdom. The 'Bulgarians' of Macedonia, however, were not taken from the Bulgarian kingdom, but were on the contrary rescued by the Serbs from Turkish dominion. It is not unlikely therefore

that they or their sons would have become good Serbian citizens, under an enlightened and peaceful Serbian State. The war which began in 1914 spoiled this chance. After the occupation of Serbian Macedonia the Bulgarian Government established Bulgarian administration, and opened Bulgarian schools for the Macedonian children; and it may be supposed that a permanent ascendency has been established over the sympathies of a section at least of the inhabitants.

In addition to Bulgarians, there are four other main elements, Greek, Vlach, Albanian, and Turkish; the last two are mainly Moslem. There are small settlements of Greeks in every town of southern Serbia, where they form a commercial class. Vlachs are also found throughout Macedonia, but it is only in north-eastern Serbia that they form a compact mass anywhere. They are said to be about 200,000 in the region of Negotin. They came in the last hundred years as colonists from Rumania, and are said to be loyal citizens of Serbia. The Moslems are nearly all in the districts acquired in 1913, when they numbered about 400,000;[1] since then their numbers have tended to decrease through emigration. Albanians form a fairly important element in south-western Serbia, in Dibra, Prizren, Mitrovitsa, also in Novibazar and Prishtina. Most of the regions which were predominantly Albanian were incorporated in the Albanian principality in 1913, but the exact racial frontier is much disputed. Some of the 'Turks' were originally Slavs, subjects of the mediaeval Serbian princes, and adopted Islam under the Ottoman rule. Many of these speak only the Serbian language.

There are also about 10,000 Jews in Serbia, living exclusively in the towns, and mostly of Spanish origin,

[1] This number may be exaggerated. A recent Serbian estimate gives 200,000 Moslems in the new territory and 3,000 within the frontiers prior to 1912. See p. 56.

like those of Salonika. They look down upon the Jewish immigrants from Austria-Hungary, who are much later arrivals. The Serbian Jews are patriotic Serbs; and in Serbia (in this, as in most other respects, different from Rumania) there is no 'Jewish question'.

In addition to the Serbs in the kingdom, there are large numbers of kindred people in Montenegro and in the dominions of Austria-Hungary. Among these peoples a national feeling has developed, creating a desire for union in one independent Southern Slav (Jugo-Slav) State. The numbers of the Southern Slavs are computed as follows:

Serbs in Serbia . . .	over 3,500,000	
,, ,, Montenegro . . .	500,000	
,, ,, Croatia-Slavonia . .	645,000	
,, ,, Southern Hungary . .	461,000	
		5,106,000
Croats ,, Croatia-Slavonia . .	1,638,000	
,, ,, Istria	173,000	
,, ,, Southern Hungary . .	195,000	
		2,006,000
Serbo-Croats in Bosnia-Herzegovina and Dalmatia		2,432,000
Slovenes in Carinthia, Styria, &c. . . .		1,313,000
Total		10,857,000

In Austrian statistics Croats and Serbs are not distinguished from each other, and therefore in some of the figures of the table they are bracketed together. The Slovenes, another branch of the Slav race, who extend from Friuli and Istria as far east as Hungary (where there are about 60,000), are almost all Roman Catholics.

Language

The Serbian language is Slavonic, and is spoken in Serbia, in Montenegro, and in the Austro-Hungarian provinces of Dalmatia, Bosnia, Herzegovina, and

Croatia-Slavonia, and in southern Hungary. Between the tongues spoken in these regions there are slight dialectal variations. A substantial difference is that in Serbia, Montenegro, southern Hungary, in most of Bosnia and Herzegovina, and among the Slavonians, the Cyrillic alphabet is used; while the Latin alphabet prevails in parts of Bosnia and Herzegovina and among the Croats. This difference corresponds to a difference of religion. The Serbian-speaking peoples who are Roman Catholic use the Latin alphabet, those who are Orthodox use the Cyrillic.

The Slavonic language spoken by the 'Bulgarians' or 'Macedo-Slavs' of Serbian Macedonia is like Bulgarian, but also shows a resemblance to Serbian sufficiently great to allow of some degree of mutual understanding. Its similarity to Bulgarian doubtless tends to be increased by the Bulgarian schools.

In the extreme north-east of Serbia and along the Danube, from the mouth of the Timok to Golubats, Rumanian is the language in ordinary use; but there, too, Serbian is the language for purposes of trade.

(6) Population

The population of Serbia before the European war was 4,547,992. The density of population was 134 per square mile; excluding, however, the new territories gained in 1913, the density was 156 per square mile, while these new territories had a density of only 107 per square mile.

The great majority of the population lives on the land; the town-dwellers are only 16 per cent. of the whole. Except Belgrade, which has 90,000 inhabitants, there are no large towns. Nish, the next largest outside the new territories, has under 25,000. Skoplye (Üsküb) and Monastir have each 50,000 inhabitants.

The most populous parts of the country are along

the Danube and in the regions to the west and east of the lower Morava. The department of Belgrade, excluding the city itself, has a density of population of 179, Smederevo of 273, and Nish of 186 per square mile.

In the early part of the nineteenth century, the principality of Serbia had only 500,000 inhabitants. In 1912 the population had risen to 3,000,000. The new territories acquired in the Balkan Wars added a further population of over 1,500,000.

In Serbia there have always been more males than females. The last census (1910) showed a surplus of nearly 100,000 males. Forty-two per cent. of the men marry before the age of 20; the women marry still earlier, nearly 4 per cent. before the age of 16. Out of the whole population, 45 per cent. are married, and the average number of children in each family is four.

The death-rate is 22 per thousand, 33 per cent. of this being due to the death of infants under two years of age. The annual surplus of births over deaths during the five years before the Balkan Wars increased from 36,000 in 1908 to 50,000 in 1912.

In 1910 there were 21,086 foreigners resident in Serbia, chiefly in Belgrade. Of these, 6,605 were Austrians, 6,060 were Turks, 5,518 were Hungarians.

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

Chronological Table

610 (*circa*). The Serbs enter the Balkan peninsula.
12th century. Stephen Nemanya founds the Serbian Monarchy.
1331–55. Zenith of Serbian power under Stephen Dushan.
1346. Dushan proclaimed Emperor at Skoplye.
1389. Battle of Kosovo.
1459. Turkish conquest of Serbia.
1463. Turkish conquest of Bosnia.
1483. Turkish conquest of Herzegovina.
1718–39. Austrian occupation of Serbia and Northern Bosnia.
1804. First Serbian rising: Kara George.
1812. First Treaty of Bucarest.
1815. Second Serbian rising: Milosh Obrenovich.
1817. Milosh Obrenovich I becomes hereditary chief.
1826. Convention of Akkerman.
1829. Treaty of Adrianople.
1830. Milosh invested as hereditary Prince by the Sultan.
1833. Serbia obtains frontiers which she retains till 1878.
1837. First British Consul in Serbia.
1839. Milosh abdicates. Milan Obrenovich II succeeds. His death.
1839–42. First reign of Michael Obrenovich III.
1842. Alexander Karageorgevich.
1856. Treaty of Paris.
1859. Alexander Karageorgevich expelled.
1859–60. Second reign of Milosh Obrenovich I.
1860–8. Second reign of Michael Obrenovich III.
1862. Turkish bombardment of Belgrade.
1867. Last Turkish soldier quits Serbia.
1868. Assassination of Michael Obrenovich III.
1868–89. Milan Obrenovich IV.
1869. Conservative Constitution.
1876. First Serbo-Turkish War.
1877. Second Serbo-Turkish War.
1878. Treaty of Berlin.

1882. Milan proclaimed King.
1885. Serbo-Bulgarian War: battle of Slivnitsa.
1886. Second Treaty of Bucarest.
1889. Liberal Constitution; Milan abdicates.
1889–1903. Alexander I.
1893. Alexander arrests his Regents.
1903. Assassination of Alexander and Queen Draga.
Peter Karageorgevich elected King.
1908. Austria-Hungary annexes Bosnia and Herzegovina.
1912. First Balkan War.
1913. Treaty of London. Greco-Serbian Alliance.
Second Balkan War. Third Treaty of Bucarest.
1914. Assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand.
Austrian ultimatum to Serbia.

(1) Mediaeval Serbia (*c.* 610–1459)

It is impossible to understand the aspirations of the Serbian people without some knowledge of its mediaeval history, because nowhere else in the Balkans, except perhaps in Greece, have historical, and especially mediaeval, traditions so much influence in shaping present policy. For to the Serbs of to-day their history before the Turkish conquest is not an affair of names and dates but a living thing, handed down by those popular ballads which are justly ranked as among the finest specimens of such poetry. Moreover, as in the Balkans the nationalities enfranchised in the last century took up the thread of their national existence exactly at the point where the Turkish conquest had snapped it at the end of the Middle Ages, it is unfair to judge of Balkan peoples, who have thus suddenly emerged from darkness into the full blaze of the modern world, by the same criteria as those applicable to our gradually evolved Western States. Kara George and Milosh, through no fault of their own, were really contemporaries, not of Pitt and Palmerston, but of the men who fought the Wars of the Roses.

Entering the Balkan peninsula thirteen centuries ago, and known under their present name since the ninth century, the Serbs were divided into two separate States, Dioklitiya and Rascia, the former consisting of the South Dalmatian coast, the present Herzegovina and Zeta (the modern Montenegro), with Scutari and Cattaro as its capitals, the latter comprising the inland districts whose centre is Novibazar. They played a part subordinate to that of their Byzantine and Bulgarian rivals till the close of the twelfth century. Then arose the famous Nemanya dynasty, which founded the greatness of Serbia. During the reign of Stephen Dushan (1331–55), Serbia reached her zenith. In 1346 Dushan was crowned at his capital of Skoplye (Üsküb) as 'Emperor of the Serbs and Greeks'; his dominions, at the time of their greatest extent, stretched from the Danube to the Corinthian Gulf, and from the Adriatic to Thrace, and embraced all Macedonia, except the Greek city of Salonika. He thus possessed an ample coast-line—for mediaeval Serbia was not land-locked like the modern kingdom; Cattaro was his mint. But he aimed at expansion in Macedonia rather than at naval power, and even he never conquered the independent Serbian kingdom of Bosnia.

Dushan's empire, based on imperialistic, not racial, principles, broke up at his death. In 1389 the Turks defeated the Serbs on the fatal field of Kosovo; but a Danubian principality, whose capital was Semendria, lingered on, at the pleasure of the Sultans, till in 1459 it received its death-blow; four years later the Bosnian kingdom, and in 1483 Herzegovina, fell. Montenegro and the Dalmatian Republics of Ragusa and Polyitsa, alone of South Slavonic lands, maintained their freedom, Montenegro to our own time, the two small republics till 1808. All else was Turkish or Hungarian. It has been well said of this period of foreign rule that

'the Serbs of Serbia were saved from despair by the Serbs of Montenegro and from ignorance by those of South Hungary'.

(2) Austro-Turkish Wars (1683–1791)

After the defeat of the Turks before Vienna in 1683 and the emancipation of Budapest, frequent Austrian expeditions invaded Bosnia, over which the Hungarian crown possessed old historic rights; while an Austrian force captured Nish and penetrated into Macedonia as far as Skoplye (Üsküb). Prince Eugène made in 1697 his memorable march to Sarajevo along the same route that was afterwards followed by the army of occupation in 1878. 'Yet another campaign', said a Turkish statesman, on hearing that Macedonia was invaded, 'and the Austrians will be under the walls of Stambul.' But these feats of arms were without permanent results; and Skoplye is the farthest point on the road to Salonika that an Austrian army has ever reached. The twenty-one years' Austrian occupation of Little Wallachia, of a large portion of what is now Serbia, and of a slice of North Bosnia, between 1718 and 1739, was the beginning of that movement which has been resumed in so striking a manner in our own time.

Austria then became an important factor in the Eastern question. The effects of those twenty-one years of European civilization were not wholly lost on the peoples who were put back under Turkish sway by the Treaty of Belgrade. The Serbs of Turkey thenceforth regarded Austria as the only Power which, under existing conditions, could set them free. Numbers of their ancestors had settled in Hungary after the downfall of Serbian independence in the fifteenth century; and two Serb patriarchs of Ipek (Pech), accompanied by thousands of their flock, had more recently

followed that example by migrating thither. The Hungarian Serbs were among the most brilliant soldiers of Prince Eugène; and at the outbreak of every fresh Austro-Turkish war their brethren in Serbia took up arms on the Austrian side. A Serb poet hailed Joseph II as 'the protector of the Serb race'; and the Serb leaders bitterly reproached his successor for making peace with Turkey at Svishtov in 1791. Nor can we be surprised at their regrets at that period. For the first time since the Turkish conquest, Serbia had shown signs of material progress during the two brief decades of the previous Austrian occupation. The national idea was yet to come.

(3) Serbian Risings under Kara George and Milosh Obrenovich (1804–17)

Since her final absorption by Turkey in 1459, Serbia had given the Turkish Government comparatively little trouble. Her native aristocracy did not survive the conquest, but, so far as they escaped extermination, sought a refuge in Montenegro; and whereas the Bosnian nobles, to preserve their lands, had embraced Islam at the conquest, the patriotic peasants of Serbia rarely became Moslems. Unfortunately, in Serbia a number of these Bosnian *begs* were settled by the Turks as landowners, owing in return military service to the Sultan; they formed the majority of the *spahi*, or cavalry, and were the sole possessors of the soil, to the complete exclusion of the *rayah* from all rights of ownership. There were at this period some 900 of these military landowners in the pashalik of Belgrade; but even in time of peace they were mostly absentees, idling away their days in the towns and letting the despised Christians manage their farms. In addition to these *spahi*, another military force, the Janissaries, were to be found in detachments through

the provinces. Their leaders, or *dahi*, were often more powerful than the Sultan's representative, the pasha, and not only maltreated the Christian peasants, but even seized the lands of the Mohammedan *spahi* with impunity. No other part of Europe had suffered so much from their presence, for it was the custom to send the most turbulent of them to the Belgrade pashalik, as being remote from the capital. The natives had, indeed, some small share in the administration; and when, as was the case in Serbia during the period preceding the first rising, the pasha was a just man, their chosen representatives could temper the wind to their shorn flock. The headman of the village, the village magistrate, and, in many cases, the district official or *oborknez*, who was responsible for the collection of the Turkish taxes, and acted as an intermediary between the pasha and the taxpayers, were elected by the people. The *oborknez*, whether so elected or nominated by the pasha, usually held office for life—it had formerly been an hereditary post—and acquired considerable influence both with the Turkish officials and the Serb peasants. Not a few of these local worthies became leaders of the Serbian revolution.

In its first stage the Serbian rising was not directed against the Turkish Government, but against the Janissaries; and the Serbs long protested that they were loyal to the Sultan, and only wished to live in peace under his paternal rule. They had been governed for the last five years by a pasha, Hajji Mustapha, so mild and just that they called him their 'mother', and the Turks branded him as a 'renegade'. No Turkish ruler was ever more beloved by his Christian subjects. With an enlightenment rare in the East, he did all he could to encourage trade, put down violence with a firm hand, and allowed the Serbs to rebuild their ruinous churches and monasteries.

The Treaty of Svishtov had excluded the Janissaries from Serbia, so that the land had rest from its oppressors. But, in defiance of that treaty, they were allowed to return about 1800, to find, however, that the Serbians, whose national spirit had been kindled by the late Austro-Turkish War, were no longer the submissive peasants that they had known. The first step taken by the Janissaries to restore the old order was the murder of the kindly pasha in 1801, and the division of his pashalik among their four chiefs, who governed the people, Mohammedan and Christian alike, in the most arbitrary manner. The Mohammedan *spahi*, seeing their privileges as landowners threatened, now joined hands with the Christians against the common oppressors. Through their instrumentality a petition was sent to the Sultan setting forth the grievances of the Serbs; and the Sultan replied by threatening the Janissaries, that, if they continued in their evil practices, he would send against them an army 'of men of another faith and another race'. The Janissaries inferred that this 'race' could only be the Serbian, and they resolved to anticipate an attack by massacring all its leaders. This massacre of the Serbian headmen in 1804 provoked the Serbian revolution. The news spread like wild-fire; the people flew to arms; and a leader was found in the person of George Petrovich, better known as Kara George.

Kara George was born about 1760. He took part in the war between Austria and Turkey in 1787 with the volunteers on the Austrian side, became a brigand, and then, on the conclusion of peace, fled again to Austria. Hajji Mustapha's mild rule attracted him back to Serbia, and during this period he was living quietly as a pig-dealer in the village of Topola. When the *dahi* resolved upon the massacre of the principal Serbs, his was one of the names on their black list. But he

escaped their attempts to kill him, and became the saviour and avenger of his countrymen.

In February 1804 a body of Serbs assembled at Orashats and chose him as their chief. Kara George accepted their offer, and at once issued an appeal to the Serbian headmen, wealthy yeomen, and tradesmen, to join him. At first there was a tendency to view the rising with suspicion. In the district of Valyevo, however, two influential men, Jacob and Matthew Nenadovich, raised the standard of revolt, and spread the pious fraud that Kara George was the accredited agent of the Sultan, and that it was their duty, as his Majesty's loyal subjects, to aid the Serbian chief against the rebellious Janissaries. This argument convinced the people that the movement had the Sultan's sanction, and no further incentives were needed. Selim III was known to be a reformer and an enemy of the Janissaries; and it was against them, not against him, that the Serbs had a grievance. It is a striking proof of the peculiar character of the Serbian revolution in its first stage, that the leaders everywhere ordered their followers to spare those Moslems who had no connexion with the Janissaries.

It is remarkable, too, that Kara George offered the whole of Serbia to the Austrian Emperor, and asked him to send some member of the Imperial house as a viceroy. The offer was refused; but Baron von Kállay, the Hungarian statesman and historian of the Serbs, whose name is connected with Austrian rule in Bosnia in our own time, thought the refusal a mistake. Had it been accepted, Serbia would not have become an independent State, and Austria would have dominated the Balkan peninsula. She continued, however, to favour the insurrection, and numbers of Hungarian Serbs joined it. It met with success; and on the

island of Ada Kale in the Danube, the Serbs slew the chiefs of the Janissaries.

The original object of the insurrection had been attained, but the demands of the Serbs now rose. Having in vain asked Austria for protection, they now applied to Russia, suggesting the erection of Serbia (*plus* Syrmia and an outlet to the sea at Cattaro) into a Turkish autonomous province under a Russian Grand Duke. This offer also was declined, but the incident shows thus early the tendency to play off Russia against Austria, and the natural desire to have an Adriatic port at the spot where Dushan had had his mint. Alarmed by these events, the Sultan resolved to put his Serbian subjects back into their former position. The Serbs resisted. A battle ensued, and for the first time the insurgents fought against their sovereign, and conquered. The 'loyal rising' had become a revolution against the Sultan. A species of government was then created. From the old days of Serbian independence there had survived the custom of holding an assembly of the people, called the *Skupshtina*; and such an assembly had been held by Kara George. A permanent Senate, or *Savet*, was now formed by the election of a representative of each district into which the pashalik was divided.

Even now the Serbs did not think of separation from Turkey, and made further appeals to the Sultan for peace and to the Emperors of Austria and Russia for intervention. But the Sultan was resolved to put down what he now regarded as a rebellion against his lawful authority, and his forces invaded Serbia in 1806. The Serbian victory at Mishar, near Shabats, which has been glorified by the national bards, seemed likely to induce both sides to make peace. But the Russo-Turkish War began; and Napoleon advised the Sultan to refuse the moderate Serbian demands. The

Serbs gained one success after another; in 1807 they were masters of the whole pashalik. A Russian corps fought by their side, and the first official Russian agent arrived in Belgrade. Two parties made their appearance in the State, the one pro-Russian, the other anti-Russian. The sudden death of Milan Obrenovich, the leader of the former faction, was ascribed by some to Kara George, and considered by later writers as the beginning of that feud between the Obrenovich and Karageorgevich families, which was till 1903 the bane of Serbia. The eighth article of the Treaty of Bucarest, which ended the Russo-Turkish War in 1812, abandoned the Serbs to such tender mercies as the Turkish Government might mete out to them. The Turks were to occupy the old, and the Serbs to demolish the new, Serbian fortresses; the Porte promised to the Serbs 'the same advantages as those enjoyed by the islanders of the archipelago', 'the management of their internal affairs', 'and moderate taxes, to be received directly from themselves'. The next year witnessed the Turkish reconquest of Serbia; Kara George, losing nerve, crossed into Austria.

But it was at this moment that the second of Serbia's two modern heroes appeared on the scene whence Kara George and the other leaders of the late insurrection had fled. Milosh Theodorovich Obrenovich had not played a very prominent part in that movement. Nearly twenty years younger than Kara George, he was the half-brother of that Milan whom Kara George was suspected of having poisoned, and was so devoted to him that he adopted his half-brother's surname. He, too, had begun life as a herdsman, and had come to riches and such honours as his native district could bestow; he was raised to further distinctions by the returning Turks as a reward for his aid in pacifying the people, and for a time seemed to use his influence

in the interest of the conquerors. But on Palm Sunday, 1815, he unfurled the banner of resistance under the oak before the church at Takovo—a name ever memorable in Serbian history. The insurgents gained the upper hand; and the Russian Emperor reminded the Sultan of the Treaty of Bucarest. A Turco-Serbian arrangement allowed the Serbs to retain their arms, collect their own taxes, and participate in the administration of justice, while acknowledging themselves the Sultan's vassals; and a sort of national Senate was created at Belgrade. Personal jealousy, however, marred the triumph of Milosh. Kara George, returning from exile, urged him to unite with himself in the national cause. But the crafty Obrenovich had no intention of sharing his glory with another. He informed the pasha of Kara George's presence in the country; the pasha bade him send the Liberator's head to Belgrade. The order was carried out on June 24, 1817, by Vuitsa Vulichevich, the mayor of Semendria, probably by Milosh's orders; and the gory trophy, after having been identified to the satisfaction of the pasha, was dispatched to the Sultan at Constantinople. Thus perished the first pioneer of Serbian freedom; by his death he bequeathed to his countrymen a legacy of hate which survived to the third generation. At length, freed from all rivals, Milosh was recognized in November 1817 by all the head-men as their chief; they also conceded that, after his death, his next of kin should succeed him.

(4) First Reign of Milosh Obrenovich I (1817–39)

Milosh was promised in 1820 the recognition of the Porte, which was also willing to fix the amount of the Serbian tribute if the Serbs would accept this as a final settlement. This offer was rejected; and a

Serbian deputation, sent to negotiate at Constantinople, was arrested, and kept under observation for five years. Negotiations were suspended till the Convention of Akkerman (1826) and the special act relating to Serbia (which accompanied it) were ratified and extended the previous Turkish concessions. The Porte undertook to execute without delay the eighth article of the Treaty of Bucarest, to inform the Russian Government of the fulfilment of this undertaking, and within 18 months to settle in concert with the deputies of the Serbian people at Constantinople the points demanded by the latter. These included internal autonomy, the right to choose the chiefs of the nation, and the reunion with Serbia of the six Serbian districts which had been comprised within the jurisdiction of Kara George, but had not taken part in the rising of Milosh. The Porte showed, however, no inclination to perform these pledges given at Akkerman; and matters remained as they were until the conclusion of the Russo-Turkish War—a struggle in which, by the express desire of the Russian commander, Diebich, anxious not to provoke Austrian jealousies or Turkish reprisals, the Serbs confined themselves to the work of hindering the junction of a Bosnian force with the Turkish army, just as they remained neutral during the Greek War of Independence.

In the Treaty of Adrianople (1829) they had their reward; the Porte promised to execute without delay the annexe of the Akkerman Convention, and more especially the pledge for the restoration of the six detached Serbian districts. The Imperial decree to this effect was to be communicated to Russia in a month's time; but the usual procrastination of Turkish diplomacy deferred till 1830 the formal grant of Serbian autonomy. No Turks, except the garrisons of the fortresses, were to live in Serbia; Turkish

estates there were to be sold, and the incomes of the *zaims* and *timariotes* assessed and paid to the Sultan, who would compensate his vassals for their lost privileges in the land. The Serbian tribute was fixed, and was to be collected by the Serbs themselves; and, in place of Greek bishops sent from Constantinople, they might choose men of their own race, subject to the approval of the Oecumenical Patriarch. The entire internal administration was entrusted to 'the Prince' (as Milosh was officially designated), who was to exercise his powers in conjunction with the Assembly of the elders. That astute personage had offered to resign in favour of another, now that the work which he had begun seemed to be accomplished; the result of this mock abdication was his re-election by the Assembly and his formal investiture, by the Sultan, on August 3, 1830, as hereditary Prince.

The Porte still hesitating to restore the six separated Serbian districts, Milosh selected a favourable moment, when Turkey was embroiled with Egypt, to foment disturbances among their inhabitants, and invaded them to 'restore order'. Then, at last, in 1833, the Turks recognized the logic of facts; and the Serbian principality, enlarged by one-third, stretched as far as Aleksinats on the south, as the Drin on the west, as the Timok on the east—boundaries which it retained unaltered till the Treaty of Berlin. Within these boundaries, however, there still remained the Turkish garrisons of the fortresses; and the defences of Belgrade were held to constitute a 'fortress', so that the Turkish population remained there. Accordingly, in 1833, Belgrade continued to be exempt from the fresh order which bade all Moslems outside the fortresses leave Serbia within five years; and in 1838 there were still 2,700 Turks in the town—a cause of continual friction between the two states.

With this exception, the principality of Serbia was, so far as internal administration was concerned, free from the interference of the Turks in politics, and of the Greeks in religion. A national Government and a national church had replaced a system of alien rule, although absolute independence had not been obtained. But the peasants had not profited by this change of masters. They complained of being obliged to supply provisions for the local chiefs on journeys, of forced labour, and of other exactions; and their complaints found vent in a revolt, which was suppressed by the powerful chief, Vuchich, at the moment when the insurgents were actually marching on Kraguyevats, where Milosh had fixed the seat of government.

The confirmation of his authority by the Sultan made Milosh more autocratic than before. If he pretended to adapt the *Code Napoléon* to the use of his subjects, he acted as if his will were the only law. The discontent of his friends led to a conspiracy against him in 1835; the conspirators occupied Kraguyevats; and Milosh was forced to call an Assembly and to promise a constitution. This first essay at constitutional government in Serbia—called, from the place of meeting, the 'Constitution of Sretenye'—created a ministry of six persons, chosen from the Council of State, a committee of leading men which dated from the early days of Kara George's rising. The Prince was bound to sanction any law thrice approved by the Council,[1] which was to share with him the legislative and executive power, as foreshadowed in the Imperial decree of 1830, and of which all present and past ministers were *ex officio* members. As an arbiter between the Prince and the Council was instituted an annual Assembly, or *Skupshtina*, of 100 deputies, to be elected by the

[1] This enactment appears to have remained a dead letter until 1856. See p. 31, below.

people—a provision which thus regulated and systematized the former haphazard method of convoking such Assemblies. For the time being, however, the jurisdiction of this body was practically restricted to finance.

The 'Constitution of Sretenye' was, however, suppressed almost as soon as it had been signed. Austria and Russia protested against it; and the Sultan encouraged Milosh, who was nothing loth, to suspend it. Even his own brother Jephrem joined the Opposition, and was compelled, with Vuchich, to leave the country; while Russia viewed with disapproval the preponderance of the Prince's authority over that of the oligarchy and the consequent failure of her scheme to make the one counterbalance the other.

At that moment Milosh received support from an unexpected quarter. Lord Palmerston had come to the conclusion that to strengthen the small Christian States of the Near East was the true policy of both Turkey and Great Britain. He saw, as Sir William White saw in our own time, that the Balkan peoples would thus become a barrier against Russian aggression. Accordingly, in 1837, Col. Hodges arrived in Serbia as the first British consul sent thither. Thus the Serbian court became the scene of a diplomatic battle between the western Powers and the Tsar. The Sultan, then under the influence of Russia, could not, however, be persuaded by British diplomacy to support the authority of the Prince against the wishes of his own all-powerful protector. An Imperial decree of December 1838 limited Milosh's sway by creating a Senate of 17 life members, corresponding to the 17 provinces of the principality. From this Senate four ministers were to be chosen, and all disputes between the Prince and this Council were to be referred to his suzerain.

Milosh was not the man to acquiesce in such a limitation of his powers. He stirred up the peasants, with

the assistance of his brother John, by disseminating the statement that thenceforth they would have not one master, but seventeen. The Senate, however, ordered his enemy Vuchich to suppress this revolt; and the triumphant leader, on his return to Belgrade, entered the Prince's house, and plainly told him that the nation had no further need of him. On June 13, 1839, the second founder of modern Serbia abdicated in favour of his invalid elder son, Milan Obrenovich II, and crossed the Save. On July 9 Milan died, without even knowing that he had been Prince of Serbia. Meanwhile, Vuchich, Jephrem Obrenovich, and the Turcophil Petronyevich continued to carry on the government.

(5) First Reign of Michael Obrenovich III (1839–42)

The Senate then decided to ask for the appointment of Milosh's younger son Michael Obrenovich III. The Sultan consented, but the patent of investiture omitted all mention of the hereditary character of the princely dignity. A Regency conducted affairs till Michael attained his majority on March 5, 1840; and even then the Porte forced upon him as advisers the two ex-Regents, Vuchich and Petronyevich. This last act was in contravention of the recognized right of the Serbs to choose their own officials, and aroused widespread opposition. The peasants, preferring the rule of one man to that of several, clamoured for the prosecution of the two advisers, the recall of Milosh, and the restoration of the seat of government to Kraguyevats, a place less exposed to foreign influence than Belgrade, a Turkish fortress on the Austrian frontier. Michael consented to return to the former capital, and his advisers sought refuge with the Turkish commander of Belgrade, and subsequently in Turkey

itself. Unfortunately the innate conservatism of the peasantry was alienated by the too progressive policy of Michael's Minister of Justice and Education, an Austrian Serb, who sought to convert this agricultural community of the Orient into a civilized western State. Primitive peoples have always seen in a census a new engine of taxation; the social elevation of the clergy meant expense to the villagers, who shook their heads over the advantages of schools; while the Turkish authorities complained of the creation of a national theatre, where patriotic dramatists glorified the Serbian hero who had slain Murad I on the field of Kosovo.

Naturally this progressive policy cost money; and the most unpopular of all Michael's measures was the increase of the national tax, into which in 1834 all the various imposts had been consolidated. The recall of the exiles, who had sought shelter in Turkey, provided the Opposition with leaders. A 'constitutional' party was formed against the Prince; and Vuchich, putting himself forward in August 1842 as the spokesman of all those who, from one cause or another, were dissatisfied with the Government, demanded the dismissal of Michael's ministers and the reduction of taxation. The Prince, who had committed the mistake of returning to Belgrade, was abandoned by his troops when he marched against the insurgents; and, as the Turkish governor of that fortress favoured them, he had no option but to cross the Save on August 29, as his father had done three years earlier. Vuchich again entered Belgrade in triumph, and, as self-styled 'leader of the nation', formed a provisional Government, which summoned a National Assembly for the election of a Prince. This Assembly met on September 14, 1842, and elected Alexander Karageorgevich, younger but sole surviving son of Kara George, a man 36 years of age, who had been a pensioner of Milosh and an

adjutant of Michael, and whose name and uncompromised past recommended him to the Serbs. The Porte ratified the election; Vuchich, as Minister of the Interior, remained the power behind the throne.

(6) Alexander Karageorgevich (1842–59)

The Tsar, however, who regarded himself as the virtual protector of Serbia, protested against this change of ruler as illegal and revolutionary, and demanded the deposition of Alexander, a new election, the removal of the Turkish commissioner who had been present at the meeting of the Assembly, and the punishment of Vuchich and Petronyevich. Lord Aberdeen, however, then British Foreign Secretary, advocated the retention of Alexander; and a diplomatic compromise was made, by which the election was annulled on the understanding that the Tsar would not oppose Alexander's re-election. On June 15, 1843, he was re-elected. The new Prince was naturally well disposed to Austria and Turkey, the two Powers which had supported him.

These good relations between Austria and Serbia were greatly strengthened by the action of the Serbs during the Revolution of 1848. A National Assembly of the Austrian Serbs met at Karlowitz, the seat of the Metropolitan, and demanded the nomination of a Patriarch and a *Voïvode*, naming to the latter dignity Colonel Shuplikats, an officer who had served in the Napoleonic wars. Under the banner of 'Emperor and Nationality' they aided the Austrians against the Magyars, and were joined by many volunteers from the principality, despite the remonstrances of the Turkish Government. So far as the Serbs of Austria were concerned, they gained little but the addition of the title of 'Grand *Voïvode* of the Serbian *Voïvodina*'

to the already numerous designations of the Austrian Emperor; but this co-operation of the two neighbouring branches of the Serbian race led many of the Austrian Serbs to enter the service of Prince Alexander, where their experience was valuable to the principality and kept the foreign policy of Serbia within the orbit of Austria at the time of the Crimean War, when Serbia's geographical and political position placed her in a most embarrassing situation. Turkey was her suzerain, Russia her protectress, Austria her neighbour; while the British Premier, Aberdeen, had as Foreign Secretary in 1843 instructed Lord Stratford to keep Alexander on the throne. Thus, while the Prince inclined to the Anglo-Turkish side, the peasants were pro-Russian, and some even spoke of the Orthodox Tsar as 'our Emperor'. All the three Powers most nearly concerned demanded a statement of Serbia's intentions. Russia ordered Alexander to dismiss Garashanin, his chief adviser, and a man of modern ideas. A Turkish army approached the southern frontier of the principality and extracted from the Prince a pledge of armed neutrality, while, at Lord Stratford's suggestion, the Sultan issued a new firman, guaranteeing the Serbian privileges. An Austrian force was massed along the frontier to prevent a Russian occupation; and the importation of war material through Austrian territory was prohibited. Nevertheless, the Serbs resolved to be prepared to defend their country, if it were menaced—and the menace seemed to many to come rather from the Austrian force on the Save than from the Russians on the lower Danube. The principality was militarily organized; Austria showed signs of impatience; and both the British and French Governments urged the Serbian envoy, Marinkovich, to give her the satisfaction that she sought by disarming. All excuse for the appre-

hension of a Russian invasion disappeared with the withdrawal of the Russian troops across the Pruth.

Serbian neutrality was rewarded in the Treaty of Paris (1856), which allowed Serbia to continue in the same position as before, her 'rights and immunities' being 'placed thenceforth under the collective guarantee of the contracting Powers'. Her 'independent and national administration, as well as full liberty of worship, of legislation, of commerce, and of navigation', were preserved. The Porte retained the right of garrison, but no armed intervention was to be made without the previous consent of the Powers. The Prince's Austrophil policy, which had won him the sympathy of the Western Powers but had not commended itself to his people, was now, however, less pleasing to one of the former, owing to the close relations between France and Russia after the Crimean War. Thus, while the French and Russian consuls at Belgrade were now united against Austrian influence, a plot for Alexander's removal, on the ground that he was an Austrian puppet, was discovered among the senators. Regardless of the article in the Charter of 1838 which proclaimed that senators could not be punished without the consent of the Porte, the Prince arrested the conspirators. This illegal act provoked the intervention of the Porte, which sent a commissioner to Belgrade to hold an inquiry. Thereupon the Prince gave way, restored the senators to their dignities, and called a Francophil ministry, of which Vuchich and Garashanin were the leading spirits, to his counsels.

But the Senate, having thus vindicated its rights against the Prince, sought to humiliate him, and to change the Serbian Government into a Venetian oligarchy. A proposal, thrice approved by the Senate, was to become *ipso facto* law, even without his approval, so that his veto would be practically abolished. At the

suggestion of the British Ambassador at Constantinople, Sir H. Bulwer, the Serbian leaders summoned a National Assembly, called from the day of its meeting 'the *Skupshtina* of St. Andrew', with the hope of getting rid of the Prince and placing one of the oligarchy in his place. The result was unexpected. The Assembly, after criticizing the Prince's neutrality during the Crimean War, requested his abdication, but insisted that Milosh should be recalled from exile to take his place. The people had thus abandoned the Prince; there remained only the Powers. Russia, never his friend, maintained the right of the Serbs to choose their own ruler; Turkey, afraid of the spread of discontent among the Southern Slavs, and Austria, desirous that the fortress of Belgrade should not fall into Serbian hands, yet afraid to violate the Treaty of Paris by armed intervention, both abandoned him; Bulwer's influence was on the side of peace. Accordingly, on January 3, 1859, Alexander abdicated; but his wily old successor declined to accept the dignity, thus restored to him by his fellow-countrymen, until he had obtained the consent of his suzerain. The Porte did not hesitate to ratify his election, merely passing over in silence the hereditary character which the Assembly had impressed upon it. Then, on February 6, Milosh re-entered in state with his son Michael the country which he had left an exile twenty years before, and began his second reign.

(7) Milosh restored (1859–60). Second Reign of Michael Obrenovich (1860–8)

Milosh was 79 years old when he returned to power, and his character was no longer capable of adapting itself to restraint. He at once resumed the arbitrary methods of his former reign, dissolved the Assembly, and banished his chief opponents, telling the British

representative that in Serbia the Prince's will was law, and that neither the Porte nor the Powers should command there. In foreign affairs, however, he showed much greater prudence, abstaining from exploiting the anti-Austrian and pro-Sardinian sympathies of his people during the war of 1859, and promising to send back all fugitive Bosniaks, if the Porte recognized the princely dignity as hereditary in his family. But before his request had been granted, Milosh died, in 1860.

Michael Obrenovich III, who, after the lapse of eighteen years, a second time ascended the throne, represented a new era in the history of Serbia. The Prince was now a man in the prime of life, who had travelled to European capitals and imbibed ideas very different from those of his rugged sire. His proclamation told his people that in his reign the law would be supreme; and the legislation of his first Assembly, establishing a universal income-tax, a national militia of 50,000 men with a French officer as Minister of War, and a legislature based on the payment of taxes and destined to meet every three years, displayed a desire for the reorganization of the country which aroused the suspicions of the Porte. Availing himself of the European Conference held in 1861 at Constantinople for the formal recognition of the union of Wallachia and Moldavia, he raised the Serbian question, and specially insisted that those Turks who still resided in Serbia outside the fortresses should be subject to the jurisdiction of his courts. Turkey complained to the guaranteeing Powers; but, ere long, an event occurred which demonstrated the practical justice of the Serbian argument.

On June 15, 1862, a scuffle ensued in the town of Belgrade (still technically a 'fortress', and therefore still containing a Moslem population), in the course

of which two Serbs were killed by two Turkish soldiers. The Serbian police arrested the latter, and a general conflict began. Quiet was temporarily restored, owing to the intervention of Longworth, the British consul; but on June 17 the real fortress bombarded Belgrade for five hours. A conference of the Powers was convened at Constantinople. Between the two extremes of the Turkish demand for the restoration of the *status quo* and the Serbian claim for the withdrawal of all Turks from Serbia a compromise was effected. Russell had already pointed out that the logic of facts forbade the acceptance of the Turkish contention, the 29th article of the Treaty of Paris that of the Serbian; Bulwer at the conference carried out his chief's instructions; his Austrian colleague pointed out that the evacuation of the fortress of Belgrade would excite the Austrian Serbs. It was finally agreed that the Turks should abandon the Turkish quarter of Belgrade, retaining the fortress, and evacuate the fortresses of Sokol (near the Bosnian frontier) and Uzhitse—the latter of special strategic importance as commanding the communication with Montenegro across the Sanjak of Novibazar.

These two fortresses were dismantled and are now picturesque ruins; the Turkish quarter of Belgrade—with the exception of the Jewish houses, two mosques, and the crumbling remains of the Constantinople gate—was pulled down; and the Turkish garrisons held nothing but the river fortresses of Shabats on the Save, Belgrade, Semendria, Fetislâm (Kladovo), and the island-castle of Ada Kale on the Danube, and the position of Little Zvornik on the Drina, opposite the larger Bosnian town of the same name. The Moslem residents were to sell their property and leave Serbia as soon as possible.

Prince Michael's next object was to obtain the withdrawal of the Turkish garrisons from the fortresses.

While he devoted his energies at home to the improvement of his army, his wife, Princess Julia, and Philip Kristich were sent to London to influence British opinion. Favourable speeches in Parliament by Cobden and Gregory, a member much interested in the Eastern question, drew attention to Serbian affairs. The decline of Austrian influence owing to the Prussian victory of 1866, and the Cretan insurrection, were favourable to Serbia; and a correspondence took place between Ristich and Koumoundouros on the subject of a Serbo-Greek alliance. The Porte yielded, and on March 3, 1867, expressed its willingness to 'confide the guard of the fortresses' to Michael, completely withdrawing the Moslem garrisons, on condition that the Turkish and Serbian colours should wave together from the ramparts. Michael then visited his suzerain; on April 18 the keys of the fortresses were handed to the Serbian authorities, and on May 6 the last Turkish soldier quitted Serbian soil.

Michael's policy had been very successful; but in both foreign and internal policy he was too moderate for the extremists—too little of a Jingo for the former, too much of an autocrat for the latter. To these enemies was added the exiled dynasty, living and plotting in the adjacent Dual Monarchy, and emboldened by the fact that Michael had no legitimate heir. To obviate this, he had separated from his wife and was meditating a second marriage with his cousin, Catherine Constantinovich. While walking with that lady and her mother in the park of Topchider on June 10, 1868, he was assassinated. The Grand *Skupshtina*, whose 523 members included only one lawyer, proclaimed Milan Obrenovich IV, the next of kin, then not yet fourteen years old and studying in Paris, and elected three Regents—Colonel Blaznavats, Minister of War, Ristich, and Gavrilovich, a senator

and geographer—for three years, with a further extension of their Regency in case of need. A Liberal Cabinet was formed; the Regents declared that they would keep Michael's maxim, 'the law is the highest will in Serbia'; and it was arranged that a *Skupshtina* should meet annually. The assassins were punished, and Alexander Karageorgevich, acquitted by an Austrian court, was sentenced in default by a Serbian tribunal, and he and his family were forbidden to enter Serbian territory. Alexander died an exile in 1885.

(8) Milan Obrenovich IV: Serbia and the Eastern Question (1868–86)

The murdered Prince had been considering the desirability of granting a larger measure of liberty to his people; and the Regency, despite a law forbidding all modification of the existing form of government during a minority, accordingly produced, in 1869, a constitution which remained in force for the next twenty years. The single chamber, or *Skupshtina*—for Ristich confessed that he could find no elements for a second—was to be three-quarters elective, and one-quarter nominated. Not only officials but also lawyers were declared ineligible; but the Prince could nominate any Serb of thirty years of age who paid 30 dinars in direct taxes. This assembly could be convoked where, and dissolved when, the Prince chose; and its members had no right to initiate legislation. As the Government could, and often did, suspend Acts dealing with the liberty of the subject, of speech, and of the press in case of danger, the constitution of 1869 has been described as a 'thinly-veiled autocracy', and the Radicals agitated against it. The Regency also established

a national currency, and held office till Milan came of age in 1872. Possessed of excellent abilities, he was the victim of his parentage and his education, a gambler and a *roué*, whose career must not blind us to the sterling qualities of the peasant people whom he misgoverned and exploited.

The great Balkan crisis, which began with the Herzegovinian insurrection of 1875, naturally affected Serbia. At first, indeed, Milan was not anxious for war with Turkey, and, when a deputation from his Parliament presented him with an address expressing the impossibility of Serbian indifference to the fate of the Bosniaks and Herzegovinians, had replied by dismissing Ristich, his bellicose Premier, the leading advocate of the 'great Serbian' idea. But the Prince of Serbia soon found that he had to reckon with two outside competitors for his shaky throne as well as with the war-party in his own country—Nicholas of Montenegro and Peter Karageorgevich, son of the exiled Prince, and a man of far more military capacity than himself, who placed at the disposal of the Bosnian insurgents his experience gained during the Franco-German War, and distributed medals bearing his image and a telling allusion to the battle of Kosovo. Embarrassed by the comparisons which were drawn between his attitude and that of his two rivals, Milan recalled Ristich to power in the spring of 1876, and accepted the services of Chernaieff, a Russian general, who appeared in Serbia nominally as correspondent of a Pan-Slavist journal. The advice of the Tsar and the British Government, that the Turks should placate Montenegro and Serbia by ceding a port and a little territory to the former and Little Zvornik to the latter, was not adopted in time to prevent war. Ristich demanded that the administration of Bosnia, which was still in revolt, should be entrusted to Milan in

return for a fixed payment; and on June 30 the Prince of Serbia issued a manifesto to his people, in which, after allusions to Dushan and Milosh, he announced that his army was 'about to enter the disturbed provinces in self-defence'. On July 1 Serbia declared war. Next day Montenegro followed.

The Serbs were not yet the well-organized army of 1912, and in 1876, after two generations of peace, were no match for their old masters. Chernaieff, indeed, crossed the Turkish frontier to the south, and carried one Turkish camp by a sudden attack. But, while the Ottoman general checked the Serbian advance to the east at Zayechar and laid the important strategic post of Knyazhevats in ashes, another descended the valley of the Morava, and completely defeated the retreating army of the south at Aleksinats. Milan, from his head-quarters at Parachin, had already invited the Powers to intervene. An armistice was granted, but the negotiations for a settlement were hindered by his ill-timed proclamation as King at Deligrad on September 16, at Chernaieff's suggestion, and the fighting was resumed. The Serbs made a desperate stand at Dyunis, but in vain; Aleksinats was lost; all southern Serbia was in the power of the Turks, and the road was open to Belgrade. Then the Tsar intervened to save Serbia from annihilation. General Ignatieff handed a Russian ultimatum to the Porte, demanding the conclusion of an armistice within 48 hours with both Serbia and Montenegro. The Turkish Government yielded; and on November 1 an armistice of two months was signed, which was subsequently extended to March 1, 1877, when a definite peace was concluded between Milan and the Sultan. Serbia neither lost nor gained by the war of 1876; her territory was left undiminished; her finances were unencumbered by a war indemnity.

After the fall of Plevna in December 1877, Serbia again declared war. More fortunate than in their previous campaign, the Serbs defeated the Turks at Pirot, whilst Milan, amidst general enthusiasm, entered the ancient Serbian town of Nish. A third victory by General Belimarkovich at Vranye brought the Serbian arms to the verge of the historic plain of Kosovo, and their advance into Old Serbia was only cut short by the armistice of January 31, 1878.

The abortive Treaty of San Stefano (March 3, 1878) assigned to Serbia, as the reward of her two campaigns, a considerable slice of territory, which included Nish and Little Zvornik, while her south-western frontier was drawn in so favourable a manner as almost to touch the extended eastern boundary of Montenegro. The two Serb States would thus have practically joined one another, and an all-Serbian railway might have united Belgrade with the Adriatic, and thereby provided the Switzerland of the Balkans with an outlet on the sea. To these territorial advantages were added the recognition of Serbian independence and the cessation of the tribute, which since 1867 had been the last vestige of Turkish suzerainty. But the Bulgarians would have been the greatest gainers by the Treaty of San Stefano, and the Serbs protested against the inclusion of Serbian regions in the proposed 'big Bulgaria'.

The Berlin Treaty, by allowing Bosnia and Herzegovina to be occupied by Austria-Hungary made the Dual Monarchy a Balkan State, and dealt a severe blow to the aspirations of Serb patriots. Article 25 further gave to the Dual Monarchy 'the right of keeping garrisons and having military and commercial roads' in the Sanjak of Novibazar, which remained as a Turkish wedge between the two Serbian States, a funnel through which Austrian influences and

perhaps Austrian armies (unless the Morava route were preferred) could penetrate into North Albania and Macedonia. A further convention, dated April 21, 1879, between Austria-Hungary and Turkey, while confirming this treaty right, stated that Austrian troops would only be placed at the three points of Priboy, Priyepolye, and Biyelopolye, which last place was almost immediately exchanged for Plevlye. In accordance with Austrian wishes, the territorial additions made to modern Serbia at Berlin were not in Old Serbia, the heart of the mediaeval Serbian kingdom, which still remained Turkish, but at Nish and Vranye, and in the Bulgarian-speaking district of Pirot, thus increasing the principality by one-fourth. Serbia also obtained the formal recognition of her independence, but, like the other two Slav States, she was to pay her share of the Ottoman debt for these new possessions. In 1881, M. Miyatovich, then Serbian Minister for Foreign Affairs, signed a secret convention with Austria, promising to discourage Serbian agitation in Bosnia, on condition that Austria promised to support Serbian pretensions to territory in Old Serbia, or rather 'in the direction of the Vardar valley'. This convention expired in 1889.

On March 6, 1882, Prince Milan, to show the superiority of his position, had been proclaimed King, and Serbia raised to the dignity of a kingdom. But the glamour of this title did not make King Milan popular; his life was attempted in the Belgrade Cathedral, and his peasant subjects rose in rebellion against the arbitrary measures of his 'iron Minister', Kristich, while the Karageorgevich pretender was more threatening because he had married a daughter of Prince Nicholas of Montenegro. Dynastic reasons therefore suggested a spirited foreign policy as the best means of raising the prestige and increasing the popularity of the

Obrenovich family. The aggrandizement of Bulgaria by the union with Eastern Roumelia in 1885 caused a Serbian demand for territorial compensation. Nor were there lacking other motives for a conflict. The Bulgarians coveted Pirot, the Serbs desired Vidin; and the River Timok, by changing its course, had created a delicate question of frontier between the mutually jealous neighbours. A tariff war yet further embittered their relations, so that the news of Bulgaria's aggrandisement found both King and people predisposed for war.

Financially in a bad position—for she had spent much on her railways—Serbia had little to lose; as Garashanin expressed it in a pithy Serbian proverb, 'a naked man will jump far'. All parties were unanimous for war, and the clergy inflamed the peasants. The result was a complete surprise. When, on November 14, Serbia began hostilities, the general belief was that the 'King of Serbia and Macedonia', as the Belgrade populace styled Milan, would have a triumphal march to Sofia. But the three days' battle of Slivnitsa was a Serbian defeat; Milan asked in vain for an armistice; and the Bulgarians were about to march on Belgrade when Austria intervened, and told Prince Alexander of Bulgaria that, if he advanced farther, he would find an Austrian army before him. On November 28 an armistice was signed in Pirot, and on March 3, 1886, the second Treaty of Bucarest restored the *status quo*. Serbia lost neither territory nor money, but she lost prestige; and the memory of Slivnitsa misled politicians in 1912.

(9) Milan and Alexander: Domestic Politics (1886–1903)

For some years Serbian history mainly consisted of the domestic quarrels of the royal family. International politics widened the breach between the royal couple, for the King was an Austrophil, while the Queen, as befitted the daughter of a colonel in the Russian army, was an adherent of the Tsar. Public life reflected these tendencies, for the Radicals, or rural party, were Russophil; and of the urban parties, the Progressives and the Liberals, the former were pro-Austrian. At last Milan obtained a divorce from his wife, and followed this domestic victory by summoning a commission on which all the three political parties were represented, and in the labours of which he himself took part with marked ability, for drawing up a constitution far more Liberal than that of 1869. Its most important article was that which made all classes of the community, and not peasants alone, eligible as deputies; but one-fourth of the National Assembly was still to be nominated by the King. Freedom of the press and a lower suffrage were granted; and Milan informed the deputies that they must accept the Constitution as a whole without amendment—a threat which induced them to pass it *en bloc* on January 2, 1889.

Scarcely, however, had this new charter of liberties come into force, when Milan abdicated in favour of his son, Alexander, on March 6, 1889. As the young King was only thirteen years of age, three Regents, all Liberals, were appointed to govern the country, the chief of them being Ristich, who twenty-one years before had been one of Milan's own guardians; the others were Generals Protich and Belimarkovich. The bickerings of the divorced couple kept Serbia, how-

ever, in a constant ferment. At last both the ex-King and Queen not only consented to live abroad for their country's good, but made up their private differences in order to save the throne from the Karageorgevich pretender. Meanwhile, Alexander, who had been hitherto apparently immersed in the study of constitutional history, suddenly amazed his Regents by ordering their arrest at his dinner-table on April 13, 1893, proclaiming himself of age, and dissolving the National Assembly. The success of this *coup d'état* directed against the Regents encouraged him to make another against the Radicals. Accordingly on May 21 of the following year he abolished the constitution of 1889 and restored that of 1869. This drastic act was followed, five years later, by a wholesale proscription of the Radicals.

In 1900 Alexander made the mistake of marrying Madame Draga Mashin, a widow of dubious reputation, whose schemes to secure the succession for one of her brothers—for the royal couple had no heir—aroused jealousies in Belgrade. In vain the King amnestied the Radicals, and in 1901 issued a new constitution, which for the first time gave Serbia a second chamber. A further *coup d'état*, in 1903, by which he suspended this constitution, preceded the palace revolution of the night of June 10, 1903, in which the King, the Queen, and her two brothers were murdered, together with the Premier and the Minister of War. The National Assembly was summoned to choose a new King, and on June 15 unanimously elected Prince Peter Karageorgevich, son of the Prince Alexander who had been deposed in 1859.

Before he arrived from his Swiss exile, the constitution of 1889, with some alterations, was restored. This revised constitution of June 18, 1903, provided for a single chamber, elected by citizens who paid 15 *dinars*

a year in direct taxes, and convened annually in the capital on October 10. Election was to take place by departmental *scrutin de liste*, thus embodying the principle of proportional representation; and it was provided that in each department there must be two candidates furnished with a university degree or the diploma of a high school. A Grand *Skupshtina* of twice the usual number of deputies was to be summoned to decide upon a regency, the succession to the throne, a modification of the constitution, or any cession or exchange of territory. The new sovereign took the oath to this constitution, and, unlike Milan and Alexander, has kept his promise to be 'a true constitutional king'.

(10) King Peter (1903–9): the Bosnian Crisis

It was not till 1906, when the chief regicides were placed on the retired list, that Great Britain resumed official relations with Serbia; but the Prince of Bulgaria exchanged visits with King Peter almost within a year of his accession; and this friendly meeting was the forerunner of a Serbo-Bulgarian convention in 1906, which, as the first step to a customs union of the two Slav States, caused a tariff war with Austria-Hungary and an embargo upon the export of Serbian swine into the Dual Monarchy. This conflict was not an unmixed evil, for it led to the discovery of other outlets for Serbian live-stock and tended towards a better understanding with Great Britain, of which the effect was seen in the Eastern crisis of 1908. When, too, the Austrian Foreign Minister, Baron Aehrenthal, earlier in that year announced that leave had been asked to survey the route for a railway across the Sanjak of Novibazar, uniting the Bosnian terminus at Uvats with the

Turkish station of Mitrovitsa, a Serbian counter-proposal for a line from the Danube to the Adriatic at San Giovanni di Medua obtained Italian and Russian support. Thus, under the Karageorgevich restoration, Serbia ceased to pursue the Austrophil policy of Milan; the Progressive party almost disappeared; the Liberals were merged in the new Nationalist group; and the 'Old' Radicals, under M. Pashich, the veteran democrat of the eighties, became, with the 'Young' Radicals, the most important factors in public life.

The formal annexation of the 'unredeemed' Serb lands of Bosnia and Herzegovina by Austria-Hungary on October 7, 1908, naturally provoked the fiercest resentment in the two Serb States. At one moment Serbia, where the Crown Prince George led the anti-Austrian party, seemed to be on the brink of war with Austria-Hungary, while Milovanovich, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, made a political tour abroad, demanding a strip of Bosnia which would unite Serbia with Montenegro. Serbia and Montenegro, however, despite the conclusion of a military convention, were too weak to stand alone against their powerful neighbour, especially as the Serbian capital was within range of her guns. The Powers were unable to concert action. Thus force triumphed.

On February 26, 1909, an Austro-Turkish agreement was signed, by which Austria-Hungary renounced all her rights in the Sanjak of Novibazar, whence she had withdrawn her troops on October 28, while Turkey formally recognized the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina. For Serbia and Montenegro, however, the recognition of the incorporation of so large a Serb population within the Dual Monarchy meant the destruction of their own hopes for the future. At this national crisis a Coalition Cabinet, in which three ex-Premiers sat, was formed at Belgrade. Finding no

prospect of material support from the Powers, Serbia sent a note on March 9 to the signatories of the Berlin Treaty, stating that she demanded no compensation for the annexation, which was a matter for them, and on March 31 recognized that her rights had not been affected.[1] A peaceful solution was facilitated by the action of the bellicose Crown Prince, who on March 25 resigned his right of succession in favour of his brother Alexander. Austria declared that she had no intention of infringing the independence of Serbia; and another Serbian note to Vienna promised that the army should be replaced on a peace footing. But this humiliation was not lost upon Serbia. She at once began to reorganize her army; and her triumphs in 1912–13 may be traced to the bitter lesson inflicted upon her in 1909.

(11) Balkan Wars of 1912–13

In September 1911, M. Rizoff, then Bulgarian Minister to the Quirinal, urged his Government to avail itself of the Libyan war to attack Turkey, before she could reorganize her army and while the Italian fleet could prevent the transport of Turkish troops. He was instructed to sound the Serbian Premier, Milovanovich; and at a secret conference of Bulgarian diplomatists in Vienna, where the King of Montenegro was on a visit to the Emperor, further steps were taken, which culminated in the Serbo-Bulgarian treaty of alliance on March 13, 1912. The territory eventually to be conquered from Turkey was to be divided as follows. To Serbia was assigned 'all the territory north of the Shar range', to Bulgaria 'all the region east of the Rhodope range and the Struma river'. Bulgaria desired that 'the intermediate territory' should form an 'autonomous Macedonia'; but, in

[1] *Le Livre Bleu Serbe*, No. 32.

case this should prove to be impracticable, a line was drawn from the point where the Serbian, Bulgarian, and Turkish frontiers met north of Egri Palanka to the north-eastern shore of Lake Okhrida, leaving Kratovo, Veles (Köprülü), Monastir, and Okhrida to Bulgaria, and the districts of Kumanovo, Skoplye, Kirchevo, Dibra, and Struga on the Serbian side. Serbia undertook to make no claims south of this line; and Bulgaria agreed to accept it as a frontier, should the Tsar of Russia, as arbitrator, pronounce in its favour. This treaty was supplemented by a military convention on May 12, providing that, in the event of the action contemplated in the treaty of alliance, Bulgaria was to furnish a force of not less than 200,000 combatants and Serbia one of at least 150,000; if Rumania or Turkey attacked Bulgaria, Serbia was to supply at least 100,000 combatants, while if Austria attacked Serbia, Bulgaria was at once to declare war against Austria and to furnish 200,000 men.[1] The Greco-Bulgarian treaty (described elsewhere[2]) followed on May 29; and in September 1912 a Serbo-Montenegrin treaty was signed, providing 'for separate military action', so that 'no Turkish town or village was to be occupied jointly by Serbian and Montenegrin troops'.[3]

Even without the seizure by the Turks of Serbian munitions of war in transit, the Balkan War of 1912 was inevitable; but most diplomatists and military critics were dumbfounded at the sudden and overwhelming triumph of Turkey's 'little neighbours'. On October 8 Montenegro declared war on Turkey. The Balkan ultimatum of October 13 was followed by the Turkish declaration of war on Serbia and Bulgaria

[1] See full text of this Convention, as well as of the Treaties between Bulgaria, Serbia, and Greece, in Appendix to *Eastern Question*, No. 15 of this series.

[2] See *Bulgaria*, No. 22 of this series, p. 45.

[3] The *Times*, June 4, 5, 6, 11, 13, 16 (1913).

on October 17 and by the Greek declaration of war on Turkey a day later. The Serbs, whose advance into Old Serbia was at first fiercely contested by the Albanian colonies planted there by the Turks after the Berlin Treaty, utterly routed the Turkish army at Kumanovo; and the hope of centuries was realized when on October 26 the Serbian Crown Prince (at the request of the Austrian Consul!) entered Skoplye, the old capital of Dushan's Empire. Prishtina and Prizren, earlier Serbian capitals, likewise fell once more under Serbian sway, and the capture of Monastir completed the Serbian triumph in Macedonia. Thus Kosovo was avenged, and Slivnitsa was obliterated.

These Serbian victories were not only Turkish but Austrian defeats, for a Great Serbia was an obstacle to the *Drang nach Osten*. Accordingly, Austria, backed up by official Italy, opposed the Serbian claim to a port on the Adriatic.[1] Serbia participated in the armistice of Chatalja and the subsequent Balkan Conference in London, resuming the war by the side of her allies, and loyally sending a large contingent (although she had finished her share in the contest, so far as her own interests were affected) to aid the Bulgarians in the siege of Adrianople. The Treaty of London, which was signed on May 30, ceded to the Allies by Article II 'all the territories of the Turkish empire on the European continent to the west of a line drawn from Enos, on the Aegean Sea, to Midia, on the Black Sea, with the exception of Albania'. The 'delimitation of the frontiers of Albania and all other questions concerning Albania' were confided by Article III to the Great Powers.

The division of the Turkish spoils at once caused difficulties between the Allies. The Bulgarians, basing

[1] San Giuliano's dispatch of Nov. 5, 1912, in the Austrian Red Book, *Diplomatische Aktenstücke* (Wien, 1914), pp. 43, 48, 51.

their case on the exact letter of the treaty of alliance, demanded Monastir and Okhrida, which the Serbian troops had occupied. The Serbs, relying on the spirit of the treaty, contended that, whereas Bulgaria had not carried out the military convention of May 12, 1912, they had sent 50,000 men with their valuable artillery to aid the Bulgarians in the siege of Adrianople —an act of comradeship not demanded by the treaty. They further pointed out that the creation of an Albanian State had been effected largely at their expense, and that the opposition of Austria-Hungary and Italy to their retention of Durazzo had cut them off from that outlet to the sea which was the chief object for which they had gone to war. Consequently it had become vital for them to reach the Greek frontier, from which a Bulgarian Monastir would separate them. For these reasons they demanded a revision of the treaty. A month was spent in diplomatic negotiations and recriminations. The two Premiers met at Tsaribrod; the Tsar bade the two sovereigns appeal to his arbitration, as stipulated in the treaty of alliance. Both accepted his invitation, but only on conditions, Bulgaria still insisting on the letter of the treaty, while she refused to demobilize unless the disputed territories were occupied jointly by the two armies—a proposition rejected by the Serbs, who were in possession. The accession of Dr. Daneff to power in Bulgaria in place of the pacific M. Geshoff increased the friction, while the Bulgarian military party, largely recruited from Macedonia, and flushed by its recent successes, intimidated the cautious Ferdinand.

On June 1 a treaty of alliance and a military convention between Greece and Serbia were signed at Salonika.[1] The two Allies guaranteed one another's

[1] First published in the Greek White Book, *Διπλωματικὰ Ἔγγραφα*, 1913–17, pp. 6–21.

territories, promised mutual aid in case of unprovoked attack, agreed to make no separate understanding with Bulgaria, pledged themselves to secure a common Greco-Serbian frontier (which was then and there defined), and established Serbia's right to use Salonika as a free port for 50 years. On June 30 this treaty was put to the test by a Bulgarian attack upon the Serbs at Gevgeli, the point of contact between the Serbian and Greek forces, and upon the Greeks at Nigrita, with the object of separating the two Allies. There is documentary proof that these attacks were premeditated; and they were momentarily successful. But the results of the Second Balkan War were a revelation to the critics. The Greek successes are narrated elsewhere; the Serbian victory culminated in the three days' battle on the River Bregalnitsa and on the mediaeval battle-field of Ovchepolye, the plateau dominating the approach to Skoplye. Montenegro, although not directly interested in Macedonia, from motives of solidarity actively assisted the Serbians, who effected a junction with the Greeks at Strumitsa (a Slavonic town promptly ceded by the Greeks to their ally), repulsed a Bulgarian invasion of Serbia, entered Bulgaria, occupied Byelogradchik, and threatened Vidin. Meanwhile the Rumanians, in pursuance of their own interests, had overrun a great part of Bulgaria, though without actually coming into collision with Bulgarian troops. Such was the military situation when the peace conference met at Bucarest, exactly one month after the war had begun. The third Treaty of Bucarest, signed on August 10, made the new Serbo-Bulgarian frontier start from Pataritsa, follow the watershed of the Vardar and the Struma, and join the new Greco-Bulgarian boundary on the Belashitsa mountains. A protocol provided for the settlement of outstanding questions relating to the

old Serbo-Bulgarian frontier by the two parties concerned. All the Powers, at least professedly, acquiesced in the Balkan settlement made at Bucarest.

(12) Austrian Designs against Serbia (1913–14)

It had been, however, obvious from the time of the Serbian victories in the First Balkan War that Austria-Hungary was only seeking a favourable moment to humble the little State which barred her plans for expansion in the Balkans. The Serbian successes had likewise profoundly stirred the large South Slavonic population in both halves of the Dual Monarchy; and not only Austrian Serbs, but Catholic Croats (united with the Serbs, despite the difference of religion and alphabet, since the pacts of Fiume and Zara in 1905), now looked to Belgrade. Napoleon's short-lived Illyrian State (which had comprised Croats, Serbs, and Slovenes) and the Illyrian movement of Gaj in the thirties had already foreshadowed the idea of an independent Jugoslavia. This idea had now taken the place of Trialism within the Austrian Empire, nor had the Agram High Treason trial of 1909 and the Friedjung forgeries been able to suppress it.

So early as October 30, 1912, Count Berchtold had expressed himself as absolutely opposed to any Serbian outlet on the Adriatic, which M. Pashich, on the other hand, declared to be a 'question of life or death' for Serbia. Sir E. Grey had recognized the justice of the Serbian claim to a commercial outlet on that sea; but on December 17 Serbia had been forced to abandon her demand for direct access, and on January 8, 1913, had promised to 'withdraw from its *Serbian* shores'.

But this did not satisfy Austria. We now know from Signor Giolitti's revelations in the Italian Chamber

on December 5, 1914, that on August 9, 1913 (the day before the signature of the Treaty of Bucarest), he (then Premier) received from his Foreign Minister, San Giuliano, a telegram informing him that 'Austria has communicated to us and to Germany her intention of taking action against Serbia and defines such action as defensive, hoping to bring into operation the *casus foederis* of the Triple Alliance.' San Giuliano considered this 'inapplicable', and his chief took the same view, on the ground that 'there is no question of defence, inasmuch as no one is thinking of attacking Austria'.[1]

Further evidence of Austria's designs was furnished a few days later by the statement of M. Take Jonescu, that in May 1913 Count Berchtold had ordered his minister at Bucarest to say that Austria would defend Bulgaria sword in hand. Consequently the assassination on June 28, 1914 (the anniversary of the battle of Kosovo), at Sarajevo, of the Archduke Franz Ferdinand and his wife by a student named Princip furnished an excellent excuse for an attack at a moment when Serbia was exhausted after two wars. That the Austrian Note to Serbia was meant to be refused, and so worded as to render war inevitable, we know from the statement made to Senator Garroni, Italian Ambassador at Constantinople, by his German colleague on July 15, 1914, eight days before the communication of the Note to the Serbian Government.[2] Thus, the Sarajevo murders were the occasion, but not the cause, of the European conflict.

[1] *Collected Diplomatic Documents relating to the outbreak of the European War*, pp. 401–2.

[2] Sig. Barzilai's speech at Naples, Sept. 26, 1915. Cf. the memorandum of Herr Muehlon.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) Religious

Article XXXV of the Treaty of Berlin secured complete religious liberty for all Serbian subjects and foreigners resident in Serbia, and enacted that religion should not be alleged as a ground for exclusion from 'civil and political rights, admission to public employments, functions, and honours, or the exercise of the various professions and industries'. This is confirmed by Article XVIII of the present constitution. But Article XIX prohibits any act of proselytism directed against the established religion of the State.

Orthodox Church

The overwhelming majority of the Serbians of Serbia belong to the Orthodox Church, which is the established State Church. The Serbian Church is autocephalous (Article 3 of the present constitution), and is absolutely independent of all foreign establishments. It is governed by a synod of five bishops. The Archbishop of Belgrade is Metropolitan of Serbia. The Orthodox, like the other Churches of Serbia, is under the surveillance of the Minister of Education (Article 189 of the present constitution), who also has jurisdiction over all schools, public and private. The Orthodox Church in Serbia is more of a political than a religious force, as is usual in the Balkan States, where as a rule the Church is primarily a nationalizing and patriotic agent. The Serbs are not ardently religious, but they recognize the value for their racial aspirations of their national Church with its splendid historic traditions dating from St. Sava in the early part of the thirteenth

century. There was talk in recent times of reviving the mediaeval Patriarchate of Serbia, and of offering the post to M. Miyatovich, former Serbian Minister in London, who, however, declined.

In the portion of Macedonia annexed by Serbia in 1913, there were about 400,000 to 500,000 'Bulgarians', who acknowledged the Bulgarian Exarch. It is uncertain what change in these numbers has taken place since. There were also a certain number of Greeks, who acknowledge the Greek Patriarch.

Roman Catholics

In the 'old' provinces (i. e. Serbia before the Treaty of Bucarest in 1913) there were 8,435 Roman Catholics, of whom 5,443 were in the city of Belgrade, 412 in the Timok province, 384 in the district of Belgrade, 371 in the province of Nish, and 350 in that of the Morava.

In the 'new' provinces (i. e. the territory acquired by the two Balkan Wars of 1912–13) there were, a little before the outbreak of the European War, 7,127 Roman Catholics, viz. in Yanyevo 2,218, in Prizren 1,988, in Letnitsa 1,586, in Skoplye 618, in Stubla 324, in Monastir (Bitolye) about 200, in Ferisovity 130, and in Mitrovitsa 63. A number of these are Albanians by race. Thus the total of the Roman Catholics in Serbia is 15,562. To these may be added about 600 Greek Uniates around Doiran and Gevgeli.

The relations between Serbia and the Holy See are regulated by the concordat of June 24, 1914, ratified March 20, 1915[1]; this constituted a diplomatic victory for Serbia over Austria-Hungary, which opposed the concordat. It creates an ecclesiastical province, composed of the archdiocese of Belgrade for the 'old' provinces, and of the diocese of Skoplye for the 'new'. The Roman Catholic Archbishop of Belgrade and the

[1] See Appendix I, p. 116.

Roman Catholic Bishop of Skoplye depend in ecclesiastical affairs directly and exclusively on the Holy See, which, before appointing them, must notify their names to the Serbian Government, to know whether the latter have any political or other non-religious reasons against the appointments. The Serbian Government pays them an annual stipend of 16,000 *dinars* and 10,000 *dinars* respectively, plus a pension. Before taking office they must take an oath of fidelity to the King.

Religious education for Roman Catholics is to be provided in State schools by catechists appointed by the bishop and by the Minister of Education. The catechists are to be paid by the State, and priests may be chosen for these posts. A seminary for training young Serbs for the Roman Catholic priesthood is to be created in or near the capital, and subsidized by the State. The Roman Catholic Church may acquire real and personal property; and the Church buildings, seminaries, bishops' palaces, and parsonages are to be exempt from taxes. An appendix to the concordat permits the Roman Catholics, in such parishes as may be expressly designated, on linguistic grounds, by the Pope, to use the old Slavonic language in the liturgy and the Glagolitic script (the earliest form of Slavonic alphabet, of which the Cyrillic is a modification). In these parishes the prayers, the Epistle, and the Gospel may be read in Slavonic, and may be printed in the characters now in use in Serbia.

It will be noticed that this concordat is extremely favourable to the Holy See. It was followed by the appointment of the first Serbian representative to the Vatican.

Jews

Serbia contains rather more than 10,000 Jews, who are found exclusively in the towns. The largest Jewish

colony is at Monastir; then come in numerical order Belgrade, Skoplye, Shabats, and Nish, which has at most 150 Jews.

Moslems

The Moslems, mostly of Albanian nationality, are chiefly found in the new territories added to Serbia in 1913. Their numbers in these territories are calculated at about 200,000,[1] most of whom, however, speak Serb. They are specially numerous in the departments of Prizren, Mitrovitsa, and Debar (Dibra), but smaller Moslem centres exist at Skoplye, and in the departments of Okhrida and Prishtina.

In the old territories which formed the kingdom prior to 1913, there are at most 3,000 Moslems, concentrated in the districts of Vranye, Toplitsa, and Nish.

Other Smaller Sects

Serbia also contains a few Protestants, mostly foreigners, who numbered 799 in the old territories in 1910, besides a few persons professing other creeds than those specially mentioned.

(2) Political

The Constitution

The existing constitution of 1903 consists of 202 articles, of which only 95 were applied to the new territories in 1913. The government is declared to be a constitutional monarchy, and in fact it has really been such under the sway of King Peter. The constitution provides that the whole royal family must belong to the established Orthodox Church, and that no member of the King's family may marry without his consent. In case of his absence from Serbian territory,

[1] Another estimate says 400,000; see p. 8.

he is replaced by the heir to the throne, or, if the latter be a minor, by the Council of Ministers. The succession is in the male line ; and, should the successor be a minor at the King's death, a regency of three persons (as in 1868 and 1889) will exercise the royal power. Should the King become unable to exercise that power during his lifetime, the heir, if of age, will reign in his name. Should the King die without heirs, the Council of Ministers must within a month convoke a Grand *Skupshtina* to elect a king.

Only Serbs by birth (and the word 'Serbs' is defined as including all Serbian citizens without distinction of race or religion) and naturalized Serbs, who have resided five years in Serbia, can become Ministers.

There is a Council of State (*Drzhavni Savet*) composed of sixteen members, chosen as follows: the King submits sixteen names to the *Skupshtina*, which chooses eight; and the *Skupshtina* in turn submits sixteen names to the King, who chooses eight. The chief functions of this Council are to draw up laws at the Government's request, to give advice on questions submitted to it by the Government, and to examine Bills introduced by the Government or by private members in the *Skupshtina*. This advice is not binding on either the Government or the *Skupshtina*, but must be communicated to the latter before the debate begins; and the Council may delegate one or two of its members to defend its advice before the *Skupshtina*. It also acts as supreme court of appeal in election petitions. The quorum in the *Skupshtina* is one-half of the members plus 1, as formerly in Greece. The natural result of requiring so large a quorum (84) is, as it was in Greece, that the Opposition can easily practise obstruction by simply staying away. A case recently occurred at Corfu.

The foregoing provisions apply to the whole kingdom.

The following apply only to the old kingdom of Serbia, as it was prior to 1913:

Every male of 21 years of age, paying 15 *dinars* of direct taxes annually, is an elector; all Serbs by birth or permanently settled in Serbia, being 30 years of age at least, and paying at least 30 *dinars* of direct taxes, are eligible for membership of the *Skupshtina*.

The new provinces have so far had no parliamentary representation.

Government employees are ineligible, excepting:

1. Cabinet Ministers in, or out of, office.
2. Members of the State Council.
3. Ministers extraordinary and plenipotentiaries accredited to foreign courts, and diplomatic agents.
4. Judges.
5. Professors of universities and middle schools.
6. Engineers and doctors in the State service.
7. Pensioners and officials *en disponibilité*.

The elections are by departmental *scrutin de liste*, there being one deputy for every 4,500 taxpayers. Each list of candidates must contain two persons who have completed their course in either a university or a higher technical school. Each deputy receives travelling expenses and 15 *dinars* daily.

Elections take place every fourth year on September 21 (N.S.); and the *Skupshtina* meets annually on October 14 (N.S.). It consists of 166 members. At the last elections, those of 1912, just before the First Balkan War, these were divided as follows:

'Old' Radicals	88
'Young' Radicals	47
Nationalists	22
Progressives	7
Socialists	2

Political Parties

The 'Old' Radicals, whose chief is M. Pashich (Premier continuously since 1912), comprise also the following leading men: MM. Stoyan Protich and Andra Nikolich (late Speaker). The 'Young' Radical party arose in 1901 from a split in the Radical organization, because the 'Young' Radicals disapproved the action of M. Pashich in accepting King Alexander's constitution of that year, which for the first time gave Serbia a second Chamber. The 'Young' Radicals also demanded universal suffrage, instead of the taxation qualification. Their leader is M. Milorad Draskovich; and his chief lieutenants are MM. Yasha Prodanovich, Lyubomir Stoyanovich, Lyubomir Davidovich, and Milan Markovich. The Nationalists represent the old Liberal party of the late M. Yovan Ristich, the Regent and Premier of the two last Obrenovich sovereigns. They only became a separate party early in the present reign, when M. Ribarats organized them against the regicides, and they were soon joined by the remaining Liberals. Their leader is M. Voislav Velkovich, whose chief lieutenant is M. Radoslav Agatonovich. Their programme is Conservative at home and in foreign affairs a great Serbia. The Austrophil Progressives are led by MM. Pavle and Voislav Marinkovich, two brothers. Socialism, as is natural, is only a very recent growth in a so purely agricultural and peasant State as Serbia. Its two representatives, MM. Dragisha Lapchevich and Yovan Kazlerovich, both represent urban constituencies—Belgrade and Kraguyevats.

(3) Educational

Serbia has been building up her national education, and latterly the progress has been rapid. The number

of children receiving elementary education was trebled between the years 1870 and 1898; and a series of secondary schools has been erected on this basis, culminating in the national University of Belgrade. There were in the kingdom of Serbia, in 1906, 1,172 primary schools, and 20 gymnasia and Real-schulen. The university had 80 professors and 1,000 students. Belgrade University is becoming an intellectual focus for the whole South Slavonic race; but at the same time there has been a notable increase in the number of Serbs who seek a university education in the greater centres of culture abroad at Agram (Zagreb, the capital of Croatia-Slavonia), Prague, and Vienna, and the universities of Germany and France.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

Austria succeeded in 1913 in preventing Serbia from obtaining an outlet to the sea, because she feared that the economic development of the latter would only accentuate the desire for union which already existed between the Jugo-Slavs under Austrian domination and Serbia. It was then of paramount importance that Serbia should have such an outlet, because at that time the prospect of an early liberation of the Jugo-Slavs seemed very remote; and, knowing this, she had to accept a temporary solution, which would place her in a favourable position to realize her national aims in the future. These aims are now fully put forward by the whole Jugo-Slav race.[1]

[1] For the Conference of Corfu, and other information as to these aims, see *The Jugo-Slav Movement*, No. 14 of this series.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(a) *Roads and Tracks*

In the Middle Ages, during Serbia's prosperity, the principal directions of movement in that country were towards Ragusa, Salonika, and Constantinople. The Turkish invaders destroyed these routes, such as they were, and created new highways adapted to their military requirements. After the liberation of the country, some attempt had to be made to remedy the deplorable condition of neglect in which it had been left by the Turks. The first road law, promulgated in 1864, introduced a road system which included the centres of government and the chief trading towns, and was largely based on the principal movements of trade, but which was also intended to facilitate communications between the interior and the frontiers for the purpose of defence. The law, framed on the French model, made the use of roads free to all, but provided for the levy of tolls at ferries and at the principal bridges. In 1896 the tolls were abolished.

Roads in Serbia are divided into three categories: State, departmental, and district. The departmental roads form the largest class, the State roads the smallest. The total length of roads, including the more important tracks, amounted in 1908 to 10,806 km., of which 3,160 km. represented first-class roads. The principal road centres are: in the north, Shabats, Valyevo, Belgrade, Kraguyevats, Pozharevats, and

Negotin; in the centre, Uzhitse, Chachak, Kralyevo, Krushevats, Nish, Zayechar, Knyazhevats, and Pirot; in the south, Prizren, Prishtina, and Leskovats; and in Serbian Macedonia, Skoplye (Üsküb), Veles (Köprülü), Shtip (Ishtib), Kirchevo, Prilip, and Monastir.

The planning of the roads is subject to the approval of the Minister of Public Works, who also has charge of their construction and upkeep.

Mountain tracks abound everywhere, but for the most part they are dusty in summer and muddy in winter, and pack animals are the only form of transport that can be used on them. Many second-class roads have been converted into first-class owing to military needs.

(*b*) *Rivers*

Except for the Save, the Danube, and the Morava, Serbia possesses no navigable rivers.

The Danube, from Belgrade to the Iron Gates, is navigable for vessels drawing 5½ ft. of water, but shallows abound and navigation is difficult. The channel at the Iron Gates has been widened and deepened, but neither sea-going nor sailing vessels ascend above this point, the former on account of the shallows, the latter because of the current. From the Iron Gates to the sea the Danube is navigable for vessels drawing up to 10 ft.

The Save is navigable for steamers as far as Sisek (in Croatia-Slavonia), a distance of 366 miles, but owing to sandbanks and a shifting channel is of no great commercial value.

The Drina could be made navigable as far as Zvornik (40 miles), but not without considerable expense. At present only rafts make use of it.

The Morava is the chief Serbian river, and is navigated from its junction with the Danube up to Nish, although above Stalach it is little better than a moun-

tain torrent. When the river is in flood, steamers can ascend from the Danube for about 8 miles; otherwise it is only navigable by barges. Below Tyupriya, 100 miles from the Danube, the commercial value of the river might be much increased by canalization.

The other principal rivers in Serbia are of no use as means of communication, except for floating timber.

The only river of Serbian Macedonia is the Vardar, with its tributaries the Lepenats, Bregalnitsa, and Tsrna. The main stream, though wide, is much obstructed by rapids, and none of the tributaries are navigable, though all are important as offering lines of communication through the mountains.

The Royal Serbian Shipping Company was established in 1890, with a purely Serbian capital of 3,000,000 francs. In October 1893 the company's ships made their first journey on the Danube, from Raduyevats to Regensburg, and on the Save, from Belgrade to Shabats. At the outbreak of the European War the company possessed 13 steamships, 60 barges, and 20 pontoons.

(c) *Railways*

In 1908 there were within the then boundaries of Serbia about 700 km. of railway line; in 1918, so far as can be ascertained, there were approximately 2,000 km., of which 450 km. were in Serbian Macedonia. This total includes both standard- and narrow-gauge lines, private industrial lines, and certain important military lines laid in the course of the war. The most important construction took place between 1879 and 1888, a period which saw the linking up of Belgrade, Nish, and Sofia. It is reported that at the outbreak of the European War some 500 km. of line were under construction within the old boundaries, while 400 km.

were projected in Serbian Macedonia, but the former figure at least is almost certainly exaggerated.

The construction and management of the railways is regulated by the law of 1898, with subsequent additions. At the end of 1903 the total value of the railway lines and rolling stock belonging to the Serbian State was reckoned at 126,736,083 francs. For the five years 1904–8, the average profit was 4,642,823 francs, the ratio of expenditure to receipts being approximately 50 per cent.

The existing railway system is as follows. The main artery is the Belgrade–Salonika line (700 km.), of which, however, the section Gevgeli–Salonika (78 km.) lies beyond the frontier, while the section Zibevche-Ristovach–Gevgeli (253 km.) is in Serbian Macedonia. The section Belgrade–Nish (245 km.) forms the Serbian State Railway, which was taken over from a French company in 1889. From Nish to Salonika the line belongs to the Compagnie des Chemins de fer Orientaux (Baron Hirsch).

In 1915 the average traffic was about four trains daily each way. The rolling stock and locomotives have, however, been added to considerably during the war, and the maximum carrying capacity of the line is now estimated at 18 trains of 30 or 40 trucks daily in each direction. The locomotives use partly wood and partly coal. The sharpest curve has a radius of 255 m., and the steepest gradient is 1 in 66, near Kumanovo. Rivers are crossed by good iron girder bridges supported by stone pillars. The track is single, and of standard gauge (4 ft. 8½ in.). Trains can pass each other at every station.

Connected with the main artery are a number of branch lines, of which only a certain number are of standard gauge, a fact which interferes seriously with their economic value. On the principal (and probably

all) light railways the gauge is 2 ft. 6 in. (0·76 m.). These lines, some of which are merely industrial lines not open to general traffic, are, taken from north to south, as follows:

East of the main line.

(1) A standard-gauge line from Velika Plana goes along the Morava valley for 27½ miles to Smederevo; from Osipaonitsa, on this branch, a line runs eastward to Pozharevats, being the one completed section of a line projected from Belgrade to Negotin.

(2) A line goes from Tyupriya (Ćuprija) to the Senyski Maydan mines.

(3) A narrow-gauge railway from Parachin to Zayechar (66 miles) connects the line from Nish to Belgrade with the line from Nish to Prahovo.

(4) Light railways run from Tyityevats (Ćićevac) to Sveti Petar (16 miles) for hauling timber, and to the Moravats coal mines (2¼ miles).

(5) From Nish a line runs north through Knyazhevats and Zayechar to Prahovo (64 miles); it is important as being a section of the main line from the Adriatic to Rumania. From Zayechar there is connexion by the narrow-gauge railway mentioned above with Parachin.

(6) From Nish runs the important line through Pirot to Sofia; it goes through the Nishava gorge, in which there are five tunnels.

(7) A line has been constructed by the Bulgarians from Kumanovo to the frontier at Gyushevo (Cujevo), joining the existing line from Sofia to Kyustendil.

(8) From Veles there is a Decauville extension to Shtip.

(9) From Hudova (Strumitsa Station) there are branches to Tsestovo, Bogdantse, and Sermenli.

West of the main line.

(1) A standard-gauge line from Mladenovats runs (42½ miles) through Arangyelovats to Lazarevats, where it joins the line from Obrenovats through Laykovats to Valyevo.

(2) A standard-gauge line runs (17½ miles) from Lapovo to Kraguyevats ; it is of military importance, as there is a large arsenal at Kraguyevats.

(3) From Stalach the Western Morava line runs (102 miles) through Krushevats, Kralyevo, and Chachak to Uzhitse; it is of standard gauge as far as Krushevats. It is believed to have been linked up with the Bosnian system at Vardishte.

(4) From Skoplye a standard-gauge line goes north-west to Mitrovitsa (75 miles), crossing the Kachanik defile ; about 5 miles from Skoplye a Decauville extension branches to the left through Kalkandelen (Tetovo) and Gostivar to Struga on Lake Okhrida near the Albanian frontier.

(5) From Gradsko a Decauville extension runs to Prilip, and after passing Resne joins the last-named line at Struga.

The following lines are independent of the main line or are connected with it by cross lines :

(1) A narrow-gauge line running (36 miles) from Shabats on the Save to Loznitsa and Kovilyatsa. This is not connected with the main system, but a ferry across the Save at Shabats connects it with a Slavonian line at Ruma.

(2) A standard-gauge line from Obrenovats on the Danube running up the Kolubara valley to Valyevo; at Lazarevats a line connects it with Mladenovats, and at Laykovats a line has been started to connect it with Chachak (*via* Gornyi Milanovats), the southern section of which was well advanced in 1915.

(3) A narrow-gauge line, not connected with the main line, running (34 miles) from Dubrovitsa on the Danube to Petrovats; the line is being continued to Zayechar, and is said to have been constructed as far as Zhagubitsa.

(4) A private line from Vrchka Chuka, south-east of Zayechar, going along the Timok valley to the Danube. Its bridges and permanent way are weak. Near Vrazogrnki it connects with the Parachin–Zayechar line.

(5) The line from Salonika through Florina to Monastir only runs through Serbian territory for a few miles of its course.

Of projected lines the most important are:

East of the main line.

(1) Belgrade–Pozharevats–Negotin (including the Osipaonitsa–Pozharevats section reported complete).

(2) Gradsko–Shtip–Bulgarian frontier.

West of the main line.

(1) Valyevo–Loznitsa.

(2) Kraguyevats–Kralyevo–Rashka–Mitrovitsa.

(3) Rashka–Novibazar–Bosnian frontier (at Uvats, the present terminus of the Bosnian system).

(4) Nish–Prishtina–Prizren–Dibra.

(5) Gostivar–Dibra.

(6) Struga–Albanian frontier (continued to Elbasan and the coast at Durazzo).

The chief importance of these projects lies in the connexion which they provide with the Adriatic coast, guaranteed to Serbia by the Treaty of London in 1913.

There are numerous other lines the construction of which was contemplated by the Railway Act of May 25, 1913, but they are of a subsidiary character.

(*d*) *Posts, Telegraphs, and Telephones*

In 1843, when the Austro-Hungarian Government ad established a consulate at Belgrade, it organized the Serbian postal service. In the same year the Serbian Government organized a postal service for local needs and established post offices, &c., and in 1868 it concluded a postal convention with Austria-Hungary, by which it undertook the entire service itself.

The first telegraph line was that between Belgrade and Aleksinats (1855). In 1866 Serbia joined the International Telegraphic Union. In 1899 a direct line of telegraph was established between Budapest and Sofia. By 1906 a similar line was installed between Budapest and Constantinople. In 1909 there were between 3,000 and 4,000 kilometres of telegraph line.

The telephone service was established in 1899, and in 1910 Serbia joined the Universal Telephone Union.

Plant for wireless telegraphy was installed at Belgrade just before the war.

Between 1904 and 1908 the number of post offices in Serbia rose from 1,240 to 1,492, and of telegraph offices from 173 to 181, while between 1906 and 1908 the length of telephone lines increased from 1,446 to 2,126 km.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) Labour

The supply of labour in the old kingdom of Serbia has hitherto been ample. The cultivable land is nearly all divided into small free holdings, which are tilled by their peasant owners. Factories are few, notwithstanding recent efforts of the State to stimulate manufacture, and those that exist obtain sufficient labour for their needs from the inhabitants of the towns,

though these represent only 17 per cent. of the total population of the country. In 1908 the total number of hands in Serbian factories was 11,770, and between five and six thousand were employed in the mines. It is of course possible that the attachment of the Serbians to the land may stand in the way of future expansion in the mining and manufacturing industries; but the lot of the Serbian peasant is not altogether happy, and the chance of earning high wages, even at a factory in a town, would probably overcome his natural inclinations.

The population of the old territories of Serbia, in contrast to that of the neighbouring States, has been but very slightly affected by emigration or immigration. In former times some of the inhabitants of the eastern provinces used to go to Rumania for the harvest, but since the development of the mining industry in east Serbia the practice has ceased. Among the suggested causes of the remarkable stability of the population are Serbia's lack of access to the sea, her democratic constitution, and the prevalence of peasant proprietorship.

As for labour conditions, the status of the Serbian cultivator will be discussed below. For the interests of the factory-worker great concern is shown by the State, which compels employers to conduct their works on modern hygienic principles, and has put into force a scheme of insurance against accidents and sickness, under which most of the charges are borne by the employer.

In the new territories of Serbia, the labour problem promises to be more difficult. Here, owing to the insecurity of life and property and the unsatisfactory agrarian system, the urban population is relatively larger, and there will probably be no lack of labour for any manufacturing enterprises that may be promoted in the near future. It is rather in agriculture

that a shortage is likely to be felt. Even before the Balkan Wars Macedonian landlords who wished to farm their own estates were often unable to obtain the necessary labour, and after the recent troublous times the supply will doubtless be smaller than ever. Moreover, there is in Macedonia much excellent land which has lain fallow for years and which is a potential source of great wealth, but, unless there is a large influx of settlers from abroad, most of it will probably have to remain uncultivated for a long time to come.

The labour supply of Serbia's new provinces has suffered greatly from emigration. Under Turkish rule many Christians left the country, and after the Balkan Wars numerous Slavs with Bulgarian sympathies are said to have emigrated to Bulgaria. During and after these wars, moreover, large numbers of Moslems were killed or driven into exile, and those that remained were generally anxious to dispose of their property and withdraw to regions still under Turkish rule. The gaps in the population were partly filled by settlers from the old kingdom of Serbia, and by Serbs who returned home from overseas or emigrated from the parts of Macedonia allotted to Greece; but even with these a considerable deficiency had still to be made good. It is unfortunately probable that any settlement of the Balkan question will be followed by a further displacement of the population of Macedonia.

(2) Agriculture

(*a*) *Products of Commercial Value*

Old Territories

Serbia is pre-eminently an agricultural country. In the territories that formed the kingdom before the Balkan Wars, 87 per cent. of the population were engaged in agricultural pursuits, and, in 1911, 88 per cent.

of Serbia's exports were agricultural products. At this time about one-third of the area of the old kingdom was cultivated, and its agricultural produce was more varied than that of any other Balkan State. Only the highest slopes of the mountains are barren. The most fertile region is the plain of Machva, where the soil is excellent for cereals. The Morava valley is also very productive, cereals, beet, and hemp being cultivated along it, while towards its southern end tobacco, the poppy, and the mulberry are largely grown. Other districts favourable for crops are the plains between the Mlava and the Pek, and the Timok valley. On the hills in the east there are vineyards, meadows, and good pasture; the mountains in the north-east and south are covered with extensive forests; and the south-west abounds in orchards, with wide tracks of pasture on the plateaux. The following paragraphs deal separately with the chief classes into which the agricultural products fall.

Cereals.—In 1909, 3,072,000 acres were under cereals —an increase of 617,000 acres since 1900. Maize covered 1,444,000 acres, wheat 933,000, barley 328,000, and oats 266,000. The maize was mostly consumed in the country, where it constituted the staple food of three-quarters of the population and was also largely used for fattening pigs. In consequence the export of maize was comparatively small, its average annual value from 1905 to 1911 being £413,000. During the same period, wheat, though less widely cultivated, was exported to the average value of £622,000 a year. The variety called 'red wheat' was largely grown, and efforts were being made to improve the wheat-crop in general by the purchase of seed-grain from Hungary and other foreign countries. Barley, for which both climate and soil are very suitable, was valued as food by the inhabitants of the mountain districts, but was

used mainly for feeding cattle and brewing. From 1905 to 1911 the exports of barley were valued, on an average, at £158,000 a year. Oats were also exported, but much the greater part of this crop was consumed at home. Successful experiments have been made in the cultivation of rice, which would thrive in the marshy parts of the country, but hitherto it has not received much attention.

Commercial plants.—Sugar-beet was introduced in 1900 by a German undertaking. In the last few years before 1914 its cultivation was increasing, especially in the Morava valley, where it does particularly well. The same valley, especially in its upper reaches, also produced a considerable quantity of hemp. Hempen thread and rope were made in the homes of the peasants, and in recent times were exported to the value of about £40,000 a year. The production of hempen goods, however, had of late declined. Tobacco was grown in the country watered by the upper Morava and its tributary, the Western Morava. The best was said to come from Aleksinats and Uzhitse. The cultivation and sale of tobacco is a State monopoly, and before the Balkan Wars the industry was considered by experts to have a great future. Nevertheless the export of tobacco was declining, and its revival is hardly to be expected, as Serbian Macedonia, which is admirably suited for growing tobacco, already produces very large quantities, and is likely to attract capital which, before the Balkan Wars, would have been invested in the old kingdom.

Vegetables.—Vegetables of all kinds do well in Serbia; and a vegetable-conserve factory, which was established at Kraguyevats a year or two before the Balkan Wars, promised to become very prosperous. The industry should be capable of great expansion.

Fruit.—The climate and soil of the old territories of

Serbia are specially suitable for fruit-growing. While many kinds of fruit flourish, plums are by far the most important. About 350,000 acres, mostly in the west, were devoted to them. In 1911 the value of the plums exported was over £720,000. In 1915, a year unfavourable for husbandry, the quantity produced was estimated at 165,000 metric tons, and crops twice as large have often been known. Some of the plums were sent fresh to Austria and Germany, but most were exported as prunes, the preparation of which was an important Serbian industry. Before 1906 the prunes went principally to Austria, whence many were re-exported under the name of Bosnian prunes; but during the tariff war with Austria, which lasted from 1906 to 1910, they were as far as possible sent direct to their ultimate destinations. Plum marmalade was also made in considerable quantities and largely exported. What remained of the crop was mostly made into *slivnitsa*—plum brandy, the Serbian national drink—which was mainly consumed in the country.

Many parts of the old kingdom of Serbia are suited to the cultivation of the vine, and Serbian wines are held by experts to rank high among the wines of Europe and to resemble those of southern France and Spain. Before 1880 there was an export trade in wine, but in that year the phylloxera invaded Serbia, the area under vines declined, and of late all the wine produced has been consumed in the country. Societies were formed to grapple with the pest, and the State has assisted in the importation of American vines, which have been grafted on to the native stock with good results. From 1904 to 1909 the average annual value of the vintage was about £1,280,000, and in the latter year the vineyards covered some 76,000 acres. By 1914, however, the area had been largely increased, and great hopes of the complete recovery of

the industry were entertained. It is probable, however, that it will suffer from the competition of the new territories, which are particularly well adapted to viticulture.

Live-stock.—The raising of live-stock is the most profitable branch of agriculture in Serbia. In 1911 the exports of animals and animal produce were of a value of £1,400,000.

Pig-breeding was of special importance. Nearly all the peasants kept pigs, which brought them considerable profits. The best native pigs are those of the Shumadiya breed, which is found all over the country: these pigs are strong, fatten quickly, and reach a weight of nearly 400 lb. Experiments have been made in the crossing of native breeds with Berkshire and Yorkshire pigs, with good results as regards the quality of the meat and lard, though it appears that the cross-bred animals cannot stand the climate as well as the indigenous varieties. In the last few years before the Balkan Wars the number of pigs in the country diminished, and the export of live pigs declined, the main cause being the tariff war with Austria. On the other hand, the export of fresh and salt pork, bacon, and lard increased, and a treaty concluded with Austria in 1910 was expected to lead to a recovery of the trade in live pigs.

The horned cattle of Serbia are somewhat small, and seldom of a pure breed. Nevertheless they are highly appreciated abroad, and it is stated by Italian veterinary surgeons and sanitary inspectors that their flesh has a good taste and colour and that tuberculosis is unknown among them. The best herds were found in the fertile plains of the Kolubara, the Yasenitsa, and the Resava. Seementhal cattle from Switzerland have been crossed with Serbian cattle; but, though the experiment was not unsuccessful, it is thought that

better results would be obtained by the careful crossing of different varieties of the native stock. Recently Serbian cattle have tended to diminish in numbers owing to the conversion of pasture into arable land; and, in addition, the export trade has been adversely affected by the fiscal policy of Austria. After the European War, however, especially if Serbia gains access to the sea, cattle-breeding should soon recover its former prosperity.

The raising of goats and sheep has likewise suffered somewhat from the curtailment of pasture land. As regards goats, while their milk provides a valuable part of the peasants' diet, there is a serious set-off to their economic value in the harm they do to the forests. Sheep, which are more numerous, are also prized for their milk. Their wool, however, is not in general of good quality, though an improvement has been effected by crossing native stock with the Hampshire breed. In 1911, 62,000 sheep, valued at £35,000, were exported.

Serbian horses are small, but of great endurance. They have been successfully crossed with the English-Normandy strain, and could be further improved by interbreeding with Russian and Arab stock. Considerable numbers were exported, but Serbia was obliged to rely on foreign countries for certain types, especially those used by the army.

Mention should here be made of the stud-farms established by the State with the object of improving the breed of horses and other animals. The oldest and most important of these was established sixty years ago at Dabrichevo. In 1914 it had branches at Lyubichevo and Bela-Reka, and there were also a number of centres where pedigree animals were available for horse- and cattle-breeders.

Of no less value to the stock-raising industry was the establishment of large slaughter-houses with modern

plant. Of these there were five, one at Belgrade, one at Mladenovats, two at Velika Plana, and one at Yagodina. Before the first of these slaughter-houses was erected, the exports of the Serbian stock-breeder consisted almost entirely of live animals, nearly all of which were sent to Austria; and the exporters often suffered grave loss through the arbitrary judgements of Austrian sanitary inspectors and sudden changes in Austrian fiscal policy. After it became possible, however, for Serbian farmers to have their animals slaughtered on a large scale within the country, their risks were much reduced, and even the tariff war with Austria did them comparatively little injury. The country, moreover, was able to utilize the offal of the slaughtered animals, which under the old system of export was entirely lost, but which, among other uses, now provided raw material for two soap factories and a spodium factory.

Poultry is abundant, and was exported in 1911 to the value of £140,000. The State established several model poultry-farms, stocked with the best foreign breeds, and distributed good birds gratis among the peasants. Poultry-farming should become one of the most remunerative industries in Serbia.

Bees.—Bee-keeping has always flourished in Serbia. Schools for the instruction of the peasants in scientific apiculture were established by a society founded at Belgrade in 1897. The results were excellent, and in the years immediately before the European War the country was producing enough honey and wax for its own needs.

Silk.—Sericulture, which flourished in the Middle Ages, decayed utterly under Turkish rule; but in quite recent times efforts to revive it have met with some success. Nurseries for the cultivation of mulberry-trees were founded at Tyupriya and Pozharevats; and

it was hoped that wide areas of the country would soon be planted. Silk-worm eggs produced on the Pasteur system were distributed free by the Government to the peasants. In the last few years before the war, the average annual production of the country amounted to about 400 tons of cocoons. There was a silk-winding mill at Lapovo.

New Territories.

Detailed information and statistics about the provinces acquired by Serbia in the Balkan Wars are lacking. As in other parts of the Turkish Empire, the natural resources had never been developed, life and property being insecure, the population scanty, and methods of cultivation primitive. Of the total area of the new territories not more than 8 per cent. was cultivated; of Serbian Macedonia not more than 5 per cent., though here at least half the land is suitable for agriculture, and much of it is virtually virgin soil of great fertility. If peace and security be assured, the prospects of agriculture will, therefore, be excellent.

About 88 per cent. of the cultivated land was under cereals. Of these rice was much more largely grown than in the old territories, and flourished expecially in the Kosovo and Kochana districts. The principal centre of the cultivation of cereals, however, was Skoplye and its neighbourhood, where maize, barley, and oats were the chief products. Before the Balkan Wars the export of cereals from the new provinces was of a value of about £80,000 a year. Tobacco-growing was very remunerative, and the value of the tobacco exports exceeded £200,000 a year. As was remarked above, Serbian Macedonia is particularly well suited to this industry. The production of opium was expanding rapidly, the poppy being largely cultivated in Eastern Macedonia, particularly in the Vardar valley. Before

the Balkan Wars the value of the annual export of opium was sometimes as much as £280,000, and in 1915 the value of the crop was estimated at £400,000. An opium market had been created at Skoplye, and cultivators of the poppy, who used to be at the mercy of speculators from Salonika, were being helped by advances made by the Agricultural Bank of Serbia and the Banque Franco-Serbe. The newly-acquired territories are also well fitted by climate and soil to become a great wine-producing area. The best grapes were grown in the Tikvesh district. The area under vines, however, was small, though a certain amount of wine was exported. The production of silk is another industry of promise, the climate being very favourable for mulberry-trees. Among the chief centres of silk-worm culture were Gevgeli, Tikvesh, Prilip, and Skoplye. Before the Balkan Wars, the value of the cocoons exported reached £120,000 a year.

In the new territories there is a great extent of pasture land, but much of it is poor owing to general neglect in the past. Under Turkish rule, the farmers knew nothing of scientific methods of stock-raising, which was consequently in a much more backward state than in the rest of Serbia. There has been but little pig-breeding—a result of Moslem domination—and such pigs as exist are of a poor breed, resembling the wild species. Horned cattle are generally badly fed and ill-favoured: the breed is said to be the smallest in Europe, and a team of several oxen is required to pull the primitive wooden plough which is commonly used. The cows yield little milk, and that of poor quality. The best cattle used to be found in the neighbourhood of Prilip and Monastir.

The raising of sheep has been more successful, and before the war they were far more numerous than oxen, though still few in comparison with those of the old

territories. They were kept in large flocks, which in summer fed on the mountains and in winter on the plains, some being taken as far south as Thessaly. Those that remained on Serbian territory were exposed to severe vicissitudes of weather—one of the causes of the poor quality of their wool. The sheep are hardy but small, the weight of a ewe ranging from 3 to 6 stone and that of a ram from 6 to 12 stone—about half the weight of sheep of the Hampshire breed. Their wool is coarse and scanty, the average yield being less than half that of an English sheep.

There is, however, no reason why stock-raising should not become a highly successful industry in the new territories of Serbia. An immediate improvement would be effected by the introduction of stock from the old kingdom; in fact, the Serbian Ministry of Agriculture had in 1914 begun to take measures to this end. There can be no doubt that the development of the industry would immensely raise the economic standard of the inhabitants.

(*b*) *Forestry*

Old Territories.

Serbia was formerly famous for its forests, and their extent remains large, although reduced by the encroachments of arable land and by the wars of the last century. The total area of the forests in the old territories is about 3,700,000 acres, of which 36 per cent. belong to the State, 43 per cent. to communes and villages, 1 per cent. to monasteries and churches, and 20 per cent. to private individuals. The administration of the State forests is under a special section of the Ministry of Agriculture, Commerce, and Industry. Sixty per cent. of the total area of the forests is covered with beech, which has a very wide distribution. Oak comes next in importance, covering 25 per cent. of the whole. Ten

per cent. is occupied by conifers, which abound in the regions of Uzhitse and Krushevats, and to a smaller extent in the department of Pirot. There is also much willow and osier, especially in the State forests.

The largest mass of forest lies in the departments of Kraina, Pozharevats, Timok, and Morava. There is another area, covering 50,000 acres, on the mountains around Valyevo. In the west there are extensive forests in the region of Uzhitse. The mountains west and south-west of Nish are also thickly wooded, oak being particularly abundant on the Toplitsa mountains, and there are considerable stretches of forest along the Bulgarian frontier.

Hitherto the Serbian forests have not yielded much profit to their owners. In 1908 the total value of the wood felled was only £42,000. They are, however, of great potential value; and, if they were properly surveyed, rendered accessible by new roads and railways, and systematically exploited, the export of forest products would expand rapidly, and the importation of timber, which has hitherto been large, would be very considerably reduced. Modern saw-mills are essential to the development of a Serbian timber industry; before the war there were only a few in the country, though small mills of a primitive type, worked by water-power, were numerous.

New Territories

The soil in the new territories is generally favourable to the growth of forest trees, and it is known that in the Middle Ages the region was rich in timber, which was not only used for smelting ore in the country, but was also exported, especially to Venice. Centuries of Turkish rule, however, largely destroyed the forests, which were never adequately protected against wasteful felling and the ravages of cattle and goats among young

trees. In consequence, although at the time of the Balkan Wars some five million acres of the new territories were officially regarded as forest land, about four-fifths of this area was bare, and most of the remainder was covered with young trees of between five and ten years' growth. On the higher slopes of the mountains these were in good condition, but at low altitudes they were devastated by cattle, for which they provided food in the autumn. Such full-grown trees as exist are seldom found in large masses, but are scattered over the country in small patches. Oak, beech, and pine are the commonest species.

It will consequently be some time before the forests in the new territories become commercially profitable. At present their most valuable product is charcoal, which is made by the peasants, principally from the dwarf oaks which abound on the mountains. In 1914, however, the Serbian Government was already taking steps to reclaim the land suitable for forests and to check the destruction of young trees.

(c) *Land Tenure and Methods of Cultivation*

Methods of cultivation depend so much on the terms on which the land is held that it is impossible to treat these subjects separately.

Old Territories.

The old kingdom of Serbia is a country of peasant proprietors. Before the European War, only 17 per cent. of the population lived in the towns, and there had been no depopulation of the country districts. Large estates were rare. In 1897 only 3·3 per cent. of the landowners possessed more than twenty hectares (about 50 acres), while 54 per cent. possessed less than five; and since then the number of small proprietors

has increased. The disadvantages attaching to small holdings have been largely obviated by the *zadruga*, or family community. This was formerly the social unit throughout the country. The members of each *zadruga* looked up to a common ancestor or to the eldest male of the family as their head, and cultivated their lands in common, sharing their live-stock and agricultural implements. The system made for security and for the use of better methods than would have been possible for independent individuals. Of late, however, there has been a tendency towards the dissolution of the bond of kinship, and, while the more intelligent and enterprising landowners may have benefited by the relaxation of the restrictions of the *zadruga*, the effects of the change have generally been unfortunate and have confronted the State with difficult economic problems. The increase of population, moreover, has necessitated the cultivation of land of indifferent quality. In consequence many of the peasants fell on evil times and became burdened with debt. The State intervened with laws exempting the homestead—the peasant's house, with a certain quantity of land and stock—from liability to seizure by creditors; but these measures have only partially remedied the evil, and indeed are often found to be a burden rather than a benefit.

Another measure of relief has been the institution of communal storehouses, stocked by contributions in kind from the peasants, which are distributed in case of dearth, those receiving help having to return an equivalent quantity of goods after the next harvest.

Co-operative societies have also rendered great service. In 1909 there were 900, mostly affiliated to the Central Union of Agricultural Co-operative Societies, which had its head-quarters at Belgrade. Of these 615 were societies for obtaining credit, 205 were for

the purchase of manure, cattle, seed, and agricultural implements, 12 owned co-operative dairies, and the rest existed for the sale of their members' products or for benevolent objects. The State gives a subvention to their central funds.

It will be gathered that methods of cultivation have varied greatly from place to place. In the less fertile parts they have always been very crude, the primitive wooden plough, which does little more than scratch the soil, being in general use. Even in more favoured regions the owner of two or three acres of land, unless he belongs to a *zadruga* or a co-operative society, has had to do without modern appliances. On the other hand, productive areas like the Machva plain and the Morava and Timok valleys have of late seen a great increase in the use of agricultural machines and of animal manure. In such districts, moreover, the knowledge of the modern principles of agriculture has spread rapidly. A scientific rotation of crops, for instance, has been adopted by many cultivators.

The improvement of agricultural methods has been fostered by the State. It is over sixty years since the first school of agriculture was established, and in 1913 there were three of these schools in the old kingdom and one in Serbian Macedonia. Each gave instruction in all branches of agriculture, but devoted particular attention to those of special importance in its own district. Thus, Shabats and Skoplye specialized in the raising of crops, Bukovo in viticulture and fruit-growing, Kralyevo in cattle-breeding and cultivation in mountainous regions.

The State also established centres of scientific agriculture in seven of the seventeen departments into which the old kingdom was divided. They were intended to spread a knowledge of modern principles of agriculture and to provide farmers with the means of

scientific cultivation. Each centre had a farm, an orchard, a vineyard, and an apiary, and was supposed to possess an establishment for breeding silk-worms and a workshop for teaching trades and handicrafts relating to agriculture. At Topchider, close to Belgrade, there was a model farm, where experiments were made for the Ministry of Agriculture.

In 1898 a law instituted 'district nurseries', with the object of distributing fruit trees, vines, mulberry-trees, and other trees and shrubs of industrial value. At these nurseries instruction was given in bee-keeping, the rearing of silk-worms, and poultry-farming. There were 60 of them in 1912.

Mention has been made above of the establishments for promoting horse and cattle breeding.

The various institutions just described have done valuable work, but their methods have been somewhat empirical. Serbian agriculture still needs more systematic research and a more thorough application of scientific knowledge. An improvement was to be expected from the foundation of a Faculty of Agriculture at the University of Belgrade, which was decided upon in 1912. The wars have of course prevented the realization of this project.

Notwithstanding the concern of the State for agriculture, the position of the small proprietor is likely to remain precarious unless further measures are taken. Some relief might be given by the distribution of part of the State and communal lands. The domains of the State consisting largely of forest, it is the common lands of the villages that offer most scope to such a policy. They have hitherto been used mainly for pasture, and have thus been of most benefit to well-to-do landowners with large herds of cattle.

Better use should also be made of the *Uprava Fondova* or State Mortgage Bank. This is a big concern,

which lends money on landed security, but its methods and rules are such that the small cultivator has drawn little advantage from it. When in need of credit the peasant has generally gone to a private moneylender, often with ruinous results to himself.

Another need is a systematic registration and valuation of all the land in the country. This would facilitate the grant of credit and the more equitable distribution of the taxes, which in late years have pressed very heavily on small proprietors.

New Territories.

In the territories which fell to Serbia in 1913 the agrarian problem presents special difficulties. Before the Balkan Wars, while peasant proprietors were numerous, most of the land belonged to Mussulman *begs* and *agas*, whose large estates were usually cultivated by Christian peasants holding their farms on a precarious tenure of the *métayer* type. The leases, it is true, were generally renewed when they fell in, but the conditions of the contract between landlord and tenant seldom encouraged enterprise and energy. Moreover, owing to the exactions of corrupt officials and the ravages of brigands, the peasant, whatever his tenure, never enjoyed security of life and property.

After the revolution of 1908 a vigorous agitation for land reform arose. The peasants demanded the expropriation of the great landlords and the conversion of their own farms into free holdings, and sought, by evading their obligations in every possible way, to convince both the landlords and the Government that the existing system was unworkable. A very bitter feeling was excited, which during the Balkan Wars found a vent in deeds of violence against the landlords, whose misfortunes were shared by many of the Mussulman peasants. No small number of Turks and Albanians

fled the country, and after the war many of those who remained were eager to sell their property and depart. To increase the confusion numerous Slavs with Bulgarian sympathies also emigrated, while Serbs in districts allotted to Greece and Greeks in districts allotted to Serbia were often anxious to move to the territories of their compatriots.

It is not known how the Serbian Government proposed to deal with the difficult situation thus created. They appointed a commission to investigate the whole agrarian question in the new territories, but the European War soon interrupted its inquiries. It is said, however, that the Government hoped in the main to satisfy the demands of the peasants. In that case it will be necessary for the State to expropriate such of the big landlords as have retained their estates during the recent troubles.

The methods of cultivation followed in the new territories of Serbia were still more primitive than those employed in the old kingdom. Agricultural implements were crude, manure was seldom used, and there was general ignorance about the rotation of crops. In Macedonia, however, the peasants engaged in certain special branches of cultivation, such as tobacco, poppy, and fruit growing, often show remarkable skill, based on valuable traditional knowledge; and there is every reason to expect that, under a congenial and efficient Government, the inhabitants of the new provinces will be ready to adopt scientific methods in all departments of agriculture. If any real progress is to be made, however, greater facilities for obtaining credit must be provided. The Agricultural Bank of Serbia, which was established in the new territories in 1915, should be able to do much towards satisfying this need.

(3) Fisheries

The fishing industry is controlled by the State. In the old territories it has hitherto been of small account, the methods in vogue being primitive and all the fish caught being consumed in the country. Many kinds, however, are found, especially in the Danube, and the industry might be profitably organized and expanded.

The numerous rivers and lakes of the newly-acquired provinces abound in fish of many valuable species. Lake Okhrida, in particular, contains excellent salmon-trout, which provide the inhabitants of the neighbourhood with one of their principal foods. The Turkish fishing-laws, however, effectually prevented any systematic development of the fisheries, and led to indiscriminate and wasteful poaching. Some of the fish caught in Serbian Macedonia used to be sent overseas through Salonika, but it is said that the methods employed in preserving them were unsatisfactory. That a prosperous fishing industry could be established is indicated by the attempt of a syndicate to obtain from the Serbian Government a ten years' lease of the fisheries of Lake Okhrida at an annual rent of £40,000—an offer which was not accepted. Serbian Macedonia offers an excellent opportunity for a fish-conserving factory conducted on modern lines, especially as such an enterprise would probably receive strong support from the Govermnent.

(4) Minerals

Old Territories.

(*a*) *Mineral Resources*

The mineral resources of Serbia were worked in Roman times and during the Middle Ages, but under Turkish rule they were neglected, and recent efforts to revive the industry have not borne much fruit. Some

parts of the old kingdom, however, are undoubtedly rich in minerals. The ancient workings, many of which can still be traced, frequently afford valuable clues to prospectors.

Nearly all the mineral deposits at present known lie in the northern half of the country. They are mostly found in three well-defined areas. These are, first, the Podrinye district in the north-west; secondly, the elevated region stretching southwards from Belgrade to the Western Morava, and forming the watershed between the rivers Morava and Kolubara; thirdly, a triangle of mountainous country in the north-east, bounded by the Danube, the Timok, and a line drawn from Pozharevats to the neighbourhood of Zayechar.

In the Podrinye district the chief mineral is lead, which in recent times has been worked at several places, mostly near Krupany. Copper, arsenic, antimony, and sulphur are also found, and at Zayaka near Loznitsa the Austrians are reported to have begun the working of antimony ore during the enemy occupation of Serbia.

In the second of the areas specified, lead is also the mineral most largely found. In modern times it has been mined near Ripany and, since the Austrian invasion, at Babe. Zinc and mercury ore have also been obtained in the Ripany district. Near Vlashko Polye, farther south, there is an important seam of lignite, which was worked to some extent before the war, and has been vigorously exploited by the Austrians. The Rudnik Mountains, towards the southern end of the area, are very rich in minerals, containing lead glance, zinc blende, and copper, iron, and arsenical pyrites, but little work seems to have been done here in modern times. On the outskirts of the area, chrome is found near Kralyevo and manganese ore near Kraguyevats.

The third area, that in the north-east, is by far the most valuable. It contains the mines of Maydanpek and Bor, which are the most productive in Serbia. The Maydanpek mines have been worked by modern methods for over sixty years. The principal product has been copper, which is smelted on the spot, but at first iron was also worked, and of late iron pyrites has been obtained in large quantities. The mines are leased to a Belgian company, but during the last year or two have been worked by the Austrians. At Bor, where a French company hold the concession, copper is mined. The output of ore, which was 7,000 tons in 1912, is reported to have been quadrupled by the Austrians, and it is claimed that the mine is one of the richest in the world. Other important mines lie near Kuchayna, where lead ores containing gold and silver are found. Near Dobra on the Danube are several coal-pits, and coal and lignite have been worked, though apparently not with much success, in other parts of the area. Gold in quartz veins occurs between Neresnitsa and Maydanpek, where it has been mined by two companies, and in the Deli Yovan mountains, where also concessions have been granted. Alluvial gold has been obtained in the valleys of the Pek and the Tsrna Reka, a tributary of the Timok. Among the other minerals of the area may be mentioned antimony and arsenic, which are known to exist near Zayechar.

Outside the three areas described, the mineral deposits that have been traced are not as a rule very promising. Among the exceptions are the lignite mines at Senye near Tyupriya in the Morava valley, which produced about 100,000 tons a year before the war. Since 1915 they have been under German management, and several new pits are reported to have been opened.

Building stone is abundant. Of special note are the

quarries at Topchider, close to Belgrade, in the Rudnik Mountains, and near Kraguyevats. Beautiful marble is quarried at various places in the Podrinye district.

Serbia has numerous mineral springs, some of which are of high therapeutic value, especially three or four with radio-active properties.

(*b*) *Output*

Considering the number of concessions granted in recent years, the mineral output of Serbia is small; but it must be remembered that the grant of a concession does not always mean the opening of a mine, and that many of the mines opened have been abandoned after a short time. In 1912 the number of workmen engaged in mining was only 4,622. Statistics of the output in that year are given below. The production of lead, one of the more abundant metals in Serbia, was remarkably small, owing in part to the closing down of the mines at Ripany through lack of capital.

	Quantity. Metric Tons.	*Value.* £
Antimony (regulus)	297	7,092
Coal, pit	53,131	34,028
,, lignite	259,233	144,491
Copper	7,355	477,440
Gold	0·324	41,761
Iron pyrites	46,189	14,852
Lead	13	8,232
Silver (metal)	0·792	2,750
Total value		730,646

New Territories.

(*a*) *Mineral Resources*

Of the new territories of Serbia, Serbian Macedonia and the country bordering thereon are unquestionably

rich in minerals, but since the Turkish conquest they have lain almost unworked. In future, however, mining will certainly be one of the most important industries of this region, and before long will probably offer attractive opportunities for the investment of foreign capital.

The mineral wealth of the newly-acquired provinces is widely distributed, but certain districts are known to be particularly rich. The chief of these are the country around Gilyan, between Skoplye and Prishtina. the neighbourhood of Trepatsa, on the Albanian frontier near Dibra, and the Plachkovitska and Osogovska Planina in the east of Serbian Macedonia. In all these areas there are numerous traces of mines worked in Roman or mediaeval times, and from these and historical records it is plain that the output was very large and comprised a great variety of minerals. The following notes indicate the principal deposits that were known to exist, whether in these districts or elsewhere, before the war.

Antimony.—Antimony ores were worked at the Allchar mines, near Rozhden, just north of the Greco-Serbian frontier. Antimony is also found near Krivolak, Skoplye, and Kratovo.

Arsenic.—Arsenical ores were also mined at Allchar, and arsen-pyrites occurs at Trepatsa.

Chrome.—Deposits of chrome are found in many parts, and a few years ago it was successfully mined at Rabrovo (near Strumitsa) and in the vicinity of Prizren. The mines, however, were abandoned, owing partly to a fall in prices and partly to the disturbed state of the country.

Coal.—Traces of coal are rare. There is said to be a valuable deposit in the upper basin of the Pchinya River, and lignite has been mined near Shtip. Other deposits seem to be of small account.

Copper.—Before the war copper ore was mined at

Dugi Hrid in Macedonia. Copper also occurs near Gevgeli and Gradsko, in the Plachkovitska Mountains, and in one or two other localities. Copper pyrites used to be mined at Trepatsa.

Gold.—In the Middle Ages gold was the principal product of the famous mine of Novo Brdo near Gilyan, and the adjacent mountain region is thought to be rich in this mineral, though little lies near the surface. Gold used also to be mined in the Plachkovitska.

Iron.—Iron occurs frequently and in various forms, but has not been much worked. The most important mines are at Chichovo near Gradsko, and iron has also been worked in recent times at Dugi Hrid. Iron ores are found near Veles, Kumanovo, and Egri Palanka, in the Osogovska Mountains, and at Novo Brdo. Iron pyrites was one of the chief products of the Trepatsa mines.

Lead.—Lead glance is plentiful in the Trepatsa district and in the Osogovska and Plachkovitska Planina, where it was at one time worked by the Turkish Government. Lead ore is also found near Veles and Kumanovo.

Magnesite.—At Majarlik near Skoplye there are wide veins of pure magnesite. A concession for these was granted, but little if any work seems to have been done.

Manganese.—Manganese seems not to have been mined at all in modern times, but important deposits are reported to exist near Gradsko, Veles, and Kumanovo. It also occurs in the Plachkovitska Mountains.

Marble.—Marble of good quality has been quarried in recent years near Gevgeli.

Silver.—Silver galenite is abundant in the Osogov Mountains, and silver used to be an important product of the Novo Brdo mine. Elsewhere, though occasionally found with lead, it is rare.

Slate.—There are slate quarries at Papadiya near Gradsko.

Sulphur.—Sulphur is found at many places in the Plavitsa region and there is an important deposit north of Lake Okhrida.

Among the places in Serbian Macedonia where mineral springs are found may be mentioned Slatina and Slansko, in the region between Prilip and Kirchevo, where there are springs with a high percentage of salt; Veles, where there are thermal baths; Tetovo, which has a chalybeate spring; Shtip and Dibra, where sulphurous springs occur; and Gevgeli, which has hot springs containing sulphur and arsenic.

(*b*) *Output*

There are no trustworthy statistics of the mineral output of the new territories of Serbia, but it is known to be very small. Allchar is the only place where large mining operations have been attempted in recent times. Since 1890 the mines there have been worked by Allatini Bros., a very important Salonika firm. At first their output consisted mainly of antimony ore, but subsequently the arsenical ores, orpiment and realgar, became their chief product. Lorandite and other earths, which contain the newly-discovered element thallium, have been found in the mines, which are also said to contain sulphur and gypsum, but it has not been possible to ascertain whether any minerals besides antimony and arsenic are worked.

(5) Manufactures

Old Territories.

The Government has done its best to foster the country's manufactures. To promoters of new branches of industry it has been especially liberal, giving them

building land, allowing them to import plant and raw materials duty free, and reducing railway rates in favour of their goods, not to mention other valuable concessions.

Nevertheless, the manufactures of Serbia have hitherto been of little account. Most of the factories which figured in official returns were only small workshops, and very few had an annual production exceeding £50,000 in value. The raw material used consisted almost entirely of products of Serbian agriculture.

Food-stuffs.—Flour-mills were numerous, and many were worked by steam. Before the war their numbers were increasing, and the industry was considered to be one of great promise. In 1910 the capital invested in flour-mills was estimated at £625,000, and they produced about 200,000 tons of flour.

There were two sugar factories, one at Belgrade, the other at Tyupriya, which were capable of supplying the needs of the country.

Cheese is made according to Swiss methods, though the production of milk has hitherto been too small to allow of an extensive development of the industry. There was only one cheese factory, but in certain mountain districts there were associations whose members pastured their animals in common and made butter and cheese for export. The exports of cheese tended to increase, and were valued in 1910 at £23,000.

Brewing is a State monopoly. In 1908 there were nine breweries, the production of which was valued at £131,000. In 1913 the output was more than twice as large. The beer produced was sufficient for the home demand, which was not great.

Tobacco.—The tobacco factory at Belgrade, where leaf grown in the country was prepared, belonged to the Tobacco Monopoly, and its output exceeded in value that of any other industrial establishment in Serbia.

Textiles.—The textile industry was making progress, but up to 1914 it remained small. In the villages the women worked at flax, wool, and hemp, but domestic industry was decaying. It was hoped, however, that the manufacture of carpets at Pirot would be maintained. These carpets, which are woven on hand-looms by women and children, are of excellent quality, design, and colour, and have gained high awards at international exhibitions. The formation of a carpet-weavers' union enabled the individual workers to buy their materials cheaply, and the State forbade the use of aniline dyes, which were found to injure the qualities of the carpets; but the prospects of the industry were doubtful, as of late foreign competition was increasingly felt.

There were two small factories making cloth of various kinds, several works where braid and trimmings were manufactured, and a few cotton and linen mills, one of which, at Uzhitse, produced cotton and linen cloth of fine quality.

The manufacture of hempen goods should become very important. A large factory built at Vranyska Banya in 1903 became very prosperous. There was a similar factory at Leskovats. At Lapobo there was a silk-winding factory, the production of which was worth about £400,000 a year.

Leather.—Leather-making is a promising industry, as the country produces enormous supplies of raw material. Besides a number of small establishments, there were near Belgrade two factories making leather and gloves, the output of which amounted in 1909 to a value of £60,000.

Machinery and Metal Goods.—The metal-working industry was unimportant, owing to the small production of minerals in Serbia and the difficulty of obtaining skilled labour. Agricultural machines and

tools and other metal goods were manufactured at a factory in Belgrade, which had been granted valuable privileges by the State, but the value of its output in 1909 was only about £40,000.

Miscellaneous.—There were small tile-works at various places. At Belgrade there were two cardboard factories, a cigarette-paper factory, and two soap works. The last derived much of their raw material from the great slaughter-houses.

New Territories.

As might be expected, there has hitherto been little manufacture in the provinces annexed by Serbia in 1913. At the outbreak of the European War Skoplye had a steam flour-mill, a brewery, a braid factory, tanneries, two soap factories, a horseshoe factory, and a sugar factory established since the occupation of the town by the Serbians. It was also a centre of the production of silver filigree work—one of the chief domestic industries of Macedonia. Veles manufactured woollen and silk goods on a small scale, and had a vegetable oil factory worked by machinery, which produced 50,000 to 60,000 kilograms annually. At Shtip there was a similar factory. The oil was derived from sesame and poppy seed, and the industry should be capable of considerable development. Gevgeli had a silk-winding mill, with modern plant, which was perhaps the most successful industrial establishment in Serbian Macedonia. Monastir possessed a tannery and a ribbon factory, and had domestic industries of some note, such as the making of carpets, stockings, and articles ornamented with silver filigree work.

(6) Power

Before the war electricity was little used in Serbia. Several towns had electric light, and electric power

was employed at one or two Government factories and by a few private firms and mining companies. In both the old and the new territories there is abundance of water-power, which, however, had scarcely been utilized, if at all.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) Domestic

(*a*) *Principal Branches of Trade*

Up to 1914 the domestic trade of the old territories of Serbia was simple, consisting of little more than the exchange of agricultural products. The peasant's farm supplied most of the needs of himself and his family, even clothing being commonly made at home, though the demand for ready-made clothes was increasing. For the rest, sugar, coffee, and matches were the chief commodities purchased.

In the new territories the peasant used as a rule to sell his surplus crops to the agents of Salonika merchants, and to buy the few goods he was able to afford from small local dealers, whose stock was generally obtained from Salonika. Further particulars of this traffic are given under the head of Foreign Commerce.

(*b*) *Towns, Markets, and Fairs*

Belgrade, which in 1911 had a population of 90,890, is the only large town in the old territories. It had an important market, where *paprika* was the principal article of commerce. Much of the trade with Austria naturally passed through the city.

Few of the other towns were centres of much commercial activity. Nish, which stood second in point of size, with a population of 24,949, owed most of its importance to political and strategical considerations. Shabats, on the Save, which had 12,000 in-

habitants, was, however, a busy river port with a large weekly market for live stock, cheese, and grain, and at Krushevats (pop. 7,500) seven or eight markets were held annually for the sale of agricultural produce. Smederevo (pop. 7,000), on the right bank of the Danube, exported grain and live-stock, while Zayechar (pop. 8,000), on the Timok, had a considerable export trade in wool. Besides the markets mentioned above, many places had annual markets or fairs, but the volume of business done at these had declined considerably in late years, as the tariff war with Austria and consequent falling off in the export of live-stock reacted unfavourably on the home market.

In the new territories, the only notable trading centres were Skoplye, Monastir, and Prilip. Skoplye, which had nearly 47,000 inhabitants in 1912, was the receiving and distributing centre of a large area, stretching from Novibazar to Veles and from Prizren to Egri Palanka. Monastir (pop. 50,000) rendered a like office to the south-west of Serbian Macedonia. The commercial importance of Prilip (pop. 20,000) was derived from its large annual fair, which was attended by traders from regions as far distant as northern Albania. Many fairs and markets used to be held in Macedonia, but in recent times, owing in the main to the disturbed state of the country, most of them were abandoned. Their revival after the war would be a great stimulus to Macedonian trade.

(c) *Organizations to Promote Trade and Commerce*

There were, as was shown above, a number of institutions and societies which had as their object the improvement of agriculture, but there were few organizations for promoting trade in the strict sense of the word. Belgrade had a Chamber of Commerce, and there and at Nish there were trade associations, which

performed for the small merchants of those towns similar services to those rendered by the co-operative societies to agriculturists. None of these bodies, however, seems to have been of much influence.

(*d*) *Foreign Interests and Methods of Economic Penetration*

From the standpoint of modern finance, the amount of foreign capital invested in Serbia was small. Its influence, however, was considerable, for several of the larger industrial undertakings were under foreign control. Thus, at Belgrade the company which provided electric light and worked the tramways was controlled by Belgian interests, and of the two sugar factories, the one in the capital was a German enterprise, while that at Tyupriya was Austrian. Among smaller undertakings, the cement works at Popovats was wholly under German control, and half the capital of the leather factory of Gjurich & Barlovats at Belgrade was Austrian. The cloth and linen factories at Belgrade were worked by the Serbian Bank of Agram, which, however, was a foreign concern only in a technical sense.

Before the European War, the mines at Maydanpek belonged to a Belgian company, but it is stated that most of the shares had come into Austrian hands. The Bor copper mine was worked with French capital. Many other mining concessions had been granted to foreigners, but in most cases little work had been done.

British interests in Serbia are of small importance. The Serbian Mining and Dredging Syndicate, a company with British capital, has worked gold in the Maydanpek region. The Ripany Mines Ltd. was another British concern, but its capital was altogether inadequate.

It will be gathered that the economic penetration of Serbia, in the sense of attempts by foreigners to obtain control over the country's natural resources, has not made much progress, and the methods followed in the establishment of the industrial undertakings mentioned above call for no particular comment. If, however, the term economic penetration is taken to cover efforts to secure a dominating influence in commerce, it must be recognized that Serbia was very successfully penetrated by the Austrians and Germans. This aspect of the subject is treated below under the head of Foreign Commerce.

In the new territories of Serbia the Allchar mines were worked by the Salonika firm of Allatini Bros., but the foreign capital in the country was mainly invested in the railways. Of these the Salonika–Monastir line, which runs for only a short distance through Serbian territory, was originally under French control, but the company afterwards fell under German influence, owing to purchases of its shares by the Banque des Chemins de fer Orientaux. The railway from Salonika to Zibevche, with the branch from Skoplye to Mitrovitsa, was worked by the Compagnie d'exploitation des Chemins de fer Orientaux, in which German and Austrian interests predominated. After the Balkan Wars, it was arranged that these railways were to be conducted as before, pending a decision of the Financial Commission at Paris regarding their future status. No pronouncement had been made when the European War broke out.

While the resources of Serbia's new provinces have been little exploited by foreigners, their trade has for long been controlled by the great merchants of Salonika, who are aliens from the Serbian point of view. Further details are given below.

(2) Foreign

Old Territories.

As the old kingdom of Serbia nowhere touches the sea, its foreign trade has been entirely dependent on the goodwill of neighbouring States. Until recently it was at the mercy of Austria, for 90 per cent. of Serbia's exports and 60 per cent. of her imports crossed the Austrian frontier. The persistent attempts of the Dual Monarchy to turn this situation to its political advantage led to the tariff war of 1906–10, which, while causing some loss to Serbian stock-breeders, ultimately inflicted more injury on Austria. Driven by necessity, the Serbians found new markets in Turkey, Italy, and western Europe; and after the end of the tariff war, notwithstanding a new commercial treaty between the parties, it was evident that Austria's control over Serbian trade had been greatly weakened.

Of particular moment was the success of Serbia in securing an outlet for her goods down the Vardar valley and through Salonika. The Turkish Government granted valuable privileges to merchandise passing through that port in transit to or from Serbia, whose exports of cattle and cereals through Macedonia at once increased. It is true that, owing to a conjunction of unfortunate circumstances, this trade soon began to fall off; but this was in no way the fault of the Serbian authorities, who were fully alive to the value of the concessions they had obtained. The subsequent acquisition by Serbia of part of Macedonia made access to Salonika more vital to her than ever; and after the Treaty of Bucarest she lost no time in concluding with Greece an agreement still more favourable than the one with Turkey. Even if Serbia obtained a port on the Adriatic, a great part of her foreign trade would still pass along the Vardar valley; and her future will in any

event be greatly affected by the nature of the facilities granted to her goods at Salonika. The subject is treated in greater detail in *Macedonia*, No. 21 of this series.

(a) *Exports*

Quantities and Values.—The quantities and value of the principal articles exported from Serbia in certain recent years are shown in Table I of Appendix II. The years have been chosen with a view to illustrating the nature of the export trade immediately before, during, and immediately after, the tariff war with Austria. Serbia's exports, of course, consisted almost entirely of agricultural products, which, including prepared foods and drinks, were exported in 1911 to a value of £4,151,000, while the total value of the exports was only £4,677,000. The quantity and nature of the cereals exported varied much from year to year, and, with regard to animal products, it will be seen that, while the export of live cattle and pigs fell off at the beginning of the tariff war and never wholly recovered, the export of meat increased suddenly and remarkably at the end of the period under review. The following details regarding the export trade in live stock and meat in 1911 are of interest:

	Quantity.	*Value.*
	Head.	£
Horses	3,967	23,430
Horned cattle	17,788	193,530
Sheep	61,998	35,210
Pigs	7,701	23,120
	Metric Tons.	
Poultry (live)	4,108	140,010
,, (dead)	582	28,760
Meat, fresh and salted	15,321	628,240
Lard	487	21,610
Ham and sausage-meat	332	28,510
Animal fats not included above	1,288	66,300

Besides agricultural products, only minerals were exported in any quantity, and in 1911 the total value of the mineral exports was little more than £400,000, nine-tenths of which was accounted for by copper.

The total value of the exports in the years from 1905 to 1912 was as follows:

	£
1905	2,880,000
1906	2,864,000
1907	3,260,000
1908	3,110,000
1909	3,719,000
1910	3,936,000
1911	4,677,000
1912	3,369,000

Countries of Destination.—The principal purchasers of Serbia's exports are shown in Table II. Points to be particularly noticed are the adverse effect of the tariff war on trade with Austria, the evidence afforded by the figures of Serbia's success in obtaining new markets during this conflict, the striking growth of the exports to Germany, and the insignificance of the purchases of Great Britain. It should be remarked that Austria is not quite so valuable a customer of Serbia as these statistics would suggest, as many of the goods taken by her are destined for re-export to other countries.

(*b*) *Imports*

Quantities and Values.—At the head of the imports in value stood textile goods, which (including ready-made clothes) accounted in 1911 for £1,320,000 out of a total of £4,617,000. Other notable imports were machinery and metal goods, while the principal foodstuffs which entered the country were salt, coffee, sugar, and rice. The importation of sugar was declining,

owing partly to its increasing cultivation in the country, but the process was accelerated by the economic war with Austria, the main source of supply.

The total value of the imports in each of the years 1905–12 is shown below. It is remarkable that the effect of the tariff war is much more evident than in the case of the exports.

	£
1905	2,224,000
1906	1,773,000
1907	2,823,000
1908	3,025,000
1909	2,941,000
1910	3,388,000
1911	4,617,000
1912	4,244,000

Countries of Origin.—Table IV illustrates very clearly the most striking feature of Serbia's import trade in the seven or eight years preceding the Balkan Wars—namely the great increase, both absolute and relative, in the amount supplied by Germany. It is true that the success of the German trader was partly due to the tariff war, which gave him an excellent opportunity of supplanting his Austrian rival; and it is to be noted that on the return of economic peace, Austria, while not recovering her former commanding ascendancy, again became the chief contributor of Serbia's imports. But, as elsewhere in the Near East, Germany's commercial progress was mainly the result of the care and skill with which her manufacturers and exporters adapted their goods to the taste and pockets of their customers. In Serbia the effect of this was particularly evident in the textile trade, which was formerly almost a monopoly of Austria, but by 1912 had been largely captured by Germany.

If the Germans and Austrians are not to regain their commercial predominance in Serbia, their rivals will

have to pay great attention to the question of credit. The easy terms granted by German and Austrian traders to the purchasers of their goods were one of the principal causes of their success. Their policy was only made possible by a careful study of local conditions and by searching inquiries regarding the status of their customers.

The imports from Austria belonged to almost every category in the Serbian returns. Besides textiles, Germany supplied most of the hardware—a branch of the trade in which she had long held the lead. The United Kingdom stood a bad third among the countries exporting to Serbia, her contribution consisting mostly of textile goods of the more expensive qualities, which were of course quite beyond the purse of the Serbian peasant.

(c) *Customs and Tariffs*

The most recent customs tariff of Serbia, which was drawn up in 1907, is very elaborate, and a satisfactory idea of its character can only be formed by examining it in detail. Almost all the duties are levied on weight, not value, and the dutiable goods are classified with great minuteness, each class, and frequently each division of a class, having its appropriate rate. The export duties, which affect only lamb and kid skins and various waste products, call for no special remark. There seems to be no common purpose underlying the import duties. Some, such as the charges on sugar and cereals, are apparently protective in both intention and effect. Others, like the elaborately graded imposts on textile goods, may have been designed to protect home industries, but in practice have proved valuable sources of revenue; while the high duties on coffee and articles of luxury must have been intended merely to benefit the treasury.

Apart from food-stuffs, raw materials are in general admitted free, copper being a conspicuous exception, and the duties on machinery are mostly low. The general tariff, moreover, has been modified in favour of various foreign countries with which Serbia has concluded commercial treaties. For instance, several kinds of British machinery are admitted free; but such complete exemption is very rare. Tobacco, salt, and one or two other articles are Government monopolies.

In addition to the charges of the general tariff, a few food-stuffs, various kinds of fuel, and certain materials for lighting and building are subject to a special tax called *trosharina*. This is levied for purely fiscal purposes, as it is imposed not merely on imports, but also, as an excise duty, on native products. The principal articles on which *trosharina* is paid are refined sugar, coffee, rice, edible oil, beer, fine wines, liqueurs, boards and planks, girders and beams, window and plate glass, and cement.

(*d*) *Commercial Treaties*

Up to the Treaty of Berlin of 1878 Serbia's commercial policy was determined by the Ottoman Government. During the early years of her independence, she narrowly escaped falling into economic subjection to Austria, who, though foiled in an attempt to form a Customs Union between the two States, succeeded in preventing her from concluding commercial agreements with other countries and forced her to accept a treaty under which her trade became virtually an Austrian monopoly. In 1893, however, Austria's influence was shaken by Great Britain and Germany, with whom Serbia made treaties providing for mutual most-favoured-nation treatment; and the Vienna

Government had to consent to the raising of the duties on Austrian goods entering Serbia. In 1901 Serbia signed conventions with Russia, whereby the railway and steamship rates for goods going from one country to the other were much reduced, and in 1904, by a second treaty between Serbia and Germany, preferential treatment was granted by each State to certain products of the other. Continuing her independent policy, Serbia in the following year not only concluded with Montenegro an agreement arranging for reciprocal most-favoured-nation treatment, but also entered into a Customs Union with Bulgaria. Thereupon Austria, resolved to recover her waning authority in the Balkans, denounced her treaty with Serbia, and closed her frontiers to Serbian live-stock. The tariff war of 1906–10 followed.

Serbia was compelled to seek new outlets for her exports. She entered into advantageous agreements with certain steamship companies, negotiated reductions of freight in favour of her goods on the railways of Bulgaria and Turkey, and concluded a number of commercial treaties, of which those with Russia, Italy, Belgium, France, and the United Kingdom deserve particular mention.

The treaty with Russia arranged for the grant of special facilities to the goods of the two parties on the Danube and on the railways of each. It was to hold good for ten years or until denounced.

The treaty with Italy did not reduce the Italian tariff in favour of Serbia, but 'conventionalized' the duties in respect of certain Serbian goods, such as cattle, pigs, and cereals. In return a number of Italian imports into Serbia received preferential treatment. The duration of the treaty was to be ten years, unless it were previously denounced.

The treaty with Belgium 'conventionalized' in respect of Serbian goods the Belgian duties then in force, and specified the maximum duties to be levied on Belgian goods entering Serbia. These were in some cases lower than the charges prescribed in the general tariff. Duration: ten years or until denounced.

France was granted tariff reductions in respect of certain goods of French origin, especially wines and medicines.

The treaty with the United Kingdom, the duration of which was fixed at ten years, laid down that each party was to accord most-favoured-nation treatment to the other, and fixed the maximum duties payable by British imports into Serbia. The effect was that certain British goods, notably cotton yarns and machinery, obtained preferential treatment.

All these treaties were signed in 1907. Three years later, Serbia and Portugal, by a treaty to last for ten years, unless previously denounced, accorded to each other most-favoured-nation treatment.

Of more importance, perhaps, than any of the agreements mentioned was the arrangement made with Turkey regarding the Serbian transit trade through Salonika. Serbian exports and imports were to pass through the port free of duty; and, in order to facilitate the trade in cattle, the Serbian Government was allowed to rent part of the harbour and an adjacent piece of land. In return for these privileges and the concessions granted her on the Turkish railways, Serbia reduced her customs tariff in favour of certain Turkish goods.

Serbia's enterprising policy, though it brought her substantial advantages, did not yield all the results that had been expected, and in 1910 she found it advisable to come to a settlement with Austria. In

the consequent treaty, she granted to Austrian goods easier terms than those for which she had stood out in previous negotiations, and while the Austrian frontier was again opened to Serbian live-stock, it was stipulated that not more than 15,000 cattle and 35,000 pigs were to be exported to Austria annually, and that the trade must be confined to eight specified frontier-stations. Serbian stock-raisers seem to have been satisfied with the treaty, but it was regarded as unfavourable to Serbian trade as a whole. It was still in force in 1914.

After the Balkan Wars a treaty between Serbia and Greece confirmed and enlarged the privileges enjoyed by Serbian goods at Salonika, and there was apparently some discussion between the Governments regarding the grant of still further concessions and the extension of the Serbian property at the port. This question will have to be considered again in the near future.

New Territories.

The foreign commerce of the newly-acquired provinces was almost wholly dependent on Salonika. It was not merely that the bulk of the exports and imports passed through the port, but the trade itself was controlled by Salonika merchants, to whom the surplus produce of the region was sold and from whom the stock-in-trade of the local retailers was bought. For any merchant in Serbia's new territories to sell goods direct to a foreign firm was most exceptional, and though a few houses at Skoplye and Monastir bought textiles, hardware, and sugar from abroad without the intervention of any intermediary, such purchases were of but small account in comparison with the total volume of imports.

There were several reasons for the dependence of the up-country dealer on the great merchants of Salonika. In the first place, he was generally an ill-educated man, quite unfitted to bargain by letter with powerful foreign firms. Moreover, he seldom had large quantities of goods for export; and, as in most cases his business consisted of a general store, he rarely wished to purchase any commodity in great bulk, but wanted small supplies of many different articles. He consequently saved himself much correspondence, much trouble with railway companies and customs officials, and probably much expense, by dealing only with one or two Salonika houses, which would generally have agents in his neighbourhood and which up to 1912 were separated from him by no customs barrier. More important, however, than any of these considerations was the credit granted by the Salonika merchants, who, kept informed by their agents of the position and prospects of their clients, were accustomed to allow them very liberal terms, such as even German and Austrian firms could not venture to concede.

The period of peace after the Balkan Wars was too short to reveal the effect of the partition of Macedonia on the system just described. It is known that the Austrian consular authorities at Skoplye hoped that the new arrangements would weaken the commercial connexion between northern Macedonia and Salonika, to the advantage of Austrian trade; but up to the outbreak of the European War there was no sign that their expectations were likely to be fulfilled. No light is thrown on the question by the available statistics. For the period before 1912 there are in fact no figures referring exactly to the territories afterwards acquired by Serbia; and, though the Serbian Government published statistics of the foreign trade of this region for

1914, it could not show the origin or ultimate destination of many of the commodities in its list, still less what proportion of them passed through the hands of Salonika firms. Apart from this drawback, the value of the figures, which are given in Table V of the Appendix, is much discounted by the fact that the European War broke out soon after the middle of the year to which they refer.

The chief sources of the imports of Macedonia as a whole in the period immediately preceding the Balkan Wars are shown in the volume on that region. Except that the districts afterwards allotted to Serbia probably imported rather more goods by rail than the rest of the country, their import trade presented no peculiar features; and the principal foreign States contributed to it in much the same proportions as to the import trade of Macedonia at large.

(D) FINANCE

(1) Public Finance

The revenue and expenditure for the year 1914 were estimated as follows:

Revenue

	£
Direct taxes	2,293,880
Customs	600,440
Tax on provisions	1,020,840
Justice and stamp tax	424,280
State monopoly revenue	2,149,720
Domains	159,920
Posts and telegraphs	252,880
State railways	1,013,200
Various revenues	384,240
Extraordinary revenue	273,480
Total	8,572,880

Expenditure

	£
Civil List	55,200
Redemption and interest of State debt	1,839,000
Parliament	34,920
Pensions	396,720
Minister of Justice	162,120
Minister of Education and Religion	580,160
Minister for Foreign Affairs	103,320
Minister for Home Affairs	306,320
Minister of Finance	1,030,720
Minister of War	2,172,820
Minister of Public Works	1,388,400
Minister of Agriculture	305,520
Various expenses	94,800
Total	8,470,020

This budget is for the old and new territories together. The budgets of the previous years apply only to the territory possessed by Serbia before the Balkan Wars. They are as follows:

Year.	*Revenue.*	*Expenditure.*
	£	£
1909	4,205,222	4,153,254
1910	4,663,245	4,474,461
1911	4,805,458	4,803,262
1912	5,118,000	4,708,240
1913	5,230,600	5,230,600

The Serbian Public Debt, contracted under seven loans at rates ranging from 2 to 5 per cent., amounted on January 1, 1915, to £35,900,000; the debt charge was £1,840,000.

In 1896 an independent monopoly administration was established by the State; under it the monopoly of certain articles is controlled, viz. tobacco, salt, petroleum, matches, cigarette-paper, alcohol, spirits, and beer.

The gross receipts from these monopolies for the years 1906–8 are given below:

	Tobacco.	*Salt.*	*Petroleum.*	*Matches.*	*Cigarette paper.*
	£	£	£	£	£
1906 .	627,151	201,675	136,342	32,367	50,160
1907 .	643,764	209,455	140,554	34,528	50,970
1908 .	672,068	197,891	146,523	34,828	52,393

	Beer and beer stamps	£
1907	. . . . .	249,283
1908	. . . . .	257,003

The net receipts considerably exceeded the amount required for the Sinking Fund and interest on the Public Debt. Appended are the figures for three recent years:

Year.	*Net Receipts.*	*Set apart for Sinking Fund.*	*Surplus paid to State Revenue.*
	£	£	£
1912 . .	1,770,100	1,308,279	461,821
1913 . .	2,160,000	1,312,000	848,000
1914 . .	2,680,000	1,839,000	841,000

(2) Currency

Since 1875 Serbia has employed the decimal system. The Serbian dinar is the equivalent of the franc. Gold coins of the value of 20 dinars (milan d'or) and 10 dinars are in circulation; there are silver coins of 5, 2, 1, and 0·5 dinar. The dinar is subdivided into 100 paras; there are bronze coins of 10 and 5 paras, and nickel coins of 20, 10, and 5 paras. Very little gold is in circulation; the actual currency is mainly silver and bank-notes of the National Bank of Serbia.

The old Turkish names of the coins and methods of reckoning are still in use, especially in the country.

(3) Banking

In 1914 the principal banks in Serbia were the following:

Uprava Fondova (*Crédit foncier du royaume de Serbie*).—This is the State Bank of Serbia, founded in 1862 and reorganized in 1898. It manages public funds, both national and local, makes advances to public authorities or negotiates loans in their behalf, and lends money on mortgage to agriculturists. All its engagements are guaranteed by the State. In 1913 its capital was £8,000,000.

The National Bank of Serbia (*Banque Nationale privilégiée de Serbie*).—Founded in 1883. Its nominal capital is £800,000, of which half has been paid up. At the end of 1913 it had in circulation notes to the value of £4,127,000. Its main object is to stimulate trade by granting cheap credit.

Export Bank (*Banque d'Exportation*).—Founded in 1901 for the promotion of foreign trade. It advances money on national produce destined for export. It had branches at several places outside Serbia, including Budapest, Vienna, and Berlin.

Banque Franco-Serbe.—This bank, which has its official head-quarters at Paris, was founded by the Imperial Ottoman Bank and several French banking companies. Its business is directed by its Belgrade house. It has branches at Skoplye and Monastir. Its capital is £480,000, its reserve £27,400.

Privredna Banka (*Banque Générale du Commerce et de l'Industrie*).—Established in 1907. The principal business of this bank is the financing of industrial and commercial undertakings. Capital: £120,000; reserve, £10,000.

Prometna Banka.—This bank does general banking business. Capital, £120,000; reserve, £48,000.

Banque du pays Serbe.—Established in 1906. Capital, £80,000 ; reserve, £2,400.

Banque de Crédit Serbe.—Established in 1883. It specializes in foreign business. Capital, £48,000 ; reserve, £8,000.

Andrejevits & Co., Soc. Anon.—An important Belgrade banking firm, with a capital of £160,000, and several agencies in the country.

Of the foreign banks with branches or agencies in Serbia the most important was the Ungarische Bank und Handels-Aktiengesellschaft, whose head-quarters are at Budapest.

Besides the banks mentioned, several others, native and foreign, have offices at Belgrade, and in most of the smaller towns, even where branches of important concerns have been established, there are a number of small banking firms and credit societies whose business is confined to the immediate neighbourhood.

In the new provinces, little banking has been done. The Banque de Salonique, the Imperial Ottoman Bank, and the Banque Franco-Serbe each had branches at Skoplye and Monastir, but the business of the Imperial Ottoman Bank in Macedonia was being wound up in 1914. Particulars of the important Banque de Salonique, in which Austrian influence was strong, are given in *Macedonia*, No. 21 of this series. In 1915 the Agricultural Bank of Serbia was established with a view to promoting agriculture in the new territories.

APPENDIX I

CONCORDATO STIPULATO FRA LA S. SEDE ED IL GOVERNO DI SERBIA

[June 24, 1914]

In nome della Santissima Trinità

Sua Santità il Sommo Pontefice Pio X e Sua Maestà Pietro I Re di Serbia, allo scopo di tutelare gli interessi religiosi dei Cattolici nel Regno di Serbia, hanno risoluto di fare un Concordato, nominando a tale effetto due Plenipotenziari, cioè :

per parte di Sua Santità : l'E^mo^ e Rev^mo^ signor Cardinale Merry del Val, Suo Segretario di Stato ; e per parte di Sua Maestà : Sua Eccellenza il Signor Milenko R. Vesnitch, Inviato Straordinario e Ministro Plenipotenziario di Sua Maestà il Re di Serbia in Francia e nel Belgio, Gran Croce dell' Ordine di San Sava, dottore in legge, ecc. ;

i quali scambiati i loro rispettivi Pieni Poteri e trovatili in buona e dovuta forma, convennero negli articoli seguenti :

Art. 1

La religione cattolica apostolica romana avrá il suo libero e pubblico esercizio nel Regno di Serbia.

Art. 2

Si costituisce nel Regno di Serbia una Provincia Ecclesiastica, composta dell'archidiocesi di Belgrado, con sede nella capitale del Regno—avente come territorio quello compreso nei confini della Serbia prima dei trattati di Londra e di Bukarest dell' anno 1913—e della diocesi di Scopia, suffraganea, con sede in detta città, passando dalla giurisdizione di Propaganda Fide al diritto comune.

Art. 3

L'Arcivescovo di Belgrado e il Vescovo di Scopia, alla cui giurisdizione ecclesiastica appartengono tutti i Cattolici del Regno di Serbia, dipenderanno negli affari ecclesiastici direttamente ed esclusivamente dalla Santa Sede.

ART. 4

Sua Santità, prima di nominare definitivamente l'Arcivescovo di Belgrado e il Vescovo di Scopia, notificherà al Regio Governo la persona del rispettivo candidato, per conoscere se vi sieno fatti o ragioni di ordine politico o civile in contrario.

ART. 5

L'Arcivescovo di Belgrado e il Vescovo di Scopia riceveranno dal Regio Governo un emolumento annuo, il primo di dinari 12,000, con un' aggiunta di 4,000 dinari, ed il secondo di dinari 10,000, con diritto a pensione non inferiore a quella degli impiegati dello Stato.

ART. 6

Il titolo ufficiale dell'Arcivescovo di Belgrado e del Vescovo di Scopia sarà di Illustrissimo e Reverendissimo Monsignore.

ART. 7

Prima di entrare in funzione l'Arcivescovo di Belgrado ed il Vescovo di Scopia presteranno, alla presenza di un delegato del Regio Governo, il giuramento di fedeltà nella formola seguente: 'Io giuro e prometto dinanzi a Dio e sopra i Santi Evangeli obbedienza e fedeltà a Sua Maestà il Re di Serbia; prometto di non partecipare ad accordo qualsiasi, nè di assistere ad alcun consiglio, nè d' incoraggiare o lasciar cooperare il Clero a me subordinato a qualsivoglia impresa che tenda a turbare la pubblica tranquillitá dello Stato.'

ART. 8

L'Arcivescovo di Belgrado e il Vescovo di Scopia avranno piena libertà nell' esercizio delle funzioni ecclesiastiche e nel regime delle loro diocesi, e potranno esercitare tutti i diritti e le prerogative del loro pastorale ministero, secondo la disciplina approvata dalla Chiesa. Da loro, nelle rispettive diocesi, dipendono tutti i membri del clero cattolico, in ciò che riguarda l' esercizio del sacro ministero.

ART. 9

All'Arcivescovo di Belgrado ed al Vescovo di Scopia, spetta, nella rispettiva diocesi, l'erezione delle parrocchie, d'intelligenza col Regio Governo. Ad essi spetta pure la nomina dei parroci. Se però trattasi di persone estranee al Regno, procederanno d' intelligenza col Governo Serbo; se poi trattasi di suddit-

serbi, i Vescovi s' informeranno in precedenza presso il competente Ministero per conoscere se vi siano ragioni o fatti d'ordine politico o civile in contrario.

ART. 10

L' istruzione religiosa della gioventù cattolica è sottoposta in tutte le scuole all' Arcivescovo ed al Vescovo nelle rispettive diocesi. Nelle scuole della Stato essa verrà impartita da catechisti che, previo commune accordo, saranno nominati dal Vescovo e dal Ministro dell' Istruzione Pubblica e dei Culti. I Vescovi possono interdire l' insegnamento religioso, anche nelle scuole dello Stato, a quei catechisti che si mostrassero non adatti alla missione loro affidata dandone partecipazione al Ministero dell' Istruzione Pubblica e dei Culti, per procedere ad altra nomina. Il Regio Governo stipendierà i catechisti nelle scuole dello Stato. La qualità di parroco non è incompatibile con quella di catechista.

ART. 11

Per la formazione di giovani serbi idonei al sacerdozio cattolico sarà istituito un seminario nella capitale o nelle sue vicinanze, cui lo Stato fornirà un' equa annua dotazione, restando all' autorità ecclesiastica rispettiva la cura di sistemarlo e governarlo in conformità delle disposizioni canoniche. In questo seminario sarà usata per le discipline non ecclesiastiche la lingua d' insegnamento serba.

ART. 12

Il Regio Governo riconosce la validità dei matrimoni fra Cattolici e dei matrimoni misti, contratti alla presenza del parroco cattolico secondo le leggi della Chiesa.

ART. 13

Le cause matrimoniali fra cattolici, e fra coniugi di matrimoni misti, celebrati dinnanzi al parroco cattolico, eccetto in ciò che riguardo gli effetti, meramente civili, saranno giudicate dai tribunali ecclesiastici cattolici.

ART. 14

Il coniuge cattolico avrá diritto di stabilire che la prole dei matrimoni misti, celebrati dinnanzi al parroco cattolico, venga educata nella religione cattolica.

ART. 15

La formola di preghiera Pel Sovrano : ' Domine, salvum fac Regem ', sarà cantata negli uffici divini in lingua slava o latina, a seconda delle condizioni locali.

ART. 16

Lo Stato riconosce che la Chiesa, rappresentata dalle legittime sue autorità e dai suoi ordini gerarchici, ha vera e propria personalità giuridica e capacità di esercitare i diritte che le appartengono.

ART. 17

La Chiesa ha diritto di acquistare per giusto titolo, di possedere e liberamente amministrare beni si mobili che immobili destinati pei fini propri della Chiesa e delle sue istituzioni nel Regno, e le cose da lei acquistate e le sue fondazioni sono inviolabili come i beni propri dei cittadini dello Stato.

ART. 18

Le proprietà della Chiesa potranno essere assoggettate ai pubblici tributi, come i beni degli altri cittadini, eccettuati tuttavia gli edifici destinati al culto divino, i seminari e le case dei Vescovi e dei parroci, i quali saranno immuni da tasse e non potranno mai essere destinati od adibiti ad altro uso.

ART. 19

I sacerdoti ed i chierici, secolari e regolari, non potranno essere obbligati ad esercitare pubblici uffici che fossero contrari al sacro loro ministero ed alla vita clericale.

ART. 20

Se in avvenire sorgesse qualche difficoltà sulla interpretazione dei precedenti articoli o su questioni per avventura dagli stessi non contemplate, la Santa Sede e il Regio Governo procederanno, di comune intelligenza, ad un' amichevole soluzione, in armonia col diritto canonico.

ART. 21

La presente convenzione entrerà in vigore immediatamente dopo la ratifica di Sua Santità il Sommo Pontefice e di Sua Maestà il Re di Serbia.

ART. 22

Lo Scambio delle ratifiche avrà luogo in Roma nel più breve tempo possibile.

RAFFAELE Card. MERRY DEL VAL.

ROMA, 24 *giugno* 1914. MIL. R. VESNITCH.

AGGIUNTA AL CONCORDATO

Dal Vaticano, 24 giugno 1914.

Il sottoscritto Cardinale Segretario di Stato, a complemento del Concordato e come parte integrante di esso, ha l' onore di significare a Sua Eccellenza il signor Dottor Milenko Vesnitch, Inviato Straordinario e Ministro Plenipotenziario di Serbia, quanto segue :

Il Santo Padre consente che i Cattolici di rito latino del Regno di Serbia, in quelle parrocchie che (in base alla lingua parlata dai rispettivi parrocchiani) verranno nominatamente designate dalla Santa Sede, possano servirsi della lingua paleo-slavica nella sacra liturgia e che in essa possano usare i caratteri glagolitici.

Inoltre Sua Santità estende alle suddette parrocchie il decreto della S. Congregazione dei Riti del 18 dicembre 1906, n. 4196, in quanto con esso viene regolato l'uso del Rituale Romano (nei battesimi, matrimoni, funerali, ecc.) e il canto o la recita delle preci, dell' Epistola e del Vangelo in lingua slava.

Il Rituale, l' Evangelistario e le preci, di cui è parola nel precedente capoverso, possono essere stampati coi caratteri civili attualmente in uso in Serbia.

Il sottoscritto Cardinale profitta ben volentieri di questa occasione per rinnovare al prelodato signor Ministro i sentimenti dell' alta sua considerazione.

RAFFAELE Card. MERRY DEL VAL.

Le ratifiche del Concordato vennero scambiate in Roma il 20 *marzo* 1915.

APPENDIX II

Table I.—Quantities and Value of the Principal Articles of Domestic Produce exported from Serbia

	1905		1907		1909		1911	
	Quantity. Number.	*Value.* £	*Quantity. Number.*	*Value.* £	*Quantity. Number.*	*Value.* £	*Quantity. Number.*	*Value.* £
Horned cattle . .	71,789	415,520	13,248	81,360	35,309	256,400	17,788	193,530
Pigs	122,202	585,400	14,825	64,160	20,262	45,040	7,701	23,120
			Metric Tons		*Metric Tons*		*Metric Tons*	
Poultry, live . .	1,804,809	57,760	167	5,680	436	17,040	4,108	140,010
	Metric Tons							
Meat, fresh and salted.	3,615	115,680	4,399	152,120	3,543	130,480	15,321	628,240
Hides and skins . .	1,860	141,320	1,129	115,680	1,607	128,720	1,649	148,840
Wheat . . .	93,147	519,960	54,227	412,120	144,139	1,167,200	91,615	635,520
Barley . . .	17,589	73,880	31,026	161,640	61,250	300,040	19,584	119,320
Maize . . .	20,476	77,360	102,783	472,800	95,155	505,880	117,491	578,160
Fruit, fresh . .	—	81,520	—	99,720	—	85,440	—	82,640
Prunes . . .	54,076	483,320	42,648	629,760	9,491	87,800	33,267	659,760
Total value of principal and other exports .		2,880,000		3,260,000		3,719,000		4,677,000

TABLE II.—PRINCIPAL DESTINATIONS OF SERBIAN EXPORTS

	1905		1907		1909		1911	
	£	*Percentage.*	£	*Percentage.*	£	*Percentage.*	£	*Percentage.*
Austria-Hungary . .	2,588,500	89·9	517,300	15·9	1,163,900	31·3	1,937,300	41·4
Belgium . . .	12,900	0·4	520,400	16	396,000	10·6	245,700	5·3
Bulgaria . . .	48,800	1·7	79,800	2·4	145,300	4·9	112,100	2·4
France	1,500	0·05	148,300	4·5	97,200	2·6	153,600	3·3
Germany . . .	84,600	3	1,317,000	40·4	623,800	16·8	1,157,300	24·7
Italy	2,600	0·09	196,000	6	121,900	3·3	175,800	3·8
Rumania . . .	43,900	1·5	47,500	1·5	91,300	2·5	245,600	5·3
Turkish Empire . .	89,800	3·1	175,200	5·4	879,000	23·6	479,400	10·3
United Kingdom . .	—	—	93,600	2·9	5,700	0·2	3,500	0·07

TABLE III.—VALUE OF PRINCIPAL ARTICLES IMPORTED INTO SERBIA

	1905	1907	1909	1911
	£	£	£	£
Chemicals and drugs	38,440	107,840	99,640	195,240
Clothing, ready-made	55,320	44,160	78,480	84,560
Coffee	43,440	36,280	39,360	63,360
Cotton yarns	173,880	247,240	205,600	312,120
Cotton manufactures	195,160	326,400	246,720	398,800
Hides, raw	85,640	194,880	84,880	210,200
Leather	51,760	87,440	78,720	110,120
Linen manufactures	66,960	28,520	49,480	61,520
Machinery (not electrical)	112,320	200,720	122,400	296,120
Metals and metal ware:				
Iron and steel	199,840	347,560	467,840	615,280
Other metals	47,760	74,920	65,920	163,160
Paper	62,880	81,440	72,600	101,920
Rice	31,920	27,000	28,440	34,880
Salt	23,800	68,520	44,800	103,960
Sugar, raw and refined	94,280	65,360	36,800	33,640
Wood	40,520	28,560	25,600	63,560
Woollen yarns	36,640	48,360	35,520	55,560
Woollen manufactures	111,840	135,400	138,320	172,520
Total value of principal and other articles	2,224,000	2,823,000	2,941,000	4,617,000

TABLE IV.—IMPORTS OF SERBIA, SHOWING PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES OF ORIGIN

	1905		1907		1909		1911	
	£	*Percentage.*	£	*Percentage.*	£	*Percentage.*	£	*Percentage.*
Austria-Hungary . .	1,335,000	60	1,024,000	36·3	711,900	24·2	1,897,900	40·7
Belgium . . .	14,200	0·6	30,200	1·1	63,600	2·2	83,200	1·8
France	32,800	1·5	97,200	3·4	141,400	4·8	229,800	5
Germany . . .	250,500	11·3	812,800	28·8	1,154,100	39·2	1,253,900	27·2
Italy	31,300	1·4	92,000	3·3	93,800	3·2	194,400	4·2
Rumania . . .	24,800	1·1	70,100	2·8	64,900	2·2	61·600	1·3
Russia	32,200	1·4	14,200	0·5	77,300	2·6	135,600	2·9
Switzerland . . .	26,100	1·2	57,000	2	55,000	1·9	62,000	1·3
Turkish Empire . .	104,100	4·7	133,100	4·7	194,200	6·6	152,600	3·3
United Kingdom . .	212,600	9·6	408,800	14·5	303,400	10·3	381,000	8·3
United States . .	52,000	2·3	7,200	0·3	34,800	1·2	85,400	1·8

TABLE V.—FOREIGN TRADE OF THE NEW TERRITORIES OF SERBIA, 1914

	Exports. £		*Imports.* £
Cereals	54,240	Cereals	67,840
Rice	24,640	Rice	55,200
Flour	15,120	Flour	184,120
Opium	287,160	Fruit	25,400
Leaf tobacco	230,240	Sugar	161,120
Fruit (chiefly grapes)	142,240	Coffee	45,680
Sheep	71,720	Salt	45,920
Sheep's wool	13,920	Spirit	32,200
Hides and skins	98,640	Tobacco	76,160
Silk cocoons	120,000	Cotton, woollen, and silk goods, including yarn	658,360
Other goods	45,880	Jute goods	33,880
		Leather and leather goods	90,480
		Paper	32,600
		Chemicals and drugs	51,160
		Glass and china	34,000
		Metals and hardware	223,000
		Machinery	20,480
		Building material	25,600
		Petroleum	49,840
		Other goods	222,640
Total	1,103,800	Total	2,135,680

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(1) The Treaty of Berlin, 1878.

(2) The Treaty of London of May 30, 1913.

(3) The Greco-Serbian Treaty of Alliance and the Military Convention of June 1 (n. s.), 1913. In *Διπλωματικὰ Ἔγγραφα.* (*ἐν Ἀθήναις*, 1917.)

(4) The Treaty of Bucarest of August 10, 1913.

The full texts of (1), (2), and (4) are printed in the Appendix to No. 15, *Eastern Question*.

MAPS

Serbia is comprised in two sheets (Sofiya, K. 34; and Buda Pest, L. 34) of the International Map published by the War Office (G.S.G.S. 2758) on the scale of 1 : 1,000,000. For historical boundaries and ethnography see Table and note of maps in *The Eastern Question*, No. 15 in this series.

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