D 6
.G7
no. 2
Copy 2

OOKS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE
ICAL SECTION OF THE FOREIGN OFFICE.—No. 2

BOHEMIA AND MORAVIA

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. 2

507
1407

BOHEMIA AND MORAVIA

LONDON:
PUBLISHED BY H. M. STATIONERY OFFICE.

1920

D6
.G7
Copy 2

D. of D.
MAY 27 1920

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.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PAGE

I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

Bohemia

(1) Position and Frontiers 1
(2) Surface and River System
Surface 2
River System 4

Moravia

(1) Position and Frontiers 5
(2) Surface and River System
Surface 6
River System 7

Bohemia and Moravia

(3) Climate 7
(4) Sanitary Conditions 9
(5) Race and Language 9
(6) Population
Distribution 10
Towns 11
Movement 12

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

Chronological Summary 13
Origins 14
The German Immigration 14
The Czech Reaction 15
The Hussite Wars and their Consequences . . 15
Toleration under the Habsburgs . . . 16
The Battle of the White Mountain and the Catholic Reaction 17
Power of the Jesuits 17

Wt. 36998/251. 1,000. 2/20. O.U.P.

PAGE

Effects of the Change 18
Constitutional Changes 18
The Eighteenth Century 18
Reforms of Joseph II 18
Revival of the Czech Language . . . 19
Early Nineteenth Century 19
Repression under Metternich . . . 19
The Linguistic and Literary Revival . . . 20
Foundation of the *Matice Česka* . . . 20
Kollar and Pan-Slavism 20
The Political Awakening 21
Havliček 21
The Revolution of 1848 21
Palacky and the Congress of Frankfurt . 22
The Congress of Prague 23
Restoration of Absolutism 23
Triumph of Dualism 24
Industrial Revolution 25
Attempts at Conciliation 25
Hohenwart 25
Taaffe 26
Masaryk founds the Realist Party . . 27
The Compromise of 1890 27
Czech Opposition 27
Taaffe's Fall 28
Badeni's Proposals 28
National and International Socialism . . . 28
The Körber Ministry. Universal Suffrage . . 29
Failure of Last Attempts at a Settlement . . 29
Dissolution of the Diet 30
Appointment of an Imperial Administrative Commission 30

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) Religious 31
(2) Political 32
(3) Educational 34
General Observations
The Racial Struggle 37

PAGE

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) Means of Communication
(a) Roads 42
(b) Rivers and Canals 42
(c) Railways and Tramways 47
(d) Posts 51

(B) Industry
(1) Labour
(a) Labour Conditions 51
(b) Emigration 53
(2) Agriculture
(a) Products of Commercial Value . . . 54
Agriculture in Bohemia . . . 55
Agriculture in Moravia . . . 58
Hops 59
Fruit 60
Wine 60
(b) Forestry 61
(c) Land Tenure 61
(3) Minerals
Coal and Lignite 62
Iron 65
Graphite 66
Copper, Tin, Gold, Silver, &c. . . . 67
Mineral Waters 67
(4) Manufactures 69
Sugar 69
Beer and Spirits 71
Paper 72
Porcelain and Glass 73
Cement 75
Textile Industries 76
Chemical Industry 79
Machinery 80
(5) Trade Combinations and Cartels . . . 82
Wood Industry 82
Iron Industry 82
Graphite Industry 83
Sugar Industry 83

PAGE

Brewing and Distilling 83
Cotton Industry 84
Woollen Industry 84
Glass, China, and Enamelled Ware Industries . 84
Chemical Industry 85
Nitrate Combine 85
Machine Factories 85

(C) Commerce
(a) Organizations for promoting Trade . . 86
(b) Exports and Imports 86
Hops and Fruit 88
Coal and Lignite 88
Iron 89
Graphite, Sugar, Beer, Gloves, &c. . 90
Machinery 91

(D) Finance
(1) Public Finance 92
(2) Banks and Financial Institutions . . . 96
(3) Influence of Foreign Capital 98

(E) General Remarks 100

APPENDIX

Table I. Staple Crops 103
" II. Beet and Sugar 104
" III. Banks 105

AUTHORITIES

Historical and Economic 108
Maps 109

GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

BOHEMIA

(1) Position and Frontiers

Bohemia, which is the most important province of Austria, is shaped like an irregular diamond, its four points squaring almost exactly with those of the compass. It has an area of 20,058 square miles, and lies between 48° 33′ and 51° 3′ north latitude and 12° 5′ and 16° 51′ east longitude, being bounded on the north-west by Saxony, on the north-east by Prussian Silesia, on the east and south-east by Moravia and lower Austria, on the south by upper Austria, and on the south-west by Bavaria. It is entirely surrounded by mountains which form steep ranges, except on the east. Starting from its most westerly point on the Bavarian border, the northern boundary runs north-east along the Erzgebirge to the Elbe, which it crosses just above Herrenskretchen. A little farther on the frontier makes a sharp bend to its most northerly point, Buchberg, which is also the most northerly point in the Austrian Empire. The eastern boundary runs along the range of the Sudetes, then, leaving these in the neighbourhood of the Schneeberg, it runs in a southerly direction to the Zwittawa, and then south-west along the Bohemian–Moravian Highlands, continuing through mountainous country till it turns north-west along the Böhmerwald. It continues to follow these mountains and the Fichtelgebirge until it reaches its most westerly point in the Asch region, the little

wedge of Bohemia that runs in between Bavaria and Saxony. The one important outlet to the north is the Elbe valley, while the Böhmerwald is cut in two by the Neepomuk, Neugedein, or Neumark Pass (1,473 ft., 448 m.) near Taus (Domažliče), which has always been the main highway to the kingdom from the south-west. Thus Bohemia is naturally cut off from the rest of Europe, except where its frontier marches with that of Moravia on the east.

(2) Surface and River System

Surface

Bohemia may be regarded as the basin of the upper Elbe and its tributaries. The land slopes from south to north, Herrenskretschen, where the Elbe enters Saxony, being the lowest point, 367 ft. (111 m.).

The Erzgebirge (Rudo Hori) in the north-west, with their rounded tops, rise steeply above the Eger, but slope gently on the Saxon side. Their average height is about 2,600 ft. (800 m.), and they have a length of some 87 miles. The Keilberg (4,080 ft., 1,243 m.) is the highest point, rising above Gottesgab (3,375 ft., 1,028 m.), which is said to be the highest town in Europe.

To the east of the Erzgebirge are the Elbsandsteingebirge, through the extreme left portion of which flows the Elbe, and beyond these the Sudetes run south-east. They are divided into the Lausitzergebirge, the Isergebirge, the Jeschkengebirge, running south-east, the Riesengebirge, whose highest point is the Schneekoppe (5,260 ft., 1,603 m.), the highest mountain in Bohemia, and the Böhmischer Kamm (Adlergebirge), which runs south-east to the Moravian frontier. The average height of these chains ranges from 2,500 ft. to about 3,500 ft. (750–1,050 m.).

The Böhmerwald is divided into two parts by the Neepomuk Pass. The northern Böhmerwald (Ceskýles) extends for 25 miles to the neighbourhood of Klentsch. It consists of a mass of ridges and rounded tops, Cerkow (3,300 ft., 1,006 m.), its highest point, rising above the pass. The southern Böhmerwald (Sumava), with a length of 78 miles to the Kuschwarda Pass (2,640 ft., 804 m.), forms a great wall of some 4,000 ft. (1,200 m.). The Eisenstein Pass (3,123 ft., 951 m.) divides it into two parts. North-west of Waldsassen are the Fichtelgebirge.

There are several mountain areas in the interior. In the north-west lies the extensive plateau, of which the Kaiserwald and the Teplergebirge are the most notable divisions. The Mittelgebirge, pierced by the Elbe, lies to the north, while between Pilsen and Prague is the Brdywald, the highest of the internal ranges, where the climate is consequently severe. With the exception of the Kaiserwald, these mountains are rarely over 3,000 ft. (900 m.) high.

In the south-east lies the Wittingau plain with its many lakes. A line drawn through Hohenmauth, Prague, and Komotau roughly divides the southern highlands from the northern lowlands and the great plain north of Prague. Of the land west of the Moldau and south of Königsaal three-quarters is more or less mountainous. Only the Pilsen and Budweis plains are not mountain plateaux, and they are both hilly.

In spite of the extent of its mountains, Bohemia is among the most fertile parts of the Austrian Empire. Every inch of the great plain of the north is cultivated; only a few trees appear upon it here and there east of Prague. The Saaz hop district, the Leitmeritz and Tepl districts, and the Goldene Rute round Königgrätz are famous. Hardly less fertile are the valleys of the more important rivers, notably of the Eger and the

Beraun. The Pilsen plain, watered by its four rivers, and the Budweis plain are less rich. The slopes of the mountains are also cultivated to the highest possible limit. The water-supply is nearly everywhere ample throughout the year. It is not plentiful in the Dauba region, with its important hop-fields, but the difficulty has been largely overcome by the construction of wells and other means.

River System

All the rivers of Bohemia have their sources within its boundaries. The centre of the main drainage system is the Elbe (Labe), which carries virtually all the waters of the country into Germany. The Elbe is navigable for 68 miles above its confluence with the Moldau, but rafts can be floated down from a much greater distance. It rises in the Riesengebirge and, after receiving the Adler on its left bank, flows roughly north-west through the great northern plain and then through the Mittelgebirge. The Iser and the Polzen are large tributaries on the right, but far more important are the Eger, which enters the Elbe at Leitmeritz, with its confluent the Tepl, and the Biela, which drain the north-western area of Bohemia.

The Moldau (Vltava) is undoubtedly the most important of Bohemian rivers. It has a greater volume of water than the Elbe at their confluence, and is 270 miles long, 47 miles longer than the upper Elbe, while its basin is twice as large. It rises in the Böhmerwald, flowing south-east between the two main ridges to the neighbourhood of Hohenfurth, where it turns in a northerly direction, flowing through a deep narrow valley to Prague. Below Prague the valley opens out and there are numerous islands. The Moldau enters the Elbe at Melnik. It is navigable for boats from

Budweis and for steamers from Prague, below which town it is canalized and has a depth of 7 ft.

The chief tributaries of the Moldau on the right are the Lužnice (Luschnitz) and the Sazawa, which is navigable for 88 miles; on the left the Wattawa (Wottawa) and the Beraun. The Beraun, which is the third largest river in Bohemia, and is navigable for 25 miles, is formed at Pilsen by the junction of four rivers—the Mies from the west, the Radbusa, the Angel, and the Uslowa from the south. It enters the Moldau below Königsaal.

The Langenbrücker Teich, near Oberplan, is the largest lake in Bohemia, but small lakes are numerous, especially in the Wittingau region, and in the Binnenland, in the north-east.

MORAVIA

(1) Position and Frontiers

Moravia lies between 48° 40′ and 50° 14′ north latitude and 15° 5′ and 18° 45′ east longitude. It is bounded on the west by Bohemia, on the north and north-east by Prussian and Austrian Silesia, on the east by Galicia, on the east and south-east by Hungary, and on the south by lower Austria.

On leaving the Bohemian frontier by the Schneeberg, the Moravian boundary runs north-east to its most northerly point in the neighbourhood of Weisswasser. From here it runs south-east along the Altvater range and the Gesenke (branches of the Sudetes) to the neighbourhood of Weisskirchen. It next swings round north-east, making two important dips to the north, and then follows the Oder till it doubles back along its tributary, the Ostrawitza, up to the White Carpathians. These it follows in a south-westerly direction, but ultimately sweeps round to the north-west to enter the valley of the March. Here the

boundary first follows the March, then trends north-west along its tributary, the Thaya. The Thaya valley forms in general the southern boundary of Bohemia, though the line does not always follow it closely, as far as Fratting. Here the boundary crosses the Thaya, continuing in a north-westerly direction as far as the Hoherstein in the Bohemian–Moravian Highlands. With these it holds a generally north and north-easterly direction till it runs up the valley of the upper March to the Schneeberg.

(2) Surface and River System

Surface

Like Bohemia, Moravia is virtually surrounded by mountains, but, unlike Bohemia, it slopes from north to south. Its area is about 8,580 square miles. Moravia may be regarded as the basin of the March, into which virtually all the other rivers of the country drain.

The range of the Sudetes, which forms the north-eastern boundary of Moravia, reaches its highest point in the Altvater (4,887 ft., 1,489 m.) and Schneeberg (4,664 ft., 1,421 m.), falling gradually away through the Hohes Gesenke and Niederes Gesenke to the Oder. The north-western limit of the Hohes Gesenke is the Spornhau Pass (3,030 ft., 923 m.), over which runs the railway. With the exception of one or two peaks, the Gesenke is never much over 3,000 ft. (900 m.) in height. On the southern border are heights of over 3,000 ft. (900 m.), which shut out the warm breezes of the south. The Bohemian–Moravian Highlands in the west have an average height of 1,500–2,000 ft. (450–600 m.), and throw out a number of spurs into Moravia. In the south-east are the Mars Gebirge (1,915 ft., 584 m.), and the Steinitzterwald (1,450 ft., 440 m.), which run parallel to the White

Carpathians. The centre of Moravia consists of the March plain, extending from the western mountains to the Bohemian–Moravian Highlands.

River System

Moravia is drained almost entirely by the March (Morava), for the Vistula and the Oder do little more than rise within its borders. The March rises on the Spieglitzer Schneeberg and flows right through the country from north to south, finally carrying its waters down the Austro-Hungarian boundary to the Danube. Its chief tributaries are, on the right bank, the Thaya and the Hanna, and on the left bank the Beczwa, the Iglawa, the Zwittawa, and the Schwarzawa. The last two rivers cut deep valleys through the region known as Moravian Switzerland.

Most of the tributaries of the March are rapid, as is the March itself in its upper course. In its lower course it becomes sluggish, dividing round islands and possessing all the characteristics of a river of the plain. It has not yet been regulated for purposes of navigation, but may be regarded as navigable—the only river in Moravia of which this can be said. The Moravian rivers are easily bridged. Even at Olmütz the March is only about 100 yds. broad.

BOHEMIA AND MORAVIA

(3) Climate

Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, and western Galicia form a climatic whole, characterized by evenly-distributed humidity of the atmosphere, an adequate rainfall, and severe winter storms. The continental character of the climate increases from west to east.

The climate of Bohemia and Moravia differs in different regions. In Bohemia the most marked pecu-

liarity is that, owing to the slope of the ground, the climate of the north is much milder than that of the south. The reverse is the case in Moravia. The central basin of Bohemia, with the March and Thaya valleys, contains the warmest and dryest regions. The vine flourishes here in latitude 50° north. In the mountains which feel the full force of the north and north-east winds the winters are snowy, the summers wet. The following are average temperatures in the coldest and hottest months of the year, namely: (*a*) in the plain region—Prague, January, 29·5° F. (−1·5° C.), July, 67° F. (19·4° C.); Lobositz, 28° F. (−2·2° C.), 66·2° F. (19° C.); Bodenbach, 30° F. (−1·1° C.), 18° F. (−7·7° C.); Brünn, 27·5° F. (−2·5° C.), 66·2° F. (19° C.): (*b*) in the mountain regions—Eger, 26·6° F. (−3° C.), 63·5° F. (17·5° C.); Tepl, 26·5° F. (−3° C.), 59° F. (15° C.); Hohenfurt, 24·8° F. (−4° C.), 62·6° F. (17° C.); Deutsch-Brod, 26° F. (−3·3° C.), 63·5° F. (17·5° C.). The number of days when the thermometer falls below freezing-point varies from 58 at Leitmeritz and 84 in the north-west to over 95 in the south-west and over 100 in the north-east.

The rainfall varies greatly in different years in different regions, but drought never causes serious harm, partly because the hottest months are the wettest, partly because the average humidity of the air is high and even and there is no extreme summer heat. The average precipitation in Bohemia and Moravia is 25 in. (635 mm.). It varies from 18 in. (457 mm.) in Prague and the central regions to 40 in. (1,016 mm.) in the Riesengebirge and 60 or 70 in. (1,500–1,800 mm.) in the Böhmerwald. At Budweis it is 26 in. (660 mm.), at Brünn 19 in. (483 mm.), at Eisenstein 63 in. (1,600 mm.). In the Böhmerwald the snow is often 12 ft. deep.

West winds are the commonest, and to their preva-

lence the climate owes much of its humidity. The north-west wind is especially common in summer, and generally brings rain.

(4) Sanitary Conditions

The climate of Bohemia and Moravia is healthy, but the housing conditions of the poor in the towns are often bad. Consumption is the great scourge, accounting in Bohemia for 148·4 per 1,000 of the deaths, while 71·4 are due to pneumonia. The corresponding figures for Moravia are even higher. The rate of infantile mortality among the Germans in the German districts is 25 per cent., in the mixed districts 24 per cent.; among the Czechs 21 per cent. everywhere.

(5) Race and Language

The division between German and Czech is, on the whole, clearly marked in Bohemia. Roughly speaking, north of a line drawn from Taus (south-west of Pilsen) to Laun (north-west of Prague), and from Laun to Gablonz, is a solid mass of Germans (over 95 per cent.). A very narrow belt of mixed population separates this German zone from the solid Czech area to the south. Further, a narrow belt of mixed population extends along the south-western frontier of Bohemia and through southern Moravia with an extension northwards, which embraces Brünn (an almost purely German town). The same blending appears along the north-eastern frontier of Bohemia and through the north of Moravia, where it extends far enough south to include Zwittau and Olmütz. Elsewhere, throughout the central portions of both provinces, the Czechs form over 95 per cent. of the population, except in

the German island, including Deutsch-Brod and Iglau, which lies just on the boundary of the two.[1] The 1910 census gives for Bohemia about 4,242,000 Czechs to 2,468,000 Germans, or 63 per cent. Czechs to 37 per cent. Germans. In Moravia the figures were approximately 1,869,000 Czechs to 719,000 Germans, or 72 per cent. Czechs to 28 per cent. Germans.

Czech is a western Slav dialect, akin to Polish. The Czechs who settled round Prague were the leading Slav tribe in Bohemia from the first, and the central dialect is the foundation of Czech to this day. With slight variations, it is spoken throughout Bohemia. The western Moravian dialect is closely allied to Czech. The dialects more to the east present greater divergences. Czech is the literary language in both countries. The opening of the Czech university at Prague has been of great assistance in unifying the language and breaking down the barriers of dialect. At present all the Slavs in the two countries understand and speak Czech, even the Croatians in the three Croatian villages near Lundenburg, in the extreme south of Moravia. Bohemia is the centre of a flourishing literary movement, which has been closely linked with the national movement from the first.

Both racially and linguistically the Czechs are intimately related to the Slovachs who lie immediately to the east over the Hungarian border.

(6) Population

Distribution

Bohemia and Moravia form part of the densely populated belt that stretches through central Europe

[1] Reference should be made to the Ethnological Map of Austria-Hungary accompanying this series. It should also be noted that the German claims in north-western Bohemia, as shown on the map, are to some extent disputed.

from Hanover to Kieff. The total population of Bohemia in 1910 was 6,769,548, or 337 to the square mile; of Moravia, 2,622,271, or 305 to the square mile. In Bohemia the population is most dense in the industrial regions of the north-west, north-east, and east, as well as round Prague and Pilsen; it is scantiest in the agricultural west and south. In Moravia the greatest density lies round Olmütz and to the west and south of that town, and also round Brünn, Göding, and Ungarisch-Hradisch. The region round Römerstadt and Bärn is most thinly inhabited. In Bohemia 35 per cent. of the population are employed in agriculture, in Moravia and Silesia 50 per cent.

Towns

In Bohemia there are thirteen towns of over 20,000 inhabitants, and thirty towns with a population of between 10,000 and 20,000. Prague (Praha) is by far the largest city and the industrial as well as the political capital. With its suburbs it contains nearly 600,000 inhabitants, of whom 6 per cent. are Germans. Next in point of size are Pilsen (80,343) and Budweis (44,538). Reichenberg (36,350, and with suburbs 70,000) on the Neisse, a cloth and spinning centre, is the German capital.

Moravia contains six towns with over 20,000, nine with between 10,000 and 20,000 inhabitants. The capital, Brünn (Brno, 125,737), is the largest town in the country. It lies between the Schwarzawa and the Zwittawa, in a fertile valley, and is now the chief cloth-manufacturing town in the empire. The coal-mining and manufacturing town of Mährisch-Ostrau in the east has a population of 59,905. Olmütz (22,245) and Iglau (25,914) are the other most important towns.

Movement

Between 1880 and 1910 the population of Bohemia rose from 5½ millions to 6¾ millions, an increase of only 23 per cent. Between 1900 and 1910 the mean annual birth-rate among the Czechs was 30·5 per 1,000, the death-rate 20·8. In the mixed regions, which contain about 1,500,000 inhabitants, the natural increase of the population is higher than elsewhere. In these regions the Czechs are steadily gaining ground.

In Moravia among the Czechs the birth-rate was 37·0 per 1,000, the death-rate 22·4, the natural increase 14·6. Among the Germans in both Bohemia and Moravia the birth-rate was 31·4 per 1,000, the death-rate 22·1, the natural increase 9·3 per 1,000.

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

Chronological Summary

450. Slav tribes settle in Bohemia.
627. Reign of Samo.
864. Conversion to Christianity of Moravia and Bohemia.
11th century. Moravia incorporated with Bohemia.
1253–78. Reign of Ottokar II.
1346–78. Reign of Charles IV.
1415. Burning of Hus.
1420. Papal Crusade against Bohemia.
1436. Council of Basel grants Compactata.
1481. Serfdom introduced.
1526. Battle of Mohács. Accession of Ferdinand of Habsburg.
1564. Death of Ferdinand of Habsburg.
1609. 'Letter of Majesty.' Confessio Bohemica approved by Rudolf of Habsburg. Truce between Catholics and other religious bodies.
1620. Battle of the White Mountain. Absolutism established. Protestants expelled.
1627. Abrogation of the Constitution.
1781. Joseph II's decree of Toleration and other reforms.
1804. Francis II becomes Emperor Francis I of Austria.
1831. Foundation of the *Matice Česka.*
1848. Revolution in Bohemia.
1860. Diet restored. Reichsrat established.
1867. Establishment of Dual System.
1869. Hus Quingenary.
1871–8. Attempts at conciliation.
1880. Taaffe's concessions.
1883. Czech majority in Diet.
1890. Proposed compromise between Czechs and Germans rejected.
1893. State of siege in Prague.
1897. Badeni's linguistic proposals.
1900. Von Körber's Ministry.
1907. Universal Suffrage.
1911. Thun becomes Viceroy.
1913. Diet suspended.

Origins.—The Boii, who gave their name to Bohemia, are the first known inhabitants of Bohemia and Moravia. Neither the Teutonic Marcomanni in Bohemia, nor the Lombards in Moravia, who succeeded them, were able to withstand the great Slav invasion from the east. The Czechs were the chief Slav tribe to settle in Bohemia, where they seem to have appeared about A. D. 450. Under a mysterious alien—Samo (A. D. 627)—their kingdom attained large dimensions. Again during the ninth century the Moravians under Svatopluk temporarily built up a powerful empire, which included much of the duchy of Austria and some of the Slovak districts in Hungary. The alliance of the Moravians with the Bulgars resulted in the conversion both of Moravia and Bohemia to Christianity by the Greek monks Cyril and Methodius (864). Early in the eleventh century Moravia was incorporated with Bohemia, where the Přemysl dynasty was already established, and therefore became part of the Empire.

The German Immigration.—During the eleventh and twelfth centuries German influence increased rapidly, thanks largely to Bohemia's connexion with the Empire. The priesthood was almost entirely German, for the Bishop of Prague was subordinate to the Archbishop of Mainz. The nobles frequently married German wives. Their children learnt German, which was the language of culture and ultimately became the Court language. The nobility had grown very powerful, owing to the large grants of land received from the successful candidates to the throne whom they supported. Hence, in the thirteenth century, the kings, and notably Ottokar II (1253–78), determined to counteract them by creating a strong German burgher class in the towns. The result was the gradual growth of a ring of German towns, especially in the north and the west, which administered the law for themselves. The

monasteries, being largely German, also encouraged Germans to settle on their vast undeveloped estates. The monks were the pioneers of the mining industry. From this time Bohemia became bilingual. Even the most ardent Czech nationalists admit the debt owed by the country to these settlers, whose influence was not due to their numbers, but to their superior culture. A similar process was leavening Moravia with Germans.

The Czech Reaction.—The growth of German influence created a reaction, which found its fullest expression in the Emperor Charles IV (1346–78). Though he belonged to the House of Luxemburg, he was a Czech at heart. In his reign Moravia and Silesia, as well as Upper Lusatia, Brandenburg, and Glatz, were, with the consent of their Diets, declared integral and inalienable parts of Bohemia. Charles IV founded the University of Prague, the first not merely in the Slav but in the German world, and also beautified the city, which he made the seat of an archbishopric. He placed the Czech and German languages on a footing of absolute equality, but used Czech at Court. Moreover, he was an advocate of Church reform. In fact, in his reign the Czech movement first took definite shape in both its aspects, religious and political.

The Hussite Wars and their Consequences.—These movements came to a head in the next reign under John Hus. The Hussite wars were racial wars. Hatred of German priests and nobles, even of German townsmen, was as strong as the desire for reform. To this day Hus's portrait hangs in the houses of patriotic priests. Hus did for Czech what Luther was to do for German. He began the reform of Slav spelling and wrote as much in Czech as in Latin. The cardinal point in the Hussite creed was the right of the laity to communicate in both kinds—the *utraquist* doctrine, as it is called. The burning of Hus as a heretic by the

Council of Constance in 1415 was the prelude to the inevitable struggle; and in 1420 the Pope proclaimed a crusade against Bohemia. But the heroic resistance of the nation convinced its enemies of the impossibility of subduing it by force at that time; and in 1436 the Council of Basel granted the chief demands of the Utraquists in the Compactata. There had been considerable dissension among the Bohemians themselves during the struggle; for the movement had developed democratic features. But the complete victory in a pitched battle of the Moderates over the Extremists or Taborites, who were the democratic party, did much to promote a settlement. That racial feeling ran as high as ever is proved by the fact that in 1436 the restored King, Sigismund, undertook to employ neither Germans nor Catholics in his councils. But the settlement was little more than a truce. George of Podebrad (1458–71), the only Hussite King of Bohemia, failed to induce the Popes to recognize the Compactata and was even excommunicated. Meanwhile the power of the nobles was increasing. In 1481 serfdom was introduced, and the privileges of the towns were much curtailed.

Toleration under the Habsburgs.—After the Turkish victory at Mohács in 1526, when Louis of Hungary and Bohemia was killed, Bohemia passed under the rule of the Habsburgs. Ferdinand was duly elected King, but he induced the Estates to grant him a charter, stating that he inherited the kingdom through his wife Anna, who was descended from the Přemysl dynasty. He was tolerant of the Utraquists, who were drawing closer to the Lutherans, and, just before his death in 1564, obtained permission from the Pope for the use of the Cup in Bohemia. But he persecuted the Bohemian Brethren; and this policy was continued by his son, Maximilian. After endless vacillation, Maximilian's

successor, Rudolf, recognized the Confessio Bohemica, a revised version of the Augsburg Confession. The 'Letter of Majesty' of 1609 gave freedom of conscience to all Bohemians, but freedom of worship only to members of the Assembly of Estates. In a separate treaty Catholics and Utraquists agreed to accord mutual respect to their divergent opinions.

The Battle of the White Mountain and the Catholic Reaction.—Ferdinand, Rudolf's successor, was known to be a fanatical Papist; and the Utraquists decided not to put off the struggle till he had secured the throne. But the days of the Hussite wars were gone with the disappearance of the sturdy, independent townsmen and peasants. On November 8, 1620, the Bohemians under the 'Winter King', Frederick the Elector Palatine, were utterly defeated at the White Mountain; and for two centuries Bohemia ceased to exist as a nation. The leaders were executed; and three-quarters of the land changed hands. The new nobility was almost entirely foreign. Ferdinand was determined to allow none but Catholics to exist in the country. He was ably seconded by his German agents, to whose religious fanaticism was united their hereditary hatred of the Slavs. The unfortunate serfs could not even leave the country, but were tortured into an outward conformity by their new masters.

The Power of the Jesuits.—Meanwhile the Jesuits carried on a ruthless war upon Bohemian literature, which was mainly religious in character. Konias rivalled the Khalif Omar by burning 60,000 volumes with his own hand. In no modern literature are so many books known to have disappeared. The entire education of the country, including the University of Prague, was put under Jesuit control. German and Latin alone were the languages of the schools. It is no

mere coincidence that the Czech revival began with the suppression of the Society of Jesus.

Effects of the Change.—By the end of the Thirty Years' War the population of Bohemia had fallen from 3,000,000 to 800,000. The leading merchants, many of them Germans, were in exile to a man. Large colonies of Bavarians and Austrian Germans were brought in to fill the gaps, and Bohemia became officially a bilingual country where the German landowners, who were a majority of their class, were estranged by religion and race from the peasantry on their estates.

Constitutional Changes.—In 1627 Ferdinand abrogated the Constitution and made the crown hereditary in the House of Habsburg. An estate of the clergy was added to the Diet and given the foremost rank. The Diet lost all legislative power, its discussions being confined to matters laid before it by the King. The Estates voted the taxes, but they might not attach any conditions to their grants. In order still further to weaken their power, Ferdinand forbade all joint sessions of the Diets of Bohemia, Moravia,[1] and Silesia.

The Eighteenth Century.—During the eighteenth century there is little to say of Bohemia, if we exclude prosecutions for heresy and an occasional revolt of the peasants against the brutal oppression of the overseers. The 'benevolent despotism' of Joseph II introduced fresh activity. With his contempt for historical tradition the Emperor not only refused to be crowned in Bohemia, but made German the language of the schools and the law-courts. On the other hand, he abolished the corvée and otherwise improved the lot of the peasants, and he granted religious toleration to both Lutherans and Calvinists. The result was that 70,000 inhabitants of Bohemia declared themselves

[1] Moravia is still an integral part of the kingdom of Bohemia, but the administration of the two countries is altogether independent.

Protestants, many families having secretly retained their faith since 1620, and that a number of German Protestants entered the country. Joseph also allowed the publication of Czech books and a Czech newspaper, while Czech professorships were endowed at Vienna and afterwards at Prague. In fact, his ordinances awakened an active linguistic patriotism among a few scholars. In 1790 a proposal was even made in the Diet that Czech should be restored in some of the higher schools. As the existence of Bohemia stands or falls with the use of Czech, the national revival may be said to have originated in Joseph's reign, though no one would have regarded it with less favour than he. But few of his reforms survived him; even the *corvée* was restored.

The Early Nineteenth Century.—In 1804, when, the Holy Roman Empire having disappeared, Francis II became Emperor of Austria, he declared that this new title in no way prejudiced the rights of Bohemia, and that his successors would continue to be crowned there.

After 1815 Bohemia felt the full weight of Metternich's system of espionage, while the way to intellectual progress was barred by a double censorship, both political and ecclesiastical. Before the reforms of Joseph members of the better classes often spoke Czech. But it had now become the dialect of the lower classes only, and was excluded from every school, law-court, and Government office. The Government indeed insisted on its being retained as a subject in the high schools, since it was necessary to procure a supply of officials able to converse with the peasantry in their own language. But German was without exception the language of all educated people. Dobrovsky, the pioneer of modern Czech scholarship, believed that Czech was doomed to disappear as a living speech. Even in 1831 the poet Jungmann could tell two friends

that, if the ceiling of the room they were in were to fall, there would be an end of Bohemian literature.

The Linguistic and Literary Revival.—But the romantic movement produced an atmosphere favourable to the revival. People in high places in Vienna began to take a patronizing interest in Czech and even to learn it. The Bohemian Museum was founded in 1818 amid universal approval; and in 1831 the *Matice Česka*, the Czech Literary Society, which was to encourage the printing of Czech books, was established. The movement was at first purely linguistic and literary. The task before the Bohemians was similar to that before the Finns and the other races which had ceased to have a history of their own. They were determined that Czech should be something more than a subject of exotic curiosity, like a new native dialect. It was to be restored to its position as a literary language by becoming the medium of intercourse among the middle and upper classes of the country. The work was of necessity one for scholars. Jungmann with his dictionary and grammar, Palacky the historian, and Safarik the scholar, though they often wrote in German, were the pioneers. Before 1815 they drew their inspiration from the French rationalists, and were Czechs rather than Slavs. After 1815 the prevailing note is an idealized Pan-Slavism, which is best embodied in the poet Kollar, a Slovak by birth. His Pan-Slav community is to be purely spiritual and intellectual. The branches of the Slav race are to be united by literary interests and a consciousness of their common origin. His regret at the submerging of the smaller Slav nations is altogether literary. He never dreamt of opposition to the authorities, and yet he wrote in continual fear of the censor, for the very use of the word Slav was becoming suspect. Kollar walked with his head in the clouds, but his work was invaluable in

rousing the Bohemians to a national consciousness and giving them confidence in their cause.

The Political Awakening.—Only after 1840 did the national movement begin to leaven the upper ranks of the middle and professional classes. Till then the national party was largely recruited among University students from the country districts. It was still bad form for a person belonging to the cultivated classes to address an equal in Czech or to speak it in the streets. But by 1840 the literary movement had done its work and given Czech an assured position. Nationalism now began to become a political doctrine. The Germans took alarm and their patronizing interest was converted into active hostility. Even the Estates, whose meetings had become proverbial for dullness, began to show signs of life. In 1845 they protested against the Governor's disposing of a house which belonged to them without going through the formality of consulting them. He was recalled in consequence. A committee was appointed to inquire into their rights, and in 1847 it pronounced them to be still of considerable extent. They might elect their king, if the Habsburg dynasty became extinct; and they alone could levy taxes in Bohemia. The declaration embodying the report was carried by a large majority. The Diet then decided to petition for an increase of town representatives, a more complete control of the finances, and the use of Czech in the higher schools. Meanwhile a brilliant young journalist, Charles Havliček, cleverly attacked the Government in the form of reports on the condition of Ireland. So popular did the comparison become that a patriotic society called 'Repeal' was founded; and the comparison of Bohemia with Ireland has since become a commonplace.

The Revolution of 1848.—The year 1848 put an end

to Pan-Slav dreaming. The aims of the Bohemians became definitely Czech. The leader of the national party was the practical, statesman-like Palacky, who came to the front during the revolution. His gift for epigram enabled him to crystallize the aims of his party in a number of phrases which have since become proverbial. He refused to attend the Congress at Frankfurt in 1848, to which all nations belonging to the Germanic Confederation were invited to send deputies, on the ground that he was not a German but 'a Bohemian, belonging to the Slav race'. He was the life and soul of the Slav Congress at Prague, but he declared that 'if we must one day cease to be Czechs, it makes no difference to us whether we become Germans, Italians, Magyars, or Russians'. His proud belief in the destiny of his country is shown by his boast, 'Before Austria was, we were; and when Austria no longer is, we still shall be'. He was a Moravian by birth, and when Moravia, afraid of falling under the dominion of her powerful neighbour, had thoughts of following the example of the Slovaks and adopting her dialect as a separate language, he successfully opposed the project. Palacky's ideal was the restoration of the Constitution of 1627 with the introduction of a system of federation for Austria.

On March 11 a great public meeting in Prague voted a petition to the Government at Vienna, comprising fourteen articles. Their chief demands were that Czech should be placed on a footing of absolute equality with German; that a general Diet representing Moravia and Silesia, as well as Bohemia, should be convoked; and that the Bohemian land-laws should be drastically reformed. The first deputation produced no result, but on April 8 the Emperor promised a second deputation that the two nationalities should be placed on a footing of equality, that a general meeting of representatives

of all parts of Austria should decide the fate of Moravia and Silesia, and that a meeting of the Estates of Bohemia, including representatives from the towns and country districts, should soon be summoned and given full legislative power. The corvée was abolished, the landlords being duly compensated. This last was the one permanent reform resulting from the revolution of 1848.

The meeting of the Estates never took place, though the elections were held. Meanwhile the Czech leaders summoned to Prague a Slav congress which included representatives from all parts of Austria-Hungary, as well as some foreign Slavs as guests. Unfortunately the delegates were obliged to speak in German in order to be intelligible to each other. Prince Windischgrätz, a bigoted reactionary, was in command of the troops in Bohemia. Petty encounters between the citizens and the soldiers were of frequent occurrence. They culminated on June 12, 1848, in serious riots, wrongly supposed to have been planned and organized, which were only put down after considerable fighting and bloodshed. Prince Windischgrätz used them as a pretext for bombarding Prague, which was obliged to surrender unconditionally. Bohemian deputies continued to take part in the Constituent Assembly which met at Vienna and then at Kroměric (Kremsier). But the defeat of the Hungarians in 1849 enabled the Emperor to get rid of it without difficulty.

The Restoration of Absolutism.—Absolute rule was now re-established. The censorship became stricter than ever, and severe measures were taken to repress the least signs of nationalist activity. German, of course, became the official language, and no other was officially recognized, except in the lowest classes of the schools. But the loss of Lombardy in 1859 necessitated some change of system. Diets not unlike that of Bohemia, with strictly limited powers, were granted to the various

provinces of Austria in 1860. In the following year a parliament was instituted in Vienna. Its members were to be chosen by the Diets, but the representation was so manipulated as largely to favour the Germans. In Bohemia a German deputy might represent 2,500 votes, a Czech 25,000. Naturally the Diet contained a large German majority. At first the Nationalists took part in the Reichsrat, thus adopting a policy for which they have been frequently blamed. But, when in 1863 it began to encroach upon the rights of the Diet, they withdrew.

The Triumph of Dualism.—The Czechs remained loyal to Austria in the war with Prussia in 1866, though not a few of the Bohemian Germans welcomed the invaders. The Treaty of Prague excluded all Austrian territories from the Germanic Confederation. The dual system was established in 1867, Hungary thus receiving as a punishment for her notorious disloyalty more than the other nationalities received as a reward for their fidelity. Bohemia's leaders failed to grasp the opportunity or to show the statesmanlike qualities of their Magyar rivals, Deák and Andrássy. Unfortunately, though the Czechs appear to possess more political ability than other Slavs, Bohemia did not afford them a training in practical affairs such as was to be had in the freer atmosphere of Hungary. Hitherto there had been little disloyalty to Austria. 'If there were no Austria, it would be necessary to create one,' said Palacky. But Francis Joseph's refusal to be crowned in Bohemia caused widespread disappointment and indignation. The Czechs not only again declined to send deputies to the Reichsrat, but in the declaration of August 1868 referred to the discrimination between Hungary and Bohemia, and claimed that Bohemia was only united to the rest of the monarchy by a personal tie, and that any constitutional change in the relations between Bohemia and

the Emperor must be based on a fresh contract between these two parties. Finally, the Czech deputies left the Diet. The laying of the foundation-stone of the national theatre in Prague in 1868 and the Hus quingenary of 1869 were made the occasions of great nationalist demonstrations in spite of the repressive measures of the Government.

The Industrial Revolution.—The industrial revolution, which had begun to transform Bohemia about 1860, was a distinct asset to the national cause. The Czech workmen stood opposed to their German masters. Instead of wishing to learn the German speech, the sense of solidarity produced by working in a factory, so different from the solitariness of the old peasant life, made them desire to obtain recognition for their own tongue and their own rights. They hated the nobles, the capitalists, and the German State which ignored them; and they began to talk Czech aggressively in public and to study its past. They were joined by the tradesmen and others whom luck or energy enabled to make money at this time. The elementary schoolmasters and the lower clergy were their natural leaders, since their callings brought them into closer touch with the proletariat than was the case with other members of the middle classes.

Attempts at Conciliation.—In 1871 Count Hohenwart, the new premier, endeavoured to come to terms with Bohemia, and prolonged negotiations were begun with that object. The Emperor's message to the Diet fully admitted the rights of the country, stating that 'in consideration of the former constitutional position of Bohemia, and remembering the glory and the power which her crown had given to his ancestors, remembering also the constant loyalty of her people, he gladly recognized the rights of the kingdom and was willing to confirm the assurance by taking the coro-

nation oath'. But the Czechs blindly threw away a great opportunity by refusing any terms except the recognition of Bohemia as a separate kingdom like Hungary. In the following year German influences triumphed. Nothing came of the proposed reforms. Then in 1873 the election of members of the Reichsrat was transferred from the Diet to the four classes of its constituents, the Diet thus being robbed of an effective means of opposition. The Slavs in the Reichsrat were bitterly hostile to the change, which they might have prevented by concerted action, since the Germans alone lacked the necessary two-thirds majority. But the Czech deputies again threw away their opportunity by refusing to sit in the Reichsrat, on the ground that it was illegally constituted. These events brought about the rise of the Young Czech party, which began to come into prominence by denouncing Francis Joseph's refusal to be crowned in Bohemia and by demanding a policy of action. In 1874 the Moravian deputies resumed their places in the Reichsrat. The Young Czechs followed their example by returning to the Diet, though they were in a hopeless minority. The death of Palacky, the leader of the passive resisters, resulted in the Old and the Young Czechs coming to an understanding and returning to the Diet in 1878.

In 1879 Count Taaffe came to power, and in the following year he induced the Czech deputies to attend the Reichsrat, though they were careful to state that they did so without prejudice to their rights. In return he gave them control of a number of schools, authorized the establishment of a Czech university in Prague, and allowed pleaders to use their own language in the lower courts. He also removed some of the worst abuses whereby German majorities were secured at elections. The consequence was that in 1883 the Czechs obtained a majority in the Diet, though not the two-thirds

majority which would have enabled them to control it. But these concessions did not satisfy the Young Czechs, who were disgusted at this policy of compromise and at the alliance with the nobles and the clericals which alone had enabled them to obtain these concessions. By 1887 Bohemian opinion was denouncing the Triple Alliance and becoming rapidly Francophil. Masaryk founded the Realist party, which helped the democratic Young Czechs to defeat the Old Czechs decisively and obtain control of the Diet in 1889.

The Compromise of 1890.—In 1890 the Government, alarmed at the democratic principles of the Young Czechs, endeavoured to checkmate them by reconciling the Germans and the Old Czechs. The Emperor himself intervened. The compromise, which was accepted by both parties, virtually proposed the division of Bohemia into two administrative and judicial spheres. The Young Czechs, who had not been consulted, would have nothing to do with the compromise. As federalists, they refused to hear of any division of the kingdom, and they were indignant that greater linguistic concessions had not been secured. Joined by a number of Old Czechs they obstructed the compromise in the Diet, and in 1891 swept the Old Czechs out of existence as a party in the Reichsrat, where they were joined by a strong body of Young Czechs from Moravia. Their radicalism and anti-clericalism still further alarmed the Government, which utterly failed to force the compromise upon the country. Strong measures were taken against the Young Czechs at home. A number of them were imprisoned on a flimsy charge of conspiracy; and in 1893 Prague was placed in a state of siege. The failure of Taaffe's policy of compromise resulted in his fall. It is unjust of the Czechs to regard his ministry as a period of stagnation. The crumbs that fell from Taaffe's table,

which even Rieger, the great advocate of moderation, at times resented having to pick up, at least gave them the control of education and other reforms which were necessary preliminaries to the political movement that brought about his fall. Before the war Germanization had ceased to be a danger, and the Czechs had acquired a kind of negative autonomy by the obstruction of public business.

Badeni's Proposals.—In 1897 the minister Badeni revived the attempt at conciliation by concessions which he knew to be the only possible basis of a settlement. His decree provided that, after a certain date, all officials in Bohemia must be acquainted with both languages. In 1898 he further proposed to divide the country into districts. Where the minority formed at least a quarter of the inhabitants, both languages were to be used; otherwise, only the language of the majority. As since 1867 the Bohemian German has refused on principle to let his children learn Czech, Badeni's ordinances would have favoured Czech even more than they appear to do at first sight. However, German opposition in the Reichsrat was so violent that Badeni resigned, and the decrees were repealed.

National and International Socialism.—Austria offered a unique field for testing the prospects of international socialistic and national feeling; and, at first, internationalism made considerable progress in Bohemia, as elsewhere. But early in the present century the great majority of Czech Socialists, disgusted at their treatment by their German brethren, adopted a nationalist programme. Spiritual values have triumphed over economic values; and, like the Hussites, they believe that deliverance from the German is a necessary preliminary to an improvement of their own condition. So strong is this feeling that a National Socialist will vote for a Czech

bourgeois candidate rather than for an International Socialist.

The Körber Ministry. Universal Suffrage.—In 1901 von Körber managed to quiet both Czechs and Germans for a time by bribing them with an elaborate scheme of canals and railways; but his efforts to bring about a permanent understanding by dividing Bohemia into German, Czech, and mixed districts failed as completely as those of his predecessors. The Czechs insisted that their language should be put on an absolute equality with German throughout the country; and to this the Germans would not consent. In 1907 universal suffrage superseded the old Austrian timocratic system in the elections to the Reichsrat. Every man over twenty-four received the vote. Though the Germans were unduly favoured in the redistribution of seats, the nationality basis upon which it was effected was a welcome reform.

Failure of Last Attempts at a Settlement.—The racial issue in Bohemia became acute in 1909, when unemployment combined with heavy deficits in the Bohemian Budgets to produce a grave economic situation. Measures providing for the free use of Czech and for the division of the country into twenty administrative and judicial districts (*kreisregierungen*), of which ten were to be Czech, six German, and four mixed, were submitted to the Diet. Feeling rose so high between the Czech and German parties that all the efforts at conciliation on the part of the Prime Minister, the party leaders, and the higher officials failed to produce a settlement. The language question involved the momentous decision which language was to be employed officially in the municipalities where there was a mixed population. In January 1911 Count Francis Thun took office as Governor at the Emperor's request, with the express object of resolving

this problem. Count (afterwards Prince) Thun had formerly been Prime Minister of Bohemia, but was not acceptable to the German part of the community, who credited him with Slav sympathies. Under his auspices conferences were held and commissions appointed to deal with the desired rise in salaries for Government teachers and with the financial position generally. Whilst the great landowners, who are Conservative in opinion, showed themselves well disposed to come to an understanding, the Radical parties in each camp proved unconciliatory. In spite of this, however, there seemed to be some prospect of a compromise being arranged, when unfortunately the Czechs made demands respecting the use of the Czech language in the city of Prague, which the Germans regarded as excessive. A postponement of negotiations for a settlement became inevitable, and this gave the opportunity for fresh disputes. The negotiations ultimately broke down. The school teachers' salaries question and the more important financial question had become more than ever acute by the beginning of 1913. All attempts to induce the Czech and German groups to co-operate failed; and ultimately, on July 26, the Government appointed an Imperial Administrative Commission and dissolved the Diet. The Commission contained three Germans and five Czechs; and this fact, combined with the selection of Count Adalbert Schönborn as President, produced intense indignation in German Bohemia, which was not modified by the knowledge that Prince Thun thought of suppressing political agitation by the use of the police. The Germans, therefore, adopted an attitude of uncompromising hostility towards the Viceroy. They thought the Commission as ill-constituted as the Czechs thought it unconstitutional; and by the close of 1913 the political situation in Bohemia appeared more confused than ever.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) Religious

The religious question has long ceased to be of political importance either in Bohemia or Moravia, except in so far as the Pan-Germans, under the guidance of Schönerer, have associated themselves with the 'Los von Rom' movement[1] on the ground that the Catholic Church is destructive of German sentiment. The Pan-German attitude tends to throw the Czechs and the Clericals into alliance, though the Church has not shown much sympathy with the revival of the Czech language. Nominally 96 per cent. of the inhabitants are Catholics, but there is said to be more free thought and religious indifference among the Bohemians than among any other emigrants to America.

About 23 in every 1,000 Bohemians are Protestants, Lutherans and Calvinists being fairly equal in numbers. The Lutherans are almost entirely German, and are therefore hated by the Czechs. Only in Asch, a district in the extreme north-west, are the Protestants in a

[1] This movement, political rather than religious, was organized by the Pan-Germans and Liberal Germans of Austria as a protest against Badeni's ordinances placing the Czech and German languages on an equal footing in Bohemia. Its object, as avowed by at least the more extreme of its political supporters, was to facilitate the incorporation of Austria in the German Empire by removing the objections of Germany to an increase of the Catholic element within her borders. Ineffective politically, the movement was to some extent exploited by the Protestant 'Evangelischer Bund', to which it owes such success as it has attained; but the total number of conversions to Protestantism and Old Catholicism in a period of ten years is reckoned at less than 70,000.

majority. The Calvinists are altogether Czech. There was an increase in the conversions from Catholicism at the time of the 'Los von Rom' movement, but these have since declined. The balance of conversions is, however, still in favour of the Protestants. The Protestant services are usually conducted in the language of the inhabitants of the different centres.

There are about 14 professing Jews in every 1,000 inhabitants of Bohemia.

(2) Political

Constitution.—The Emperor is represented both in Bohemia and Moravia by viceroys. The Bohemian Diet consists of the Archbishop of Prague, the three Catholic bishops, the rectors of the two Universities, and 242 members representing respectively the great landowners, the towns, the Boards of Commerce, and the rural communes. The Moravian Diet, with 151 members, including the Archbishop of Olmütz and the Bishop of Brünn, has an additional class representing males over 24. Proportional representation has been introduced for the classes of the landowners and the Chambers of Commerce. The constituencies for the other classes are divided according to nationalities.

The Diets can deal with all matters not expressly reserved for the Reichsrat, but their powers are largely local. They have, however, almost complete control of education. All acts of the Diets must be confirmed by the sovereign, who can always suspend them. The Bohemian Diet at least may make suggestions on matters reserved for the Reichsrat.

Bohemia now sends 130 deputies to Vienna, or one for every 52,074 inhabitants; Moravia 49, or one for every 53,516 inhabitants. A Moravian elector is fined if he fails to vote.

State of Parties.—To the Reichsrat of 1907 Bohemia

sent 28 Agrarians and 17 Young Czechs; but, except that they represent a class, the Agrarians differ little from the Young Czechs. The National Socialists, who numbered 9, are in favour of a system of territorial autonomy on nationalist lines. The racial struggle would thus be relegated to the mixed districts, and a settlement might gradually be reached. The Clericals held 17 seats, the Realists only one. Yet the Realist party, founded by Dr. Masaryk, carries great moral and intellectual weight in the country. It aims at dealing with the national question on practical lines, having due regard to existing circumstances, and bases Bohemia's claim to independence on natural rather than on historical rights. It is in favour of a federal reorganization of Austria, and complete independence of the various nationalities, so far as feasible, even in the mixed districts, with elaborate safeguards for protecting minorities.

But these party divisions mean little more than a difference of tactics. All parties are united in their determination to secure national independence either by federation or by establishing a separate kingdom, which is to include Moravia and also the Slovaks of Hungary. It is worth remembering that the right of each nation to determine its own government was one of the heresies for which Hus was condemned.

The aristocracy has lost virtually all political power. Bohemia is a progressive democracy, where the working man has already wrested supremacy from the middle class. Wages, however, are still exceedingly low; and the condition of the workers, especially in the towns, leaves much to be desired. Once the national question is solved, the relations between capital and labour are bound to become acute.

Recent Developments.—The main question, that of the erection of a completely independent State, has

been decided by the march of events. The national Council of the Czecho-Slovak State has formed itself into a Government, and received the recognition of America and of the Allied Governments. 'Slovakia' is to be reunited to Bohemia, and the new State is to be a republic. This is the outcome of a steady consolidation of the Czech political parties which has been in progress during the war. It found public expression on May 30, 1917, in the Czech deputies' declaration in the Reichsrat of their intention to work for the union of all Czechs and Slovaks in a single democratic State, and was finally reaffirmed in the Declaration of Independence of January 1918.

(3) Educational

The Bohemians, both Czech and German, are exceedingly well educated. The race rivalry, which has given Prague two universities, two commercial schools, and two technical colleges, has reacted favourably upon the whole educational system. They are by far the best educated people in the Austrian Empire. American census returns give the Czechs only 3 per cent. illiterates, as compared with 5·8 from Germany, while the Austrian statistics show a percentage of 1½ to 4 among the Czechs, 7 among the Austrians, and 56 among the Magyars. Both nationalities make it a point of honour to see that their children are well provided with schools. The excellence of the technical education in Bohemia is well known. The Government goes on the system that every town which possesses a special trade shall have its own school of industry and museum, instead of being obliged to send its sons away from home to study at a great centre. Apprentices are legally bound to attend the school and their masters to send them. Poor students are helped with

scholarships. In a small pottery centre like Ričan (population 2,114) there is a pottery school, attended by fifty-six students for six days a week, and a trade museum. Annual excursions are made to Pilsen and Budweis to see other pottery work. Prague is admirably equipped for technical training, as is Reichenberg, the German capital and the centre of the textile trade. But while the German technical schools are State supported, the Czechs are obliged to maintain most of their own themselves.

The schools form the great battle-ground of the races, since the language question is at the root of the quarrel. The German *Schulverein* was first in the field, and has all the wealth of the Germans behind it. In 1880 the Czechs founded the *Matice Školská* (Mother of Schools), which provides schools as soon as there are enough Czech children to need them. It also forces the Government to take over its schools when the number of children entitles them to be supported by the State. In the German area of north Bohemia there are now 108 schools educating 10,000 Czech children. Down to 1912 the *Matice* had spent some £600,000 on schools in the mixed districts. Much of the money is raised by the sale of postcards, stamps, &c., or by *heller* collections.

The *Matice* is said to have founded 56 primary schools in Bohemia and 14 in Moravia, in addition to 61 crèches. In the year 1912–13 these schools were giving instruction to some 15,000 children. In the Czech quarter of Vienna an educational society, the 'Union Komensky', is making a great effort to maintain Czech classes and private schools, and this is the more important because in Austria proper, even in the districts where there are large Czech minorities, all the public schools are German.

Both German and Bohemian employers are said to bring pressure to bear on their workpeople to induce them

to send their children to the schools of the employer's nationality. But the pressure is much stronger among the Germans, who are encouraged by the Government, which is alleged to make higher financial grants to the German than to the Czech schools. In the mixed schools the Czech pupils are at a great disadvantage. They cannot understand the German language in which they are taught; and as they are in many cases children of the poor employees of German masters, their interests are sacrificed. The Germans have hitherto dominated industry. Twice as many Germans attend the higher trade schools as Czechs—1 in 5,000 as compared with 1 in 10,000. The Czech peasant who wishes his son to rise in the world generally sends him to the university. The Czech University at Prague has twice as many students as the German, and is so overcrowded that a second university at Brünn, the Moravian capital, has become a crying necessity. Hence there is a surplus of educated Czechs in the country. Almost all the priests and the majority of the civil servants are Czech, while many find posts in Russia and Bulgaria. Educated Czechs almost invariably speak German, whereas educated Germans refuse to learn Czech. Consequently all posts where both tongues are required are held by Czechs.

The fight, however, is still an uphill one. Though, according to statistics compiled at the end of 1914, there were in that year 3,359 Czech elementary schools in Bohemia as against 2,334 German schools of the same class, this meant a comparatively small proportion of Czech schools in relation to population, for while the Czechs form about 63 per cent. of the population of Bohemia, they have only about 59 per cent. of the schools. Their schools also have a larger average of pupils, with the result that a percentage of about 59 of the total number of elementary schools has to

meet the educational needs of 62 per cent. of the total number of pupils, while the German percentage of schools, about 41, is responsible for only 38 per cent. of the pupils.

In Moravia, on the contrary, in 1911, the percentage of Czech elementary schools was about 71 per cent. and there were 1,896 Czech elementary schools to 741 German schools.

It may also be noted that in 1911 there were five elementary schools in Moravia in which instruction was given in both Czech and German, and in the same year Czech was returned as the sole language of instruction in 375 out of 612 municipal schools (*Bürgerschulen*) in Bohemia, and in 137 out of 230 similar schools in Moravia.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

The Racial Struggle

Bismarck declared that the master of Bohemia would be the master of Europe. Here the age-long struggle between Teuton and Slav first broke out, and here, as many Germans assure us, it will be decided. In the Czechs the Germans have met their match. Physically, the two races are said to be almost indistinguishable in Bohemia. The Czechs are, in fact, admirably fitted to form the vanguard of their race. Like the Poles, they have an essentially western outlook. Circumstances and geographical position have weaned them from the mystical, oriental tendencies of Russia.

Prospects in the Struggle.—The rivalry between the two races has reacted as favourably upon the Bohemian Germans as upon the Czechs. The German cause, however, seems doomed in Bohemia. Owing to a greater

increase of population and a lower standard of living among the Czechs, the Germans, always in a minority, are losing ground more and more rapidly. They have been on the defensive from the first. The attitude of the Jews clearly indicates in which direction the tide is setting. As they share with the Germans the control of almost all the great capitalist and industrial undertakings, they have long been in the closest alliance with them. Now, however, they are said to be rapidly becoming Czechized, even to their names. German has been the mother tongue of the Austrian Jew from time immemorial, yet at the last census more than half the Jews in Bohemia entered themselves as speaking Czech.

Phases of the Struggle.—The modern phase of the struggle dates only from about 1848. In 1854 Viollet-le-Duc spent several days in Prague, which is now overwhelmingly Czech, without realizing that he was not in a German town. Czech did not altogether lose its artificiality as a language and become a thoroughly satisfactory medium for all purposes till towards 1860. There was little noteworthy change before the industrial revolution of the last half of the nineteenth century. But, when it was found impossible to procure enough German hands in the manufacturing districts of the north, the Czech invasion of the German regions began. The Czech portions of Bohemia are largely agricultural; or, if industrial, the wages and standards of living are comparatively low. Hence the Czech readily migrates to the German districts, where his appearance has often been the prelude to the gradual elimination of his German rival, whose standard of living is higher, and whose racial hatred is thus reinforced by economic causes. The German element, which forms the overwhelming majority in the middle classes, tends to remain stationary. The Czech labourer is soon fol-

lowed by his school and by Czech members of the professional classes. Then, when he feels himself to be strong enough, he sets about the political conquest of the town. Thus in Budweis, which was German for three centuries, there are now 28,000 Czechs to 17,000 Germans.

The intensity of the struggle can hardly be exaggerated. Every village in the mixed districts is contested. A supply of orphans has been sent from Prague to prevent a newly-opened elementary school from being obliged to close from lack of the required number of pupils. The changing of the street names from German to Czech, as in the case of Prague itself, is among the first signs of a Czech victory.

The Sokols.—The oldest Czech nationalist organization, and one of the most important, is that of the Sokols, imitated from the German *Turnvereine.* These societies for gymnastic training date from 1862. The members wear the feather of a falcon (*sokol*) in their caps. After 1866 they were frowned upon by the authorities, but by 1871 they had revived and were rapidly increasing. Gymnastic training is only one side of their activity. They are now organized on a great national system, which has spread across the Atlantic, and arranges lectures, founds libraries, and plays an active part in encouraging civic and ethical teaching. At their jubilee in Prague in 1912, 12,000 youths and 8,000 girls assembled, including contingents from America, to take part in the gymnastic displays. The Sokols have been entirely suppressed during the war.

Czechs and Germans in the Industrial Field.—The only superiority of the German over the Czech has hitherto lain in his wealth; and this is likely to continue, as he occupies the rich districts of the north and northwest, of which Reichenberg is the capital. Generally speaking, the Czech is to be found in the fields, the

workshops, the factories, or domestic service. But the Czechs are rising, even in the industrial field. There is a steady progress upwards from the lower to the middle and the middle to the upper classes. The process has been especially noticeable since the decline of emigration to Austria, which dates from about 1900. Hitherto the Czechs have lacked capital; but the enterprise of their bankers is endeavouring to remedy this defect, and the Jews are daily becoming more ready to finance Czech enterprises. As the urban populations acquire money, they invest it in industrial concerns. Already a sixth of the great Bohemian textile industry is owned by Czechs. In the same way the prosperous peasant buys land. The banks and the national societies help and encourage him to do so in every way, especially in the German districts. In a few years a single Czech society in the Böhmerwald bought land worth £200,000; and now nearly 1,000,000 Czechs are settled on the land in the Austrian provinces. The Germans find that a line of Czech farms already extends from Freistadt, through Linz, St. Florian, and Styr, to the border of Styria. German resistance to the Czech was at one time more successful in Moravia and Silesia, where the Czechs were less well organized, while the towns are largely German. But the *Matice* is fully alive to the situation and puts up a stiff fight. In doubtful regions of Bohemia or Moravia Czechs will only sell their property to Czechs. Lists are even kept of marriageable Czech girls and their dowries, in order to ensure their not being captured by the enemy.

Czechs in Austria.—Lastly may be mentioned the systematic Czech invasion of Austria, which, however, tends to decline. In Vienna alone there are 300,000 Czechs, mostly porters, errand-boys, small clerks, and above all maid-servants. The Viennese hate them and refuse to allow them to open a Czech school, yet every shop-

keeper is bound to know the Czech-Viennese dialect which they have introduced, so numerous have they become. Many of them are settled on the land, notably in lower Austria. As for the Civil Service, there are 6,890 Czechs to 161 Germans in the railways alone; and in most of the lower branches the Czechs are in an overwhelming majority.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(*a*) *Roads*

Of the total mileage of roads in Austria 38·3 per cent. is in Bohemia and Moravia; and, while Austria has on the average only 40·4 km. of road to 100 square km., Bohemia and Moravia have 63·7 and 60·2 respectively. These roads are of three classes—imperial, provincial, and parish roads, of which the first two are metalled but the third may be little more than tracks. In 1911 the sum expended on imperial roads in Bohemia was 5,219,524 kn. or 1,215 kn. per km. of road, and in Moravia 1,148,393 kn. or 1,383 kn. per km. The Bohemian roads are not so good as those of France or Germany, but otherwise they call for no comment.

(*b*) *Rivers and Canals*

When it is remembered that, poor as they are in comparison with those of some other European countries, the natural waterways of Austria include the upper Elbe and a large part of the Danube, it is clear from the accompanying table that she has not developed her resources to the best advantage:

	Sq. km. containing 1 km. waterway.	*Artificial waterways.*	*Natural waterways.*	*Total.*
		Km.	*Km.*	*Km.*
Netherlands	7	3,561	919	4,480
Belgium	14	1,612	454	2,066
Germany	35	6,602	8,667	15,269
Austria	46	73	6,456	6,529

Of this limited water system, Bohemia and Moravia, the industrial core of Austria, possess but a small share, as the following table (for the year 1912) indicates:

	Rivers fit for rafts only.	*Rivers fit for boats.*	*Canals.*	*Total No. of km.*	*Per-centage of total for all Austria.*	*Km. of water-way to 100 sq. km.*	*Length fit for steamers.*	*State expenditure in 1912.*
	Km.	*Km.*	*Km.*				*Km.*	*Kronen.*
Bohemia .	805·8	354·9	10	1,170·7	17·93	2·25	192·9	1,311,139
Moravia .	200·1	33·1	—	233·2	3·57	1·05	—	15,444
All Austria	3,880	2,576	73	6,529	100	2·17	1,330·6	10,672,243

As 47·3 per cent. of the area of Austria-Hungary is over 400 km. from the sea, the importance of cheap freight by inland waterways is very great. A glance at the map will show how valuable it would be for Bohemia and Moravia, if the middle Elbe were fully canalized and if the rivers of the two provinces were connected by canal with the Danube, the Oder, and the Vistula. It is true that efforts have been made to create an outlet for Bohemia by improving the railway communication with Trieste, but, although in 1911 that town asked the Minister of Railways to arrange railway rates so as to promote export *via* Trieste, the Reichenberg merchants in the same year asked him to promote trade by the Elbe route to Hamburg. Indeed, in spite of the large sums that have been spent on the Trieste railways, the United States Consul in Bohemia warned American manufacturers in 1911 to send their goods to Bohemia *via* Hamburg rather than by Trieste, since the latter route takes three to four weeks longer, goods by slow freight by the northern route arriving more quickly than parcels post *via* Trieste.

In 1896 proposals were made by a firm of engineers in Prague for canalizing the Moldau from Prague to Melnik and the Elbe from Melnik to Schandau (the German customs boundary). This scheme was adopted, the Imperial Government agreeing to pay two-thirds of

the expenses and the province of Bohemia the remainder, but in 1902, before it was quite completed, new plans were put forward. In this year engineering firms in Prague worked out an elaborate scheme for connecting the rivers Moldau and Elbe with the Danube; it included a ship railway, on which barges fully laden were to be carried. Bohemia would then be traversed by a waterway reaching from the German Ocean to the Black Sea.

By the imperial decree of 1901 Herr von Körber, in his Waterways Act, had foreshadowed the construction of canals on a large scale, and in 1903 it was decided to carry out within 20 years a scheme under which there would be constructed: (1) a navigable canal from the Danube to the Oder, (2) one from the Moldau to the Danube, (3) one from the Danube–Oder canal to the middle Elbe, and (4) one from the Danube–Oder canal to the Vistula. The estimated cost was as follows:

	Kronen.
Danube–Oder canal . .	340,000,000
Rectification of the course of the Elbe	220,000,000
Canalizing the middle Elbe .	20,000,000
Connexion with the Vistula .	120,000,000
Branch canal to Brünn . .	57,000,000

The scheme also included the improvement of navigation on the Moldau through Prague. A canal from Vienna to Trieste (presumably *via* the Danube and the Save) was also seriously considered. Owing to the retirement of Herr von Körber, however, the carrying out of these plans was deferred. So far only the canalization of the Moldau has been completed, and the Elbe–Vistula canal to Cracow begun.

In the first instance these canals were proposed in

the interests of Austria, but it is evident that they would be equally advantageous to German interests, in so far as these are concerned with 'Central Europe'. In March 1917 Herr Budeney, the well-known Hamburg Conservancy official, strongly urged the claims of a 1,000 ton ship-canal from Pardubitz (Pardubic) on the Elbe to Prerau on the proposed Danube–Oder canal, and pointed out that this, as well as the Elbe–Danube connexion, would increase the trade of Hamburg.

In December 1917, at the conference at Budapest of the Central European Economic Societies of Germany, Austria, and Hungary, Dr. Russ advocated, largely in the interests of North Germany, what is practically the Körber scheme. He said:

'In Austria the Danube–Oder–Vistula canal is ripe for construction, as is the canalization of the Austrian middle Elbe, which has been begun.

'The canalization of the Elbe near Aussig, where the river has always been navigable, is nearing completion. For a canal connecting the middle Elbe with the Danube–Oder canal near Prerau only preliminary surveys have so far been made. To draw up a detailed plan of the Pardubitz section four years are required.

'As regards the canals to be built in order to link up the Austrian crown-lands of Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, Galicia, and lower Austria with the Elbe, the Oder, and the Vistula, the estimated cost of the 282 km. of the Danube project is 260,000,000 kn.; of the 128 km. of the Oder–Vistula canal, 100, 000,000 kn.; of the 185 km. connexion between Prerau and Pardubitz, 170,000,000 kn.; and of the canalization of the Austrian middle Elbe for a length of 180 km., 165,000,000 kn. If the Danube–Moldau canal is omitted from this estimate, it is because Bohemian interests prefer to it a connexion between Pardubitz on the middle Elbe, which is being canalized, and the Danube–Oder canal—

without, however, giving up the idea of a line *via* Budweis either by canal direct to Korneuburg or *via* Linz.'

On the Danube–Moldau question, Dr. Russ was evidently speaking from the North German standpoint, for easy communication with the Danube is much needed. Thus, it was always customary for rod-iron from Bohemia and Moravia intended for Galatz to be sent, not down the Danube, but either by rail under the Levant tariff, or to Hamburg by way of the Elbe navigation, whence it was shipped to Galatz *via* Gibraltar at a very great saving of freight.[1]

It is probable that, with the exception of the proposed Moldau–Danube canal, the whole network of projected waterways would tend to direct more and more goods from Moravia, and also from the districts on the Oder and Vistula, into the Elbe route to Hamburg.

Certainly the Elbe is the cheapest and best route to the sea from Bohemia for certain classes of goods, and the tonnage carried is very considerable. In 1912, 2,275,417 tons of goods were carried down-stream to the Bohemian–Saxon frontier. Of these 1,689,000 tons were lignite, 262,150 tons sugar, 95,000 tons mineral oil, and there were considerable quantities of barley, stone and stoneware, soft goods, glass, and fresh and preserved fruits. There were also floated down the river 1,558 rafts of timber.

The passenger traffic is also large. In 1914, 156,958 passengers reached Aussig by river, and 148,970 left.

On the Moldau also, between Stechowitz and Melnik, a distance of 84 km., the tonnage carried is considerable. In 1911, 115,000 tons were carried up-stream and 796,000 tons down-stream.

[1] *Berliner Tageblatt*, April 2, 1917.

(c) *Railways and Tramways*

In 1911, of the 22,642 km. of main and local railway lines in Austria, 8,848, or 39 per cent., were in Bohemia and Moravia, 29·8 per cent. being in Bohemia alone. Bohemia has indeed a denser network of railways than any other province of Austria, viz. 1 km. of line to 7·7 square kilometres, as compared with 1 km. to 13·25 in the whole of Austria, and 1 to 8·07 in lower Austria.[1]

Of the 696 km. of tramways in Austria 162, or 23·26 per cent., are in Bohemia, and 31, or 4·4 per cent., in Moravia. Lower Austria, including Vienna and its suburbs, has 253 km., or 36·38 per cent. of the total.

The subjoined table illustrates the growth of the Austrian railways in the 35 years preceding 1910:

	Length of Lines (in km.).	*State Railways (in km.) with percentage of total length.*	*Passengers carried.*	*Goods carried (tons).*
1876.	10,775	562 or 5·2 per cent.	32,560,000	38,470,000
1910.	22,750	19,120 or 85 per cent.	254,620,000	137,600,000

It will be seen that, while the increase in the length of Austrian railways (not including tramways) is more than 100 per cent., the increase of State ownership is 80 per cent. For a fuller understanding of these figures and of the difficulties and defects of the Austrian railway system, as it affects Bohemia and Moravia, a brief sketch of the development of the Austrian railways is necessary.

Up to 1873 the Austrian Government encouraged the investment of private capital in railways; but the shortness of money owing to the financial crisis of that year brought private railway construction almost to a standstill. Consequently, the Govern-

[1] The figures given for 1912 are: All Austria, 22,879 km.; Bohemia, 6,769 km.; Moravia, 2,119 km.

ment guarantees had to be raised, and the State found it necessary to begin to acquire the railways and to construct new lines itself. But while State aid and the direct construction of railways by the State improved matters in the industrial districts in the north and west of Bohemia, which are largely German, and where railways were a remunerative investment (the Aussig–Teplitz Railway paid 12 per cent. as early as 1870–2), this did not hold good of the central and southern portions of the country and of the agricultural districts, which are mainly Czech. New railways, although of the greatest benefit to these districts, could not themselves be remunerative, and, in spite of further concessions and remissions of taxes by the State, only 444 km. of additional lines were constructed between 1880 and 1890. Evidently an additional stimulus was needed, and in 1892 the Bohemian Chamber provided substantial assistance by guaranteeing interest and the redemption of all debt involved in construction up to 70 per cent. of the cost. The result of this policy was very marked. Between 1892 and 1906 1,967·4 km. of new lines were laid in Bohemia, of which 1,208·8 km. were in Czech districts, and 758·6 in German districts. Thus, after the new constructions, the Czech portion of the country was better supplied with railways than the rest, having 1 km. of track to 7·8 square kilometres, as compared with 1 km. to 8·1 square kilometres in the German portion.

Apart from the electric tramway systems of the larger towns and their suburbs, Austrian railways are of three kinds:

(1) Those worked by companies for private profit;
(2) Private railways worked by the State;
(3) Railways belonging to and worked by the State.

(1) Only two considerable railway systems are still in private hands:

(*a*) The Aussig–Teplitz Railway. (Offices at Teplitz. Share capital, 38,095,000 kn.) This serves the Aussig, Teplitz, Komotau, and Reichenberg districts, and has a length of 331 km. Its financial status is peculiar: there are no guarantees either for payment of interest or redemption of capital, but there are certain concessions, e. g. some portions of the line are free from taxation for periods varying from 20 to 25 years. The State has the right to purchase under certain conditions. Concessions on the different portions of the line hold good till 1950, 1964, and 1986. In 1889 a second harbour was built on the Elbe at Aussig, and for the period of the concession the railway company receives the dues of this harbour, which, at the close of the period, revert to the State without compensation. In 1912 the ordinary shares paid 11⅕ per cent.

(*b*) The Buschtehrad Railway. (Offices at Prague. Share capital, 57,280,000 kn.)

This line serves Prague, Kralup, Rakonitz, Komotau, and Eger, and has a length of 479 km. Concessions have been made by the State on various portions of the line up to 1963 and 1972. After 1940 the State has the right of purchase under certain conditions. In 1912 the A shares paid 10½ per cent. and the B shares 11½ per cent.

(2) Of the railways worked by the State for private companies, which receive dividends, there were in 1913 5,889 km. in Austria. The exact figures for Bohemia and Moravia are not procurable.

(3) Of the State railways there were in Austria in 1913 12,990 km. Again the precise figures for Bohemia and Moravia are not available.

The State railways are under the Imperial Railway

Department in Vienna, of which there are branches at Pilsen, Prague, and Olmütz. The staff of these offices is Czech, except in the case of the North-West Bohemia Railway (a State line) at Prague, of which the staff is chiefly German. The names of the various lines remain in common use as they were before the State took them over.

The Austrian, and in particular the Bohemian, railway system has been the subject of much complaint. It grew up by degrees without design as a whole, as individual companies undertook the development of the natural resources of the country. This was unfortunate, because the problem of railway extension was a threefold one, viz.: (1) to serve the iron, coal, and textile industries in north-west and north Bohemia and in Moravia, as is done by the Aussig–Teplitz and Buschtehrad lines; (2) to connect the Bohemian and Moravian lines with the through European lines; and (3) to do this without leaving a large part of Bohemia and Moravia remote from the main lines.

The attempts to solve these problems have met with only partial success. The industrial railways of the north-west of Bohemia link up with Bavaria and Saxony more easily than with the rest of Austria. Only 32·2 per cent. of the railway lines of Austria have a double track, and in Bohemia and Moravia the proportion is certainly not greater. It is impossible to journey from Vienna to Dresden without travelling on a single track for a portion of the way (either from Lundenburg to Brünn, or from Iglau to Kolin, or from Gmünd to Beneschau, or between Budweis and Přibram), and it is partly due to this preponderance of single tracks that the railways prove insufficient for industrial needs; indeed, factories have at times to lessen their output because neither raw material nor finished goods can be carried in sufficient quantities.

Again, Prague itself is off the route of the through lines. The journey from Vienna to Dresden *via* Iglau, Deutsch-Brod, Nimburg, and Aussig, is 322 miles, while that through Prague is 366 miles.

A glance at the railway map of Austria shows that the outlying portions of Bohemia and Moravia have closer rail-communications with other countries and provinces than with the interior of the Czech provinces of which they form part. It is partly to counteract this centrifugal tendency, which is found in the whole of Austria, that the zone tariff system, by which the freight is lower as the distance increases, has been introduced.

(*d*) *Posts*

The number of letters sent per head of population is on the average considerably greater in Bohemia than in the other parts of Austria. In 1912 there were in Bohemia 2,084 post offices, and in Moravia 1,054, or in the two provinces together nearly one-third of the total number for the whole of Austria (9,656). This corresponds with the population in the same year, which was: Austria, 28,748,850; Bohemia, 6,787,842; Moravia, 2,636,634.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) Labour

(*a*) *Labour Conditions*

In Austria the conditions of agricultural labour are bad, and Bohemia and Moravia are no exceptions to the rule. In both these provinces the money wages for a grown man are about 60 heller ($5\frac{1}{2}d.$) a day. This is worse than in lower Austria, where, nevertheless, labourers do not earn as much as 1 krone, but better than in Galicia and Bukovina, where they earn only

50 heller (4½*d.*) a day. In Poland the average wage is about 6*d.* a day; in the Ukraine rather more. In all cases there is some additional payment in kind, the value of which is difficult to estimate. In many instances the labourer receives board and lodging, though of poor quality.

In the lignite mines of Bohemia the yearly wages are higher than in the coal mines of Austrian Silesia, hewers receiving 141·22 kn. more and labourers 194 kn. more than similar workers in the coal mines. Judging from the membership of sick clubs, to the Austrian total of which in 1911 Bohemia supplied 28·7 per cent., Moravia 9·9, and Silesia 3·1, labourers in Moravia are rather less provident than those in Bohemia or in Silesia, which has little more than one-ninth of the population of Bohemia.

It is stated, on the other hand, that, though wages may be low in Bohemia, the country labourer is not worth more than his hire. As the education in the country is not so good as that in the towns, he is undoubtedly placed at a disadvantage in comparison with the town-bred labourer.

In Moravia hours are very long, varying from 13 in winter to 17 in summer at Iglau, and from 7 in winter to 13 in summer at Göding. In Galicia the hours are shorter. It is worth noting that in the Ukraine farm hands may have to work as many as 18 hours at certain seasons of the year.

In spite of a law passed in 1902 to enforce the building of sanitary dwellings, housing is still bad, and many of the agricultural labourers who live on the farms sleep in the stables with the beasts.

The Czech labourers in Bohemia and Moravia are hardworking and intelligent, and the Bohemian farmers are the best in Austria-Hungary. The German labourer does not hold his own with the Czech, but the majority

of the big businesses are still the property of Germans, whose industrial capacity is rated higher than that of any of their compatriots in other parts of Austria-Hungary. It is only of recent years that the Czech has begun to appear in the higher walks of business, but he is rapidly making his mark there.

(*b*) *Emigration*

As a result of the unsatisfactory conditions of labour, which are closely connected with the dearth of small holdings and the mismanagement of large estates, there is a considerable emigration from Austria of the very poor, who tramp over the frontier to the nearest labour markets in Germany, Russia, and Rumania. A large number also flock from the rural districts to the towns, and this is especially the case in Moravia and Silesia. Many again go overseas, though in decreasing numbers. In 1911, 90,134 emigrants from Austria (rather more than 50 per cent. of the number in 1907) sailed from various European ports, the greater part going to North America; and it is fair to assume that about 25 per cent. of these came from Bohemia and Moravia. Often these emigrants come home in a few years' time with their savings: as many as 1,135 Bohemians returned from the United States in 1911.

Most of the emigrants come from the least fertile agricultural districts round Pilsen, Budweis, Tabor, Pisek, and Kuttenberg. There are said to be some 80,000 Czechs in Russia, of whom some 40,000 to 50,000 are in Volhynia, and it is calculated that by 1900 some 157,000 Bohemians were in America.

Between 1900 and 1910 the total loss by emigration, or by migration to other provinces, among the Czechs in Bohemia was 5·1 per 1,000; among the Slavs in Moravia, 6·6 per 1,000; among the Germans in the two countries, 4·0 per 1,000.

(2) Agriculture

(a) *Products of Commercial Value*

The soil of Bohemia and Moravia is fertile and the rainfall (seldom less than 20 inches) is adequate ; there is more rain in summer than in winter. More than half the surface is under tillage and the forests are valuable. The superficial area of Bohemia and Moravia together is 24·7 per cent. of that of Austria, while that of Bohemia alone is 17 per cent., but the agricultural importance of the two provinces to the Empire is much larger than these figures might imply.

In practically all important crops Bohemia and Moravia together in 1913 supplied from 40 per cent. to 50 per cent. of the total production of Austria ; of barley they supplied 63 per cent., of poppy 83 per cent., of flax fibres 59 per cent., of sugar-beet (an especially valuable crop) 90·6 per cent. (see Appendix, Table I).

A comparison with the United Kingdom affords an additional index of value. The area of Bohemia and Moravia is roughly one quarter of that of these islands, yet for some typical crops the output of Bohemia and Moravia together represents the following percentage of that of the United Kingdom : wheat, 43 ; barley, 37·1 ; potatoes, 92. The area of cultivated fields in Bohemia in 1897 was 2,621,890 and in 1913 2,679,971 hectares ; [1] in Moravia, 1,216,644 in 1897 and 1,254,798 in 1913.

The fertility of Bohemia and Moravia, as shown by the average yield per hectare in practically all the staple products, is considerably greater than that of Austria as a whole. Bohemia is markedly more fertile

[1] One hectare = 2·47 acres. In 1909–13 the average annual totals of the five principal crops (wheat, rye, barley, oats, and potatoes) were : 1,877,301 hectares in Bohemia and 876,545 hectares in Moravia.

than Moravia, and its productivity as compared with Austria is marked in every crop.

In respect of live stock, the accompanying table shows that the position of these provinces, if not so pre-eminent, is yet very important. With the exception of horses and pigs, they produce far more than their share, and are responsible for 32·8 per cent. of the cows and oxen, 48 per cent. of the goats, and 59 per cent. of the geese in Austria. It may be noted, however, that there is in Bohemia such a demand for cultivable land that much pasture land has been ploughed up, and consequently, in the absence of free imports, the price of meat has risen considerably. Of game, the proportion of the total Austrian yield supplied by Bohemia and Moravia is very high, being 73 per cent. of the partridges and rabbits and 66 per cent. of black game. A great portion of this important article of food finds its way to Vienna. It is thus clear that Bohemia and Moravia are by far the most important parts of Austria in the production of food-stuffs, and that of the two provinces Bohemia is the more productive.

NUMBERS OF LIVE STOCK IN 1910

	Horses.	*Cows.*	*Oxen.*	*Goats.*	*Pigs.*	*Hens, Geese, and Ducks.*
Bohemia . .	250,428	1,122,152	2,290,587	406,362	1,012,798	8,885,093
Per cent. of Austria	13·2	22·8	25	32·3	15·7	27·4
Moravia . . .	140,970	450,562	801,178	208,181	633,538	3,731,292
Per cent. of Austria	7·8	9·1	8·7	16·5	9·8	10·2
All Austria . .	1,802,848	4,901,886	9,160,009	1,256,778	6,432,080	34,380,274

Agriculture in Bohemia.—For statistical purposes Bohemia is divided into the eleven regions named in the following table. As might be expected, the inner regions are more fertile than the regions on, or bordering on, the rim of mountainous country which surrounds Bohemia, and, as shown by the statistics of relative fertility, regions I, III, V, and VI give the highest yield per hectare of wheat, rye, barley, and

oats. Region I, the Bohemian Lowland, comprising as it does the riverine basins of the lower Moldau and the middle Elbe, easily heads the list, while the average fertility of the most productive portion of it, the Leitmeritz district, is for the four crops mentioned above 50·5 hectolitres per hectare, as contrasted with an average of 30 for the whole of Bohemia.

RELATIVE FERTILITY OF REGIONS: AVERAGE YIELD OF MARKETABLE PRODUCE IN HECTOLITRES PER HECTARE. (One hectolitre = 22 gallons = 2·75 bushels.)

1913.	*Wheat.*	*Rye.*	*Barley.*	*Oats.*	*Average.*	*Order of Relative Fertility.*
I. Bohemian Lowland .	26·7	25·7	33·5	44·3	32·5	I
Leitmeritz District .	39·8	40·5	52·5	69·2	50·5	
II. Foot-hills of Sudetes .	27·9	21·1	27	41·1	29·2	V
III. Lower Egerland with the Mittelgebirge .	27·8	24·3	32	42·5	31·5	II
IV. Upper Egerland with Teplergebirge . .	23	21·7	26·9	38·4	27·2	VII
V. Beraun Region . .	26	24	31·1	42·4	30·8	IV
VI. Pilsen Region . .	26·1	24·3	30·9	47·4	31·2	III
VII. Budweis Region . .	21·6	22	26·3	37·9	28·2	VI
VIII. Bohemian-Moravian Plateau . . .	20·7	20·6	27·7	38·9	26·9	VIII
IX. Sudetes Mtn. Region .	19	19·5	25·6	34·4	24·6	X
X. Erzgebirge. . .	16·3	15·6	21·6	24·8	20·5	XI
XI. Bohemian Forest .	21	21·4	26·2	38·8	26·8	IX
Average for Bohemia .	25	21·4	30·4	39·2	30	

AVERAGE YIELD OF THE SAME CROPS IN QUINTALS (100 kg.) PER HECTARE [1]

	Wheat.	*Rye.*	*Barley.*	*Oats.*	*Average.*	*Order of Relative Fertility.*
1913 Average for Bohemia .	19·6	15	20·8	19·2	18·6	
1909–13 Average for Bohemia [2]	19·1	17·5	20·5	16·7	18·4	I
1909–13 Average for Moravia [2]	15·5	14·3	17·1	12·8	14·9	II
1909–13 Average for all Austria [2]	12·8	13	14·2	12·1	13	III

[1] In Bohemia the average weights of 1 hectolitre of marketable grain were: in 1909–13, wheat, 78·9 kg.; rye, 67·5 kg.; barley, 68·9 kg.; oats, 48·7 kg.; in 1913, wheat, 78·3 kg.; rye, 70 kg.; barley, 68·4 kg.; oats, 48·9 kg.

[2] Figures in Maps 35, 37, 39 and 41 of F. Lange's *Landwirtschaftlich-statistischer Atlas* (1917), Teil I.

It is noteworthy that the Bohemian Lowland produces the following percentage of valuable crops out of the total output for Bohemia: wheat, 36·6; barley, 36·1; chicory, 90·7; sugar-beet, 71·1; poppy, 34·3. It is also significant that, as the development of the sugar industry stands in close relation with the general industrial development of Bohemia, the bulk of the raw material is produced within easy reach of the coal-fields and the industrial centres.

The areas devoted to the principal crops in 1913, and the proportions that they bear to the total surface of Bohemia, are given in the following table:

Description of Crop.	*Area (in hectares).*	*Percentage of total area harvested.*
Wheat	227,697	8·5
Rye	530,898	20·1
Barley	318,513	12
Oats	499,563	18·9
Peas	14,424	·6
Potatoes	300,371	11·3
Sugar-beet	142,014	5·4
Fodder-beet	32,664	1·2
Clover and lucerne	395,321	14·9
Other green fodder	68,982	2·6
Various minor crops	118,652	4·5
Total	2,649,099[1]	100

The large proportion of the surface which is devoted to agriculture is illustrated by a comparison with Austria as a whole, and with other countries:

Percentage of Total Surface under Plough Cultivation

Bohemia	51·00
Austria-Hungary	38·00
Austria	35·00
France	44·00[2]
German Empire	47·00[2]
United Kingdom	23·00

[1] The total area cultivated, including vineyards and house gardens, was 2,679,971 hectares.

[2] In F. Lange's Atlas (i. 17) the figures for France are 50·5 per cent., and for Germany 48·5 per cent.

Agriculture in Moravia.—More than 56 per cent. of Moravia is cultivated,[1] and the variety of climate ensures a corresponding variety of products. In the south are found maize, vegetables (such as cucumbers), valuable fruit, and vines producing heavy wine. From the centre, especially from the Hanna region, come barley, wheat, and sugar-beet. In the north and in the more mountainous districts the principal products are rye, oats, flax, and potatoes. Mountains provide pasture for numerous cattle, but in the Carpathians there is summer pasture only above 4,600 ft. In the south the harvest is often as early as the end of June, while snow falls in the Carpathians in September.

Nearly 60 per cent. of the agricultural land is under cereals. Rye and barley come first (223,219 and 201,324 hectares respectively), but a good deal of oats and wheat is grown (196,989 and 105,212 hectares respectively). The barley of the Hanna Plain is of especially good quality. Maize, millet, and buckwheat are also grown, but the maize is a small crop and comes to full maturity only in the warmer regions of the south. There is a wide area under potatoes. Sugar-beet is greatly on the increase and does well. The crops of flax and rape-seed are not large. Hops do well in places, notably round Olmütz.

Leguminous plants and poppies cover a considerable area. Fennel, anise, and other plants of the kind are grown. The vine is extensively cultivated in the south. Vegetables are produced in large quantities. Fruit of all kinds is also widely grown. Meadows take up nearly 7 per cent., pasture 5·4 per cent., of

[1] Total area, 2,222,216 ; cultivated area, 1,254,798 hectares.

Moravia. The following table shows the distribution of the crops in Moravia in 1913:[1]

Principal Crops.	*Area (in hectares).*	*Approximate Percentage of total area cultivated.*
Wheat	105,212	8·5
Rye	223,219	18·2
Barley	201,324	17·3
Oats	196,989	16·1
Potatoes	149,302	12·2
Sugar-beet	82,390	6·7
Fodder plants	147,444	12·1
Other root crops	29,363	2·3
Maize	10,362	·8
Various minor crops	71,039	5·8
Total area cultivated (omitting vineyards and gardens)	1,216,644	100

A word may be added about some crops of special interest in the two provinces.

Hops of first-rate quality are grown in Bohemia. Saaz, Rakonitz, Podersam, and Laun are the chief centres of production. These and the other hop districts of importance (see table below) are in the fertile lower Egerland and the Bohemian Lowland. The absolute figures for the yield between 1903 and 1913 show what a very uncertain crop hops can be; with an average yearly production of 9,204 metric tons, the yield varied from 3,787 tons in 1906 to 16,480 in 1912.

Out of 20,146 metric tons of hops produced by Austria in 1912, 16,480 were of Bohemian growth. These hops are so highly esteemed that attempts have been made to cultivate them elsewhere. In 1901 the Government of Victoria sent to Saaz for hop sets for introduction into the colony.

[1] The following comparative figures for 1913 are of interest: Austria (all): total area, 30,000,000 hectares; wheat harvest, 16,227,000 metric cwt.; Bohemia: total area, 5,194,000 hectares; wheat harvest, 4,836,000 metric cwt.; Moravia: total area, 2,222,000 hectares; wheat harvest, 1,883,000 metric cwt.

FIGURES FOR THE NINE CHIEF HOP-PRODUCING AREAS IN BOHEMIA IN 1913. (N.B.—There are sixteen such areas in all.)

	Hectares.	*Percentage of whole hop area of Bohemia.*	*Production in quintals*[1] *per hect.*	*Total production in quintals.*
Saaz	2,955	19·22	2·03	5,999
Rakonitz	2,077	13·50	4·83	10,032
Podersam	2,062	13·41	2·99	6,165
Laun	1,955	12·71	5·05	9,872
Jechnitz	1,335	8·68	4·12	5,500
Auscha	887	5·77	9·90	8,781
Postelberg	810	5·27	2·98	2,414
Leitmeritz	704	4·58	5·30	3,731
Raudnitz	517	3·36	9·40	4,860
For whole of Bohemia	15,378		4·11	63,230

Fruit.—The principal fruit-growing districts of Austria are Bohemia, Moravia, and Styria. The principal varieties grown are plums, cherries, apples, and pears. In Bohemia fruit is grown chiefly on trees scattered through and along the borders of fields where other crops are cultivated; orchards devoted entirely to fruit trees are rare. In 1913 the Bohemian production (exclusive of grapes) was 206,132 metric tons. In this production the Bohemian Lowland easily took the lead, yielding 94,689 metric tons, or 45·9 per cent. of the total. The apples and pears include the best-known English varieties.

In normal times the agricultural schools tried to make the growers plant the kinds of fruit that were marketable in Germany and London. Companies have been formed at Aussig for the drying and preserving of fruit, and care has been taken to adopt modern methods.

Wine.—The wine production of Bohemia and Moravia is unimportant and the productivity of the vineyards per hectare is much less than in Austria as a whole. The wines are light, pleasant table wines, and are consumed chiefly in the country; but the wines from

[1] 1 quintal = 100 kg. = 220·46 lb.

Melnik were to be had in London. It may be noted that the only vineyards of any importance are in the Bohemian Lowland in the neighbourhood of Prague. The productive area in Bohemia, which in 1897 had been 802 hectares, had fallen to 532 hectares in 1913.

The total areas of vineyards and house-gardens in the year 1913 were: in Bohemia 69,858, and in Moravia 38,154 hectares; but these figures include olive, chestnut, mulberry, and other crops.

(*b*) *Forestry*

Although Bohemia and Moravia are less wooded than most of the other provinces of Austria, 22 per cent. of the forests are in these two provinces, which produce 30 per cent. of the output of timber. They also supply 25 per cent. of the output of firewood—an important commodity, since 20,964 metric tons of wood were used as fuel by the Austrian railways in 1908. The forest areas stood in 1913 at the following figures: Austria (all), 9,768,000 hectares; Bohemia, 1,538,000 hectares; Moravia, 623,000 hectares.

The only timber industry that is characteristic and highly developed is that of bent-wood furniture. In 1907 the Oesterreichische Kreditanstalt formed a number of factories of these articles into a joint-stock company.

(*c*) *Land Tenure*

Since freedom of land transfer was introduced in 1869, two tendencies have been at work in Austria. On the one hand, small holdings have been subdivided, and on the other, large estates have increased in size, so that the comfortable farmstead is disappearing, and is either being replaced by allotments or merged in the estate of the large capitalist landlord. The tendency is most marked in Bohemia, where in 1908 as few as

776 proprietors owned 35·6 per cent. of the area of the kingdom. These large owners represented only 0·1 per cent. of the proprietors, for the minute subdivision of small holdings is a marked feature of Bohemian land tenure. In Moravia and Silesia also the same features are to be found.

This subdivision is due chiefly to the inefficiency and indebtedness of the small proprietor, and not to the equal subdivision of estates among children. It is therefore not surprising to find that the large estates are better farmed; for the large proprietors in Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia can obtain the capital to make improvements in agricultural method, and it is in these provinces that the most intensive farming is found. Yet the disappearance of the small proprietor is viewed with alarm, and in 1903 an agricultural law was passed to stop the process and to hinder the transfer of agricultural properties of middle size. In Moravia, by 1911 small portions of land, amounting in the aggregate to 40,776 hectares, had been joined together to make larger holdings.

The whole system of land registration has recently been reorganized. The particulars of private property are now registered so that the limits of property and conditions of ownership are seen at a glance, and the transfer of land is thus made easier and cheaper.

(3) Minerals

Coal and Lignite.—Of the total coal production of Austria in 1911, 37·5 per cent. was bituminous coal and 62·5 per cent. was lignite. Bohemia and Moravia together supplied 43 per cent. of the coal and 83 per cent. of the lignite. Naturally, the coal is the more valuable article for manufacturing purposes, and of this Austria, not having enough for her own needs,

imported a considerable quantity from the United Kingdom and from Germany. The lignite, on the other hand, was not only sufficient for the home demands, but also formed a valuable article of export for the provinces of Bohemia and Moravia, which supplied such a large part of the Austrian output.

It is true that in comparison with the great coal-producing countries, such as Great Britain and Germany, the output of Bohemia and Moravia is small. In 1912 the two provinces produced only 2·4 per cent. of the coal output of Great Britain, and 3·7 per cent. of that of Germany. Yet, in relation to the needs of the home manufacturer, the output of lignite is considerable, and, compared with that of neighbouring countries such as Hungary, is of great importance. It is significant that in 1912 the two provinces produced five times as much coal and nine and a half times as much lignite as Hungary.

The great increase in the output of coal and lignite during the twenty years preceding 1911 affords a valuable index to the growth of prosperity during these years. In Bohemia and Moravia respectively the production of coal increased by 13·2 per cent. and 79 per cent., and in Bohemia that of lignite by 70 per cent. Further, the increase of 47 per cent. in the price of lignite throws light on the increased cost of living in Bohemia, and shows that, in spite of special tariffs, it has been impossible for German lignite to compete with Bohemian.

Coal.—In 1912 the production of coal in Bohemia and Moravia was 43 per cent. of the total Austrian output. The approximate totals for pit-coal in 1913 were: Austria, 16,460,000 metric tons; Bohemia, 4,400,000; Moravia, 2,300,000; Silesia, 7,600,000.

In Bohemia there are four coal districts: (1) Kladno; (2) Pilsen; (3) Schatzlar-Schwadowitz; (4) Budweis.

Only the first three are of importance, producing in 1907 61·4 per cent., 29 per cent., and 8·8 per cent. respectively of the Bohemian output.

(1) *Kladno* (near Prague) is the most important bituminous coal district of Bohemia. It measures 9 by 4½ km., and the best quality coal is found in the immediate neighbourhood of the town of Kladno. It is estimated that the quantity of coal in the Kladno basin is 104,000,000 tons,[1] which with a yearly output of 3,000,000 tons would last for about 35 years. (The actual quantity mined in 1907 was 2,986,891 tons.)

(2) *Pilsen*, including pits at *Radnitz* (*Radnic*), *Miröschau*, *Merklin*, and *Wranow*. In 1907, 1,408,154 tons were mined, chiefly from the main field at Pilsen.

(3) *Schatzlar-Schwadowitz*. This is a continuation of the Lower Silesian or Waldenburg basin. It is 40 by 35 km. in extent, but produces in all only 290,000 tons annually. Almost all of this is consumed in the neighbourhood.

The coal produced in Moravia is about 34 per cent. of the joint production of the two provinces. It is obtained at Mährisch-Ostrau and at Rossitz.

The Mährisch-Ostrau coal is of very high quality, but as the district forms part of the Ostrau-Karwin basin in Austrian Silesia, it is difficult to state the exact production in Moravia. A calculation based on the number of hands working in the Moravian and Silesian pits respectively places the output of the Moravian pits in this district at about 1,500,000 tons, or more than two-thirds of the whole output of Moravia.

Anthracite.—There are anthracite mines in Brandau. The output rose from 13,637 tons in 1900 to 38,457 tons in 1907. In the latter year, 99 per cent. of the output was exported.

Coke.—The whole Austrian output of coke, 2,057,900

[1] The reference throughout is to metric tons of 2,204·62 lb.

tons in 1911, is small compared with that of Germany, 21,000,000 tons in 1908. Of this, Moravia supplied 50·2 per cent. and Bohemia only 1·8 per cent.

Lignite.—The lignite in Bohemia is mainly produced in two districts: (1) Teplitz–Brüx–Komotau, and (2) Elbogen–Falkenau. Lignite is also found in the neighbourhood of Friedland and Reichenberg in north and of Budweis in south Bohemia, but in negligible quantities.

(1) *Teplitz–Brüx–Komotau.* The lignite district of north-west Bohemia is a narrow strip, 160 km. long, with its greatest breadth 25–30 km. between Komotau and Saaz. This is the largest, richest, and oldest lignite basin in Bohemia, and the most valuable portion of it is between Aussig and Komotau. In 1911 this district produced 17,090,500 tons.

(2) *Elbogen–Falkenau.* The output of this district was in 1911 only 3,694,000 tons. In 1907, 23 per cent. and 44 per cent. respectively were consumed near the pit mouths in these two basins. These large amounts are accounted for by the large number of factories, especially porcelain factories, in the neighbourhood of Elbogen and Falkenau. The prices ranged from 4·06 to 4·63 kn. per ton, and in 1911 65 per cent. of the production of these two basins was used in Bohemia and 35 per cent. was exported.

Lignite is found in south Moravia, in the Gaya–Göding–Lundenburg district; it is of very inferior quality, but the production has increased of late.

The following figures show the total lignite output in 1913 in metric tons: Austria (all), 27,378,300; Bohemia, 22,761,300; Moravia, 254,400. Bohemia's share was thus over 83 per cent. of the total for Austria.

Iron.—The iron ore production of Austria in 1911 was 2,927,000 tons, of which Bohemia and Moravia together produced 35 per cent. In comparison with

the 28,000,000 tons produced by Germany, this output is small. It is, indeed, insufficient to supply the amount of pig iron needed for home consumption.

Of the 1,757,800 tons of pig iron produced in the provinces of Austria in 1913, Bohemia accounted for 351,600 tons, and Moravia, although its output of iron ore is insignificant in comparison with that of Bohemia, for 520,900. The reason for the larger Moravian output is that the Moravian ironworks are nearer the coke supply, while the Bohemian works have to fetch their coal from Silesia at a heavy cost in freight. The Moravian works, however, have to import their iron ore from Sweden, Spain, and Hungary, to an even greater extent than the other ironworks of Austria, and this may account for the cost of production being 70 kn. per ton at Witkowitz, as against 66 kn. at Kladno.

In Bohemia the greatest production of iron ore is at Nučitz, and it is calculated that the deposits there will last for twenty years at the present rate of consumption. This ore is mined by the Prague Iron Industry Company, who take it to their steel and rolling works at Kladno.

The chief iron and steel companies in Bohemia and Moravia are:

The Prague Iron Industry Company (Vienna and Prague). Capital, 36,000,000 kn. Directorate chiefly German. Works at Kladno, Nučitz, and Teplitz. It has coke and coal in Silesia.

The Poldihütte Company at Kladno. Directorate chiefly German. Capital, 11,000,000 kn.

Libšič Ironworks Company, Prague. Chiefly German. Capital, 1,000,000 kn.

Zöptau and Stefanau Mining and Smelting Company (Moravia). Capital, 3,000,000 kn. German.

Graphite.—The graphite industry is an important one. In 1912 Austria produced graphite to the value

of 1,869,998 kn., and of this 59 per cent. came from Bohemia and Moravia. The mines are at Krumau (south of Budweis) in Bohemia and at Schwarzbach and Zöptau in Moravia.

Copper.—Most of the Austrian copper is produced at Salzburg, the Bohemian contribution being only 1·2 per cent. of the total. The Bohemian copper is extracted chiefly by the Copper Extraction Institute and Electrolytic Agency of the Witkowitz Ironworks.

Tin.—Of tin Bohemia in 1912 produced the whole of the Austrian output of 605 tons, a negligible quantity in comparison with the world's production of 116,000 tons, but a useful proportion of the 4,000 tons (chiefly supplied by Germany) which are used in Austria, largely in making tinware.

Precious and Rare Metals.—Of these Bohemia has a monopoly, producing all the Austrian gold, silver, wolfram, uranium, and radium.

Gold.—Gold is found in the districts of Prague and Kuttenberg, and also in the otherwise unimportant antimony mines in the Joachimsthal district. In 1910, the only gold mine working in Austria was at Roudny, near Prague. This produces, on the average, 30,000 tons of ore, valued at about 604,000 kn.

Silver.—Practically the whole output comes from the Imperial Silver Mines at Přibram. In 1912 they produced 21,793 tons of ore, valued at 4,076,705 kn.

Wolfram.—This metal is found at Schönfeld, south-west of Karlsbad. The output in 1912 was 65·9 metric tons, valued at 172,667 kn.

Uranium.—This is obtained from the pitchblende deposits at Joachimsthal, north of Karlsbad. In 1912 the output was 10·89 metric tons of ore, valued at 155,466 kn.

Mineral Waters.—Bohemia and Moravia have a large number of watering-places, the alkaline-saline waters of

Karlsbad and Marienbad and the iron waters of Marienbad being especially famous. As the subjoined figures show, Bohemia and Moravia between them account for more than a quarter of the Austrian 'cure' industry.

	No. of Watering-places.	*No. of Visitors,* 1912.
Bohemia	37	154,967
Moravia	11	8,934
All Austria	188	579,150

In 1912 the number of visitors to the leading watering-places was as follows: Karlsbad, 68,269; Marienbad, 34,509; Franzensbad, 15,376; Teplitz-Schönau, 7,776; Luhatschowitz (near Brünn), 6,626.

As can be seen, Karlsbad easily takes the first place. In this town there are two hotel companies with capitals of 4,000,000 and 3,000,000 marks respectively, one of which paid a dividend of 15 per cent. in 1911.

Kaolin, cement, &c., are dealt with below under the heading 'Manufacture'.

The following table illustrates the importance of the chief mineral products of Bohemia and Moravia in 1912:

Description of Mineral.	*Value in kronen of the production of Austria.*	*Value in kronen of the production of Bohemia.*	*Value in kronen of the production of Moravia.*	*Percentage of the Austrian output (as estimated in kronen) produced in Bohemia and Moravia.*
Coal . . .	162,600,453	45,991,563	24,207,536	43
Lignite . .	141,045,962	103,189,999	944,899	73·8
Iron . . .	27,364,903	12,280,102	31,334	45
Gold . . .	603,840	603,840	—	100
Silver . . .	4,076,705	4,076,705	—	100
Quicksilver . .	2,882,630	—	—	—
Copper . .	1,668,525	19,800	—	1·2
Lead . . .	6,567,943	61,336	—	0·9
Uranium . .	155,466	155,466	—	100
Zinc . . .	2,887,256	93,333	—	3·2
Tin . . .	110,309	110,309	—	100
Antimony . .	23,500	1,000	—	4·2
Wolfram . .	172,667	172,667	—	100
Sulphur . .	213,040	33,458	—	15
Manganese . .	157,191	—	—	—
Graphite . .	1,869,998	527,553	587,078	59
Asphalt . .	145,143	—	—	—

(4) Manufactures

In this section the industries for which the raw materials are provided by Bohemia and Moravia, viz. sugar, beer, spirits, paper, porcelain, glass, and cement, are placed first. After these are given the industries that depend largely on imported raw or semi-manufactured materials, viz. textiles, clothing, gloves, chemicals, and machines.

The cultivation of sugar-beet and the production of raw kaolin, though not manufactures, have been treated here in close connexion with the sugar and porcelain industries, for which they supply the raw materials.

The total number of factories in Austria in 1913 was 17,034; of these, 6,512 were in Bohemia and 1,729 in Moravia.

Sugar

In 1911 Bohemia and Moravia produced respectively 60 per cent. and 30 per cent. of the total Austrian output of sugar, and in 1912 52·3 per cent. and 33·2 per cent. In 1912, of the total number of hands employed in Austria on sugar-making, 55·5 per cent. were in Bohemia and 33·2 per cent. in Moravia. The absolute figures of international production show that in 1912 Moravia produced approximately the same amount of sugar as Hungary, while Bohemia and Moravia together produced 2·8 times as much as Hungary, or about the same amount as France and 33 per cent. of the output of Germany. These proportions vary considerably from year to year.

The deep ploughing on the large sugar estates is mostly done by cable ploughs with 5 to 8 shares apiece. It was suggested in 1911 that petrol-driven tractors

would be more serviceable, as they are light, and would not pack the ground as they pass over it.

The greatest care is taken to obtain the best stock of beet for planting. At establishments at Rostok and Uholicky the sugar-beet is cleaned and dried for export, and beet-seeds are tested. More than 30,000 bags of this seed are sold annually, about two-thirds of which are exported.[1] The laboratories at Uholicky are on a fine farm of 800 acres. At the Wohanka farms two varieties of beet are produced: (1) that which yields the greatest possible percentage of sugar per unit of weight, and (2) that which yields the largest percentage of sugar per hectare. In a two years' test Bohemia was found to produce per hectare 796·4 lb. more sugar than Germany, 1,302 lb. more than Belgium, 1,826 more than the remainder of Austria, 1,986 more than Holland, 2,776 more than France, and 6,173 more than Russia.

The by-products are of great value. Of the 149,500 tons of molasses produced in Austria in 1911, 106,500 were used in Austrian distilleries, while 23,700 tons were used as fodder in Bohemia and 11,000 in Moravia.

The shredded residue of the sugar-beets is returned from the sugar-mills to the farmers, who generally pack it in long trenches, cover it with earth, and later use it for feeding. But some of the refuse is used as manure.

The following table gives the number of sugar factories in Bohemia in 1913 and their distribution. It may be noted that the Prague district takes the lead, and that the other centres are all in the

[1] It may be noted that all Austria sent to Germany annually on the average in the years 1909–13 more than 11,000 quintals of sugar-beet seeds, but imported annually from Germany nearly nine times this amount.

northern half of Bohemia and all within some 70 km. of Prague.

Financial District.	*No. of Beet-sugar factories.*	*Metric tons of sugar produced (refined and raw) in terms of raw sugar.*
Časlau	16	95,300
Chrudim	11	63,400
Jičin	25	190,700
Komotau	7	58,600
Königgrätz	9	46,200
Leitmeritz	3	22,600
Prague	39	315,100
Total	110	791,900

The actual amount of refined sugar produced in Bohemia in 1913 was 432,919 metric tons, and the average annual production of raw and refined sugar for the period 1903–12 (expressed as above in terms of raw sugar) was 566,420·5 metric tons.

The financial interests of the sugar industry are naturally very great. There are in Bohemia and Moravia 67 joint-stock companies for the production and refining of sugar, with a combined capital of 100,417,700 kn. Of these, seven large companies (whose interests and factories are not confined to Bohemia and Moravia), with a capital of 38,600,000 kn., have a German (i.e. German-Austrian) directorate and their head-quarters at Vienna; nine, with a capital of 14,600,000 kn., have a German or chiefly German directorate; the remaining 51, with a capital of 47,217,700 kn., are conducted by Czechs.

Beer and Spirits

Beer.—Although Austria-Hungary produces only one-eleventh of the German and one-quarter of the British yearly output of beer, the quality of Austrian beer is so good, and such considerable quantities are exported even to Germany, that for Austria, and in particular for Bohemia, the industry is an important one.

In 1911 the Austrian output of beer was 22,729,000 hl. Of this Bohemia supplied 47·22 per cent. and Moravia 8·82 per cent. The total production of beer in 1913 was: in Austria 21,081,000 hectolitres (1 hl. = 22 gall.); in Bohemia 9,994,000 hl.; and in Moravia 1,559,000 hl. The total production of Pilsen in 1915 was 1,452,555 hl., and of Prague, 1,055,100 hl. 'Pilsener' beer is, however, a generic term; and the light beers for which Austria is famous are brewed in many other towns.

Of the four Austrian breweries with a yearly output of more than 500,000 hl., two are in Bohemia—the Bürgerliche Brauerei at Pilsen with a yearly output of 970,000 hl., and the brewery at Smichow (Prague) with one of 617,000 hl. In addition to these there are 19 large breweries in Bohemia and 11 in Moravia. The great majority, large and small, appear to have Czech directorates and staffs.

Spirits.—In Bohemia every large estate has a distillery upon it, and in 1910 there were 425 distilleries of some importance. In that year the Austrian production of spirits was 1,551,159 hl., of which Bohemia and Moravia supplied 35 per cent. Bohemia, with 377,077 hl., produced more spirit than any other province except Galicia, with 729,991 hl. In 1913 the figures for spirits were: Austria (all), 1,619,000 hl.; Bohemia, 465,000 hl.; and Moravia, 194,000 hl. The largest distilleries in Bohemia and Moravia use molasses, though potatoes are used in Bohemia in the Tabor and Deutsch-Brod districts, and in Moravia in the Iglau district. It is from potatoes that the large output of Galicia is produced.

Paper

Notwithstanding Hertz's strictures (see below, p. 90), the production of paper in Austria-Hungary is con-

siderable, as shown by the following figures for the world output in 1910:

	Metric Tons.
United States of America	2,903,700
Germany	1,350,700
United Kingdom	866,100
France	604,900
Austria-Hungary	361,900

Of the Austro-Hungarian output of paper Bohemia and Moravia produced 29 per cent., of paper-board 42·2 per cent., and of pulp and cellulose 20 per cent., or 30 per cent. of all paper and paper material. Of the two provinces Bohemia has a far greater output than Moravia, the proportion being about eight to one.

Paper and pulp mills have been established in the vicinity of the forests in the more mountainous regions of Bohemia, but they are also distributed throughout the country. There are paper and wood-pulp factories at Arnau and Gutsmuth in the Riesengebirge, at Brünn, Prague, Kienberg, and Ollerschau. The Neusiedl Joint Stock Company for paper manufacture has a large paper-mill at Pilsen, and the cellulose for its mill at Neusiedl, near Vienna, is supplied by the Austrian Association for Cellulose Manufacture from its factory at Rattimau near Mährisch-Ostrau.

Porcelain and Glass

The porcelain and glass industries are among the most important of north and west Bohemia. In 1913 the capital of the large firms engaged in these industries and in the production and refining of kaolin was 28,150,000 kn. The directorate of these companies was almost entirely German.

Kaolin.—The porcelain industry owes its existence to the deposits of kaolin in the Zettlitz–Karlsbad

district and in the neighbourhood of Kaaden, Pomeisl, and Wildstein. This is considered one of the best china clays in the world.

In 1910 the Zettlitz–Karlsbad district alone produced 170,000 tons of raw kaolin. Of the refined resultant 43,000 tons were used by the china industry and 8,000 tons by the paper manufacturers. Thirty-eight thousand tons of raw kaolin were exported yearly to Germany, Russia, Italy, and the United States.

The market is largely controlled by the Zettlitz Kaolin Works Company, with a capital of 7,500,000 kn. The price of refined kaolin remains fairly constant at 64 kn. per ton. There is also a Kaolin Convention of the Podersam and Pomeisl firms engaged in the industry, and a Sales Bureau at Dresden controlled by the Middle Europe Kaolin Works.

Porcelain.—The manufacture of porcelain is located in the smaller towns and villages of west Bohemia, and especially in the Eger valley, between Elbogen and Teplitz. These factories are near deposits of kaolin and coal. Local bituminous coal is used for power, and the kilns are fired with lignite from Brüx. In the Karlsbad district there were, in 1910, 47 factories employing 1,500 hands.

Glass.—The position of Bohemia and Moravia in the glass production of the world may to some extent be judged from such a typical branch of the industry as the manufacture of bottles. The annual production of the world before the war was some 1,430,000,000. Of this total Germany produced 430,000,000, England 305,000,000, and Austria 160,000,000. The output of Austria was thus 11·2 per cent. of the whole; and, as Bohemia and Moravia together accounted for 79·7 per cent. of the Austrian glass production, these two provinces were probably responsible for about 9 per cent. of the bottles of the world.

The different branches of glass manufacture are to some extent confined to definite localities:

Sheet Glass is made at Teplitz, Prague, Bilin, and Neusattl. Its manufacture is controlled by a syndicate, which acts in combination with the Bohemian Union Bank.

Mirror Glass is made at Pilsen, Hartmanitz, and Josefsthal.

Bottles are produced at Prague, Teplitz, Aussig, and Neusattl. The manufacture is regulated by a combine of nine large firms in Bohemia, lower Austria, Styria, and Hungary, the Bohemian firms being located in the above-mentioned towns. The combine produced the whole Austrian yearly output, valued at 24,000,000 kronen.

Glass Beads, Buttons, and Imitation Jewellery are made at and near Gablonz: in this town at least 1,976 hands are employed in the industry.

Decorated and Coloured Glass is produced in the Haida and Steinschönau district, where 130 small firms have combined to regulate output and prices.

The following table illustrates the large part played by Bohemia in the glass-making industry:

	No. of Factories in 1910.	*No. of hands employed.*
Austria	933	40,489
Lower Austria	66	3,264
Salzburg	9	989
Bohemia	800	28,273
Moravia	26	5,371
Styria	11	1,656
Trieste	4	301
Galicia	17	625

Cement

In 1911 Bohemia's output of Portland cement, 230,000 tons, was larger than that of any other

individual province, and represented 17·3 per cent. of the 1,330,000 tons produced by Austria.

The most important works are in the neighbourhood of Prague, where some 800 hands are engaged in the industry. The export of this Portland cement is considerable, and is growing.

Textile Industries

Cotton.—In 1902, 57 per cent. of the Austrian cotton spindles were in Bohemia, and, in 1913, 84 per cent. of the Austrian cotton mills were in Bohemia and Moravia. In 1913 the number of cotton spindles in Austria was one-eighth of those in the United Kingdom and nearly half of those in Germany. Bohemia and Moravia represent about 60 per cent. of the Austrian production; but taking the consumption of raw cotton as a standard, the pre-war output (1911–12–13) of the two provinces was one-eighth of that of the United Kingdom, rather more than a quarter of that of Germany and half that of France. On the other hand, it was twice that of Belgium, five times that of Switzerland, and ten times that of Hungary.

In Bohemia cotton is manufactured in the north from Asch in the west to Königinhof in the east. The great centre of the industry is the Warnsdorf district, not far from Zittau and near the boundary of North Bohemia and Prussian Silesia. Of the 1,119 mills in Bohemia 62 are in Warnsdorf alone, eleven of which employ 3,250 hands. The largest works, however, are in Prague, where 11 out of the 45 mills employ 12,800 hands. Among the other large mills are one at Neustadt with 4,500 hands, one at Braunau with 2,800, and one at Böhmisch-Trübau with 2,400 hands. The three largest concerns are at Horitz, Turmitz, and Prague, with share capitals of 500,000 kn., 500,000 kn., and

3,000,000 kn. respectively, the last being the most highly capitalized cotton concern in Austria.

Of the 231 mills in Moravia 40 are at Zwittau, where five firms employ 1,900 hands, 33 are at Mährisch-Rothenau and 21 at Sternberg. Mährisch-Schönberg has two large mills with 3,100 hands.

Woollens.—In the woollen industry, in 1902, 58 per cent. of the Austrian looms were in Bohemia and Moravia, and in 1913 59 per cent. of the Austrian woollen mills were in these two provinces. The mills of Austria-Hungary use yearly only one quarter of the amount of wool consumed in Germany and one-sixth of that consumed in the United Kingdom, but their business is large relatively to those of Switzerland, Rumania, Greece, and Asia Minor. The mills of Bohemia and Moravia account for at least 50 per cent. of the Austro-Hungarian consumption.

Of the 676 woollen mills in Austria, 246 are in Bohemia and 154 in Moravia. The manufacture of woollen goods is carried on in the Reichenberg–Kratzau district on the Saxon frontier of Bohemia, but its chief seat is at Brünn in Moravia, where there are 59 mills, of which 14 employ 14,700 hands. In Bohemia, Reichenberg has 39 mills (4 with 520 hands each), Hunpoletz 14 (3 with 720 hands each), and Asch 12 (2 with 700 hands each). In Eger there are two factories each with 1,000 hands. Niemes, Böhmisch-Aicha, and Neudek have each one mill, employing 4,500, 4,500, and 2,000 hands respectively.

Some branches of the industry are located as follows :

Woollen yarn is spun at Husinetz ; flannel is made at Leipnik and Jungbunzlau ; fine cloth is made at Prossnitz ; and weaving and yarn spinning are carried on extensively at Brünn. Fezes, which have a large sale in the East, are made at Strakonitz, Husinetz, and Pisek.

Carpets are made in Reichenberg and the Eger district, and were exported largely to Great Britain, France, Germany, and Russia. A special industry is that of oriental prayer-carpets, which are made from chenille thread in the villages as a home industry. On account of their bright colouring and low price they are in great demand in Cairo, Alexandria, Smyrna, and other places in the Levant.

Linen.—The manufacture of Bohemian linens has reached a perfection which makes them world renowned. There are large weaving-mills, some employing as many as 1,000 hands, at Eipel, Hohenelbe, Mährisch-Schönberg, Starkenbach, and Zwittau.

Flax-spinning is also a flourishing industry and is largely dependent on the home production of flax. (In 1913 Bohemia and Moravia produced 59·6 per cent. of the flax fibre grown in Austria.) At Trautenau, 5,000 out of a population of 14,000 are engaged in flax-spinning; at Grottau there is a spinning-mill with 1,000 hands.

Lace.—Bohemian lace is in considerable request, and is made both by machine and by hand. Machine embroidery and lace is made by automatic shuttle machines in Graslitz, Neudek, Weipert, and Asch. Hand embroidery, including old-fashioned crochet embroidery, is made in the villages near these towns. Much machine-made lace is sent from the Erzgebirge factories to be finished by hand in the Bohemian Forest (on the borders of Bavaria), where cheaper labour is to be found. Before the war the number of hand lace-workers in the villages of the Bohemian Forest and other districts was estimated to be 30,000. Much lace was exported to the United States and elsewhere. It is frequently sold as Belgian, French, or Italian.

Ready-made Clothing.—It is computed that Prossnitz

in Moravia produces one-half of the output of ready-made clothes in Austria. It has 44 factories with at least 2,700 hands employed (one factory with 1,000 hands).

Gloves.—This industry has existed in Bohemia for many years; even in 1800 as many as 16,000 dozen pairs of gloves were produced in Prague. Latterly the manufacture has increased greatly. In 1908 the Bohemian glove-makers made 1,500,000 dozen pairs, valued at 30,000,000 kn.

Prague is the chief centre of the industry, supplying two-thirds of the total output of Bohemia. In 1900 there were in that city, engaged in the glove trade, 733 tanners, 2,500 sewers, and 572 dyers. The remainder of the Bohemian gloves are made in the Erzegebirge near Joachimsthal.

Glove-making in Bohemia (particularly in the Erzgebirge district) is largely a home industry, and the miserable wage paid to home workers in that country has facilitated competition with goods produced in Great Britain and the United States.

Chemical Industry

In 1911 Austria imported chemicals to the extent of 226,662 tons net. It is not possible to give exact figures for the consumption or production of raw chemical material or of chemical manufactured products in Bohemia and Moravia, but it may be taken that at least half of the consumption of raw material and the production of manufactured chemicals should be assigned to these two provinces. For the raw materials themselves Bohemia and Moravia depend largely on other provinces or other countries.

Austria is fortunate in having at Kalusz in Galicia some deposits of *kainit*, a natural salt containing

23 per cent. of sulphate of potash (equal to 12½ per cent. of pure potash) and 30 per cent. of common salt. Though small, these deposits have a special value for Bohemia and Moravia. It must be remembered that it is for roots in particular that potash is desirable as a manure, and that both sugar-beet and fodder-beet are among the most valuable crops in these two provinces, which possess no deposits of their own of either kainit or salt. Of salt, Austria imported in 1910 210,095 tons, of which 96,276 tons came from Germany. Bohemia and Moravia are thus dependent on the other provinces of Austria or upon Germany for an article which they greatly need.

Particular chemical industries are located in Bohemia and Moravia as follows:

Sulphuric Acid and other chemicals at Aussig, where there is a large factory employing 6,000 hands.

Artificial Manures are made by firms at Kolin, Peček (near Poděbrad), Budweis, and Neu-Erlaa. These firms are controlled by Czechs.

Matches are made at Brünn and Budweis, and this industry also is controlled by Czechs.

Potash is treated on a large scale at Kolin.

The Austrian Union for Chemical Production has factories in Aussig, Kralup, Nestowitz, and Hruschau (Austrian Silesia). It is controlled by German-Austrians, but does business chiefly in Bohemia.

The Chemical Industry Company has factories in Bohemia at Klein Tessowitz, Vysocan, and Aussig.

Machinery

The machine industry of Bohemia and Moravia is an important one. It supplies the greater part of the Austrian demand, and exports considerable quantities to other countries. The industry is established in many

of the leading towns, but more particularly in Prague and its suburbs and in the Brünn district. These two centres supply most of the railway, sugar, and textile plant used in Austria.

The manufacture of motor-cars has improved steadily, and good cars are made by firms at Prague, Reichenberg, and Jungbunzlau, the latter town supplying cars to Montenegro. Many factories in Bohemia and Moravia are making motors for industrial purposes.

While some of the larger works (including the Skoda Ordnance Works at Pilsen) are under German-Austrian control, machine-making is on the whole a Czech industry.

The following figures give the approximate number of hands employed in the machine and metal industry in various towns: Prague, 28,400; Pilsen, 13,000, of which 10,000 are in the Skoda Ordnance Works; Brünn, 6,500; Gablonz, 2,500; Budweis, 2,200; Mährisch-Ostrau, 2,050.

The various branches of the industry are distributed as follows:

Locomotives and Railway Plant. Prague, Aussig, Stauding (Mährisch-Ostrau), Pilsen, Kolin.

Electrical Plant. Prague.

Sugar Machinery. Prague, Brünn (and district), Blansko, Schlan, Aussig, Karolinenthal.

Brewing Machinery. Prague.

Textile Machinery. Brünn and district, Prague.

Enamelled Iron and Iron-ware. Prague, Brünn, Naschwitz, Budweis, Friedland (north of Reichenberg), Olmütz.

High-class Shot Guns and Cartridges. Prague.

Sewing Machines. Prague.

Machines and Motors. Prerau, Prossnitz, Jungbunzlau, Reichenberg, Blansko.

Wire Nails and Screws. Saaz.
Ordnance. Pilsen.
Machinery for making Cheap Jewellery. Gablonz.

(5) Trade Combinations and Cartels

In Austria the development of trade combinations has been very marked, though for various reasons, among which are the hostility of the courts to the movement and the heavy tax on corporations, which has tended to discourage the amalgamation of private firms, their number has always been much smaller than in Germany. The most successful as well as the earliest combine was the iron cartel, while up to the date of the Brussels Convention the sugar cartel was very powerful.

Individual industries are organized as follows:

Wood Industry.—In 1908 the wood-merchants and saw-mill owners of the Reichenberg district established a control bureau of their industry at the Reichenberg branch of the Oesterreichische Kredit-Anstalt.

Iron Industry.—The Austrian iron industry is regulated by a cartel. This originated in 1886, in a combine of the Teplitz Rolling Mills and Bessemer Furnaces, the Bohemian Mining Company, and the Witkowitz Mining and Iron Furnace Company. In 1901 the chief Austrian works, and, in particular, the Prague Iron Industry Company, the Bohemian Mining Company, the Witkowitz Mining Company, and the works of the Erzherzog Friedrich syndicated themselves on the basis of a new cartel. This has an executive committee (German-Austrian) in Vienna. Its total output of iron, railway material, rails, sheet-metal, &c., supplied in Austria, was, in 1911, 750,800,000 metric tons.

As the manufacture of iron is protected artificially

by an import duty, and naturally by the cost of land or river carriage to the interior, the trade is very profitable to the manufacturers. On the whole, however, Austria will remain a buyer of iron rather than a seller.

Graphite Industry.—In 1907, the Prague branch of the Credit Bank arranged a combine for the sale of Austrian graphite, and came to an understanding with the talc and graphite companies of Val Chisone in Pinerolo (Province of Turin) to protect their common interests. Two-thirds of the Austrian output is under the control of this trust.

Sugar Industry.—Since 1891 a series of cartels have controlled the price and the sale of sugar. In Austria a cartel of the sugar refineries was formed in 1891. This proved insufficient, and during the years 1898–1903 a cartel of the combined refiners and sugar producers was in existence, and thoroughly organized the conditions of production. In 1903 the new conditions imposed by the Brussels Convention brought the existing Austrian cartel to an end, and a new cartel came into being in 1906. Included in it were 22 refineries divided into three groups: (1) the Bohemian; (2) the Moravian, Silesian, and Lower Austrian; and (3) the Przeworsk (Galicia) factories.

Now that bounties are practically abolished and the operations of the cartels limited, the value of beet-sugar as a profit-winning product depends mainly on the cost of production. In this respect it has to compete not only with cane sugar, but with cereals as well. Thus, though it can hold its own with cane sugar, the area devoted to it in Bohemia has not increased owing to the good prices obtainable for cereals.

Brewing and Distilling.—An Imperial Defence Organization of the Austrian Brewing Industries was founded in 1910. There is also a Defence League of

the Bohemian Breweries (embracing 350 breweries) and a Union of Brünn Breweries. There is a Union of Agricultural Distilleries at Prague. This controls the sale of the agricultural distilleries in Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, and Lower Austria. It is financed by the Länderbank and the Zivnoštenska Banká. In 1911 a Spirit Cartel was organized by the Kredit-Anstalt in conjunction with the Zivnoštenska Bank to regulate the production of spirits in Austria (not including Galicia and the Bukovina). Its head-quarters are at Prague.

Cotton Industry.—This industry is well organized and is controlled by the Combine of Austro-Hungarian Cotton Spinners, the Export and Sale Union of Austrian and Hungarian Cotton Spinners, the Union of Cotton Ribbon Makers of Austria-Hungary, represented in Bohemia by factories at Schönau, Nixdorf, and Hainspach, and the Union of the Makers of Warnsdorf Goods, a combine of cotton goods makers in Warnsdorf, Rumburg, Schönlinde, Böhmisch-Kamnitz, Kreibitz, and Niedergrund.

Woollen Industry.—There is a Union of Woven Goods Manufacturers of Asch, Haslau, Fleissen, Schönlinde, and Iglau, financed by the Länderbank of Prague, and also a Combine of Moravian Knitted Goods and Stocking Makers which includes firms at Iglau, Deutsch-Brod, Asch, Pilgram, and Jägerndorf (Austrian Silesia).

Glass, China, and Enamelled Ware Industries.—There is a Cartel of Bohemian Sheet-Glass Manufacturers, controlled by the Union Bank of Bohemia. It was reorganized in 1911, when some firms in other provinces of Austria were admitted. There is also a Cartel of Looking-Glass Manufacturers, with head-quarters at Pilsen; a Union of the North-Bohemian Glass Manufacturers of Haida and Steinschönau, with head-quarters at Haida; a Union of the Austro-Hungarian

Bottle Manufacturers (to which the large firms in Aussig, Prague, Teplitz, and Neusattl belong), controlled by the Union Bank of Bohemia; a Convention of the Austrian Porcelain Manufacturers, with head-quarters at Karlsbad, to which 28 of the largest firms belong; and a Household Crockery Cartel, which in 1908 entered into an agreement with the German China Manufacturers to regulate the export to the United States and Canada. There is also an Austrian Cartel of Enamelled Ware Makers, which includes the Bohemian makers and is affiliated to a large Union of European Enamelled Wares Works with an export bureau at Berlin.

Chemical Industry.—The two chief cartels for the regulation of chemical industry have their head-quarters in Bohemia. The Cartel for Artificial Manure has offices at Prague and at Budapest; while the Sulphuric Acid Cartel has branches at Aussig, Hruschau, and Kolin, and is controlled by the Union Bank of Bohemia.

Nitrate Combine.—The large Austrian and Hungarian nitrate concerns, viz., the contemplated joint-stock company (to be financed by the Kredit-Gesellschaft) for exploiting the water-power of Dalmatia, the nitrate works established in Falkenau by the Aussig Chemical Association and the Buschtěhrad Railway, the Austrian works established in Styria by the Prague Iron Industry, the Escomptegesellschaft, the Deposit Bank, the Dynamit Nobel, and the Hungarian Nitrate Fertilizers Industry Company (closely connected with the Hungarian Natural Gas Company), were to be combined (1918) under the auspices of the Government in a 'sale and price' organization for the sale of artificial fertilizers.

Machine Factories.—The Union of the Austrian Machine Factories, with head-quarters at Prague, includes the chief Bohemian and Moravian firms.

(C) COMMERCE

(*a*) *Organizations for promoting Trade*

In Bohemia there are Chambers of Commerce at Prague, Pilsen, Budweis, Reichenberg, and Eger; in Moravia at Brünn and Olmütz.

(*b*) *Exports and Imports*

Only in the case of certain articles is it possible to give figures for the exports and imports from and to Bohemia and Moravia, for the official statistics deal with Austria or Austria-Hungary as a whole. The two provinces are, however, of such importance both as regards manufactures and raw materials, that it is worth while to notice the figures for some of those commodities for which no special figures of Bohemia and Moravia are available. Probably no provinces of the Dual Monarchy have been more affected, for instance, by such facts as the depression of the cotton industry (which up to 1912 had been fairly prosperous) [1] owing to the Balkan War and the extended credit demanded by Serbia, Bulgaria, and Rumania; or the loss by Austrian distillers since 1900 of their leading place in the world's markets owing to the prohibitive import duties applied by Spain and Japan, to the competition of Russia and Rumania for the Levantine trade, and to German competition in Austria itself.

In at least one particular Bohemia has suffered through the ease of exportation. It has been com-

[1] Bohemia and Moravia supply about half the textiles exported from Austria-Hungary. The net export of cotton goods in 1911 from Austria-Hungary was of the value of 108,835,000 kn., though cotton goods to the value of 10,605,000 kn. were imported from Germany, and to about a third of that amount from France and the United Kingdom together. The best customers of Austria-Hungary were Switzerland, European Turkey, and Rumania, whose purchases respectively cost 52,891,000, 15,742,000, and 14,281,000 kn.

plained[1] that the export of wood down the Elbe and Moldau and along the chief railways, where it is favoured by cheap rates, has been excessive, and that it was worked up by Germany and Italy, whereas Austria ought to use more of her raw and semi-raw material in her own paper factories. Indeed in 1913 Austria exported 22,000,000 kn. value of wood-pulp and cellulose, which were afterwards reimported into the country, largely from Saxony and in spite of heavy protective duties, in the form of paper and other manufactured goods.

The freightage on the Elbe is so cheap that Bohemian lignite can compete with German fuel at a considerable distance from the frontier. Thus in 1907, 2,026,196 tons, or 22·97 per cent. of the total lignite exports of Bohemia, were transported down the Elbe.

Again, of the total Austrian production of sugar in 1911, 229,629 tons were conveyed down the Elbe to the Bohemian frontier (see under *Sugar* below).

The other main channel for the exports of these two provinces, particularly those of Moravia, is the route by rail to Trieste. Whereas only a small portion of the Bohemian output of coal was exported *via* Trieste, for Moravia the rail route to Trieste came more naturally into competition with the water route to Hamburg. Thus, in 1911, Moravia exported 28 per cent. of its sugar production by Trieste, Bohemia only 11·8 per cent. When the canal scheme mentioned above (p. 46) makes it possible to use the Danube as an artery of their commerce, it may be safely anticipated that the trade of these two provinces with south-eastern Europe will be very greatly stimulated.

The figures given for the exports and imports of the following articles refer to Bohemia only, or to

[1] See Friedrich Hertz, *Die Produktionsgrundlagen der oesterreichischen Industrie vor und nach dem Kriege.* 1st Ed. Vienna, 1917.

Bohemia and Moravia jointly, except in the cases of porcelain and glass, of which nevertheless the export from provinces other than Bohemia and Moravia was very small, of sugar and beer, which similarly came almost entirely from these two provinces, and of graphite, of which 65 per cent. of the Austrian production came from Bohemia and Moravia.

Hops and Fruit.—Bohemian hops were in great demand for export to all the principal countries. Germany, in spite of a high import duty, was the chief customer, taking hops to the value of 13,941 kn. in 1911, the United States coming next with an import of 4,537 kn. in value.

The chief export of fruit was to Germany. Plums and other stone fruit were sent by rail and river to Berlin, Hamburg, Dresden, and other large towns. Dessert fruits, packed in baskets, were exported in large quantities to Russia (expecially to Moscow and Petrograd), and also to Norway and Sweden; dried plums were sent to the United Kingdom. The centre of the export trade was Lobositz on the Elbe, in the district of greatest fertility. In 1912 (a remarkably good year) 26,374 metric tons of fresh and preserved fruits were sent down the Elbe to the Bohemian frontier for export.

Coal and Lignite.—The industries of Bohemia have not used the native lignite as much as they might have done, but have preferred to use coal, chiefly imported from upper and lower Silesia. From Prussian Silesia in 1913 Bohemia took 833,000 tons; Moravia also took large quantities, 338,081 tons going to Brünn, Olmütz, Prerau, and Mährisch-Ostrau. The north Bohemian lignite, in comparison with the German, is more compact, contains less water, and has a higher caloric value. It has, therefore, been largely exported to Germany. Latterly, however, there has been a

tendency to use more of it at home. In 1880, 3,163,640 tons, or 51 per cent. of the total production, were exported; in 1907 the figure was 8,820,897 tons, but this was only 40 per cent. of the total production, and by 1911 only some 35 per cent. of the output of the two main fields was being sent abroad. The decline in the export of lignite is largely due to the following reasons: (1) the depth of the workings in Bohemia is on the average much greater than in Germany, with the result that the Bohemian lignite is dearer to produce than, and therefore cannot compete with, the German; (2) new railway lines have been constructed, which make it easier to convey Bohemian lignite to central and northern Bohemia for home consumption; (3) the tariffs on the German railways are lower than in Bohemia.

The demand for coal, whether imported or not, is bound to be very large in these two provinces. It is to be noted that considerably more fuel is used in sugar factories than in blast furnaces; and while an increased demand for fuel in the sugar factories might be satisfied by an increased supply of home lignite, a similar demand by blast furnaces would have to be met by an increased import of coke. As it is, Bohemia has to import a considerable quantity of coke for her own use, both from Moravia and from Germany.

Of the small quantity of lignite briquettes produced in Bohemia, the greater part is exported to Germany; but it will be difficult for this to compete with German briquettes, since German lignite is easy to use in its raw condition and needs no binding material, whereas Bohemian lignite will not bind well unless some binding material is added, and this process substantially increases the expense of making briquettes.

Iron.—For use in Bohemian and Moravian ironworks large quantities of iron ore were imported from Sweden, Spain, and Hungary before the war.

Graphite.—The export went to Germany, Switzerland, England, Russia, France, Belgium, and America.

Sugar.—In 1911 Bohemia and Moravia produced 90 per cent. of the Austrian output of sugar,[1] and 63 per cent. of the total output from Austria-Hungary. In the year named Austria-Hungary exported 674,800 tons of sugar out of a total production of 1,523,000 tons. Her largest individual customers were the United Kingdom, Turkey (European and Asiatic), and Switzerland. The Balkan States, Egypt, and Italy also took considerable quantities.

Beer.—In 1910 there was an export from Austria-Hungary of 10,686,800 hectolitres or 17,298,690 barrels of beer. The chief countries importing from Austria-Hungary were:

	Value in kronen.
Belgium	297,000
Egypt	540,000
Germany	7,506,000
Italy	1,114,000
Netherlands	265,000
Switzerland	474,000
United States	1,744,000

It may be assumed that a very large proportion of this was 'Pilsener' beer from Bohemia and Moravia.

Gloves.—There was a large export of gloves from Bohemia, chiefly to Great Britain, Germany, and the United States. In 1900 gloves to the value of 23,013,500 kn. were exported from Bohemia to Germany and Great Britain, Germany taking more than half. In 1910 ladies'-gloves to the value of 900,420 kn. were exported to the United States.

China and Glass.—In Austria the manufacture of china is almost entirely confined to Bohemia, and therefore the Austrian exports of porcelain given in the table below may be taken as statistics of the Bohemian trade. It will be seen from the table

[1] And in 1913 nearly 92 per cent.

that the export of decorated porcelain was much larger than that of white porcelain, and that the largest customer in 1910 was Great Britain, which imported 82 per cent. of the total taken by Germany and the United States together.

	White Porcelain.	*Decorated Porcelain.*
	Tons.	Tons.
Asiatic Turkey	219	—
Australia	—	582
Dutch Indies	604	—
Germany	772	2,355
Great Britain	224	4,245
Italy	278	—
Rumania	273	633
United States	174	2,134
Other countries	988	2,416
Hamburg (for export)	205	1,081
Total	3,737	13,446

The Bohemian glass industry often suffers from depression, owing to severe competition with Germany and Belgium, in which countries manufacturers have the advantages of cheaper inland freights and raw materials, while taxes and other expenses are lower. Japan also is trying to oust the Gablonz manufacturers of glass jewellery from the Indian market. Yet in 1913 the sale of glass goods, as shown by the figures below, was not unsatisfactory. These goods were exported from Austria as follows:

	Value in kronen.
To Balkan States	2,030,000
To British India	8,627,500
To Germany	6,090,000
To Turkey	2,030,000
To United Kingdom	8,112,000
To United States	2,500,000
To Hamburg (for export)	12,180,000
Total	41,569,500

Machinery.—The United Kingdom supplied Bohemia with a considerable amount of textile machinery, while certain kinds of agricultural machinery were supplied in the past by the United States and Canada; in 1911 practically all the harvesting machines came from the

United States. By 1913 the local manufacturers were imitating American mowing and reaping machines and making keen competition.

On the other hand, Canada gave orders to Bohemia for beet-sugar machinery; sugar-making plant was supplied to Italy and Rumania; dynamos were supplied from Prague to the United Kingdom (London, Middlesbrough, Newport, Dublin) and Tasmania; and trucks, tramcars, and locomotives were exported to Italy, Germany, Rumania, Serbia, and Turkey.

(D) FINANCE

(1) Public Finance

The Imperial Revenue and Expenditure for 1912 was as follows:—

Revenue.	*Kronen.*	*Expenditure.*	*Kronen.*
Total Ordinary Revenue	3,006,085,000	Total Ordinary Expenditure	2,778,203,000
Extraordinary Revenue	167,224,000	Extraordinary Expenditure	406,158,000
Total Revenue	3 173,309,000	Total Expenditure	3,184,361,000

Of the total revenue, direct taxes amounted to 408,083,000 kn., and indirect taxes (customs, excise, &c.) to 1,435,561,000 kn.

While education, commerce, and national defence are markedly heavy items of expenditure, by far the heaviest is the railways. On these the expenditure rose from 266,370,000 kn. in 1906 to 649,810,000 kn. in 1912; while during the same years the expenditure on agriculture only rose from 50,654,000 kn. to 51,138,000 kn. The large expenditure on railways is due to the fact that political rather than economic considerations guided their construction; indeed, in 1908 there was a deficit of 78,000,000 kn. on their working, which had to be met by a large increase in tariffs. In the ten years 1902–11 the expenditure of the empire rose from about 1·5 milliards of kronen to more than double that sum.

This rise involved a serious increase in taxation. As the revenue return for 1912 shows, the direct and indirect taxes had become very heavy, and the rise is illustrated by the following figures for some important taxes in 1906 and 1912:

	1906.	1912.
	Kronen.	*Kronen.*
Tax on securities . .	9,139,000	13,153,000
Tax on personal income .	60,081,000	101,717,000
Excise duties . . .	366,872,000	420,216,000

Taxation in Austria operates with a distinct bias against industry and the professional classes and therefore is fraught with danger for centres of industry. Thus in Austria all joint-stock companies are taxed 10 per cent. on their profits, and these profits are estimated by the State so as to include much that is not properly net profit. Further, an additional tax may be imposed by the province and by the commune, so that as much as 20–30 per cent. in all often has to be paid. There is a heavy house tax, a tax on the income from securities, a tax on personal income, and a further tax on salaries exceeding £266 per annum. This heavy taxation inevitably falls with especial pressure on industrial provinces such as Bohemia and Moravia.

In strong contrast to the heavy taxes on the industrial middle classes, the tax on landed property, which brought in 75,000,000 kn. in 1896, fell to 51,000,000 kn. in 1912, and is, in fact, the only Austrian tax which has shown a decrease of recent years. In the payment of taxes on revenue also the agriculturist is favoured; so that it is not surprising that the agrarian party and the lower middle class (as opposed to the capitalists) had a large majority in the Austrian Parliament.

The following table shows the amount paid in direct taxes and in excise by Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia respectively in the year 1909:

	Real Taxes. 1,000 kn.	Per cent. of Total.	Personal Taxes. 1,000 kn.	Per cent. of Total.	Excise. 1,000 kn.	Per cent. of Total.	Excise Tax in kn. per head of population.
Bohemia .	39,131	32	87,762	31	141,779	56·78	20·9
Moravia .	14,055		29,720		88,888		33·8
Silesia .	2,911	1·7	5,234	2·5	24,398	6·01	33·4
All Austria	164,805	100	370,141	100	406,191	100	14·2

It will be noted that Bohemia and Moravia pay a very large percentage of the Austrian excise, and that relatively to its size Silesia pays a far higher amount than either.[1] Furthermore, of the direct and indirect taxes together Bohemia and Moravia pay such a large share as to make the fiscal policy of the empire a matter of vital importance to them. A survey for the year 1912, published in the *Neue Freie Presse* on October 29, 1918, shows that of the 28 million inhabitants of Austria, more than one-third (10·1 millions) inhabited Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia; and that these provinces then yielded 33 per cent. of the total Austrian revenue from real property, 34 per cent. of the personal taxes, and nearly 60 per cent. of the excise taxes.[2]

[1] Silesia is somewhat more densely populated: its area is about one-tenth of that of Bohemia, and its population rather more than one-ninth.

[2] The following figures summarize the chief heads of the survey for 1912; statistics for the war period have not been published.

Taxation in 1912.	*All Austria.* 1,000 kn.	*Bohemia.* 1,000 kn.	*Moravia.* 1,000 kn.
Real property taxes:			
Land tax	51,224	15,407	7,267
House tax	10,556	2,442	1,006
Tax on rents	90,702	20,184	5,060
Totals of taxes on real property . .	171,774	39,963	13,906
Personal taxes:			
Tax on earnings	36,511	10,094	3,478
Tax on shares	75,704	18,892	6,668
Tax on interest	13,152	3,468	941
Income-tax	101,717	22,347	6,014
Salaries tax	4,990	762	294
Personal taxes (totals)	232,260	55,631	17,409
Excise taxes (totals)	420,216	143,103	86,192
Total gross personal income taxable .	5,960,596	1,326,121	428,325

The situation was complicated and the burden of taxation increased by the power possessed, and often abused, by the provinces and the communes of levying provincial and local taxes. This they could do by making additions to the State taxes. Such additions, however, might not exceed 10 per cent. of these taxes without the authorization of the Emperor.

Apart from this limit the Imperial Government had very little control over the taxing power of the provinces, which might impose even their own excise duties. It could, however, bargain with them; thus, for example, in 1901, when the tax on alcohol was raised, part of the additional revenue was apportioned by the Imperial Government to the provinces on the condition that they imposed no local excise duties.

In 1909 the provincial revenue and expenditure of Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia were as follows:

REVENUE (in 1,000 kn.)

	Bohemia.	*Moravia.*	*Silesia.*
Taxes	68,054	24,592	7,264
Fines	29	6	3
State and Church Funds	146	169	347
Surplus of Cumulative Orphanage Funds	615	448	70
Administration Fees, Indemnities	3,268	2,019	972
Income from Property and Undertakings	2,109	2,118	606
Sundry Receipts	14	55	8
Capital and Cash Receipts	21,195	15,995	5,048
	95,430	45,402	14,318

EXPENDITURE (in 1,000 kn.)

	Bohemia.	*Moravia.*	*Silesia.*
General Management of Province	2,829	2,312	419
Provisions and Pensions	770	807	65
Public Safety	2,200	1,169	196
Military Purposes	664	158	122
Public Health	13,622	6,567	2,406
Provident Institutions	3,255	2,145	354
Religion, Instruction, &c.	52,504	21,762	5,155
Agriculture	2,791	2,011	164
Industry, Trade, Mining	290	204	18
Communications and Public Works	10,325	3,788	2,133
Service of Debt	5,586	3,007	595
Landed Property	178	180	19
Various Outgoings	—	321	—
Capital and Cash Dues	389	969	2,667
Totals	95,403	45,400	14,313

It may be noted that Bohemia's expenditure was larger than that of any other province, lower Austria coming next with 72,589,185 kn.; and that Silesia's expenditure was, relatively to its size, far greater than that of Bohemia.[1]

The amount of supplementary local taxation has risen enormously of recent years, and in many cases is a heavy burden.

(2) Banks and Financial Institutions

Till 1848, Czechs did not take much part in Austrian finance and commerce; but after the liberation of the peasants in that year, there was a renascence of Czech industry. In the national movement which followed, efforts were made to free the peasant from the clutch of moneylenders, and to provide capital for small industries; and thus the savings banks and credit institutions on the Schulze-Delitzsch or Raiffeisen model came into existence.

The movement, however, was not helped by the National Bank (afterwards called the Austro-Hungarian Bank), which refused to have any dealings with the savings banks. Accordingly, in 1868, these institutions founded their own bank for Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia, the Živnoštenska Banká (Industrial Bank), now the most important of the Czech banks. From this date began the rise of the sugar and the agricultural machinery industries and the economic struggle of the Czechs and Germans.

Banks of every kind have had marked success in

[1] In 1910 the State accounts were balanced at the following amounts: Bohemia, 81,172,881 kn.; Moravia, 48,257,400 kn.; Silesia, 15,678,650 kn. According to the *Neue Freie Presse* for October 29, 1918, the State taxes had risen in 1912 to the following sums: Bohemia, 95,500,000 kn.; Moravia, 31,300,000 kn.; Silesia (excluding excise taxes), 8,900,000 kn.

Bohemia and Moravia during the last 20 years. The deposits of savings banks and credit institutions have been trebled, and the shareholders' capital of the large banks has increased thirtyfold. Many of the Bohemian banks have established branches in other provinces of Austria and have financed enterprises outside Austria. Yet, in spite of this large increase in Czech banking institutions, lower Austria (through Vienna) is still the financial centre of Austria.[1]

A list of the leading Bohemian and Moravian banks and of the Austrian banks with interests in Bohemia and Moravia will be found in the Appendix (Table III).

Savings Banks.—The following figures show that 49 per cent. of the Austrian savings banks and 39·3 per cent. of Austrian accounts are in Bohemia and Moravia, but that, judged by the number of separate accounts, the whole of Austria ranks after Germany and France in respect of thrift:

1909.	*No. of Savings Banks.*	*No. of Accounts.*
Austria	669	4,262,108
Lower Austria	83	965,827
Bohemia	240	1,420,641
Moravia	88	265,440
German Empire	—	19,845,329
France	—	13,206,564

Of the number of accounts in the Post Office Savings Bank, Bohemia and Moravia supply 33 per cent.; but Bohemia does not here take the lead as in the case of the savings banks.

Post Office Savings Bank

	No. of investors.
Austria	2,261,658
Lower Austria	763,091
Bohemia	480,767
Moravia	240,094

[1] The present tense is used here and later without regard to changes which may have taken place since 1914.

Credit Societies.—These are of two kinds: (1) Schulze-Delitzsch societies for both rural and urban borrowers; (2) Raiffeisen societies for small landowners.

The former admit as members workmen in all industries, granting credit for a period which, except in rare cases, does not exceed three months. The latter are intended only for agriculturists, and require some guarantee of good character, as well as of financial solvency.

These societies differ in respect of the length of credit given, the limitation of liability, and other conditions, but agree in the fact that the members are acquainted with one another in a small area and guarantee each other's borrowings. The importance of such facilities to the 'small' man who, although short of capital, is of good reputation, cannot be overestimated.

The following figures give the numbers of such societies existing in Austria in 1910, and include those with limited as well as with unlimited liability. It will be seen that 38 per cent. of them are in Bohemia and Moravia. They are chiefly Czech societies.

		No. of Credit Societies.
All Austria		10,905
Bohemia	2,899	4,167
Moravia	1,268	
Galicia		2,683
Lower Austria (without Vienna)		642

(3) Influence of Foreign Capital

Industrial undertakings in Bohemia and Moravia are in many cases controlled by great joint-stock companies or combines in Vienna, and these in turn are frequently connected with German firms whose business is international. For instance, the Mannes-

mann Tube Co. of Vienna, with works at Komotau in Bohemia, is an offshoot of the great Mannesmann Tube Works at Düsseldorf (cap. 61,000,000 mks., chief office in Berlin), to which its share capital of 20,000,000 mks. belongs.

In other cases the influence of German capital and industrial control is direct. The General Electricity Co. of Berlin, for example (cap. 155,000,000 mks.), has branches in Bohemia and Moravia at Brünn, Eger, Karlsbad, Mährisch-Ostrau, Mährisch-Schönberg, Olmütz, Prague, Reichenberg, Teplitz, Trautenau, and Warnsdorf, as well as at Troppau and Teschen in Austrian Silesia.

The following companies either have works in Bohemia which are controlled and financed from Germany, or have works in both Bohemia and Saxony:

The German-Austrian Mining Co. (cap. 18,000,000 mks.) has its directorate in Dresden and mines in Bohemia and Saxony.

The Dux Coal Co. (cap. 5,000,000 mks.) has a director at Aachen and mines at Dux and Leipzig.

The Triptis Co. (cap. 6,000,000 mks.) has directors at Vienna, Leipzig, Berlin, and Dresden, and porcelain works at Teplitz.

The Dux Porcelain Works (cap. 1,500,000 mks.) has its head-quarters at Berlin, and factories at Dux and near Weimar.

The Saxon-Bohemian Portland Cement Manufacturing Co. (cap. 3,500,000 mks.) has its head-quarters and sales office at Dresden, and its factories at Tschischkowitz, near Lobositz, in Bohemia.

The shares of all the above-mentioned companies are quoted on the Berlin Stock Exchange, as also are the following Bohemian and Moravian railway shares: preference shares in the Bohemian Northern Railway, the Bohemian Western Railway, and the Moravian

Boundary Railway (all now taken over by the Austrian State Railways); shares in the Aussig–Teplitz Railway, which has directors at Leipzig as well as in Bohemia, the Buschtehrad Railway, the Prague–Dux Railway, and the Brünn Railway.

(E) GENERAL REMARKS

During the years 1902–12 there was a marked increase in the productivity of all industrial countries, and Austria was no exception to the rule. In both Austria and Germany this increase is put at about 50 per cent., and it must be remembered that Bohemia and Moravia are the industrial core of Austria.

Yet the increase of wealth is estimated to be far less in Austria than in Germany, and this is not sufficiently accounted for by the fact that in 1902 Austria started from a lower level. Among causes that may be assigned are the excessive taxation of joint-stock companies and inadequate means of transport, as a result of which the prices of building and other materials have been raised and competition with other countries has been made difficult. Bricks, for example, cost nearly 100 per cent. more at Reichenberg than at Berlin, and the price of cement is 26 per cent. higher in Bohemia than in Germany. Coal also is generally more expensive in Austria than in Germany. The taxation of net profits is four times as great in Austria as in Switzerland, and this is one reason why the industrialists of Bohemia have been unwilling to put down the expensive plant required to produce electricity from water-power, while those of Switzerland do so without hesitation. For Bohemia with its ring-fence of mountains and its many mountain streams this is a serious matter. To some industries the shortage of railways and waterways is especially detrimental. The complaint is made that

there are large tracts of forest which remain useless owing to the absence of facilities for transporting timber.

Doubtless there are other factors which contribute to the profit-earning inferiority of these two provinces. It is stated that the Bohemian mechanic gets less work out of expensive machines than the mechanic in Germany. In Germany, for instance, a worker will produce 100 to 110 dozen pairs of boots weekly, while in Austria with the same appliances the output is 75 to 95 dozen only. Improved technical education, however, should be able to remedy this, and there is little doubt that the Czechs show marked ability as engineers and are in a fair way wholly to supply the demand for machines in the Czech provinces, and that in the iron foundries the Bohemian hand-moulders are exceptionally good at their work.

Bohemia and Moravia are to a remarkable extent independent of the produce and raw materials of other countries. Apart from tropical produce, iron, salt, and wool are the only articles of which a large supply from outside is necessary, and the organizing ability of the Czech industrialist has improved greatly of recent years.

There is no reason, therefore, why an improved financial system, better facilities for transport, and freedom from the political strife which has been so injurious, should not greatly increase the productivity of these two provinces. The external demand for their products, however, will depend on factors which at present it is impossible to forecast. Certainly the restoration of peace in the Balkan States, and an increase of their prosperity, will increase their already considerable demand for Bohemian and Moravian goods; but it should be pointed out that Bohemia and Moravia cannot carry their goods to the sea either by rail or water without

passing through other countries. The Elbe route and the northerly routes of the proposed canal systems may be controlled by foreign and possibly hostile Powers; the Danube route to which the new canal will give access lies similarly outside the control of Bohemia, and the nearest sea-port, Trieste, cannot be reached without passing through German Austria.

APPENDIX

TABLE I. STAPLE CROPS

Total Production in 1913 (in Hundreds of Metric Tons) of Bohemia, Moravia, and all Austria

	Wheat.	*Rye.*	*Barley.*	*Oats.*	*Potatoes.*	*Sugar Beet.*	*Fodder Beet.*	*Meadow Hay.*
Bohemia .	4,837	9,350	6,628	9,573	33,399	40,703	9,906	17,630
Moravia .	1,884	3,688	3,960	3,490	18,633	22,446	6,679	4,863
All Austria	16,228	27,045	17,502	26,774	115,529	69,630	38,615	91,530

TABLE II

Beet and Sugar Industry in Austria and Bohemia for the two Periods 1901–4 and 1911–13
(Weights in Tons)

		1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1911.	1912.	1913.
Beetroot worked in Austria-Hungary		—	8,940,000	7,130,000	7,780,000	11,277,750	8,674,160	14,003,880
No. of Mills worked		—	*216*	*216*	*215*	*196*	—	—
Beetroot worked in Bohemia		—	4,000,000	2,860,000	3,620,000	4,985,640	2,407,790	5,400,120
No. of Mills worked		—	*128*	*127*	*127*	*166*	*112*	*110*
Total production of sugar in Austria-Hungary		—	1,291,127	1,051,264	1,159,221	1,522,785	1,260,160	2,091,760
Total production of sugar in Bohemia (equivalent of raw sugar)		—	653,925	437,931	559,381	718,577	323,172	792,247
Total exports of sugar from Bohemia		371,450	422,531	431,566	304,573	—	—	—
Export of sugar from Austria-Hungary to United Kingdom	Raw	—	37,576	21,684	13,003	340,000	—	—
	Refined	—	240,646	282,763	184,920	—	—	—
Export of sugar from Austria-Hungary to India	Raw	—	1,723	—	—	—	—	—
	Refined	—	102,512	—	—	—	—	—
Total Export from Austria-Hungary (raw and refined in equivalent of raw)		693,030	817,098	819,070	582,258	674,800	—	—
No. of Refineries in Bohemia		—	—	*9*	*9*	*7*	*7*	*7*
Percentage of sugar in beet in Bohemia		—	*15·8*	*15·3*	*15·5*	*15·8*	*14·7*	*15·9*
Percentage of sugar in beet in Austria		—	*14·5*	*14·8*	*14·9*	*14·8*	*14·5*	*14·9*
Molasses produced in Austria		—	—	284,024	236,652	322,700	231,900	—
Amount used in distilleries		—	—	209,261	172,553	2,437	1,739	—
Molasses produced in Bohemia		—	—	117,663	109,274	—	—	—
Amount exported		—	—	49	nil.	—	—	—

The whole from British Consular Reports and Bohemian official *Erntestatistik*.

TABLE III.—BANKS

(*a*) Leading Austrian Banks with Interests in Bohemia and Moravia

Austro-Hungarian Bank.—This is the principal bank of the Empire, with a share capital of 210,000,000 kn., and head offices at Vienna. Of its 54 branches, 22 are in Bohemia and Moravia ; and of the 82 agencies attached to these branches, 54 are in these two provinces.

Anglo-Austrian Bank.—Vienna. Share capital, 100,000,000 kn. Of its 29 branches, 16 are in Bohemia and Moravia.

Vienna Banking Company.—Share capital, 130,000,000 kn. Has 12 out of 34 branches in Bohemia and Moravia.

Imperial Chartered Bank of the Austrian Kingdoms.—Has 11 branches in Bohemia.

Imperial Chartered Austrian Credit Institution for Trade and Industry (Kredit Anstalt).—Vienna. Share capital, 150,000,000 kn. Finances ironworks, sugar factories, and distilleries in Bohemia ; breweries in Moravia.

Imperial Chartered Bank and Exchange Company 'Merkur'.—Vienna. Share capital, 5,000,000 kn. Has 13 out of 21 branches in Bohemia and Moravia.

Imperial Chartered General Commercial Bank.—Vienna. Share capital, 42,000,000 kn. Branches at six towns in Bohemia and Moravia.

Central Bank of German Savings Banks.—Vienna. Share capital, 25,000,000 kn. Founded in 1901 by the German Credit Association ; of its numerous branches, 90 are in Bohemia and Moravia. The directorate of these Viennese banks is exclusively German-Austrian.

(*b*) The Leading Banks in Bohemia and Moravia. (These banks are guaranteed by the province whose needs they serve.)

Bank of the Kingdom of Bohemia.—Founded by the Bohemian authorities in 1890, and empowered by statute, in addition to the ordinary business of a bank, to organize credit societies and to make loans to communes or to individuals for improvements. Reserve funds, 20,795,000 kn.

Mortgage Bank of the Kingdom of Bohemia.—Founded by the Bohemian authorities to lend money on real estate. Reserve funds, 9,241,000 kn.

Mortgage Institution of the Bohemian Savings Bank.—Founded by the Bohemian Savings Bank in 1906. Does not aim at profit. Advances money on estates up to two-thirds of their value, on houses up to half, and on entailed estates up to one-third of their value.

Mortgage Institution of the Prague Savings Bank.—Founded by the Prague Savings Bank in 1906. Not for profit. Conditions much the same as the last-mentioned bank.

Mortgage Bank of the Margravate of Moravia.—Brünn. Founded by the Moravian authorities in 1906, to lend money on Moravian real estate. Reserve funds, 3,621,694 kn.

Agricultural Bank of the Margravate of Moravia.—Brünn. Founded by the Moravian authorities in 1897 to make loans to communes and railway enterprises for improvements. Reserve fund, 211,643 kn.

Mortgage Institution of the First Moravian Savings Bank in Brünn.—Founded in 1892. Not for profit. Reserve fund, 4,400,000 kn.

(c) Joint-stock Banks with Head-quarters in Bohemia. (Conducted by Czechs, unless otherwise specified.)

Central Bank of Bohemian Savings Banks.—Prague, with branches at Brünn and Vienna. Share capital, 25,000,000 kn. Founded in 1903.

Bohemian Industrial Bank.—Prague and Vienna. Founded in 1898. Share capital, 40,000,000 kn. Has 17 branches in Bohemia.

Imperial Chartered Bohemian Union Bank.—Prague. Founded in 1872. Share capital, 65,000,000 kn. Conducted by German-Austrians. Has branches in Bohemia and Moravia as well as in Troppau, Salzburg, Villach, Linz, and Graz. Finances railways, breweries, distilleries, automobile factories, copper-works, and steel foundries.

Agricultural Credit Bank for Bohemia.—Czech and German-Austrian. Share capital, 10,500,000 kn.

Industrial Bank.—Prague. Share capital, 80,000,000 kn. Has 15 branches in Bohemia and Moravia as well as branches at Vienna, Trieste, Lemberg, and Cracow.

Credit Bank.—Prague. Share capital, 25,000,000 kn. Finances sugar, coal, and petroleum industries in Galicia.

North Austrian Bank for Industry, Trade, and Agriculture.—Share capital, 4,000,000 kn. German-Austrian. Offices at Brünn and Witkowitz.

Credit Bank for Trade and Industry.—Brünn. Share capital, 100,000 kn.

Agrarian Bank.—Prague. Share capital, 4,000,000 kn.

Brewing Industry Bank.—Prague. German-Austrian. Share capital, 2,000,000 kn.

Bohemian Joint Stock Bank.—Prague. Share capital, 3,000,000 kn. Has a sister institution in the United States. Branches in Brünn, Cernowitz, Cracow, Lemberg, Trieste, and Vienna.

Moravian Agrarian and Industrial Bank.—Brünn. Share capital, 12,000,000 kn. Has five branches.

Imperial Chartered Moravian Discount Bank.—Brünn. German-Austrian and Czech. Share capital, 8,000,000 kn.

Credit Loan Bank of Königgrätz.—Share capital, 15,000,000 kn. Branches in Prague, Pilsen, and four other towns.

Mährisch-Ostrau Trade and Industry Bank.—Share capital, 1,600,000 kn. German. Finances cement, potato, tile, and coal undertakings.

Land Bank.—Prague. Share capital, 9,000,000 kn. Has four branches.

Bohemian Discount Bank.—Prague. German-Austrian and Czech. Share capital, 72,000,000 kn. Has 13 branches.

AUTHORITIES

Historical

Baker, J. *Report on Technical Education in East Prussia, Poland . . . and Bohemia.* 1900. Cd. 419.

Bauer, Otto. *Die Nazionalitätenfrage und die Sozialdemokratie.* Vienna, 1907. *Passim*, and especially pp. 188–239.

Bourlier, J. *Les Tchèques et la Bohême contemporaine.* Paris, 1897.

Čapek, Thos. *Bohemia under Austrian misrule.* New York, 1915.

Denis, Ernest. *La Bohême depuis la Montagne-Blanche.* 2 vols. Paris, 1903.

Eisenmann, L. *Austria-Hungary* in the *Cambridge Modern History.* Vol. xii. Cambridge, 1910.

Gayda, Virginio. *Modern Austria.* London, 1915. pp. 68–83.

Lützow, Count. *Bohemia, an historical Sketch.* London, 1909.

Seton-Watson, R. W. *German, Slav, and Magyar.* London, 1916. Chap. VII.

Economic

Österreichisches statistisches Handbuch : Jahrgang 1912. Vienna, 1913.

Anbau und Erntestatistik . . . der landwirtschaftlichen Industrie im Königreiche Böhmen, 1912–13. Prague, 1914.

British Diplomatic and Consular Reports: Bohemia. Nos. 2688, 2857, 3075, 4092, 4992.

British Diplomatic and Consular Reports: Trieste. Nos. 3233, 3328, 3350, 5079.

United States of America Consular Reports, 1910–15.

Jahrbuch der österreichischen Industrie, 1915. Vienna, 1915.

Saling's *Börsen-Jahrbuch*, 1912–13. Berlin, 1914.

Statistical Survey in the *Neue Freie Presse* (October 29, 1918).

Compass. Finanzielles Jahrbuch für Österreich-Ungarn, 1913. Vienna.

Drage, G. *Austria-Hungary*. London, 1909.

Hertz, F. *Die Produktionsgrundlagen der österreichischen Industrie vor und nach dem Kriege*. 1st Ed. Vienna, 1917.

Lange, F. *Landwirtschaftlich-statistischer Atlas*. Berlin, 1917.

Machalicky, J. *Statistik der Erzeugung und des Verbrauches der Kohle im Königreiche Böhmen*, 1880–1907. Prague, 1909.

Martineau, G. *Sugar*. London, 1910.

Schwackhöfer, F. *Die Kohlen Österreich-Ungarns und Preussisch-Schlesiens*. Vienna, 1901.

Maps

Bohemia and Moravia are covered by two sheets (M. 33 Wien, M. 34 Krakau; G.S.G.S. 2758) of the 'International' map published by the War Office on the scale of 1 : 1,000,000.

The Austrian Staff maps are on the scales of 1 : 75,000 and 1 : 200,000. Bohemia and Moravia are covered by 96 sheets of the former and by 18 of the latter.

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

LONDON:

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 2/6 net.