HANDBOOKS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE HISTORICAL SECTION OF THE FOREIGN OFFICE.—No. 3

SLOVAKIA

LONDON:
PUBLISHED BY H. M. STATIONERY OFFICE.

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EDITORIAL NOTE

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

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

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

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

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

G. W. PROTHERO,

General Editor and formerly
Director of the Historical Section.

January 1920.

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I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) Position and Frontiers

Slovakia is the name given to that portion of north-western Hungary which is mainly inhabited by the Slovaks, a branch of the Slav race, and indicates a racial rather than a political division. The region lies roughly between 47½° and 49½° north latitude and 17° and 23° east longitude.

On the north-west and north Slovakia stretches to the boundary between Hungary and Austria and is divided by the River March, the White Carpathians, and the East Beskid range of the Great Carpathians, from Moravia, Silesia, and Galicia.

The southern and eastern limits are less determinate: for convenience a line has been taken along certain county boundaries. Starting from Pozsony (Pressburg) in the west, this follows, in a generally eastern direction, the southern limits of the following counties: Pozsony, Nyitra (Neutra), Bars, Esztergom, Hont, Nógrád, Gömör, Abauj-Torna, Zemplén, and Ung. Thus on the east the boundary follows in general the course of the Tisza (Theiss) to its most northerly point, and then the western edge of the valley of the Latorcza.

The region thus delimited includes seventeen Hungarian counties, with an area of approximately 22,000 square miles, which is equivalent to about two-thirds of Ireland. The following table gives the details:

	Area in sq. km.
Árva	2,019
Bars	2,724
Esztergom (Gran)	1,077
Hont	2,633
Liptó (Liptau)	2,246
Nógrád (Neográd)	4,128
Nyitra (Neutra)	5,519
Pozsony (Pressburg)	4,370
Trencsén (Trentschin)	4,456
Turócz	1,123
Zólyom (Sohl)	2,634
Abauj-Torna (Zips)	3,317
Gömör and Kis-Hont	4,279
Sáros	3,652
Szepes (Zips)	3,654
Ung	3,230
Zemplén	6,282
Total	57,343

or 22,055 sq. miles

(2) Surface, River System, and Lakes

Surface

Of the mountains of the Slovak territory, nearly all belong to the Carpathian system, the only exception being the Pilis group in Esztergom, south of the Danube, which belongs to the Alpine system. The chain of the West Carpathians begins at Pozsony with the Little Carpathians (Kis-karpatók), which connect the Alps with the Carpathians and run north-east, forming the watershed between the March and the Vág (Waag). Beyond the Miava, the chief tributary of the March, the White Carpathians (3,350 ft.), so called from their white dolomite formation, continue in the same direction as far as the Jablunka Pass, which is on the main route to Silesia. From this point the West Beskids run eastwards in a great curve to the River Poprád, the valley of which divides the Carpathians into two parts. Between the Poprád and the

Latorcza, a tributary of the Tisza, lie the East Beskids, and the chain is continued in the Carpathian Forest Mountains. To the south of the East Beskids lie the Vikorlat Mountains.

The area between this outer ring and the central plain known as the Alföld is occupied by a complicated system of mountains, often known as the Hungarian Highlands. They form the culminating point of the Carpathian system, lying between the Vág (Waag) and the Árva, the Poprád and the Dunajec. These mountain chains lie roughly parallel to each other, and consist, from north to south, of:

(1) The High Tátra (Magas Tátra), of which the highest point, Gerlachfalvi-Csúcs (Gerlsdorfer Spitze), reaches 8,700 ft. The western end of the High Tátra slopes down to the Liptoi Magura range, which extends to the confluence of the Vág and the Arva.

(2) The Low Tátra (Alacsony or Nižna Tátra), between the Vág and the Garam (Gran), culminating in the peak of Djumbir (6,700 ft.). To the west of the Low Tátra are the Fatra Mountains, merging into the Nyitra Galgocz range, while to the south-east are the Gömör-Szepes Ore Mountains (Erzgebirge), between the Hernad and the Bodva.

(3) The Hungarian Ore Mountains, which are divided into several groups, among them being the Ostrovski and Vepor Mountains. The Branyiszko Mountains connect this chain with the range of the East Beskids.

(4) The Matra Hills, which rise abruptly from the plain of the Alföld in the extreme south, merging at their eastern end into the Bükk Mountains.

At right angles more or less to all these ranges, and along the left bank of the Hernad, runs the chain of the Eperjes-Tokai mountains, including to the south the famous Hegalya vine district.

The south-western part of the Slovak provinces consists of the Little Alföld or Pozsony basin, which lies in the curve of the Danube between Pozsony and the Garam, and is connected with the Great Alföld, the fertile alluvial plain of Hungary.

Rivers and Lakes

The rivers of Slovakia belong almost entirely to the Danube system, all except the Dunajec and the Poprád (Popper) draining into the Danube either directly or through one of its tributaries. The main watershed is that part of the Carpathian chain known as the High and Low Tátra Mountains.

In western Slovakia the most important rivers are the March, which, with its tributary the Miava, forms for a certain distance the western frontier of the country, and the Vág. The latter river receives as its tributaries the important Árva on its right and the Turócz on its left. Following an almost parallel course is the Nyitra (Neutra), which joins the Vág (Waag) shortly before the junction of the latter river with the Danube at Komorn (Komárom). The floods caused by these two rivers cause serious damage in the plain which they enclose. An almost exactly similar course is pursued by the Garam (Gran), while the much shorter Ipoly (Eipel) flows into the Danube rather farther to the east.

In eastern Slovakia, the Tisza (Theiss), one of the largest tributaries of the Danube, forms for some distance the south-eastern boundary of the district. Its chief tributaries are the Hernad and the Latorcza, of which the former in its turn receives the Sajó, with its affluents the Turócz and the Bodva.

All these rivers have their sources on the southern slopes of the Tátra Mountains. The Dunajec, on the other hand, rises on the northern side of the Tátra range, flows eastwards until joined by its tributary the Poprád, and then in a northerly direction to join the main stream of the Vistula. As already said, these rivers are the only ones of the Slovakian system which do not drain into the Danube.

The Danube and the Tisza alone are navigable among the rivers of Slovakia. The larger of the other streams are, indeed, much used for floating timber, &c., but in general they are only mountain torrents until they

reach the Alföld, when they flow more slowly and often cause severe floods. These are aggravated by the very slight slope of the plain towards the streams and the equally slight fall in the river beds. In very rainy years the water in the rivers soaks through the banks and forms swamps some way from the stream.

The only lakes of importance are those in the High Tátra. There are 80 on the north side, and 39 on the south, of which Lake Csorba is the largest. It lies on the watershed between the Vág and the Poprád at an altitude of 4,430 ft., with an area of 5 acres and a depth of 67 ft.

(3) Climate

The mountainous character of northern Slovakia naturally means a corresponding degree of cold, and the mean annual temperatures vary from 50° F. (10° C.) on the lowlands near the Danube, to 35° F. (1½° C.) among the mountains. The hottest month is July, with temperatures 20° F. (11° C.) above the annual mean, while in January the temperatures are 20° F. (11° C.) below. During three months the mean temperature remains below freezing-point. The Danube in consequence usually has ice upon it in January and February, and during severe winters the ice may appear first in mid-November, and last until the middle of March.

The total annual precipitation amounts to between 24 and 28 inches (600–700 mm.) along the south of Slovakia, and reaches 40 inches (1,000 mm.) in the northern and most elevated regions. Much falls as snow during the winter months. January and February are the driest months. On the southern lowlands the wettest month is June, while October is almost as wet. East of the Tátra there is no secondary maximum in October; north-west of the Tátra, towards the main Carpathian chain, July is the wettest month, while among the lower western mountains May takes this place, with a secondary maximum in October.

(4) Sanitary Conditions

As might be expected in a country which contains such a large proportion of marsh land, malarial diseases are very frequent. Malaria, intermittent fever, and diphtheria are responsible for a great many deaths, while tuberculosis, due to insanitary conditions and bad housing, is also prevalent. With more knowledge of modern conditions, and drainage of the large areas of marsh, these diseases may be expected to decrease considerably.

Medical attendance is in a very backward state, as may be seen from the fact that in the country districts of Slovakia 60 per cent. of the deaths have not been certified by a doctor. In spite of this deficiency, however, the rate of infantile mortality is not abnormally high, being 20 per cent. of living births. It is as well to remember that in view of the defects in the medical service too much reliance cannot be placed upon the official enumeration of causes of death.

(5) Race and Language

Race

The population of Slovakia is some 3½ millions, of whom about half are Slovaks, about 36 per cent. Magyars, and 6 per cent. Germans. The proportion of Slovaks in the rural districts rises to 53 per cent., while the Magyars form exactly half of the town dwellers.

The distribution of the races is clearly shown by the sharp linguistic boundary which separates Slovaks from Magyars. This runs eastwards from Pozsony, passing north of Vácz and south of Kassa, to the borders of Ruthenia. South of this line is Magyaria, extending to the Drave and the Maros as far east as Arad; within Magyaria, except for one district round Budapest, a second slightly to the west, and a third far to the south, in Bács-Bodrog, the people are entirely Magyar. There is a German enclave east of the Tátra,

which almost divides the Slovak area into two, and along the eastern mountain border the people are Ruthenes (Little Russians).

If we divide Slovakia into two parts, Slovakia proper and Ruthene Slovakia, the latter of which comprises the north-eastern counties, the variations in the relative numbers of the different races during the last thirty years are roughly as follows. In Slovakia proper the Slovaks have increased by 13 per cent. and the Magyars by 50 per cent., while the Germans show a decrease of 4 per cent., and the Jews, who number 107,000, of 2 per cent. In Ruthene Slovakia the Slovaks have declined by 8 per cent., whereas the Ruthenes have increased by 24 per cent., the Magyars by 70 per cent., and the Jews, who are 70,000 in number, by 6 per cent. The increase among the Magyars, which is remarkably uniform, exceeds the increase of the population.

A process of 'Magyarization' has been going on in the case of all the subject races in Hungary, and the Slovaks are no exception to this rule, although in spite of great discouragement they have succeeded to a large extent in maintaining their national feeling.

Language

Slovak is a recognized Slav dialect, very much resembling Czech, with a literature of its own. Many varying dialects are spoken, which have been much influenced in the west by Moravian and in the east by Polish.

(6) Population

Distribution

The population of Slovakia, numbering about 3,420,000 in 1910, is now presumably over 3½ millions. The overwhelming majority of the inhabitants are settled in the rural districts. In the mountainous areas the density of the population is below 128 per square mile (50 per sq. km.), except where the people

are crowded along the valleys of the Nyitra, the Vág, and other rivers. In the neighbourhood of Pozsony, and on the Little Alföld to the east of Pozsony, the rural population attains its maximum density of 256 per sq. mile (100 per sq. km.).

Towns and Villages

The three largest towns of Slovakia are Pozsony (Pressburg), with 78,223 inhabitants, Kassa (Kaschau), an iron centre, with 44,211, and Vácz (Waitzen), a cathedral town of considerable importance, with 19,000. Other towns are: Esztergom (Gran, 18,000), Eperjes (16,323), and Selmecz(Schemnitz)-és-Bélabánya (15,185). A noticeable feature of the Slovak provinces is the great number of small towns, particularly in the centre and west of the country, where they are more numerous than anywhere else in Hungary.

Movement

The enormous emigration which goes on from the Slovak provinces, chiefly to the United States, takes some thousands of people away yearly. There is also a certain amount of internal migration, as many of the Slovaks go to Germany and Denmark as labourers during the summer.

The following table shows the increase in the total population of the two divisions of Slovakia :

1900.	1910.	*Increase.*	*Excess of births over deaths.*
		SLOVAKIA PROPER	
2,420,000	2,566,000	136,000 5·4 per cent.	297,000 11·8 per cent.
		RUTHENE SLOVAKIA	
828,000	853,000	25,000 3·0 per cent.	112,000 13·3 per cent.

The next table shows the average vital statistics per 10,000 inhabitants per annum during the decade 1900–10.

SLOVAKIA PROPER

	Births.	*Deaths.*	*Natural increase.*	*Infantile mortality.*
Slovaks . .	389	271	118	20 per cent.
Magyars . .	353	245	108	20 ,,

RUTHENE SLOVAKIA

Slovaks . .	255	209	146	18 per cent.
Ruthenes . .	413	249	164	18 ,,
Magyars . .	378	245	130	21 ,,

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

Chronological Summary

A.D.

830–906. The Moravian Empire, in which Slovaks were included.

906. The Magyars conquer Moravia and southern Slovak districts.

1001. St. Stephen of Hungary extends his kingdom to the north.

1141–61. King Géza II of Hungary establishes colonies of Germans in northern Hungary.

1241. The Mongol invasion of eastern Europe. Slovak districts devastated. Hungarian kings encourage further German colonization.

1412. King Sigismund pledges thirteen royal towns in northern Hungary to the Kingdom of Poland.

1415. Beginning of Hussite wars. Hussite doctrines extend to North Hungary and are largely adopted by Slovaks.

1526. Battle of Mohács. The Turks overrun most of Hungary, including many Slovak districts.

1610. Lutheranism prevails in Slovak districts. Lutheran Church organized.

1616. The Counter-Reformation begins to become effective under leadership of Peter Pázmány, Primate of Hungary 1616–37.

1767. Maria Theresa improves position of peasants.

1771. Maria Theresa claims possession of north Hungarian towns pledged to Poland.

1848–9. Hungarian War of Independence. Serfdom abolished.

(1) Origins

The Slovaks are a people belonging to the Western Slav group which includes the Poles, the Wends or Sorbs, and the Czechs; with these last they are racially so closely connected that by some authorities they have been identified with them. A closer examina-

tion of their language, however, which is said to be the nearest to Old Slavonic of all the modern Slav tongues,[1] suggests that they were a separate and perhaps older branch of the Slav family than the Czechs. They are to be found to-day in two compact groups in the north and north-west of Hungary, where they are bounded on the north by Galician Poland; on the east by Hungarian counties, where the population is Ruthenian and Magyar; on the south by Magyar districts of Hungary; and on the north-west by Moravia and parts of Silesia, where the population is Czech. For a short distance on the west the Slovaks touch Lower Austria. Geographically, therefore, the Slovak settlements broaden the narrow bridge of Slav districts which connects Bohemia with the bulk of the eastern and northern Slavs.

(2) Early Settlements

The Slovaks probably reached Moravia at the same time as the Czechs in the fifth or sixth century A.D., and at once came into contact with German tribes, to whom they were for a time subject. Later they appear under a native prince in the Empire of Great Moravia. After being conquered by the Magyars in the tenth century, the Slovaks of the south appear to have been displaced or absorbed; the rest became, and, except for a short period of connexion with Poland, have since remained, subjects of the King of Hungary. Their history, therefore, in its main lines is contained in that of Hungary.

As regards the mass of the people, the Slovaks have retained their national characteristics, their language, customs, and usages, and within their ancient limits have remained distinct from the Magyars.

They have been able to absorb largely the German colonies which from the twelfth century onwards were encouraged by the Magyar kings. These German

[1] Seton-Watson (*Racial Problems in Hungary*, p. 332) quotes the Slovak writer Dobrowsky (*Geschichte der böhmischen Sprache*, 1818, p. 32) to this effect.

settlers established a number of towns extending across the north-west of Hungary to Transylvania; and during the Middle Ages they formed compact and separate communities consisting of traders, artisans, and miners, their chief centre being the mining villages round Körmöczbánya (Kremnitz). They lived in walled towns from which they excluded non-German peoples, and they were superior in education and had reached a higher level of efficiency in trade than their neighbours. In spite of these advantages, when the special privileges which they had enjoyed were rescinded in the fifteenth century, they became largely absorbed by the surrounding population, as has so often happened in the case of German colonies. A considerable German element is, however, still to be found.

(3) The Hussite Influence

During the fifteenth century the Hussite doctrines spread from Bohemia through Moravia to northern Hungary, bringing with them the Czech language, which since this time has had an established place among the Slovaks. Their own language was still at this period an unwritten tongue; and Czech, used at first for the new religious teaching, became, and for long continued to be, the only written language among the Slovaks. It is still the language of the Slovak Lutheran Church, which established itself in northern Hungary as a successor to the Hussite movement, and at one time included nearly the whole Slovak population. The fall of Bohemia affected the Lutheran Slovaks unfavourably; and during the Counter-Reformation, which began to be effective in Hungary about 1620, the bulk of the Slovaks again became Catholic, largely owing to the untiring efforts of the greatest Hungarian ecclesiastic, Peter Pázmány. In 1631, when the Slovak territories were detached from Bohemia and Moravia, the earlier Czech literary influences became weaker and the Slovaks began to develop their own vernacular.

The Reformation had none of the character of a national movement among the Slovaks that it had among the Czechs. In the religious wars the Slovaks even for a time supported the Magyars in their struggle against the Habsburgs; and Rákoczy, the Magyar hero, recruited some of his best soldiers among the Slovaks.

The bulk of the peasantry were still serfs; their nobles had by the seventeenth century become completely Magyarized; and there was so far no conscious feeling of nationalism among the Slovaks.

(4) The National Movement

During the first half of the eighteenth century, Hungary, freed at last from Turkish rule by the Treaty of Passarowitz (1718), was recovering from a long period of internal and external strife. The reign of Maria Theresa brought measures of relief for the peasant populations which benefited the Slovaks—in particular the regulation of 1767, by which liberty of migration was restored to the peasants—and there was nothing in her government likely to arouse strong political feeling among the subject nationalities.

It was the well-meant but tactless efforts of Joseph II to Germanize Hungary that aroused the spirit of opposition. The Magyars, among whom it produced an extremely rapid growth of national sentiment, adopted in their turn a policy of suppressing, or at least discouraging, the non-Magyar nationalities. A reaction on the part of those who felt the existence of their separate groups endangered was the natural result, and was strengthened by the wave of national feeling which began to sweep over the whole of Europe after the Treaty of Vienna.

Before the middle of the nineteenth century the Slovaks had felt its influence; and when, in 1848–9, the Magyars attempted to throw off the Austrian yoke, the Slovaks took the opportunity of rising against them. The revolt in both cases failed; the Slovaks were brought once more into subjection, but the

feeling of hostility between the two races was increased. The Compromise of 1867 sacrificed the interests of the Slovaks as it did those of other subordinate nationalities, and they were left more completely at the mercy of the Hungarian Government.

It has been urged that Deák and those who acted with him in the interests of Hungary, being far-seeing and moderate statesmen, intended to procure favourable treatment for the non-Magyar peoples. The Law of Nationalities of 1868 was in fact conceived in a most conciliatory spirit; and, if the same spirit had been shown in its administration, the subject peoples might have been reconciled. Events proved, however, that the Magyars were determined to assert their own nationalism at the expense of the Slovak minority; and unfortunately they were able to carry out their policy under the forms of a Parliamentary Government in which they could always secure a majority. After 1867 the German elements in Austria and the Magyars in Hungary gradually drifted into a policy of mutual support against the rising Slav nationalities—an alliance not founded on mutual sympathy, but on the common danger.

The new Hungarian Constitution provided no safeguards for the Slovaks, who since 1868 have had a hard and bitter struggle to maintain their national existence. As among other peoples, the spread of education among the Slovaks has helped to increase the sense of nationality, which has also expressed itself in a linguistic and literary revival. Before the middle of the nineteenth century there had been a great increase of books and periodicals in the vernacular; literary societies were founded and a definite attempt made to organize the schools. The study of Slovak, as distinct from the Czech language, began to attract students of dialects both among the Slovaks and other Slav peoples. Over the question of orthography violent disputes took place, and the memory of the old connexion of Czech with Protestantism was revived; the Catholic party endeavoured to eliminate Czech influence, while the

Lutheran strove to maintain it. Finally a compromise was reached, and Slovak spelling may be said to have become more or less 'stabilized'. The national idiom received recognition at the Linguistic Conference at Pressburg in 1851; and the Slovak scholars Safařik and Kollar have made notable contributions to its scientific study. The prevalence of the language may be judged to some extent by the fact that in 1910 the sermon was preached in Slovak in 742 Roman Catholic, in 52 Greek Catholic, and in 234 Lutheran churches; it was used for the sermon alternatively with Hungarian in 39 Catholic and 23 Protestant churches, and appears as an accessory language in 15 Catholic and 11 Protestant churches where Hungarian was the usual language of the sermon.[1]

Slovak literature does not exist in any great quantity, as is natural where the educated population is small; yet there is undoubtedly at the present day a living vernacular literature which is considerable in proportion to the number of the people. If, however, the Slovaks were united to their Czech brethren, it is doubtful if they could continue to maintain a separate literary language.

The evidences of national feeling were regarded by the Magyars with apprehension. They had hitherto considered the Slovaks an inferior race, whose destiny it was to be gradually absorbed, and they saw that the movement to promote education and national literature would tend to internal unrest and might possibly encourage the still more dreaded external danger of the Pan-Slav movement.

In 1848–9 the Slavs of Croatia had shown themselves the bitterest and most effective opponents of Magyar aspirations, while the Russian interference of the same period gave the cause of Hungarian independence a blow from which it did not recover for many years. Hence, after 1849, everything Slav became, perhaps not unjustly, suspect.

How far a more conciliatory policy would at this

[1] *Annuaire Statistique Hongrois*, xix, 1911, pp. 434–8.

stage have succeeded in making the Slovaks loyal supporters of the Hungarian Government it is impossible to say, but it is unlikely in any case that the Slovaks would have held aloof from the ceaseless agitation of the other Slav races of Austria and Hungary.

In defence of their own political predominance the Magyars felt compelled to check Slovak nationalism at almost every point at which it showed itself, for the success of the movement meant at best the failure of the Magyar ideal, at the worst the destruction of the Magyar State.

The Hungarian counties in which Slovaks are found in greater or less numbers have of late, for the sake of convenience, been called Slovakia. It should, however, be remembered that there has never at any time been a separate Slovak State, or a group of counties officially known under the name of Slovakia. The 17 counties to which the name of Slovakia is applied contain within their boundaries considerable areas where there are few or no Slovaks, and many districts with mixed population containing German, Polish, or Magyar communities which have existed for many centuries. These non-Slovak elements are important beyond their mere numbers, owing to their culture and efficiency.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) Religious

The majority of the Slovaks are Roman Catholics, but there is a considerable Protestant minority composed almost entirely of Lutherans. Religious freedom exists both in law and in fact.

In 1910 the Roman Catholic Church constituted about 70 per cent. of the population; the Greek Catholics 5 per cent.; the Lutherans—who are well organized both in regard to their schools and churches—23 per cent., and there are also some members of the Reformed Church (Calvinists). The Slovaks and the Wends are almost the only western Slavs among whom Protestants are found.

The Roman Catholic Church, being the one with the greatest number of adherents, is naturally in a strong position.

(2) Political

Administration.—The existing political conditions in the districts inhabited by the Slovaks have for some time past been increasingly disturbed. Hungary has for the last twenty years been passing through a political crisis, caused partly by the increasing bitterness of feeling between the various nationalities within its borders, and partly by the attempt of the more extreme Magyar politicians to insist upon the exclusive use of Magyar as the official language in Hungary, and its recognition as the language of command in the joint Austro-Hungarian army. As to the policy of making the language as far as possible understood by all Hungarian citizens, nearly all Magyar politicians have been in agreement. But on the

question of the use of Magyar in the joint army, political parties have been deeply divided. This division became so marked that it led for a time to the complete breakdown of the Hungarian constitutional machinery, and the so-called 'Ex-Lex' situation arose, during which Parliament refused both supplies and the right to raise troops, and no one could be compelled to do his military service or to pay his taxes.

The Government, however, continued to administer the laws and to carry on its work both central and local, and on the whole there was little practical inconvenience or disorder anywhere. It is creditable both to the official classes and to the citizens, of whatever nationality, that the crisis passed off with so little trouble, but these internal struggles have probably served to encourage Nationalist movements.

The Slovaks have no special political privileges such as those enjoyed by the Croatians, and they have often hoped that Austria might be induced to interfere on their behalf. Theoretically the Constitution secures to the Slovaks the same rights of self-government as those enjoyed by any other section of Hungarian citizens, and these are very considerable. The franchise is a somewhat restricted and complicated one, but having regard to the character and backward condition of the population in 1867, the Constitution then drawn up was probably as suitable as could have been devised. The great bulk of the peasantry were not—indeed, many of them are not now—sufficiently advanced to make intelligent use of wider powers than they possess under the present Constitution. The Slovak Nationalist party would probably point to the fact that as a result of the interference in elections by the Central Government, the exercise of their political rights is restricted and the election of Slovak deputies discouraged. The number of these has certainly remained small and has varied between 4 in 1901, 1 in 1905, 7 in 1906, and 3 in 1910. These numbers bear no relation to the proportion of Slovaks in the constituencies, though it need not be assumed that Slovak Nationalist candidates

would always be returned, even if the Government did not discourage their election.

The administration, in so far as it is in the hands of the central authorities, has not been unfair; the system of local government, which is carried out by the county assemblies and a certain number of permanent officials, is perhaps more open to criticism, and from the Slovak Nationalist point of view a considerable grievance may be said to exist.

Social Conditions, Trade, and Industry.—The mountainous nature of the country and the denseness of its numerous forests have kept the rural population rather isolated. The German towns and the mining population were more or less in touch with the outside world, but the Slovak peasants remained very backward until recent times. They are still chiefly cultivators, herdsmen, and woodmen; and, although many of them are also miners and artisans, they usually work for employers of other races. Obliged by poverty to leave their mountains to earn a livelihood abroad, many of them used to tramp through Central Europe, working as pedlars, wire-workers, window-menders, tinkers, and the like. Others emigrated to the more fertile districts of Moravia, Bohemia, or Austria, or to the larger towns.

Since the middle of the nineteenth century the Slovak itinerant traders have gradually diminished in numbers, but there has been a considerable and increasing emigration to the large towns and also to America in search of work. Many who have thus left their country return to it; and the influence of the returning emigrant has made itself increasingly felt in both political and social matters. The Slovak peasant is a very hard worker, thrifty, and full of peasant cunning; he is also accused of a liking for strong drink. Those who are settled in the towns, or have become well-to-do, have shown a tendency to become denationalized and to identify themselves with the ruling race, at any rate in language. The Slovaks have produced, it is claimed, some of the

leading men in the Magyar movement in Hungary, notably Kossuth and Pétöfi, the greatest Magyar orator and poet respectively. This tendency of the more educated and rich to abandon their nationality may be one of the causes of the diminution in the numbers of the Slovak population—if such is the case—which, according to the official statistics, has taken place since the middle of the nineteenth century.[1]

The causes contributing to this fall in the Slovak population include emigration, but the fact that the Gorals, or mountain Poles, who were formerly counted as Slovaks in the official statistics, and number some 20,000, are now no longer included among them must also be borne in mind.

(3) Educational

The general scheme of public education in Hungary is dealt with more fully elsewhere (see *Hungary*, No. 1 of this series, p. 50). In Slovak districts, as in almost all the other districts where there is a non-Magyar population, the question of the 'language of instruction' in the schools is acute. Before the Hungarian State education had been developed to its present point, the local schools of various denominations provided an education almost as a matter of course in the language prevalent in the particular district or used by the community concerned. There were formerly, therefore, many more schools in which the language of instruction was Slovak than there are now, although the total number of schools in the country has increased considerably. Thus the number of Slovak primary schools is alleged to have fallen from 1,921 in the year 1869 to 440 in the year 1911, and this total to have been still further reduced to 240 in 1912. These 240 schools, it is calculated, educate only some 8 per cent. of the Slovak-speaking school-children.[2]

As regards higher education the situation is even

[1] Niederle, *La Race Slave*, 1911, p. 120. Cf. above, p. 8.
[2] *Annuaire Statistique Hongrois*, xix, 1913.

more unfavourable. Three secondary schools, in which the teaching was in Slovak, were opened in the sixties, but all three, together with the 'Matica' or Slovak Academy, were closed in 1875 at the instance of the Government, on the ground that they spread Pan-Slav ideas. There is no university in which Slovak is the language of instruction. The Slovaks have, therefore, the grievance felt by all small nationalities in a composite State, where the State language is insisted upon as the medium of instruction; the fact, however, that the extreme Nationalists in some parts of Austria and Hungary have used the schools as a means of encouraging separatist and disloyal feeling must be taken into account in deciding whether the policy of hostility shown in closing the Slovak secondary schools was or was not justified.

The position of the Slovaks in educational matters compares unfavourably with that of other nationalities in the Dual Monarchy, especially that of the Poles and the Czechs, and there seem to be grounds for advocating some compromise which would lead to the Slovak children learning both the State language and their own vernacular in the schools; but in recent years such a compromise has commended itself to very few in the Austro-Hungarian Empire except the Czechs, and even these are very unwilling.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

Popular Opinion and National Sentiment

This subject has already to some extent been dealt with in connexion with the political and educational aspects of the Slovak question.

It is not easy to judge of popular opinion in Hungary, where its expression among subject races is not encouraged. But it is probable that much dissatisfaction exists among the peasantry, who have a strong national consciousness and a strong desire to avoid denationalization, although they have not so far taken much active

part in politics. There is naturally more expression of nationalist aspirations among the educated Slovaks, including the lawyers and priests, e. g. such men as Dr. Hodža and Father Hlinka.

In the extreme section of the Nationalists the proposal has been put forward for the establishment of a separate Slovak State which would include the whole north-west of Hungary, and would comprise some two to two and a half million inhabitants; and it is this party also which insists upon the differences between the Slovak and Czech languages.

The alternative proposal for the fusion of the Slovak and Czech populations into one political State has, however, rapidly gained ground during the war. The action of the Czecho-Slovak forces alike in Siberia and on the allied front, the recognition by the Allies of the separate existence of this belligerent force, and the British Declaration recognizing the Czecho-Slovaks as an allied nation, all point to the solution of the nationalist problem on the lines of a combined State, in which the north-west of Hungary will be united with Moravia and Bohemia.

The Separatist feeling which formerly existed has undoubtedly been greatly modified by the events of the war, if it has not entirely disappeared; and with goodwill on both sides it should now be possible to arrange for a large measure of local autonomy for the Slovaks in the new Czecho-Slovak State. The incorporation of the Slovaks in another State would deprive Hungary of a region which is rich in timber and minerals and contains some of its best coal-mines.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(a) *Roads*

NEITHER roads nor railways anywhere in Hungary have kept adequate pace with the rapid industrial development of recent years, and Slovakia is consequently more affected by this state of things than other areas where the industrial progress has been slower.

The administrative district of the left bank of the Danube (*Duna bal partja*) is entirely Slovak, and the administrative district of the right bank of the Tisza (*Tisza jobb partja*) is also largely Slovak, the two non-Slovak counties being Bereg and Borsod, including the municipal area of Miskolcz. Both these administrative districts are among the most highly developed in Hungary from a commercial and manufacturing point of view; and their road communications have received some attention from the authorities.

Communications by road, divided into the usual four classes, viz. State roads, municipal roads, communal public roads (the three most important classes),[1] and communal paths and tracks, were as follows in 1912 in Slovakia and Hungary:

	Slovakia.	*Kingdom of Hungary.*	
	Km.	*Km.*	
State roads	2,407	11,775	
Municipal roads	6,787	37,256	
Communal roads	7,513	46,067	
Roads in connection with railway stations	126	526	(omitting Croatia-Slavonia)
Paths and tracks	12,558	75,242	(omitting Croatia-Slavonia)
Total	29,391	170,866	

[1] Municipal roads include both town and country roads, where these are maintained by the municipalities; 'communal' roads are usually kept up by unions of communes (rural districts).

In 1912 there were 29·4 km. of high road per 100 square km. in the whole kingdom, and 29·1 km. per 100 square km. in Slovakia, where the road tax for State and municipal roads produced 3,494,700 kr. out of a total for the kingdom of 23,184,200 kr.

(*b*) *Railways*

Railway communications have not been proportionately developed, though great importance attaches to the Kassa (Kaschau)–Oderberg Railway, which traverses northern Slovakia from east to west and terminates in the eastern corner of Austrian Silesia. By this railway Slovakia is brought into direct communication with Germany. Though the railways have not been so widely extended in Slovakia as in the west and south-west of Hungary, there is nevertheless an important network of lines.

The framework of the system may be described as a rough circle with its centre somewhere between Losoncz and Zólyom (Altsohl) and a considerable but insufficient number of irregular radii, the whole resembling a very incomplete wheel. On the outer circle lie, from west to north and thence east, Pozsony (Pressburg),—connecting with Vienna,—Trencsén (Trentschin), Zsolna (Sillein), Poprád, Abos ; from Abos the curve turns south through Kassa to Miskolcz, outside Slovakia, and thence west and south to Budapest. At Hatvan, a little east of the Hungarian capital, the circle is joined by the twisted 'diameter' line from the north, which leaves the Kassa–Oderberg route at Ruttka and runs south to Zólyom and on with an easterly curve through Fülek and Salgó-Tarján to Hatvan. The main circle is completed on the south-west by the line joining Budapest to Pozsony, which is also the route to Zsolna as far as Galánta. While some parts of the routes mentioned do not fall within the limits of Slovakia it is clear that they are all essential to its economic well-being.

The total length of the railway lines in Slovakia in 1912 was 3,604 km., a somewhat lower figure, in proportion to area and population, than those for

other industrial districts, such as that in the Tisza–Maros angle or those on the right bank of the Danube. Of these lines 1,700 belonged to the State, and the remainder were for the most part worked by the State on behalf of the owners.

The most important railway, the *Kassa–Oderberg line*, which now links up Kassa, Abos, Igló, Poprád, Rózsahegy (Rosenberg), Ruttka, Zsolna, and Csacza with Breslau and Cracow, is in the hands of a private company, and down to 1914 was making steady progress in spite of financial difficulties, which were being gradually overcome. It was, of course, dependent on the goodwill of both Austria and Hungary, which it recently induced to permit an increase in its tariff for the local transport of goods.

The other main sections formed part of the Hungarian State Railways system, and many of the local and communal (or 'vicinal') railways were also directed by the State railways, which encouraged the building of such lines only when they seemed likely to pay interest on the capital invested. The 'vicinal' railways have been built to meet the needs of particular towns or districts, and are considered as second-class railways. According to the law of 1880 they must at the expiry of not more than ninety years from the date of their original concession become the property of the State.

Some of the main sections have short titles of their own. Thus the *Vág Valley Railway* is that which runs north from Galánta through Lipótvár and Trencsén to Zsolna. This route forms a direct connexion between Budapest and Berlin, but is considerably longer than the more easterly route through Ruttka.

The Ruttka–Hatvan section forms by far the longer portion of the *Ruttka–Budapest line*, which traverses the heart of Slovakia, and is of the utmost value to the mining centres at Zólyom, Selmeczbánya (Schemnitz), and Beszterczebánya, the last-named lying only a few miles north of this route. A few kilometres south of Ruttka the line passes Turócz-Szentmárton, the

county town of Turócz and the original seat of the Slovak national movement. At Janoshegy, just north of Körmöczbánya (Kremnitz), the line crosses, at a height of 756 metres, the watershed separating the River Garam from the Turócz and the Vág. At Kesterenye it reaches the important Salgó-Tarján coal-basin and also connects with the Mátra local railway to Kál-Kápolna and south-east Hungary. Rather less than half-way between Kis-Terenye and Zólyom it passes through Losoncz (the junction for Bánréve and Miskolcz), a town which, with 10,000 inhabitants and numerous factories, is the most important place in the lignite county of Nógrád. Of the branch line Zólyom–Tiszolzc, the eastern quarter, from Erdököz to Tiszolzc, is a rack railway. The short branch from Garamberzencze to Selmeczbánya is only narrow gauge, although this place of 16,000 inhabitants is the principal mining town in Upper Hungary.

The Hatvan – Miskolcz – Sátoralja-Ujhely section, which serves the famous Tokay (Tokaj) wine-growing district and connects Kassa with the south, forms part of the *Budapest–Lawoczne* (Lemberg) *line* (435 km. long), which, as a connection with the rest of Europe, rivals the Kassa–Oderberg route in its importance for Slovakia.

The line from Miskolcz to Fülek is known as the *Gömör line*, and that viá Sajó-Ecseg to Torna is called the *Boldva Valley line*. The branch from Pelsöcz (Pleischnitz) to Murányalja, which serves numerous iron-works, is known as the *Murány line*, and the *Losoncz Local Railway* is that which runs from Losoncz to Katalinhuta. The *Bodrogköz Railway* (30 km.), which serves the district of that name in the southern part of county Zemplén, was opened in 1913.

The total amount of capital invested in the railways of Slovakia must considerably exceed £3,000,000.

(c) *Waterways*

In respect of water transport Slovakia is not very well provided for. The attention and resources of

the authorities were hitherto directed rather to the Danube and to the Ferencz and Béga Canals, and only insignificant sums were spent from time to time in deepening the northern rivers. The chief rivers in Slovakia are the Bodrog, which joins the Tisza near Tokaj; the Vág (Waag) in the north-west, which enters the Danube above Komorn (Komárom); the Nyitra, which flows from north to south almost parallel with the Vág and joins the Danube not far below it; the Garam, parallel with the Vág, which enters the Danube close to Esztergom, and the Árva, Kiszucza (Kisuca), and Turócz, which flow into the Vág. Particulars relating to these rivers (in 1912) are tabulated below:

River.	*Navigable from*	*Navigable length.*	
		For barges and rafts. *Km.*	*For river steamers.* *Km.*
Bodrog .	Zemplén to the Tisza	65·9	65·9
Vág . .	Liptóújvár (Hradek) to the Danube	350·6	—
Vág . .	Gúta to Komárom	—	29·5
Nyitra .	Naszvad to the Danube	15·1	—
Garam .	Beszterczebánya (Neusohl) to the Danube	177·7	—
Árva . .	Turdossin to the Vág	52·6	—
Kiszucza .	Trencsénmakó to the Vág	51·4	—
Turócz .	Prékopa Bridge to the Vág	2·0	—
	Total	715·3	95·4

Thus, only 715·3 km. of the Slovak rivers are navigable, and of this total only 95·4 km. are navigable by steamers. The merchandise and passenger traffic is so relatively unimportant that detailed figures are not given in the official returns.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) Labour

The position of labour in Slovakia is much the same as in other parts of Hungary. The agricultural labourer is badly paid, and it is customary at harvest time for bands of Slovaks to seek agricultural work in the plains, where arrangements are regularly made by the farmers to hire them in small parties. Latterly, however, their interest in agrarian Socialism appears

to have caused the authorities some anxiety, and given rise to a desire to restrict their incursions into other districts of Hungary. In the years preceding the war large numbers of Slovaks had begun to emigrate to the United States. From 1903 to 1912 inclusive the total number of Slovak emigrants (most of whom went to America) was returned as 249,122, or about 7 per thousand of the Slovak population per annum; but some of these emigrants were from other parts of Hungary.

Observers have particularly commented upon the poverty of the rural population in the purely Slovak districts of Hungary and upon the superstition and generally backward state of the peasants, who are troubled by a bitter, if vague, feeling of unrest. The wages paid to the agricultural labourer in Slovakia before the war were somewhat lower than those paid in the Alföld and other districts of Hungary. The industrial workers were not so well paid as those in the Budapest area; but their condition seems to have been better than that of the workmen in Transylvania and the Banat, where industrialism has been less scientifically carried out. The following table shows the range of daily wages paid in 1912 in the two chief Slovak mining districts and in those of Budapest and Nagy-Bánya:

District.	*Men.*		*Women.*		*Children.*		
	Highest.	*Lowest.*	*Highest.*	*Lowest.*	*Highest.*	*Lowest.*	
Beszterczebánya .	5·14	1·86	1·81	1·00	1·40	0·62	*Daily Wages in Kronen.*
Igló . . .	5·04	1·40	1·84	0·60	2·20	0·74	
Budapest . .	8·00	2·10	2·00	0·96	1·84	0·80	
Nagy-Bánya . .	8·00	1·20	2·00	0·80	1·20	0·60	

In the districts of Oraviczabánya, Zalatna, and Zagreb the highest wages for men were 4·55, 4·87, and 4·85 kr., and the lowest were 2·29, 1·00, and 1·60 kr. respectively.

(2) Agriculture

(a) *Methods of Cultivation*

As in Hungary proper, the methods of cultivation vary. The Slovak rural population is poor and illiterate and is not easily induced to take up modern improvements, such as the use of farming machinery and fertilizers. Primitive conditions also prevail among the large farmers in the mountainous districts or in areas not well served by the railways. On the other hand, the more enlightened estate owners have sought to introduce machinery in order to make up as far as possible for the periodical lack of labour.

(b) *Products of Commercial Value*

Slovakia includes a fair proportion of small holdings, and, despite the predominance of industrial interests in the province, the agricultural output is considerable. In an average year the yield per hectare is lower than that of most of the other provinces, and as a rule lower than the general average for Hungary proper.

Grain and Root Crops.—In 1913 (a normal year) the chief crop figures for Slovakia and for Hungary proper were as follows :

	Slovakia.		*Hungary proper.*	
	Total Yield.	*Yield per hectare.*	*Total Yield.*	*Yield per hectare.*
	Quintals.	*Quintals.*	*Quintals.*	*Quintals.*
Wheat	4,585,033	12·3	41,190,583	13·2
Rye	2,762,406	12·2	13,273,594	12·3
Barley	6,188,153	14·5	17,380,254	14·9
Oats	2,767,085	10·9	14,487,030	12·4
Maize	1,577,477	15·9	46,248,082	18·7
Potatoes	18,446,941	71·8	48,752,560	79·6
Beetroot	18,243,715	237·0	47,758,377	269·1

The best grain-growing country lies south of latitude 48½° N., but barley does well in some of the mountainous districts and oats in Sáros, Szepes (Zips), and Gömör. There is a large potato crop in Bars, Sáros, and Szepes

as well as in the south, and beet comes chiefly from Bars, Nyitra, Pozsony, Trenesén, and Zemplén.

Wine and Fruit.—The vineyards are situated for the most part in the county of Zemplén, which includes the famous Hegyalya and Tokaj wine area; but vines are also cultivated to a considerable extent in Abauj-Torna and Ung; and on the left bank of the Danube there are many wine districts, particularly in Esztergom, Nógrád, Nyitra, and Pozsony. The vineyard area in 1913 (an average year) was 22,297 hectares, yielding 146,886 hectolitres of wine, or an average of 6·6 hectolitres per hectare. This production was valued at 7,322,000 kr. Though the Tokay (Tokaj) wines are very valuable, the general yield of the Slovak crop is usually inferior to that of Hungary as a whole: the average yield per hectare for the whole country in 1913 was 11·9 hectolitres, as compared with 6·6 hectolitres in the case of Slovakia. The vineyard area of Slovakia represents not quite 6 per cent. of that of the whole of Hungary. In many places, owing to the ravages of the phylloxera, vineyards have been replaced by orchards, in which fruit is cultivated with success. A large amount of fruit is grown in the neighbourhood of Pozsony.

Honey.—The honey produced in Slovakia in 1912 amounted to 5,056 metric quintals. The value of this, together with some 300 metric quintals of wax, was 565,400 kr. This sum represented nearly 19 per cent. of the total production in Hungary proper.

Tobacco.—There is a fair amount of tobacco cultivation, Zemplén producing about one-third of the whole crop. The amount fluctuates; that of 1913 was rather below the average. The number of growers had shown a tendency to decline for a few years previously, and the tobacco-growing area in Hungary generally was gradually diminishing. The following table shows the position of this branch of agriculture in two recent years:

	Number of growers.		*Tobacco area (hectares).*		*Product (metric quintals).*		*Value of raw tobacco (kr.).*	
	1909.	*1913.*	*1909.*	*1913.*	*1909.*	*1913.*	*1909.*	*1913.*
Slovakia . .	188	182	2,426	2,203	34,579	23,813	1,577,055	1,113,902
Hungary (including Croatia-Slavonia)	12,429	9,936	52,095	47,600	654,123	478,982	27,025,578	20,882,260
Slovakia, percentage of totals	1·5	1·8	4·6	4·6	5·3	4·9	5·8	5·3

Live Stock.—According to the last census of animals (1911) the animals in Slovakia were as follows :

Horned cattle .	1,268,152	Sheep . .	1,242,457
Horses . .	281,106	Goats . .	42,430
Donkeys . .	3,088	Pigs . .	829,468
Mules . .	135		

(c) *Forestry*

The forest area of Slovakia in 1913 was 2,001,531 hectares, representing 22·4 per cent. of the total forest area of Hungary (including Croatia-Slavonia). The timber is found chiefly in the north, along the Carpathians; and more than half of the wooded districts are under State management (1,174,371 hectares). Of the land devoted to forest cultivation, 491,231 hectares are occupied by oak, 856,726 hectares by the less profitable beech, and 653,574 hectares by the valuable resinous trees. The resinous trees in Slovakia represent 33·6 per cent. of those in the whole of Hungary. Some authorities consider that the forest area of the less fruitful counties could be increased with great advantage.

(d) *Land Tenure*

In the Slovak counties land tenure is arranged upon the same basis as in the other parts of Hungary. Less than one per cent. of the holdings exceed 500 joch (about 700 acres) in extent, and about 20 per cent. are of less than 20 joch each. In 1911 there were nearly 15,000 holdings of less than 1 joch (= ·57 hectare), the owners of which kept live stock; but on a much larger number of these 'dwarf holdings',

which includes urban allotments, no live stock seems to be kept.

(3) Minerals and Metallurgy

(a) *General Remarks*

Slovakia is rich in minerals, especially iron ore and coal. Unfortunately, a precise calculation of the production of the last few years is rendered difficult by the division of Hungary into mining districts, some of which include both Slovak and non-Slovak county areas. Thus the district of Budapest includes not only the production of several non-Slovak counties situated on the right bank of the Danube (e. g. Komorn and Fejér), but also the whole county of Esztergom on the left bank. On the other hand, the returns sometimes include places in different districts under one set of figures. This makes the Hungarian official returns rather misleading. For instance, Slovakia is particularly rich in lignite, and there are also seams of pit-coal, but the official statistics do not include any Slovak county in the pit-coal returns, the entire Slovak production being included in the figures for the mining centre of Budapest. This point should be borne in mind in considering the table of mineral output on p. 43 below.

Apart from coal and iron, Slovakia has large supplies of copper, zinc, and antimony ores, to which must be added over 70 per cent. of the manganese ore mined in Hungary.

With the exception of the county of Esztergom, the Slovak mining centres are included in the Beszterczebánya district on the left bank of the Danube and the Igló district on the right bank of the Tisza. The following figures, summarized from the details tabulated at the end of this section, show the production and value of the more important minerals as returned [1] from these two districts in

[1] i. e. in the *Hungarian Statistical Year-book*, vol. xxi.

1913, and the proportion which the Slovak output then bore to that of Hungary as a whole :

	Production (Metric tons).	*Percentage.*	*Value (Kronen).*	*Percentage.*
Pig-iron (finery) . .	177,890	29·2	15,425,000	30·1
Pig-iron (foundry) . .	9,001	64·3	1,859,000	65·4
Iron ore . . .	1,187,828	57·7	11,869,000	65·9
Iron pyrites . . .	61,667	67·2	616,000	55·1
Copper ore . . .	903	63·0	42,000	37·8
Zinc ore . . .	140	34·4	7,000	33·3
Antimony ore . .	6,217	56·4	159,000	29·9
Manganese ore . .	13,563	71·3	145,000	54·3

In addition, Slovakia produced 138 kg. of gold, valued at 452,000 kr., representing 4·7 per cent. of the quantity and value of the gold produced in Hungary; and 2,874 kg. of silver valued at 274,000 kr. (33 per cent. of the quantity and 33·4 per cent. of the value respectively).

Although iron founding has been increasing during the last few years, up to 1913 the Hungarian founders used only about one-half of the iron ore produced in Hungary, the remainder being exported, chiefly to Witkowitz. Measures have been under consideration for making the export of ore more difficult in order to encourage the production of iron goods in Hungary. Of the ore actually dealt with in Hungary, 98 per cent. was used by the larger iron-works—25 per cent. by the State iron-works, 17 per cent. by the Austro-Hungarian Railway, and 56 per cent. by the Rimamurány-Salgótarján Works (see below).

In connexion with the mining industry it should be mentioned that the Czecho-Slovak propagandists are wrong when they allege that Hungary's coal is found exclusively or almost exclusively in Slovakia. In 1913 the total quantity of pit-coal mined in Hungary was 1,319,918 metric tons, valued at 18,387,000 kr. Of this amount more than one-third (445,192 tons, valued at 7,580,000 kr.) came from Transylvania and the Banat. The balance was returned as from the Budapest area, i. e. Budapest and certain portions of Slovakia as well, but comparatively little pit-coal

appears to be won in Slovakia.[1] Again, the lignite produced in Hungary in 1913 amounted to 8,954,133 tons (worth 89,999,000 kr.). Of this, 1,738,320 tons (worth 15,696,000 kr.) came from the Slovak mining district of Beszterczebánya; 4,539,311 tons (44,400,000 kr.) from Transylvania, the Banat, and Croatia-Slavonia.

(*b*) *Particulars of Chief Enterprises*

Some details of the more important Slovakian mining enterprises may be given here. It will be convenient to group them under the three mining divisions chiefly concerned:

(i) *Beszterczebánya District* (left bank of the Danube).—*Iron, Steel and Lignite.* The principal undertaking is that of (*a*) the Rimamurány-Salgótarján Iron Works Company, which is registered at Budapest with a capital of 40,000,000 kr., and has mines and works in this and several other mining divisions. In this district it includes the Salgó lignite mine (county Nógrád) with an output in 1913 of 117,000 metric tons, and the Salgótarján Steel Works (county Nógrád). At the latter works the rolling mills can produce 50,000 metric tons of finished goods a year, the axle and instrument factory 3,000 tons, the iron foundry 2,600 tons, the steel foundry 2,000 tons, the wire and nails factory 25,000 tons, the cold rolling plant 3,000 tons, the galvanized iron works 1,000 tons; 2,600 tons of ploughs, shovels, &c., are also produced. The coal and iron mines of this company lie mainly in the Igló district.

Under the same general direction is (*b*) the 'Union' Royal and Imperial Iron and Sheet Metal Manufacturing Company, which is registered at Vienna, but directed from Budapest. It has a lignite mine at Erdöbadony in county Zólyom, producing 10,000 tons per annum, and, in the town of Zólyom, a rolling mill

[1] One authority stated (in 1900) that the Salgótarján Coal Mining Company was at that time producing a million tons of *pit-coal* annually, but this appears to be a slip for *brown coal* (lignite); the writer may have been misled by the company's name.

employing 815 workmen and turning out 280,000 sheets of metal a year.

Zólyom-Brézó, in the county of Zólyom, is the headquarters of (*c*) the highly important Royal Hungarian Iron and Steel Works, which have the advantage of being close to the River Garam and working largely with water-power, as well as with steam and electricity. These works have a very complete installation of machinery, twenty-one generators using pit-coal, forty-three furnaces of various types, and fifteen plants for rolling plates and making tubes. The output in 1913 amounted to 15,360 truckloads of ingots, castings, billets, tubes, &c. There were 2,664 employees in 1913; and this colony of work-people had a special Roman Catholic Church, a State elementary school, and a continuation school for the young people of fourteen to eighteen years of age.[1] At Henrik-telep, 2·5 km. from Zólyom-Brézó, there is a separate welding works, with 67 machines, 3 furnaces, and 355 employees. Its output in 1913 was 10,000 tons of metal tubes, &c., welded by water-gas.

Lignite is obtained chiefly in county Nógrád, which includes mines at the following places among others:

Place.	*Output (metric tons) in 1913.*	*Value (Kronen).*
Fülekpilis (Romhány)	4,356	43,560
Kozsd	3,800	38,000
Baglyasalja, Karancsalja, Etes (N. Hungarian United Coal Mining Company) . . .	190,873	—
Mátraszele, &c. (N. Hungarian United Coal Mining Company)	192,170	—
Salgó-Tarján (Salgó–Tarján Pit Coal Company), &c.	1,149,695	9,771,408
Salgó-Tarján (Salgó Lignite Mine) . . .	117,000	—
Totals (so far as ascertainable). .	1,657,894	16,000,000

[1] Mention may here be made of the *Bruderladen*, a special form of sick benefit or insurance clubs, which grew up among the miners of North Hungary as far back as the beginning of the sixteenth century, and in the nineteenth were not only recognized, but enjoined by State law. In the Selmecz district each workman pays 6 per cent. of his wages to the club and his employer contributes a like amount for him. The *Bruderlade* for the Rimamurány–Salgó–Tarján Company's people had 11,119 members in 1912; its capital at the end of 1913 was 3,048,907 kr., its expenses in 1912 were 630,050 kr., and its credit balance 156,162 kr.

Of the other lignite mines in Bezsterczebánya the following deserve mention: those at Garam-Kövesd (county Hont) and elsewhere, belonging to the domains of the Archduke Josef in Kisjenö and over 10,800,000 square metres in extent; and those at Nyitrabánya (county Nyitra), which have 11,100 km. of rail below ground, produced in 1913 96,000 metric tons, and employed more than 1,000 hands. The latter mines were worked by a Budapest firm, but formed part of the estate of the late Count János Pálffy of Pozsony. A number of lignite mines of considerable extent were either not worked or made no returns in 1913.

The deposit of lignite in the upper Nyitra basin is said to be of inferior quality, but the amount of reserves is estimated at some 42,000,000 tons.

Non-ferrous Metals.—*Gold* and *silver* ore mines are worked in the county of Bars, where the 1913 output of (*a*) the Royal Hungarian Mines was valued at 132,152 kr. for the Vihnye-Peszerény properties, while those at Körmöczbánya and Jánoshegy produced 108,473 kr. worth of precious metals (31·1 kg. of refined gold, 130·8 kg. free gold ore, and 67·574 kg. of refined silver)

Of considerable importance are (*b*) the Royal Hungarian Metal Extracting Works of Selmeczbánya, which produced in 1913 the following quantities of metals:[1]

		Value in Kronen.
Gold	222 kg.	729,126
Silver	4,267 kg.	383,935
Tin solder	889 kg.	2,960
Copper	287 qtls.	43,000
Soft lead	8,812 qtls.	447,000
Litharge	1,553 qtls.	79,000

Selmeczbánya has been for centuries the centre of royal Hungarian mining enterprise, and still formed in 1914 (*c*) a special Royal Hungarian Mining Directorate which included the Royal Hungarian Mine Offices

[1] The figures are taken from the *Hungarian Mines Handbook* for 1914; it would appear that these works deal with ore from both Slovak and non-Slovak districts.

of Hodrusbánya, Selmeczbánya, Körmöczbánya, Aranyidka, Opalbánya, and Magurka, the Royal Foundry Offices at Selmeczbánya, the Royal Copper Works at Beszterczebánya, and the Royal Hungarian Mining School at Selmeczbánya. The following figures were published in 1900 for the output of this whole region (i) in the 100 years from 1790 to 1889, and (ii) in the year 1896:

(i) 1790–1889:	*Gulden.*
14,110 kg. gold, worth	23,150,000
656,508 kg. silver, worth	59,080,000
55,607 tons lead, worth	8,620,000
315 tons copper, worth	150,000
Total value	91,000,000

(ii) in 1896:	*Gulden.*
200·7 kg. gold, worth	329,148
4,578·9 kg. silver, worth	332,166
716·42 tons lead, worth	107,464
24·01 tons copper, worth	11,284
Total value [1]	780,062

The Selmeczbánya Directorate also has charge of the Royal Hungarian Mines at the royal free town of Selmecz-és-Bélabánya, about 5 km. to the north-east, which are also of some importance and employ over 1,000 workpeople. Their output in 1913 was approximately as follows:

Gold	81·06 kg.
Silver	1,682·09 kg.
Copper	19·25 kg.
Lead	154·12 kg.
Agalmatolite	107·30 metric tons
Total value	546,646 kronen

[1] It appears from these figures that the average yearly output for the whole period 1790–1889 was considerably less than that of 1896, except in the case of silver, but that the monetary value of the total yearly output had fallen off in a marked degree. This decline was itself due to the decrease in the price and consequently in the output of silver: the kilogram, which in the seventies of last century was still worth 90 gulden, brought less than 50 as long ago as the year 1900.

Gold and *antimony* ore are mined together with iron in several parts of the counties of Zólyom and Liptó, and *antimony* ore alone in the counties of Pozsony and Liptó; some *silver* is mined in the latter county. There is an antimony works at Fejérkö, with a capital (in 1913) of 32,219 kr.

Parts of the counties of Pozsony and Zólyom also produce some *copper*. (*d*) The Royal Hungarian Copper Works of Beszterczebánya (county Zólyom) produced in 1913 58·3 tons of electrolytic copper, 10·6 tons of hammered copper wares, and 10 tons of copper sulphate, the total value being 129,337 kr.

(*e*) The Royal Mint at the ancient 'free and chief mining town' of Körmöczbánya, a little north-west of Zólyom, is also within the Beszterczebánya district. In the year 1913 this mint, which is the only one in Hungary, stamped gold, silver, nickel, and bronze coins worth, in all, 13,800,944 kr., including 320,435 gold pieces of 20 kr. and 137,443 gold pieces of 10 kr. It also minted large quantities of Serbian and Bulgarian silver and bronze coins. The output of metals, &c., at the Körmöczbánya mint was in 1913 returned as 32·9 quintals of gold, worth 10,811,536 kr., 146·5 quintals of silver, worth 1,319,337 kr., and 196 quintals of copper sulphate, worth 14,308 kr. The mint was directly under the control of the Royal Hungarian Ministry of Finance.

(ii) *Igló District* (right bank of the Tisza).—*Iron, Steel, &c.*—This, the chief mining district of Slovakia, is noted for its output of *iron ores*. There is a large number of small undertakings for which no returns are printed; a considerable proportion have either ceased working in recent years or were only beginning work in 1913, the year to which the following returns generally refer. It should be noted that in a few cases the possible, not the actual output, is given in the returns; this applies particularly to the furnaces, foundries, and mills. The chief properties are noted in the following list:

(*a*) Property of the Rimamurány–Salgó–Tarján Iron

Works Company, or property leased to this company:

Iron ore and ironstone mines at Luczia (county Abauj-Torna) and at the following places in county Gömör: Vashegy, Rákos, Rozsnyó, Sebespatak, Alsósajó, Oláhpatak-Felsösajó, Krasza-Horka, Andrássy, Dernö, &c. The total output in 1913 amounted to some 456,150 tons of iron ore of various types.

Furnaces and foundries at Dernö, Likér, and Nyustya, with an output of about 48,000 tons of pig-iron and cast iron. The Dernö works belong to the Andrássy estate.

Limestone quarries at Gombaszög and Tiszolzc, with a total output of 192,000 tons in 1913.

Magnesite pits at Ratkó; output of roasted magnesite in 1913, 3,500 tons.

(*b*) Mines, furnaces, foundries, &c., owned by the Hernád Valley Hungarian Iron Industry Company (under the general directorate of the Rimamurány-Salgó-Tarján Company):

Output in Metric Tons, 1913.

Szalánk Mines (county Szepes); iron ore .	90,000
Korompa-Klippberg Iron Ore Mine (county Szepes); iron ore	7,200
Katharina Gallery Mine, Pracfalu (county Szepes); ironstone and 80 tons copper ore	7,300
Nagysolymár Mine (county Szepes); iron ore	2,300
And numerous other pits and rights in Árva, Szepes, Zólyom, &c.	—
Total (iron ores)	106,800

Furnaces, Foundries, and Mills.

Szalánk Separating Plant (county Szepes); 130 tons roasted ore and 1·2 tons cement copper in 12 hours	—
Korompa Furnaces and Mills (county Szepes); production:	
Martin pig iron	82,000
100 tons leached or 120 tons agglomerated ore per diem	—
Black copper, 5 tons, refined copper, 4 tons per diem	-

Korompa Refining and Rolling Mills, production:	
Martin steel	150,000
Rolled steel about 140 tons, intermediate and fine elongated steel about 150 tons, in 12 hours	—

The Korompa Works employ over 2,000 workers, for whom there are 462 dwelling-houses, a special post office, school, &c. The *Bruderlade* (see above, p. 35, foot-note) had assets in 1913 to the value of 1,556,600 kr. In all there are more than 3,000 persons in the employ of the Hernád Valley Company, which had a capital in 1900 of about 20,000,000 kr. and has, since that date, increased its yearly output of ore by over 100 per cent. and of worked iron and steel by over 400 per cent. Its steam-engines had an aggregate of 12,000 horse-power twenty years ago, and in 1913 it had nearly 100 km. of railway of various types above and below ground.

(*c*) Property of Upper Silesian and Viennese companies, and Royal Hungarian Mines: The more important mines are at Gölniczbánya, Markusfalu, Igló, Merény, and Rozsnyó (Rosenau); the combined output is over 280,000 tons of iron ore. There are several smaller companies, one of which works the estate of Duke Philipp of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.

Non-ferrous Metals and Minerals.—The principal other minerals mined in the Igló district are indicated in the list of the mineral products of Slovakia given below (p. 43). The chief mines at work in 1913 were at Rozsnyó (*antimony*, 1,546·9 tons output; owned by A. Odendall, Vienna); Aranyidka, county Abauj-Torna (Royal Hungarian Mines; *silver* output worth 21,565 kr.); Szepesjánosfalu and Landzsasötfalu, county Szepes (*manganese ore*, output 6,504 and 7,060 tons respectively); Pelsöcz(Pleischnitz)-Ardó, county Gömör (*lead* and *zinc ore*, 320 tons, worth 16,000 kr.; owned by a Breslau firm); Dobsina (Dobschau), where a *copper pyrites* mine was preparing to begin work on a considerable scale; and Szomolnok (Schmöllnitz) and Szomolnokhuta, county Szepes, where the Ober-

ungarische Berg- und Hüttenwerke A/G of Budapest produced (in 1912) 61,666 tons of *pyrites* and 53·65 tons of *cement copper*—both valued at 10 kr. a ton —and employed 367 workpeople.

The Royal Hungarian Salt-boiling Works at Sóvár (county Sáros) were of distinct local importance, but the salt obtained in this way is not as valuable as rock-salt, and is not exported; the output in 1913 of 5,913·5 tons was, however, worth 1,180,939 kr. There is no recent return for the Dubnicz (Vörösvágás) opals, which in the past made the hill country of county Sáros famous; and most of the copper mines, including the Phönix–Hutta, seem to have shut down, probably mainly in consequence of American competition. The county of Sáros is particularly rich in mineral waters and possesses over 100 springs, of which those at Bartfá and the Salvator water of Szinyelipócz are well known. This county also produces good millstones and building material.

Mining and prospecting for mineral oils seems hitherto to have met with little success, but it may be recorded that there was already one English company at work in county Zemplén in 1913, under the title of the Hungarian (Zemplén) Oil Company, Ltd. (Pannonia-telep, Izbugyaradvány, and London). This company employed seventeen people, but does not seem to have got beyond the prospecting stage.

Four fairly large firms are engaged in magnesite mining in the Igló district, viz. (*a*) the Magnesite Industry Company, Ltd., which has a branch at Jolsva, and is registered at Budapest with a capital of 3,200,000 kr.; (*b*) the General Magnesite Company, Ltd., offices in Budapest, share capital 1,400,000 kr., works at Hisnyóviz (Gömör); (*c*) the German-Hungarian Magnesite Company, Kassa and Budapest, share capital 1,500,000 kr.; and (*d*) the Gömör Amalgamated Magnesite Company, Budapest, share capital 2,000,000 kr. No returns for the output of these companies appear in the *Hungarian Mines Handbook* for 1914.

(iii) *Budapest District.*—The only part of this district

which falls within the boundaries of Slovakia is the county of Esztergom, which produces a *red marble* that is in great demand in Hungary. The *lignite* mines of the hilly region south of the Danube and south-west of the town of Esztergom are of some value, and the principal undertakings are the following:

(*a*) At Dorog, Csolnok, and Sárisáp is a mine owned by the Esztergom-Szásvár Lignite Company, which in 1913 employed 1,726 workpeople and produced 411,600 tons of lignite. This company is registered at Budapest.

(*b*) Another mine at Dorog, owned by the Esztergom Cathedral Chapter, employed 266 workpeople and produced 27,390 tons in 1913.

(*c*) A mine at Tokod, owned by the Esztergom Seminary, employed 362 persons and produced 72,703 tons in 1913.

(*d*) Another mine at Tokod, owned by the Esztergom vidéki Köszenbánya Joint Stock Company of Budapest, which was not working in 1913, has an extent of 1,447,941 square metres. Its buildings include 48 workmen's dwellings and a school.

The following table shows the mineral output of the Beszterczebánya and Igló districts compared with that of Hungary as a whole:

Mineral Output of Slovakia and Hungary (1913).

(The figures are taken from the *Hungarian Statistical Year-book.*)

	Beszterczebánya.		*Igló.*		*Hungary.*		*Slovakia's percentage of Hungarian output.*	
	Metric tons.	*Value (1000 kr.).*	*Metric tons.*	*Value (1000 kr.).*	*Metric tons.*	*Value (1000 kr.).*	*Amount.*	*Value.*
Gold	0·1	452	—	—	2·9	9,586	4·7	4·7
Silver	2·7	264	0·1	10	8·6	820	33·0	33·4
Finery pig-iron	—	—	177,890	15,425	608,966	51,117	29·2	30·1
Foundry pig-iron	—	—	9,001	1,859	13,986	2,839	64·3	65·4
Iron ore	270	1	1,187,558	11,868	2,059,075	17,991	57·7	65·9
Iron pyrites	—	—	61,667	616	106,629	1,118	67·2	55·1
Gold and silver ores, and copper and lead ores containing gold and silver (high grade ores)	783	206	—	—	73,648	5,001	1·1	4·1
Similar ores of lower grade containing gold and silver	49,718	515	204	22	443,380	6,746	11·2	7·9
Copper ore[1]	—	—	903	42	1,433	111	63·0	37·8
Zinc ore[1]	—	—	140	7	407	21	34·4	33·3
Antimony ore[1]	28·4	4	6,189	155	11,017	531	56·4	29·9
Manganese ore	—	—	13,563	145	19,005	267	71·3	54·3
			Esztergom County					
Lignite	1,783,820	15,696	511,693	5,000	8,954,133	89,999	25·6	22·9

[1] These ores are of much lower grade than similar ores at present mined in the United Kingdom.

(4) Manufactures

Slovakia, like the adjacent districts of Moravia and Bohemia, which are mainly inhabited by the same race, is an important manufacturing district. The manufacturing industries include textiles, electro-technical goods, sugar, machinery and metals, cabinet-making and timber products, leather, chemicals, and mineral oils. Statistics for individual Slovak industries are not generally available, but the extent of the progress achieved may be judged from the capital amounts invested in the chief industries, and from the growth of the towns, as shown in the lists below. In addition, there are firms engaged in distilling and brewing, salt-boiling, cement-making, the manufacture of bricks and tiles, asbestos, glass, and paper, and in flour-milling. The flour-mill at Nagy-Sáros (near Eperjes) had attained something like a European reputation by the year 1900, when it was dealing with about 28,000 tons of grain a year, and sending flour to Bohemia, Moravia, Galicia, and even to North Germany.

It should be remarked that the State, through the banks,[1] is interested indirectly in most of these industries by reason of the somewhat elastic credit system with which Hungarian industry has been built up; and in practically every case the bank directorates include men whose names are unmistakably German or German-Austrian.

[1] The chief banking centres are Pozsony, Kassa, Beszterczebánya, Losoncz, and Esztergom; and there are Chambers of Commerce at the first three places; that at Pozsony includes Nyitra, Trencsén, and Turócz.

PRINCIPAL MANUFACTURES, CHIEF CENTRES, AND TOTAL CAPITAL INVESTED

	Kronen.
Textiles.—At Rózsahegy, Pozsony, Besztercze-bánya, Czacza, Gács, Késmárk, Kassa, Kiszucza-Ujhely, Rajecz, Selmeczbánya, Vácz, and Zsolna	41,133,000
Electro-technical Industries.—At Pozsony, Eperjes, Igló, Losoncz, Salgó-Tarján, Sátoralja-Ujhely, Szerencz, Ungvár, and Zsolna	5,902,600
Machinery and Metals.—At Salgó-Tarján, Losoncz, Pozsony, and Trencsén. (See also the section on *Minerals and Metallurgy*, p. 32 above) . .	4,325,000
Wood and Timber.—At Gyetva, Kassa, Pelsöcz, Trencsén, Turócz-St. Marton, and Ung . .	2,005,000
Leather.—At Liptó-St. Miklos, Nagy-Bossány, and Pozsony	2,400,000
Chemicals.—At Liptó-St. Miklos, Zsolna, Besztercze-bánya, Trencsén, Privigye (Priwitz), and Tokaj	12,800,000
Mineral Oils, &c.—Pozsony, Bodrog-Keresztúr, Késmárk, Sátoralja-Ujhely, and Zsolna . .	1,400,000
Sugar.—At Diószeg, Hölak, Oroszka, and Selyp .	10,800

The following statistics showing the growth of the town population may be considered as a roughly accurate test of commercial and industrial progress:

TABLE SHOWING THE POPULATION OF 16 SLOVAK TOWNS IN 1890, 1900, AND 1910

Names of Towns.	*Population in the Year*			*Percentage of increase or decrease over* 1890.
	1890.	1900.	1910.	
Large towns:				
Kassa . . .	32,165	40,102	44,211	37·5
Pozsony . .	56,048	65,867	78,223	39·6
Smaller towns:				
Besztercebánya	7,958	9,264	10,776	35·4
Eperjes . .	11,330	14,447	16,323	44·1
Esztergom . .	—	—	18,000	—
Gölniczbánya .	3,917	4,093	3,833	2·1
Igló	7,733	9,301	10,525	36·1
Losoncz . . .	8,221	9,530	12,939	57·4
Nyitra . . .	13,784	15,169	16,419	19·1
Rozsnyó . .	4,816	5,198	6,565	36·3
Selmecz . .	15,280	16,375	15,185	0·6
Trencsén . .	6,075	7,011	7,805	28·5
Ungvár . .	13,344	14,723	16,919	26·8
Vácz . . .	—	—	19,000	—
Zólyom . . .	5,129	7,173	8,799	72·3
Zsolna . . .	4,124	5,633	9,179	122·6
Slovakia (16 towns)	189,924	223,886	257,701	35·6

(C) GENERAL REMARKS

In considering the present condition and the future possibilities of Slovakia it must be borne in mind that the modern development of Hungary as a whole only began some fifty years ago, and the whole country is still in an early stage of its economic growth. Nor can one overlook the fact that the Slovak people have been in the position of aliens, living and working under a Government to which they have long been passively, and of late actively, hostile. Thus, on the one hand, the data for forecasting the future from the past are somewhat meagre in Hungary as a whole; and, on the other, there may easily be latent economic forces in Slovakia which remain to be developed in happier political conditions.

It is even somewhat difficult as yet to form an accurate judgement of the character of the Slovaks themselves. One authority writes of the cleanly and well-to-do air of their villages, in which there is little of any sign of misery or want, but admits that the peasant proprietors have fewer possessions than the Magyars of the same class, and that there is too large a proportion who have no share, or only an infinitesimal share, in the land. Another, apparently not ill-disposed, declares that 'the imprint of poverty lies heavily upon them', and is impressed with the slowness, want of initiative, passivity, and intemperance of the people, and the poorness of their soil. But this tendency to fatalism is redeemed by a certain mysticism of temperament and outlook; and it is recognized that 'slow people, such as these, when once set moving, are most difficult to restrain', and that with a love of colour and beauty, and perhaps of pleasure in general, they combine great physical strength and marked tenacity of purpose. The readiness of the men to emigrate in search of wealth does not seem to argue lack of enterprise in the individual; while the women have gained a high reputation alike for their skill in

fine and exacting work such as embroidery and lace-making, and for the steadfastness with which they maintain the old life at home, while the men are seeking fortune in new lands.

It seems reasonable to expect that the future progress of the country will be satisfactory, if not remarkably rapid. As it is, the urban centres, though for the most part small, have more than kept pace with the rest of Hungary; and some successful experiments in agriculture, notably in the growing of potatoes, have been made in the more suitable counties, such as Bars, Nyitra, and Szepes, while the fertility of Pozsony and Zemplén is well above the average. Railway communications are already tolerable and freights not too high; but it is clear that a number of railheads could still be joined up at comparatively small expense, either by extending the system of light railways or, in the hillier country, by the use of automobiles. The two most important towns, Pozsony and Kassa, have hitherto been dominated by Germans, Jews, and Magyars. But in both the Slovak population has been a considerable element; and it is only too certain that the loss of either of these places, and particularly of Pozsony, the only port on the Danube and the chief gateway to the south-west, would very seriously cripple the economic life of Slovakia.

It seems equally clear that the country stands in great need of foreign capital and of a continuance of such enlightened guidance in technical and agricultural affairs as it appears to have received of late years from the Hungarian Government. The wealth of the country lies mainly in its minerals and notably in its iron deposits, which, it is claimed, are not likely to be exhausted for centuries. Yet the output of iron ore and of pig-iron compares very unfavourably with that of the British Isles. It is again difficult to believe that mineral oil, in workable quantities, will not soon be found in the mining districts. As the American Consul-General at Budapest recently pointed out, the geological surveys hitherto made in Hungary have

probably failed to reveal all the ore-bearing districts; and, on the other hand, the iron and steel industry has been hindered by lack of transport facilities, and by the fact that iron ore, coal, and limestone are not found together in any one centre.

Closely connected with the question of the mines is that of the fuller development of water-power, particularly for the production of electricity. A Magyar authority some years ago wrote with regret of the 'immeasurable driving-power with which the streams and mountain brooks of the county of Liptó could supply industry', and added that, in spite of this, the factories were few and small, 'because of the absence of enterprise and capital'. These statements apply to more than one Slovak county, and the Magyar Government has, it appears, at length become aware of the possibilities which have been so long neglected. A writer in the *Magyarország* has been recently quoted as pointing to the Slovak highlands as the future seat of Hungarian industry, 'as there are to be found water-power, coal and iron fields; it is there that factories are going to be built; that is going to be the field of industry; that is going to be a New America'.

It seems certain that here in Slovakia, in spite of obvious difficulties, there is a great field for the enlightened use of capital; and if it does not come from one country it will be supplied by another. Not only the mines, but the forests and the stock-raising industry of the country, afford opportunities for investment or loan; and these are matters which the Government of the country will almost of necessity take up in the near future. The same may perhaps be foretold of the textile industry, while in the magnificent scenery of the Tátra there is clearly a splendid field for the development of the hotel business, for the Western tourist and sport-lover will not remain much longer content to leave the Carpathians on one side.

It may perhaps not be out of place to recall the fact that it was at Pozsony, immediately after an expedition to the Carpathians, that a member of the

Eighty Club deputation to Hungary in 1906 publicly declared that 'during the visit the deputation had been much impressed with the fresh fields of enterprise which presented themselves to British capitalists in the exploitation of the mineral treasures and natural wealth of the country'.

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