

HANDBOOKS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE
HISTORICAL SECTION OF THE FOREIGN OFFICE.—No. 68

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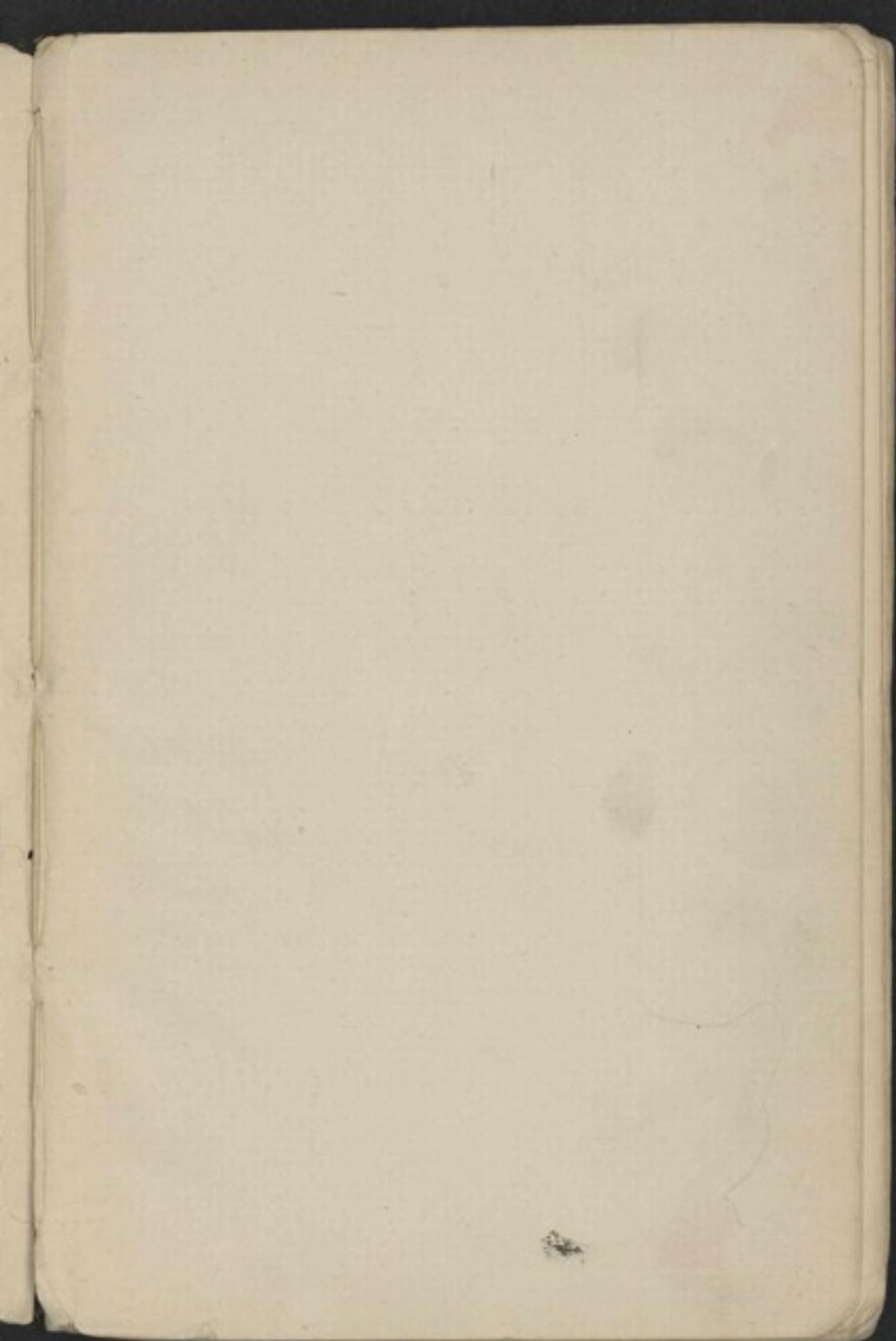
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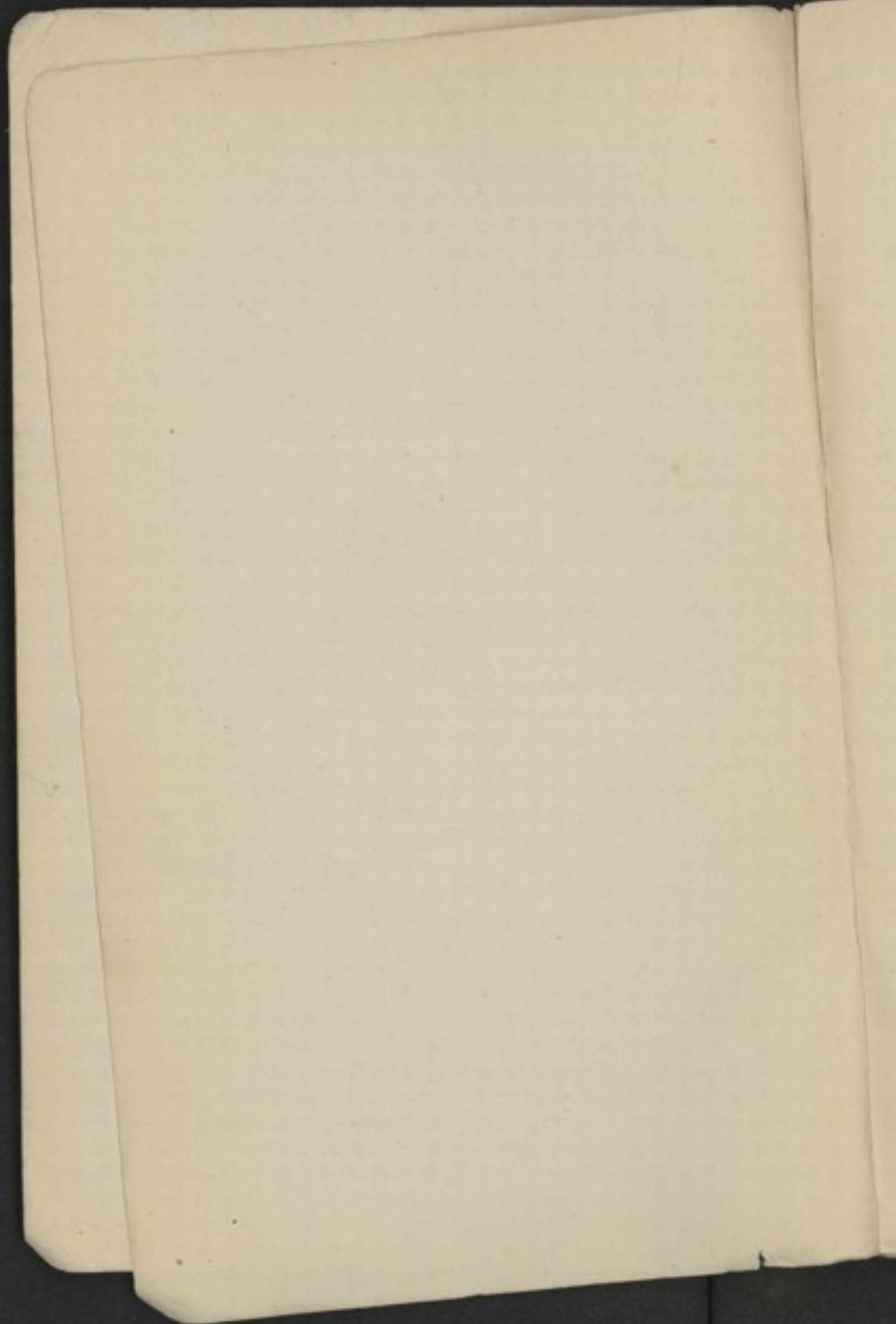


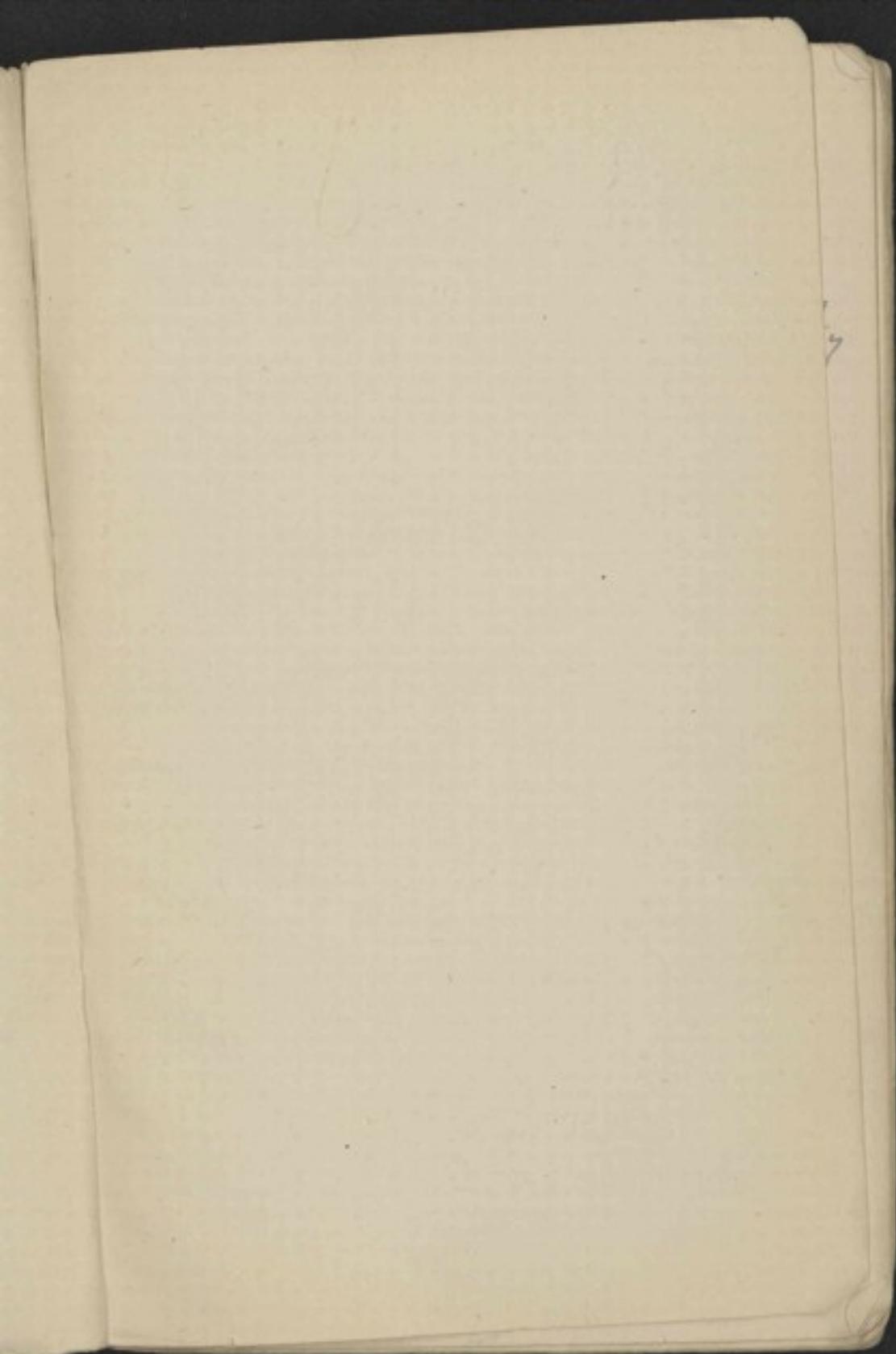


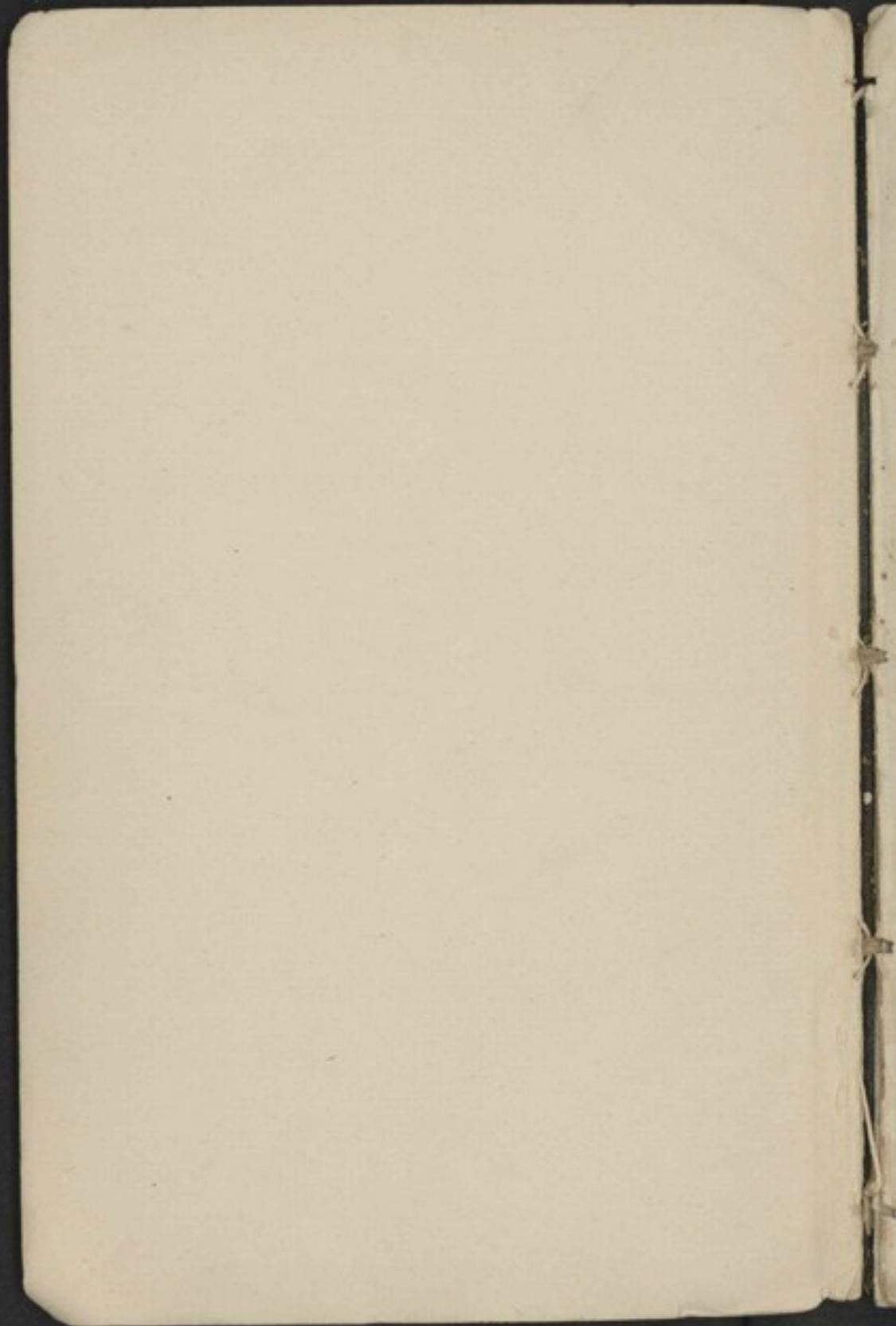
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EDITORIAL NOTE

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

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

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

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

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

G. W. PROTHERO,

General Editor and formerly

Director of the Historical Section.

January 1920.

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I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

THE vast territory generally known as Mongolia lies to the north and north-west of China proper, roughly between latitudes 37° and 54° north and longitudes 83° and 122° east. It is wholly inland and nowhere approaches the sea. On the north-west it is bounded by the Siberian province of Tomsk; on the north by the provinces of Yeniseisk, Irkutsk, and Transbaikalia; on the east by Manchuria; on the south by the Chinese provinces of Chihli, Shansi, Shensi, and Kansu, and the Chinese colony of Sinkiang or the New Dominion; and on the west by Sinkiang and the Siberian provinces of Semiretchensk and Semipalatinsk. The area is said to be about 1,367,600 square miles.

Mongol-Siberian Frontier.—The frontier between Mongolia and Siberia has been the subject of negotiation between the Russian and Chinese Governments at different times from 1689 to 1915, and as it exists it is recorded in (1) the Treaty of Kiakhta, 1727; (2) the Treaty of Peking, 1860; (3) the Protocol of Chuguchak, 1864; (4) the Treaty of St. Petersburg, 1881; and (5) the Treaty of Tsitsihar, 1911.

The early demarcations of this frontier for the most part followed the local divisions recognized by the nomad Mongols who were subject to the two empires of Russia and China respectively. Wherever possible mountains and rivers were used as boundaries, but in some cases large plains were divided and marks erected upon them to show the national divisions. From the Great Altai range in the north-west of the country, the boundary follows an irregular course

north-eastwards, crossing the western extremity of the Tannu-ola range, until the Syansk Mountains are reached. The line, cutting across the course of the Yenisei, then follows this range along its whole length, and after passing the northern end of Lake Kossogol, along the continuation of the same chain eastwards. It crosses the middle course of the Selenga (leaving the greater part of the fertile Chikoi valley to Russia) and the upper waters of the Onon, ending near the station called Manchuria on the Siberian Railway.

Mongol-Manchurian Frontier.—The limits of Mongolia on the east, towards Manchuria, though well known to the Mongols and Chinese locally, are not defined with precision in any documents or on any reliable maps. Around the lakes Dalai Nor and Buir Nor dwell the Barükhs, who should be considered as Mongols, and, if their territory is included in Mongolia, the boundary must be in the neighbourhood of the Khingan Mountains (a range running north and south in longitude 117° to 121° east), whence it turns east about 47° north latitude towards the Nonni river. Hereabouts it turns again in a general though irregular southerly and south-westerly direction to the valley of the Shara-muren, a branch of the Liao river of South Manchuria.

Southern Frontier.—The southern and south-western boundaries of Mongolia, stretching from the confines of Manchuria in the east to the neighbourhood of Kuldja (Ili) in the west—a distance of over 3,000 miles—have also never been precisely defined. From the valley of the Shara-muren the line passes over the south end of the Khingan range and along the rim of the Mongolian plateau to the Hwang-ho (Yellow River) near Kweihwating (Kuku-hoto) in north-west Shansi. Here it follows the Hwang-ho southward for a short distance, and continues south-west across the Ordos loop along the line of the Great Wall to the vicinity of Ningsiafu, whence it takes a general north-westerly direction over the arid tableland of the western Gobi to the oasis of Barkul (about

43° 30' north, 93° east). In this neighbourhood it turns westward to the Russian frontier in the Altai Mountains north of Kuldja (Ili).

Southern Border of Outer Mongolia.—By a Declaration of November 5, 1913, subscribed to by Russia and China, Outer Mongolia was erected into an autonomous state in Chinese territory and thereby differentiated from the remainder of Mongolia. The Declaration temporarily evaded the difficulties caused by the absence of any properly delimited boundaries by defining Outer Mongolia as the territory formerly under the jurisdiction of the Chinese Ambans at Urga, Uliasutai, and Kobdo. In the tripartite Treaty of Kiakhta, June 7, 1915, provision was made for a formal delimitation of Outer Mongolia within two years from that date.

General Observations.—Along the east and south-east frontier, bordering on Manchuria and the provinces of Chihli and Shansi, the colonization of Inner Mongol territories by the Chinese has been steadily in progress for a century. Wherever this has taken place, the jurisdiction of the Chinese settlers has passed to Chinese officials, the Mongol princes ruling their own people only and gradually losing all territorial authority. This has been especially the case in West Manchuria (Taonanfu) and Outer Chihli (Chengtehfu). For this reason no demarcation of boundaries between Chinese and Mongol territory would hold good for more than a short period.

The existing frontiers of these regions may be said to be ethnical, and mark the general limits of the nomad Mongols and their grazing-grounds. On the south-west, west, and north-west of Mongolia the barriers are ranges of mountains, and may be regarded as geographical frontiers. On the north, from the Syansk chain right away to the Argun river, the boundary is a political one, carried nearly two centuries ago through territories sparsely populated by nomads, with no special regard to physical features. The main principle in the demarcation appears to have been a division of the tribes into those who had been brought

into contact with, or had acknowledged, Russian dominion, and those who had not.

On the east and south-east, towards Manchuria and China proper, there is a boundary question which has arisen from the inroads of Chinese settlers. To avoid acute disputes in future it would seem desirable to delimit the whole of these sections of the Inner Mongol frontier in the same way as the north frontier of Outer Mongolia has been demarcated. There are no accurate surveys of these regions, and until such are available no practical suggestions can be offered.

There is a possibility of a rather similar question arising in connexion with the Urianghai country lying between the Syansk and Tannu-ola Mountains, as a number of Russian settlers have penetrated this district, and Russian jurisdiction is being exercised over them. It has been suggested by Russia that the Chinese were in error in setting their boundary at the Syansk range, and that the real frontier is the Tannu-ola, along which a line of cairns is said to be still discernible. Article I of the Protocol of Chuguchak (1864) seems to make it quite clear that the Syansk ridge is the proper limit, and in any case, if there has been a mistake, a reference to the map attached to the Protocol, which was prepared in quadruple but has not been published, should settle all doubts.

(2) SURFACE, LAKES, AND RIVER SYSTEM

Surface

Mongolia consists almost entirely of an immense upland which has been divided by geographers into two main regions, North-west Mongolia and the Gobi.

(a) *North-west Mongolia* in general is a mountainous well-watered region, which may be considered under the three following headings: (1) Urianghai; (2) the lake region; (3) Tarbagatai and the Urungu valley.

Urianghai, the mountain-girt northern division, occupies the upper Yenisei basin, and is watered by

its tributaries of the Kemchik and Ulu Kem. The floor of the basin at its lowest is 1,700 ft. (500 metres) above sea-level, but it is hilly throughout, and the beds of the rivers probably have an average height of 3,000 ft. (900 metres). The border range on the north, the Syansk, encloses about half the basin; the Tannu-ola the rest. Neither range is lofty, the summits only in a few instances rising higher than 7,000 or 8,000 ft. (2,100 to 2,400 metres).

The *middle*, or *lake region*, extends from the Tannu-ola south-westwards to the Mongolian Altai (Egtagh) south of Kobdo. It is composed of a succession of lake basins, which vary in altitude from that of Ubsa Nor (2,400 ft., 730 metres) and Kirghis Nor (2,700 ft., 820 metres) to that of Kara-ussu Nor (3,800 ft., 1,160 metres) and Urin Nor (4,800 ft., 1,460 metres), divided by irregular ridges which rise about 2,000 ft. (600 metres) above the general level. The Altai is a true border-range, mounting in a steep escarpment from the Dzungarian depression. In the west its summits tower above the snow-line; in the east they barely touch it. In the Sailughem Mountains, the backbone of the Altai region, which bound both the lake region and Urianghai on the west, the snow-line runs at 6,700 ft. (2,000 metres) on the north versant and 7,800 ft. (2,400 metres) on the south, and the peaks rise 3,000 or 4,000 ft. (900 or 1,200 metres) higher still.

Tarbagatai (Chuguchak), the extreme south-west projection of this part of the country, is hilly, but contains the most low-lying part of the Dzungarian depression in the Emil valley. The elevation at Telli Nor is 950 ft. (290 metres), and at Ulungur Nor 1,500 ft. (450 metres), while the valley of the Urungu drains the south flanks of the middle Altai at an altitude of 1,500–2,000 ft. (450–600 metres). The Urungu valley is the north-eastern part of the Dzungarian depression, which lies between the Altai and the T'ien Shan (Celestial Mountains).

Urianghai is a forest country, and when the forests fail there are meadows covered with excellent pasture.

The forests decrease as one goes south, and the Tannu-ola appears to be their limit. For the rest, the greater part of North-west Mongolia is dry prairie covered with gravel.

(b) *Gobi*.—The so-called Gobi terrace may be divided conveniently into (1) Outer Mongolia, (2) the Gobi proper, (3) Inner Mongolia.

Outer Mongolia is a wide zone on the northern slope of the Mongolian plateau, and comprises the country between the Khanghai Mountains on the west, the Khingan range on the east, the Russian frontier on the north, and the Gobi proper on the south. It includes the basins of the upper Selanga, of the upper Onon (a branch of the Shilka, the Siberian constituent of the Amur), and of the Kerulon. The highest elevations are found to the south of the region, just before the Gobi depression is reached; and to the north the country gradually descends towards the Baikal Lake (1,600 ft., 500 metres) and the Amur valley.

In the north the surface is diversified. The more lofty mountains are everywhere wooded, and the river basins possess good pasture, but when the foothills are reached the vegetation is scanty, especially in the region north of the Kerulon. The soil is poor, often barren, except along the rivers, but near the Siberian frontier many of the valleys are very fertile.

In the south of Outer Mongolia the surface is more weathered, the hills and ranges have lower and broader crests, there is an entire absence of trees, and the Mongol prairie merges into the almost barren Gobi.

The *Gobi proper* comprises the deeper part of the depression which fills the interior of the lower terrace of the Mongolian plateau, and covers an immense stretch of country much of which lies beyond the limits of Mongolia. The Central and East Gobi, with which we are here concerned, extend from Sinkiang and Kansu north-eastwards to the neighbourhood of Buir Nor, approximately between latitudes 42° and 47° north and longitudes 95° and 117° east. It is a region of gravel, sand, and rock split up irregularly by low

broad-capped ranges and detached hills, which are much denuded and disintegrated. The altitude varies from 3,000 ft. (900 metres) on the east to 5,000 ft. (1,500 metres) on the south and west.

The Gobi is crossed in many directions by the caravan routes between China on the south-east and Outer Mongolia, Sinkiang, and North-west Mongolia; but there appears to be no part of it which is capable of permanent settlement. There are no rivers; the lakes are few and small, and for the most part brackish; and water is everywhere lacking except during the short rainy season.

Inner Mongolia extends from Kansu (about 100° E.) to Manchuria (about 122° E.), and from the Chinese provinces of Shensi, Shansi, and Chihli north-westwards to the Gobi. The surface is extremely diversified. In Alashan, which fills the space between the great bend of the Hwang-ho (Yellow River) and the Edsin Gol valley, the country is level, with a general altitude of 3,300 to 5,000 ft. (1,000 to 1,500 metres): 'for hundreds of miles there is nothing to be seen but bare sands', which are waterless, alternating either with saline clays, or, nearer the mountains, with barren shingle. Alashan is separated from Kansu by the eastern part of the Nan Shan Mountains, a narrow range with an average altitude of 10,500 to 11,000 ft. (3,200 to 3,500 metres).

The Ordos region lies east of Alashan, within the loop of the Hwang-ho. It is, for the most part, a level steppe partly bordered by low hills. The soil is altogether sandy or a mixture of clay and sand, ill adapted for agriculture. The absolute height of this country is between 3,000 and 3,500 ft. (900 and 1,060 metres), so that Ordos forms an intermediate step in the descent towards China. The northern part of the loop is filled with a succession of sand-dunes.

North of the Ordos, beyond the Hwang-ho, there is a succession of mountain ranges, including the Inshan, which connect eastward with the Khingan Mountains. These mountains have well-watered valleys and

abundant vegetation. Along the Hwang-ho there is a strip of alluvial land, thickly populated and cultivated by Chinese settlers.

In the country of the 'Forty-nine Banners' which borders China proper from the Hwang-ho bend as far as the confines of Manchuria, the altitude varies between 2,500 and 5,400 ft. (660 and 1,600 metres), with peaks rising 2,000 ft. (600 metres) above this level. East of the main Khingan the descent is comparatively rapid, though not abrupt, to the Taonanfu neighbourhood, where the average altitude is under 1,000 ft. (300 metres). In Inner Mongolia generally small lakes (*nor*) frequently fill the depressions, though the water in them is generally salt or brackish. The greater part of the 'Forty-nine Banners' country is fair grazing land, and much of it is quite suitable for agriculture, but as one goes north from Outer Chihli the soil is similar to the dry prairie of north and west Mongolia.

Lakes and River System

North-west Mongolia is abundantly supplied with rivers and lakes. Urianghai occupies the basin of the upper tributaries of the Yenisei, known as the Kemchik and the Ulu Kem, the latter being formed by the junction of the Bei Kem and the Khua Kem. The area of this basin covers about 64,000 square miles, and to the east of it lies Kossogol (Chubssugul), a large Alpine lake, at an altitude of 5,300 ft. The lakes in the middle region are mostly salt or brackish, and possess no outlet to the ocean. The chief of these is Ubsa Nor (altitude 2,400 ft., or 730 metres), occupying the lowest part of a large plain, and receiving from the east the River Tess. Farther south are the sister lakes Kirghis Nor (2,700 ft., or 820 metres) and Airyk Nor, which receive another large river, the Zapkhyn, and Lake Kungui. Near Kobdo, still farther south, the Kobdo river, rising in the Altai, enters Kara-ussu Nor (3,800 ft., or 1,160 metres), which is again connected with another large lake, Durga Nor, a short distance to the east. In

the third division of North-west Mongolia, south of the Egtagh (Mongolian Altai), is the Black Irtish, which drains the north frontier; while the Urungu waters the more arid region bordering on Sinkiang and enters Ulungur Nor near Buluntokhoi. The Emil, which flows west into Lake Alakul, is the river of west Tarbagatai.

The principal river of Outer Mongolia is the Selenga, which has many tributaries, the chief of them being the Orkhon and the Tola, the Kerulon, and the Onon. The basin of the Selenga extends from Uliasutai to Urga over the whole northern part of the Tushetu and Sainnoin territories. Both this river and the Orkhon flow north-eastwards as far as their confluence on the Siberian frontier, and the Selenga is navigable from this point down to Lake Baikal, some 200 miles, steamers plying during part of the year to Selenginsk. The Tola, Kerulon, and Onon all rise in the Kentai group. The Tola flows south-west past Urga, and afterwards northwards into the Orkhon, which is 450 miles long, and joins the Selenga a few miles south-west of Kiakhta. The valley of the Kerulon forms a great natural highway across the Tsetsen khanate of Outer Mongolia, stretching eastwards into the Barükh country. Along a considerable portion of the lower reaches it is unfordable, and there are no boats, except at the ferries. The Onon and the Chikoi, another tributary of the Selenga, water fertile valleys on the Siberian frontier.

In the trans-Khingan portion of Inner Mongolia there are few rivers of any importance, but of the many lakes Dalai Nor is the largest. It is about 40 miles round, and has an altitude of 4,200 ft. (1,280 metres). It is generally shallow, and the ice on the lake does not thaw until the end of April. Its waters are clear, though impregnated with soda, and there are no boats on it.

On the western slopes of the Khingan a number of small streams and rivulets exist as far north as the Khalkha Gol, which is a considerable river emptying into the Buir Nor. In general, it may be said that in

South-east Mongolia streams are by no means infrequent, and grass grows more or less abundantly; but west of the route from Kalgar to Urga there is great dearth of water owing to the small precipitation. The Hwang-ho in its curved course around the Ordos plateau is not subject to inundations, and flows between low level banks through a populous and well-cultivated valley 20 to 40 miles broad. It is unfordable in any part, is much used by large boats, and could easily be navigated by river steamers. The rate of the current is nearly $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles an hour, and the voyage from Paotowchen up-stream to Ningsiafu may take over a month. In Alashan there are salt lakes here and there, Charatai-Dabasu being 33 miles round, and encrusted with a layer of fine salt, 2 to 6 ft. thick.

(3) CLIMATE

A large part of Mongolia is occupied by the Gobi, which, however, except in its rainless central region, is rather a steppe than a desert.

The difference in mean temperature between the northern and southern confines is marked, the range amounting to as much as 35° F. in the month of January, and averaging 19° F. throughout the year.

Long. 80° - 120° E.

(Mean Temperature, Fahrenheit, reduced to sea-level.)

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
North Mongolia	-5	10	30	40	60	70	75	70	60	45	25	10
South "	30	30	52	60	70	82	85	83	70	67	50	35
Range	35	20	22	20	10	12	10	13	10	22	25	25

During six months of the year, October to April, Mongolia is practically the centre of the high-pressure system prevailing over continental Asia. In May the high-pressure system has moved in a northerly direction, and in June, July, and August the barometer in Mongolia stands at its lowest.

At Urga (situated at an altitude variously stated to be from 3,800 ft. to 4,300 ft.), where the mean annual temperature is $27^{\circ} 5'$ F., and the mean for January

— 16° F., an abnormal range of temperature is recorded, an absolute minimum of — 45° F. having been reached in January and an absolute maximum of 101° F. in June.

The average rainfall at Urga, which is typical of that of northern Mongolia generally, amounts to less than 8 in. Of the total precipitation, 3 per cent. occurs in the winter, 8 per cent. in the spring, 79 per cent. in the summer, and 10 per cent. in the autumn. The total number of days of precipitation in the year is 44, the wettest month, July, averaging less than ten days.

With regard to air circulation, it is found that calms predominate at Urga, 41 per cent. of the total observations of the year recording calms, 17 per cent. winds from the north-west, 14 per cent. winds from the west, and 13 per cent. winds from the east. Westerly winds predominate in every month of the year.

(4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

The hardy open-air life which is led by the entire population keeps the people as a rule free from epidemic diseases, in spite of their extremely unclean personal habits. The commonest illnesses are rheumatism and syphilis. There is little malaria, and the traveller who avoids sleeping in the native tents has nothing to fear on the score of health in any part of Mongolia.

(5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

Race

The inhabitants of Mongolia consist in the main of various tribes of Mongols. In the far east, on the borders of Manchuria, there are a few Tungus tribes; in the north-west there are Turkis, Manchus, and Chinese; in Inner Mongolia Chinese settlers abound; but over nine-tenths of the Mongol territory there is no population other than pure Mongol.

The race is divided by the Chinese into two great

classes, the Outer Mongols (Wai Meng-ku) and Inner Mongols (Nei Meng-ku). The former include the Khalkhas, the Kalmuks (Eleuths, Oëlots) or West Mongols, and the Urianghai: the latter comprise the tribes of the 'Forty-nine Banners' inhabiting the country south and east of the Gobi which adjoins China Proper and Manchuria. The Khalkha nation is formed of four great tribes, the Tsetsen, Tushetu, Dzasaktu, and Sainnoin, who occupy the whole of northern Mongolia from Uliasutai eastward to the Khingan range. The Kalmuk tribes are scattered in North-west Mongolia, Alashan, Kokonor, and Inner Mongolia. The Urianghai ('forest dwellers') are found in the upper Yenisei basin.

There are two smaller bodies of nomads which are not included by the Chinese among the Outer and Inner Mongols, namely the Chahars and the Barūkhs (Russian Barga, Bargha). The Chahars inhabit the territory lying close to the Great Wall; they are organized into 'banners' like the Manchus, and placed under the control of a Chinese Lieutenant-Governor residing at Kalgan. The Barūkh country, known to the Chinese as Hulun (Ku-lun)-buir, is a borderland wedged in between Manchuria, the Argun river, and Outer Mongolia. The Barūkhs have since 1915 been ruled by a Governor of their own, appointed by the Chinese Government.

Outside Mongolia there are in Russian territory a considerable number of people of Mongol race. Kalmuks in numbers are found in Semiretchensk, Semipalatinsk, and the southern part of the province of Tomsk, and there is a section far to the west on the Volga. 'From their original seats in Dzungaria they turned in their migrations to the north, crossed the steppe of the Kirghiz, and thus gradually reached the Emba and the Or. Between these two rivers and the Ural the Torgod [Turgut] settled in 1616; thence they crossed the Volga in 1650, and took possession of the now so-called steppe of the Kalmucks, being followed in 1673 by the Derbet [Turbet] and in 1675 by the

Koshod [Khoshoit]. In 1771 a considerable number returned to the Chinese Empire.¹

The Buriats, of which there are 200,000 or 300,000 in Transbaikalia and the country around Lake Baikal, are Khalkhas who went to these parts towards the end of the seventeenth century. Unlike the Mongols and Kalmuks, who continue to live as nomads, the Buriats are farmers.

Language

The Mongol language is one of the great family which has of late years been named the Ural-Altaiic, including the Finno-Ugrian, Turkish, Manchu, and Samoyede. There are three main dialects, East Mongol or Khalkha, West Mongol or Kalmuk, and Buriat, but the difference between them is so slight that whoever understands one understands them all. There is a small difference between the Mongol script proper and the Kalmuk, the latter being the later invention and more practical. The written language is quite distinct from the colloquial.

(6) POPULATION

Distribution

No census of Mongolia has ever been taken, and the accounts which have been published estimate the population at two to five millions. Either of these numbers is small for an area of over 1,300,000 square miles. The population is densest in the north and west along the Siberian frontier, and in the east and south-east close to Manchuria and China proper. In the centre, south, and south-west there are scarcely any inhabitants.

The Mongols, with few exceptions, are still nomads; and the tents are pitched to suit the pasturage of the flocks.

¹ *Encyclopædia Britannica*, 11th ed., xviii. 720.

Towns

Urga, the capital of Outer Mongolia, lies on a branch of the Tola river. It is the residence of the Cheptsun Dampa Khutukhtu, the Lamaist Pope and now a temporal sovereign also, and the religious centre of the Khalkha tribes. The inhabitants number about 40,000, of whom a third are Lama monks. The habitations are chiefly felt tents (*urts*). Maimaichen is a trading town adjoining Kiakhta on the Siberian border 190 miles north of Urga; the inhabitants are mainly Chinese. Sambeise is the seat of a Mongol prince and a mart for Chinese traders. Uliasutai and Kobdo were important as the residences of official governors under the Manchus, and no doubt they continue to be so under the new rule of the Urga Khutukhtu. Chuguchak, on the extreme west frontier, is, like Kiakhta, an entrepôt for Siberian trade.

Dolon Nor (Lamamiao), though in Inner Mongolian territory, is a Chinese town, as are also Taonanfu and Paotowchen.

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

[This Section is intended to be read in conjunction with *China*, No. 67 of this series.]

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 1227. Death of Jenghiz Khan.
- 1368. End of the Mongol dynasty in China.
- 1644. Submission of Mongol tribes to the Manchu Emperor.
- 1757. Final conquest of West Mongolia by Ch'ien-lung.
- 1911. Outer Mongol princes ask for Russian protection (July) and declare independence (November).
- 1912. Mongols seize Hailar (January 15), Uliasutai (January 28), Kobdo (August 7), and Taonanfu (August 15).
- 1912. Taonanfu retaken by the Chinese.
- 1912. Agreement of Urga (October 12) between Russia and the Mongols.
- 1913. Russo-Chinese Declaration (November 5).
- 1914. Railway and Telegraph Agreements between Russia and Outer Mongolia (September 30).
- 1915. Treaty of Kiakhta, between Russia, China, and Outer Mongolia (June 7).
- 1915. Russo-Chinese Agreement as to the Barükh country (November 26).

(1) *Outline of Early History*

WE know little of Mongolia before the time of Jenghiz Khan, who died in A. D. 1227. Originally a minor nomad chief of the Kerulon valley, in the course of his lifetime his dominion was extended until it covered most of High Asia westward from the China Sea. His son Ogotai and his grand-nephews Mangu, Hulagu, and Kublai continued to conquer territories west and south, and on the death of the last (in 1294) the Mongol Empire was probably the most extensive known in history. But through the incompetence of Kublai's successors it declined as rapidly as it rose, and the Mongol dynasty came to an end in China, the principal seat of Mongol power, in 1368. Toghon Timur, the last Mongol occupant of the throne of China, was followed by a number

of Khakans who exercised an overlordship in the territory now known as Mongolia, but by the first half of the seventeenth century the Mongol tribes had gradually lost cohesion and had established scattered communities under as many chiefs all over the country. Some of these, whose lands were close to the Chinese borders, submitted to the Manchu Emperors within a few years of the downfall of the Mings (1644); the Khalkha nations who were more remote followed their example in the reign of K'ang-hsi (1661-1721), by whom the Dzungars were defeated; and in 1757 the final conquest of West Mongolia was accomplished by Ch'ien-lung.

(2) *Inner Mongolia*

At the fall of the Manchu Empire in 1911 this vast and, on the whole, inhospitable region was roughly divided by the Gobi into two great administrative divisions, Inner and Outer Mongolia. These divisions still subsist. Inner Mongolia, also known generally as the country of the 'Forty-nine Banners', extends along the north frontier of China proper from Kansu to Manchuria, and, stretching north-east on both sides of the Khingan range, bounds Manchuria on the west. The forty-nine 'banners' of the Inner Mongols are directly descended from the organization of the Jenghizide Khans, which was continued by their descendants after the expulsion of the Mongol (Yüan) dynasty from China (A. D. 1368). They are divided into six leagues, which embrace the whole of the twenty-four tribes. The Inner Mongols had always been closely linked with the Manchu dynasty, and large portions of their territory had been gradually colonized by northern Chinese during the past century.

(3) *Outer Mongolia*

Outer Mongolia is a wide zone adjoining the Siberian frontier for 2,000 miles from Manchuria to Turkestan. It is inhabited by Khalkha tribes in the east and centre, and by Kalmuks (Eleuths or Oölots) in the west.

Three of the four great divisions of the Khalkhas—Tsetsen, Tushetu, Dzassaktu, and Sainnoin—are governed by rulers bearing the old title of Khan—Tushetu Khan, Tsetsen Khan, and Dzassaktu Khan—and there are 86 ‘banners’ in the whole Khalkha nation. The principal centre of Chinese authority as exercised on the Khalkhas was at Uliasutai, a town in the Sainnoin territory, where a Military Governor was stationed. He was assisted by Khalkha princes from the four tribal divisions, each of whom took turns of residence for three months at Uliasutai. Urga, a town in the Tushetu country, is the administrative centre of the Tushetu and Tsetsen khanates, and the seat of the Cheptsun Dampa Khutukhtu, the Lamaist Pope of Mongolia, through whose spiritual influence Chinese authority over the Khalkha chiefs was largely maintained. To ensure this, an Imperial Agent or Amban was stationed at Urga, with co-ordinate authority in matters relating to the Mongols and special control of the frontier trade at Kiakhta.

The organization of the Kalmuks suffered from the wars of the eighteenth century with Tibet and China, and the tribes are much scattered. Most of them inhabit North-west Mongolia; a large body live in the Kokonor region and on the north border of Tibet; and another large section, the Alashan Mongols, are found in Kansu and along the western bend of the Hwangho. The Urianghai and West Mongol tribes were placed under the Military Assistant-Governor at Kobdo, subject to the authority of Uliasutai; and a Comptroller-General at Siningfu (Kansu) supervised the Mongols and Tanguts of Kokonor and the Tibetan border.

(4) *Attempts by China to tighten Control. Intervention of Russia*

The steps taken by the Peking Government in the closing years of Kuang-hsü (1875–1908) to reduce the Mongolias more to the status of Chinese provinces

were not conducted tactfully, and were viewed with the same mistrust by the Mongols as Chao Êrh-fêng's campaigns were by the Tibetans. The unrest increased during Hsüan-t'ung's reign and came to a head in 1911. In July of that year a meeting of Mongol princes at Urga, presided over by the Khutukhtu, decided to send a deputation to St. Petersburg to ask for Russia's protection. Russia undertook to make representations at Peking, and accordingly on August 28 the Russian Minister presented a Note to the Wai-wu Pu stating that Russia could not remain indifferent to any violent change in the *status quo* in Mongolia, and pointing out that the measures of the Chinese Government were disturbing the existing balance of power on the frontier, and were exercising an unfavourable influence on the relations between the two Governments. To this the Wai-wu Pu replied on September 19 that the measures of reform in progress in Mongolia had merely for object the commercial and industrial development of the country, and that the Urga Amban had been instructed to pay regard to the feelings of the Mongols.

(5) *Outer Mongol Princes declare Independence, 1911*

The revolution in China led the Mongol princes to declare their independence at Urga. The Amban was forced to withdraw and the Khutukhtu was appointed Great Khan of the Mongols. Russia was appealed to for support: she advised the Mongols to show moderation and to endeavour to find a basis of agreement with China. The Mongols, however, conducted offensive measures and made incursions into Manchuria. They seized Hailar (January 15, 1912) and Uliasutai (January 28). On the abdication of the Manchus questions arose as to the relative positions of Inner and Outer Mongolia under the new regime. The November declaration of independence had been engineered by a few influential men at Urga without possibility of reference to many remote and scattered tribes, and

dissensions arose; some clamoured to return to their old allegiance, others favoured closer union between Outer and Inner Mongolia in view of their common religion, and a third group endeavoured to consolidate Outer Mongolia and ignore Inner Mongolia.

Both the Mongols and the Chinese approached the Russian Government, who had offered to mediate with the object, it was said, of preventing a declaration of Mongolian independence, and of securing autonomy for the Mongols in a form which would enable them to administer their internal affairs without Chinese interference. Russia suggested to China as a basis for a settlement that there should be no Chinese administrators in Mongolia, no Chinese troops sent there, and no colonization by Chinese; and at the same time the Mongols were recommended not to sever connexion with China. In spite of this mediation, the Mongols continued their aggressions, and on August 7, 1912, Kobdo, the chief town of western Mongolia, was captured; the Chinese officials and nationals took refuge at the Russian Consulate and were eventually repatriated through Russian territory. The Dzassaktu Khan, a leading Khalkha prince, stirred up a revolt among the Cherim league of Inner Mongolia, and the Mongols on the Manchurian border, who had so far remained loyal to China, being roused, Taonanfu was captured on August 15. These districts being largely colonized by Chinese, the authorities in Manchuria were stimulated to action: Taonanfu was relieved, and a series of defeats was inflicted on the Mongols, who were treated with great severity. Encouraged by their success at Taonanfu the Chinese appear to have made an effort to recover their position in the west. In this attempt they are said to have reached Kobdo, but were induced to withdraw by the Russians.

(6) *Russo-Mongol Agreement, 1912*

The period of disorder was ended by an agreement which was concluded at Urga on October 21/November 3, 1912, between a Russian envoy, M. Korostovetz, and

plenipotentiaries 'duly authorized by the Sovereign of the Mongol people, by the Mongol Government, and by the governing princes'. The preamble stated that 'following a unanimous desire of the Mongols to maintain the national and historic constitution of their country, the Chinese troops and authorities were obliged to evacuate Mongol territory and the Cheptsun Dampa Khutukhtu was proclaimed Sovereign of the Mongol people. The ancient relations between Mongolia and China thus came to an end.' The Russian Government undertook to assist Mongolia to preserve the autonomy thus established and also the right to have a national army, and to forbid the presence of Chinese troops or colonization by Chinese on Mongol territory. In a Protocol annexed to this agreement elaborate arrangements were made giving Russian subjects complete liberty of trade in Mongolia free of 'duties, taxes, or other dues', and other special privileges.

(7) *Mongol-Tibetan Treaty, 1913*

This Russo-Mongol agreement was immediately followed by a Mongol-Tibetan Treaty of alliance, also concluded at Urga by representatives of the Dalai Lama and of the Khutukhtu (December 29, 1912/January 11, 1913), which, though of no political importance, is interesting from the fact that the initiative in the matter is said to have come from the Tibetan side. The readiness displayed by the Urga Government to accept the Dalai Lama's proposal was explained by the great moral and religious significance attached to the benediction and approbation of the Supreme Head of the Lamaistic Church. To the Khutukhtu, who stood lower in the spiritual hierarchy, a proposal to conclude an agreement on equal terms could not but be flattering.

The preamble of the treaty asserted that Mongolia and Tibet had freed themselves from the Manchu dominion and had become independent states, and that the new alliance was formed in view of the com-

munity of religion. Each state recognized the other's independence, and both agreed to work together for the advancement of Buddhism, and engaged to assist each other against external and internal dangers.

(8) *Russo-Chinese Declaration, 1913*

The Russo-Mongol agreement was an unpleasant surprise to the Chinese. It was also apparent to the Powers that such a recognition of Mongolian independence would create a political situation which was not contemplated when they pledged themselves to maintain the integrity of the Chinese Empire. There was a widespread feeling, fostered by the Chinese press, that the Republic should take up the challenge, and there was some talk of sending a force to Urga. Instead, discussions took place with the Russian Government, which resulted in a declaration and exchange of notes at Peking on November 5, 1913. In the declaration Russia recognized the suzerainty of China over Outer Mongolia, and China on her side recognized the autonomy of Outer Mongolia. China was allowed to station a 'Chinese Dignitary with staff and escort' at Urga, and to send agents in case of need to other localities: at the same time she undertook not to interfere in the internal administration of Outer Mongolia, not to send troops or maintain any other civil or military officials there, and to abstain from all colonization. Russia, on the other hand, undertook not to interfere in any part of the administration, not to maintain troops other than consular guards in the country, and to refrain from colonizing it. China declared herself ready to accept the good offices of Russia to establish her relations with Outer Mongolia in conformity with the principles above stated, and with the terms of the Urga Agreement of 1912. In the notes exchanged, Russia recognized that Outer Mongolia 'formed part of the territory of China'. Autonomous Outer Mongolia was defined to include the regions which had been under the jurisdiction of the Urga

Amban, the Military Governor at Uliasutai, and the Kobdo Amban: and it was arranged that 'so far as political and territorial questions are concerned the Chinese Government will act in agreement with the Russian Government by negotiations in which the authorities of Outer Mongolia will take part'.

(9) *Russo-Mongol Railway and Telegraph Agreements*,
1914

Following the arrangements of 1912 and 1913 above described, railway and telegraph agreements were concluded between Russia and Outer Mongolia on September 30, 1914. In the railway agreement Russia 'recognized the right of the Outer Mongols to construct railways in their own territory': at the same time should they desire to grant a concession to a private person they must first consult Russia; should assistance be required to build railways Russia will give it; and the two Governments will jointly discuss the routes of the railways which may be necessary to serve both countries.

(10) *Tripartite Treaty of Kiakhta*, 1915

The political position of Outer Mongolia, as it was established by the Russo-Mongol Urga Agreement and by the Russo-Chinese instruments of November 5, 1913, was consolidated by a tripartite treaty signed at Kiakhta on June 7, 1915, by representatives of Russia, China, and Outer Mongolia. This comprehensive document covers the whole field of the Outer Mongol relations with the suzerain, China, with Russia, and with other countries. Outer Mongolia recognized the 1913 declaration and the suzerainty of China; Russia and China on their side recognized the autonomy of Outer Mongolia. The latter was declared not to possess the right to conclude treaties with foreign Powers concerning political or territorial questions, but was conceded the right to contract treaties of commerce and industry. The Khan of Outer Mongolia received

his title from China; the Chinese representative dignitary was given the place of honour on ceremonial occasions; and the Chinese calendar was to be employed by Outer Mongolia in official documents. The Chinese in Outer Mongolia were placed under Chinese jurisdiction, and the Chinese dignitaries were expressly empowered to protect suzerain rights and interests. The escorts of the Chinese dignitaries at Urga, Uliasutai, Kobdo, and Kiakhta; the Russian consular escorts; duties on trade; jurisdiction and procedure in mixed cases; telegraphs and posts; residences of Chinese dignitaries, were all arranged for in detail; and provision was made for a formal delimitation of the limits of Outer Mongolia as laid down in the Peking notes of November 5, 1913, within two years from the date of the tripartite treaty.

(11) *Russo-Chinese Agreement as to the Barūkh Country, 1915*

Another arrangement was concluded on November 26, 1915, between Russia and China 'on the subject of the Houlounbours situation'. The Barūkh country (Hulun-buir), to which this refers, contains two important stations on the Trans-Siberian Railway, Hailar and Manchuria; these stations were opened to foreign trade by the Sino-Japanese Additional Agreement signed at Peking on December 22, 1905. It appears that the Barūkhs declared themselves independent in the early part of 1912. Article I of the new arrangement makes Hulun-buir 'a district under the control of the central government of the Chinese Republic'. The Governor (*Fu-tu-t'ung*) is appointed by the President and enjoys the powers of a provincial governor. China is entitled to send troops thither 'in case of disorder' on giving notice beforehand to Russia, and the troops must be retired when order is restored. All taxes, except the customs and salt gabelle (which revert to China), are to be devoted to local needs. Chinese and Barūkhs are on a footing of equality in the country, but the

land being (after the nomad system) the common property of the whole people, no Chinese can acquire more than a lease for a fixed term. Should capital be required for railways, the Chinese Government is in the first place to apply to Russia, and branches of the Chinese Eastern Railway (Trans-Siberian) can only be made with the consent of China, which will not be refused without special reason. The effect of this arrangement was to place the Barūkh country in a position similar to Outer Mongolia, and under the special protection of Russia.

AUTHORITIES

See *China*, No. 67, and *Manchuria*, No. 69, of this series.

MAPS

A sketch map of Mongolia, showing rivers and chief towns, on the scale of 1:7,500,000 has been issued by the Intelligence Division of the Naval Staff (1919) in connexion with this series.

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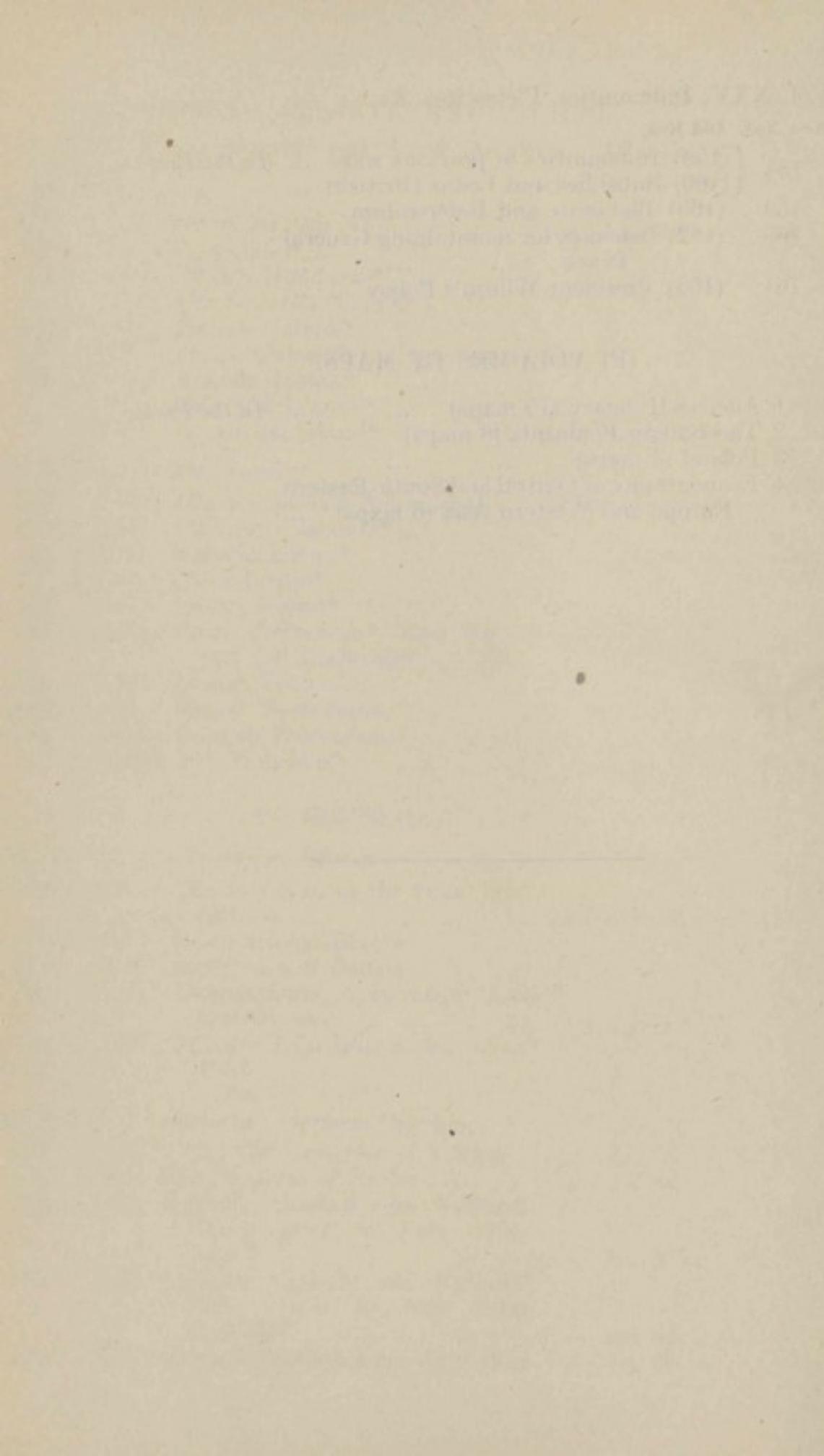
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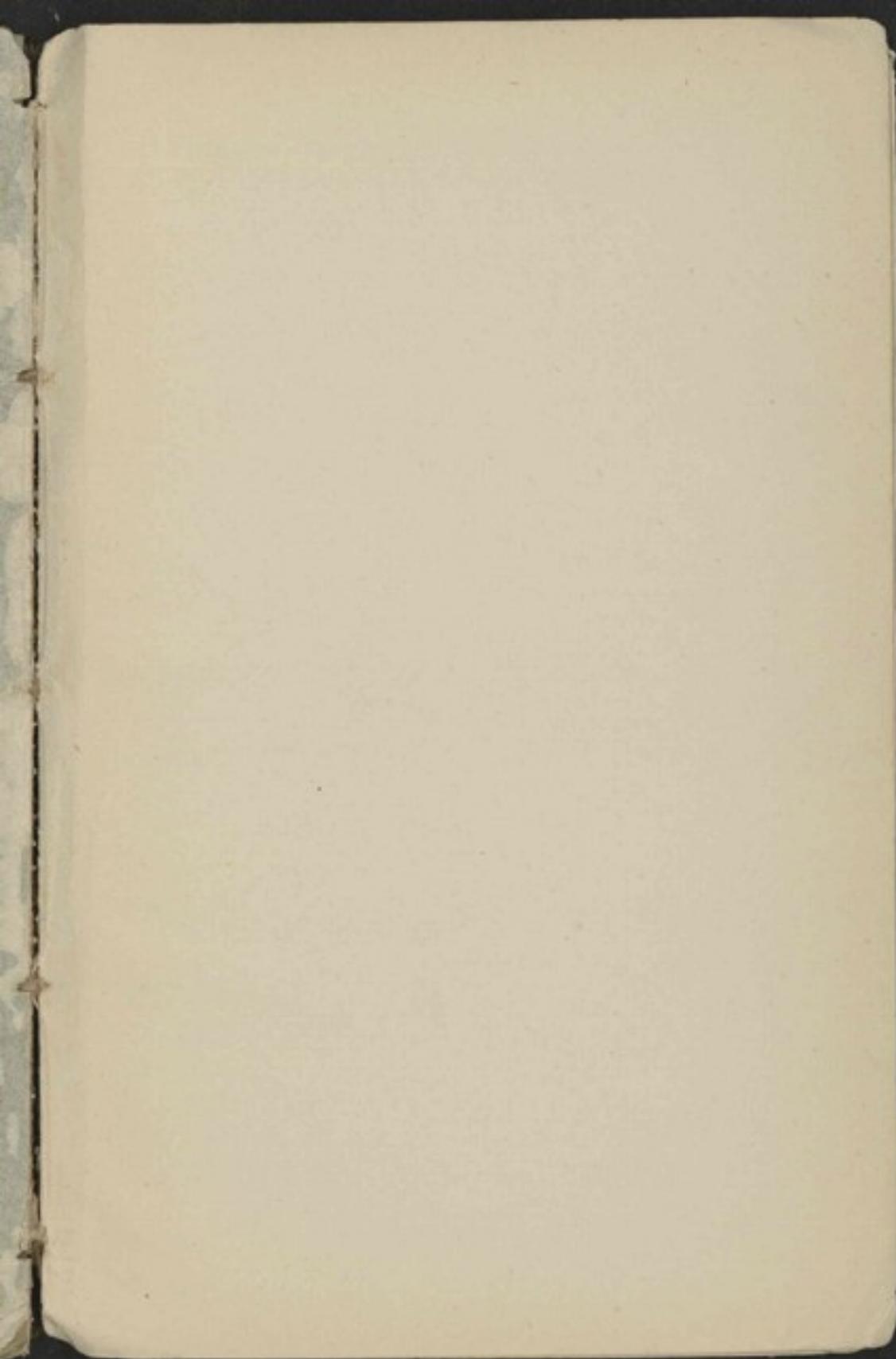
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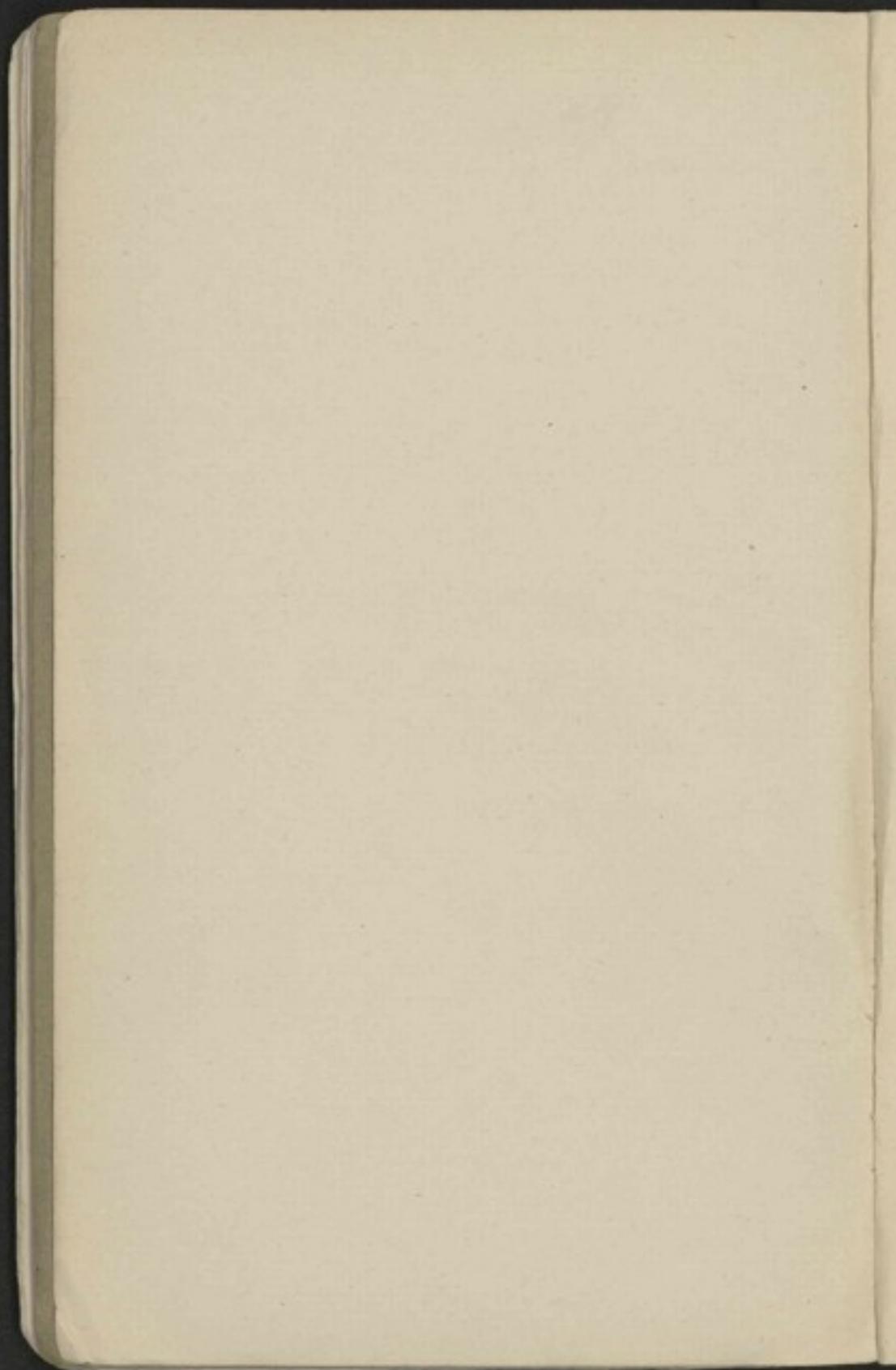
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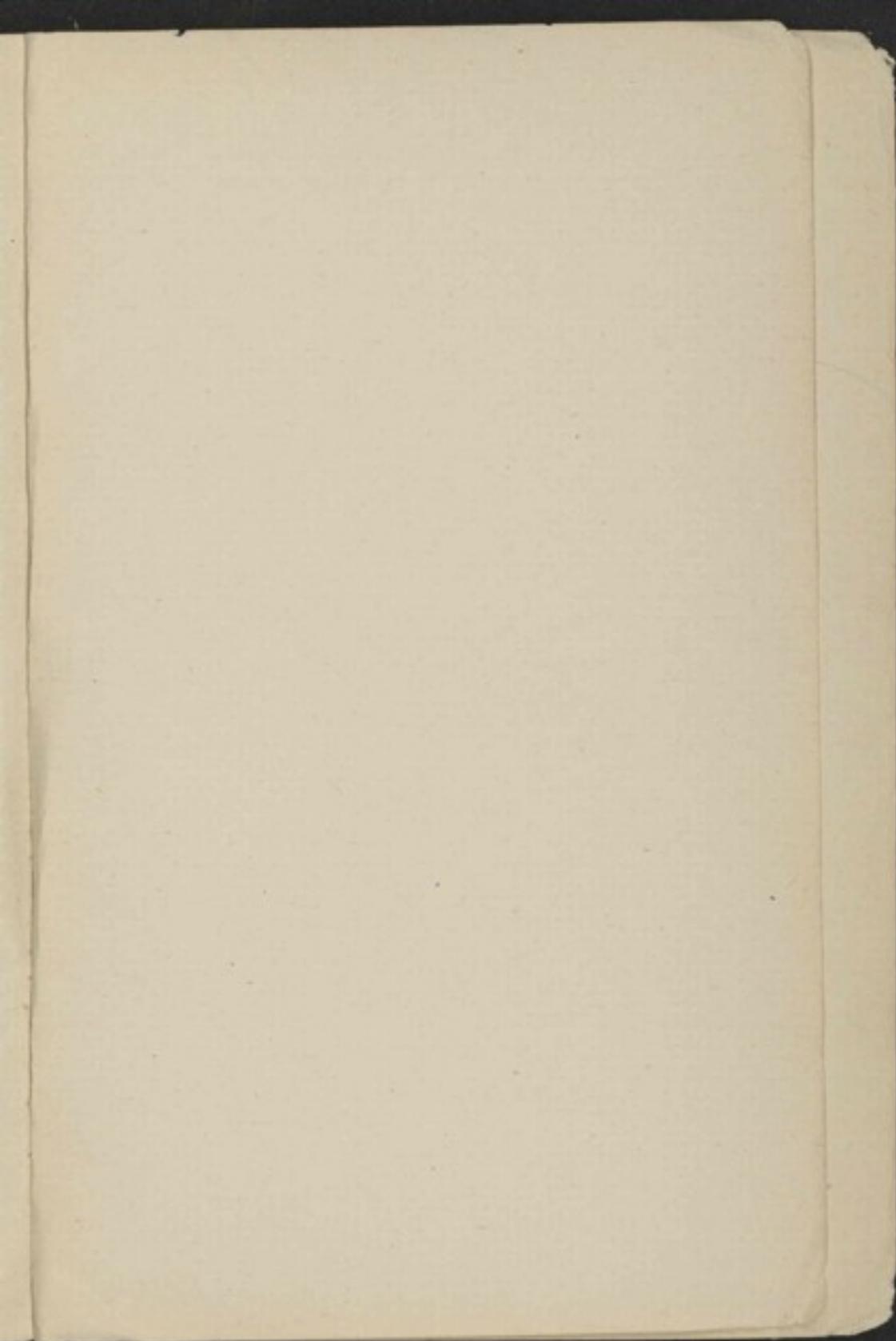
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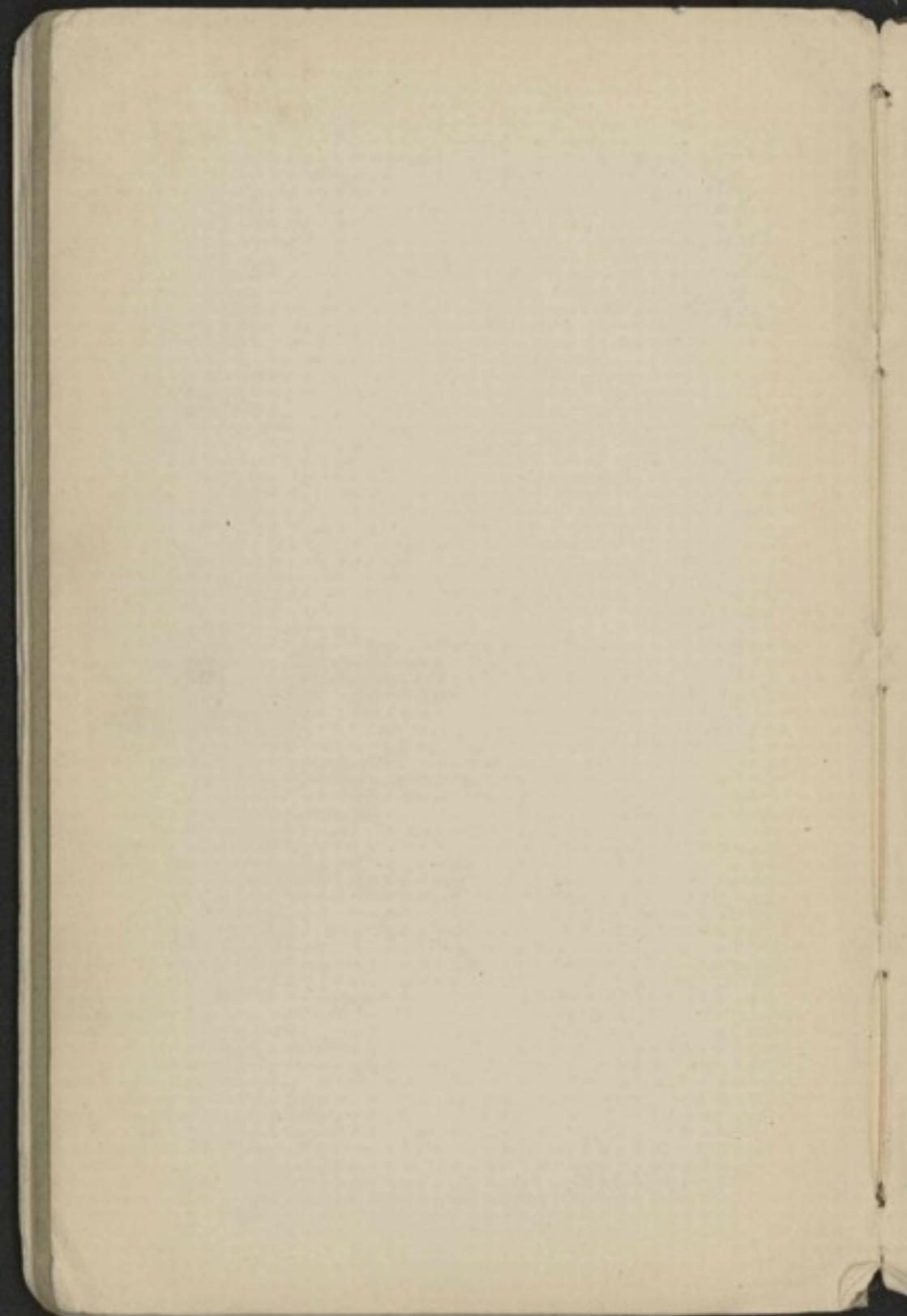
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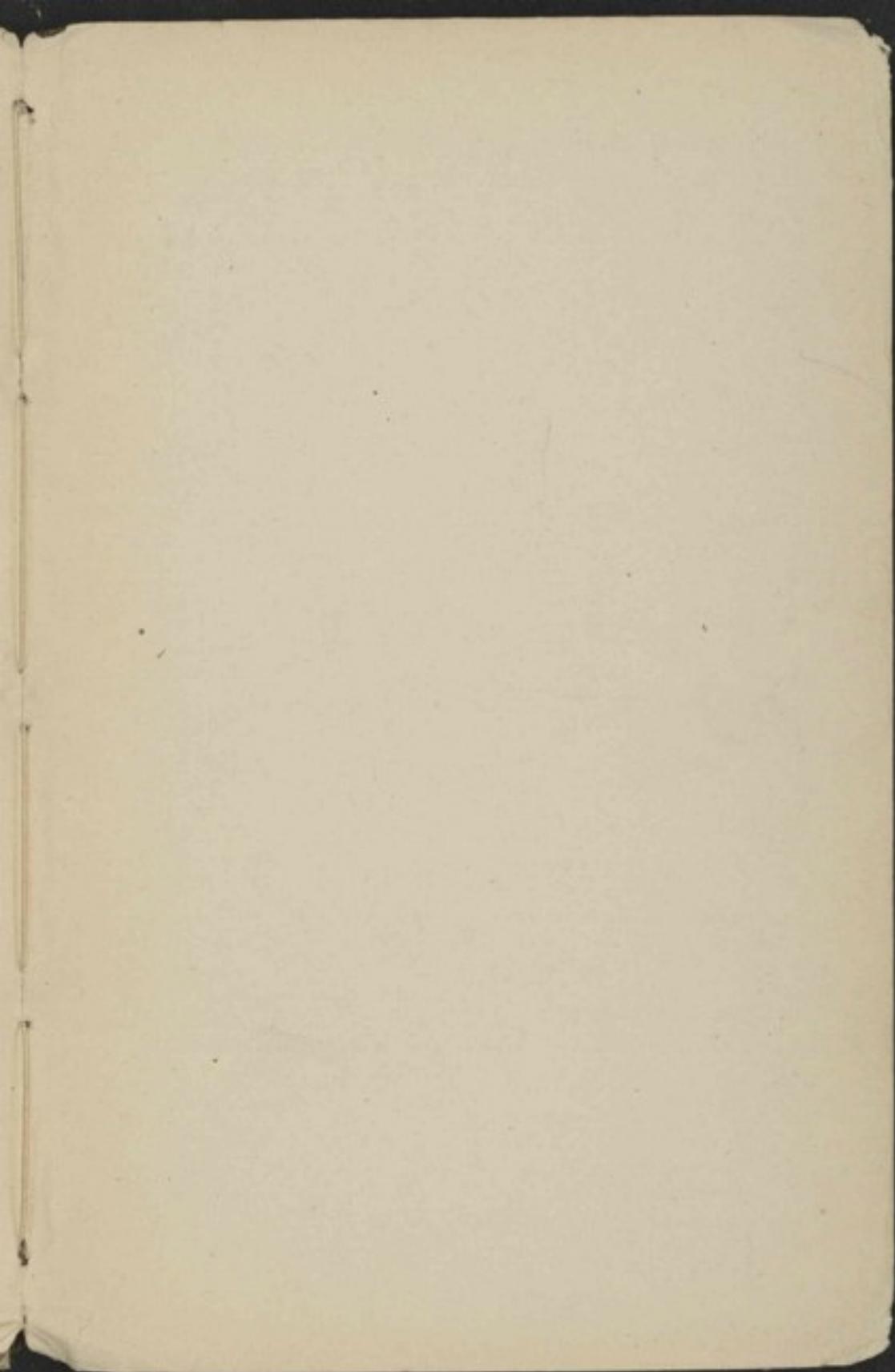
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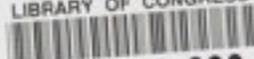








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