D
6
.G7

OOKS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE
ICAL SECTION OF THE FOREIGN OFFICE.—No. 10

THE AUSTRIAN LITTORAL

LONDON:
PUBLISHED BY H.M. STATIONERY OFFICE.

1920

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS

THE LIBRARY OF CONGRESS
1800

Class D6
Book .G7

153

HANDBOOKS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE HISTORICAL SECTION OF THE FOREIGN OFFICE.—No. 10

503
1407

THE AUSTRIAN LITTORAL

LONDON:
PUBLISHED BY H.M. STATIONERY OFFICE

1920

2d set

D6
.G7

D. of D.
MAY 27 1920

Editorial Note.

In the spring of 1917 the Foreign Office, in connection 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 enquiries 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.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PAGE

I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

General Description 1

ISTRIA

(1) Position and Frontiers 1
(2) Surface, Coasts, Islands, and River System
Surface 2
Coasts 3
Quarnero Islands 5
River System 6
(3) Climate 6
(4) Sanitary Conditions 7
(5) Race and Language
Race 8
Language 9
(6) Population
Distribution 9
Towns and Villages 10
Movement 11

GORIZIA-GRADISCA AND TRIESTE

(1) Position and Frontiers 11
(2) Surface, Coast, and River System
Surface 11
Coast 12
River System 12
(3) Climate 13
(4) Sanitary Conditions 14
(5) Race and Language 14
(6) Population
Distribution 15
Towns and Villages 15
Movement 16

Wt. 36997/250. 1,000. 3/20. O.U.P.

PAGE

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

Chronological Summary 17

ISTRIA

Origins. The Margravate and County of Istria . 18
The Slovene Settlement 20
The Napoleonic and Post-Napoleonic Arrangements 20

GORIZIA–GRADISCA 21

TRIESTE 22

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) Religious 24
(2) Political 25
(3) Educational 26

General Observations

(1) Popular Opinion and National Sentiment . . 29
(2) Questions specially interesting other Countries . 30
The Italian Case 31
Austria 31
The Slovenes 32

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

ISTRIA

(A) Means of Communication

(1) Internal
(*a*) Roads 33
(*b*) Rivers and Canals 34
(*c*) Railways 34
(*d*) Posts, Telegraphs, and Telephones . . 36

(2) External
(*a*) Ports 36
(*b*) Shipping Lines 40
(*c*) Wireless Communication 41

PAGE

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) Agriculture 41
(a) Labour Conditions : Methods of Cultivation 42
(b) Products of Commercial Value . . . 43
Cereals 44
Wine 44
Olives 45
Fruit and Vegetables 45
Silk 46
Honey and Aromatic Plants . . . 46
Live Stock 46
(c) Forestry 47
(d) Land Tenure 49
(2) Fisheries 50
(3) Minerals 51
(4) Minor Industries 52
(5) Water-power 53

(C) COMMERCE 54
(1) Exports 54
(2) Imports 54

(D) FINANCE
(1) Public Finance 55
(2) Currency 56
(3) Banking 56

(E) GENERAL REMARKS 57

GORIZIA–GRADISCA

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION
(1) Internal
(a) Roads 58
(b) Rivers 60
(c) Railways 60
(2) External
(a) Ports 62
(b) Shipping 63

PAGE

(B) Industry
(1) Labour 63
(2) Agriculture
(a) Variety of Soils and Climates . . . 64
(b) Products of Commercial Value
Cereals 66
Wine 66
Fruit and Vegetables 66
Olives 67
Rice 67
Silk 67
Honey and Wax 68
Live Stock 68
(c) Forestry 68
(d) Land Tenure 70
(3) Fisheries 71
(4) Minerals 71
(5) Manufactures 72
(6) Water-power and Irrigation 74
(C) Commerce
(1) Domestic 75
(2) Foreign 75
(a) Exports 75
(b) Imports 76
(D) Finance
(1) Public Finance 76
(2) Currency 77
(3) Banking 77
(E) General Remarks 78

TRIESTE

(A) Railway Communications 79
(B) Port Accommodation 80
(C) Shipping
(1) General Development 82
(2) Shipping Companies
(i) Austrian 83
(ii) Hungarian 85

PAGE

(iii) Italian 86
(iv) British 86

(D) Industry
(1) Agriculture 87
Cereals 87
Wine 88
Live Stock 88
Silk 88
(2) Forestry 88
(3) Manufactures 89

(E) Commerce 92
(1) Exports 93
(2) Imports 94

(F) Finance 96

(G) General Remarks 96

APPENDIX

Principal Place-names of the Littoral, showing Italian and Slav Equivalents 99
Distribution of Races in the Littoral, according to the Austrian Census of 1910 100
Table I. Shipping entered at Trieste in 1911 and 1912 103
„ II. Shipping cleared at Trieste in 1911 and 1912 103
„ III. Values of Principal Exports from Trieste by Land and Sea, 1909–11 . . . 104
„ IV. Values of Principal Imports into Trieste by Land and Sea, 1909–11 . . . 104

AUTHORITIES

Historical and Economic 105
Maps 106

I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

General Description

The province of the Austrian Littoral (*Küstenland*) comprises the counties of Istria (including the Quarnero Islands) and Gorizia–Gradisca (Görz und Gradisca) and the city and district of Trieste. It marches on the west with Italy (Venetia), in the extreme north for a short distance with Carinthia (Kärnten), on the north-east with Carniola (Krain), and in the east with Croatia-Slavonia and Fiume. The total area is 3,077 square miles; the population in 1910 was 827,269, and was estimated to have increased to 938,008 in 1913.

ISTRIA

(1) Position and Frontiers

The peninsula of Istria, as officially defined by Austria, lies between 44° 46′ and 45° 39′ north latitude and between 13° 29′ and 14° 29′ east longitude. To it belong the Quarnero Islands (see pp. 5, 6). The line dividing these from the islands which belong to Dalmatia passes between Pervicchio and Gregorio, thence southwards down the Quarnerolo Gulf, and between the islands of Asinello and Premuda. The Istrian Islands extend as far east as 14° 50′ east longitude, and as far south as latitude 44° 23′ north.

Istria is bounded on three sides by the sea, but its northern and only land frontier more or less follows the edge of the Čičen (Tschitschen) plain, above the valley of the River Reka (Timavo) as far as Cabranska.

Here it bends abruptly south along the boundary of the Fiume territory.

The natural approach to Istria is by sea. Except for the narrow strip of land leading to Trieste along the west coast, the Karst plateau effectually cuts off the peninsula from the north.

(2) Surface, Coasts, Islands, and River System

Surface

Istria is a triangle about 62 miles long, with a maximum breadth of 47 miles. Its area, including the islands, is 1,913 square miles. It is merely a spur of the great Alpine chain, and has none of the characteristics of a coast plain.

Istria falls naturally into three divisions: (1) White Istria, (2) Yellow Istria, (3) Red Istria.

White Istria.—White Istria is the barren Karst limestone region, which extends from the neighbourhood of Trieste to Fianona Point on the east coast. This region is essentially mountainous. It attains its most characteristic development in the Čičen plain, which begins at the Rosandra and extends along the whole of the north-east of the peninsula. Its western end has the character of a level plain with terraced slopes, and is unwooded; its eastern end is thickly wooded, notably on the Castua Karst, and along it run the Vena and Caldiera Mountains, which meet and culminate in Monte Maggiore (altitude 4,600 ft.), and then fall away towards Fianona Point. All this region is typical Karst territory, broken and barren, with great heaps of rocks and stones, and honeycombed with the swallow-holes, caverns, and other hollows, usually known as *doline*, which carry the water underground.

Yellow Istria.—Yellow Istria, the central region of

sandstone, lies below the Karst plateau. It is almost cut in two by an arm of limestone running into it from the neighbourhood of Buje. It extends along the west coast as far south as Pirano Bay, while its eastern limit is formed by Monte Maggiore and the shores of Lake Arsa, and nowhere reaches the coast. Mountains begin south of Capodistria, among them being Paugnano (altitude 1,330 ft.), and continue to the Quieto valley and beyond.

Red Istria.—Red Istria is the great triangle lying south of the line between Salvore Point and Fianona Point. The foundation is limestone, but the surface is covered by a thick layer of red loam several yards deep. Virtually the whole of this region is less than 520 ft. above sea-level.

Red Istria is crossed by a number of valleys which run into the sea in fjord-like formations and are serious hindrances to communication. These valleys divide Red Istria into four main regions: (*a*) The Buje Karst, which lies to the north of the Quieto valley. (*b*) The Parenzo Karst, south of the Quieto. (*c*) The Rovigno–Pola Karst, on the other side of the Canale di Leme. This is cut up by a number of tortuous depressions, which provide valuable land defences for the port of Pola. (*d*) The Albona Karst, which lies to the east of the Rovigno–Pola Karst, and is joined to the mainland only by a narrow isthmus.

Coasts

Except for the alluvial soil at the mouths of a few rivers, the coasts of Istria are steep and rocky, but not high. East of Monte Maggiore a ridge runs along the coast, forming a steep cliff, some 2,000 ft. in height. Protected as it is from the north, and exposed only to the warm breezes of the Quarnero Gulf, this sheltered strip of land is the Riviera of Istria.

The west and north-west coast of Istria has a length of some 65 miles, and the jutting promontories divide it into a long series of bays. The largest of these bays lie along the north coast, bordering the sandstone region, notably the three great *valloni*, or fjord-like outlets, at the mouths of the Rosandra, Risano, and Dragogna rivers, namely Muggia Bay, Capodistria Bay, and Pirano Bay. The shelter afforded by these *valloni* is more roomy than safe. Pirano Bay, surrounded by high land, is the best harbour of the three.

South of Salvore Point, except for the broad Quieto estuary and the desolate Canale di Leme with its steep banks, there are only semicircular bays at the mouths of waterless valleys. For small vessels the port of Parenzo, behind its screen of islands, affords an ideal shelter; but in most of these ports the anchorage suffers from being exposed to the west. This section of the coast, especially south of Parenzo, is bordered by numerous rocks and shoals, which often extend more than two miles out to sea. Pola, the chief Austrian naval port in the Adriatic and a very important arsenal and dockyard, has a fine land-locked basin divided into an inner and outer harbour by three small islands.

The eastern coast of Istria, including the Gulf of Medolino, is 45 miles long. It is wild and desolate, with steep and rocky shores covered with trees or bushes, and occasional patches of tilled land. The Quarnero Gulf is considerably deeper than the Gulf of Venice, but there are no anchorages suitable for large vessels.

As far as the Canale dell' Arsa, which is the largest of the Istrian *valloni*, there are no settlements worth mentioning. Beyond Punta Nera the coast becomes more mountainous. Cliffs rise one behind the other, and behind them are slopes of 1,000 ft. to 3,000 ft.,

through which large valleys, drained by streams during the rainy season, run down to the sea. Farther north the coast, though more monotonous, contains a number of useful small harbours.

The Quarnero Islands

The surface of the Quarnero Islands is similar to that of Istria. In the central and southern parts of Cherso and on the east of Veglia and Lussin are strips of rich red loam, but only in regions not exposed to the *bora*. Elsewhere the islands consist of Karst limestone broken by numerous *doline* or swallow-holes.

Veglia, a triangle of 156 square miles, is the largest of the Quarnero Islands. Its coast is not steep, except on the north-east, but is much indented, especially on the eastern side. There are several heights of over 1,000 ft., but the general character of the surface is that of a Karst plateau, pretty well covered with earth. The Bescanuova valley, running out to the south, is particularly fertile, as indeed is the whole south-west, where the capital, Veglia, is situated on a sheltered bay.

Cherso is 35 miles long from north to south, with a maximum breadth of 8 miles in the centre. The coast tends to be high and rugged, especially in the north, and is broken by several basins of various sizes. The most important is the large Cherso Bay on the west shore, to the south of which lies Mount Perska. A mountain chain forms the backbone of the island, with Syss (altitude 2,090 ft.) as its highest point. Behind Mount Perska is the fine Karst lake, Vrana, with an area of some three miles. Ossero, the former capital, is on the nearest point to Lussin.

Lussin island consists of three groups of heights separated by isthmuses, and has the appearance of three islands. It is 16¼ miles long, with an area of about 28 square miles. The coast-line is high, broken,

and irregular. Lussin Piccolo on the east coast is the best harbour, being sheltered from the *bora*.

Of the *Unie* Islands, Unie, which takes its name from the good anchorage on the west coast, is the largest and the most northerly. It is hilly, with an area of 6½ square miles.

River System

The water-system of Istria is eminently Karst in character. The rivers often vanish in swallow-holes, and the elaborate underground network of streams and lakes has defied all efforts to explore it. Nearly all the inland streams disappear underground before attaining any importance.

Of the rivers that reach the sea, the chief are, going from west to east, the Risano, the Dragogna, flowing into Pirano Bay, the Quieto, the Draga, and the Arsa. Of these the Quieto is the principal river of the peninsula, having a length of some 32 miles. It is canalized in its lower course.

The only lake of importance in Istria is Lake Arsa (Čepić), which feeds the river of the same name. It is subject to considerable changes of level, and is known to be increasing considerably in size, owing to the blocking up of former channels of emission.

(3) Climate

Temperature.—Istria presents the same contrasts in climate as in structure of soil, the two, in fact, reacting upon each other. Thus we have the mild southern climate of the coast region, and above all of the Quarnero Riviera, contrasting with the continental severity of the rugged Karst. Porer and Lussin have the highest mean annual temperature of 59° F. (15° C.).

Rainfall.—The rainfall of Istria is closely con-

nected with the wind. The land winds are all dry. The *scirocco*, which blows regularly in spring and autumn, alone brings rain, and the autumn rains are the heaviest. The three or four summer months are the driest along the coast. The rainfall increases with the height above sea-level. On Monte Maggiore it is 127 inches, at Pinguente 45 inches, at Pola 35 inches. The Quarnero Riviera is comparatively wet, the average at Abbazia being 70 inches.

Winds.—In summer, especially along the west coast, the *maestrale* (north-west wind) is the commonest by day, the *borina*, a mild north-east wind, at night. Between October and April the *scirocco* (south and south-east) and the *bora* (north to north-east) prevail. The *bora* is the wind most dreaded, and the barrenness of many parts of Istria may be directly ascribed to its influence.

(4) Sanitary Conditions

Intermittent fevers, which have appeared within historic times, are the chief danger to health in Istria. Large tracts of the southern plain are thinly settled on account of malaria, which also accounts for the high death-rate of Rovigno and Pola. The fever diminishes as the ground rises, and is less prevalent in the cultivated regions than in the marshy underwood. The pools in the red marl along the coast between Pola and Salvore are very dangerous, as also are those round Monticchio and in other places in the Leme–Draga, Arsa, and Quieto valleys, as well as the neighbourhood of the salt-marshes. In spite of its fertility, no one ventures to live on the lower ground in these regions. The peasants come down to till their fields, but return to sleep in their villages on the hill slopes. In the south-west the increasing number of

buildings, greater cleanliness, and improved medical assistance, combined with the bringing of more land under intensive cultivation, are producing good results. Parenzo, which was saturated with fever a century ago, is now thoroughly healthy; and Pola has been rapidly shaking it off.

(5) Race and Language

Race

Istria is inhabited by a conglomeration of several races, but for practical purposes the population may be divided into Italian and Slav. Speaking generally, the Italians form a solid block along the west coast, and there are large Italian 'islands' in important inland towns like Pinguente, Montona, Fianona, and Albona. The Slavs are almost entirely either Slovenes or Serbo-Croats. These are roughly divided by a line that follows the Dragogna to its source and then strikes up to Castelnuovo on the Čičen plain. All to the north-west of this line, including the town of Castelnuovo, is mainly Slovene, while the north-east, centre, and south of Istria belong to the Serbo-Croats. The census of 1910 gives the number of Italians in Istria as 147,417, of Serbo-Croats as 168,184, and of Slovenes as 55,134, with 12,735 Germans, most of whom would be officials. The Italians are thus 37 per cent. against 58 per cent. Croats and Slovenes. That the Italians are in a minority there can be no doubt; but Austrian policy favours the Slavs, and it is well known that the methods of grouping and enumerating have been arranged in accordance with this policy, while every inducement is offered to Italianized Slavs to return to their original nationality. The Italians have a majority only in the *Bezirke* (districts) of Parenzo and Pola, though the figures are almost equal in Lussin, which includes

both Cherso and Lussin. In Capodistria, Pisino, and Volosca the Slavs are considerably more numerous; but the inclusion of the Volosca region, where the Slavs number over 47,000 and the Italians 953, in Istria is sharply criticized by Italian writers. Without it the Slavs of eastern Istria would only outnumber the Italians by about 29,000 in a population of 336,000. Pisino and Gimino are the only cities of over 4,000 inhabitants with Slav majorities.

The statistics of the Austrian census of 1910 will be found in the Appendix, pp. 101–2.

Language

The dialect of Italian-speaking Istria is Venetian. The assimilative power of the Italians is shown by the success with which they imposed their language upon the Slavs, who virtually all spoke it till the Slav movement was initiated in the present generation. Large numbers of Slavs have become Italianized.

The Slovenes differ little from the Croats, with whose dialect their own is closely allied. Croatian is the universal tongue of the Istrian Slavs. The literary language is identical with Serbian, but the Catholic Croats use the Latin alphabet, except in a few old books printed in Glagolitic script, while the Orthodox Serbs use the Cyrillic.

There are a few Rumanians, who are rapidly being absorbed by the Croats. Most of them are found in the upper Arsa valley, others on the Čičen plain.

(6) Population

Distribution

The total population of Istria in 1910 was 386,463, or 202 to the square mile. According to the 1900 census over 60 per cent. of the population live in places

containing less than 2,000 people, and 6 per cent. in villages of less than 500. In the sandstone regions small settlements predominate ; in the limestone, want of water drives people to gather in larger centres. Thus the *Bezirke* of Parenzo, Pola, and Pisino alone show a majority living in large settlements. The coast region from the Rosandra to Pirano, including the Risano valley, the well-tilled Castua district to the north-east, and the Quarnero Riviera above Lovrana are the most densely populated parts of Istria, showing over 300 inhabitants to the square mile. The west coast from Salvore to Orsera, the Albona Karst, and the central regions round Montona and Pisino have over 230 to the square mile. Most of southern Istria is very thinly populated, and still more so is the Čičen plain in the north. As everywhere, the tendency is for the thickly settled districts to increase at the expense of the thinly settled, owing to economic causes. Naturally the vine districts support a larger population than the corn districts, while the demand for labour in the towns, especially in Pola, acts as a steady drain upon the rural districts. The increase of the population takes place in the large towns, on the west coast, and along the Quarnero Riviera. Here alone do we find the professional and middle classes. In the interior life is simple and primitive in the extreme.

Towns and Villages

Among the towns, Pola (population of town, 42,118 ; of the district, 85,943) is the largest. Its growth is due to its importance as a naval port. The flourishing commercial port of Rovigno (population, 11,308) is the only other town of over 10,000 inhabitants. There are fourteen towns with a population of over 5,000. The villages contain a Slav population.

Pisino (population, 4,000; 30,605 in the district), the capital of Istria, is the one important inland trade-centre, being the meeting-place of a number of important roads. Its German name, Mitterburg, is never used, except officially.

Movement

The increase of population between 1900–10 is 58,516, or 15·6 per cent. The figures for the various nationalities are not trustworthy, but the increase among the Slovenes is given as 7,417; among the Serbo-Croats, 25,127; among the Italians, 11,226. If the garrison is included, the proportion of women to men is 912 to 1,000; without the garrison, 995 to 1,000.

The birth-rate in Istria among the Serbo-Croats is 38 per 1,000; the death-rate, 22 per 1,000; and the natural increase is 16 per 1,000. Among the Italians the figures are 40·5, 23·6, and 16·9 respectively.

GORIZIA–GRADISCA AND TRIESTE

(1) Position and Frontiers

The county of Gorizia–Gradisca (Görz und Gradisca) and the town and district of Trieste lie between 45° 35′ and 46° 27′ north latitude and 13° 15′ and 14° 5′ east longitude. The area is 1,164 square miles (Gorizia–Gradisca, 1,127; Trieste, 37). The region is sometimes loosely called Austrian or Eastern Friuli.

(2) Surface, Coast, and River System

Surface

This section of the Küstenland slopes down gradually to various levels from the dominating chain of the Carnic and Julian Alps in the north. The highest mountains

in the Julian chain are Monte Canin (8,760 ft.), Monte Maggiore (4,643 ft.), and Monte Matajur, all near the western boundary of the district. Other mountains in the Küstenland, all belonging to the system of the Julian Alps, are the Kovevrat group, slightly to the south-west of Tolmino (Tolmein), while to the west of Gorizia lie the fertile Coglio (Collo) hills.

The plain of the Isonzo forms the south-western portion of the Küstenland, opening out from the mountains at Salcano rather to the north of Gorizia. It gradually slopes up at its eastern and north-eastern sides by a series of low hills into the Karst region, which commences at the Ternova plateau (Ternovanerwald) and extends above Trieste to the Čičen plain in the north of the neighbouring province of Istria.

Coast

The coast-line belonging to the region of Trieste and Gorizia extends from Porto Buso, the little harbour on the frontier in the west, to the north of the Rosandra, and forms part of the Gulf of Trieste. From Porto Buso to Duino, including Panzano Bay, the shore is low and sandy. The Grado lagoon is merely an extension of the Venetian lagoon, and is made up of a complicated maze of sand-banks and pools only approachable by small vessels, stretching nearly as far as the mouth of the Isonzo. Between Duino and Trieste high and almost inaccessible cliffs tower above the sea. The water is deep close inshore, but there are only three coves where coasters could take refuge.

River System

The river systems of the Littoral are two in number: firstly, that of which the Isonzo is the centre, and secondly, the system of the Karst.

The Isonzo rises in the Val di Trenta, and flows

almost directly from north to south. At Salcano, above Gorizia, it leaves the mountains for the plain and flows on to the sea, which it reaches after a course of 85 miles. Its chief tributaries are, on the left bank, the Coritenza (Koritnitza), the Idria, which enters the Isonzo at Santa Lucia, and the Vipacco (Wippach). On the right bank the chief tributary is the Torre, which is fed by the Natisone and its affluent the Judrio. In its upper course the Natisone is at one point barely four miles from the Isonzo, but for the greater part of its length it flows through Italian territory, crossing the frontier again at its confluence with the Torre.

The vanishing waters that characterize the Karst are a prominent feature of the Ternovanerwald, whence most of the rain-water finds its way underground to the Vipacco. Virtually all the water on the Trieste Karst vanishes underground, and the subterranean system of waterways is probably extremely intricate.

(3) Climate

Temperature.—As this region extends from the Alps in the north to the mild coast districts of the Grado lagoon the climate varies greatly. The climate of Gorizia is mild and dry, much more temperate than that of the cities of the Po valley. The average temperature in January, the coldest month, is 37° F. (3° C.); in July, the hottest, 71° F. (23° C.). In the Trieste region the variations in temperature are great, and the *bora*, which blows irregularly from October to April, produces the most violent changes. The average temperature in January is 39° F. (4° C.), in July 75° F. (24° C.). The *scirocco*, or warm south-easterly wind, prevails from March to October through the whole country. These provinces have a heavy rainfall. In Gorizia the annual average rainfall is 64½ inches, in Trieste 40·17 inches.

(4) Sanitary Conditions

Both regions seem to be fairly healthy, but the lagoon area round Aquileia is an exception owing to the prevalence of malaria. The death-rate in Trieste is 22 per 1,000, and in Gorizia–Gradisca 21. The high death-rate of Trieste is due to the bad water-supply and to the *bora*. Good drinking-water is obtainable almost everywhere in Gorizia–Gradisca. The improvement of the water-supply in the Slovene districts of the north, where the old rain-water cisterns are being less and less used except for cattle, is having a good effect on the health of the inhabitants.

(5) Race and Language

The Austrian census figures have been much called in question, but there is no doubt that a large proportion of the inhabitants of these districts are Slovenes. During the period 1900–10, the Slovenes in the district of Trieste appear to have increased from 16·5 per cent. to 30 per cent. of the population, while the Italian-speaking inhabitants in the same period decreased from 77·5 per cent. to 62·5 per cent. In Gorizia–Gradisca these changes were not so marked, as the proportion of Italians appears to have remained nearly stationary at about 36 per cent. of the population, while the Slovenes appear to have slightly decreased (from 62·5 per cent. to 62 per cent.). The general fact of the proportionate increase of Slavs over Italians cannot, however, be disputed. The detailed figures for 1910 are given in the Appendix, pp. 100–1.

In Trieste the Slav element is settled in the suburbs and the country round. The Germans number 11,856, and there is also a German-speaking element in Gorizia–Gradisca, consisting largely of officials. Unlike the province of Istria, these districts do not contain a large Serbo-Croat element.

The rest of the population is very mixed, and includes small numbers of Czechs, Poles, Ruthenes, &c., also a good many Jews, who are treated with great toleration. The number of dialects among the non-Italians naturally favours the extension of the Italian language. The dialect of Trieste is Venetian.

The Austrian census figures for 1910 are given in full in the Appendix, p. 100.

(6) Population

Distribution

In 1910 the population of Trieste was 190,913, and that of Gorizia–Gradisca 249,893, the total for the two thus being 440,806. The density per square mile was, in Trieste, 5,160; in Gorizia–Gradisca, 222). The most thickly peopled parts of the province are Trieste with its surrounding district, and the *Bezirke* of Gorizia and Monfalcone, the more mountainous regions of Gradisca, Sesana, and Tolmino (Tolmein) having fewer inhabitants.

Towns and Villages

By far the most important town in these provinces is Trieste, the chief port of the Adriatic. In 1912 it had a population of 162,334, with an additional 64,205 in the suburbs, and in 1914 the numbers had risen to 246,500. The town is of recent growth and owes not a little of its prosperity to its being the port of the Austrian Lloyd. The harbour, which is very extensive, is almost entirely artificial.

Gorizia (Görr), with a population in 1910 of 29,291, which by 1914 had risen to 32,600, is an archbishopric and the capital of the province of Gorizia–Gradisca. A number of factories have sprung up in the newer parts of the town. Other places with over 5,000 inhabitants are the large fishing town of Grado (population 5,200)

and Idria (population 5,538). Monfalcone and Cormons are centres of some importance.

Most of the inhabitants, notably the Slovenes, live among their fields in villages of no great size.

Movement

The increase of population in Trieste and territory between 1900 and 1910 was 50,911, or 28·5 per cent. In Gorizia–Gradisca it was only 27,824, or 11·94 per cent. The Monfalcone *Bezirk*, with an increase of 10,586, or 24·95 per cent., shows by far the largest advance. The town of Gorizia has increased by 5,563, or 21·87 per cent.; the *Bezirk* by 5,490, or 8 per cent. According to census returns, the Italians in Trieste have increased by 2,134, or 1·83 per cent., between 1900 and 1910; in Gorizia–Gradisca by 8,983, or 11 per cent.

The excess of births over deaths between 1900 and 1910 in Trieste was 14,374, or 8 per cent. of the 1900 population. In Gorizia–Gradisca the birth-rate among the Slovenes and Italians respectively is 45·0 and 38·3 per 1,000; the death-rate, 24·7 and 19·8; the natural increase, 20·3 and 18·5 per 1,000.

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

Chronological Summary

B.C.
177 Istria conquered by the Romans.

A.D.
538 Istria flourishing under the rule of Theodoric the Ostrogoth.
553 Justinian reunites Istria to the Empire.
752 The Lombards take Ravenna; Istria falls under their rule.
791 Istria under Charlemagne.
799 The alleged settlement of the Wends, or Slovenes.
948 The Emperor Lothair grants the city of Trieste to its Bishop.
1077 The Margraviate of Istria granted to the Patriarch of Aquileia.
1112 Istria is divided into the County and the Margraviate.
1208 The Margraviate is attached to the Patriarchate of Aquileia.
1368-82 Trieste under the Venetian Republic. In the latter year it places itself under Leopold of Austria.
1374 The County of Istria passes to the Habsburgs under a family compact with the Counts of Gorizia and Istria.
1420 The Venetians take Aquileia, and complete their hold upon the Margraviate.
1500 The County of Gorizia passes to the Emperor Maximilian.
1511 The Venetians give up Gradisca to the Emperor Maximilian.
1719 Trieste made a free port.
1754 Gorizia and Gradisca united.
1797 Napoleon destroys the Venetian Republic. Venetian Istria temporarily occupied by the Austrians.
1805 Istria ceded to the so-called "Kingdom of Italy" by the Peace of Pressburg.
1811 Istria is organized on a Slavonic basis under French officials and included in the Illyrian Provinces.
1814-16 Istria is restored to Austria by the Treaty of Vienna, and included in the Kingdom of Illyria (titular only), comprising the Küstenland and (for two years only) Carinthia and Carniola.
1849 Creation of the Küstenland.
1861 Delegations from local Diets are first sent to the Austrian Parliament.
1867 Trieste a separate Crown land.

Wt. 32666/70 1000 3/20 F.O.P¹ [2003]

ISTRIA

Margraviate and County of Istria

The Istrian peninsula, which was originally inhabited by an Illyrian race of piratical tendencies, was acquired by the Roman Republic in or about 177 B.C. It was united with Aquileia, and was subsequently included in Italy by Augustus. "Finis Italiæ fluvius Arsia," said Pliny. Under Diocletian's settlement the boundary line of the dioceses of Italy and Illyria bisected the Istrian triangle, and, at the death of Theodosius I (A.D. 395), formed for a time the division between the Eastern and the Western Empires. Centuries later Dante embodied Italian sentiment as to the proper frontier of north-eastern Italy in the famous lines: "Pola, presso del Quarnero, Che Italia chiude e i suoi termini bagna" (*Inferno*, ix, 112).

From its earliest relations with Italy, right through the Middle Ages down to the present time, Istria has, therefore, experienced the vicissitudes of a frontier province. During the decline of the Roman Empire its fortunes were affected by Goth and Lombard, Avar and Slav, but to what extent the invaders left their impress upon the population is disputable. Theodoric the Ostrogoth utilised its resources; and the foundation of some of the Istrian bishoprics is attributed to him. The province was recovered for the Empire under Justinian, and though subject to Slav invasions was, nominally, at least, ruled from Constantinople until 752, when the Lombards seized it. No precise date can be assigned for its incorporation in the Frankish Empire, but we know that it must have been before 791.[1] The Frank influence favoured the growth of the feudal system as opposed to that of the

[1] Hodgkin, *Italy and her Invaders*, vol. viii, p. 143.

free cities. A Margrave was established in Istria; and it was apparently in order to strengthen his hands that the Slavonic settlements in the peninsula, of which the first appears to have been that of the Wends (the ancestors of the Slovenes) in 799, were encouraged. In 804 Charlemagne, by a *placitum*, restricted the Slav immigrants to unoccupied districts, where no objection was raised to their presence by the inhabitants of the neighbourhood. Istria, to the east of the River Arsa, is alleged to have formed part of the kingdom of Croatia before the union of the Croatian and Hungarian crowns. In 1077 the Margraviate was granted to the then Patriarch of Aquileia by the Emperor; and this afforded to subsequent Patriarchs a pretext for their attempts to add Istria to their dominions. But in fact the Margraviate remained in the hands of the Eppenstein family, who held simultaneously the Dukedom of Carinthia. A complicated quarrel in 1112 between two Eppenstein claimants for the Margraviate, one of whom was Patriarch of Aquileia at the time, had an important result in the formation of the County of Istria, which was given on a feudal tenure as compensation to the unsuccessful lay claimant, and covered the eastern part of the peninsula, with the town of Pisino for its capital. By 1208 the Margraviate had been attached to the Patriarchate of Aquileia; while the County of Istria, which in 1127 had been united with that of Gorizia, passed in 1374, under a family compact, concluded ten years earlier between the Counts of Gorizia and Istria and the Archdukes of Austria, into the hands of the Habsburgs.

The Margraviate, comprising as it did the Istrian coast from Capodistria right round to Albona, covered by far the more important part of the peninsula, and was for a considerable time in dispute between the

Patriarch, who sustained the feudal system, and the Venetian Republic, in which the Istrian municipalities found a protector. The cities on the seaboard, impelled both by their liberal sentiments and their maritime interests, gradually shifted their allegiance, as opportunity allowed, from Aquileia to Venice. It was not, however, until 1420 that the process was completed by the Venetian conquest of Aquileia and Friuli and the downfall of the temporal power of the Patriarch.

The Slovene Settlement.—The era of the Turkish conquests in Hungary and the Balkans filled Istria with refugees, who were principally Slovenes and Croats, but included Greeks and Albanians. The Slovenes tended to remain in the interior, whilst the Croats, with their maritime and sometimes piratical instincts, affected the seaboard. The colonization continued well into the seventeenth century, and was particularly populous in Pola and the adjacent regions.

The Napoleonic and Post-Napoleonic Arrangements.—The division of Istria between Austria and Venice lasted until 1797, when Bonaparte destroyed the Republic and presented its possessions east of the Adige to the Emperor. The Austrian Government were, however, made to surrender Istria at the Treaty of Pressburg, 1805, when it was included in the new kingdom of Italy. In 1808 the Islands of Veglia (Krk), Cherso (Cres), and Lussin (Lošinj) were added to Istria, which in 1811 was grouped with Croatia, Carinthia, Carniola, and Dalmatia, under the title of the Illyrian Provinces. The French administration appears to have been energetic and beneficial. On the decline of Napoleon's power in 1813, the Austrians recovered their hold; and in 1816 a kingdom of Illyria, comprising Carniola and Carinthia, together with Istria and Gorizia-Gradisca, was founded, with the Austrian Emperor as King.

In 1849 Istria was made into a Margraviate, and formed from that time, together with Gorizia-Gradisca and Trieste, an administrative unit for certain purposes, under the title of the Littoral (*Küstenland*). The representation in the Austrian Parliament granted to the Littoral in 1861 stimulated racial rivalry; and Bishop Dobrila, of Trieste, stands out as the founder of the Slav movement in Istria. Mazzini had no adequate appreciation of this development. In 1866 he wrote: "Istria is ours—as necessary to Italy as the ports of Dalmatia are to the Southern Slavs." And he went on to cite the lines of Dante, already quoted. Even in his hands the doctrine of nationality proved no master-key to the problems of the Littoral.

GORIZIA-GRADISCA

The province of Friuli, which in Roman times had formed part of Gallia Transpadana, became a march of the Lombard kingdom in the sixth century, and as such was included in the empire of Charlemagne. The Emperor Henry IV, at the close of the eleventh century, invested the Patriarch of Aquileia with the government of it, thus converting that dignitary into a powerful temporal prince. The Patriarchs, however, proved in course of time unequal to the diplomatic requirements of a border-country. A division of their territory, which had lasting results, followed. A constitutional party in the west coquetted with the Venetian Republic, which gave its support to liberal institutions; and, on the eastern side, the Counts of Gorizia, the most powerful of the provincial feudatories, established a practical independence, under the ægis of Austria. The Venetians saw what was bound to follow, and anticipated an Austrian move by occupying the western part of Friuli in the fifteenth century.

Austria found her opportunity almost immediately after, when, owing to the extinction of the line of the Counts of Gorizia in 1500, a family compact of succession came into effect. Under this arrangement Maximilian, the future Emperor, added Gorizia to the Habsburg dominions, and in 1511 obtained the surrender of Gradisca from the Venetian Republic, which had filched it from the Patriarch of Aquileia. The two counties, frequently associated through a common ruler, were finally united in 1754. The suppression of the Patriarchate in the preceding year had removed the last shadow of a rival claim in that quarter. In 1797, upon the extinction of the Venetian Republic, Austria acquired the remainder of Friuli, but lost it again in 1805, when it was included in the department of Passariano in the Italian kingdom. Gorizia and Gradisca were taken from Austria four years later and brought into the Illyrian Provinces. All this territory was, however, recovered by the Habsburgs in 1815. But, when the unification of Italy took place, the old division between the Venetian part of Friuli and the two counties reasserted itself, the former passing to Italy, the latter remaining in Austrian hands. Gorizia and Gradisca were in 1861 withdrawn from the administrative province of Trieste, and have formed a separate region of the Littoral since that time.

TRIESTE

Trieste, the Roman Tergeste, formed part of Istria until 948. The Emperor Lothair gave it quasi-independence by resigning his regalian rights and revenues to the bishop; but the city was insufficiently protected from the greed of the Venetian Republic and the Patriarch of Aquileia. Between 1368 and 1382 it was actually subject to Venice; and in the latter year, to

escape from servitude, it commended itself to Leopold of Austria, who took and passed on to his successors the title of Lord of Trieste, thus distinguishing between the city and the province of Istria. The act of self-commendation had been accompanied by a guarantee from the Duke of Austria that municipal privileges and liberties would be respected, and for a time the city even enjoyed the right of making peace and war. Its economic prosperity began in 1719, when it was declared a free port; and it owed a good deal to Count Chotek (1761), the Finance Minister of Maria Theresa, who saw its commercial potentialities, and set to work to develop them. The question whether Trieste lay in Germany or in Italy did not become of any practical consequence until the disappearance of the Holy Roman Empire in 1806. Three years after that event Austria was compelled to cede Trieste to Napoleon, who included it in the Illyrian Provinces. The question of its proper national allegiance was thus effectively raised at the very time that the Austrian Empire came into being. The Habsburgs recovered it in 1815; and its loyalty to them during the progress of the Italian and Hungarian national movements won it the title of "Città fedelissima." It showed, however, no German tendencies, and only consented under compulsion to send a representative to the Diet of Frankfort, who declared himself "a deputy for Italy." In 1849 it became one of the districts of the Littoral, and in 1861, under the new Constitution, began to send members to the Reichsrat at Vienna. In 1867 Trieste was constituted a separate Crown land. Since 1891 it has ceased to be a free port.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) Religious

The religious statistics of the Littoral are shown in the following table:—

—	Catholic.		Orthodox.	Evangelical.		Jews.	Moslems.
	(a) Roman.	(b) Greek.		(a) Lutheran.	(b) Calvinist.		
Istria ..	399,870	300	1,050	989	504	677	33
Gorizia-Gradisca	259,361	126	71	686	63	338	1
Trieste ..	217,775	66	1,981	1,886	586	5,498	191

The Littoral is thus predominantly Catholic in all its parts, but racial animosity has coloured the views both of Italian and Slav priests. Nationalist proclivities are further accentuated by the use of the glagolitic, or ancient national, script and sometimes of a vernacular liturgy by the Catholic Slavs. There have also been indications of a kind of Slavonic "Los von Rom" movement, but this has met with no success. The Slovene clergy were alleged to have been exploited by the Austrian Government in the past; but the recognition of religious equality on the part of the Orthodox Serbs, which is embodied in their 1914 agreement with the Vatican (see *Croatia-Slavonia*, No. 8 of this series, p. 30), seems to have dissipated to some extent the fears which they entertained of a larger Serbia.

(2) Political

Istria is technically a *Markgrafschaft*, Gorizia-Gradisca a *gefürstete Grafschaft*, and Trieste a *reichsunmittelbare Stadt und eigenes Kronland*. Trieste is the seat of the Government of the Littoral, but each province has its own Diet. The members of the Diets are chosen on the old curial system, that is, by "colleges" of (1) landowners (except in Trieste); (2) chambers of commerce; (3) towns; (4) rural districts; and, since 1908, also by a fifth curia, elected by universal suffrage. This electoral system tends to give a great advantage to the towns over the country, and thus to the Italians over the Slavs. In Istria the Italian population, according to the official statistics, numbers over 147,000; the Slav over 225,000; but the Diet contains 25 Italian and 20 Slav members. In Gorizia-Gradisca, where there are over 154,000 Slovenes and over 90,000 Italians, the Diet contains 15 Italian and 15 Slovene members (elected), with 1 *ex officio* member (the Prince-Archbishop). In Trieste, where the Diet and Municipal Council are identical, out of 80 members 56 are Italians and 12 Slav. On the basis of numbers (Italians nearly 119,000, Slovenes and Serbo-Croats over 59,000) the Italian representation should be about 49, the Slav about 24. The Socialists in Trieste have 16 members in the Diet. In their case political principles sometimes triumph over racial feelings; and their members are then returned by agreement between the two nationalities. The Austrian Government is accused of favouring the growth of the Socialist party from a desire to repress nationalist feeling.

Since 1861 the provinces of the Littoral have sent representatives to the Reichsrat at Vienna. Istria

and Gorizia-Gradisca send 6; Trieste 5 (2 Italians, 2 Socialists, 1 Jugo-Slav). These representatives are elected, since 1906, by universal suffrage.

In Trieste racial propaganda is largely sheltered under the cover of learned studies. An important part is played by the Dante Alighieri Society and the Minerva Club. The latter is a society of a hundred years' standing, which is engaged nominally in the study of local antiquities and the promotion of local philanthropies, but which also forms a centre of Italian influence. Hitherto it has avoided collision with the Austrian authorities. On the Slav side in Trieste the "Edinost" (Union) is the central organization, and is responsible for the publication of the paper of that name.

(3) Educational

Owing to the state of racial feeling in the Littoral, education, which, as in the Highlands of Scotland, may benefit from a bilingual system, has been widely and without much concealment regarded by all parties as an instrument of racial propagandism. Austrian schools are controlled by provincial, county and district school councils; but the vital question of the language or languages to be used as the medium of instruction in any public school is decided by the provincial council, over which the Governor of the province presides. In this quarter, therefore, the Austrian Central Government is able to exercise considerable influence; and complaints are made both by the Italians and the Slovenes that subsidies are irregularly paid or unfairly allotted. The county school councils, where the presence of a large number of officials usually places the Slavs in a minority, have the power to recommend the erection of new schools and the enlargement of old ones; but the decision rests with the Diet, and no machinery

exists whereby this body can be compelled to discharge its legal obligation of providing schools for linguistic minorities. For example, the Istrian Diet, having an Italian majority, long withstood the demand of the Slavs for an increase in the number of primary schools, and finally (1910) yielded only to the pressure of the Central Government. This is rarely exerted unless (as was the case in this instance) other events have combined to produce a deadlock in the Diet.

Roughly speaking, Italian criticism of the Government tends to give prominence to the university, Slav criticism to the primary schools question. The Italian case for the establishment of a university at Trieste rests upon the fact that degrees taken in Italy are not recognised in Austria, and that Austrian universities are stamped with distinctive German culture. An attempt to graft Italian students upon the university of Innsbruck has proved a complete failure. The Slovenes, however, view the project of a distinctively Italian university at Trieste with great jealousy, on the ground that the Italians would thus secure an even more marked superiority over themselves in the matter of education, unless a Slovene university were set up by the side of the Italian. Should the Italians agree to a university elsewhere, e.g., at Rovereto, the Slovenes would prefer to have one at Laibach, their natural centre. Failing a university of their own, they would probably elect to go to the university of Zagreb (Agram). In consequence, however, of the determined refusal of the authorities in the Austrian provinces of the Dual Monarchy to recognise Croatian degrees as qualifying for the civil service or the practice of law, this plan offers no solution, while the provision made for students to take Austrian university degrees without residence, by repeating their examinations, requires a knowledge of German beyond the capacity of many.

The primary schools (*Volks- und Bürgerschulen*) question is more complicated than that of the university. The continuous growth of schools, the partial conversion of private schools, such as those founded by the Society of St. Cyril and Methodius for Slav children in neglected districts, and the existence of schools with parallel classes, in which mixed instruction in the early stages of education is given, embarrass estimates and cause figures to fall quickly out of date. Also Austrian official statistics, based as they are upon the *Umgangssprache*,[1] or language usually employed by the father and not, like the Hungarian census, upon the mother-tongue, tend to obscure the nationality of children and further to excite adverse criticism.

The figures instanced in the case of Istria by the Jugo-Slav Committee in 1916, though they are without official sanction and can only be partially tested by the *Oesterreichisches Statistisches Handbuch*, published in 1913, appear to be approximately correct. According to these statements there are 100 Italian, 191 Jugo-Slav, and 8 German public primary schools in Istria, besides 33 Italian and 55 Jugo-Slav private schools. The national schools can accommodate 28,578 out of the 44,575 Jugo-Slav children of the province, with the result that 4,000 go to Italian schools and 12,000 are left untaught. Illiteracy, nevertheless, is on the decline; and race rivalry, with all its disadvantages, must be credited with affording a certain stimulus to learning.

[1]See *Austria*, No. 1 of this series, p. 26.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

(1) Popular Opinion and National Sentiment

The sentiment which finds the loudest expression in the Littoral is racial rather than local. The Italians look towards Italy, the Germans towards Austria, the Slavs[1] to an independent Jugo-Slavia. Sentiment is probably strongest amongst the Italians, and possibly was stronger among the Serbo-Croats than among the Slovenes. But there is, or was, also a good deal of conservative sentiment which is not vocal. A very recent Slav authority says of the Italians that "La totalité des paysans et la bourgeoisie cléricale du Trentin, du Frioul, et de l'Istrie sont profondément attachées à l'Autriche et décidément contraires à l'Irrédentisme."[2] And he points to the fact that in 1911 the Italians of these districts elected under universal suffrage twelve supporters of the existing régime and only seven pro-Italians. Istria depends for its prosperity upon friendly relations with the interior of Austria far more than Dalmatia or Bosnia and Herzegovina; and such considerations cannot be absent from the mind of its inhabitants. In the region of Gorizia and Gradisca the Slovenes are more numerous than the Italians, *viz.*, 155,000 Slovenes and 90,000 Italians; and here the Italians do not appear to possess any compensating educational superiority. On strict racial lines, therefore, the Gorizia-Gradisca region interposes a barrier between Italy and Trieste. At Trieste itself the problem is more complicated. The Italian element, according to the Austrian official returns of 1910, is

[1] Formerly there was a party which desired incorporation in an autonomous Jugo-Slavia under the Dual Monarchy.

[2] Vouk Primorac, *La Question Yougo-Slave*, p. 86.

still dominant, but its superiority is sharply on the decline. The Italians number 118,959, but the Slovenes are now 56,916 as against 25,000 in 1900. If to the Slovenes are added the Serbo-Croats, who number 2,403, and if the German element, which numbers 11,856, is also taken into account, the Italian claim on a numerical estimate has declined from something like 75 per cent. (the effect of the return made by the Italian municipal authorities in 1900) to 62 per cent. And it only holds good in the city of Trieste itself; in the surrounding villages the Slovenes are very greatly in the majority. Broadly speaking, therefore, it would be true to say that the Slav case in the Littoral is based upon the sentiment of nationality; the Italian upon that of culture; the Austrian upon that of history.

(2) Questions Specially Interesting other Countries

Pola and Trieste so dominate the region of the Littoral as to constitute the central if not the exclusive concern of the Powers interested in this region. The importance of Pola is derived wholly from its qualities as a harbour for warships; in the case of Trieste economic considerations arise which are more fully discussed elsewhere. Italians have an obvious commercial interest in the acquisition of a port whose trade offers so attractive a complement to their own, for the commerce of Trieste with the Near East is vastly greater than is that of Italy. But, on the other hand, Italian men of business, among whom mercantile relations with Germany were naturally common before the war, take in many instances a detached and unsentimental view of the question of Trieste. The arguments which impressed them were that, as two-thirds of the commercial traffic of the city

was derived from or destined for Austria, the latter was in a position to revenge itself for the loss of Trieste by sending its commerce through Fiume, and that the inhabitants of Trieste would never forgive Italy the loss of their prosperity. They favoured, therefore, the notion that Trieste should be converted into an autonomous free port. It is obvious that, while this argument has actually lost much force, the problems of Trieste and Fiume (see *Croatia-Slavonia*, No. 8 of this series, pp. 32-6, 75-7) must be considered together.

The Italian Case.—The Italian case for occupying Trieste is enforced by the allegation of special wrongs done to the Italian population. The principal grievances are: (1) the introduction of large numbers of Slovenes and other persons of Slav nationality who, both as manual labourers and as bureaucrats, disturb the balance of population and threaten to destroy the Italian majority at local elections; (2) the encouragement of resident Italian International Socialists, who are mostly Socialists first and Italians afterwards; (3) the depreciation of Italian education, which has already been dealt with.

Austria.—Austria's interest in Trieste was recognised by Baron Sonnino in 1881. Writing on May 29 of that year in the *Rassegna Settimanale*, he said: "Before all one must put resolutely aside the question of Italia Irredenta. The possession of Trieste in the existing situation of the Austro-Hungarian Empire is of the highest importance for it; and it would fight to the uttermost rather than give it up. Its population is mixed, like every population which is in the neighbourhood of our eastern frontier. To claim Trieste as a right would be an exaggeration of the principle of nationalities."[1]

[1] Quoted in A. Chervin, *L'Autriche et la Hongrie de demain*, Paris, 1915, p. 77.

The Slovenes.—The interest of the Slovenes in Trieste rests upon the fact that it is the only possible maritime outlet for the Slovene provinces of Carinthia, Carniola, and Styria, and that Slovene labour has already proved indispensable for the development of its prosperity. At the present rate of increase the Slovenes promise in course of time to outnumber the Italians, who view the growth of their rivals with apprehension and resentment.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

ISTRIA

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) Internal

(*a*) *Roads*

The Istrian road system may be regarded as adequate so far as the more populous districts are concerned. The least developed region is the north-eastern Karst land, where a single road, from Vallo in Carso to Pinguente, suffices for the small amount of traffic which takes place. There is also a scarcity of roads in the south-east, along the shores of the Gulf of Quarnero, but here again the traffic by land is unimportant, as goods are generally sent by water. The main roads are, on the whole, in good condition and are practicable for motor traffic.

The road system may be said to date from the French occupation under Napoleon I, and many good roads have been constructed in recent years. Trieste is connected with the Gulf of Quarnero by two main roads: (i) the Strasse Kaiser Josef II, which goes over the Poklan Saddle *via* Materia, Castelnuovo, and Castua to Fiume, a distance of 50 miles; (ii) *via* Montona and Pisino to Fianona, whence another road running north along the Gulf of Quarnero through Moschenizze and Volosca connects it with the Kaiser Josef Strasse at Castua.

The main road from Trieste to Pola takes a somewhat circuitous course by Pirano, Buje, Pisino, and

Dignano. Rovigno is connected with this route by two roads, one by Canfanaro, the other by Valle to Dignano, which is an important road centre. It has also recently been connected by a good road with the coal districts about Albona.

(*b*) *Rivers and Canals*

There are no navigable rivers in Istria.[1] The only rivers of any importance are the Quieto, which falls into the sea at Cittanova, north of Parenzo, and the Arsa, which empties itself into the Canale dell' Arsa on the Gulf of Quarnero. It has been proposed to make the Quieto available for small craft as far as Pinguente.

There are no navigable canals of the ordinary type; the Canale di Leme and the Canale dell' Arsa are arms of the sea, and are accordingly dealt with below under 'Ports'.

(*c*) *Railways*

There are in Istria two main lines running from north to south. These are (i) the section of the Südbahn Gesellschaft line which connects Fiume with Sankt Peter, and is 35 miles long; and (ii) the Divača–Pola section of the Austrian State Railway system (75 miles in length).

(i) Sankt Peter is the junction of the main line from Vienna to Trieste (*via* Laibach) and the branch line to Fiume. From the station of Abbazia–Mattuglie (Matulji), near Fiume, a short electric line now runs through the rising health resort of Abbazia to Lovrana.[2]

(ii) The main line to Pola runs from Divača on the

[1] The Quieto is, however, canalized in its lower course.

[2] From this place there is a State automobile service to Albona, which is connected in the same way with Parenzo. Another automobile service was running in 1914 between Abbazia and Trieste, the journey occupying three hours.

Trieste–Laibach line through central Istria, passing through Pinguente and Pisino. It was built in 1876, mainly for the strategic purpose of giving direct land communication with the chief naval port of the Monarchy without touching the sea till it reaches Pola. It runs through mountainous country and at more than one point attains a height of over 1,600 ft. Branch lines have been constructed from Canfanaro to the port of Rovigno (13 miles), and also from the station of Hrpelje–Cosina, 1,610 ft. above sea-level, to Trieste, a distance of 17 miles. Notwithstanding the mountainous character and steep gradients of this line, traffic is conveyed by it more quickly than by sea.

This cannot be said to be the case with the most recently built Istrian line, that from Trieste to Parenzo, which is 95 miles long. This line was completed in 1902, apparently as a result of popular agitation. It runs near the coast from Trieste to Capodistria and Porto Rose (for Pirano), then turns inland to Buje, attains a height of about 900 ft. at Grisignano, descends into the valley of the Quieto, ascends again to a height of nearly 900 ft., and finally reaches the sea at Parenzo. The technical difficulties of this line were enormous, and it is doubtful if it will ever justify its cost. It can never be anything but a slow line; at present it takes seven hours to reach Parenzo by railway from Trieste, whereas the post steamers take 3½ hours and the express steamers only two hours. Moreover, it is useful only to a few inland places of secondary importance, such as Buje, Montona, Visinada, and Visignano; the more important places on it are better served by sea.

It seems doubtful in these circumstances if any further development of the Istrian railway system would be profitable. A scheme has been mooted by which the connexion between Istria and Dalmatia would be strengthened by the construction of an island

line, passing through the islands of Cherso, Lussin, and Pago, but it is extremely doubtful if this project is feasible.[1]

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

Separate statistics for Istria alone are not available, but there is a good number of post and telegraph offices in all the towns of the mainland, and also on the islands. Pola has more than one post office, and the general post office is in keeping with the military importance of the town. There is inter-urban telephonic communication on the coast, and with Brioni.

The mails on the mainland are carried by motor diligences on certain routes.

(2) External

(*a*) *Ports*

Istria has a vast number of inlets and roadsteads, and some 37 of them may be dignified with the name of harbours. Of these the chief, in order of importance, are Pola, Pirano, Rovigno, and Parenzo. All these are situated on the west coast of the peninsula, which has by far the largest share of the sea traffic, the only port on the east coast at which the Pola–Fiume steamships touch being the health-resort of Abbazia.

Pola, the only port of first-class importance in Istria, has been for more than half a century the chief naval base of the Dual Monarchy. It is one of the finest harbours in the Mediterranean, and is described by the *Admiralty Pilot* as an 'exceedingly fine basin, completely landlocked, with room for a great number of vessels of any size, and, as it is surrounded by hills, the *bora* is seldom felt with much force'. It is divided

[1] Plans were under consideration in 1914 for lines from Parenzo to Pisino (on the Divača–Pola route), and from Porto Rose (Pirano) to Umago.

into an outer, an inner, and a commercial harbour, the last lying to the east of the military port. The passage into the inner harbour is a quarter of a mile wide, with a depth of 13–14 fathoms, and vessels anchor off the arsenal in a depth of 11 fathoms, while small craft and vessels with cargoes for the navy lie alongside the quays of the town, where a depth of 3 fathoms is available. The arsenal, docks, wireless station, &c., are on Olivi Islet. There are two Government docks, each with a length of 450 ft. over all, and a depth of 27 and 29 ft. respectively, and four floating docks, with lengths varying from 300 to 585 ft. over all. In 1912, 4,328 ships, totalling 1,121,930 tons, entered the port of Pola, and 4,318 ships, totalling 1,112,451 tons, cleared.

Pirano is the second port of Istria, judged by the number of ships entering and clearing. Port Pirano, on which the town is situated, is a small inlet, well protected on the west by a mole, and with a depth of two fathoms. The outer harbour, or Pirano Bay, is much larger and has a depth of 7–9 fathoms, but is unprotected from the *bora*. One mile south is Port Rose, which affords protection for small craft, and from which the produce of the Sicciole salt beds is shipped. In 1912, 4,141 ships of 377,265 tons in all entered at Pirano, and the same number of the same tonnage cleared.

Rovigno.—The town of Rovigno is situated on a peninsula of which the horns curve outwards, and is flanked by two harbours, one to the north, the other to the south. The former, Valdibora, is about 3 miles long by 1½ miles wide, and has a depth of 12 fathoms. It is, however, open to the north-west, and is only partially sheltered from the west. The southern harbour, Port Rovigno or Port Santa Caterina, being open to the westward, has an indifferent anchorage, and is used by small vessels only. In 1912, 2,963

ships of 383,368 tons entered the port of Rovigno, and 2,964 ships of 383,369 tons cleared.

Parenzo.—For vessels not drawing more than 15 ft. this port is said to afford the best shelter to be found on the coast of Istria. It has a depth of some 2 to 5 fathoms. For large vessels, however, it is only safe with land winds. In 1912, 2,271 ships of 224,346 tons entered, and 2,270 ships of 224,302 tons cleared. In 1911, although the ships averaged only about 100 tons apiece, the tonnage of goods they discharged at Parenzo considerably exceeded the tonnage of goods imported at Rovigno, but the exports *via* Parenzo were much smaller.

Fasana, north of Pola, is the port of Dignano and is sheltered from the west by the Brioni Islands. The usual anchorage in Fasana Channel has a depth of 9 fathoms, but the small harbour of Fasana, which is formed by two moles, has no more than 6 ft. of water. In 1912, 1,034 ships of 111,451 tons entered, and the same number of the same tonnage cleared.

Umago is the only other port of the west coast with any appreciable trade. It is open to the west, and the entrance to the small harbour has only 9 ft. of water. In 1912, 1,885 ships of 148,711 tons entered, and the same number of the same tonnage cleared.

The remainder of the Istrian harbours are of small importance. On the west coast, *Capodistria* has an open bay which is entirely exposed to the west, and the holding-ground is bad. *Port Quieto,* on which is the town of Cittanova, is of little importance commercially, though it has anchorage in 8–10 fathoms for vessels of any size, and is sheltered from all but west winds. Of ports on the Gulf of Quarnero, *Port Rabaz,* the harbour of Albona, *Fianona Bay,* and *Port Preluka,* the harbour of Castua, are of small size, and are exposed to heavy *bora* squalls. *Lovrana* is being developed,

and harbour works are in progress there, while a number of steamers of the local services touch at the pleasure resort of *Abbazia.*

The two inlets of the sea, known respectively as the *Canale di Leme* and the *Canale dell' Arsa,* are not much used by shipping. The former, on the west coast of the peninsula, north of Rovigno, has a length of 6 miles and a depth of 14–17 fathoms. The latter, on the south-east coast, is 6 miles long by half a mile wide, and has depths varying from 6 to 20 fathoms. Trade is practically confined to vessels shipping coal at the mouth of the River Arsa, to which it is conveyed by a light railway from the Carpano–Vines mines.

In the Istrian Islands the chief port is *Lussin Piccolo,* on Lussin Island. It is described as one of the best and most convenient harbours in the northern part of the Adriatic. It has a depth of 11–18 fathoms and good quays for small vessels. In 1912, 2,173 ships of 717,008 tons entered, and the same number of the same tonnage cleared. *Port Rovenska,* the harbour of Lussin Grande, is only available for small vessels, and is open to the north. On the west coast of Lussin Island, *Cigale,* a port with a depth of 9–12 fathoms, is frequented by coasting vessels.

The east side of Cherso Island is dangerous on account of the *bora,* but on the west coast there are several good holding-grounds, of which the best is *Cherso Bay. Port Cherso,* an inlet on the east side of this bay, is a small but excellent harbour with a depth of 8–10 fathoms; there is a mole 166 ft. long, with 16 ft. of water alongside. In 1912, 1,350 ships of 160,940 tons entered, and 1,345 ships of 160,648 tons cleared.

There are no good harbours on Veglia Island. *Castelmuschio Bay* on the north can hold many vessels of the largest size, but it is exposed to the *bora. Veglia*

Bay on the south side is fairly well sheltered and has a depth of 5–11 fathoms.

The following table shows the amount of the goods imported and exported through the chief Istrian ports in 1911 :

Ports.	*Imports.* *Metric tons.*	*Exports.* *Metric tons.*
Pola	195,787	9,975
Pirano	16,218	24,849
Rovigno	23,521	26,115
Parenzo	41,183	16,751
Lussin Piccolo . . .	12,676	2,676

(*b*) *Shipping Lines*

The advent of the steamship and the consequent decline of the sailing-ship has dealt a fatal blow to local shipping. Practically all the traffic is now in the hands of the great shipping companies of Trieste and Fiume, Istria itself possessing less than a dozen small coasting steamers, while repairs, &c., are almost wholly undertaken at Trieste.

In the period immediately preceding the European War Istria was well served by a number of shipping companies. The most important were :

(1) The Austrian Lloyd Steam Navigation Company. The steamers of its Trieste–Cattaro thrice-weekly express service stopped at Pola and at Lussin Piccolo, and the weekly steamer from Trieste to Spizza at Rovigno, Pola, and Lussin Piccolo.

(2) The Società in Azioni Ungaro-Croata. This company's Fiume–Zara express steamers stopped thrice weekly at Lussin Grande. It had a daily service between Fiume and Trieste, touching at Abbazia, Pola, and Rovigno. Besides this, it had a number of local services ; for example, a daily service to the islands of Veglia and Lussin, another twice daily to Volosca, Abbazia, Ika, and Lovrana, and frequent services throughout the day between Fiume and Abbazia.

Other services were provided by the Società di Navigazione a Vapore Dalmatia, the Società Austriaca di Navigazione a Vapore Ragusea, and the Società Istria-Trieste. The chief local lines were the Società Anonima di Navigazione a Vapore Lussino, with head-quarters at Lussin Piccolo, and the Società Brioni, with head-quarters at Pola.

The only flag other than that of the Dual Monarchy which was represented in Istrian waters was the Italian. The steamers of the Venice–Albania service of the Società di Navigazione a Vapore Puglia called weekly at Pola, and a large part of the coasting trade was carried on by vessels owned in Italy.

(c) *Wireless Communication*

There is a wireless station at Pola.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) Agriculture

It is estimated that about 67 per cent. of the population of Istria are engaged in some form of agriculture. Of the 495,648 hectares of Istrian land about 97 per cent. is reckoned as productive, only some marshes in the Arsa and Quieto valleys and some of the wholly dry Karst region remaining free from land-tax. In 1912 this 97 per cent. (or 478,176 hectares) was distributed in the following manner:

		Per cent. of the whole peninsula.
(i) Land under regular cultivation including:		
(*a*) Arable land	12·5	26
(*b*) Vineyards	10·5	
(*c*) Gardens	3·0	
(ii) Scantily wooded land		34
(iii) Moors and poor grass land		37
Total of productive land		97

It will be remarked that scarcely more than one-quarter of the peninsula is really cultivated; and it is only in the rich district between Trieste and Pirano and on the lower Istrian plateau that the proportion of cultivated land is as high as one-third of the area. In the northern district, known as the Čičen plain or Tschitschenboden, the area of land under regular cultivation is only 6 per cent. Nevertheless, Istria, on account of its many vineyards and olive groves, has a larger share of land under intensive cultivation than Carniola with 15·6, Gorizia with 18·2, and Dalmatia with 20 per cent. It also has a higher percentage of forest than Gorizia or Dalmatia. On the other hand, there is practically no meadow land, the cattle being pastured almost wholly on the moorlands.

(*a*) *Labour Conditions : Methods of Cultivation*

In the greater part of Istria agriculture is still in a primitive condition. The plough is said to be almost unknown, the houses and clothes of the peasants are poor, and progress is everywhere slow. This is less true of the Italian coast region, but even here progress is impeded by race quarrels.

There are many reasons to account for this state of things. In the first place, the Slav peasant still considers cattle-raising to be a pursuit conferring a higher social status than field labour, which he usually leaves to the women. Cattle-raising is the farmer's chief employment on the whole of the High Karst and Inner and South Istria, excepting the well-cultivated Albona Karst; and there are only small fields, planted with turnips and potatoes and cultivated with the hoe. Another great hindrance to progress lies in the minute subdivision of the land. Agricultural cultivation on a large scale is confined to a few places on the coast

and to the districts round Buje and Pisino. Elsewhere the holdings are very small. Thus in 1912 for 478,176 hectares of taxable land there were 136,932 payers of land-tax, and a great number of small parcels (sometimes as small as half a hectare) were widely scattered. The excessive parsimony of the inhabitants prevents them from undertaking schemes of improvement. The plots are so small that an unfavourable season quickly brings the people into debt and want, while in good years they will not save. These conditions foster the growth of economic dependence and of emigration. Moreover, there is a general want of capital. Many landlords live solely on the produce of their *kolonisten* (see below, p. 49) and in even worse conditions, while many of the richer ones have not the energy to develop their lands properly. If the marshes were drained and more cisterns were provided for the cattle on the Karst, the area of productive land might be considerably increased.

(*b*) *Products of Commercial Value*

Istria, large tracts of which are stony and badly watered, is not a country that grows corn on a large scale. On the Karst cultivation is only possible in oases (*doline*) too small in area for the use of the plough. In the sandstone districts the lower lands are swampy and cultivation is restricted to the slopes. The best land is in southern Istria, where the country is flat, and the only drawback is the heat and drought during the summer. Thus, while on the High Karst and in Inner Istria the products are restricted to small quantities of corn, beet, and cauliflower, in the west and south-west nearly everything will grow, vines, olives, and fruit being most remarkable for their luxuriance.

In the period 1903–12 and in the year 1912 respectively the areas under the chief crops and the amounts produced were as follows:

	Annual Average, 1903–12.		*Year* 1912.	
Crop.	*Hectares.*	*Quintals.*	*Hectares.*	*Quintals.*
Barley . .	6,058	27,628	5,434	35,083
Maize . .	19,625	124,155	17,395	160,466
Millet . .	—	—	455	2,458
Oats. . .	3,036	11,940	2,744	13,831
Peas, beans, &c.	—	—	1,041	8,876
Potatoes . .	5,990	186,585	6,622	267,734
Rye . . .	1,723	8,666	1,451	9,330
Spelt . .	933	4,306	624	5,436
Wheat . .	12,840	74,738	12,866	97,240

Cereals.—The two chief crops are maize and wheat. The former, which was introduced into Istria about a century ago, grows best in the sandstone region of the interior and on the north-west coast. Its average yield was 9·2 quintals per hectare in 1912, but only 6·2 quintals per hectare in the period 1903–12. The average yield of barley in the period 1903–12 was 4·6 quintals per hectare, but the yield in 1912 was 6·5 quintals per hectare. More than half of the barley and wheat is grown on the south and south-west coasts. On the central plateau about a quarter of the arable land is sown in autumn with wheat and rye, and the remainder in the spring with oats and potatoes. After the rye, as second sowing, usually come turnips.

Wine.—The vine is by far the most important agricultural product of Istria. In the period 1903–12 the annual average area of the vineyards was 35,503 hectares, the average yield per hectare 14 hectolitres, and the average total yield per annum 495,915 hectolitres of red and white wines together. In 1912, 27,201 hectares of land were under vines, producing 107,777 hectolitres of white wine, 323,113 of red wine, and 16,188 of mixed wine (from red and white grapes),

or 447,078 hectolitres in all. The coast districts furnish most of the red wine, the wines from the districts of Isola (between Pirano and Capodistria), Rovigno, Umago, Dignano, and Abbazia and the island of Veglia being the best known. White wine is obtained from the vines of the higher levels and the sandstone district. Now that most of the diseases which have affected the plants have been to a great extent overcome, it is probable that the industry has a prosperous future before it, if storage methods can be improved. The further extension of co-operative vineries on the model of the Cantina Sociale Co-operativa of Buje and Cittanova, or of the Cantina dell' Istituto Agrario Provinciale of Parenzo, is also desirable.

Olives.—The olive is next in importance to the vine. It grows along the whole coast and in the islands, the best groves being in the neighbourhood of Rovigno and Pirano. The crop is very variable by reason of frosts and uncertain spring weather; in 1912 the production of olive oil was returned as 9,872 quintals, but it ranges from 5,000 to 20,000 quintals a year. This output could, however, be considerably increased if better methods of grafting were adopted and fertilizers more extensively used. Moreover, the yield of oil would be larger if the methods of extraction were less primitive.

Fruit and Vegetables.—The chief centres of the fruit industry are the neighbourhood of Capodistria and the Quieto valley, together with the district of Castua, the Reka valley, and parts of central Istria. Fruit is also grown in the islands, especially about Lussin Piccolo. Oranges, lemons, melons of various kinds, cherries, almonds, pomegranates, and peaches grow in profusion, while the Istrian figs and nuts are greatly esteemed. The mulberry-tree is much grown on the west coast for silk-worms, Pirano and Rovigno being

the chief centres. The amount of fruits, nuts, and mulberry leaves produced in 1912 was as follows:

Crop.	*Quintals.*
Figs	3,079
Table grapes	5,413
Stone fruit	3,409
Other fruit	4,577
Almonds	647
Chestnuts	1,041
Filberts	2,490
Mulberry leaves	7,315

Potatoes are grown only on the Karst and in the north-western districts, peas and beans chiefly in the coast region. A considerable industry is growing up in the production of early vegetables of all kinds for the markets of Trieste and other centres.

Silk.—A certain amount of silk-worm rearing had its centre at Dignano as the result of the efforts, extended through many years, of a private individual, Signor Tommaso Sottocorona, who founded an establishment (Premiato Stabilimento Bacologico) for producing cocoons. But this promising industry appears to have been allowed to lapse. It should be possible not only to revive but to extend it, for the mulberry-tree grows well in Istria.

Honey and Aromatic Plants.—Bee-keeping, too, has been allowed to languish. Such hives as are kept by the peasants are usually of the old-fashioned kind, but the little honey produced is of admirable quality and flavour. An export trade in honey could easily be built up, and also one in perfumes and essential oils, manufactured from the numerous aromatic plants of the province, of which rosemary is the most prominent. The *sumach*, a plant of great value for tanning and dyeing purposes, grows freely in Istria.

Live Stock.—Istria is not, on the whole, suitable to the raising of live stock on a large scale. The area of the

meadow land is only one-eighth of that of the arable land, and cattle are kept only in the Čičen district, where the hill-slopes afford fairly good pasture. The want of water and proper feeding-stuffs and the poor grass restrict the numbers of cattle, which are valued chiefly for use at the plough. Milch kine are only found near Pola and Capodistria. On the bare Karst heaths sheep alone can find any sustenance. On the peninsula they are fed in the hills during the summer and on the low-lying lands of southern Istria in the winter, but some 40,000 are kept on the island of Cherso. Asses and mules are preferred as draught animals to horses, of which there are comparatively few. Swine are not bred in great numbers and many have to be imported from neighbouring provinces. The chief figures from the census of 1910 are as follows:

Asses	19,742	Mules	1,431
Cattle	60,490	Pigs	50,693
Goats	2,551	Sheep	203,047
Horses	4,026		

As the total population of Istria was then 386,463, there were approximately for every 1,000 inhabitants, 500 sheep, 125 pigs, 150 cattle, 52 asses and mules, 10 horses, and 6 goats.

(c) *Forestry*

In 1910 the area of forest land in Istria was returned as 164,402 hectares, or almost one-third of the total area of the province. Of these, 3,167 hectares were Crown forests, 197 hectares administered by the State, 29,172 communal, and 117,412 belonged to private estates, the remainder (14,454 hectares) being held by various public bodies, churches, and associations.

From the point of view of forestry, Istria may be divided into three distinct regions. The first is the mountain district between Hrpelje, above Trieste, on

the west and Fiume and Fasana on the east. This isolated mountain chain, with an average height of some 3,000 ft., has still a considerable amount of timber, especially beech. This is due to the fact that this wood was not employed in shipbuilding, and that the cost of transport was too great to make it available for export as firewood. Where the export of firewood is possible, as in the lower parts of the western districts of Pisino (Mitterburg) and Pinguente, the woods have been reduced to bare Karst by indiscriminate felling, and the ravages of cattle have assisted the process. The greater part of the forest land of this region is either State or communal property. The State forest of Dlettvo, near Klana, covers an area of 1,053 hectares, and has been replanted with conifers in the place of the original beech. In the Volosca district two *communes* alone possess over 5,000 hectares of forest land.

The second region is that of the hilly district of central Istria, which in some parts reaches a height of 1,500 ft. Here the woods are for the most part in private hands, and consist chiefly of evergreen oaks, oriental hornbeams (*Carpinus duinensis*), and the mountain ash. A great deal of firewood is sent from the western part of this district to Venice. In the parts about Pisino, Pinguente, and Albona, the destruction of the forests has been so great that the soil on the hillsides has often been washed away. The Government, however, took the matter in hand, and in 1888 appointed a commission with its seat at Parenzo to deal with it. The State domains of this region include the great forest of Montona (two-thirds oak and one-third elm), which was formerly reserved for the use of the Imperial Navy.

The third region is on the coast of the peninsula and in the islands. The latter are fairly well wooded,

except on the east side, where the trees are exposed to the violence of the *bora*. Veglia is the best wooded of the three greater islands; in Cherso and Lussin re-afforestation has recently made considerable progress. Here and on the coast the ilex is the most important tree, especially in the State forest of Siana near Pola. A certain number of cork oaks grow in this region; the bark is too porous for corks, but is used on fishing-nets. Between Volosca and Lovrana the sweet bay grows in profusion, and there is a fairly large export of its leaves. In 1912 the Istrian crop of bay leaves was returned as 110 quintals.

Thus, although the Istrian forests have suffered much from past neglect, they may now be said to be on the way to rehabilitation. The old timber areas are being protected and the goats excluded, while the State is gradually replanting the Karst with spruce, a process which, though slow and costly, is absolutely necessary for the welfare of the country.

(*d*) *Land Tenure*

For centuries land in Istria has been generally held by the tenure known as the *kolonat*, a system similar to that of *métayage*, under which the landlord supplies the land, house, &c., in return for an agreed share, generally one-third to one-half, of the produce of the land.[1] In recent years a process of redemption has been going on, and the peasants are gradually becoming proprietors of the land. How far this change has gone seems uncertain. But, whereas thirty years ago the *kolonat* was described as being the general rule, except in the chief vine and olive districts (where day labourers were employed), Dr. Krebs, writing in 1907, stated that the *kolonat* had then nearly disappeared

[1] For a full account see *Dalmatia*, No. 11 of this series, pp. 59–61.

and that freehold was almost universal. The characteristic of almost all the Istrian holdings is, as explained above (p. 42), that they are of minute size and widely scattered. The average holding is less than half a hectare.

(2) Fisheries

The fishing industry employs but a small part (less than 2 per cent.) of the population, and is said to be looked down on by the Slav races, with their proverb, 'The fish is naked and so is the fisherman'. Not only is the number of fishermen small, but the traders with whom they deal can supply only a poor outfit of nets and tackle. The chief centres of the industry are Isola, Capodistria, and Rovigno on the west coast, and Medolino and Moschenizze on the Gulf of Quarnero. But the deep-sea fishing is almost wholly in the hands of Italians from Chioggia, who have the right by treaty of coming within one nautical mile of the coast.

There are said to be on this coast 115 kinds of fish; sardines, anchovies, and mackerel abound in spring and summer, soles, grey mullet, tunny fish, and cod in winter, the last two especially in the Gulf of Quarnero. There are large quantities of shell-fish, particularly crabs and oysters, and the oyster industry could be rendered valuable if the beds were properly cleaned. The best oysters come from the neighbourhood of Fasana.

At present the Istrian fisheries, considered as a whole, cannot be said to be of great importance; fish is scarce and dear, and herrings and stockfish have to be imported. On the other hand, the sardine-tinning industry is growing. Factories have been set up at Rovigno, Capodistria, Fasana, and Isola, where the sardines are cured on the Nantes system and about 2,000,000 boxes a year produced. But this industry is also capable of considerable development.

(3) Minerals

The amount of mineral wealth developed in Istria under Venetian rule has certainly been exaggerated. It is improbable that the province will ever rank as a great mineral-producing region. At present the only mineral industry which is of real importance is coal-mining.

Coal.—The chief mines are situated between Carpano and Vines, near Albona, on the Gulf of Quarnero. In 1913 the Trifailer Kohlenwerks-Gesellschaft employed 961 persons and produced 130,174 metric tons of coal, valued at 2,022,500 kronen; of this, 31,498 tons went to Italy, the rest to Austria-Hungary. The output for the years 1907–12 was as follows:

	Metric tons.		*Metric tons.*
1907 . .	93,230	1910 . .	53,240
1908 . .	120,520	1911 . .	107,733
1909 . .	102,700	1912 . .	134,069

The whole of this coal used to be described as brown coal, but in the year 1912 it was, for the first time, put down in the official returns as pit-coal. Its value was given as 1,774,200 kronen in that year, and it appears to be a good bituminous coal. In the years 1907 and 1908 the output of briquettes was 2,106 and 2,564 metric tons respectively.

Aluminium has been worked to a considerable extent at Sovignaco near Pinguente in central Istria and at Bescanuova in the island of Veglia, but the latest reports indicate that in 1913 the works of Anton Pollay at the former place, and those of Anton Deskovic and Ivan Dubravic at the latter, had shut down.

Marble and Building-stone.—Istria abounds in building-stone of the highest quality, and the chief buildings not only of Trieste and Pola, but also of Venice, are constructed of it. The best marble quarries are at

Pola, Parenzo, Albona, and at Monte Plasiete and Momiano.

Sea salt is obtained in considerable quantities. The industry is dealt with in the following section.

An exceedingly fine *sand*, suitable for the manufacture of Venetian glass, is obtained from Istria. The best deposits are found near Pola and at Dignano. Although not now worked so extensively as formerly, they still supply a considerable amount of raw material to the glass-works at Murano, near Venice.

(4) Minor Industries

The industries of Istria, other than agriculture, are few in number and small in dimensions. The general lack of capital and the low standard of intelligence among the labouring classes have militated against progress. On the coast the *shipbuilding industry*, which at one time employed a large number of workmen, has decreased in importance, as the sailing-ship has given place to the steamship. At the former centres of the industry, Lussin Grande, Capodistria, Pirano, Rovigno, Ika, Volosca, and Cherso, only small coasting vessels at the most are still built. Lussin Piccolo alone can be said to turn out these vessels in any number. The shipbuilding of Pola is practically confined to the exigencies of the Imperial Navy.

Besides the *tinning of fish*, already described, the most profitable secondary industry at the present day is the *extraction of sea salt*. The centres of the salt industry are the Bays of Capodistria and Pirano. Twenty years ago the salt beds numbered about sixty, mostly in the hands of private proprietors, who were obliged to sell the salt to the Government at an agreed price. In 1913, however, there appear to have been only three salt beds actually working, the State works at Strugnano and Pirano and a private enterprise at

Fasana. The total production of salt in that year amounted to 11,126 metric tons, value 1,806,215 kronen, whereas 22,613 tons, value 3,657,712 kronen, were produced in 1911. The number of employees in 1912 was as follows:

	Men.	*Women.*	*Children.*	*Together.*
Whole-time workers .	233	185	102	520
Temporary workers .	160	7	88	255
Totals	393	192	190	775

As has been suggested above (p. 45), the importance of the *olive-oil industry* could be greatly increased. At present, however, the methods of extracting the oil are extremely primitive, and very few of the presses are worked by steam.

There is a *cement factory* near Rovigno, the raw material for which comes from near Albona. This is an industry capable of development on the Dalmatian model. At Rovigno *tiles* and *ship's biscuits* are manufactured, and the Government has a considerable *tobacco factory*. Rovigno is also one of the centres for the production of *goldsmith's work* and *jewellery*, especially filigree work, which has a considerable local sale, since the Istrian women frequently invest their savings in jewellery. *Glass-ware* is made at Pirano and *leather* at Muggia, while *cotton-spinning* is carried on at Capodistria and *lace-making* at Isola, where lace of some note is made on the Venetian model. At Parenzo there is a *distillery* of some importance.

(5) Water-power

Apparently little or nothing has been done to turn the very considerable water-power of Istria to account either for factories or for irrigation. From the Rosandra much water could easily be procured by judicious damming, and it could be employed for supplying

Trieste. The Risano, according to careful observations extending over several years, is believed to discharge 60 cubic metres of water in 24 hours. This and the copious waters of the Quieto could be utilized for much-needed irrigation.

At Pisino the falls of the Foiba (128 metres) are so voluminous that in any other country they would be made a special feature for tourists, and undoubtedly water-power for industrial purposes could be obtained from them.

(C) COMMERCE

Separate statistics as to the trade of Istria, whether domestic or foreign, are not available. So far as the former is concerned it is confined to purely local needs and products, as has been shown by the remarks on industries (p. 52). The external trade of Istria is almost wholly with the other provinces of Austria-Hungary or with Italy. Even with the rest of Austria-Hungary the amount of trade is far less than might be expected. The demand for imports is low owing to the poverty of the inhabitants, while the export trade is hindered by the generally poor quality of the goods exported. There is a Chamber of Commerce at Rovigno, which is the most important town after Pola.

(1) *Exports*

The chief Istrian export is wine, most of which goes to other parts of the Dual Monarchy, as do olive oil, salt, fish, table fruit, early vegetables, chestnuts, and bay leaves. Most of the building-stone, firewood, and coal exported is sent to Italy.

(2) *Imports*

The imports are, for the most part, cattle and food-stuffs such as corn, meal, sugar, and other groceries; but they include also textiles and shipbuilding materials.

They are almost wholly supplied from Austria-Hungary, Italy alone furnishing any competition.

The figures already cited (see above, p. 40) indicate the amount of sea-borne trade; doubtless goods also enter or leave the peninsula by rail, but the amount of these cannot be very large.

(D) FINANCE

(1) *Public Finance*

The following figures show the chief items of expenditure in the year 1910:

	Kronen.	
Representation and civil government	205,443	
Pensions, &c.	29,390	
Public safety	69,688	
Military service	2,734	
Sanitary service	955,012	
Poor relief, &c.	35,158	
Education and ecclesiastical affairs	1,365,219	
Agriculture	215,531	
Trade, industry, and mining	5,000	
Communications and public buildings	189,602	
Debt service	250,435	
Miscellaneous	826,935	
Capital and cash account	3,248,259	
	7,398,406	(£308,266)

The chief sources of revenue in 1910 were as follow:

	Kronen.	
Surtax on Imperial taxes	1,502,256	
Provincial taxes	273,929	
Allotted from Imperial taxes	239,116	
Fines	3,971	
Contributions from State and Church funds	394,642	
Contributions from various services, management dues, &c.	818,456	
Income from property and industrial enterprise	196,029	
Miscellaneous	9,877	
Capital and cash account	3,960,130	
	7,398,406	(£308,266)

(2) *Currency*

The currency is that of the Austro-Hungarian Empire.

(3) *Banking*

The banking business of Istria exhibits to a great degree the racial and political animosities which divide the province. In every town and district Italian and Slav agricultural credit and popular banks are established, and are employed, it is asserted, as much for propaganda as for legitimate financial purposes.

The great banking houses of Vienna and Trieste do not appear to have established many connexions in Istria. The Adriatische Bank has a branch at Abbazia, the Banca Commerciale Triestina at Pola, the Anglo-Oesterreichische Bank has taken over the Banca di Pirano at the town of that name, and the Oesterreichische Kredit-Anstalt für Handel und Gewerbe appears to have done the same with the Banca di Rovigno, founded in 1906.

Besides these, there is a provincial land bank, the Instituto di Credito Fondiario del Margraviato d'Istria, with its head-quarters at Parenzo, which advances money for land purchase, &c. The Italian and Slav popular banks, such as the Banca Popolare Capodistriana and the Istarska Posuiilnica at Pola, are numerous and transact a considerable amount of business, political, financial, and agricultural. This perhaps partly accounts for the fact that in 1911 only two banks, with 7,777 depositors, appeared in the official Austrian returns for saving banks. But there is also the further explanation that savings are frequently invested in jewellery (see above, p. 53).

(E) GENERAL REMARKS

The economic progress of Istria, like that of Dalmatia, has been hindered by the political quarrels of the Italians and Slavs. Here also the two races are more or less geographically distinct, the Italians occupying the coast and islands, the Slavs the interior. But, whereas in Dalmatia the Italians form but a small minority of the population, in Istria they form nearly half, and by far the most progressive element of it.

It cannot be said that the Austrian Government has done as much for the economic progress of Istria as it has, for instance, for that of Bosnia. The natural conservatism of the inhabitants, hard indeed to break down in any case, is developed to obstinacy by the racial quarrels. The standard of education, if much higher than it was thirty years ago, is still deplorably low; and in 1904 54 per cent. of the inhabitants were illiterate. Agricultural methods are almost everywhere primitive and social conditions are low; opportunities for co-operative farming, agricultural schools, and societies are at least inadequate.

Though Istria as a whole is not a fertile province, much more land could be brought under intensive cultivation than is now the case. The draining of marshes in some parts, the application of a system of irrigation in others, and the provision of cisterns on the Karst, are all necessary. In this connexion reafforestation of the denuded timber areas should be carried out more systematically and on a larger scale.

Although the mineral wealth of the province will never be great, coal being the only product present in any quantity, many minor industries might be developed, especially those dealing with cement and salines. The quarries of building-stone and marble in which Istria abounds have hitherto been little drawn upon. Nor will Istria ever be an industrial country in the strict sense of the term. But, apart from the industries mentioned above, it would be possible to develop considerably the trade in olive oil, silk, dried fruits, scents, and essential oils. The fisheries, and especially the sardine-tinning industry, need development.

GORIZIA–GRADISCA

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) Internal

(*a*) *Roads*

The road system of Gorizia–Gradisca [1] may be described as adequate. So far as its main features are concerned it may be said to owe its inception to the French occupation under Napoleon I. The main

[1] The area is also loosely called Austrian or Eastern Friuli.

roads are on the whole in good condition and suitable for motor traffic. One of the two great roads which connect Trieste with the north runs through the province. This road, after skirting the Gulf of Trieste, leads through Monfalcone to Gradisca, from which it ascends the valley of the Isonzo, passing through Gorizia, Tolmino (Tolmein), Caporetto (Karfreit), and Plezzo (Flitsch), and crosses the Predil Pass (3,812 ft. above sea-level) to Tarvis in Carinthia, reaching the valley of the Drave at Villach. Between Tarvis and Gorizia there is a motor diligence service.

Several important roads branch off from the main route. From Caporetto a road runs west across the Italian frontier into the valley of the Natisone, and so southward through San Pietro al Natisone and Cividale to Udine. From near Santa Lucia di Tolmino (Tolmein) a road runs up the valley of the Idria. Just before Cerchina (Kirchheim) it divides, the northern branch going through Cerchina, over the Škofje Pass (3,000 ft. high) and Škofja Loka (Bischoflack), into the valley of the Save between Krainburg and Laibach; the southern following the valley of the Idria to Idria itself and passing thence to join the high road from Gorizia to Laibach *via* Aidussina (Haidenschaft) near Loitsch. From Aidussina a road runs south to Trieste through Vipacco (Wippach) and Sesana. State motor diligences were running in recent years from Gorizia to Adelsberg *via* Aidussina, and there was a similar service from Idria to Loitsch.

The two main roads into Italy are that from Monfalcone through Cervignano to San Giorgio di Nogaro and that from Gradisca through Palmanova to Udine. Cividale, apart from this circuitous route through Udine and that through Caporetto mentioned above, is not connected by road with the valley of the Isonzo.

(*b*) *Rivers*

The rivers of Gorizia–Gradisca are of no importance as a means of communication. The chief river, the Isonzo, with its tributaries the Bazza or Bača, the Idria, and the Vipacco (Wippach), is not navigable. As it approaches the sea it divides into two branches, of which the western loses itself in the marshes; the eastern below Sagrado has been canalized, and, under the name of Canal Dottori, passes Monfalcone (see below, p. 63) and flows into the sea at Porto Rosega. Apart from this there are no navigable canals.

(*c*) *Railways*

The railway system of Gorizia–Gradisca, long inadequate and inconvenient, is now ample for its needs. By the opening of the great Tauern Railway in 1909 the province became the channel through which most of the trade of southern Germany passed to Trieste. If commercial interests alone had been considered, this line would doubtless, like the main road, have followed the natural way into the province by the Predil Pass or its neighbourhood and into the valley of the Isonzo at Plezzo. This route, however, would have exposed the line to a flank attack from Italy, for it would have run for a great distance almost alongside the frontier. Consequently the military authorities insisted on its coming into the valley of the Isonzo farther south, though this involved great additional expense; for the Wocheiner tunnel, by which the line pierces the main range of the Julian Alps, was for its length one of the most expensive in Europe, and it was also necessary to pierce the Karawanken Range in order to give direct access to Klagenfurt. As it is, the line only follows its natural route along the Isonzo between Santa Lucia di Tolmino and Gorizia. Beyond

Gorizia the military authorities again dictated its course. The easiest route to Trieste would have been down the valley of the Isonzo via Gradisca to Monfalcone and thence along the sea-coast. But this would have exposed the line to an attack by the Italian fleet. Consequently at Gorizia it leaves the valley of the Isonzo and climbs, *via* Prvačina and Reifenberg, on to the Karst to a height of nearly 1,000 ft., whence after a circuitous route *via* Opčina it at last descends in wide curves to Trieste. It is not quite 42 miles from Gorizia to Trieste, but the journey in 1914 could not be accomplished in less than 78 minutes.

Before the opening of this line the province was almost shut off from the north, although it was traversed by some 15 miles of the main line from Italy to Vienna *via* Udine, Pontebba, and Tarvis, and also by part of the line from Trieste to Laibach.

So far as the railway connexions with Italy are concerned, the conditions were much better. There are two lines from Trieste to Venice, branching off from one another at Monfalcone; the older line is part of the Südbahn system and goes *via* Gradisca, Gorizia, and Cormons across the frontier to Udine; the other, worked by the State Railway, crosses the frontier at Cervignano and takes the most direct route *via* Portogruaro to Venice. A branch from Monfalcone to Porto Rosega was opened in 1894, and another, eight miles in length, from Cervignano to Grado, *via* Aquileia and Belvedere, in 1910.

The Wippachtalbahn, a line of considerable local importance, was opened in 1902. It leaves the main line from Gorizia to Trieste at Prvačina, seven and a half miles south-east of Gorizia, and runs about twelve miles farther up the valley of the Vipacco *via* Biglia and Ustia to Aidussina (Haidenschaft). The continuation of this line by way of the Nauporto Pass

(1,850 ft. above the sea) to join the Trieste–Laibach Railway has been planned but not yet carried out.

It has already been pointed out that for the needs of the province itself the railway facilities are adequate. Mention may, however, be made of a scheme that has been worked out by Sir Arthur Evans and others, by which the Orient express from Paris to Constantinople should run, not as before through Munich and Vienna, but through Milan and Venice (or rather Mestre) to Laibach, and thence *via* Zagreb (Agram) down the valley of the Save to Belgrade. If this scheme were carried out, the Vipacco valley line mentioned above could be utilized as far as Aidussina; and thence a new line would be constructed through the Julian Alps to the valley of the Save, the total distance from Gorizia to Laibach being some 67 miles. The proposed new line would present no great engineering difficulties; and it is calculated that the journey from London to Belgrade would be shortened by some 5½ hours.[1]

(2) External

(*a*) *Ports*

The coast of Gorizia–Gradisca extends over about 24 miles: from the Italian frontier to Duino it runs mainly north-east and is encumbered by sandbanks, and from Duino it turns south-east and becomes steep and rocky. The harbours are few and serve chiefly for fishing and coasting vessels, which take fish and sand to Trieste. The only exception is Monfalcone, which is being developed as a shipbuilding centre.

Port Buso is half Austrian and half Italian. It communicates with the lagoons and receives the waters

[1] The following projected lines have also been under consideration: Santa Lucia di Tolmino to Plezzo *via* the Isonzo valley; Santa Lucia di Tolmino to Ober Laibach *via* the Idria valley; Gorizia to Cervignano.

of several rivers, including the Ausa. The outer anchorage has in parts a depth of 4½ fathoms, but the channel to the port itself has a depth of 6–8 ft. only. Small steamers ascend the Ausa as far as Cervignano.

Port Grado is equally unsuited to any but very small craft. There is a depth of water off the town of 5½ fathoms, but the channel to the shore is dredged to a depth of 10 ft. only. Grado communicates by water with Port Buso and with Aquileia.

Panzano Bay has a general depth of 5½ fathoms. The channel to *Monfalcone* was dredged to a depth of 18½ ft. before the war, but it has probably been further deepened lately for shipbuilding development. Coasting craft can find shelter in several small creeks and inlets: of these the chief are *Port Rosega*, the channel to which has been dredged to 10 ft., and *Port Duino*, with a depth of 3 ft.

Between Duino and Trieste two coves, *Sistiano* (with a short mole) and *Grignano*, are suitable for small coasting craft, but afford no refuge for large vessels.

(*b*) *Shipping*

The absence of ports of any size or depth and the excellence of the communications by land confine the shipping facilities of the province to the smallest dimensions. The traffic by water is practically monopolized by a small local line, the Società di Navigazione a Vapore Lagunare Grado-Aquileia.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) Labour

It is estimated that of every 1,000 inhabitants of Gorizia–Gradisca 677 are engaged in agricultural pursuits, 185 in other industries (woodmen 21 per 1,000, charcoal-burners 22, miners 10, metal workers 29,

transport workers 57, others 46), 51 in commerce, and 87 as clerks, in the liberal professions, &c.

The supply of labour in the province appears to have been generally in excess of the demand. Foreign competition, successions of bad harvests, and diseases of vines and silk-worms, have led to emigration on a considerable scale, particularly to the United States and to South America. The poverty of parts of the province, especially of the Alpine regions and the Karst, causes large numbers of its inhabitants to emigrate to Trieste and other towns in quest of temporary employment as stone-masons, porters, transport workers, &c. The people of the Plezzo basin in particular are often employed as hawkers during the winter months; in the summer they return to tend their sheep.

It is probable, on the other hand, that the problem of finding work would not be so acute if the resources of the province had been developed in a more systematic way. A considerable amount of cultivable land would be available if the draining of the marshes were continued and if irrigation schemes were undertaken of the kind already carried out on the Isonzo (see below, p. 74). Moreover, the land could probably support a larger population if the agricultural methods were less primitive. Up-to-date machinery, the use of proper fertilizers, and a better method of grafting and pruning the vines and fruit-trees, are all to be desired in this connexion.

(2) Agriculture

(a) *Variety of Soils and Climates*

The province of Gorizia–Gradisca, extending as it does from the highest point of the Julian Alps to the sea, exhibits in an area of less than 1,130 square miles an extraordinary variety of products, ranging from Alpine plants to olives and rice.

There are in the province four well-defined districts—the Alpine, the region of the foot-hills, the Karst, and the plain.

The *Alpine district* supports only a sparse population, dependent for its livelihood on sheep and goats and a few cattle fed on poor pasture on the hill-sides. It is only in the Plezzo basin of the upper Isonzo that it is found worth while to raise a few crops such as maize and potatoes. From the mountain slopes nothing but a little hay is brought down to the valleys.

The *region of the foot-hills* enjoys a milder climate and has a more fruitful soil than the Alpine region. In general, live stock is still the chief source of revenue, some 17,000 out of the 22,000 hectares of productive land being meadow; but round about Canale, Santa Lucia di Tolmino, and Cerchina, fruit is cultivated with considerable success, large quantities of apples being sent away. Still more fertile, notably in fruit and vines, are two districts lower down the Isonzo, the Coglio district on the right bank of the river and the lower Vipacco valley on the left.

The *Karst* is a plateau with a general height of 900–1,000 ft., occupying the south-eastern part of the province. It suffers from the *bora* (north to north-east wind) in winter and from droughts in summer. It is waterless, except for a few primitive cisterns, and there is practically no pasture. The only cultivation goes on in the red-earth depressions known as *doline*, where vines, corn, turnips, and potatoes are to some extent grown.

The *plain*, consisting of alluvium of great depth, is by far the richest part of the province, and is protected from the north winds by the mountains. Of the cultivable land some three-fifths, or about 28,000 hectares, is arable land and the rest meadows, vineyards, &c.

(*b*) *Products of Commercial Value*

Cereals.—The average area of land under cereals in the period 1903–12 was 29,112 hectares. The most important crop is maize, which covers an area nearly twice as large as that under wheat. The following table shows the average area and yield per annum of the chief crops for the period 1903–12:

Crop.	*Hectares.*	*Quintals.*
Barley	2,138	15,584
Maize	15,238	191,762
Oats	1,812	16,308
Rye	1,321	10,329
Wheat	8,374	76,100

Wine.—The vine is the most widely cultivated product. In the foot-hills it is grown on terraces known as *ronchi*. In the plain the vines are often stretched from tree to tree. The wine of the province, which is mostly white, is reckoned to be among the best in Austria-Hungary. The most esteemed wines are the *prosecco* of the Duino district, the *refosco* of Aquileia, which is said to rival the *barbera* of Piedmont, and above all the *ribolla* of the Collio hills, which has a reputation beyond the frontiers of the Empire. Of recent years American vines have been introduced to repair the damage wrought by the phylloxera. The average quantity of wine produced annually in the period 1903–12 was only 225,052 hectolitres, or 20·8 hectolitres per hectare. In 1912 the production increased to 350,416 hectolitres (or 35·2 per hectare), and in 1913 to over 1,000,000 hectolitres.

Fruit and Vegetables.—A great quantity of fruit of all kinds is produced on the plain and among the foot-hills. The most important are cherries and plums. The former are exported in great numbers to Germany and Russia, and the latter are dried after the manner of Bosnian plums. Gorizia itself is the chief centre of

this industry and of the large export trade in this kind of produce. Apricots, peaches, figs, and table grapes also figure among the list of exports. This trade, as also that in early vegetables, is capable of considerable expansion. The annual crop of potatoes averaged in the period 1903–12 nearly 306,700 quintals, raised on 4,093 hectares.

Olives.—The olive grows well on the plain, especially in the district about Duino. A great deal more oil could be produced if better methods of grafting the trees and pressing the fruit were adopted.

Rice.—Some fifty years ago it was decided to try to utilize the non-productive marshlands in the neighbourhood of Aquileia for the cultivation of rice. The experiment was attended by a considerable measure of success: by the year 1890 about 600 hectares were sown with rice, the production being 20–30 hectolitres per hectare. The rice was prepared for the market at the rice-mills of Monastero near Aquileia. Separate returns for the rice crops of this region in recent years are not available, but it is probably still the only place in the Dual Monarchy where rice is grown, and the returns for Austria as a whole give the crop of 1912 as 1,350 quintals and the area under cultivation as 300 hectares.

Silk.—The silk industry is of long standing, and became flourishing in the days of the Empress Maria Theresa. Mulberry-trees grow well both on the plain and in the foot-hills, and at one time nearly every house had a supply of silk-worms. Thirty years ago the value of the annual production was between two and three million kronen, but it is no longer so great. In the five years 1908–12 the total production of cocoons weighed 1,432,175 kilograms, the average annual production being 286,435 kg., with an average value of 945,235 kronen. The production of the province represented nearly

13 per cent. of the total output of Austria-Hungary. The industry is probably capable of great development.

Honey and Wax.—This industry has been comparatively neglected. In 1912 there were in the province 9,929 beehives, or less than 40 per 1,000 inhabitants. The production in this year was 62,900 kilograms of honey and 8,500 kilograms of wax, the amount per beehive being, in the case of both commodities, the highest in Austria-Hungary.

Live Stock.—Owing to the scarcity of meadow land and of forage generally, the numbers of live stock are relatively small. The horned cattle of the Karst are undersized, but those of the plain are large and sturdy, and until recently were used solely as draught animals. There is now, however, a fair number of cows reserved for milking purposes, and butter and milk are beginning to be sent to Trieste. The breed of horses of this district was highly esteemed in Italy in the Middle Ages, but it was allowed to decline. Of recent years steps have been taken to improve it. The sheep suffer from the poor pasture of the mountain regions, but the local breed of pigs is a good one. The peasants and small householders devote a good deal of attention to raising poultry, and eggs are exported in considerable numbers.

At the census of animals taken in 1910, the numbers of live stock in the province were as follows :

Asses and mules	405	Pigs	58,081
Goats	6,468	Poultry	330,666
Horned cattle	75,399	Sheep	15,095
Horses	6,327		

(c) *Forestry*

Although the Karst and, to a certain extent, the middle hills have suffered much from indiscriminate

felling and the ravages of goats, the province, as a whole, may be said to be less despoiled of timber than some of its neighbours.

The total extent of forest land in 1910 was 67,589 hectares, or 23·1 per cent. of the area of the province. This land was distributed as follows:

Owner or Administrator.	*Hectares.*	*Percentage of total forest area.*
The State	9,987	14·8
The communes	21,097	31·2
Ecclesiastical bodies, public funds, &c.	323	0·5
Companies and associations . .	2,170	3·2
Private persons	34,012	50·3
Total . . .	67,589	100·0

In the northern districts the chief trees are beeches and conifers of various kinds, especially *Pinus sylvestris* and *Pinus laricio* var. *nigricans*. Below 3,000 ft. come the walnuts and oaks, and below 1,800 ft. the chestnuts and elms. The ilex is especially abundant near Duino. Near Aquileia is the forest of Centenera, which consists of *Pinus halepensis* and *Pinus pinea*.

Most of the forests are in private or communal hands. The State has, however, also a considerable area of forest land, the forest of Panowitz, near Gorizia, which consists chiefly of oaks, being of especial importance. The forestry administration has been efficient. The State and communal forests are now well protected; good roads and forest railways have been built to facilitate the transport of timber, and numerous sawmills worked by water-power have been established. In districts which have suffered from denudation, particularly the Karst, reafforestation schemes on a large scale have been undertaken, an immense number of seedlings having been supplied gratis to the communal authorities and to private owners.

(*d*) *Land Tenure*

The system of land tenure in the province varies according to the district. Roughly speaking, it may be said that small holdings obtain in the poorer parts and the *kolonat* system in the richer. Thus in the Alpine region, the Karst, and the greater part of the foot-hill region, including the Vipacco valley, small holdings are general; in the plain and in the richest part of the foot-hills, the Collio district, the *kolonat* is the rule.

Under the form of contract generally entered into in the plain the farmer and his family cultivate as large an area as they can; the landlord provides the land, buildings, &c., and receives from the tenant an agreed portion of the produce, usually one-half. The usual rate elsewhere is roughly three hectolitres of wheat per hectare, and an agreed share of the produce of the vines, silk-worms, &c., besides fowls, eggs, and certain first-fruits, while the rent of meadow land is paid in money. Where the vine is the chief product, two-thirds of the new wine and half the fruit is paid as rent, but no wheat. The average holding of arable land is about 8 hectares. The tenancy, though annual, is renewed from year to year in default of notice to the contrary, so that many families have occupied the same land for centuries.

For want of tenants under this system, many landlords, especially in the plain district, have had part of their estates cultivated by hired labourers, locally known as *sottani*; but the *kolonat* would appear to be the system preferred on the whole by both parties. The advantages and disadvantages of the system are discussed in *Bosnia*, No. 12, *Dalmatia*, No. 11 of this series, and above, p. 49.

(3) Fisheries

Grado and Duino are the centres of the fishing industry of the province, the conditions of which closely resemble those of Istria. Soles, *sgombri* (a kind of mackerel), and tunny fish are caught in considerable numbers, but the most profitable fish is the sardine. Two factories at Grado and one at Duino had been established by the year 1890, and were then producing yearly some 700,000 boxes of sardines, tinned on the Nantes model.

In the year 1911–12 the fishermen of the Austrian littoral, as a whole, caught fish (including shell-fish) to the value of over four million kronen, and the total value of the fish tinned, smoked, or dried on these coasts was nearly 2,156,000 kronen, the number of boxes of sardines and anchovies being given as more than 5,000,000.

With regard to river fishing, the trout of the River Isonzo and of its tributary the Vipacco enjoy a great local reputation.

(4) Minerals

The mining interests of the province, never very large, may now be described as non-existent, the coal-mines of Škofje having ceased working some years ago. Nevertheless, it is probable that both coal and iron exist in remunerative quantities. Disused workings are evident in many districts, especially in the neighbourhood of Gorizia, while the presence of coal has been reported at San Vito, at Cersoca above Volzana, and at several places in the district of Tolmino. It is probable that quicksilver exists in the province, for the important mines of Idria are situated immediately over the border in Carniola.

The limestone quarries of Nabresina and Santa Croce in the Karst furnish a particularly valuable kind

of limestone, which has been extensively used for buildings in Vienna and elsewhere; a certain amount has been exported to Egypt. There are also large marble quarries near Nabresina, the black marble of Komen being especially esteemed.

(5) Manufactures

Although less than 20 per cent. of the inhabitants of Gorizia–Gradisca are engaged in industries other than agricultural, the industrial position of the province is considerably higher than that of Istria or Dalmatia. The chief centres of industry are Gorizia and Monfalcone, but several other towns specialize in particular branches.

Cotton-spinning and Weaving.—The most important spinning and weaving works are those of the Vereinigte Österreichische Textilindustrie A/G. (or Società Riuniti Cotonifici Austriaci), which is registered at Vienna and owns 67,000 spindles in various provinces. It has factories at Aidussina, Monfalcone, Ronchi, and Straussina, near Gorizia; at the last-named place water-power is drawn from the River Isonzo. Other large companies, with head-quarters at Trieste, have spinning works or looms at Aidussina (26,000 spindles), Monfalcone (31,000 spindles and 350 employees), and Ronchi (6,556 spindles and 380 looms).

Dyeing.—There are dyeing establishments at Gorizia and Monfalcone, while at Medeazza the sumach plant, which grows freely on the Karst, is prepared for dyeing purposes in a special factory.

Furniture-making and Basket-weaving.—The manufacture of chairs and other articles of furniture, like the basket-weaving industry, is carried on in many places, but the chief centres are Cormons and Mariano. At the former place the Fratelli Falzari have a factory, with about 70 employees, turning out various wooden

articles of furniture, especially chairs and stools, some of which are exported to Egypt; and there is a similar factory in the same town, which also does a general trade in wood. At Mariano the Government many years ago established a technical school, where furniture of the better class was designed and manufactured.

The basket-making industry has been fostered by a similar school at Fogliano, near Sagrado, where at least four large companies, one of which was founded quite recently, are engaged in producing hundreds of thousands of baskets, mainly for use in the fruit trade of this and the neighbouring provinces. One of the companies, founded in 1902, employs 600 workpeople, and exports its wares to Egypt and Turkey.

Lace-making is a fairly widespread industry in the valleys of the Isonzo and the Idria, but there seem to be no large undertakings.

The *leather industry* has attained a certain importance. There are tanneries at Gorizia and at Monfalcone, while boots are manufactured at Merna and exported, particularly to Dalmatia and Bosnia.

Silk-spinning is one of the oldest and most important of the minor industries, raw silk being the chief product. At Gorizia the spinning works of A. Lenassi, founded in 1840, employ about 160 persons, and both here and in Sagrado there are large mechanical spinning works with many thousands of spindles for dealing with floss silk. A branch establishment for spinning yarns at Straussina is owned by the Sagrado firm, and at Brazzano, near Cormons, nearly 400 workpeople are employed by two firms engaged in producing raw silk (*grège*) for export to France, Italy, and Germany.

Miscellaneous Industries.—The firm of L. Chiozza & Co. have a rice-mill at Perteole, and connected with this is a starch factory at Cervignano, founded in 1868, and now employing 150 workpeople. Their products

are exported to American as well as to European centres. A firm owning a marble quarry at Nabresina produces all kinds of mason's work, and exports it to Germany, Switzerland, Egypt, and America. There is a large paper and cellulose factory at Podgora near Gorizia, which belongs to a well-known Vienna company. Gorizia also produces soap, beer, matches, and rope, while the trade in preserved fruits is a growing one. There is a large manufactory of chemical products at Monfalcone, which specializes in ceresine (for phonographs), vaseline, parquet wax, car grease, &c. The sardine-tinning industry has been dealt with under 'Fisheries'. Several firms are engaged in it.

For the shipbuilding yards at Monfalcone see below, p. 90.

(6) Water-power and Irrigation

The water-power of the Isonzo and its tributaries is probably still not utilized to anything like its full extent, particularly that of the upper and middle course of the main river. Six falls capable of developing some 2,500 horse-power are utilized, chiefly for electrical plant, and many of the small towns are now furnished with electric light by this means.

Considerable works have, however, been undertaken on the lower Isonzo with a view to irrigating large portions of the plain region and reclaiming the malaria-stricken marsh district. Between Gradisca and Sagrado the river is provided with a stone dam some 1,200 ft. long. The principal outlet is on the left bank of the river. Here begins the main canal, which is first divided into four smaller ones and subsequently into numerous others, the whole scheme providing for the irrigation of some 4,000 hectares. The main canal now serves to form the port of Monfalcone, and the river is said to be drained to such an extent in the summer that the wells of the lower reaches become dry.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) Domestic

The principal branches of trade and the chief towns and markets have been noted in the foregoing sections. On January 1, 1913, there were in the province 234 registered trading companies, including 15 co-operative societies, 80 companies engaged in agriculture, 15 in industry, and 6 in building. The remaining 118 were credit societies (see below, p. 77). It appears that there are very few, if any, purely commercial, as distinct from industrial or financial, undertakings, except those in private hands.

Among organizations to promote trade and commerce may be noted three unions of trading or agricultural companies, the Chamber of Commerce at Gorizia, and about fifty trade schools.

British interests appear to be represented hardly at all in the province. The great majority of foreigners who visit it are Italians or Germans (4,293 and 1,590 respectively in 1912, as against 114 British). Most of the local firms appear to be Austrian or Italian.

(2) Foreign

Separate statistics of the exports and imports of the province are not published. The external trade of the province is almost wholly with the other provinces of Austria-Hungary and with Italy.

(*a*) *Exports*

These chiefly consist of wine, fruit, live stock, and vegetables, nearly all of which go to Austria-Hungary. Italy, however, takes some of the wine and horned cattle, and most of the silk cocoons. The early cherries go to Germany and even to Russia, while the trade

in preserved and dried fruit, especially cherries and plums, has extended to the United States and to the East Indies. The woven silks of Gorizia and Monfalcone go to France and to Germany, while the cotton goods are chiefly disposed of in the Levant. Such of the sardines as are not sent to Austria-Hungary find a ready sale in Egypt.

(*b*) *Imports*

The imports into the province consist chiefly of flour, chemicals, cotton and woollen goods, and agricultural machinery. A large quantity of sea salt comes from Istria. Nearly all the imports are provided by Austria-Hungary, but it is not possible to give detailed information as to the countries of origin.

(D) FINANCE

(1) *Public Finance*

The following figures show the chief items of expenditure for the province in the year 1910:

	Kronen.
Representation and civil government	285,692
Pensions, &c.	24,715
Public safety	69,332
Military service	432
Sanitary service	634,370
Poor relief, &c.	115,254
Education and public worship . .	750,659
Agriculture	165,121
Trade, industry, and mining . .	15,000
Communications and public works .	85,140
Debt service	97,082
Miscellaneous	137,875
Capital and cash account . .	9,278
Total	2,389,950 (£99,581)

The chief sources of revenue in 1910 were as follows:

	Kronen.
Surtax on Imperial taxes	1,157,835
Provincial taxes	192,767
Allotted from Imperial taxes	227,668
Fines	1,968
Contributions from State and Church funds	21,988
Contributions from various services, management dues, &c.	271,712
Income from property and industrial enterprise	191,452
Miscellaneous	2,018
Capital and cash account	322,542
Total	2,389,950 (£99,581)

(2) *Currency*

In Gorizia–Gradisca the currency is that of the Austro-Hungarian Empire.

(3) *Banking*

The Banca Commerciale Triestina does most of the banking business of the province. It has branches at Gorizia and at Monfalcone, with sub-agencies at smaller places. There is an agricultural bank with head-quarters at Gorizia, the Istituto Provinciale di Credito Ipotecario della Contea Principesca di Gorizia e Gradisca, founded in 1901. In addition there were on January 1, 1913, 118 co-operative loan societies worked on the Schulze-Delitzsch or, more often, the Raiffeisen system. Some of these are used to further racial, and others clerical interests, the Cassa Operaia Catolica di Prestito e Risparmio of Grado and its neighbourhood being an obvious example of the latter class.

(E) GENERAL REMARKS

The province of Gorizia–Gradisca, long relegated to a position of comparative obscurity, now forms an important link in the system of international communications. The Tauern line, which passes through it, provides a connexion of the first importance between north and south, and especially between southern Germany and the Mediterranean at Trieste. It is possible that the province is destined to form a link between east and west also. If the suggested diversion of the Orient express route were carried out (p. 62), the main line from Paris to Constantinople would pass through Gorizia, which would become one of the greatest railway junctions in Europe. This in itself, apart from any change in political status, would suffice to bring prosperity to the industries and products of the province.

It has already been indicated that the economic position of Gorizia–Gradisca is on the whole better than that of its neighbours Istria and Dalmatia. Its resources could, however, be developed in many ways, notably by the further reclamation of the marshlands, the irrigation of the plain, and the reafforestation of the Karst. The water-power of the River Isonzo and its numerous tributaries has still to be utilized on a large scale, and this should bring about a great development of the industries of the province, especially in textiles. The preparation and export of dried fruit and of tinned sardines are also industries capable of considerable expansion. Although the province is never likely to furnish a large supply of minerals, there is probably nearly enough coal and iron to satisfy local requirements, while the supply of valuable limestone and marble is practically inexhaustible.

TRIESTE

(A) RAILWAY COMMUNICATIONS

The development of Trieste was long hampered by the lack of sufficient inland communications. When railway expansion began in Austria the Austrians were still in possession of Venice, with the consequence that the main line of the Semmering Railway (Südbahn) was carried into Italy, and Trieste was only provided with a branch line along the coast *via* Nabresina. In 1857, it is true, the Graz section of the Südbahn was extended *via* Laibach to Trieste, which was thus given direct connexion with Vienna, the iron districts of the Eastern Alps, and the important industrial centres of Styria and Carniola, but this line, on account of the steepness of its gradients, is inadequate to the traffic of a first-class port. Moreover, the successive opening of the Brenner and the St. Gothard lines reacted against the interests of Trieste and in favour of those of Genoa and Venice, just when the Suez Canal was restoring the Mediterranean to the position of a main trade route; while since 1870 the development of Fiume has constituted another obstacle to the progress of the Austrian port.

At the beginning of the present century, however, steps were taken to counteract these adverse influences. By the construction of the Karawanken and Tauern lines (see p. 60) Trieste has been put into direct communication not only with Bohemia and the industrial provinces of northern Austria, but also with Munich and the other great towns of southern Germany. The distance between Trieste and Munich has been shortened from 421 to 360 miles; that between Munich and Hamburg is 506 miles; so that Trieste now offers indisputably the most convenient entry and outlet for

south German overseas trade. The fact that Trieste has been made accessible by rail from Central Europe has resulted in an enormous increase of the shipping entered and cleared at the port.

The railway connexions of Trieste with Italy and Gorizia are dealt with on p. 61; those with Pola, Fiume, and the Istrian peninsula generally, on p. 34.

There is an electric mountain railway four miles in length from Trieste to Opčina.

(B) PORT ACCOMMODATION

The port of Trieste has three main divisions.

(i) The *Porto Vecchio* dates back in part to Roman days, but received considerable additions in the eighteenth century, when the Santa Teresa and San Carlo moles were built, and again in the early nineteenth century. It is capable of accommodating a considerable number of vessels of any size, and is sheltered from the east winds though exposed to the west. The Santa Teresa mole, on which are a lighthouse and a wireless station, protects it from the south-west. It is provided with stone quays with six projecting moles or jetties and a boat harbour on the west side of the San Carlo, or easternmost, mole. There is good anchorage outside the harbour in ten to twelve fathoms, while the depth at the heads of the moles is eight fathoms.

(ii) The *Porto Nuovo.*—After the extension of the Südbahn to Trieste in 1857 the trade of the port increased so rapidly that an extension of the harbour accommodation became imperative, and between 1868 and 1883 the Porto Nuovo was constructed to meet the need. This harbour is situated immediately north of the Porto Vecchio and close to the Südbahn station. It is formed by a quay with four broad projecting

piers, sheltered by a breakwater running parallel with the shore and 340 yds. from it. The depth of water within the breakwater and between the piers varies from five to eight fathoms. Between the Porto Vecchio and the Porto Nuovo is the Canal Grande, which can be used by vessels drawing up to 14 ft.

(iii) The *Porto Nuovo di Francesco Giuseppe* (*Franz Josef Hafen*).—The ever-increasing traffic of the port, and the prospect of a vast extension so soon as the Tauern Railway should be open, necessitated further harbour works. These partly consisted of improvements in the old and new harbours, such as the widening of quays and the building of additional moles. But in view of the confined nature of the existing harbours and of the impossibility of extending them on a large scale, a much more ambitious project was adopted. This was to form an entirely new harbour to the south of the Porto Vecchio and embracing in its scope the whole Bay of Muggia. From the Santa Teresa mole on the south side of the old harbour to the petroleum pier on the north side of the Bay of Muggia the coast has been embanked, land to the extent of 55 hectares reclaimed, and an extensive line of quayage formed, from the northern part of which three moles project in a westerly direction. Three detached breakwaters, the two northern about 500 yds. long, the southern nearly a mile, placed *en échelon* from north to south, almost completely shut in the Bay of Muggia from westerly winds. The harbour thus formed has a depth of from nine to ten fathoms; and its construction brings the quay length of the port of Trieste to over 14,000 yds. The harbour was formally opened in 1910, and may now be said to be, in its essential features, complete. Its construction gives Trieste a harbour accommodation superior to that of Genoa, and adequate to its needs for many years to come. In

the opinion of some authorities the scene of any future development will be Monfalcone (see pp. 63, 90), the geographical situation of which is more favourable than that of Trieste.

Docks.—In the northern bight of Muggia Bay is the Austrian Lloyd arsenal, over 25 acres in extent, and with a dock 446 ft. in length on the blocks, 68 ft. wide at the loping, and with a depth of 19 ft. over the sill. Parallel to it is a Morsons patent slip, capable of taking a vessel up to 2,100 tons. West of the arsenal is the Stabilimento Tecnico Triestino, which has a dry dock 414 ft. long and 66 ft. wide at the entrance, and with a depth of 26 ft. over the sill. The port of Trieste itself has two small graving docks capable of taking vessels up to 3,500 and 4,000 tons respectively, and a slip for ships up to 1,200 tons.

(C) SHIPPING

(1) *General Development*

The incorporation of Istria and Dalmatia into the Monarchy made Trieste the heiress of Venice. A seafaring population and the personnel of a fleet were assured to Austria, which could now aspire for the first time to the supremacy of the Adriatic. In the first half of the nineteenth century, while the sailing-ship still held its own, Trieste and the other ports of the eastern side of the Adriatic developed their shipbuilding and obtained a large share of the trade of the eastern Mediterranean. Then came a crisis. The era of the sailing-ship passed away, and that of the steamship, so far as Trieste was concerned, had not yet come. During the last thirty years, however, there has been a change amounting almost to a revolution. For whereas in 1890 the Austrian mercantile fleet, apart from the Austrian Lloyd, numbered no more than eight

steamships of some 10,000 tons, it has since that date so expanded that just before the war it amounted to some 750,000 tons (or with that of Hungary to over 1,000,000), with a capital of 200,000,000 kronen and a personnel of 12,000–13,000 men. During the same period the shipbuilding industry had grown from negligible dimensions to a vast industry employing nearly 12,000 men, having in 1913 62,000 of new tonnage on the stocks and amounting in all to little less than that of Japan, and more than that of Italy or Norway.

The following table shows the development of the trade of the port during the period 1860–1913:

Year.	*Total Sea Trade. Tons.*
1860–9 (average)	635,000
1870–9 ,,	837,000
1880–9 ,,	1,116,000
1890–9 ,,	1,273,000
1905	2,310,000
1910	2,854,000
1911	3,072,000
1912	3,023,000
1913	3,449,000

The numbers and total tonnage of the vessels entered and cleared at the port in the years 1911 and 1912 are given in the Appendix (Tables I and II).

(2) *Shipping Companies*

(i) *Austrian.*—(*a*) The Austrian Lloyd Steam Navigation Company is the oldest of Austrian shipping companies, and in 1913 possessed 66 steamships of 278,191 tons. In 1910 it carried 1,317,180 tons of cargo and 466,139 passengers; in 1911, 1,294,560 tons and 397,518 passengers; in 1912, 1,351,706 tons and 508,140 passengers. It paid a dividend in 1911 of 6½ per cent. This company has been very heavily

subsidized by the State, and between 1900 and 1910 received more than 96,000,000 kronen, or nearly 3½ per cent. of its share capital, in bounties to strengthen its financial position and to renew its fleet. Its activities are by an arrangement with the Unione Austriaca di Navigazione (see below) confined to the Far East, the Near East, and the Adriatic. Before the war its far eastern service consisted of two steamers a month to China and Japan, and three to Bombay. A line to the Dutch East Indies and Australia was in contemplation. In the Levant and the Black Sea the company had many services, including a fast weekly one to Egypt. In the Adriatic it shared most of the Dalmatian traffic with the Hungaro-Croatian Sea Navigation Company (see *Dalmatia*, No. 11 of this series).

(*b*) The Unione Austriaca di Navigazione is an amalgamation of the Compagnia Austro-Americana (founded in 1895) and Fratelli Cosulich. In 1913 it possessed 34 steamships of 144,704 tons. Since 1904 it has been drawn into the sphere of activities of Herr Ballin and the Ocean Navigation Trust, which subscribed no less than 4,800,000 kronen of new shares, raising the capital of the company to 15,120,000 kronen. An agreement safeguarded the interests of Trieste as against the northern ports in respect of rates and of the construction of new vessels in national yards. In 1907–9 the company came to an agreement with the Government and with the Austrian Lloyd by which the American trade was assured to it, and in return for an annual subsidy of 1,000,000 kronen, to be augmented in case of increase of traffic, it undertook to add a South American to its existing North American service. Before the late war the company was running fortnightly services to New York and Buenos Aires, while its cargo boats visited the ports of Italy, Spain, and the United States. Additional fast services were

contemplated: one *via* Patras, Naples, and Lisbon to Halifax, Nova Scotia, and Portland, Maine; and another to Central America and the west coast of South America. The progress of this company has of late been marked. Whereas in 1908 it showed a loss of 360,000 kronen, in 1910 it paid a dividend of 7 per cent. In 1910 it carried 99,795 tons of goods, value 45,457,440 kronen, and in 1911, 169,154 tons, value 61,528,658 kronen, and 63,535 passengers. It is financially interested in the Cantiere Navale Triestino at Monfalcone (see below, p. 90).

(*c*) The firm of D. Tripcovich, which in 1913 had 16 steamers of 58,123 tons, had a daily service to Venice and a weekly one to Ancona. It also traded with the coasts of Sicily, Spain, and Africa, and did a great part of the fruit trade of Trieste.

The other Austrian companies are chiefly employed in the Adriatic. The following are the more important: the Navigazione Libera-Triestina, with 11 ships of 42,010 tons; the Navigazione Generale Austriaca-Gerolimich & Co., with 10 steamers of 40,598 tons; G. Racich & Co., with 10 steamers of 38,800 tons; the Società Anonima Austriaca di Navigazione a Vapore Dalmatia, with 33 ships of 8,647 tons, a company which represents the fusion of minor Dalmatian companies, and in which the Austrian Lloyd is financially interested; and the Società Anonima di Navigazione a Vapore G. L. Premuda, founded in 1907 with a capital of 2,400,000 kronen, which it was intended to raise to 6,000,000 kronen. Smaller companies had 50 steamers of 81,733 tons.

(ii) *Hungarian.*—The steamers of the Adria Royal Hungarian Sea Navigation Company touched at Trieste on their weekly service to Sicily and Marseilles, and also on their fortnightly services to Morocco and the Canary Islands and to Tripoli and Tunis. The Società

in Azioni Ungaro-Croata di Navigazione Marittima a Vapore had a daily service to Trieste *via* the Istrian ports.

(iii) *Italian.*—Of recent years the Italian shipping companies have made great efforts to beat the Austrian and Hungarian companies in their own waters, and especially to develop Venice as a centre for the trade of the Near and Far East. Trieste was directly threatened by the foundation of the Società Veneziana, which had a fast service to Calcutta and to the Levant through the Corinth Canal, and proposed to run an express weekly service to Alexandria. The trade of Trieste with North Africa was equally menaced by the improved Italian services, by the efforts of the Italians to gain the transit trade with Switzerland by tariff reductions, by the development of the industries of Venice, and in other directions. In the Adriatic itself the Italian services with Dalmatia and Albania were being extended. Thus the Puglia line ran a bi-weekly service from Venice to Brindisi *via* Trieste and the chief Dalmatian ports, while the Società Italiana di Servizi Marittimi had a tri-weekly service between Venice and Trieste and a weekly one between Trieste and Ancona.

(iv) *British.*—Up to the year 1910, British shipping held the second place in respect of tonnage of the ships entering the port of Trieste, but it was subsequently relegated by Italian competition to the third place. The decrease is also reported to have been 'due to the employment of Austrian tonnage for coal from the United Kingdom ports and rice cargoes from Burma owing to the Austrian subsidies'.[1] The chief line using Trieste was the Cunard Steamship Co., which had a fortnightly service to Canada, principally connected with the emigrant traffic. In the year 1911 it took 3,860 tons of goods and 144 cabin passengers to America and

[1] British Consular Report, 1909.

brought back 18,753 tons of goods, 166 cabin passengers, and 512 emigrants. It had also eight steamers engaged in the carrying trade between Liverpool and Trieste. Its emigrant traffic was, however, threatened by the Unione Austriaca di Navigazione and by an Italian line, both of which proposed to start services to Canada, and by the proposed service of the Canadian Pacific Line to the Mediterranean, though the last-named company received concessions from the Austrian Government on the understanding that the service should be principally for the transport of goods. The Wilson and Ellerman (Papayanni) lines made occasional visits to Trieste. In 1911 the latter line ran eleven steamers, which took 1,570 tons of goods from Trieste to Liverpool.

The fourth place so far as tonnage is concerned was taken by Greek shipping and the fifth by German; the Deutsche Levante Linie included Trieste in its ports of call. The share of other countries in the shipping of Trieste was negligible.

(D) INDUSTRY

(1) *Agriculture*

The area of the small territory of Trieste is reckoned at 8,848 hectares, of which some 3,190 are rough grazing land, 2,300 forest, 1,337 meadows, 1,226 vineyards, and the remainder arable land, gardens, &c.

Cereals.—The production of cereals is very small. The average area under cultivation and the production for the years 1900–9 were estimated as follows:

Crop.	*Hectares.*	*Metric tons.*
Barley	84	64
Maize	314	153
Oats	22	10
Rye	120	70
Wheat	90	66

Wine.—A considerable amount of wine is produced in the environs of Trieste, that of Servola having a special reputation. The average amount annually produced in the years 1898–1907 was reckoned at 11,680 hectolitres.

Live Stock.—Horned cattle predominate, followed by sheep and goats, but the numbers are not large on account of the small amount of meadow land. Steps have been taken by the Società Agraria of Trieste to improve the breed of horses, and a stud farm has been inaugurated at Lipizza. The society has also introduced new breeds of cattle and of pigs, in the latter case from Yorkshire. It also offers rewards for the carrying away of stones from the Karst, with the object of converting waste into meadow land.

Silk.—The Società Agraria does its best to encourage the production of cocoons, distributes silk-worms, and gives instruction on their care.

(2) *Forestry*

The forest area of the district is estimated at 2,300 hectares, but very little of this represents first-class timber forest. Apart from the State woods at Farneto, now planted as a park, and a few woods at Banne (oaks), Lipizza, Auremiano, Cucco di Roditti, and elsewhere, most of the forest area consists of little more than copses of oak, rowan, and beech. In former days the Karst was well wooded, and considerable efforts have been made in recent years to replant it. In 1881 a Forestry Commission was appointed, which by 1911 had reafforested about 1,200 hectares, at a cost of some 200,000 kronen. A number of different trees were experimented with, but the spruce fir was, on the whole, found to answer best, and it is now used almost exclusively for the purpose of reafforestation.

(3) *Manufactures*

It is only of recent years that Trieste has become an industrial centre of any significance. Its interests were centred in shipping, and shipbuilding, which has always been an important factor in the life of the city, was alone carried on extensively. But the development of the port during the last few years has brought about a great change. The working up of the overseas products and raw material, especially of rice, oil-seeds, and jute, gives employment to a large number of the inhabitants. An important iron foundry at Servola, and a great number of factories of all kinds, especially those making linoleum, beer, soap, chocolate, dyes, and machinery, have sprung up in recent years. In 1908, the last year for which figures are available, there were already 182 factories in the city and district, employing 18,863 workmen. The numbers have considerably increased since that date.

One of the main hindrances to the progress of Trieste as an industrial centre has lain in the backwardness of the neighbouring districts, especially of Istria and Dalmatia, while the inland provinces, Carinthia and Carniola, are still little developed even on their agricultural side, and little use has been made of their extensive water-power.

Shipbuilding.—From the earliest days Trieste, with its neighbouring Istrian ports, has been a shipbuilding centre. The substitution of the steamship for the sailing-ship has now deprived the smaller ports of this industry and concentrated it at Trieste, where the shipbuilding yards employ nearly 12,000 workmen and launched in 1913 seventeen ships of 61,737 tons. By the exemption of shipbuilding materials from import duties, and by heavy bounties on the construction of vessels in Austrian yards, the Government has done

its best to foster the industry; British competition has been all but eliminated, and a strong defence set up against the rivalry of Hamburg (see the account of the Unione Austriaca di Navigazione, above, p. 84).

The most important yards are the Stabilimento Tecnico Triestino and the Cantiere Navale Triestino. The former, of which the original foundation dates back to 1857, has two establishments, that of San Marco, alongside the Lloyd's Arsenal, at which only warships are built, and that of San Rocco at Muggia, opened in 1910, for other vessels. It is capable of building vessels of any size, and also manufactures boilers, turbine engines, &c., for warships. At the San Marco yard most of the Dreadnoughts for the Austro-Hungarian navy have been constructed. At the San Rocco yard the largest steamships for the Far East services of the Austrian Lloyd are built, and at the end of 1911 eight ships of the aggregate tonnage of 56,467 tons were on the stocks, and orders to the amount of 23,000 tons, irrespective of men-of-war, had been received. These yards showed a profit of 1,024,282 kronen in 1909, and of 1,534,695 kronen in 1910.

The Cantiere Navale Triestino, which is situated at Monfalcone, was founded in 1908 with a capital of 6,000,000 kronen in connexion with the Unione Austriaca di Navigazione, and was financed by the Banca Commerciale Triestina and the Vienna Bankverein. It has built several cruisers for the Imperial navy, and is capable of building ships up to 12,000 tons. In 1910 the company showed a loss of 437,623 kronen.

The two remaining shipbuilding yards at Trieste are capable of building ships up to 10,000 tons.

The chief remaining industries are as follows:

Beer.—The important breweries of Dreher have now been taken over by a limited liability company under the

title of Società Anonima delle Fabbriche di Birra Anton Dreher. Its capital was 3,200,000 kronen, and its output at Trieste in 1911 amounted to 12,112,000 hectolitres.

Cement, to the extent of some 800 wagon-loads a year, is produced in the district by companies belonging to the Oesterreichisches Zementkartell; the greater part of the output is used in Austria-Hungary.

Coffee.—The chief company dealing with the coffee industry is the Triester Kaffe Verlese Aktiengesellschaft, which was founded in 1893 with the co-operation of the Anglo-Oesterreichische Bank, the capital being 600,000 kronen. It made in 1910 a profit of 117,548 kronen and paid a 14 per cent. dividend.

Iron.—The Krainische Industrie Gesellschaft has extensive works at Servola in the suburbs of Trieste. In 1913 it employed 5 overseers and 334 workmen, and produced 110,072 metric tons of pig-iron, value 11,173,002 kronen. The raw material came from Greece, Spain, Algeria, Bosnia, and Italy. Practically all the output remained in Austria-Hungary, except a small amount exported to Italy and the United Kingdom.

Jute.—The Triester Jute-Industrie Aktiengesellschaft, founded in 1901 with a capital of 2,000,000 kronen, had 3,280 spindles working in 1910, and was chiefly employed in the manufacture of sacks. It showed a profit in 1909 of 235,010 kronen, and in 1910 of 210,690 kronen. On the other hand, the Austro-Indische Jute Industrie, founded in 1884, was in liquidation in 1910.

Linoleum.—The Erste Oesterreichische Linoleumfabrik was founded in 1895 with a capital of 2,500,000 kronen, and was financed by the Kreditanstalt. In 1910 it employed 400 men.

The owners of the *marble* quarries form a combine (Vereinigung der Marmorbruchbesitzer im Küstenland

und Dalmatien) to regulate the price of marble and the conditions of its export to America as well as to the Monarchy.

Oil.—There are several factories connected with this industry. The most important is the Triester Mineral Öl Raffinerie, which was founded in 1891 with a capital of 2,000,000 crowns. Its mines are situated in Galicia. In 1907–8 it produced 11,984 metric tons of oil; its profit in 1909 was 359,521 kronen, and in 1910, 257,001 kronen.

Rice.—The Erste Triester Reisschäl Fabriks Aktiengesellschaft, which was founded in 1893 by the Anglo-Oesterreichische Bank with a capital of 4,500,000 kronen, showed a profit in 1910 of 766,681 kronen, and in 1911 of 759,046 kronen. It has a branch at Cervignano in the province of Gorizia and Gradisca. The Società Anonima Coloniale di Trieste, founded in 1905, imports rice direct from Burma, and has a branch at Rangoon. In 1910 it declared a loss of 1,122,731 kronen.

There are also a large number of smaller factories, where soap, tinned fish, chocolates and confectionery, cigarette papers, and other commodities are produced.

(E) COMMERCE

The growth of the trade of Trieste since 1860 may be seen from the following figures:

Year.	*By Land.* Imports. Thousands of Kronen.	*By Land.* Exports. Thousands of Kronen.	*By Sea.* Imports. Thousands of Kronen.	*By Sea.* Exports. Thousands of Kronen.	*Total Trade.* Thousands of Kronen.
1860	101,101	76,018	194,194	171,176	542,489
1870	152,955	160,548	251,739	200,847	766,089
1880	223,935	190,015	270,067	234,389	918,406
1890	350,665	308,506	401,735	339,271	1,400,177
1900	342,288	341,901	389,082	323,549	1,396,820
1905	455,542	439,084	480,046	438,793	1,813,465
1910	640,319	574,765	648,824	716,663	2,580,571
1911	708,325	672,411	744,821	712,389	2,837,946
1912	761,875	711,250	833,529	838,249	3,144,903
1913	875,531	783,476	869,518	932,074	3,460,599

(1) *Exports*

The most important exports from Trieste to foreign countries are, in normal times, sugar and timber, followed by cotton yarns, iron and ironware, paper, clothing and woollen goods, and glass-ware. Magnesite, oil, beer, tobacco, rice and rice starch are also exported in considerable quantities.

Of the *sugar* (practically all refined) nearly the whole is produced in Moravia and Bohemia, and the greater part goes to the Levant, the Turkish Empire alone taking about 60 per cent. At one time the United Kingdom received a large amount through Trieste, but now sugar from Austria-Hungary goes also by Fiume or Hamburg. A new market has, however, been found in the Argentine, which took 11,700 metric tons in 1913. A small amount goes to British India.

Of the *timber* practically all comes from Austria and about 50 per cent. is re-exported, of which one-third goes to the Argentine, the remainder chiefly to British India and to Egypt. Bosnian timber now tends to go direct to its principal markets in Italy and Greece instead of *via* Trieste.

Cotton yarns and *fabrics* are supplied to the extent of some 70 per cent. by the Austrian provinces and about 2 per cent. by Germany. More than half goes to Turkey, about 15 per cent. to British India, and 10 per cent. to Egypt.

Iron and *iron-ware* are provided by Austrian provinces (chiefly Styria and Carniola), and to a small extent (some 10 per cent.) by Germany. They are sent by sea to other provinces of the Dual Monarchy, to British India, China, Japan, and the Levant.

Paper and *paper goods* are supplied almost wholly by Austria (chiefly Styria and Lower Austria) and are

sent to Turkey, Egypt, and British India, and also to Italy.

Turkey and Egypt take *clothing* and *woollen fabrics*; of the latter, Austria provides two-thirds and Germany one-third.

Practically all the *glass-ware* comes from Austria and goes to British India (about 50 per cent.), Turkey, and Egypt.

As regards other exports, the United Kingdom takes a considerable proportion of the magnesite, husked rice, pasteboards, starch, and talc.

The values of the principal exports in the years 1909, 1910, and 1911 are given in the Appendix (Table III).

(2) *Imports*

The principal imports from foreign countries are coal, raw cotton, coffee, hides and skins, oil-seeds, copper, jute, wool, rice and other cereals, tobacco, and fruit.

All except an insignificant fraction of the *coal* supply comes from the United Kingdom.

British India provides about 50 per cent. of the raw *cotton*, Egypt about 25 per cent., and the United States under 10 per cent. Of the amount which is re-exported Austria takes about two-thirds and Germany one-third, a small quantity, however, going to Switzerland.

About five-sixths of the *coffee* comes from Brazil, the balance from the United States, Germany, and the United Kingdom. It is almost wholly consumed in Austria-Hungary.

About half of the import of *hides* and *skins* comes from British India, 25 per cent. from Turkey, the remainder from Italy, Greece, and Egypt. A small fraction is re-exported to Germany.

Oil-seeds.—Copra and sesame are imported from

British India and Ceylon. British Africa provides palm kernels, the Argentine linseed. The heavy duty has destroyed the cotton-oil imports from the United States. A considerable amount of olive-oil comes from Greece and Albania. Practically none of these products are re-exported from Austrian territory.

Copper comes from the United States and *jute* almost wholly from British India. Of *wool* Australia sends nearly half, the Argentine and Uruguay most of the remainder. Practically all the *rice* is sent from British India, Siam and Italy providing the balance. Other cereals, and peas, beans, &c., come from the Black Sea coast, from the Levant, and, as regards maize, from the Argentine.

The *tobacco* comes from Turkey to the extent of 85 per cent., the rest from Greece and the United States. Germany takes more than half of it.

Fruit is a very important item in the trade of Trieste. Italy and Spain send oranges and lemons, and Turkey raisins and dried figs, Italy providing some 60 per cent. of the total, and Turkey 30 per cent. Germany takes about 30 per cent., Hungary 15 per cent., and Russia 3 per cent. of the fruit.

Of the minor imports, the United Kingdom sends about 20 per cent. of the tea, two-thirds of the fish and whale oil, 60 per cent. of salt cod, all the nickel, anchors and cables, boilers, copper vitriol, and varnish. It no longer supplies shipbuilding materials, with the exception of a certain amount of ships' fittings.

The values of the principal imports by land and sea in the years 1909, 1910, and 1911 are given in the Appendix (Table IV).

(F) FINANCE

The following figures show the expenditure for the town and district of Trieste in the year 1910:

	Kronen.
Administration	2,280,983
Education, &c.	3,278,582
Payment of debts, subventions, and loans	2,092,642
Poor relief	738,628
Purchase of real estate, and rebuilding	2,539,055
Sanitary and veterinary services .	3,600,284
Street and waterway construction .	1,384,853
Miscellaneous	2,549,014
Cash account	660,217
Total	19,124,258 (£796,844)

The revenue in the same year was as follows:

	Kronen.
Additional taxation	7,074,066
Communal trade, &c. . . .	1,897,710
Contributions from State and district taxes	794,720
Duties and taxes	1,030,167
Independent communal taxes . .	1,265,863
Property taxes	3,226,542
Receipts from communal loans . .	1,310,066
Receipts from various arrears . .	866,007
Miscellaneous	1,532,288
Balance from previous year . .	432,016
Total	19,429,445 (£809,560)

(G) GENERAL REMARKS

In his declining years Charles Lever was offered the Consulate of Trieste by Lord Derby with the observation, 'Here is six hundred a year for doing nothing, and you are just the man to do it'. It is permissible to doubt if, even in 1867, this remark was meant to be taken seriously. Yet it does in a measure indicate the smallness of the beginnings out of which the present position of Trieste has developed. The opening of the

Suez Canal gave Trieste its first chance of transition from a town with little more than local trade to one of world importance. That chance was missed; and between 1860 and 1899 its share of the combined trade of the principal European ports actually declined from 11·3 per cent. to 5·2 per cent. But since the beginning of the present century, and particularly since the opening of the Tauern Railway in 1909, the progress of Trieste has been consistently great. Its population increased from 179,000 in 1900 to 229,000 in 1910, or by more than 27 per cent., a larger increase than that of any other European port with the exception of Bremen, Hamburg, Rotterdam, and Fiume; while its sea trade rose by 171 per cent., an increase second only to that of Bremen.

Trieste may now be said to be the natural outlet of the products, not only of the provinces of the Dual Monarchy which form its immediate hinterland—Carniola, Carinthia, Gorizia, and Styria—but also of those of the upper Danube and the Inn, of Upper and Lower Austria and Tyrol, of southern Bohemia and Moravia, and, beyond the bounds of the Monarchy, of the whole province of Bavaria. Moreover, the export of Austrian and German articles to the Near and Far East and to North and South America, especially of textiles, iron and metal wares, paper, dyes and chemicals, glass and leather goods, was being carried almost exclusively by the Austrian mercantile marine. The Austrian Lloyd's local and Levant trade has been extended to the Far East, while the Compagnia Austro-Americana was developing a large trade both with North and South America.

Trieste furnished the Balkans and the Levant with groceries, and its coffee, rice, and oil markets had become of the first importance. It received vast stores of raw material, cotton, oil-seeds, jute, wool, tanning

extracts, &c., either in transit or to be worked up in the city itself. The shipping increase was also responsible for making Trieste an industrial city of some importance, of which fact the shipbuilding industry in itself is sufficient witness. Its harbour, too, is now one of the most commodious in the Mediterranean. It is an open question whether, if deprived of its natural hinterland, the port could retain its prosperity or whether the northern ports would not gain at its expense.

APPENDIX

Principal Place-names of the Littoral, showing Italian and Slav Equivalents

Italian.	*Slav.*	*Slav.*	*Italian.*
Abbazia	Opatija	Cres	Cherso
Albona	Labin	Devin	Duino
Arsa	Raša	Gorica	Gorizia
Canfanaro	Kanfanar	Kanfanar	Canfanaro
Capodistria	Koper	Kobarid	Caporetto
Caporetto	Kobarid	Koper	Capodistria
Cherso	Cres	Kormin	Cormons
Cittanova	Novigrad	Krk	Veglia
Cormons	Kormin	Labin	Albona
Dignano	Vodnjan	Lošinj	Lussin
Duino	Devin	Moščenice	Moschenizze
Fasana	Peroj	Motovun	Montona
Gorizia	Gorica	Novigrad	Cittanova
Isonzo	Soča	Opatija	Abbazia
Lussin	Lošinj	Oprtalj	Portole
Monte Maggiore	Učka	Osor	Ossero
Montona	Motovun	Pazin	Pisino
Moschenizze	Moščenice	Peroj	Fasana
Orsera	Vrsar	Poreč	Parenzo
Ossero	Osor	Pula	Pola
Parenzo	Poreč	Raša	Arsa
Pisino	Pazin	Rovinj	Rovigno
Pola	Pula	Soča	Isonzo
Portole	Oprtalj	Susak	Sansego
Rovigno	Rovinj	Trst	Trieste
Sansego	Susak	Učka	Monte Maggiore
Trieste	Trst	Vodnjan	Dignano
Veglia	Krk	Vrsar	Orsera

DISTRIBUTION OF RACES IN THE LITTORAL, ACCORDING TO THE AUSTRIAN CENSUS OF 1910

	Germans.	*Czecho-Slovaks.*	*Poles.*	*Ruthenes.*	*Slovenes.*	*Serbo-Croats.*	*Italians.*	*Rumanians and Magyars.*	*Total.*
TRIESTE . . .	11,856	565	157	33	56,916	2,403	118,959	24	190,913
GORZ AND GRADISCA									
Stadt Görz . . .	3,238	167	98	102	10,790	78	14,812	6	29,291
Pol. Bez. Görz . .	354	84	7		70,039	22	2,765	4	73,275
Ger. Bez. Canale . .	50	3			13,937	3	22		14,015
„ „ Görz . .	284	74	7		41,417	13	2,734	4	44,533
„ „ Haidenschaft .	20	7			14,685	6	9		14,727
Pol. Bez. Gradisca . .	391	8			4,656	2	26,263	1	31,321
Ger. Bez. Cormons . .	329	5			4,354	1	13,538		18,227
„ „ Gradisca .	62	3			302	1	12,725	1	13,094
Pol. Bez. Monfalcone .	235	10			1,693	11	45,907	2	47,858
Ger. Bez. Cervignano .	110	4			48	1	27,979		28,142
„ „ Monfalcone .	125	6			1,645	10	17,928	2	19,716
Pol. Bez. Sesana . .	146	23			29,497	69	343		30,078
Ger. Bez. Komen . .	66	13			14,009	33	250		14,371
„ „ Sesana . .	80	10			15,488	36	93		15,707

Pol. Bez. Tolmein . .	122	25		1	37,889	4	29		38,070
Ger. Bez. Flitsch . .	26	9		1	5,528	1	8		5,573
,, ,, Karfreit . .	7	1			9,064				9,072
,, ,, Kirchheim .					8,131	1			8,132
,, ,, Tolmein . .	89	15			15,166	2	21		15,293
Total for Gorz and Gradisca . . .	4,486	317	105	103	154,564	186	90,119	13	249,893
ISTRIA									
Stadt Rovigno . .	320	9			63	57	10,859		11,308
Pol. Bez. Capodistria .	332	57	3	1	31,679	17,573	38,006	1	87,652
Ger. Bez. Capodistria .	122	27		1	25,333	159	18,744	1	44,387
,, ,, Pinguente .	15	6	1		2,151	17,294	874		20,341
,, ,, Pirano . .	195	24	2		4,195	120	18,388		22,924
Pol. Bez. Lussin . .	422	45	4	1	97	9,997	9,884		20,450
Ger. Bez. Cherso . .	4	2			6	5,708	2,296		8,016
,, ,, Lussin . .	418	43	4	1	91	4,289	7,588		12,434
Pol. Bez. Mitterburg (Pisino) . . .	92	25			288	42,924	4,032	882	48,243
Ger. Bez. Albona . .	40	15			166	14,139	2,396	882	17,638
,, ,, Mitterburg (Pisino) .	52	10			122	28,785	1,636		30,605

DISTRIBUTION OF RACES IN THE LITTORAL, ACCORDING TO THE AUSTRIAN CENSUS OF 1910 (*cont.*)

	Germans.	*Czecho-Slovaks.*	*Poles.*	*Ruthenes.*	*Slovenes.*	*Serbo-Croats.*	*Italians.*	*Rumanians and Magyars.*	*Total.*
Pol. Bez. Parenzo . .	75	21			1,962	17,034	41,276		60,368
Ger. Bez. Buje . .	14	1			103	1,904	19,728		21,750
,, ,, Montona .	21	13			1,839	8,603	11,004		21,480
,, ,, Parenzo . .	40	7			20	6,527	10,544		17,138
Pol. Bez. Pola . .	9,153	1,524	155	32	3,680	30,532	40,863	4	85,943
Ger. Bez. Dignano . .	96	25	4		97	11,070	6,620		17,912
,, ,, Pola . .	9,046	1,498	151	32	3,524	16,443	30,902	4	61,600
,, ,, Rovigno. .	11	1			59	3,019	3,341		6,431
Pol. and Ger. Bez. Veglia	25	5			29	19,533	1,544		21,136
Pol. Bez. Volosca . .	2,316	121	93	9	17,336	30,534	953	1	51,363
Ger. Bez. Castelnuovo .	7	9			13,564	3,031	7		16,618
,, ,, Volosca . .	2,309	112	93	9	3,772	27,503	946	1	34,745
Total for Istria . .	12,735	1,807	255	43	55,134	168,184	147,417	888	386,463
Total for Küstenland .	29,077	2,689	517	179	266,614	170,773	356,495	925	827,269

TABLE I.—SHIPPING ENTERED AT TRIESTE IN 1911 AND 1912

Nationality.	1911. Vessels.	1911. Tonnage.	1912. Vessels.	1912. Tonnage.
British (steam)	83	256,026	81	304,280
Austrian (steam)[1]	9,665	3,450,375	9,499	3,447,827
Hungarian (steam)			390	312,157
Austro-Hungarian (sailing)[2]	636	33,192	657	38,491
German (steam)	47	67,620	51	73,611
Greek (steam)	64	51,517	73	61,749
,, (sailing)	53	11,442	47	11,466
Italian (steam)	421	259,173	377	232,296
,, (sailing)	1,380	58,794	1,394	62,726
Others	85[3]	46,967	37	27,230
Total	12,434	4,235,106	12,606	4,571,833

[1] Including coasting vessels. [2] These are all coasting vessels.
[3] Including 52 Turkish sailing vessels.

TABLE II.—SHIPPING CLEARED AT TRIESTE IN 1911 AND 1912

Nationality.	1911. Vessels.	1911. Tonnage.	1912. Vessels.	1912. Tonnage.
British (steam)	84	262,667	81	308,848
Austrian (steam)[1]	9,659	3,463,153	9,509	3,457,848
Hungarian (steam)			393	317,648
Austro-Hungarian (sailing)[2]	634	32,003	635	36,618
German (steam)	48	68,775	51	73,611
Greek (steam)	65	53,012	73	62,255
,, (sailing)	47	8,871	52	13,173
Italian (steam)	411	252,969	376	230,609
,, (sailing)	1,373	59,111	1,404	64,793
Others	84[3]	45,461	40	29,374
Total	12,405	4,246,022	12,614	4,594,777

[1], [2] See notes to Table I. [3] Including 53 Turkish sailing vessels.

TABLE III.—VALUES OF THE PRINCIPAL EXPORTS FROM TRIESTE BY LAND AND SEA

Article.	1909. *Kronen.*	1910. *Kronen.*	1911. *Kronen.*
Beer	2,907,756	3,123,054	3,724,668
Bricks and tiles	516,283	153,221	222,653
Cement and cement ware	986,913	1,615,987	1,529,895
Coal, coke, and briquettes	4,852,390	5,195,521	6,151,229
Coffee	65,495,464	72,704,332	80,481,517
Fruit	37,851,946	48,912,913	53,852,276
Glass and glass-ware	13,352,912	17,189,802	21,386,572
Iron and iron-ware	32,083,350	37,244,384	54,860,709
Jute	10,817,560	8,339,615	11,280,243
Magnesite	4,654,545	6,182,267	4,154,605
Mineral and lubricating oils	3,359,978	3,186,501	3,222,119
Paper, cellulose, &c.	26,143,926	31,175,834	29,576,507
Phosphates	1,626,699	1,242,282	1,118,331
Pulse, fresh vegetables, &c.	7,133,685	3,714,355	6,663,084
Rice	21,361,004	22,361,738	25,743,081
Sugar	46,159,977	47,047,020	48,410,913
Sulphur	1,319,264	1,251,912	1,806,680
Tobacco	38,589,364	40,816,890	54,873,860
Wood for building, &c.	16,142,342	14,729,144	17,524,916
Yarns and textile fabrics	155,838,571	186,778,563	203,303,124

TABLE IV.—VALUES OF THE PRINCIPAL IMPORTS INTO TRIESTE BY LAND AND SEA

Article.	1909. *Kronen.*	1910. *Kronen.*	1911. *Kronen.*
Bricks and tiles	742,239	590,759	1,139,782
Cement and cement ware	1,667,680	2,577,932	2,859,422
Coal, coke, and briquettes	20,718,653	19,082,330	19,414,661
Coffee	68,732,294	68,207,549	80,686,650
Cotton, raw and waste	94,151,450	116,543,552	129,047,865
Fruit	41,778,630	54,789,326	59,664,165
Iron and iron-ware	36,324,509	46,510,022	61,306,405
Jute	11,775,400	8,880,740	12,833,535
Magnesite	4,398,849	6,235,229	4,645,550
Metallic ores	4,645,059	4,126,585	4,330,755
Paper, cellulose, &c.	24,227,450	27,500,202	27,157,532
Phosphates	2,025,901	1,478,887	1,022,235
Pulse, fresh vegetables, &c.	8,981,375	4,926,868	8,141,173
Rice	18,694,043	18,631,462	19,182,723
Seeds	24,247,664	23,886,972	26,392,126
Sugar	46,243,067	47,521,647	50,815,305
Wine	15,730,812	21,490,844	22,193,600
Wood for building, &c.	16,916,959	16,995,972	19,461,111

AUTHORITIES

Historical

The history of the Littoral may be conveniently found in—

Jackson, Sir T. G. *Dalmatia, the Quarnero, and Istria*, vol. iii. Oxford, 1887.

Loewenthal, J. *Geschichte der Stadt Trieste.* Trieste, 1857.

Die österreichisch-ungarische Monarçhie in Wort und Bild. Vienna, 1886–1902. (Vol. x: *Das Küstenland.*)

Present conditions—

Auerbach, Bertrand. *Les Races et les Nationalités en Autriche-Hongrie.* 2nd ed. Paris, 1917.

Salvemini, G. Article on 'Italy and the Southern Slavs' in the *Quarterly Review*, January 1918; an impartial and suggestive discussion of existing problems.

Taylor, A. H. E. *The Future of the Southern Slavs.* London, 1917.

For the Italian point of view see—

Dudan, A. *La Monarchia degli Absburgo.* Rome, 1915.

Fauro, R. *Trieste. Italiani e Slavi, il Governo austriaco, l'Irredentismo.* Rome, 1914.

For the Slav point of view see—

Primorac, Vouk. *La Question Yougo-Slave.* Paris, 1918.

The Southern Slavs: Land and People. London, 1916.

On the Littoral and the Adriatic question generally see—

Loiseau, C. *L'Équilibre adriatique.* Paris, 1901.

Vellay, C. *La Guerre europienne et la Question de l'Adriatique.* Paris, 1915.

Wallace, W. K. *Greater Italy.* New York, 1917. (Chapter on 'The Problem of the Adriatic'.)

Economic

British Consular Reports: District of Trieste, 1904–12.

Mediterranean Pilot, vol. iii (London, 1908) and supplements.

Oesterreichisches statistisches Handbuch. xxxi. Jahrgang. Published by the K. K. Statistische Zentralkommission. Vienna, 1913.

Osterreichisches statistisches Jahrbuch der autonomen Landesverwaltung. xii. Jahrgang. Published by the K. K. Statistische Zentralkommission. Vienna, 1913.

Statistische Monatschrift, passim. Brünn.

Die österreichisch-ungarische Monarchie in Wort und Bild. Vienna, 1886–1902. Vol. x : *Das Küstenland.*

BRUECKNER, E. *Dalmatien und das österreichische Küstenland.* Vienna and Leipzig, 1911.

BRUNIALTI, A. *Trento e Trieste.* Turin, 1916.

ESCHER, ALFRED. *Triest und seine Aufgaben im Rahmen der österreichischen Volkswirtschaft.* Vienna, 1917.

EVANS, SIR ARTHUR. 'The Adriatic Slavs and the Overland Route to Constantinople' (*Journal of the Royal Geographical Society*). April, 1916.

GAYDA, VIRGINIO. *L'Italia d'Oltre Confine.* Second edition. Turin, 1914.

HEIDERICH, FRANZ. *Triest und die Tauernbahn.* Berlin, 1912.

KREBS, N. *Die Halbinsel Istrien.* Leipzig, 1907.

MAPS

Istria appears on the Trieste sheet of the War Office 'International' map on the scale of 1 : 1,000,000 (G.S.G.S. 2758). Sheets 9 and 14 of the Italian Staff map on the scale of 1 : 500,000 and sheet 13 *bis* of the Carta d'Italia del Touring Club Italiano on the scale of 1 : 250,000 are available, and Istria is likewise covered by eight sheets of the Austrian Staff map on the scale of 1 : 75,000.

For Ethnography, see note on maps in *Austria*, &c. (No. 1 in this series), p. 28.

LONDON:
PRINTED AND PUBLISHED BY H.M. STATIONERY OFFICE.
To be purchased through any Bookseller or directly from
H.M. STATIONERY OFFICE at the following addresses:
IMPERIAL HOUSE, KINGSWAY, LONDON, W.C. 2, and
28, ABINGDON STREET, LONDON, S.W. 1;
37, PETER STREET, MANCHESTER;
1, ST. ANDREW'S CRESCENT, CARDIFF;
23, FORTH STREET, EDINBURGH;
or from E. PONSONBY, LTD., 116, GRAFTON STREET, DUBLIN.

1920.

Price 2s. Net.