

*HANDBOOKS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE  
HISTORICAL SECTION OF THE FOREIGN OFFICE.—No. 46*

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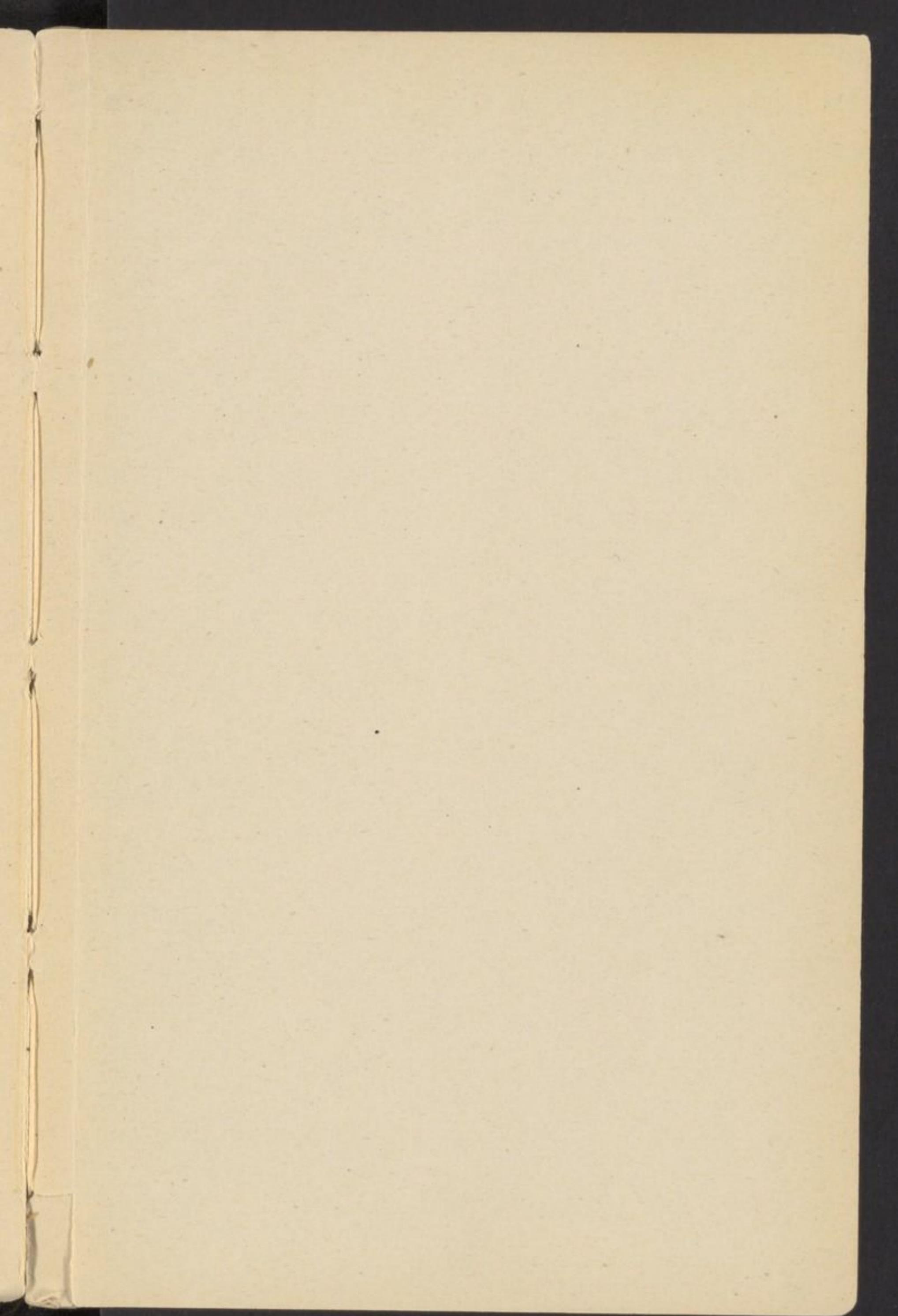


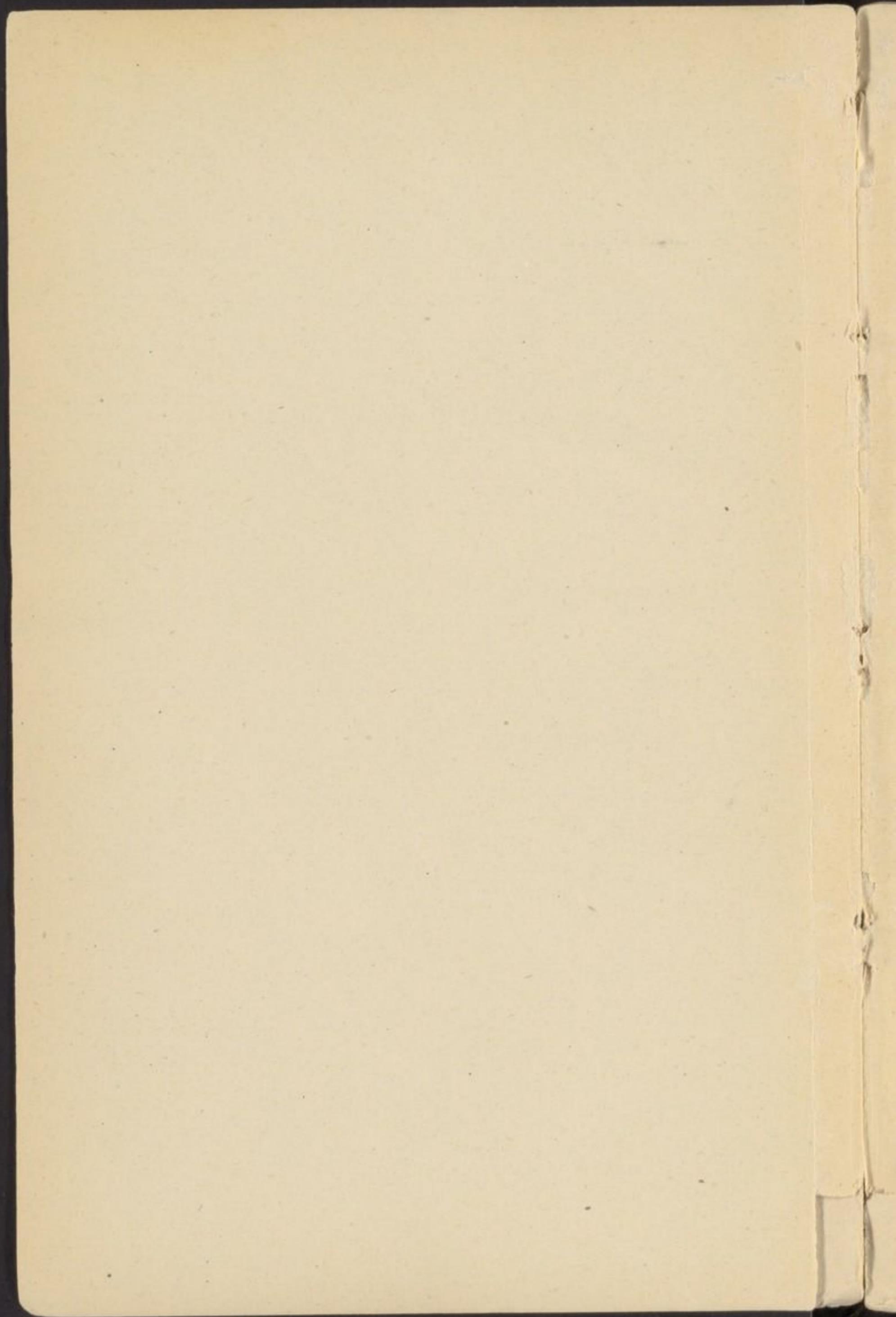
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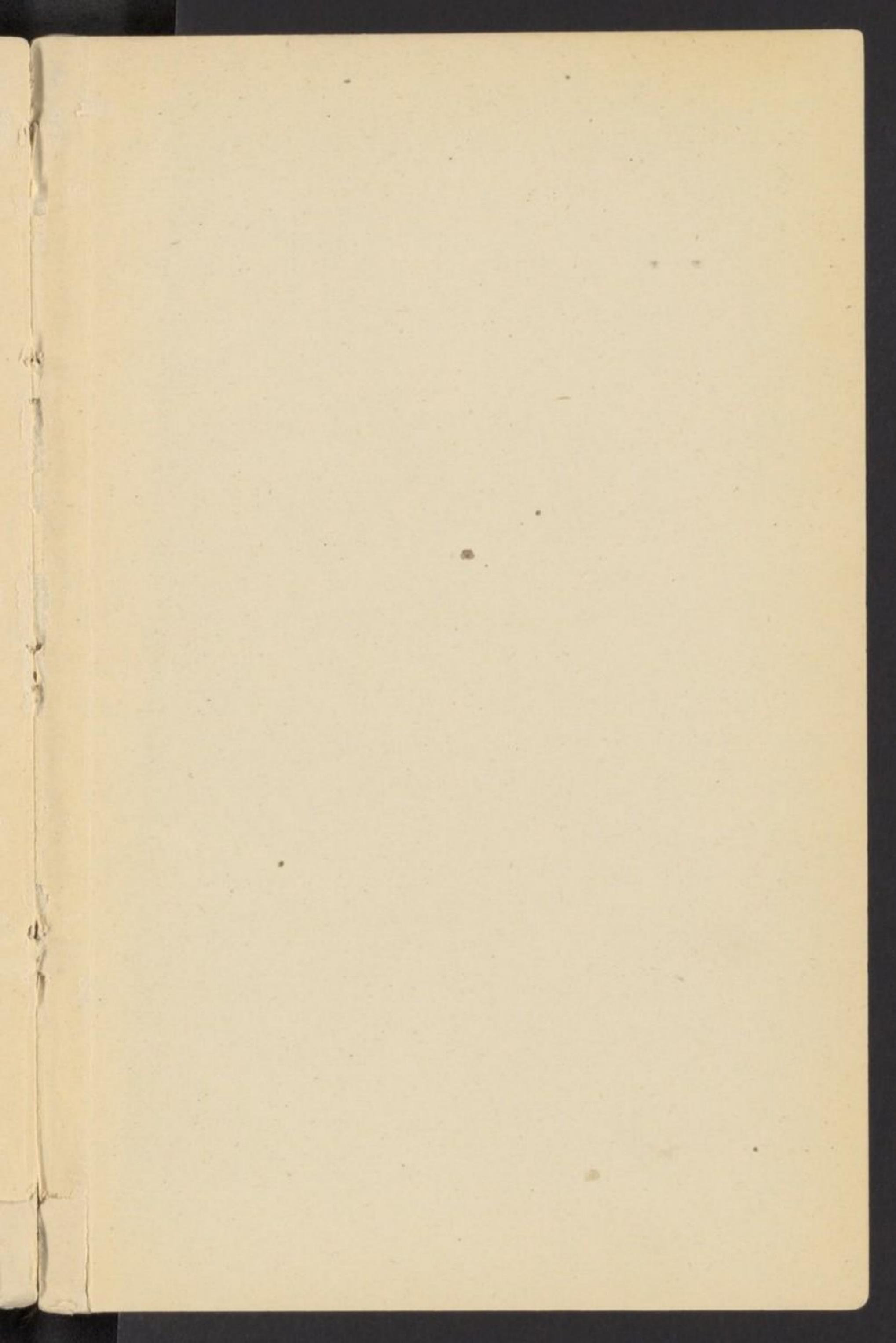


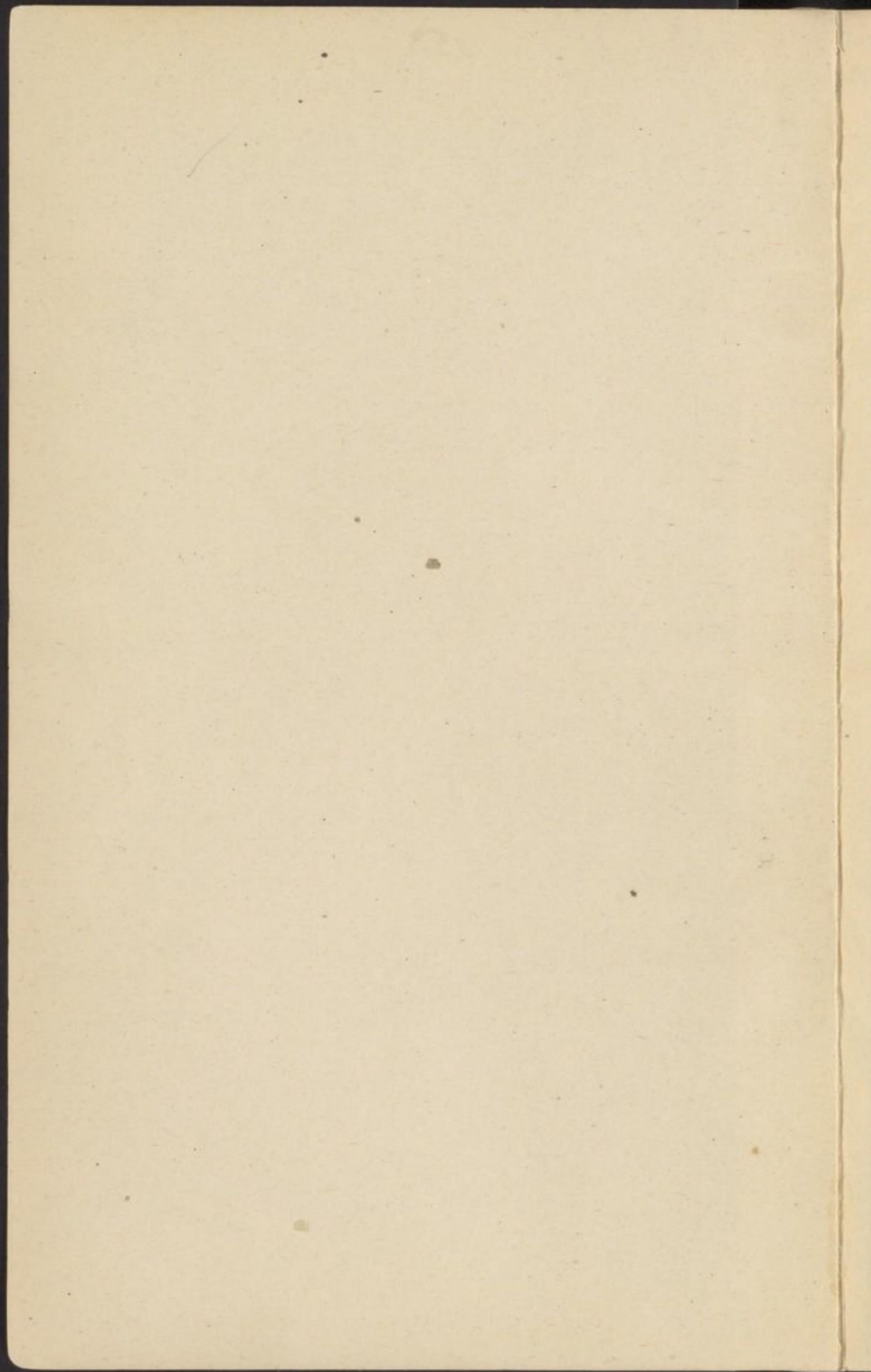
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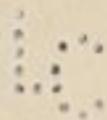
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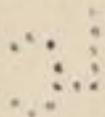
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It must be understood that, although the series of volumes was prepared under the authority, and is now issued with the sanction, of the Foreign Office, that Office is not to be regarded as guaranteeing the accuracy of every statement which they contain 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

GALICIA, the largest province of the Austrian Empire, with an area of 30,300 square miles, lies between  $47^{\circ} 43'$  and  $50^{\circ} 49'$  north latitude and  $18^{\circ} 57'$  and  $26^{\circ} 28'$  east longitude, and is bounded on the west by Austrian and Prussian Silesia, on the north by Russian Poland, and on the east by the Little Russian (Ukrainian) governments of Volhynia and Podolia. The eastern end of the southern frontier touches Bessarabia for a short distance, while the rest of the southern boundary is formed by the Bukovina and Hungary.

The boundaries of the country are for the most part very clear, following as they do natural barriers of mountain and river. The southern boundary line runs through the Carpathian Mountains for its whole length of 300 miles, usually following the watershed more or less closely. The western frontier, at its southern end, also lies in the Carpathian chain, but farther north is marked by the line of the Biała river, a right-bank tributary of the Vistula. After the junction of the Biała with the Vistula, the western boundary of Galicia is carried north-eastward along the line of the Vistula itself to near Oświęcim, and then up the Przemsza to Myslowitz. Neither the Przemsza, the Biała, nor the Vistula at this early stage of its course is of a size to form an important natural line of defence.

The northern frontier of Galicia runs at its western end through the Heights of Cracow, which form part of the plateaux of Little Poland north of the Vistula. The general direction of the ranges is from south-east to north-west, so that the frontier, running roughly from west to east, cuts across the valleys and follows

no river until eastwards of Cracow, where it turns south to meet the Vistula, which once more becomes the boundary line as far as the junction of the Sanna at the northernmost part of Galicia. Here the boundary leaves the Vistula, and runs in a general south-easterly direction roughly parallel to the course of the River San, which it touches for a while near Kreshov (Krzeszów). The eastern part of the northern frontier follows no river line, but goes through broken country, to the north of which lie the Lublin Heights and to the south the marshy plains of Galicia.

The eastern frontier is in its northern section drawn across similar country which becomes more undulating as it proceeds eastwards. After crossing the watershed between the streams flowing north to the Pripet region, and those flowing south to the Dniester, the boundary runs down the deeply-eroded valley of the Zbrucz, ending at the junction of the Zbrucz with the Dniester. The extreme south-eastern corner of Galicia is enclosed between these two rivers, both flowing through deep wooded defiles.

## (2) SURFACE AND RIVER SYSTEM

### *Surface*

For purposes of more detailed description Galicia may be divided into four main areas :

(1) The Heights of Cracow, which fill the north-western corner of the country north of the Vistula as far east as Cracow.

(2) The Plains, which stretch almost uninterruptedly from the foot-hills of the Silesian Highlands near the western frontier to the San, and eastward of that river through the whole of north-eastern and parts of south-eastern Galicia.

(3) The Podolian (or Black Sea) Plateau, which fills the greater part of eastern Galicia as far west as Lemberg, and divides the north-eastern plains from those of the south-east.

(4) The Carpathians, which extend through the whole of southern Galicia.

*The Heights of Cracow.*—Only the southern ranges of these heights lie within the boundaries of Galicia. The Vistula is their southern boundary nearly everywhere, although they cross the river in the neighbourhood of Cracow itself, and run southward across the Galician Plain to join the foot-hills of the Carpathians. This is one of the only two points at which the Polish heights are directly connected with the Carpathians.

The Heights of Cracow are much broken and divided from each other by deep valleys. The most remarkable formation in these mountains within Galicia is the limestone chain, the northern end of which reaches to Wieluń in Russian Poland, while at its southern end, as has been said above, it passes Cracow and extends across the Vistula. This region is known as the Cracow breach of the Vistula, and is famous for its beauty, its highest points reaching 1,300 ft.

*The Plains.*—At their western end the plains of Galicia are closely bounded by the plateaux of Little Poland on the north and by the Carpathians on the south.

That part of the Galician depression which lies to the west of this high ground is known as the Oświęcim Plain, and extends from Oświęcim (Auschwitz), which lies near the western frontier of Galicia, on the eastern edge of the Silesian elevation, to the Cracow breach of the Vistula. At Cracow the Galician Plain proper begins; it extends eastward to the River San, and its shape is a triangle, the points of which are Cracow, Sandomierz, and Przemyśl. On the south this area is bounded by the Carpathian foot-hills. The average level along the southern part of the plain is about 700 ft., sinking to below 500 ft. at the junction of the Vistula and the San near Sandomierz.

Some distance to eastward of the San the Galician Plain is divided into a northern and a southern portion by the wedge of the Podolian Plateau, which thrusts itself westwards from across the Russian frontier. To

the north of this wedge the plain extends in a narrow strip from the San to the Bug, bounded on the north by the Lublin Heights (which form part of the plateaux of Little Poland). This northerly part of the Galician Plain is divided into two distinct portions by the Roztocze ridge, and eastwards from this ridge to the north-eastern frontier of Galicia the country is a flat monotonous stretch of bog, sand, and pine-woods.

In the southern portion of the East Galician plain the Carpathian foot-hills project northward near Przemyśl, where they form the watershed between the San and the Dniester. The valleys of the Dniester and its right-bank tributary the Stryj are very liable to floods, and are too marshy for agriculture in their present undrained state.

*The Podolian Plateau.*—Within Galicia the northern boundary of this plateau runs along a line which passes from Brody to Lemberg through Złoczów. Upon this northern edge the plateau falls abruptly to the north-eastern plain, except where the narrow ridge of Roztocze, mentioned above, runs between Lemberg and Tomaszów.

The western limit of the plateau runs along a line drawn south from Lemberg to Mikołajów, while the southern edge runs down the north bank of the Dniester to a point below Halicz, where it crosses the river and continues southwards to the frontier between Galicia and the Bukovina, there joining the Carpathians. This is the second of the two points at which the Heights of Little Poland are connected with the Carpathians by high ground, which is here continued across the whole breadth of the widest part of Galicia by means of the Roztocze ridge.

The highest altitudes of the Podolian Plateau are in the westerly region known as Opole, where the average elevation is more than 1,300 ft. above sea-level. From here a great number of rivers run southward to the Dniester, flowing in wide valleys liable to frequent floods, so that a great part of the surface is marsh-land.

The area lying immediately to eastward of Opole, between the rivers Koropiec and Sereth, is known as Western Podolia. (This Sereth, a left-bank tributary of the Dniester, must not be confused with the Sereth, a tributary of the Danube.) Western Podolia is full of marshy open valleys in the north, but its rivers in their lower courses run in narrow ravines; the country between them is flat, and to a great extent treeless, and begins to assume the characteristics of the steppe, which become more marked east of the Sereth. The region beyond this river is known as Eastern Podolia, and that part of it which lies within Galicia contains a wooded limestone ridge, rising in places 300 ft. above the plateau level, and running right across it from the northern border to Husiatyn.

In the small south-eastern area called Pokucie, south of the Dniester, the Podolian Plateau merges into the Carpathians. The soil of this district is fruitful and richly cultivated.

*The Carpathians.*—The mountains in Galician territory belong to the outer of the two parallel zones into which the whole Carpathian range is divided. The only part of the inner zone which falls within the Galician frontier is the High Tatra group, which lies near the western end of the frontier, and differs much from the other hills in structure and appearance. Otherwise the chains show little variation, and their wooded sandstone ridges stretch from one end of the country to the other, their summits being everywhere low in comparison with the average altitude.

The ranges between the western frontier and the River Poprád are known as the Western Beskids. The Tatra also lies in this section, to the south of the Beskids; the frontier line, curving sharply south and then north, includes this group. The northern mountains belonging to the Western Beskids contain the line of picturesque limestone crags known as the Carpathian cliffs, which form a narrow zone about 100 miles long.

The Eastern Beskids begin east of the Poprád and

extend to the Lupków Pass, although the name is sometimes used for the hills as far eastwards as the Użok Pass. They then merge into the Eastern or Wooded Carpathians.

The Tatra itself rises like an island from the sandstone formations which surround it. It is about 30 miles long and 10 miles broad, with an average altitude of over 6,500 ft., and peaks reaching to over 8,500 ft., the highest to be found anywhere in the Carpathians, while many glacial lakes lie in its valleys. The sides are wooded up to a height of 5,000 ft., where the forests are succeeded by a zone of bushes and pastures, and above this rise the bare granite peaks.

#### *River System*

Galicia lies mainly in the basin of two great rivers, the *Vistula* and the *Dniester*, the first emptying into the Baltic, the second into the Black Sea.' All Western Galicia belongs to the Vistula basin, and Eastern Galicia to the basin of the Dniester, except in the southeastern corner, where the rivers flow southward and thus belong to the Danube basin. Both the great rivers receive a very large number of tributaries, so that the whole surface of the plains and the Podolian Plateau is cut at frequent intervals by valleys. In the present unregulated condition of the streams, floods are a constantly recurring hindrance to agriculture in nearly all parts of the country.

The *Vistula* rises in the Barania range in Austrian Silesia. Thence it flows north-eastward, and continues in that direction after it enters Galicia. At this point its course runs through the wide glacial valley known as the Oświęcim Plain, alluded to above, where it first becomes liable to the sudden violent floods which are characteristic of it throughout the rest of its course. It turns east before reaching Cracow, and here it becomes navigable for steamships.

Taken in order from west to east the chief affluents of the Vistula are the Dunajec, the Wisłoka, and the San. The Dunajec, which is navigable for boats in

its lower course, receives in its upper waters one tributary, the Popród. The San is the most considerable of any of the Vistula tributaries within Galicia, and becomes navigable at a little distance below Leżajsk. It may be noted that the Bug in its upper waters flows southwards through north-eastern Galicia.

The *Dniester* rises in the middle of Galicia, among the low hills, in the plain south of Przemyśl, and flows at first north, and then in a general south-easterly direction. It is a frontier river only for a short stretch at the south-east of Galicia before it passes into Russia. It runs through the centre of Eastern Galicia, receiving a large number of tributaries on both banks. Its fall is slight, and in its upper waters it passes through a wide valley, with large marshes on either side, this area constantly being inundated.

On the right bank of the Dniester the largest tributaries, named in order from west to east, are the Stryj, the Swica, the Łomnica, and the Bystrzyca (Bistritz). The most important of these is the Stryj, which in its lower waters resembles the upper Dniester, into which it flows, in its wide and frequent floods.

The chief of the left-bank tributaries, which run parallel to each other southward through the Podolian Plateau, are the Złota Lipa, the Strypa, the Sereth, and the Zbrucz. None of the Dniester tributaries are navigable for boats.

Only a corner of the country, watered by the upper course of the Pruth, lies outside the basin of one or other of the Vistula and Dniester.

### (3) CLIMATE

Galicia has a severe climate, owing partly to the general northward aspect of the country, which is shut off by the Carpathians from the south winds. It consequently lies exposed to the north and north-east. There are great variations of temperature between winter and summer, at Lemberg the mean January temperature being 24° F. ( $-4\frac{1}{2}$ ° C.) and the July temperature 66° F. (19° C.). In the Carpathians

the mean annual variation is  $39^{\circ}$  F. ( $21\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  C.), the difference between  $21^{\circ}$  F. ( $-6^{\circ}$  C.) in January and  $60^{\circ}$  F. ( $15\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  C.) in July. The winters are long, and are followed by short wet springs. There are, however, many places in the mountains which are sheltered and sunny and have become well known as health resorts.

In the Carpathians the average yearly precipitation is 38 inches, and at Cracow 24 inches. Over 60 per cent. of the total falls between the months of April and September, both in the mountains and in the plains. In the mountains more than half of the winter precipitation falls in snow.

The mean annual rainfall of the greater part of the Podolian Plateau is only 19 inches, but on its northern border it is considerably more. Here again more than 60 per cent. of the total falls in the six warm months. This comparatively heavy summer rainfall is common to all parts of Galicia, and contributes greatly to its fertility, although at the same time it is one cause of the floods which are the great hindrance to agriculture. Droughts are in fact almost unknown.

Galician rivers generally freeze in the first half of December, and remain frozen till about the middle of March; 108 days is a normal period for the upper Vistula to be under ice.

#### (4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

The medical service of Galicia is partly provided by the public health authorities. Eight hundred doctors are in State service, out of a total of about 1,400 fully qualified physicians and 75 surgeons. This works out at about one doctor to every 5,400 of the population.

There are nearly a hundred hospitals distributed throughout the country. Some sixty of these are paid for out of charitable funds, six of them being in Lemberg and seven in Cracow. Many are Jewish institutions, but the proportions seem to show that more is attempted for the sick poor in general than is the case in Russian Poland. The provi-

sion of hospital beds is, however, far from adequate, being only one to every 1,250 people. The death-rate for all the Hungarian provinces is very high, and Galicia in this respect resembles them. Malarial diseases flourish in the marshy plains, and diseases due to bad conditions, such as tuberculosis and pneumonia, are common.

#### (5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

##### *Race*

According to the last official census (1910) Galicia contains 8,025,600 inhabitants (Western Galicia 2,689,800, Eastern Galicia 5,335,800). Of the total number 4,672,000 are entered as habitually speaking Polish, 3,208,000 as speaking Little Russian, and 90,000 as speaking German. The proportions of nationalities thus calculated are Poles 58.6 per cent., Little Russians (also called Ruthenians or Ukrainians) 40 per cent., and Germans 1.1 per cent. The Jews, although they speak Yiddish among themselves, are entered as speaking the language of one or other of the above races (generally Polish) and are therefore mostly counted among the Poles. The religious census of 1910 puts the Jews in Galicia at 872,000, or about 11 per cent. of the total population, which may be taken as representing the number of unassimilated Jews in the country.

Galicia thus contains two races approximately equal in numbers, the Poles belonging ethnologically to the western Slavs, and the Little Russians to the eastern Slavs, being therefore akin to the Great Russians and the White Russians.

These two main divisions must be taken here to cover the smaller distinctions of race among the Goralians or Carpathian mountaineers. These include a number of separate groups, who from their isolated position have kept many interesting characteristics of dialect and custom. In the Tátra, for instance, there are some thirty villages inhabited solely by the Podhalians, a Polish-speaking tribe, of mixed origin, while the

Eastern Beskids are the home of the Hutsulians (Huzuls), the largest of the Little Russian groups inhabiting the mountains.

The racial distribution of Poles and Little Russians is extremely simple in Western Galicia, where the Polish-speaking population forms 96 per cent. of the total. Of these 8 per cent. are professing Jews, who are mostly settled in the towns, while Little Russians make up less than 3 per cent. of the population. The latter are found chiefly in the comparatively thinly populated Carpathian districts bordering on the River Popród and the upper valley of the Dunajec, where the Lemki (or Lemkians), mountaineers of Little Russian origin form 10 to 25 per cent. of the inhabitants. They number less than 80,000. With this exception Western Galicia is solidly Polish.

In Eastern Galicia, east of a line between the River Wistoka and the San, the ethnographical map is more complicated. The Little Russian population is in a majority of 59 per cent., and the proportion of Polish-speaking inhabitants is 39 per cent. Professing Jews number 12 per cent. of the total population and live chiefly in the towns, being also found in the oil-belt at the foot of the Carpathians. The census returns probably under-estimate the numbers of Little Russians in Eastern Galicia; Jews are frequently called Poles in the language statistics, and the Roman Catholics among the Little Russians are probably also calculated as Poles.

Although Poles are in a minority when Eastern Galicia is considered as a single area, there are a number of districts in which they form more than half the population. This is the case in the four political districts of Sanok, Brzozów, Przemyśl, and Jarosław (Jaroslau), all of which extend eastwards across the San, as well as in the adjoining political district of Cieszanów, on the northern frontier, eastward of the San. These provinces form the eastern limit of the solidly Polish territory in Galicia, and in the north are bounded by the equally Polish territory in Lublin and Chołm. Poles

form the majority of the population only in two other isolated localities in Eastern Galicia ; in the political district and town of Lemberg, and again in three political districts (Tarnopol, Skalat, and Trembowla) which lie on or near the eastern frontier.

The areas in which Little Russians are in a great majority lie, broadly speaking, in the south of Eastern Galicia, along the Dniester valley and in the Carpathians. There is, however, one solid block of Little Russian nationality in the north of Eastern Galicia, composed of the districts of Rawa Ruska, Żólkiew, and Jaworów, lying to north and east of Lemberg. In these districts the Little Russians compose from 69 to 78 per cent. of the inhabitants.

### *Language*

The two languages in common use in Galicia are both Slavonic. Polish belongs to the western group, and is thus allied to Slovak, Czech, and Wendish. Little Russian (or Ruthenian) is a dialect of Russian, and forms with Russian and the White Russian dialect the eastern group of Slavonic languages. Galician Jews talk Yiddish among themselves.

In Galicia Polish and Little Russian are both recognized by the Austrian Government as *Landessprachen* (languages of the country), which involves their right to be used in administrative assemblies and in schools.

The true facts are obscured by the absence of adequate nationality statistics in the Austrian census, for no inquiry is instituted as to the 'mother tongue', the returns being based instead on the 'language in common use'.

## (6) POPULATION

### *Distribution*

In 1910 the density of the population of the country as a whole was 265 to the square mile, being 300 to the square mile in Western Galicia and 248 in Eastern Galicia. This is a very crowded population, especially

in view of the scarcity of big towns and the large majority of agriculturists among the people. The figures for the purely agricultural areas are 227 to the square mile in Western Galicia and 182 to the square mile in Eastern Galicia. The most thickly peopled districts lie in the plains, and in Western Galicia in the coal-bearing areas round Chrzanów, while the mountain districts have the smallest population.

In Eastern Galicia the population is thickest on the right bank of the Dniester, along the oil-belt at the northern foot of the Carpathians, also in the neighbourhood of Lemberg and along the southern half of the eastern frontier. The plateau region in the north-east is less densely peopled.

### *Towns*

Galicia has two important towns: Cracow, the capital of Western Galicia, and Lemberg (Lwów), the capital of Eastern Galicia. Both these are governed by their own municipal councils: all the other towns are under the administration of the political districts in which they are situated.

The population of Cracow (including Podgórze, which adjoins it on the right bank of the Vistula) is 174,000. The population of Lemberg is 206,000. The next largest town is Przemyśl (54,000 inhabitants). No other Galician town has a population attaining 50,000. There are twelve between 20,000 and 50,000, lying mostly in the south and centre of the country. There is no large town eastwards from Cracow near the northern frontier; and the north-eastern districts have no big centres at all except Brody on the eastern frontier (21,000 inhabitants).

### *Increase*

The population of Galicia increased by 216 per cent. between the years 1816 and 1910. This is a lower rate of increase than is shown in any other part of the territories of the old Polish State over the same period.

In the years between 1900 and 1910 the mean rate of increase was just under 16 per thousand. The following table shows the difference in the resident population between the natural and actual increase in the separate years of the decade, caused by the losses from emigration:

<i>Year.</i>	<i>Total population.</i>	<i>Births.</i>	<i>Deaths.</i>	<i>Natural increase.</i>	<i>Actual increase.</i>	<i>Actual increase per 1,000</i>
1901	7,245,000	322,000	187,000	135,000	90,000	12
1902	7,335,000	327,000	210,000	117,000	71,000	10
1903	7,406,000	315,000	198,000	117,000	71,000	9
1904	7,478,000	323,000	202,000	121,000	74,000	10
1905	7,552,000	312,000	213,000	98,000	51,000	7
1906	7,602,000	329,000	200,000	128,000	80,000	10
1907	7,683,000	321,000	196,000	125,000	75,000	10
1908	7,758,000	317,000	191,000	126,000	76,000	10
1909	7,834,000	317,000	204,000	113,000	62,000	8
1910	7,896,000	310,000	193,000	117,000	65,000	8

The above figures are for the total population of Galicia. When the rates of natural increase of the two nationalities are compared, it is found that the mean rate per 1,000 for the years 1900 to 1910 is 17 for the Poles and 13 for the Little Russians. These figures show the Poles to be the most prolific of all the races in the Austrian Empire.

## II. POLITICAL HISTORY

### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

1815. Treaty of Vienna. Fifth partition of Poland. Cracow proclaimed a Republic.
1817. Estates of Galicia created by Austria.
1846. Peasants' rising. Cracow annexed to Galicia.
1848. Revolution in Vienna.  
Formation of first Polish National Committees in Galicia.  
First open demands for constitutional rights.
1859. Austria defeated at Magenta and Solferino.
1860. October Constitution with promise of autonomy.
1861. February Constitution adopted. First Galician Diet.
1866. Austro-Prussian War.
1867. Dual Monarchy established.
1868. 'Galician Resolution' submitted to the Emperor.  
Administration begins to pass into Polish hands.
1873. Introduction of direct voting for Reichsrat elections.
1896. Extension of the suffrage.
1907. Universal suffrage introduced.
1914. Enlargement and reorganization of Diet.

#### (1) INTRODUCTION

THE history of Galicia from the Congress of Vienna in 1815 up to the outbreak of war in 1914 falls into two distinct portions. The first extends from 1815 to 1866 and may be described as the period of government from Vienna. The second may be called the period of autonomy.

The distinction between the two is sharply marked, for the second was not a gradual development from the first, but the result of a complete reversal of policy imposed upon Austria by the series of events which followed the revolution of 1848 and culminated in her defeat by Prussia in 1866. Therefore, the incidents of

the years before 1848 have little bearing upon present conditions, except in so far as they contribute towards deciding the subsequent attitude of the different classes in Galicia towards each other and towards the State. After 1848, however, in spite of phases of reaction, some sort of autonomy became obviously necessary, although the precise form in which the Austrian Government eventually granted it to Galicia was decided by the European position after the Austro-Prussian War. Therefore the period of Centralist Government may be conveniently divided into two parts—the first being between the years 1815 and 1848, when Austrian treatment of Galicia was almost uniformly repressive, and the second between 1848 and 1866, during which that treatment was unwillingly modified.

## (2) PERIOD OF CENTRALIST GOVERNMENT, 1815-66

### *Period of Repression, 1815-48*

The fifth Partition of Poland, made at the Congress of Vienna, brought comparatively little gain of territory to Austria, who had already received her share at the first Partition in 1772. She now increased it by the two districts of Tarnopol and Zbaraż in Eastern Galicia, and a district in Western Galicia. Cracow was not annexed until 1846. The Vienna Treaty of 1815 made the city and its immediate surroundings an independent republic under the protection of Russia, Prussia, and Austria; and it existed thus for thirty-one years as the last vestige of the old free Poland.

The dismemberment of the Polish State in 1815, therefore, brought few political changes to Galicia. All the partitioning Powers promised to grant constitutions and to recognize the nationality of Poles in the Polish territories which they acquired by the Treaty of Vienna. Austria fulfilled her pledge in 1817 only to the extent of reviving the Constitution which had been given by her to Galicia in 1775. This set up a sort of parody of a Diet, drawn principally from two classes of the people, the nobles and the clergy, with a few representatives of

the towns. This body was entrusted with practically no functions beyond recording the Imperial decrees by which the Government in Vienna dictated its will as to taxation, recruiting, and police in Galicia. There was little legislation of any other kind between 1817 and 1848. The non-German territories of Austria were passive under the rigidly centralized system of Metternich, which deliberately made local enterprise and economic development utterly impossible.

There does not appear to have been much desire for either on the part of Galician Poles, at any rate before 1830. In these respects Galicia was the most backward part of Poland. This may have been partly due at first to the fact that the country came under the deadening influence of Austria at the first partition, and therefore had no active share in the struggles which stirred other parts of Poland during the period of the later partitions and the Napoleonic wars. Galicia had as yet practically no middle class. Society was divided into two groups, the one composed of the great mass of the peasants (of whom those in the eastern district were chiefly of Little Russian or Ruthenian,<sup>1</sup> those in the western of Polish race) who were still serfs, subject to forced labour, unable to hold land, ignorant and unorganized; the other composed of the landlords (*szlachta*), in other words of the nobility great and small, who were almost entirely of Polish origin. These last lived as the members of their class had done in all parts of Poland in the eighteenth century. The Galician gentry kept their old traditions long after more modern influences had begun to work among their equals in Russian and Prussian Poland. They lived in lavish plenty on their estates, too indolent and ignorant to initiate any constructive political work. National feeling and aspirations they had, no doubt, but they had imagined no way of re-establishing Poland except

<sup>1</sup> In this section the word Ruthene or Ruthenian will generally be used as equivalent to Little Russian, and means that part of the population which is identical in race and language with that of the Ukraine.

by the overthrow of her oppressors. The idea of strengthening her from within had not yet occurred to them. As regards internal reforms the conservative spirit, which in the period of autonomy earned for them the favour of the Government, and thus admittedly brought great advantage to their country, led merely to apathy in the first part of the earlier period.

This attitude suited Metternich's wishes perfectly, by preventing the consolidation of national feeling which would have resulted from interest taken by Polish landlords in the welfare of Polish peasants and in the economic progress of the country. During the whole period of Centralist Government the consistent policy of Austria was to foster ill will between classes in Galicia. Thus when in 1842 the Diet, beginning to show some consciousness of the peasants' requirements, petitioned that they might be allowed to own land, the Government disregarded the request. Until after 1846 the *corvée* system was upheld from Vienna as a valuable means of keeping class hatred alive.

The mere fact that petitions for peasants' rights should be forwarded from Galicia caused disquiet in Vienna. The political unrest which was thereby indicated had, however, been partly caused by Vienna's own handling of the Polish question in connexion with foreign politics. The Government did its best to destroy Polish life within Austria, but it was not unwilling to use its Polish subjects as a menace to Russia. Thus the Polish rising in the Kingdom of Poland in 1830 caused a relaxation of political oppression in Galicia. Reaction set in again almost immediately, but meanwhile Polish hopes had been roused. Secret societies sprang up. The most important of these was the Union of the Polish People, which was organized in Cracow (then still a republic) and aimed at educating the masses of the peasants. This appears to have been the first effort of the kind in Galicia. It was discovered by the police in 1838 before it had had time to produce much effect. The events of 1846 showed that it was as yet easier to rouse the peasants (more particularly the

Little Russians) to hatred of their landlords than to hatred of their invisible foreign rulers.

The Peasants' Rising of 1846 was deliberately encouraged from Vienna, but it would not have taken place if the bulk of the upper class in Galicia had not still looked for the salvation of their nationality only by way of revolution aided from without. The rebellion in Galicia began as a Polish rising against the Austrian Government. It was planned by Poles in Paris, and was to have been part of a much larger insurrection, involving all parts of Poland. The plot was discovered before its organizers started for Poland, where they were to have given the signal for the outbreak. The Russian and Prussian Governments prevented them from crossing the frontier; the Austrians, on the contrary, decided to let the revolt take its course. Metternich is declared to have said, 'Three days' fighting will give us sixty years of peace'. The strict Austrian censorship was therefore for the time being lifted off Galicia, and seditious literature was allowed to circulate freely. Much of the propaganda thus let loose was communistic, inciting the peasants against their landlords. It is said that this was not only allowed, but encouraged by the Government. The gentry had few thoughts to spare for danger from their own serfs. They knew that the rebellion they were pledged to support had failed elsewhere, but nevertheless they determined to do their part at the appointed time.

The rising broke out in Galicia in February 1846; and, although the insurgents were very few, the Austrian troops in Cracow were driven out and retired to Wieliczka. They abandoned this town also, leaving quantities of ammunition and money behind them. The towns were undoubtedly hostile to them, and the attacking Poles were helped by street fighting, but nevertheless the Austrians were suspected of making a feeble resistance in order to allow the rebellion to gather force.

For a few days a Provisional Government of the Polish nation ruled in Cracow, where it was received

with such enthusiasm that the revolutionary columns were encouraged to march out in hopes that the whole Polish population would rally round them. Instead, they were everywhere set upon by the Austrian troops, to whom great crowds of peasants armed with pitchforks had joined themselves. The teaching of the Union of the Polish People referred to above had had little effect upon the masses. The few who had been influenced by it were mostly in the ranks of the rebels; the rest of the people, inflamed against the landowners, supported the Austrian Government against their Polish landlords. Bands of peasants roamed the country burning manor houses and murdering their inhabitants, men, women, and children. The local Austrian officials did nothing to prevent the butchery; the best that can be said of them is that their initiative was paralysed by their habit of referring everything to Vienna. There is no doubt that the army chiefs actively encouraged the peasants to massacre the rebels in arms. They paid 10 florins for the head of each dead Polish insurgent, and 5 florins for each living Polish prisoner. The slaughter lasted for several days.

The immediate political result of the whole episode was that later in the same year (1846) Austria, with the consent of Russia and Prussia, suppressed the Republic of Cracow, where the rising had begun, and incorporated its territory with the rest of Galicia. This violation of the Treaty of Vienna evoked some public indignation in the rest of Europe, especially in France. The English and French Governments both protested against it separately, but did not contemplate taking any joint action, their relations being strained at the time owing to the question of the Spanish marriages.

The acquisition of Cracow was the only advantage Austria gained by her policy in the Peasants' Rising. The temper of the excited peasants themselves at once became a great embarrassment to the Government. They refused to return to work, and demanded release from some of their obligations. Refusal would have

prolonged the crisis, but consent would have brought similar demands from the peasantry in every other province of Austria. Some concessions were made, but revoked almost immediately. Count Stadion, a strong centralist, was appointed Governor in Lemberg, and Galicia was left full of agrarian as well as of national discontent.

Less than two years later the revolution broke out in Vienna, and the centralist system received its first serious shock.

### *Period of Transition, 1848-66*

The first effect of the revolution of 1848 in Galicia was the foundation of Polish National Committees in Cracow and Lemberg, which put forward requests for constitutional rights, recognition of the Polish language, and suppression of the *corvée*. The Governor of Cracow, Baron Krieg, was as strongly anti-Polish as Count Stadion in Lemberg, but the danger in Vienna at the moment was so great that both agreed to forward the proposals. For a short time it seemed as if the Government would be inclined to yield. Polish political prisoners were released, and a National Guard was formed in Cracow under Polish leaders. But the concessions were repented of almost as soon as they were granted. The outbreak in Vienna was suppressed, and the Government returned rapidly to its former policy. Riots broke out in Cracow, provoked by the severity of Baron Krieg's treatment of the National Guard, and Cracow was bombarded by Austrian artillery. The most significant proof of how unchanged the attitude of Austria really was appeared in her response to the requests of the National Committees. No constitutional rights were granted, no recognition of the Polish language was given. The *corvée* was suppressed, but its suppression was not allowed to appear as resulting from the wishes of the landowners; it was done as an act of grace from the Emperor himself, who thereby gained credit especially among the Ruthenian peasantry

as the advocate of their rights against their Polish landlords.

From this year, 1848, the Little Russian or Ruthenian question first assumed political importance in Galicia. It became, however, so much more important in the period of autonomy after 1866 that it will be convenient to describe its early history together with its later development in the section on that period.

The chief interest in Galician history in the ten years after 1848 did not lie in the relations between Poles and Ruthenes, but in the relations between Poles and the Government. The treatment which the Poles had recently received did not seem to open any probabilities of improved understanding between the two; nevertheless, this was the period in which the upper classes of Galicia were first attracted to that policy of steady support of the Monarchy which became their predominant political characteristic a few years later. The foundations were laid by one man, Count Agenor Goluchowski, who was appointed Governor of Galicia in 1849. He was himself a Pole, though a strong opponent of revolution. He had clear aims for the economic improvement of Galicia, which he believed could only be attained by banishing distrust of the Poles from the mind of the Government. He realized also that this could be best accomplished by creating a party in Galicia upon whose loyalty the dynasty could rely. The results of his efforts became visible after 1860, when the Polish Conservative Party came into being.

In 1859 Austria was defeated in the war with France and Piedmont at the battles of Magenta and Solferino and lost all her Italian possessions except Venetia. Her prestige was so shattered in the eyes of her other subject races that centralized government became henceforth impossible, and the constitutional era was opened in October 1860 by the Imperial Manifesto which promised a Federal Constitution. Goluchowski was summoned from Galicia to become Minister of State (*Staatsminister*) in Vienna. The preparation of

the first attempt at a Federal Constitution was in great part his work. This manifesto, usually known as the October Diploma, could not be put into practice, for a number of reasons connected both with external and internal considerations. The Emperor became alarmed at the strength of separatist feeling which showed itself in Hungary; he dreaded to rouse conflict between Germans and Slavs and Magyars. Moreover, the Tsar did not conceal his disapproval of a Federal Constitution being granted to Galicia. It became evident that the October Diploma was unworkable. The ministry which had prepared it was therefore dismissed, and Goluchowski was replaced by Schmerling.

If the October Constitution had become law it would have satisfied the Slav races better than any other of the nationalities in Austria. Its foundations were really federalistic, and would have afforded opportunity in getting rid of the German officials who still filled every administrative post in Bohemia and Galicia.

In February 1861 a Constitution was proclaimed by Imperial Patent. This second attempt was a compromise, keeping to the main lines of the October Diploma, but modifying it in the direction of centralization. By it Diets were instituted in each province, and their members were to be elected by four classes (*curiae*): (1) the landowners, (2) the chambers of Commerce, (3) the towns, (4) the rural districts. The Parliament for the whole Empire consisted of two Chambers, the members of the lower House being chosen by the Diets and not by direct election. This method of voting was altered in 1873. These statutes of 1861 are known as the February Constitution, and remained the basis of the Austrian form of government in spite of many subsequent changes. So far as Galicia is concerned the provisions of the February Constitution do not represent the present system of autonomy, therefore they will not be described here in detail. The date of the February Constitution is, however, an important one in Galician history, as it was under its statutes that the first Diet assembled in 1861.

The assembling of the Diet instantly crystallized the chief political problem of Galicia into the form in which it presents itself up to the present day. The hostility between Poles and Ruthenes found expression. The claims of the two nationalities entered thenceforward into every discussion upon language, education, and religion, as well as into many of the more purely administrative matters of local government in the province. The first proposal for Galicia had been for a Polish and a Ruthenian Diet. Then Bach suggested (1850) a tripartite division of Cracow, Lwów (Lemberg), and Stanislau—the two latter predominantly Ruthenian. In the Diets of 1860 and 1861, however, the Ruthenian question had not yet assumed its modern form, because supremacy had not yet been granted to the Poles. Their relations with the Austrian Government were not yet established on that firm footing of mutual support which was brought about with the help of external circumstances after 1866, and radically transformed Galician politics. The teaching of Goluchowski had not yet had any visible result, and the Polish National Conservative Party was still unorganized.

Before this party came into power there was one more interval of suspension of political life in Galicia. In 1863 the rising in Russian Poland once again roused sympathy among Austrian Poles, and consequent alarm in Vienna. The Diet was dissolved, and did not meet again until April 1865. In 1866 the Austro-Prussian War broke out, and the position in which Austria was left after her defeat in that conflict led to an abrupt change in her policy with regard to her Slav subjects. This was the beginning of the era in Galician history which is described here as the era of autonomy.

### (3) PERIOD OF AUTONOMY, 1866-1914

After her defeat in 1866 Austria lost Venetia, and ceased to be a member of the German Federation. Every nationality in the Empire seized the opportunity to press its demands upon the Government. The

Germans desired the continuance of a centralist system as the only hope of preserving their supremacy. The Magyars clamoured for the *Ausgleich*, which would place Hungary in a position of complete independence within the State. The Czechs opposed this proposal, foreseeing that the establishment of the Dual Monarchy would be as fatal to their nationalist aims as to the wishes of the centralists.

The Government was no longer strong enough to choose its own policy. It was forced to seek support from the parties whose enmity would be the most dangerous. It was impossible to defy the Magyars, and in 1867 the Emperor was crowned King of Hungary and the principle of dualism conceded. This was accomplished without any parliamentary sanction, as no Reichsrat had been in existence since the last was dissolved at the outbreak of war. The Magyars demanded that their victory should be ratified by parliamentary approval. This the Government found hard to procure in the face of Slav opposition. However, in the elections in Bohemia the unscrupulous use of influence by the landed proprietors obtained a German majority among the delegates returned. Thereupon the Czech minority declared the elections invalid, and refused to take their seats.

This action gave the Polish vote an importance which it had never hitherto possessed. If the Poles had followed the example of the Czechs the Government could hardly have assembled the emergency Reichsrat required to pass the *Ausgleich*. Both parties saw their opportunity and struck their bargain. The Poles obtained immediately two of their chief demands, being granted some degree of control of the schools and of local administration. In return the Polish delegates attended the Reichsrat and supported the Government.

This was the opening of a new era in Galician political history. The Polish party had felt its strength and its demands continued to grow. In 1868 the Diet submitted the 'Galician Resolution' to the Reichsrat.

It asked for full autonomy, for the appointment of a Galician minister in the Austrian State Council, and asserted the retention of the principle of election to the Reichsrat through the Diet and not by direct voting. These desires were not granted fully or immediately. Local autonomy was increased, but the ministerial appointment, on which the Poles laid great stress, was not made till 1871, and in spite of their strong protests direct voting was introduced in 1873.

The Polish politicians who wrung this measure of concession from the Government were all members of the nobility. It could hardly be otherwise in a country whose economic development had been strangled by centralization. No other sections of the community were as yet strong enough to assert themselves effectively in politics. The unity of class interest which was thus secured to the Polish party gave them power to carry out their programme, which was simply to rule Galicia as an aristocracy, relying for support solely on the Crown and the Government, without being obliged to reckon with the desires or needs of the masses, or with the claims of the Ruthenian population now placed more completely in their power. Their position in Galicia itself was no doubt improved by the undeniable fact that however selfish their attitude might be it had won some degree of autonomy for the whole race of Galician Poles.

The line of action was not adopted unanimously at once by the party, which was divided into two currents of opinion, represented by two leaders, Ziemiałkowski and Smolka. Smolka was a federalist. He appealed to Galician Poles to look beyond the borders of their province and to work for the reunion of their partitioned country, but his ideals found no echo in the Diet. There Ziemiałkowski's arguments in favour of a strong Austria prevailed. He supported them by pointing to the danger which would threaten Galicia if Austria were forced into alliance with Russia. There was a further consideration which influenced the delegates. The *szlachta* majority (i. e. that of the Polish

landowners) was indeed safe in the existing assembly, but unless it could be secured by complete control of local administration, and by a guarantee that the Austrian Government would cease to play off Ruthenes against Poles, future elections might flood the Diet with Polish peasants and Ruthenian clergy who would send a delegation to Vienna which would be a tool in the Government's hands. For these reasons the supporters of the dynasty prevailed, and their triumph gained for the Poles complete power over the Ruthenes.

Thenceforward the internal history of Galicia becomes so largely concerned with the development of the Little Russian or Ruthenian question that it can best be continued in the section on that subject. It will, however, be necessary first of all to go back to the year 1848, when, as has been said above, the Ruthenian movement first became a serious factor in Galician politics.

#### *The Little Russian or Ruthenian Question*<sup>1</sup>

There was no desire for separation among the Ruthenes in Galicia until after the first Partition, when the kingdoms of Halicz and Lodomeria fell to Austria. In the first quarter of the nineteenth century a national consciousness arose. It was felt first among the Little Russians in Russia, and spread from there into Austrian territory. In Galicia the Ruthenian nobility had long since been Polonized, and it is said that the same process was going on even amongst the Ruthenian clergy when the new movement interrupted it. The clergy, however, were the class amongst whom anti-Polish feeling was still strongest, and they became the leaders in transforming a movement which had at first been purely literary into a political force. In 1829 a group of enthusiasts for nationality (which included some young Poles) organized the circulation of books and translations in order to raise Ruthenian to the rank of a

<sup>1</sup> See note on p. 16.

literary language. Their efforts made the revival of a national antagonism easier.

There is no doubt that such an antagonism had existed long before the partitions of Poland. It is therefore untrue to say, as many Polish partisans do, that Austria created the hostility. She certainly exploited it unscrupulously. In 1848 the Ruthenian party were encouraged to oppose the demands of the Polish National Committees. Count Stadion, the Governor of Galicia, received a deputation of 300 Ruthenian Uniat clergy, who laid before him their requests for entire equality of treatment for their language and their Church. They carefully abstained from asking for more. The Ruthenian Council, which was organized at this date, sent up a petition to the Emperor, protesting absolute loyalty, expressing a wish for the separation of Eastern and Western Galicia, but, in marked contrast to the Poles, making no demands for political rights. They did, however, demand equality for their language and the employment of Ruthenes in the Government, and it was in response to this petition that the tripartite administration of Galicia was proposed.

Deep bitterness was thus created between the two nations and the Government allowed it to grow, for the encouragement which the Ruthenes received in Vienna did not go so far as to give them any realization of their desires. Goluchowski, who became Governor of Galicia in 1849, was hostile to the Ruthenes. His reasons are easy to understand from the account of his policy given above (see above, the Period of Transition, p. 21), when it is remembered that the expression of loyalty to the throne in the Ruthenian petition was primarily anti-Polish in motive, while Goluchowski supported the Government because he considered this policy to be in the interest of Poles. He stood for a strong Austria, whereas at this date the Ruthenes were suspected of being Russian in sympathy. One of the chief accusations made by Poles against them was that they took Russian money for their propaganda.

After 1862 a split occurred in the Ruthenian party.

By that date a Ruthenian *intelligentsia* had arisen who represented a nationalist party desiring some form of union with Little Russians outside Galicia (i. e. in the Ukraine). This Ukrainian Nationalist Party was not fully organized, nor known by this name, until 1892, but during the previous thirty years the cleavage between it and the Old Ruthenian party had been growing wider. The difference was fundamentally one of attitude towards Austria. The Old Ruthenians, desiring a united Ruthenia, wished to keep Eastern Galicia outside Austrian politics. The Young Ruthenians or Ukrainian nationalists, pending the full accomplishment of their wider hopes, were prepared to work for the autonomy of Eastern Galicia under Austria. Both sides, however, united in fighting for the claims of their own people against the oppression of the Poles.

There is some truth in the complaint of the Ruthenes that they have been worse off during the period of autonomy than they were under centralist rule before 1868. Ever since that date they have struggled for equal treatment in nearly every branch of administration, and they contend that they have failed everywhere to obtain it.

Their main grievances concern language, religion, education, and the franchise. As regards the first, Ruthenes complain that they are obliged to speak Polish in the Diet, in courts of law, and in mixed schools. Poles in reply point to statutes which enact that the Diet shall be opened and prorogued in both languages, and which direct local officials in Eastern Galicia likewise to use both languages. The Ruthenes retort that the law is often a dead letter.

As regards unfair treatment of the Uniat Church there seems to be less positive evidence to support the allegations of the Ruthenes, which are, briefly, that every attempt has been made to undermine the influence of their national Church. It cannot however be doubted that the Poles have favoured the proselytizing efforts of the Roman Church.

The religious question has been naturally much connected with the question of education, especially in the elementary schools. Here there is no doubt that the Ruthenian grievances are real. An example may be taken from the year 1883, when the school law was revised in Austria. More dogmatic religious instruction was to be given by the teacher, who was in future to be of the same faith as the majority of his scholars. But in the case of Galicia the Polish party persuaded the Reichsrat to omit the last clause, on the ground that in many schools the majority of the children were Jewish. This argument had so much weight that the claims of the schools in which the majority were Uniats were not considered, although the Uniat Ruthenes represent 40 per cent. of the population of Galicia.

Another of the chief causes of friction has been the dispute over the language of instruction in Lemberg University. Ruthenes declare that when the University ceased to be German in 1870 the Austrian Government was already pledged to give it over to them. Poles deny this, and say that the Ruthenes should be content with the six Ruthenian Chairs which have been created for them, as being fully sufficient for their needs. The quarrel became acute in 1900, when the Rector refused to receive any work written by students in the Ruthenian language. The Polish students sided with the University authorities, and violence ensued. In 1901 a body of 600 Ruthenes left Lemberg for other Universities. Nevertheless, the University quarrel has never died down. In 1907 it led to the murder of the Polish Governor Potocki by a Ruthenian student, Šyčinski. In the rioting which followed a great number of Ruthenes were arrested. They organized a hunger-strike in prison, which had a widespread effect on opinion throughout Austria, and drew attention to the strength and seriousness of the Ruthenian—or, as it was now more commonly called, the Ukrainian—movement. Šyčinski himself was smuggled out of prison and into Russia in 1909.

Since the beginning of the war he has been a leader of the Ukrainians in America.

The grievance of the Ruthenes with regard to the franchise and to election abuses is more important than any of those which have been named, inasmuch as its redress would have gone far to set the others right. Moreover in these matters there seems less to be said in defence of the Poles. Throughout the whole period of autonomy from 1868 up to 1907, the assembling of each new Diet and Reichsrat brought a fresh outburst of complaints from the small group of Ruthenian delegates, of under-representation and tyrannical treatment of voters. To cite one instance, in the Diet of 1898 the Ruthenes asked for an increase of their mandates, the proportion at that date being one deputy to every 183,000 of them, to one for every 74,000 Poles. The Poles refused. Malpractices at the election of Government candidates were described by the Ruthenes, who said that many voters had been prevented by the police from going to the poll. The Polish party defended itself against these accusations by saying that the Ruthenes and radicals stirred up strife and began the bloodshed at elections, and that when the police tried to restore order they were said to be forcibly restraining the voters.

The effect produced in Austria by the Russian revolution of 1905 forced the Government to introduce universal suffrage throughout the Monarchy. The Polish Conservative Party opposed the measure for many reasons, one of which was undoubtedly fear of the Ruthenian democracy as well as of their own. The growth of the Polish Peasant Party is described separately below. The Ruthenian hopes of at last getting equality of representation were frustrated. The Poles used their power in the Reichsrat to introduce a system of voting by districts which applied only to Eastern Galicia, and was ingeniously managed so as to give preponderance to the Poles. As a result, Galicia sent to the Reichsrat of 1908 78 Polish deputies and 25 Ruthenes, although on a basis of population

the proportion should have been much less unfavourable to the Ruthenes. Moreover the election abuses are said to have been as bad as ever.

In spite of this inequality, however, the extension of the franchise in 1907 gave the Ruthenes more political power than they had ever possessed before. They were now able to fight the Poles on a number of points of administration, and finally to make a compromise with regard to most of them. This was only accomplished in 1914, and its arrangements will, therefore, be best described in the summary of internal conditions at the outbreak of war. It remains to mention the attitude of the Ruthenes in Galicia towards foreign politics.

In 1908 the Ukrainian National (or Young Ruthenian) Party gave new proof of their anti-Russian standpoint by abstaining from sending delegates to the Pan-Slav Congress at Prague. It is difficult for weak nationalities to take a strong line of opposition to a great Power without being flung into the arms of the chief opponent of that Power. This is the explanation of the pro-Germanism of which the Ukrainian party are accused by Poles. It is more accurate to describe their attitude as anti-Russian. The Germans saw that the Ukrainian movement might become a menace to Russia, and fostered it in every way they could. They supplied money for propoganda, and kept in touch with the leaders of the party in Galicia. Moreover, the large seasonal migration of Ruthenian peasants from Galicia to Prussia was used by Germany as a means of spreading discontent against the Poles. The emigrants returned home laden with inflammatory literature.

The bitterness with which the Poles viewed these proceedings caused a friendly feeling to arise between them and the Old Ruthenian Party, who continued to be Russophil in sympathy. This went so far as to produce an agreement between the Old Ruthenians and the Polish Parliamentary Club with regard to the elections of 1908, with the object of defeating the Ukrainian Party at the polls. This agreement was not openly admitted until 1913. Another proof of Polish

sympathy with the pro-Russians was given in June 1914, when some members of the Old Ruthenian Party, accused of high treason, were triumphantly acquitted at Lemberg by a Polish jury, after a sensational trial.

### *Rise of the Popular Parties*

It has been said above that the Polish Conservative Party feared the introduction of universal suffrage on account of the danger they foresaw from the democracy. This democracy was Polish as well as Ruthenian.

During the last thirty years of the nineteenth century the peasants in Western Galicia had been roused to political consciousness by the spread of education. The process was slow, owing partly to a lack of leaders, for the professional classes in Galicia adhered to the Conservatives, and the trading class was negligible among the Poles. In 1889 the idea of peasant representatives in the Diet was first put forward in the press, and before 1895 four peasant deputies had been elected. This is the more remarkable when it is remembered how far elections were from being free at that date. From 1889 onwards political gatherings in country districts became increasingly common, and before the Diet elections in 1895 the Polish Peasants' Party formulated its programme at a mass meeting. More adequate representation was one principal point, and the Peasants' Party was more concerned with class than with national interests. The Peasants' Party is now a considerable factor in Galician politics.

Other parties with considerable influence are the Social Democrats and the National Democrats. The former require no especial description, and the latter are described in connexion with Russian Poland (see No. 44 of this series), where they are much more powerful than in Galicia.

### III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

#### (1) RELIGIOUS

IN Galicia religious denominations correspond very closely to race divisions. The Poles are almost entirely Roman Catholic, this Church claiming 3,731,000 adherents out of a total Polish population of 4,672,000, while practically the whole of the Ruthenian population belongs to the Greek Catholic (Uniat) Church, which indeed includes a larger number (3,380,000) than is given in the official statistics for the Ruthenian population (3,208,000). It is said, however, that the Ruthenes are even more faithful to their Church than to their mother tongue, and probably the religious statistics give the more exact estimate of their numbers.

The difference between the linguistic and the religious numbers of the Poles is practically accounted for by the Jewish population, which in 1910 amounted to 872,000, or about eleven per cent. of the whole population. Although they have to a large extent remained a separate element in the population, from whom they are further distinguished by the use of Yiddish, 808,000 of them have been entered by the Polish officials as speaking Polish.

There is a small Protestant element, chiefly of the Augsburg Confession, which prevails among the German settlers, an unpopular and now diminishing body.

The Roman Catholics are not only the most numerous but also the richest and most active of the religious communities. Their clergy rely upon their various missions and religious Orders, of which there are more than a hundred, to carry on the propaganda of their faith, and in this work they are always sure of the support of the Polish Government. The Uniats, on the other hand, are a poor and not well-educated body ;

their priests, who are married, are miserably paid, and they have only one religious Order, the Basilians, among them ; it is evidence of the national character of their Church that, in the face of these discouraging circumstances, it should continue to hold its own.

## (2) POLITICAL

Galicia is presided over by a Governor appointed by the Emperor. His seat is in Lemberg. Under him there is a Deputy Governor who lives in Cracow. The country is divided into administrative districts, with a *Starosta* (or District Governor) at the head of each. These are State officials, entirely distinct from the officials appointed by the self-governing authority. They supervise the execution of statutes and the maintenance of public order, which includes the police and control of the press.

The Diet sits in Lemberg. Its President is the Land Marshal, who is always a Pole. He has two deputies, one of whom is always a Ruthene. This last condition, as well as the present composition of the Diet, dates only from 1914. They are the outcome of the compromise made with the Ruthenes referred to above. (See above, p. 31.)

The Diet now consists of 228 members. Sixty-two of these are Ruthenian delegates (27·2 per cent. of the whole). The representation is on the class system and is distributed as follows :

Thirteen members sit in virtue of their offices (Bishops, Heads of Universities, &c.). Three of these are Ruthenes, a place being reserved for the Rector of the future Ruthenian University.

Forty-five members represent the great landowners. The Ruthenes have only one mandate in this class, and the facts concerning it throw some light on social conditions in Galicia. The proportion of great landowners of Ruthenian birth is so small that they have no right to any representation. The Ruthenes were, however, anxious to prove that they were not entirely a peasant

community, and the Poles were also desirous that the provincial class (described later) should not be overcrowded with Ruthenes, therefore Ruthenian mandates are spread through other classes in a manner which sometimes gives them representation to which they are not strictly entitled.

Forty-six members represent the towns, twelve the municipalities. The three Chambers of Commerce of Cracow, Lemberg, and Brody have five mandates between them, all of which fall to Jews, owing to the fact that out of 116 members of these Chambers only 38 are Poles and none are Ruthenes.

The fifth class consists of Manufacturers' Associations with two members.

The sixth is the provincial class, the largest of any. It sends 105 representatives to the Diet, 48 of whom are Ruthenes. The delimitation of the electoral districts for this class was very difficult to arrange, owing to the mixed population in many parts of Eastern Galicia. (See above, p. 9.) The best way to have safeguarded the interests of the Polish population there would seem to have been by a system of proportional representation; but that was found to be impossible for various reasons, one of them being the unwillingness of the Ruthenes to acknowledge any Polish rights in Eastern Galicia.

The powers of the Diet do not include control of the revenue from taxes. It is able to levy extra taxation, but this right is nugatory, as almost all the principal sources of revenue from taxation are in the hands of the State. Thus financial control is the weakest part of Galician autonomy.

Galicia has been represented in the Reichsrat by 108 delegates, chosen by direct election from all classes of voters. A Minister for Galicia sat in the Council of State. It has been said above that the appointment of this Minister was one of the chief demands of the Poles in 1868. It was in fact wholly in their interests as opposed to those of the Ruthenes, for the Galician Minister was in a special position, differing from that of

the Czech and German Ministers in the Council. He represented the country as a whole, and not any nationality within it, although he has always been a Pole. Thus the Ruthenes have had no representative in the Council of State.

### (3) EDUCATIONAL

The control of elementary and secondary education in Galicia is completely in the hands of the Local School Council, a body of which the Governor is the nominal head, and which has a few representatives of the Ruthenian and Jewish communities among its members.

In 1910 there were 2,967 Polish elementary schools in Galicia and 2,460 Ruthenian elementary schools. The Poles have, however, special advantages in secondary education, there being 56 Polish *Staatsgymnasien* to 6 Ruthenian. There are 14 *Staatsrealschulen*, all Polish.

There are two Universities, one at Cracow, the other at Lemberg. Both are Polish, but there are six Ruthenian Chairs at Lemberg. The foundation of a Ruthenian University was apparently agreed to in 1914.

## GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

### *Parties in Galicia during the War*

Up to the date of the Russian Revolution the main current of opinion among Galician Poles was directed by hostility to the Tsar's Government. It was this sentiment that caused the Polish Conservative Party, which held the confidence of the Austrian Government, to ally itself at the outbreak of war with radical and Socialist elements with which it had otherwise nothing in common. From this coalition was formed the National Supreme Council (known in Polish as the N. K. N.), which became the centre of Austrophil sympathies. The N. K. N. took political direction of the Polish Legions which were organized in Galicia and led by General Pilsudski to fight under the banner

of Austria against Russia. The hopes of the N. K. N. were for the union of Galicia and Russian Poland under Austria; and until the Russian Revolution they no doubt represented the most important elements in Galician politics.

The Russian Revolution of 1917 completely changed the balance of opinion in Galicia. A new national coalition was formed excluding the Conservative majority and called the Union of Parties, its aim being the formation of a United and Independent Poland.

In October 1918 all the Polish parties declared their resolution of leaving the Reichsrat, and formed a National Council in Cracow, until such time as the freely-elected Parliament of a United and Independent Poland shall be assembled.

A separate Ukrainian National Council was also set up in the same month, its members including representatives of the Ruthenes in the Bukovina and Galicia.

## IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

### (A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

#### (a) *Roads*

THE total length of the roads in Galicia in 1911 was 15,240 kilometres. They are divided into four categories: imperial roads (2,887 km.), roads made and maintained by the autonomous Galician state (1,872 km.), district roads under the care of the district authorities (2,612 km.), and communal roads (7,869 km.). The roads of the first two categories are of first-class macadamized surface, with bridges and culverts of stone. They have been built with an eye to strategic possibilities, and are of a minimum width adequate for military requirements. The district roads, while generally narrower, are well maintained and have a good surface. The communal roads are partly maintained by district funds where their importance warrants it; otherwise the communes provide for their upkeep as their funds allow. Galicia has 19.4 km. of road to every 100 square km. of its area, and in this respect is much below the average for Austria generally, which has 45 km. per 100 square km. The deficiency is most noticeable in the case of the district roads. The northern part of the country bordering on Poland and Volhynia is almost destitute of roads.

The Carpathians are crossed at several places between Galicia and Hungary by important roads. The road over the Delatyn Pass connects south-eastern Galicia with north-eastern Hungary. Lemberg and central Galicia generally are joined to the upper basin of the Tisza by a road over the Vereczke Pass. Farther to the north-west there are three passes, the Uszok, Lupków, and Dukla, each with a good road. In the north-west corner of Galicia the Cracow district is connected with northern Hungary by a road over the Jablunka Pass.

*(b) Rivers and Canals*

Communication by water is on a very restricted scale in Galicia. In former times the *Vistula* with its tributaries and the *Dniester* were of considerable importance, but since the era of railways both rivers have been much neglected. The usefulness of the *Vistula*, however, if the stream were properly regulated and the channel deepened, has always been incontestable. A convention for carrying out the requisite works was signed by Austria and Russia in 1864. This convention was not ratified until 1871, and the subsequent history of the undertaking has been a melancholy tale of delay and failure. By 1909 only about 64 per cent. of the work had been completed in Galicia, and since then little has been done. In consequence of the bad state of the river, traffic is decreasing. On the Austrian section the number of vessels passing down (including and mainly consisting of timber rafts) fell from 10,095 in 1908 to 8,699 in 1912, each successive year showing a decrease. In the same years the weight of traffic showed a similar drop from 313,000 tons to 221,000 tons, the latter figure showing a slight increase over those of the two previous years. Timber accounted for over 40 per cent. of all the freights during the period, coal and coke for about 20 per cent., lime for about 10-15 per cent., and other minerals for 5-10 per cent. More valuable types of freight are conspicuous by their absence, which is due to the dangerous state of the river and the unduly high rates which rule. The vessels employed are mainly small barges which only make one voyage, down-stream, and are then broken up.

The *Dniester* is only used in Galicia for rafting timber. During the period from 1908 to 1912 inclusive, an average of 379 rafts with a gross weight of 28,000 tons were floated down annually. The figures show a tendency to decrease.

The total length of navigable river in Galicia is 1,261 miles, officially classed as follows: 772 miles suitable

only for rafting, and 489 miles suitable for vessels, of which 382 miles are navigable by steam vessels. The whole of this mileage is upon the Vistula, its tributaries, especially the San, for short distances, and the Dniester. All the rivers are frozen for three or four months of the year, and in late summer a period of very low water usually causes navigation to be suspended for at least six weeks. There is no public steamer traffic at all, the few small steamers belonging to the river authorities, and little or no up-stream traffic of any kind.

A canal to connect the Vistula and the Dniester, which would have the effect of joining the Baltic to the Black Sea by a continuous waterway, was legally sanctioned in 1901, but construction has not been commenced. No other navigation canals exist in Galicia, and there are no projects to construct any.

### (c) *Railways*

There were in 1911 4,120 km. of standard-gauge railways in Galicia, a figure which shows 5.13 km. of railway to each 10,000 inhabitants and 5.24 km. of railway per 100 square km. These proportions are lower than those for Austria taken as a whole, for which the figures are 7.96 and 7.58 respectively. There were in addition 61 km. of narrow-gauge railway. Owing to the configuration of the country the main lines run from the north-west to the south-east. The principal line is that from Cracow *via* Tarnow, Jarosław, and Przemyśl to Lemberg, a distance of 212 miles, and thence *via* Złoczów and Tarnopol to Podwołoczyska on the Russian frontier, 120 miles from Lemberg; from Podwołoczyska there is direct connexion with Kiev and Odessa. From Lemberg a branch line runs south-east *via* Chodorów, Stanislau, and Kolomea to Sniatyn, 143 miles from Lemberg, where it enters the Bukovina, making direct connexion with Moldavia and central Rumania.

The lines above described constitute the only through

main routes in Galicia. The connexions in a westward and northward direction from Cracow are as follows: a line runs westward for about 25 miles to Trzebinia, where three main lines break off (1) northward to Czestochowa (Chenstokhov) and Warsaw, (2) north-westward to Breslau and Berlin, (3) south-westward to Oderberg and Vienna. The first two lines cross the frontiers of Poland and Prussia respectively at a few miles distance from Trzebinia. The line to Vienna crosses into Austrian Silesia at Dzieditz, some 55 miles from Cracow.

Roughly parallel with and some 30–40 miles south of the Cracow–Podwołoczyska line there is another route across the country from Bielitz on the Silesian frontier in an easterly and subsequently south-easterly direction to Stanislaw. It passes the following important stations or junctions: Saybusch, Sucha, Chabówka, Nowy Sandec (Neu Sandez), Jasło, Sanok, Chyrów, Sambor, Stryj, and Dolina. There is no through traffic on this line, but it serves as a cross-country connexion between various points.

The remaining lines in Galicia are short stretches, which are almost all to be included under the following three headings: (1) those connecting the two cross-country lines described above, and chiefly running from north to south, (2) those running to the Russian frontier from various points on the Cracow–Podwołoczyska main line, and (3) lines running south and south-west over the Carpathian passes into Hungary.

The lines under heading (1) are chiefly of local importance. An exception is the line which joins Przemyśl and Chyrów, which is part of a through double line connecting Budapest and Lemberg *via* the Lupków Pass.

(2) The lines which run to the Russian frontier from various points on the Cracow–Podwołoczyska line are eight in number, and have obviously been constructed mainly with a strategic end in view. With the exception of the line from Lemberg to Brody, which continues over the frontier to Dubno in Volhynia, none of

them have a corresponding line on the Russian side, and they terminate at places of no commercial importance.

(3) The Carpathians are pierced at several points by railways connecting Galicia and Hungary, which may most conveniently be enumerated in order from west to east :

(i) From Saybusch over the Jablunka Pass into north-west Hungary.

(ii) From Chabówka through the Tátra also into north-west Hungary.

(iii) From Nowy Sandec up the valley of the Popród and through the Beskid Mountains to Kassa and central Hungary.

(iv) From Sanok *via* the Lupków Pass to Miskolcz and Budapest.

(v) From Sambor over the Uzsok Pass to Ungyar.

(vi) From Stryj over the Vereczke Pass to Munkacs.

(vii) From Stanislau *via* Delatyn and the Jablonica (Jablonitsa) Pass to Máramaros-Sziget.

These lines have all more or less strategic importance. It is noticeable in this connexion that the line No. vi, which is used for through traffic from Lemberg to Budapest, is of single track throughout, while line No. iv has a double track, although it is not normally of so much commercial importance.

There are, unfortunately, no figures as to the carrying capacity of the Galician lines, statistics being only available for the Austrian State railways as a whole. Nearly all the lines are single track. The following, however, are double-track lines, viz. the main line from Dzieditz *via* Cracow to Lemberg and thence to Złoczów on the Podwołoczyska line, together with a short loop-line from Oświęcim to Cracow; and the line from Przemyśl to the Hungarian frontier over the Lupków Pass.

The greater part of the railways in Galicia are the property of the Austrian State. The general management is in Vienna, but there is a certain amount of decentralization, the three local centres of management

being at Cracow, Lemberg, and Stanislaw. In addition to the lines which are purely State property there are 1,215 km. of local railways belonging to private companies. These are almost without exception worked by the State railways, and are mostly situated in the eastern half of the province. The total length of all railways owned or worked by the State in Galicia is 4,035 km.

The principal private company in Galicia is the Lemberg-Czernowitz-Jassy Railway Co., which owns an international line running in a south-east direction from Lemberg into Moldavia. The section Lemberg-Czernowitz is held under a 90 years concession granted in 1864, on the termination of which it reverts to the State. The length of this section is 266 km. Its relations to the State are complicated, as the line was sequestrated at one period, and there have been various protracted disputes between the company and the Austrian and Rumanian Governments. The present arrangement appears to be that the Austrian State works the section situated in its territory and makes an annual payment to the company, the amount of which is dependent upon the returns for the year.

There are further 15 private railway companies, some financed or guaranteed locally, and some promoted in Vienna, all of which are worked by the State on terms varying with their individual concessions.

No official figures for the finances of the Galician sections of the Austrian State railways are published, but the average returns are higher and the expenses lower than in the other provinces, and the net revenue, after subtracting interest at  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. on the construction capital, is estimated to be about 11,500,000 kronen. Private railways are officially divided into main lines (*Hauptbahnen*) and local lines (*Lokalbahnen*). The Lemberg-Czernowitz-Jassy Railway alone falls under the first category. The company has a share capital of 27,000,000 silver florins (it was floated in 1864, many years previous to the currency reform), and made two loan issues in 1884 of 52,755,000

silver florins and a further loan issue of 20,000,000 kr. in 1894, all at 4 per cent. The shares are quoted in Vienna, Amsterdam, Berlin, Frankfurt, Leipzig, and London, and the loans in Vienna and the larger German centres.

The 15 local railways have an aggregate share capital of 44,740,200 kr., and a 4 per cent. loan capital of 31,978,000 kr. The most notable are the Lemberg-Tomaszów Railway, with 8,280,000 kr. share capital; the Chabówka-Zakopane Railway, with 5,540,000 kr.; the Lemberg-Stojanów Railway, with 4,828,000 kr.; and the East Galician Local Railways, with 4,000,000 kr. All stand in close financial relationship to the State.

Complaint is made by various authorities that the Galician railway system is not adequately developed, nor suitable to the needs of the country. This complaint appears to be justified. Although the existing mileage of railways is, per head of population and per square kilometre of area, below the average for Austria as a whole, it would probably have sufficed for the needs of a province which is predominantly agricultural in character, and promises industrial developments only in certain well-defined parts, had it been constructed with a purely economic purpose; but much of it, including some of the most costly stretches, consists of strategic lines through the Carpathians and to the Russian frontier, which economically may be said to have no value. The doubling of the secondary line between Bielitz and Stanislau and the connecting of the lines which terminate on the northern frontier with the Polish railway system, are probably among the first tasks to be undertaken in the expansion of the Galician railways.

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

The State authorities control the entire postal, telegraphic, and telephonic systems. There were in Galicia in 1911, 1,519 post offices of various classes, being one office to every 52 square km. and to every

5,368 inhabitants. In comparison with Austria as a whole, these figures represent a very poor service, as the average for the whole Austrian postal area in the same year was one office to every 31 square km. and to every 2,959 inhabitants. The number of letters dispatched is also proportionately very low, being 26.9 per 1,000 inhabitants, as against an average for all Austria of 66.8. In the use made of the facilities for transmitting money by post, Galicia is second only to Lower Austria, accounting for one-fifth of all the money paid out by the Austrian postal authorities. This is probably due to the large amount of money sent home by emigrant Galicians in other parts of Europe and in America.

There were in 1911, 8,108 km. of telegraph lines in Galicia, about one-fifth of the whole Austrian system. They are not very freely used by the public, the number of messages per 1,000 inhabitants being the lowest in Austria. The lines have, therefore, probably been laid largely for official and military purposes. The length of the local telephone lines in 1911 was 15,848 km., and of the inter-urban lines, 2,066 km. The local lines were only about one twenty-fifth part of the Austrian system, but this is sufficiently accounted for by the fact that the centres of population, except Lemberg, Cracow, and the industrial district near the latter, are in general too small to make telephones remunerative.

Cracow has an automatic telephone exchange.

## (B) INDUSTRY

### (1) LABOUR

#### (a) *Supply of Labour; Emigration*

Galicia has the densest agricultural population in Europe. According to the census of 1900 there were 100 agriculturists per square km. of the agricultural area, the western half of the country being the more densely populated. It is quite impossible for this supply of labour to find local employment; and a large

surplus remains which must resort to emigration or become absorbed in industry. The former process goes on extensively; the latter alternative gives little relief owing to the small development of industry in the province.

The occupations of the people stated in percentages are as follows: agriculture, 76 per cent.; industries and mines, 8.8 per cent.; commerce and transport, 5.4 per cent.; private service, 3.3 per cent.; public offices, liberal professions, 2.3 per cent.; others not specified, 4.2 per cent.

Agricultural labour is partly supplied by small proprietors who own less than 5 hectares and are obliged to eke out a living by seeking employment elsewhere than on their own holdings. In 1902 this class of small holders numbered 358,776, and a large proportion of them also worked as hired labourers. At the same date 184,034 persons were employed as farm servants and 52,696 as agricultural day labourers. There appears to be small prospect of improved methods and more intensive cultivation absorbing more agricultural labour in the future.

A system of public labour exchanges (27 in 1913) has been erected under a provincial law of 1904, and maintains relations with similar institutions in Germany, Denmark, Sweden, France, and Bohemia, but is still far from providing satisfactory machinery for finding employment for labour.

Owing to the economic pressure thus created emigration from Galicia assumes large proportions. It takes two forms, seasonal and permanent.

The seasonal emigrants are almost all agricultural workers who go for the summer and harvest to Prussia and other parts of Germany, Denmark, and France. Their numbers are variously stated, owing to the difficulty of tracing all their movements. The tendency for some years past has been for the 'season' to increase in length, and for part of the emigrants to engage in industry for some weeks before and after the active period for agriculture. Formerly all these

seasonal workers were compelled to quit Germany for at least a month or two in each year. This regulation still holds good for Poles, but is suspended for Ruthenes, who in many cases now remain abroad for the whole year when work offers. The average number of seasonal emigrants to all quarters who passed through the two principal frontier stations during the years 1909-11 was 311,000. In addition 12,000 emigrants passed yearly through Oderberg, of whom it may be estimated that a third came from Galicia. The total seasonal emigration from Galicia may thus be placed at 315,000 persons per annum, and this figure is confirmed by the statement of a Polish authority that the number of Austrian Poles who annually emigrate for seasonal work is 240,000, coupled with Prussian statistics, which show an annual seasonal immigration of 75,000 to 80,000 Ruthenes. Galician Poles and Ruthenes appear to receive 30 per cent. less wages than are paid to Russian Poles in Eastern Germany, and are the lowest paid of all immigrant agricultural workers. Seasonal workers are stated to bring back in money some 30,000,000 kronen annually to Galicia.

Permanent emigration takes place on a large scale to various parts of the New World. The principal destination of the emigrants is the United States. During the period 1908-12 inclusive, an annual average of 53,000 Austrian Poles and Ruthenes entered the United States. Large numbers have also emigrated to Canada, and at certain periods to Brazil, but no separate figures are available. The total volume of emigration to all parts cannot, therefore, be stated, but a good authority alleges that in 1913, which was a year of agricultural failure in Galicia, 400,000 persons, i. e. 5 per cent. of the population, emigrated. There is, however, a reflux of emigrants, principally Poles from the United States, who bring considerable sums of money back with them and buy land. During the period 1908-12 an annual average of 14,750,000 kr. was thus brought back by returning emigrants. It may even be said that Polish emigration, as distinct

from Ruthenian, is largely temporary, a great proportion of those who better themselves in the New World returning in less than five years to their native country.

(b) *Labour Conditions*

In consequence of the excessive supply of labour, the conditions of industrial employment in Galicia are bad. According to the returns for those classes of workers who are subject to workmen's accident insurance, wages are lower for every occupation than in any other part of Austria. The average daily rate is 2.45 kr. as against an average of 3.53 kr. for all Austria, including Galicia. Hours, judged by the figures for coal and other mineral mining, would seem to be long, if not excessive. Shifts of over eight hours accounted for six-sevenths of the time worked in mines in 1911 and shifts of over ten hours for one-fifth. In 1910 the social democratic trade unions had 16,923 members in the province, and the Christian social unions 4,050 members. The concentration of industrial labour is small. It is only in the three districts of Lemberg, Chrzanów, and Drohobycz that groups of workmen are to be found exceeding 10,000 individuals.

The hours, wages, and conditions of agricultural labour vary greatly in different parts of Galicia. Payments in kind form an important part of the actual wage. In 1905 the money wages of a farm servant on a large estate in Western Galicia averaged 82 kr., and the value of the goods received was about 273 kr., making a total wage of 355 kr. per annum in addition to lodging. In the eastern districts the average annual wage in money and goods was about 315 kr. Writers on Galician conditions agree in complaining of the exploitation of the labourers by the Jews, to whom the large estates are often so heavily mortgaged as to give them control of their management.

## (2) AGRICULTURE

The soil of Galicia is distributed as follows :

	<i>Hectares.</i>
Total acreage . . . . .	7,849,252
Cultivated fields . . . . .	3,799,878
Forests . . . . .	2,021,280
Meadows . . . . .	875,045
Pasture . . . . .	716,849
Gardens and orchards . . . . .	108,818
Alpine grass land . . . . .	33,419
Lakes . . . . .	20,859

The area under cultivation represents rather more than one-third of the total cultivated area of Austria.

*(a) Products of Commercial Value*

The principal cereal crops in order of importance are *rye, oats, wheat, barley, and maize*, which together occupy slightly less than two-thirds of the cultivated area. In the years 1909-13 the average crops in tons of these five cereals were as follows: rye, 792,826; oats, 741,442; wheat, 628,893; barley, 380,332; maize, 71,619. The yield per hectare in 1912 was 1.23 tons for rye, 1.02 for oats, 1.34 for wheat, 1.17 for barley, and 1.00 for maize. These figures are slightly better than the corresponding figures for the Kingdom of Poland, but very much below those for Poznania, West Prussia, and Prussian Silesia, where general conditions of soil and climate are much the same. The yield of *buckwheat* in 1912 was 46,300 tons from 61,000 hectares, and of *millet*, 14,320 tons from 17,800 hectares.

*Potatoes* are sown over a large area. Over 500,000 hectares were planted in 1912, with a yield of 5,388,000 tons or 10.65 tons per hectare. This constituted more than two-fifths of the total Austrian potato crop. *Pulses* (peas, beans, and lentils) yielded in the same year 108,697 tons from 129,217 hectares. Other crops of importance are *fodder roots*, 822,000 tons from 29,070 hectares in 1912; *sugar beet*, 147,500 tons from 6,450 hectares; and *rape*, 7,300 tons from 5,380 hectares.

*Flax* and *hemp* are cultivated fairly freely, the yield in 1912 being of flax, 3,900 tons of seed and 4,540 tons of fibre from 9,433 hectares ; of hemp, 8,170 tons of seed and 10,293 tons of fibre from 15,683 hectares. *Tobacco* is raised in Eastern Galicia, mainly by small cultivators, and 2,254 tons were harvested in 1912 from 1,437 hectares. The *hay* crops are of great value. The area under clover and meadow hay in 1912 was 1,245,000 hectares, which yielded a return of 2,438,800 tons. Small quantities of *pumpkins*, *chicory*, and *poppy* are grown as field crops.

*Fruit*-growing is fairly extensive, considering the severity of the climate. The crop of hard fruit in 1912 was 30,870 tons and of stone fruit 11,353 tons. *Hop*-gardens yielded a crop of 1,156 tons in 1912.

The geographical distribution of certain of the crops is as follows. Maize is grown in the south-east between the Pruth and the Dniester ; buckwheat mainly in northern Podolia and the adjacent north-eastern regions ; tobacco is confined to the south-east of the province ; rape and hops are cultivated in the north-east and in several districts to the north-west of Lemberg.

Great attention is given to *live-stock*, particularly *horses*. Love of horses is inbred in the people, and large studs are raised by the wealthy landowners without regard to profit. Galicia has always bred riding horses, and new strains of blood have continually modified the native stock. The most recent developments have been the introduction of English and Oriental strains in order to produce a cavalry type. Three classes of horse may be distinguished : (1) The better-class riding animal, used for pleasure and for army remounts. These horses are bred in the State stud-farms, by large landowners, many of whose establishments are of world-wide reputation, and by the smaller landowners and the more prosperous peasants. (2) The ordinary draught animal for farm use, which is a degenerate type owing to its being worked too young. It is bred mainly in the centre

and east of the country. It is of mixed breed, but hardy, and an untiring worker. (3) A kind of hill pony has been developed by the Huzuls in the mountainous districts of south-east Galicia, and serves as a valuable transport animal in the Carpathians. The stock of horses increased from 765,570 in 1890 to 905,807 in 1910. The latter figure constituted just over half the total horse stock of Austria, and the number of horses per 100 inhabitants in Galicia was much above the average for the country in general.

The *horned-cattle* stocks of Galicia are well up to the average for Austria in general. Before 1882 the province was flooded with cattle from Bessarabia and Rumania, and the indiscriminate import brought disease and degeneration in its train. A complete embargo was then established, and strong measures, including State subventions for cattle-breeding through the agricultural societies, were taken to improve the stock. In particular two new strains were introduced, the Oldenburg animal for the lowlands and the Bern-Simmenthal for the mountainous districts; and efforts, which are stated to have been successful, were made with three native breeds, two Polish and one Podolian. The cattle industry is now in a flourishing condition. The 1910 census showed a total of 2,505,012 animals, of which 1,591,548 were cows. Of the male cattle over three years old, which numbered 28,666, close upon 20,000 were used as draught animals.

*Sheep-breeding* is on the decline. The stock fell from 631,000 in 1890 to 359,000 in 1910. Attempts to produce merino sheep have been unsuccessful; and practically the only type now reared is a coarse-woolled variety which produces sheep-skins and wool for making coarse tufted carpets. The animals are principally kept in the mountain districts and on the Podolian steppe, and in the summer are driven to the higher pastures, where they are milked for cheese. They belong mostly to small farmers, who are reducing their flocks with the adoption of intensive methods of agriculture.

The stock of *goats* at the 1910 census was 19,200.

The *pig* is a favourite with the small holder everywhere except in the mountain districts. There is a local breed noted for its long and strong bristles and the good quality of its meat. Its improvement has nevertheless been sought, and the Lemberg Agricultural Association has imported much pedigree Yorkshire stock, and established breeding farms in Eastern Galicia to strengthen the race. The stock in 1910 numbered 1,836,000 head, about one-quarter of the total in Austria.

*Poultry-keeping* is conducted on an extensive scale, especially by small holders, but no proper efforts are made to maintain or improve the stock. In 1910 Galicia possessed 10,300,000 fowls, 582,500 geese, and 386,600 ducks, and accounted for one-third of the fowls, over one-quarter of the ducks, and three-fifths of the geese of all Austria.

*Bee-keeping* was at one time an important industry, providing wax for lighting and honey for brewing *meth* (mead). During the nineteenth century the demand for both products fell, and bee-keeping suffered considerably. A growing demand for honey has revived the industry, and the number of beehives increased from 261,000 in 1890 to 382,200 in 1910. The production of wax in the latter year was about 3,000,000 lb., but the production per hive is low in comparison with other parts of Austria.

#### (b) *Methods of Cultivation*

Galician agriculture is still backward in its methods, but much improvement has taken place in recent years. The nineteenth century saw the disappearance of the three-field system on all classes of property and the general introduction of more intensive cultivation. The use of artificial fertilizers has increased, and the growing of fodder roots, clover, and fodder-grasses has greatly diminished the extent of fallow. The season 1911-12 showed a 30 per cent. rise in the productiveness of the soil as compared with the average production of

the years 1899-1908. In comparison with neighbouring countries which enjoy similar natural conditions, Galicia has thus made a considerable advance. Poznania and West Prussia, indeed, more than doubled their production in the same period, but Poland had an increase of only 25 per cent. and the Russian provinces bordering on Galicia made a still smaller improvement. Further progress is seriously hampered by the excessive subdivision of the land, which outside the huge estates of the big landowners is parcelled into innumerable holdings too small to provide their owners with the means of making improvements and often insufficient to maintain them without their working elsewhere as labourers, to the consequent neglect of their own fields (cf. pp. 46-7). The yield per hectare is lower on the small holdings than on the large estates, and they are thought not to be taking their proper share in the general advance. The distribution among different classes of holding is shown by the following table :

Farms cultivated entirely by owners and their families . . . . .	863,202
Farms worked with resident labour . . . . .	84,378
Farms worked with both resident and outside hired labour . . . . .	52,540
Estates employing permanent workmen and officials	8,421

The methods of cultivation and the proportion of plough-land to pasture vary greatly in different parts of the country. The south-east between the Carpathians and the Dniester has an average of 22 per cent. of the agricultural area under plough, and contains districts such as Kosów with 4 per cent., Kutry and Delatyn with 6 per cent., and Dolina with 8 per cent. The districts with the highest proportion of plough-land are the north and east bordering on Volhynia and Podolia, which are of a steppe character, and have an average of 74 per cent. arable land, with an extreme of 84 per cent. in one or two neighbourhoods. The western hilly country, which has Cracow as a centre, is the most intensively cultivated area in Galicia. It has an average of 58.2 per cent. arable land. The

watershed between the San and Dniester and the neighbouring country is generally fertile, but has some bad areas of marsh and clay. It has 47 per cent. of arable land. The district between the Vistula and the San is considered poor, and has 46 per cent. arable land.

*Irrigation* is not needed in Galicia. The productiveness of some parts of the country, more especially in the valley of the Dniester, is curtailed by the excessive moisture retained in the soil; and drainage works on a large scale are necessary. From 1883 to 1912 the sum of 6,611,520 kr. was expended on State drainage schemes, but a much greater capital outlay would prove remunerative.

### (c) *Forestry*

Galicia as a whole is not so rich in forests as many other parts of Austria, although it contains a part of the Wooded Carpathians. The distribution of the forest areas is uneven, large tracts being very sparsely wooded; and the district between the Dniester and the Russian frontier quite bare of timber. The chief forest lands are the slopes of the Carpathians, of which the eastern and western ends are well clothed with timber, while the central ranges have only scattered forests. Fir, spruce, stone-pine, and juniper are the commonest trees in these mountains. Outside the Carpathians, the districts of Złoczów, Brody, Kamionka, and Sokal contain the best forests. The neighbourhood of Cracow is well wooded, as is also the district east of the San up to the Polish frontier. Another good timber district lies south-east of Lemberg in the direction of the Dniester. The principal timber trees in the lowlands are Scots pine, beech, oak, silver fir, larch, ash, sycamore, and aspen.

The total area under forest in 1910 was 1,993,900 hectares, or about 25 per cent. of the whole area of the country. Private owners possessed 70.6 per cent., the State 14.1 per cent., communes 5.2 per cent., and 3.8 per cent. was Church property. The small remainder

was split up among companies, district authorities, and trustees of entails.

As in so many parts of eastern Europe, the nineteenth century with its rapid industrial development witnessed in Galicia a reckless exploitation of forest wealth. Timber standing near to means of transport, such as rivers, was cut down wholesale and the clearings burnt and cultivated until their fertility was exhausted. Not until 1852 did the law intervene, and until towards the end of the century its administration was very lax. The country is now divided into 49 forestry districts, each with a staff of inspectors and woodmen, much of whose work is described as preventive, as bad methods of cutting, excessive deforestation and the like still prevail. In the mountain districts a natural self-renewal of the forests takes place if the cutting is done rationally, and only here and there is artificial replanting necessary. The Carpathians, especially in their eastern section, still contain some large areas of primeval forest. Its worth as timber is, however, small; and the land is being gradually cleared and replanted.

The State forests appear to be well managed. The net profit has recently averaged 6.80 kr. per hectare annually, and the administration expenses 2.81 kr. per hectare. The corresponding figures for Austria as a whole are 5.20 kr. and 3.32 kr. There are further a number of very large private forest estates which are stated to be conducted on model lines.

#### (d) *Land Tenure*

Serfdom was abolished in Galicia in 1848; and a decree of 1853 purported to settle the questions affecting land which were raised by the emancipation, but its principles have not yet been everywhere carried out. Legally the land is either 'tabular' or 'non-tabular'. Tabular land is that which was registered in the land registry (*tabula*) of Lemberg in 1780, and consists of State and ecclesiastical land and the estates of the old nobility (*szlachta*). Privileges, now abolished,

in the shape of forced labour by the peasants, various administrative and juridical powers and exemptions from taxation, were attached to tabular land. On the other hand, rights of common, meadow, and forest were enjoyed by the peasants. Under the decree of 1853 these rights were to be commuted for small holdings, but the change is still incomplete, and in 1902 rights existed on a considerable scale on many tabular estates. Apart from its conversion into peasant holdings, tabular land loses its character on passing to persons who do not own other tabular land, and its amount is therefore decreasing. The official figures for the distribution of land between the various classes of owners in 1902 are :

<i>Type of Property.</i>	<i>Area.</i> <i>Hectares.</i>	<i>Per-centage</i> <i>of total</i> <i>area.</i>	<i>Percentage</i> <i>of total</i>		<i>Forest</i> <i>land.</i> <i>Hectares.</i>	<i>Per-centage</i> <i>of total</i> <i>forest</i> <i>land.</i>
			<i>Agricul-tural</i> <i>land.</i> <i>Hectares.</i>	<i>agricul-tural</i> <i>land.</i>		
I. Public tabular land (State-owned, ecclesi- astical foundations, re- ligious funds) . . .	485,000	6.4	78,000	1.4	407,000	20.4
II. Private tabular land (property of gentry) . . .	2,152,000	28.4	972,000	17.4	1,180,000	59.2
III. Land owned by communes or otherwise collectively . . .	439,000	5.8	317,000	5.7	122,000	6.1
IV. Peasant land . . .	4,500,000	59.4	4,215,000	75.5	285,000	14.3
Total . . .	7,576,000	100.0	5,582,000	100.0	1,994,000	100.0

Economically, the outstanding feature of land ownership in Galicia is the absence of agricultural holdings of moderate size and the great subdivision of the peasant land. The typical peasant-holding is from 1 to 5 hectares, an acreage insufficient to maintain its owner without resort to seasonal employment elsewhere; and there are about 200,000 holdings of 1 hectare or less. On the other hand, the private tabular agricultural land (excluding forests), which comprises 17.4 per cent. of the total agricultural land, is divided as follows: 19.4 per cent. *latifundia* or

giant estates ; 19.3 per cent. large estates ; 38.8 per cent. medium-sized estates ; 22.5 per cent. farms of 100-500 hectares. The distribution of fertile land into holdings of various sizes was in 1902 :

Size of holding in hectares	Under 0.5	0.5 to 1	1-2	2-5	5-10	10-20	20-50	50-100	Above 100
Number of holdings	75,400	128,532	240,104	366,622	145,478	361,470	7,923	2,464	5,278

The effects of the excessive subdivision of the peasant land are aggravated by the intermingling of lots. On the average a peasant property consists of twenty or thirty scattered lots, which is in itself a bar to anything like rational cultivation. The joining of lots is, however, now proceeding fairly rapidly.

### (3) FISHERIES

The waters of Galicia are stated to be well stocked with fish. The country has two principal river basins, those of the Vistula and the Dniester, which run to the Baltic and Black Sea respectively. Fish common to both basins are various *salmonidae* and trout, pike, perch, carp, barbel, roach, shad, and sander. Peculiar to the Vistula basin are salmon, eel, and common sturgeon, and to the Dniester the stellated sturgeon and sterlet, bream, and ruff. Two species of crayfish are fished for in both river basins.

Pond fisheries are of old standing in Eastern Galicia, but they are conducted on out-of-date lines, and no special effort appears to be made to develop them. In Western Galicia pond fisheries have been worked on industrial lines, and first-class results have been achieved. Besides those of the large concerns, 300 hectares of fish-ponds are possessed by small holders. Carp, a fish much esteemed locally, is principally raised in the ponds.

Fishing is in general a subsidiary occupation, auxiliary to some branch of agriculture. A great deal of value is obviously attached to the crayfish,

which is a luxury commanding a good price, and an article of considerable export. There is in Cracow a fishery company which maintains breeding-grounds and stocks the rivers.

#### (4) MINERALS

##### (a) *Natural Resources and Output*

Galicia contains valuable mineral deposits. These are found almost entirely in the west of the province, and consist of coal and lignite, salt, petroleum, iron, zinc, and lead.

*Coal.*—A small part of the Silesian coal-field lies within the boundaries of Galicia. The existence of coal has been known for over a century, but it has been systematically worked for only about 40 years. Trial shafts have recently been sunk to a depth of 3,200 ft., and estimates have been made which place the Galician coal reserves at 24,900,000,000 tons of workable coal. The deposits which have been worked are all in the extreme north-western corner of the province, north of the Vistula, and within a few miles of the Russian and Prussian frontiers. Jaworzno, Tencznek, and Krzeszowice are three colliery districts lying close together; another district in the neighbourhood of Oświęcim lies somewhat farther south. Galician coal is inferior to that mined in Austrian Silesia, a fact which accounts for the later development of the Galician field. Its content of water and ash is high on the whole, and it does not coke very well. The quantity mined in 1911 was 1,636,000 tons, valued at 12,124,000 kr., and in 1912, 1,910,000 tons, valued at 15,264,000 kr. This represented about 11.1 per cent. of the total Austrian production, but only 8.4 per cent. of the total value. The bulk of the coal is consumed within the province; a small part is exported across the frontier into Russian Poland.

*Lignite* is mined on a small scale. The production in 1911 was 30,000 tons, valued at 364,000 kr., and in 1912, 35,000 tons, valued at 453,000 kr. The lignite

deposits are situated in various parts of the country, notably near Debica on the railway between Cracow and Przemyśl, near Żółkiew north of Lemberg, and south and east of Kolomea on the borders of the Bukovina. The lignite industry would appear to be decaying, as the production had been decreasing from a maximum output of 69,000 tons in 1901.

*Salt.*—Galicia has some famous salt-mines of vast extent. They are situated in the district between Cracow and Tarnow, and the mining centres are Wieliczka and Bochnia. The salt is in broad layers which are frequently 60 ft. thick, and in some places even reach a thickness of 150 ft., where several are superimposed on one another. Three kinds of salt are produced: a naturally pure table salt of coarse grain, a fine salt which contains 6 per cent. of impurities and needs boiling, and another coarse quality which also contains 5–6 per cent. of impurities, and is known as ‘green’ or ‘industrial’ salt.

The figures for recent production and value, together with those for all Austria, are given below. Galicia has the greatest production of any province, with about 38 per cent. of the total, and is only rivalled by Upper Austria with 32 per cent.

	1911.		1912.		1913.	
	Tons.	Kr.	Tons.	Kr.	Tons.	Kr.
Galicia .	141,200	18,000,000	168,900	16,900,000	199,700	20,670,000
All Austria	342,700	47,100,000	396,700	47,300,000	359,000	52,000,000

*Potassium Salts.*—Galicia possesses mines of potassium salts at Katusz. The salts are chiefly *kainite* and *sylvine*. In 1911 the output of kainite was 17,200 tons. The workings were formerly in the hands of the Austrian Government, which is thought to have neglected them, but in 1913 the Provincial Government obtained authority to exploit them, and has formed a holding company for the purpose with a capital of 6,300,000 kr., of which it has subscribed one-half.

*Petroleum.*—The most valuable mineral product of Galicia is undoubtedly petroleum. The field on which the oil is found is about 220 miles in length and from

40 to 60 miles in width. It stretches from Gorlice at the foot of the Eastern Beskids and continues along the northern slopes of the Carpathians to a point near Kolomea close to the Bukovina frontier. Although oil has been produced in Galicia for some centuries, systematic exploitation only began in 1853, and its real activity dates from 1882, when a Canadian named McGarvey introduced a system of deep drilling which has proved highly successful. The workings are concentrated in one centre, known as the Borystaw-Tustanovice district, which lies about 40-45 miles south-west of Lemberg. Borings in this neighbourhood are carried to a depth of 3,000 ft. with great success; and up to 1917 the district, which covers 1,500 acres of workings, had yielded 12,000,000 tons of oil, or 8,000 tons per acre. The oil of the Borystaw-Tustanovice district yields 560 kg. of petroleum, 120 kg. of benzine, and 15 kg. of benzine from every 1,000 kg. of crude oil. It forms the standard market grade of Galician oil, and fixes the price for other districts. The output of the Borystaw-Tustanovice wells at one time constituted almost the entire production of Galicia (95 per cent. in 1908, 90 per cent. in 1911); but expert opinion considers the deposits to be approaching exhaustion, and activity is being extended to other areas, of which the most notable are near Bitków in south-east Galicia, and near Krosno on the slopes of the Eastern Beskids. The former district was yielding about 35,000 tons of oil annually before the war, and the latter 160,000 tons. Much capital has been invested in these districts, and, with borings deeper than any yet attempted, success is expected.

Galician oil production reached its maximum in 1909 when 2,076,000 tons of crude petroleum were brought to the surface. The output from 1909 to 1917 was:

<i>Year.</i>	<i>Production (tons).</i>
1910 . . . . .	1,672,000
1911 . . . . .	1,458,000
1912 . . . . .	1,187,000
1913 . . . . .	1,087,000

<i>Year.</i>	<i>Production (tons).</i>
1914 . . . . .	700,000
1915 . . . . .	578,000
1916 . . . . .	898,670
1917 . . . . .	742,060

In 1914 the Galician production was estimated at 3 per cent. of the world's output, and 9 per cent. of that of Europe, including Russia.

*Ozokerite.*—Ozokerite or solidified petroleum wax is found near Boryslaw and has been worked since 1860. The main world supply of this material is produced in Galicia. The output reached its maximum in 1885, when 13,000 tons were mined. Since then there has been a decline, partly owing to stringent mining laws with which the smaller mine-owners were unable to comply. There is a second small deposit at Dzwiniacz in south-eastern Galicia. The output from 1907 to 1911 was :

<i>Year.</i>	<i>Production (tons).</i>
1907 . . . . .	3,508
1908 . . . . .	2,592
1909 . . . . .	2,115
1910 . . . . .	No return
1911 . . . . .	1,940

The production in 1911 was about 20 per cent. less than the average for the previous five years, and was valued at 2,614,000 kr.

*Iron.*—A small quantity of a brown ironstone of somewhat poor content is mined in Galicia in the Cracow district. The production varies greatly from year to year, as the demand is not local, and arises only when supplies are short in Silesia or some other neighbouring province. The figures are : 1910, 4,500 tons ; 1912, 16,100 tons ; and 1913, 18,000 tons.

*Lead and zinc* ores are mined in the same district as the iron at various spots north of the railway line running due west from Cracow, and are of considerably greater value. The mines have existed for a long time, and as recently as twenty years ago provided a large proportion of the total Austrian output, but are now

much less productive than the Carinthian mines. They have been hampered by lack of capital and by the great difficulty of keeping them free from water, and the industry is more or less stationary. The production in 1911 and 1912 was :

	<i>Production (tons).</i>		<i>Value (kronen).</i>	
	1911.	1912.	1911.	1912.
Lead ore . . .	5,500	7,290	777,200	1,451,000
Zinc ore . . .	1,340	1,570	41,500	70,900

With more intensive working it is probable that a much greater output could be obtained, as the extent of plumbiferous earth in the neighbourhood is large.

Excluding petroleum, Galicia, during the twentieth century, has not kept pace with the rest of Austria in the production of minerals. Her share of the total output has fallen from 12 per cent. in 1905 to 10 per cent. in 1908 and 5 per cent. in 1912, as the following figures show :

*Value of Mineral Production in million kronen.*

	1905.	1908.	1912.
All Austria . . . . .	256	341	352
Galicia . . . . .	30	35	17

The number of mining (including petroleum) enterprises in Galicia in 1910 was 372, with an output valued at 66,000,000 kr., and employing 16,500 hands.

*(b) Methods of Extraction*

Galician mining enterprises in general present a less attractive field for investment than the superior and more easily worked minerals of neighbouring parts of Austria. They consequently suffer from want of capital and are old-fashioned in their methods. The petroleum industry, on the other hand, has drawn to itself an abundant flow of international capital, and has thus been able to employ the best foreign experts and to adopt every device for profitable exploitation. The bores are very deep, and require the most powerful

type of drill. Special drilling machinery is manufactured in Galicia and exported to the other petroleum centres of the world.

### (5) MANUFACTURES

There has hitherto been no considerable development of manufacture in Galicia, despite the presence of important raw materials and of an enormous supply of potential labour. Mining and all other industrial employments together occupy only 8·8 per cent. of the population. According to the reports of the factory inspectors the number of factories was 850 in 1903, 957 in 1908, and 1,183 in 1912, an increase of 39 per cent. in the ten years, but for several previous decades there had been very little progress, and many of the factories referred to are of small extent. The following table shows for the year 1910 the number of works in different industries, the number of hands, and the value of the output. The figures are larger than those given by the factory inspectors, as all workshops, even those which employ only one or two persons, are included.

	<i>Value of production in in 1910. Kronen.</i>	<i>Workmen.</i>	<i>Works.</i>
Food Production . . . . .	314,122,200	20,774	1,501
Mining . . . . .	66,150,000	16,501	372
Chemical Industry . . . . .	52,838,100	5,075	127
Wood-working . . . . .	52,710,000	12,469	284
Ceramic Industry . . . . .	41,044,000	21,797	1,455
Textile Industry . . . . .	33,075,000	5,300	56
Metals (simple) . . . . .	17,850,000	7,142	98
Machinery and Tool Manufacture . . . . .	15,750,000	4,087	52
Paper-making . . . . .	14,430,150	3,380	53
Graphic Crafts . . . . .	8,662,500	2,225	87
Leather and Skin Industry . . . . .	8,494,500	1,077	66
Metallurgic Industry . . . . .	5,406,450	1,224	2
Electricity and Power-works . . . . .	3,486,000	393	28
Clothing Production . . . . .	3,312,750	789	27
Celluloid, India-rubber Manufacture . . . . .	57,750	124	3
Canvas and Linen Manufacture . . . . .	—	120	3
Mixed Establishments . . . . .	—	3,513	149
Total . . . . .	637,389,400	105,990	4,363

The *food industry* occupies the first place, accounting

for nearly half of the total value produced and one-fifth of the total number of persons employed. This is due to the large production of spirit from potatoes and grain, which is carried on in large distilleries and liqueur factories in the towns, and more especially in a great number of stills attached to farms and estates. In the year 1911-12 there were 6 urban distilleries and 878 agricultural stills, which produced 887,374 hectolitres of alcohol, or 49.68 per cent. of the total production of Austrian alcohol. Brewing employs 88 concerns, of which 32 each produce over 10,000 hectolitres annually. The total production is about 1,500,000 hectolitres, which represents some 7 per cent. of the beer brewed in all Austria. Flour-milling accounts for most of the remaining activity in this branch of industry.

The *ceramic industries* employ the largest actual number of workers, who are distributed among many small concerns.

*Timber* naturally occupies a high place in the list. Every kind of raw timber, from deals to the finest wood for musical instrument making, is furnished by Galicia. Two very large saw-mills are situated at Wygoda and at Demniawyzna near Stryj. The latter produces material for a large match factory in the neighbouring town of Skole. Wooden articles are made in several centres, and this branch of manufacture exists also as a home industry. There is a large bent-wood furniture factory at Buczkowice near Biała; parquet flooring is made in several places, notably in Cracow, Lemberg, and Kamionka; and barrels for the preserving trade and for petroleum are produced in special factories at Mszana Dolna, south of Cracow, and Olszanica, southwest of Przemyśl.

The figure for *chemicals* is swelled by the inclusion of petroleum refining and accessory industries which are carried on near the oil-fields. The principal chemical works of other kinds are the soda factory at Szczakowa, close to the Polish frontier west of Cracow, and the archiducal chemical factory at Saybusch.

The *textile and clothing industries* are of small importance. Biała, a town near the western frontier, has a noted woollen factory, with 25,000 spindles, which produces civil and military cloths, and carriage and billiard cloths; and there is another large woollen factory at Saybusch. A considerable industry, carried on mainly in small concerns of which the largest is in Kolomea, is the making of a particular cloth called *Talles*, which is used in Jewish religious ceremonies, and is exported to all countries. There is a large cotton mill, the only one of importance in the country, at Andrychów, which has 1,000 looms and employs 750 workers. Others of smaller dimensions exist at Biała and Stanislau. Textiles are, to a great extent, a home industry in Galicia, especially linens and woollens, which the peasants have produced from time immemorial for their own wear. The tendency is for the home industry to transform itself into small factory enterprises, employing a few outside hands.

The *metal, machine, and tool industries* are mainly concentrated in the Cracow district. Biała produces electrical apparatus and textile machinery. Sanok, south-west of Przemyśl, has a large works producing railway-wagons and petroleum cisterns as well as petroleum-boring machinery. Other centres are Cracow, Lemberg, Tarnow, and Ottynia, where there are machine and tool works of some size.

*Metallurgical activity* is confined to two large concerns occupied in working upon the zinc and lead mined near Cracow.

The *paper industry* is accessory to the timber trade, and is fairly well distributed throughout the country.

Considering the great number of cattle and horses reared in Galicia, the poor development of the *hide and skin trades* is remarkable. The raw hides are sent out of the country, which is dependent on outside sources for footwear and other leather goods.

Five *tobacco factories* are in existence for the purpose of working up the tobacco grown in south-eastern Galicia. The largest is in Cracow.

### (6) POWER

Steam is the principal source of industrial power in Galicia. At the beginning of the year 1912 there were 5,462 steam boilers subject to inspection. This was about 14 per cent. of the total number of boilers inspected in Austria, but the heating surface was only 9 per cent. of the total heating surface of Austrian boilers. Gas and benzine are used for motor power on the oil-fields. Twenty-eight stations, employing 393 persons, are engaged in the production of electricity, but there is no information as to the quantity used for power.

### (C) COMMERCE

#### (1) DOMESTIC

##### *(a) Principal Branches of Trade*

Galicia is but very slightly devoted to commerce, the proportion of the population which is engaged in commerce and transport being only 5.4 per cent. of the whole. With 76 per cent. of the population engaged in agriculture, naturally the products of the soil and the live stock raised are the principal articles of commerce. In view of the fact that 956,000 landholders are possessors of holdings of less than 10 hectares in extent, a large proportion of the production naturally passes into local consumption, and is not dealt with commercially.

The produce of the mining industry brings small commercial benefit to Galicia, as the petroleum, lead, zinc, and iron is mainly contracted for and dispatched from the country. Timber in its half-worked state is a considerable article of commerce.

There is an extensive trade in nearly every class of manufactured goods, as Galicia provides only to the smallest extent for its own wants in this direction, and depends on outside sources for manufactures, machinery, and artificial manures. Clothing, however, is an exception, as the peasants produce this for themselves by home industry.

*(b) Towns, Markets, Fairs, &c.*

The principal towns of Galicia are Lemberg (population, 206,000), Cracow (population, 154,000), and Przemyśl (population, 54,000). Kolomea, with 42,000 inhabitants, is the only other town with a population exceeding 40,000. There are eleven towns with a population of between 20,000 and 40,000, and twenty-one with a population of between 10,000 and 20,000. Several of the latter are still officially classed as villages, as they owe their size to the presence of petroleum borings, and will decrease again rapidly when the local supply of oil is exhausted.

The Jews form over one-fifth of the population of *Lemberg*; and the trade of the town is mainly in the hands of innumerable petty Jewish merchants and commission agents, whose financial standing is often very bad. The absence of more substantial commercial firms has led to the foundation of several co-operative organizations for the purpose of supplying the rural population with goods and implements and of marketing their produce. Similar conditions exist generally throughout the province.

*Cracow* is in some respects a busier commercial centre than Lemberg, as it is the centre of the principal industrial and mining area of Galicia. The principal trades which carry stocks in or near Cracow are those dealing in corn and spirit; other branches of wholesale trade are not strongly represented in the town.

*Przemyśl* is of little commercial importance.

*Kolomea* is interested in the grain, timber, leather, and egg trades.

Markets are held at *Chrzanów*, west of Cracow, close to the Prussian frontier; *Horodenka*, in the extreme south-east of the country; *Turka*, in the Carpathians, south of Przemyśl; and *Rawa Ruska*, north-east of Lemberg on the Volhynian frontier.

(c) *Organizations to promote Trade and Commerce*

Chambers of Commerce and Industry are established at Lemberg, Cracow, and Brody. Those of Lemberg and Cracow have paid considerable attention to higher commercial education.

Four important agricultural societies are partly occupied in organizing internal commerce in products of the soil. They are the Commercial Association of Agricultural Circles, Lemberg and branches; the Syndicate of Agricultural Societies at Cracow; the Commercial Section of the Agricultural Society of East Galicia; and the Commercial Bureau of the Dairy Society.

Peasant societies for the sale of produce and the purchase of seed, fertilizers, tools, machines, &c., have long existed, and are now united by central associations. Of these, the Lemberg association appears to cover the whole province; the Cracow association works mainly in Western Galicia in the interests of the Poles; and a third, the *Narodnaya Torhowla* (People's Commercial Association), operates in Eastern Galicia, and is strictly Ruthenian. The latter association is represented in every considerable place in Eastern Galicia by a depot for sales and purchases.

For commerce in goods not strictly agricultural, but produced in the main by peasants, particularly textiles and wooden articles, there exist two 'bazaars' or sales depots in Lemberg and one in Cracow. The Lemberg bazaars are carried on by private associations, the Cracow bazaar by the town authorities. The efforts of these three concerns are largely directed to breaking the Jewish monopoly of the domestic trade of Galicia; but there is general agreement that the Jews still hold their place, and equally general complaint of their methods of business.

(d) *Foreign Interests*

A considerable amount of foreign capital has been brought to the development of Galicia, mainly for the

exploitation of the oilfield. The largest investments in this industry were made between 1911 and 1914, and a rapid fusion of interests took place during that period. The British companies interested in Galician oil which are quoted on the London Stock Exchange are nine in number, with an aggregate capital of £5,890,000. The principal is the Premier Oil and Pipe Line Co., Ltd., with a capital of £3,750,000. Others are the Motor Owners' Petrol Combine, Ltd., with a capital of £890,000, and the Galician Petroleum Producers, Ltd., with a capital of £320,000. A list containing other companies not quoted on the Stock Exchange shows an aggregate capital of £6,500,000, presumably invested by British companies in Galician oil ventures. In using these figures it should be remembered that the capital is by no means always fully paid up, and that some of the companies, although primarily constituted to exploit Galician oil, have invested money elsewhere in oil concerns.

Other British interests in Galicia are represented by branches of British firms which are registered as companies in Austria. One is a branch of the Lincoln firm of Clayton & Shuttleworth, which manufactures agricultural machines in Vienna, and has a depot and repair-works at Lemberg. Another company of British foundation has a factory at Stryj and makes boring machinery for the petroleum fields. No British trading concerns are represented or have money invested in Galicia.

Other foreign interests are small. The Compagnie Galicienne des Mines, a French concern, is the owner of a colliery near Chrzanów. Its capital is 5,500,000 francs.

## (2) FOREIGN

### (a) *Exports*

Galicia has an exportable surplus of most of the products of the country. Unfortunately there are no separate returns for the foreign trade of the province. The Diet voted the publication of such returns in

1909, but the Central Government refused its sanction. Figures published by various trades in their own interests are therefore the only ones available.

*Quantities and Values.*—The agricultural exports are live stock and dairy produce, but not cereals or other ground crops. Cattle, pigs, cheese, butter, eggs, poultry, and game are the principal items. The chief export is to Vienna and other parts of Austria. In 1911, 31,000 head of cattle and 532,000 pigs reached Vienna from Galicia. The annual value of the pig exports to all parts is about 100,000,000 kr. Almost all the raw hides and skins produced in Galicia are sent abroad for manufacture. Flax, hemp, and wool are also exported raw. Timber is a very valuable export, and most of it leaves the country in a raw or half-worked state, parquet flooring and bent-wood furniture being the principal exceptions. The amount exported annually in recent years, excluding firewood, is estimated at 2,000,000 cubic metres of timber, valued at 73,500,000 kr. Almost the whole output of lead and zinc is exported, but only a small part of the coal. The export of petroleum and its products to countries outside the Austrian Empire is shown below. An additional amount, for which no figures can be given, is sent to Hungary and to various parts of Austria.

<i>Year.</i>	<i>Export (Tons).</i>
1910 . . . . .	404,348
1911 . . . . .	353,087
1912 . . . . .	560,623
1913 . . . . .	448,573

The ozokerite mined in central Galicia is also largely exported. The figures for the export across the frontiers of the Empire are as follows :

<i>Year.</i>	<i>Export (Tons).</i>
1907 . . . . .	1,813
1908 . . . . .	1,647
1909 . . . . .	2,320
1910 . . . . .	2,584
1911 . . . . .	1,859

Galicia produces a large surplus of spirit, which is exported in the form of liqueurs, brandy, and industrial alcohol.

*Countries of Destination.*—The destination of the bulk of the exports from Galicia is Germany. Most of the live stock and provisions, however, and much of the wool, hemp, flax, hides, and skins go to some other part of the Austrian Empire. The timber is sent to Germany by way of the Vistula or to southern Russia, where it is in great demand, *via* the Dniester. Bentwood furniture is exported to all parts of the world. The lead and zinc appear to go mainly to Bohemia. Germany takes most of the petroleum, as may be seen from the following figures for 1913 :

*Export of Petroleum*

	<i>Tons.</i>	£
To Germany . . . . .	252,200	1,433,400
France . . . . .	60,000	356,333
Switzerland . . . . .	25,000	146,187
Italy . . . . .	5,700	36,548

Germany also takes the ozokerite. | In 1913 the exports to the chief countries of destination were :

*Export of Ozokerite*

	<i>Tons.</i>	£
Germany . . . . .	1,419	91,682
United States . . . . .	315	20,395
European Russia . . . . .	194	12,555
United Kingdom . . . . .	97	6,290
France . . . . .	83	5,360

Galician spirits and liqueurs go mainly to Germany.

*(b) Imports*

Textiles of all kinds are an important item of Galician import. The native production was recently valued at 33,000,000 kr. annually, and the import at 300,000,000 kr. Boots, shoes, and all kinds of leather goods are also imported, relatively little being produced locally. Most of the machinery, iron goods, and glass-ware used

in the province are imported, and a considerable amount of the coal (750,000 tons in 1908).

Corn and flour are obtained from Hungary. The average annual import has recently been about 250,000 tons, or one-fourth of the consumption.

Artificial manures of all kinds are imported, as well as a great deal of seed.

Germany is the chief exporter to Galicia of manufactured goods of all kinds, textiles, coal, iron goods, and artificial manures. Glass-ware is obtained from Bohemia, and leather goods from Vienna and other parts of Austria.

#### (c) *Customs and Tariffs, &c.*

For purposes of customs tariffs and commercial treaties, Galicia is part of the Austrian Empire. It is alleged that its interests are habitually subordinated to those of other provinces, such as Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, and Lower Austria.

### (D) FINANCE

#### (1) *Public Finance*

The public finance of Galicia falls under the three heads of Imperial finance, the finance of Galicia as an autonomous province, and the finance of the districts and communes.

Galicia is undoubtedly a valuable fiscal asset to Austria. According to a special estimate of the Imperial Audit Department for the year 1911, the revenues raised in the province by the State Government amounted to 416,513,000 kr., and its expenditure in the province to 308,646,000 kr., leaving a surplus for Imperial purposes of 107,867,000 kr. The budget estimates for 1914, quoted below, show a surplus for Imperial purposes of 124,454,000 kr. Taxes on consumption and duties furnish the principal yield. As successor to the Polish Crown, Austria owns 4 per cent. of the soil of the province, but the receipts from State domains and enterprises are large only when calculated

in the gross. The following tables show as nearly as can be calculated the position of Galicia in the Austrian budget according to the draft for 1914-15. It will be noticed that the appropriations for education and the economic development of the country are very small.

DRAFT BUDGET OF THE AUSTRIAN STATE IN GALICIA  
FOR 1914-15

RECEIPTS

	<i>Actual amount. Kronen.</i>	<i>Per inhabitant. Kronen.</i>
1. Receipts of State domains and enterprises . . . . .	90,427,216	11·27
2. Administrative receipts . . . . .	8,457,418	1·05
3. Direct taxes . . . . .	38,964,240	4·85
4. Taxes on consumption and monopolies (salt and tobacco) . . . . .	120,975,750	15·07
5. Customs (approximate) . . . . .	33,600,000	4·19
6. Dues and stamps . . . . .	38,584,298	4·77
7. Tax on railway and lottery tickets (approximate) . . . . .	9,434,529	1·17
Total . . . . .	340,443,451	42·37

EXPENDITURE

	<i>Actual amount. Kronen.</i>	<i>Per inhabitant. Kronen.</i>
1. Administration of the country, public safety and justice . . . . .	42,088,784	5·24
2. Administration of finance and pensions . . . . .	45,081,753	5·62
3. Administration and construction of public buildings . . . . .	6,643,663	0·83
4. Interest on capital of State and local railways . . . . .	48,562,080	6·05
5. Encouragement of agriculture, communications, canalization of rivers, &c. . . . .	19,519,031	2·42
6. Education and religion . . . . .	29,018,116	3·61
7. Share of province in State receipts . . . . .	20,632,500	2·58
8. Bounties on production of distilleries . . . . .	4,442,938	0·55
Total . . . . .	215,988,865	26·90

The financial resources of the autonomous province are limited, being derived chiefly from taxes on consumption and surtaxes on the Imperial direct taxes, and are not sufficient to meet the expenditure without recourse to loans. The Diet devotes comparatively large sums to the development of the province, and its policy in this respect contrasts very favourably with that of the Austrian Government. The total expenditure has risen from 9,780,000 kr. in 1890 to 20,951,000 kr. in 1900, and to 85,108,000 kr. (draft budget) in 1914. In 1911 it was divided as follows: Education, 40 per cent.; public health and poor relief, 10·7 per cent.; communications, 9·6 per cent.; economic development (agricultural and industrial), 22·4 per cent.; other purposes, 17·3 per cent. The draft budget for 1914 was:

## DRAFT BUDGET OF GALICIA FOR 1914

	<i>Expenditure.</i> <i>Kronen.</i>	<i>Receipts.</i> <i>Kronen.</i>
1. Public instruction, fine arts, historic monuments . . . . .	36,773,417	4,826,823
2. Economic improvements, agriculture, mines, industry, canalization of rivers . . . . .	17,350,127	8,473,072
3. Sanitary service, poor relief . . . . .	9,726,377	3,983,890
4. Communications . . . . .	7,818,007	1,140,790
5. Service of the provincial debt . . . . .	4,916,286	171,008
6. Representation and administration of the province . . . . .	3,714,529	423,580
7. Public safety . . . . .	1,549,419	613,429
8. Pensions, gifts, miscellaneous . . . . .	627,262	105,556
9. Taxes on provincial consumption, and share in State taxes . . . . .	2,633,400	33,715,500
10. Surtax on State direct taxes and share in State personal taxes . . . . .	—	25,583,040
Total . . . . .	85,108,824	79,036,688

The seventy-four self-governing districts and the communes raise revenues for local purposes, mainly roads, from surtaxes on the Imperial direct taxes and

from tolls. Lemberg and Cracow stand outside the district organization, and are financially prosperous owing to their extensive municipal enterprises.

The revenues of all the autonomous bodies (including the province itself) in 1914 were about 168,000,000 kr., or half the State revenues. The revenues of the State and the autonomous bodies together were 508,400,000 kr., or about 63 kr. per inhabitant. The indebtedness of the province and the two towns of Lemberg and Cracow on December 31, 1913, was 186,009,600 kr., a part of which was covered by foreign banks and capitalists.

### (2) *Banking*

Despite a marked development of local banking enterprise in recent years, the Galician credit market and Galician banking are still dominated by the credit institutions of Vienna and, to a less degree, by those of Prague. The Austro-Hungarian Bank in particular has a preponderating influence. The turnover of its Galician branches in 1911 exceeded 5,750,000,000 kr., and its share in the discounting of bills (600,000,000 kr. in 1911) gives it a decisive influence upon the extent and direction of this form of credit. Seven other Viennese or Prague banks have one or more branches in the province, and play an important part in financing its enterprises. In addition to this direct activity, the local banks themselves are to an unknown extent dependent upon banks outside Galicia. There appear to be no branches of Hungarian or foreign banks proper in the province. The dependence upon Vienna involves a real risk of the denial of necessary financial support at moments of crisis. In 1907, and especially in 1912, it is alleged, the foreign capital was completely withdrawn without any consideration for Galician interests, and numerous bankruptcies resulted.

The most important Galician banking undertaking is the National Bank of Galicia (*Landesbank des Königreiches Galizien und Lodomerien mit dem Grossherzogtum Krakau*), which was founded in 1883 by the Provincial

Government and stands under its control. It engages in all branches of activity usual to continental banks, including those of a land mortgage bank. The subscribed capital and reserve funds in 1912 were approximately 23,000,000 kr.; the turnover increased from slightly over 1,000,000,000 kr. in 1900 to about 3,800,000,000 kr. in 1912. The largest private joint-stock institution is the Mortgage Bank (*K. K. Privilegierte Galizische Aktien-Hypotheken Bank*), founded in 1867, which in 1910 had a subscribed capital of 20,000,000 kr. and reserves exceeding 9,000,000 kr. The Galician Industrial Bank (*Industrie-Bank für das Königreich Galizien und Lodomerien samt dem Grossherzogtum Krakau*) was founded in 1910 to promote the industrial and agricultural development of the province, with a capital of 10,000,000 kr., of which half was taken by the Provincial Government, one-third by the *Niederoesterreichische Escomptegesellschaft*, and about a fifth by Cracow and Lemberg. The Galician Bank of Commerce and Industry (*Galizische Bank für Handel und Industrie*), founded 1869, which provides chiefly for commercial needs, is a comparatively small institution (capital 4,000,000 kr.), and from 1902 to 1908 was in process of reorganization. Among other general banking institutions may be mentioned the Galician Land-Credit Bank (*Boden-Kredit-Bank*) (capital 3,000,000 kr.) and the Agricultural Mortgage Bank (*Agrar-Hypotheken-Bank*), both founded in 1910.

The provision of agricultural credit (mortgages) naturally occupies a prominent place in the operations of the above-mentioned banks. In addition, two institutions exist solely for the purpose, the Land Credit Association (*Boden-Kredit-Verein*), a co-operative organization originally created in 1841, and the Commission for Redeemable Leaseholds (*Rentengüter*), which appears to be a Government relief institution. On December 31, 1913, the issue of mortgage bonds by these two bodies amounted to 284,550,000 kr., the mortgages held by them to 283,500,000 kr., and the reserve funds and other assets to 10,500,100 kr. The

total indebtedness of Galician land in respect of mortgages (mainly upon large estates) is calculated to have risen from 295,000,000 kr. in 1869 to 2,058,000,000 kr. in 1910.

Savings banks play an important part in the economic life of Galicia. The State Post Office Savings Bank, it is true, had only 208,750 accounts open in 1911, or 26 per 1,000 of the population, the lowest ratio of any province, but local savings banks enjoy great popularity. In 1911 there were 47 registered in the province, with over 350,000 depositors and more than 360,000,000 kr. of deposits. The Galician General Savings Bank at Lemberg with 112,000,000 kr., the Cracow Town Savings Bank with 40,000,000 kr., the Cracow District Savings Bank with 25,000,000 kr., and the Tarnow Savings Bank with 13,000,000 kr. deposits are among the largest. The deposits are invested in mortgages and loans to communes. The net profits of the banks are devoted to increasing the reserve capital, and when provision has been made for this up to a certain figure, the residue is devoted to philanthropic or social purposes. A Union of Galician Savings Banks was formed in 1902.

Co-operative credit societies of the Schulze-Delitzsch or the Raiffeisen types have been remarkably successful in Galicia. In 1911, 2,707 such societies existed, with a membership of 1,253,809. Of these 1,648 published balance-sheets showing an aggregate capital of 86,000,000 kr., reserve funds of 24,000,000 kr., and deposits and current accounts of 376,000,000 kr. Each type of credit society has a central bank. The advance which, with the support of the Provincial Government, has been made in the foundation of Raiffeisen loan and saving associations to meet the needs of the rural population is particularly remarkable. Their number increased from 63 in 1900 to 1,382 in 1912, in which year their membership was 288,551 (about 91 per cent. peasants), and the outstanding loans to members amounted to 69,090,000 kr. It is characteristic that the bulk of the loans to peasants

are for land purchase, liquidation of successions, &c. ; in 1909, 83.7 per cent. of the total was for such purposes.

### (3) *Influence of Foreign Capital*

Foreign capital, other than Austrian, whose influence is discussed in the previous section (p. 68), has not played any important part in the development of Galicia except in connexion with the oil industry. The oil investments of the foreign capitalist have been in companies registered abroad, whose profits are taken bodily out of the country.

### (4) *Principal Fields of Investment*

So long as Galicia remains so predominantly an agricultural country it will attract but little outside capital. The extensive breeding of cattle and pigs offers an opening for cold storage, bacon factories, and by-product factories, which has hitherto not been exploited. The timber and allied industries, such as cellulose and paper-making, would probably repay foreign investment. Further exploitation of the oil is likely to take place, more particularly in the south-eastern district, and would require much new machinery. The development of the coal area west of Cracow might absorb much fresh capital. Such a development, however, would appear to be dependent upon the erection of a tariff against the import of Silesian coal and the creation of a free outlet for the industries of the Kingdom of Poland. The revival of the drooping zinc industry is also stated to be a question of capital, as the workings require a thorough remodelling to make them properly remunerative.

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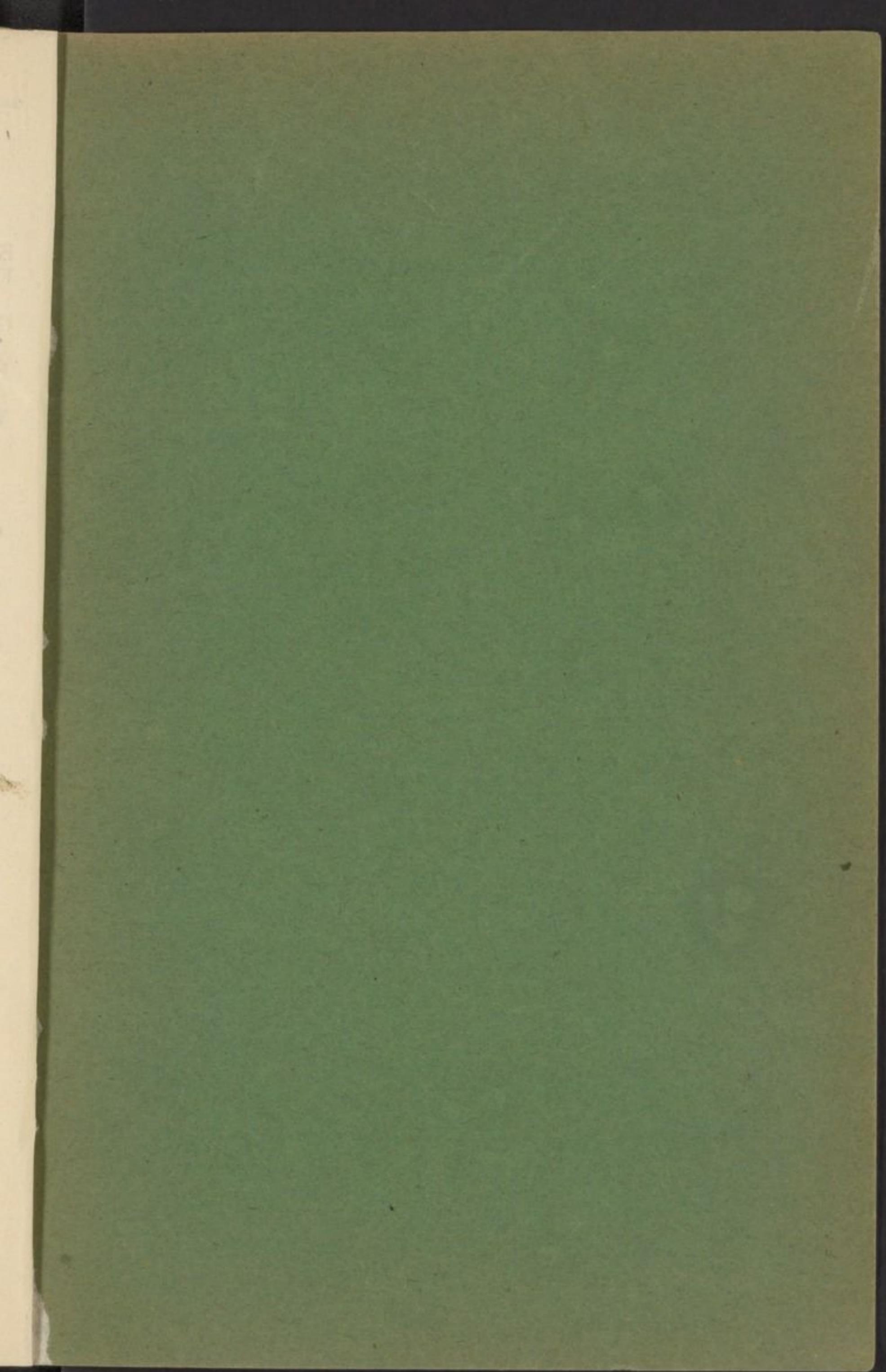
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## MAPS

Galicia is covered by two sheets (Krakau, M. 34; and Jitomir, M. 35) of the General Map (G.S.G.S. No. 2758) published by the War Office.

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