HANDBOOKS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE HISTORICAL SECTION OF THE FOREIGN OFFICE.—No. 23

D 6
.G7
no. 23
Copy 2

RUMANIA

LONDON:
PUBLISHED BY H. M. STATIONERY OFFICE.

1920

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS

THE LIBRARY OF CONGRESS
1800

Class D6
Book G7

153

HANDBOOKS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE HISTORICAL SECTION OF THE FOREIGN OFFICE.—No. 23

Gt. Brit.

507
1407

RUMANIA

LONDON:
PUBLISHED BY H. M. STATIONERY OFFICE.

1920

2d set

D6
.G7
Copy 2

D. of D.
MAY 27 1920

EDITORIAL NOTE

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

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

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

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

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

G. W. PROTHERO,

General Editor and formerly
Director of the Historical Section.

January 1920.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PAGE

I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) Position and Frontiers 1
(2) Surface, Coast, and River System
Surface 1
Wallachia 2
Moldavia 4
The Dobruja 5
Coast 6
River System 7
Rivers of Wallachia 7
Rivers of Moldavia 7
The Danube 8
(3) Climate 8
(4) Sanitary Conditions 9
(5) Race and Language 10
(6) Population
Distribution 12
Movement 14

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

Chronological Summary 15
(1) Introductory 17
(2) Early History of Wallachia 18
(3) Early History of Moldavia 19
(4) The Phanariote Period 20
(5) Period of Russian Influence
Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji (1774) . . 21
Règlement Organique 22
Convention of Balta Liman (1849) . . 23
(6) Union of the Principalities 23
Treaty of Paris (1856) 24
United Principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia 25

Wt. 41225/396. 1000. 3/20 O.U.P.

PAGE

(7) Experiment of a Native Prince
Alexander Cuza 26
Prince Charles, Hereditary Prince . . 27
(8) Prince Carol and Rumanian Independence . 27
Financial Difficulties 28
Administrative Reforms 28
Catargiu Ministry; Commercial Conventions . 29
Rumanian Integrity 31
Russo-Turkish War 32
(9) Congress of Berlin (1878) and Rumanian Independence
Bessarabia and the Dobruja 33
Emancipation of the Jews 34
Rumania a Kingdom 36
(10) Foreign Policy (1880–1896). Austro-Hungarian Alliance 36
Russian and Austro-German Influences . 37
Irredentist Policy 39
(11) Internal Events (1881–1907)
Constitutional Changes 39
Agrarian Troubles 41
Jewish Question 41
(12) The Balkan Wars and the End of the Alliance with Austria-Hungary
Rumania and Bulgaria 43
First Balkan War 43
Second Balkan War 44
Dobruja Frontier 44
NOTE A. THE QUESTION OF THE DANUBE
Introductory 45
The Treaty of Passarowitz (1718) . . . 46
Russia in the Delta 46
The Treaty of Paris (1856) 47
The Danube Commissions 48
The London Conference (1871) . . . 50
The Congress of Berlin (1878) 50
The Conference of London (1883) . . . 52
The Treaty of London (1883) 53
Treaty of Bucarest (1918) 54
NOTE B. THE QUESTION OF THE DOBRUJA . . 55

PAGE

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) Religious
Origin and Organization 56
Orthodox Church ; Patriarchate . . . 56
Statistics of different Religions . . . 57
Religious Sentiment 57
Ecclesiastical Reforms 58

(2) Political
Constitution 59
Local Government 61
Judiciary 61
Character of Government 62
Civil Service 62
Political Parties 63
Political Press 65

(3) Public Education
Primary Education 66
Secondary Education 67
Technical and Commercial Education . . 69
Higher Education 69

(4) General Observations
Popular Opinion and National Sentiment . 69
The Rumanians of Macedonia . . . 72

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) Means of Communication
(1) Internal
(*a*) Roads 76
(*b*) Rivers 76
The Danube 76
The Pruth 78
The Sereth 79
(*c*) Railways 79
(*d*) Ports on the Danube
Cernavoda 81
Silistra, Giurgiu, Turnu-Magurele . . 82
Corabia, Calafat, Gruia 83
Turnu-Severin 84
(*e*) Danube Steamship Service 84

PAGE

(f) Posts, Telegraphs, and Telephones . . 85

(2) External

(a) Maritime Ports

Brăila 86

Galatz 87

Constanza 88

Sulina, Balcic 89

(b) Shipping Lines 90

(c) Telegraphic Communication 92

(B) Industry

(1) Labour .

(a) Labour Conditions 92

(b) Emigration 93

(c) Immigration 94

(2) Agriculture 94

(a) Products of Commercial Value . . . 97

Maize and Wheat 97

Tobacco 98

(b) Forestry 98

(c) Land Tenure 99

(3) Fisheries 99

(4) Petroleum 100

(5) Minerals 104

Amber 104

Coal, Copper 105

Gold, Graphite, Gypsum, Iron . . . 106

Marble and Granite 106

Mercury, Ozokerite, Salt 107

Sulphur 108

(6) Other Industries

Breweries, Building Materials . . . 108

Chemical Industry, Distilleries . . . 109

Electrical Industry, Flour Milling. . . 109

Glass Manufacture 110

Meat, Metals, Silk, Sugar 111

Tanneries, Textiles 112

Wooden Goods 113

(7) Water-power 113

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PAGE

(C) COMMERCE
(1) Domestic
(a) Towns 113
Bacău 113
Botoșani, Bucarest, Craiova . . . 114
Jassy, Ploești 115
(b) Chambers of Commerce 115
(c) Commercial Intelligence Department . . 116
(d) German Commercial Penetration . . . 117

(2) Foreign 120
(a) Exports 121
(b) Imports 123
Iron and Steel Manufactures and Coal . 124
Machinery 124
Vehicles 125
Cotton and Jute Yarns and Tissues . . 126
Cotton and Jute Manufactures . . . 126
Woollen Goods 126
Hides and Leather Articles, Silk Goods . 127
Trees, Wood, and Wooden Manufactures . 127
(c) Customs and Tariffs 128
(d) Transit Trade 129
(e) Trade Routes 129

(D) FINANCE
(1) Public Finance 131
(2) Currency 132
(3) Banks and Credit Institutions 132

(E) GENERAL REMARKS
The Economic Value of the Dobruja to Rumania 135

APPENDIX
Table I. Principal Crops 137
" II. Principal Exports 138
" III. Exports to Principal Countries . . 139
" IV. Percentage of Value of Exports to Different Countries 140
" V. Percentage of Quantity of Exports to Different Countries 140
" VI. Principal Imports 141

PAGE

Table VII. Percentage of Value of Imports from Different Countries 142
,, VIII. Percentage of Quantity of Imports from Different Countries 142

AUTHORITIES

Historical 143
Economic 143

MAPS 144

I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) Position and Frontiers

Although sometimes spoken of as one of the Balkan States, Rumania does not form part of the Balkan Peninsula. Except for the region known as the Dobruja, its whole area lies north of the Danube, and has more in common with the Carpathian Mountains on the one hand and the South Russian steppes on the other than with the Balkans. Rumania lies between 22° 20′ and 29° 40′ east longitude, and between 43° 15′ and 48° 20′ north latitude. Its area, including the Dobruja, is 53,489 square miles.

The boundaries of Rumania are the crests of the Transylvanian Alps and Carpathian Mountains on the north and west; on the east, between Moldavia and Russia, the Pruth; on the south, the Danube to a point 10 miles west of Turtucaia (Tutrakan); from this point the frontier is an arbitrary line running over the steppe country in the south of the Dobruja to the Black Sea near Ecrene. The Black Sea is the eastern boundary of the Dobruja.

(2) Surface, Coast, and River System

Surface

Historically Rumania consists of three portions: Wallachia in the south-west, Moldavia in the north-east, and the Dobruja in the south-east. The distinction between Wallachia and Moldavia is not recognized in the administration of the king-

dom, but it exists in the popular mind and is justified by differences in the surface of the country, as well as by the separate historical development of the two former principalities. Wallachia is an inclined plain between the Transylvanian Alps and the Danube, traversed by a series of rivers running more or less parallel with each other. In Moldavia the surface of the country is more broken, and the river system is of a different kind. Moldavia, in fact, apart from the Carpathians, consists in the main of two great longitudinal depressions, those of the Sereth and the Pruth. From the geographical point of view Moldavia and Wallachia should therefore be considered separately. The Dobruja has obviously a separate existence, not merely because it is separated from the rest of the country by the broad channels and marshes of the lower Danube, but also because its surface is quite different. All three provinces, however, have one great geographical bond in the Danube, which flows along the whole southern border of Wallachia, then passes between that region and the Dobruja, touches the south-east corner of Moldavia at the great Moldavian port of Galatz, and finally, after bordering Russian territory, spreads out fanwise in the great delta which forms the northern part of the Dobruja.

Wallachia.—The total area of Wallachia is approximately 29,810 square miles. The surface is of three kinds: steppe, 'vine-country', and mountain, or, more properly, plain, hills, and mountains. The transition from one kind to another is as a rule gradual. The plain gradually becomes folded and merges in hills; the hills, by almost imperceptible stages, blend with the mountain country. Yet any one who crosses Wallachia by the great transverse railway from Corabia on the Danube, through Piatra, up the Olt valley and through the Roter Turm Pass, will be sensible of the changes

from the almost level plain to the well-watered hill country, and from the hills to the wild gorges and the forest-clad slopes of the Transylvanian Alps.

In tradition and in the popular mind Wallachia is still regarded as consisting of two great divisions: Oltenia west of the river Olt, and Muntenia east of the Olt, or, to use another accepted terminology, Little and Great Wallachia. The chief town of the first is Craiova, of the second Bucarest. Geographically Little and Great Wallachia differ in certain respects; the average level of the first is rather higher, and the rainfall is somewhat greater. In respect of the plain country there is little difference, except that as one proceeds eastward the plain becomes even more monotonous, and gradually less fertile till it ends in the still almost uninhabited Baragan steppe which borders on the west the course of the Danube from Călărași to Brăila.

In Oltenia the plain is slightly more diversified than in Muntenia; the deep soil, of a yellowish colour, is a kind of continuation of the 'black earth' of Little Russia, and is extremely fertile. Over mile upon mile of almost level country there is in summer nothing but standing crops of maize and wheat. Owing to the lack of firewood and of streams and of shelter the inhabitants are not spread over the country in homesteads, but are congregated in large villages of from 800 to 3,000 people. The plain in Muntenia covers a much larger area than in Oltenia, and its surface presents several different types.

In Oltenia the soil of the hill region consists of sand and clays upon gravel. It is well watered and fertile, and produces not merely cereals but also vines. Habitation is chiefly in the valleys, particularly along the upper terrace. The hill region in Muntenia has a much greater area than in Oltenia and is less uniform.

The extension of the Carpathians on the north-east of Rumania is known as the Transylvanian Alps. In the Wallachian section their greatest breadth is about 44 miles, of which some 25 miles are actually in Wallachia. The Carpathians have no perpetual snow, their greatest heights along the Rumanian frontier being no more than 8,000 to 8,500 ft. In general their upper slopes are gentle and forested with beech and fir; their summits are rounded, bare, and grassy.

Moldavia.—Moldavia, like Wallachia, has to be considered under three aspects: the plains, the hills, the mountains. Its total area is much smaller, however, and each of the regions is on a smaller scale. The total area of Moldavia is 14,710 square miles, about half that of Wallachia.

The plains lie along the rivers of Moldavia, and are only a few miles broad. On either side of the Sereth there is a narrow belt of flat country, some 300 ft. above sea-level. There is similar country along the banks of the Moldova, the important tributary which joins the Sereth near the town of Roman. East of the Pruth is Bessarabia, which is outside Rumania; along both banks lies a belt of flat marshy ground which on the Rumanian side is 3 to 6 miles wide. West of Jassy (Iași) there are small basins among the hills that border the Bahluiu river, and similar restricted plains are found elsewhere.

The rest of the country, outside the Carpathian Mountains, is a sandy-clay hill country, in which the hills have a very gradual slope, are wooded on the top, and have much pasture and also cultivated land growing wheat, maize, and vines on their slopes. This plateau or hill country is divided longitudinally by the Sereth. West of this river are the foot-hills of the Carpathians. Here, at any rate towards the south,

the valleys are narrow, there are very few level spaces, and heights of nearly 2,500 ft. occur. East of the Sereth the valleys are broad, and the whole country is open and suited for cultivation.

In Moldavia the Carpathians are somewhat lower than in Wallachia. Their summits are bare, but their sides are covered with magnificent forests of beech, fir, pine, and oak. The valleys are deeply cut and stony, and there is no great extent of pasture-land anywhere.

The Dobruja.—The Dobruja (Dobrogea), the portion of Rumania which lies between the Danube and the Black Sea, has, including the additions made in 1913, an area of 8,969 square miles. It consists of three distinct types of country: the delta of the Danube, the wooded country of Babadag, and the steppe country to the south.

The delta is enclosed between the Kilia arm and the St. George arm of the Danube; through the centre runs the Sulina arm. The base of the delta between the mouths of the north and south arms is about 40 miles long, and its total area is about 1,000 square miles. It is a kind of amphibious country, in which water and land are often indistinguishable. There are lakes and marshes everywhere; and during the months when the water is high, from April to June, practically the whole country is inundated. At Sulina, the chief town in the delta, the land is only 2 ft. above sea-level; in certain other parts it is actually below sea-level. There is a profuse vegetation of reeds and willows, but little else. Communication is made chiefly along the Sulina canal and by causeway. Every year the delta gains 10 to 15 ft. towards the sea, and is gradually becoming consolidated.

Outside the delta, in the department of Tulcea, is the Babadag plateau, a land of wood and hill. Here there

is a fair amount of oak and beech; the streams are sufficient though small.

The rest of the Dobruja proper is steppe, becoming more fertile towards the south. There is here scarcely any surface water, although there is plenty of subterranean water to be tapped by sinking wells.

The new territory is a fertile belt of corn-land. Formerly the Dobruja was bounded by a line which began at the Black Sea 6½ miles south of Mangalia and ran west-north-west to the Danube immediately east of Silistra. The addition of the new territory extended this limit about 30 miles to the south. The comparative fertility of the old and new territory can be judged from the density of population: in the new territory it is nearly ninety-two to the square mile; in Constanza (Constanța, Küstenje), the most populous department of the old, it is seventy-eight per square mile.

Coast

Rumania has about 196 miles of coast on the Black Sea. This is divided into three portions by Capes Caliacra and Midia. From Ecrene north to Cape Caliacra is the vast curve of Cavarna Bay, the only portion of the Rumanian coast where vessels of all sizes can safely anchor.

In the whole of the second stretch of coast, from Cape Caliacra to Cape Midia, there are only two places naturally suited for shipping. The first is at Mangalia, a village at the opening of a little valley, about 27½ miles by road south of Constanza. Before the war the Rumanians were contemplating the construction of a harbour at Mangalia.

Constanza is the next place to the northward suitable for shipping. This point on the coast is only 40 miles by rail from Cernavoda on the Danube. The natural

advantages of Constanza have been utilized in the construction of a harbour for large ships.

From Cape Midia the coast is extremely low and sandy, with large salt lagoons stretching for miles inland. One of these lagoons is Lake Razelm, which is entered by a narrow channel called the Gura Portița. At the Gura Portița the mud flats of the Danube delta may be said to begin.

Rumania possesses one island in the Black Sea—the Isle of Serpents (Insulă Șerpilor), 24 miles east by north of Sulina. It is 1½ miles in circumference, with steep shores, and with good landing-places at the north-east and south ends. The island is uninhabited; it has a lighthouse and a Rumanian picket.

River System

It is said that about 200 considerable rivers flow through Rumania. Of these the Danube, the Pruth, and the Sereth are the largest. The Danube is a great inland waterway. The Pruth is navigable for part of its course; the Sereth is not navigable, but could without great difficulty be made so. The other rivers, especially those in Wallachia, are apt to lose volume by percolation after they issue from the mountains. During their course in the mountains they are rapid and strong, and can be used both for supplying power and for rafting.

Rivers of Wallachia.—The chief rivers of Wallachia are the Jiu, the Olt, the Vedea, the Argeș, the Ialomița, and the Buzău. Of these the Vedea is the only one that rises in the region of the hills. The rest come from the Transylvanian Alps. The Olt rises in Transylvania, and enters Wallachia by the Roter Turm gorge.

Rivers of Moldavia.—The great river of Moldavia is the Sereth, for only one side of the Pruth is Rumanian;

its valley throughout the greater part of its course in Moldavia is between 10 and 11 miles broad. Its great tributaries from the Carpathians bring a considerable supply of water, and its volume remains large until it reaches the Danube. Much rafting is done on its tributary the Bistrița.

The Pruth for 379 miles follows the Rumanian frontier: its bed is 650 to 1,000 ft. broad, its depth 13 to 20 ft., and it is navigable for vessels of moderate size to the neighbourhood of Huși, and even as far as Jassy.

The Danube.—The Danube links together Wallachia, Moldavia, and the Dobruja, and affords a first-class line of communication between these regions; it also admits the whole of Rumania to the traffic of the Black Sea on the one hand, and on the other to that of Austria, Serbia, and Bulgaria. The breadth of the valley is from 6 to 16 miles, and the Bulgarian side is higher than the Rumanian. There are many islands in the river, especially below Giurgiu (Giurgevo). Below Silistra, where the river takes a northern turn, the valley opens out in the great Balta region, which consists of miles of lakes and marshes between the Dobruja on one side and the Baragan steppe on the other. After passing Brăila and Galatz (Galați) the Danube turns east again and makes its way by the Kilia, the Sulina, and the St. George arms, through the marshes and mud flats of the delta, to the Black Sea.

(3) Climate

Rumania has a continental climate possessing much in common with that of south-western Russia. The summer is hot, the winter cold; at times the country is covered with snow, and communication becomes difficult. Spring is short; all through the year the rainfall is rather small. Autumn is the finest season.

There are two winds to which the country is exposed: the *crivăț*, which blows from east-north-east, and the *austru*, from west-south-west. These winds at times cause sudden changes in the temperature. The Rumanians themselves consider the climate to be temperate and agreeable. In the Dobruja the climate is more extreme both in summer and winter. Wallachia and Moldavia are lands of brilliantly clear skies and abundant sunshine. The temperature and rainfall at Bucarest and at Sinaia (in the Transylvanian Alps) are recorded as follows:

	Mean Minimum Temp. Jan.	*Mean Average Temp. Jan.*	*Mean Maximum Temp. July-Aug.*	*Mean Average Temp. July.*	*Mean Annual Rainfall.*
Bucarest	17° F. (– 8° C.)	25° F. (– 4° C.)	85° F. (30° C.)	73° F. (23° C.)	31 in. (810 mm.)
Sinaia	16° F. (– 9° C.)		71° F. (22° C.)		16 in. (410 mm.)

(4) Sanitary Conditions

The hygienic conditions of Rumania differ from those of central Europe in only two respects, but these are important. In the first place, malaria is prevalent in the low-lying parts along the Danube and in the lower regions of other large river-valleys, such as the Olt and the Pruth. The other disease which is more common in Rumania than in most other European countries, except Italy, is pellagra.

Malaria is found all along the Danube in Rumania; it becomes worse as one proceeds eastward. The great region from Călărași to Galatz is particularly unhealthy. In the Dobruja, where the climate is very severe, conditions are even worse. In 1854 a French expeditionary force wasted away almost as did the Walcheren expedition in 1809.

Pellagra is common among the peasants. The disease is chronic, and results in the death of the patient after

a number of years. Unlike malaria, it is not a disease which attacks strangers to the country, but is due in some obscure way to the conditions of life among the settled population.

Except with regard to malaria and pellagra, the Rumanian people is not especially subject to disease, although cholera and typhus have visited the country, and epidemics of small-pox are fairly frequent.

(5) Race and Language

The origin of the Rumanians is to be traced to an amalgamation of the earlier Dacian inhabitants with the Roman colonists planted by Trajan to defend the Roman Empire against the northern barbarians. Dacia, which was a flourishing province, included the greater part of the modern Rumanian kingdom. In the year A. D. 270 the colony was abandoned by the Emperor Aurelian; and for a thousand years little or nothing is known regarding the country or its inhabitants. Whether, as some maintain, the native population preserved its identity unimpaired, or, as others hold, it withdrew to the south of the Danube, only beginning to return in the twelfth century (the country being meanwhile occupied by Slav tribes), it is certain that the present Rumanians are to a considerable extent the descendants of the Roman colonists of Dacia and of romanized Dacians; and they unquestionably exhibit kinship with the Latin peoples, often presenting strikingly Latin types. The Rumanian language has a grammar and syntax that are predominantly Latin, although there is considerable admixture of Slavonic words in the vocabulary. This last fact, as well as the fact that the traditional Rumanian law and many customs and popular beliefs are Slav in origin, show that the Slav element has certainly powerfully affected the Rumanian people; but (especially as found in Walla-

chia) it is nevertheless different in character from a Slav people. There are also traces of Bulgarian, Albanian, and Greek fusion; but, in spite of all this, the astonishing vitality of the Latin element has certainly justified the Rumanians in their conscious identification of themselves with the Latin tradition. Quite different physical types are found. The Wallachian peasant type is generally regarded as superior to the Moldavian, having greater natural dignity and tending less to lethargy and depression.

Of the racial differences among the Rumanians the census returns take no account.[1] In central Moldavia there are thousands of inhabitants of Magyar descent (Csángos and Szeklers); the communes along the Danube have many inhabitants of Bulgarian and Serbian origin; scattered over the country are hordes of gipsies, most of whom have settled in Rumanian villages. In the Dobruja the foreign element is strong—Turkish, Tatar, Bulgar, Russian, and German. Of the new population added in 1913 about one-third are said to be Bulgarians and one-third Moslems, only about one-fortieth of the whole being Rumanians. Rumanians (including the so-called Koutso-Vlachs[2]) are widely distributed in Transylvania, the Banat, Bukovina, Bessarabia, Serbia, Bulgaria, Macedonia, Albania, and Greece; their total number (including those in Rumania) is probably between twelve and thirteen millions, of whom 1,472,000 are in the administrative district of Transylvania.

[1] See, however, racial estimates on p. 13.

[2] The Koutso-Vlachs speak a language closely akin to Rumanian, and are claimed by the Rumanians as co-nationalists. They are found to the number of about 300,000 in Macedonia and the neighbouring regions.

(6) Population

Distribution

The total population of Rumania as given by the census of 1912 was 7,234,919. The distribution in the historical divisions of the country was as follows:

		Per cent.
Moldavia	2,139,154	29·5
Muntenia	3,302,430	45·6
Oltenia	1,412,905	19·6
Dobruja	380,430	5·3

The urban population accounted for 18·4 per cent. and the rural population for 81·6 per cent. of the total. This was practically the same proportion as in 1899. Bucarest was the only city with more than 100,000 inhabitants: in 1912 it had 341,321, an increase of 65,143 since 1899. There were fourteen towns with more than 20,000. The average density of population was 143 per square mile, varying from 38 per square mile in Tulcea to 243 per square mile in Ilfov.

By the Treaty of Bucarest (1913) Bulgaria ceded to Rumania 2,983 square miles [1] of territory with a population of 273,090, raising the population given in the 1912 census to 7,508,009. Allowing for increase of births over deaths in 1913, the population had increased in 1914 to about 7,626,000, which would make the average population per square mile about 140 at the outbreak of the European War.

In general the population is denser in the industrial and commercial regions; it is also denser in the plains than in the hill districts and the regions adjoining the

[1] This is the area resulting from measurements taken from the maps attached to the Rumanian official edition of the Treaty of Bucarest. The official *Dicționarul Statistic* does not give any figure for the area of the new territory.

marshes. According to the census of 1912 the distribution of the population varied in the historical divisions of the country as follows:

	Inhabitants per square mile.	
	Urban and rural populations together.	*Rural population.*
Moldavia	144	113
Muntenia	162	126
Oltenia	151	134
Dobruja	62	46

The proportion of the urban population in the Dobruja was about 25 per cent. of the total; on the other hand the urban percentage was only 10 in Oltenia. In Moldavia it approximated to that of the country as a whole, being 18·2 per cent. In Muntenia the urban population represented a proportion of 21·2 per cent. Such proportions are still perhaps generally true, but the density of population must have been affected in certain areas by military operations. Thus the population of Bucarest (București), which was 345,628 in 1914, is said to have fallen to 308,987 on January 6, 1917. The estimated populations of the other principal towns in 1914 were: Jassy (Iași), 76,120; Galatz (Galați), 72,512; Brăila, 65,911; Ploești, 57,376; Craiova, 51,877; Botoșani, 32,874; Buzău, 29,483; Constanza (Constanța), 27,662; Bârlad, 25,367; Focșani, 25,287. These figures represent, in all cases, slight increases over those given in 1912.

With respect to nationality no figures more recent than those of 1899 can be given, when the classification was as follows: Rumanians, 5,489,296 (92·5 per cent.); foreign Jews, 5,859 (0·1 per cent.); Jews under Rumanian protection, 256,588 (4·3 per cent.), besides some 22,072 of foreign extraction, also under Rumanian protection; other subjects of foreign states, 182,975 (3·1

per cent.). The subjects of foreign states were made up as follows: Austro-Hungarians, 104,108; Turks, 22,989; Greeks, 20,057; Italians, 8,841; Bulgarians, 7,964; Germans, 7,636; Russians, 4,201; Serbians, 3,989; French, 1,564; various, 1,626.

Movement

The average annual increase by excess of births over deaths in the period 1903–12 was 103,968, or 14 per thousand of the population. The number of births and deaths, with surplus of births over deaths, was as follows for the three years 1912–14:

Years.	*Births.*	*Deaths.*	*Surplus of Births over Deaths.*
1912 . .	314,090	165,616	148,474
1913 . .	309,625	191,689	117,936
1914 . .	327,345	182,949	144,396

The death-rate was high (26·1 per 1,000 in 1913) owing to the epidemic of cholera ensuing on the Balkan War of 1913, but the rate of mortality, even in ordinary years, is among the highest in Europe. For the period 1891–1900 it was 29·2, and for the period 1901–10 it was 25·2.

The illegitimate births in 1913 were about 7·9 per cent. of the total number. The death-rate for children up to 5 years of age is about 50 per cent. of the total death-rate. About one-fifth of the infants die in their first year; at the end of the fifth year only one-third survive. Since the census of 1899 the population has increased by 21·5 per cent.: 22·3 per cent. in the rural communes, and 18·1 per cent. in the towns. The increase would have been still greater but for the epidemic of cholera above alluded to and the great emigration of Bulgarians, Serbs, Albanians, Turks, &c., which followed on the Balkan Wars.

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

Chronological Summary

1300–1400. Gradual formation of principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia.

1456. Wallachia falls under the domination of the Turks.

1458–1504. Stephen the Great, Prince (Voivode) of Moldavia, defeats Turkish invasions and annexes Polish province of Pokutia.

1593–1601. Michael the Brave, Prince (Voivode) of Wallachia, is recognized by the Emperor and the Sultan as Viceroy of Transylvania, and assumes government of Moldavia.

1714. Fall of Constantine Brancovan, Prince (Voivode) of Wallachia, and beginning of more direct Turkish domination in Wallachia and Moldavia.

1714–1822. Phanariote Period.

1774. Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji gives Russia right to interfere in the Danubian Principalities.

1777. Austria annexes the Bukovina.

1782. Russian consulate established at Bucarest.

1798. Formation of National Party.

1806–12. Occupation by Russian troops of the Principalities during Russo-Turkish war.

1812. Treaty of Bucarest. Principalities restored to Turkey. Russia retains Bessarabia.

1812–22. Rise of Hetairist movement for the liberation of Greece.

1822. Outbreak of Alexander Ypsilanti's rebellion in Moldavia. End of Phanariote rule in the Danubian Principalities. Rumanian nobles appointed Hospodars by the Porte. Russia intervenes with the consent of the Powers.

1826–34. Status of Principalities defined by Convention of Akkerman (1826) and the Treaty of Adrianople (1829). The *Règlement Organique* drawn up under

the supervision of Kisselev, commander of the Russian army of occupation.

1848. Revolutionary movement fails in Moldavia and Wallachia.

1849. Convention of Balta Liman. Russia acts on an equal footing with Turkey, legal suzerain of the Principalities.

1856. Treaty of Paris. The Great Powers substitute a guarantee for a Russian protectorate of the Principalities. Determination of frontiers. Free navigation of the Danube.

1858. Question of union of Moldavia and Wallachia.

1859. Alexander Cuza elected Prince by Moldavian and Wallachian assemblies. He forms new state of Rumania.

1864. Cuza's *coup d'état*.

1865. Rumanian Church proclaims itself independent of Patriarchate of Constantinople.

1866. Deposition of Cuza. Prince Charles of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen becomes Hereditary Prince of Rumania and takes the title of Carol I. Sultan agrees to a hereditary dynasty, but retains the control of Rumania's foreign relations.

1866–71. Internal reforms. Financial difficulties. Prince Carol threatens to abdicate.

1875. Commercial convention concluded with Austria-Hungary.

1876. Similar convention with Russia. Conference of the Powers at Constantinople.

1877. Secret Treaty signed between Russia and Austria-Hungary. Convention between Russia and Rumania. Russia undertakes to respect Rumania's political rights and to defend her integrity. Rumania proclaims her independence (May 21). Rumanian co-operation in Russo-Turkish War.

1878. Congress of Berlin. The Great Powers recognize independence of Rumania. Retrocession of Bessarabia to Russia in exchange for the Dobruja.

1881. Rumania proclaimed a kingdom (March 26).

1881–3. Negotiations on Danube question. London Conference. Secret defensive alliance signed between Rumania and Austria-Hungary.

1883–4. Constitution revised.

1885. Rumanian Church recognized as independent by the Patriarchate of Constantinople.

1886. King Carol, under pressure from Russia, declines throne of Bulgaria.

1889. Prince Ferdinand of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, nephew of King Carol, proclaimed heir to the throne. Gold standard introduced. New land law passed.

1905. Strained relations with Greece in regard to Koutso-Vlach question in Macedonia. Diplomatic relations broken off.

1906. Diplomatic relations with Greece again interrupted.

1907. Peasant revolt.

1908. Strained relations with Bulgaria in regard to Koutso-Vlach question.

1912–13. London Congress.

1913. Rumania granted Silistra with a radius of three kilometres by conference of ambassadors in St. Petersburg. War with Bulgaria, who finally agrees to Rumanian terms regarding Dobruja frontier. Rumania proposes an armistice (July 21), which is followed by a peace conference and by the Treaty of Bucarest.

(1) Introductory

During the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries the Principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia took shape in those areas which had formed, before six hundred years of migration and disturbance, the Roman province of Dacia, and which, after five scarcely less disturbed centuries, were to form the modern kingdom of Rumania.

The Principalities were created by Ruman immigrants from Hungary. The countries into which they came were inhabited by a mixed population of Rumans, Tatars, and Slavs. How far the Ruman element predominated, and to what degree it represented the original Daco-Romans, are still matters of dispute among ethnologists. Rumanian sentiment holds the

theory of a Latin origin as an article of faith; and the belief[1] in it has been, for the last century, of great importance in giving Rumania a consciousness of isolation among her neighbours, and of spiritual affinity with western Europe.

Starting as semi-agricultural, semi-pastoral communities, under a feudal nobility subject in mediaeval times to the Hungarian crown, the two Principalities developed independently; but the similarity of conditions that united them in a common subjection to the Turk in his power, as inevitably united them in a common revolt from the Turk in his weakness, and in a common existence as an independent kingdom.

(2) Early History of Wallachia

After an early dependence upon Hungary, Wallachia fell under the domination of the Turks (1456). Because the prince (*Voivode*) was elected by the feudal nobility (*boyars*), with but general hereditary restrictions, civil strife was almost continuous; and only under the rule of an outstanding man was the country able to obtain a notable degree of power. When the strong ruler died, the domestic anarchy, and with it the Turks, reappeared.

The two greatest Voivodes were Michael the Brave (1593–1601) and Constantine Brancovan (1688–1714). Michael twice defeated the Turks, and secured his own and his son's recognition by the Sultan. Secure in Wallachia, he then attacked Transylvania, was recognized as its viceroy by Emperor and Sultan, expelled the Voivode of Moldavia, and assumed the government of all three provinces. But on his assassination twelve

[1] On the other hand, the contrary view that the Rumans north of the Danube are recent immigrants has been used in Hungary as an argument against giving them equality of political rights.

months later his empire fell away. Constantine Brancovan is conspicuous for giving almost complete peace to Wallachia for a quarter of a century. A contemporary description of the country shows the care with which he developed its agricultural resources and encouraged the introduction of manufactures from Western Europe. The same observer, however, speaks of the utter poverty of the peasants.

The fall of Brancovan is significant of the principles governing Wallachian history. The Turks regarded him as too prosperous; his deposition was decreed. He was taken to Constantinople with his sons and there beheaded.

(3) Early History of Moldavia

The geographical position of the Moldavian Principality, which included the Bukovina, placed it at first more directly under the influence of Hungary and Poland than of the Turks. Its only outstanding Voivode, Stephen the Great (1458–1504), who at one time attempted to organize an alliance of the Christian Powers and Persia against Turkey, completely defeated three Turkish invasions during the first thirty years of his reign, and turned the tables on a Polish invader by annexing the Polish province of Pokutia, between the Carpathians and the Dniester.

But his successor submitted to Turkish suzerainty, and, except for a short interlude under a curious adventurer, Jacob Basilicus (1561–3), and a rebellion under John the Terrible (1572–4), the country shared the fate of Wallachia. Its tribute was gradually increased; its Voivodes were set up and deposed every few years; Turkish troops occupied its fortresses, and a contingent was sent to the Turkish army.

(4) The Phanariote Period

In Wallachia after the fall of Brancovan, and earlier in Moldavia, Turkey farmed out the Voivodeship to rich Greeks of the Phanar (or lighthouse) quarter of Constantinople. This system was, from the Turkish point of view, both lucrative and safe. The new Voivodes could be replaced at frequent intervals, and they could find no dynastic support among the *boyars* or the people. For the provinces the new system had its gains and its evils. The Greeks were generally educated and often conscientious. Greek, and to some extent French, culture made some progress, and became fashionable. The traditional forms of government, which would have disappeared under the pasha system, were maintained. On the other hand, the Greek princes and their administrative clientèles, rapidly succeeding each other, caused a terrible financial strain upon the provinces. The very presence of the Greeks left the feudal nobility largely without duties, without the possibility of acting as leaders of the people, and anxious only to secure their share of the spoils. The higher offices in the Church and the richer monasteries were all in Greek hands. The native dislike for trade meant that the middle class was entirely foreign ; and the peasantry, upon whom fell the whole burden of direct taxation, were thus left in dull and powerless hatred of the Greeks. Thus the positive good secured and the worse evils prevented were soon forgotten after the disappearance of the Phanariote regime, while the anti-Greek hatred engendered by the financial exactions remains, and has yet to be reckoned with, as an element of Rumanian national consciousness.

(5) Period of Russian Influence

The Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji in 1774, safeguarded by later measures, gave Russia the right generally to supervise the interests of the Danubian Principalities. Russia's disinterestedness in the territorial integrity of the Principalities may be measured by her complete acquiescence in the annexation of the Bukovina by Austria (1774–7). But Russian influence was of great value in introducing, at least into Jassy and Bucarest, the French language and ideas. Further, the establishment of a Russian consul at Bucarest in 1782, with an almost unlimited power of interference, was followed within twenty years by the establishment of French and English consuls. A number of French émigrés and of revolutionary agents made their way into the country. By all these means the Principalities were brought definitely into the circle of European ideas. It is significant that a National Party formed in 1798 was called by its opponents the 'French party'. The financial oppression of the Turks still increased; and the Russian Government in 1802 extracted further concessions for the Principalities, and, as a corollary, a further increase in the Russian influence. The provinces were occupied by Russian troops during the Russo-Turkish War (1806–12); and, though they were restored to the Sultan by the Treaty of Bucarest in 1812, Russia kept Bessarabia. During the next ten years also the Hetairist movement for the liberation of Greece came to a head. The movement had for the greater part of the time its centre in Bucarest; and the rebellion of Alexander Ypsilanti broke out in Moldavia. But, though the sentiment of the two Principalities was anti-Turkish, it was also anti-Greek; and the rebellion was used by the Nationalist party in Wallachia to persuade the frightened Turk to remove the Phanariotes.

The Phanariotes were removed; but the Turkish troops sent to suppress Ypsilanti committed excesses in both the Principalities; and Russia, with the consent of the Powers, again intervened.

The status of the Principalities was again defined by the Convention of Akkerman (1826) and the Treaty of Adrianople (1829). The former confirmed previous liberties; the latter laid down that the princes were to be elected for life, that contributions in kind were to be abolished, and only a fixed annual tribute was to be paid. A Russian army remained in occupation to see that the treaty terms were carried out. Its commander, Kisselev, an able, honest, and liberal man, supervised the drawing up of an internal constitution in an instrument known as the *Règlement Organique*. This constitution, though maintaining the feudal privileges of the *boyars*, who formed the majority of its makers, was valuable in introducing western administrative ideas.

But direct interference by Russia did not end with the withdrawal of her troops in 1834; and therefore the momentary popularity which she had obtained very quickly disappeared. The Russian consular officials in the country were overbearing; Russian hostility to liberal ideas was severe and persistent. The material benefits gained were not considered; and the Nationalists began to think of a loose and ever-weakening Turkish suzerainty as most favourable to the growth of a Rumanian nationality. Nationalist ideas were spread further by the students who had been affected by the stimulating and often directly anti-Russian atmosphere of Paris. A literary revival took place in Rumania; newspapers were started at Jassy and Bucarest. Schools were founded, and—what was of importance—opened to the lower classes. The influence of the Rumanian schools in Transylvania,

from which most of the teachers were drawn, was aggressively nationalist, even to the extent of being anti-French. The aim of the Nationalists was the abolition of the *Règlement Organique*, since this instrument confirmed the oligarchical character of the Government and the right of foreign, i. e. Russian, interference. A secret society had existed for some years before the general revolutionary year of 1848, but it had no organized programme of aims or actions. Thus, though disturbances broke out in 1848 in both Principalities, nothing permanent was achieved. The Moldavian insurrection did not meet with popular support; it was suppressed by the local militia, and the province was occupied by Russian troops. In Wallachia the masses were won over by the promise of extensive agrarian reforms; but this very promise alienated the landowners, and the flight of the ruling prince Bibescu gave the opportunity for Russo-Turkish intervention. A reactionary settlement (the Convention of Balta Liman, May 1849) followed, in which Russia for the first time openly acted on an equal footing with Turkey, the legal suzerain.

(6) Union of the Principalities

The Rumanian Nationalists now realized that they had no chance of overcoming Russian opposition unless they could secure European support. An active propaganda was carried on in the western capitals, notably in Paris, where the assistance of Napoleon III seemed not impossible. The Crimean War brought back the Russian armies; but in June 1854 the Russians retired, and Austrian troops were sent to take their place until the conclusion of peace.

In the negotiations at Vienna and Paris at the close of the war it was decided to substitute for the Russian protectorate a collective guarantee by the Great

Powers.[1] A purely nominal Turkish suzerainty was maintained; an 'independent and national administration' was guaranteed;[2] and no military intervention was to be allowed to Turkey without the consent of the Powers.[3] Further, in order to put a barrier between Russia and the Slavs south of the Danube, the three southern districts of Bessarabia, following a line running from the Pruth, due west of Kishineff, through Bolgrad to the neighbourhood of Akkerman (Black Sea), were restored to Moldavia.[4] The free navigation of the Danube was secured by setting up an International Commission for the improvement and maintenance of the waterway, &c.;[5] and the Delta was subsequently restored to Turkey.[6]

The logical conclusion of the Treaty of Paris would have been to establish a united state of Rumania, in accordance with the obvious wishes of both Principalities. This conclusion was recognized by Napoleon III and assented to by Russia, who at this time wished to please Napoleon. Austria and Turkey objected; and England refused to agree to any actual dismemberment of Turkey. But Austria and Turkey did not venture to deny that the Rumanians had the right to unite; they based their objections on the ground that union was not desired by the people themselves. It had been arranged[7] that a European Commission should examine at Bucarest, with a specially elected Divan or committee from each province, the laws and statutes of the provinces. The Commission was now requested to discover from the Divans the national sentiment on the question of union.

[1] Treaty of Paris, Art. xxii. [2] Ibid. Art. xxiii.
[3] Ibid. Art. xxvii. [4] Ibid. Arts. xx, xxi.
[5] Ibid. Arts. xv–xix. See also *International Rivers*, No. 149 of this series. [6] Protocol of Paris, January 1857.
[7] Treaty of Paris, Arts. xviii–xxv.

The elections to the Divans took place while the country was under Austrian military occupation, and were presided over by Turkish commissaries. The elections were palpably manipulated in the Austro-Turkish interest. France, Russia, Prussia, and Sardinia protested and demanded fresh elections. Napoleon paid a personal visit to Queen Victoria and the Prince Consort; but, in spite of this, and of the opinions of Gladstone, Lord John Russell, and others, the English official objection to the union remained unaltered.

New elections were held. The new assemblies met and asked (October 1857) for guarantees of autonomy and neutrality under Turkish suzerainty, and for the union of the two Principalities under a foreign hereditary prince, with one legislative assembly elected on a liberal franchise. A conference of ambassadors of the Powers (Paris, May–August 1858), however, decided that political union should not be granted; the two provinces were to be known as the United Principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia, but each should have its own native prince, elected for life, and its own assembly, elected for seven years. A central committee, composed of representatives of both assemblies and meeting at Focșani, was to deliberate upon common affairs; and the legal system and Court of Cassation were to be in common.

The decision of the Powers was nothing less than an invitation to rebellion. The Powers should never have asked for the Rumanian expression of will unless they were ready to give it a legitimate satisfaction. The consequence of their refusal was almost inevitable. The political leaders accepted the dispositions of the conference, and elections were held to choose the new rulers. On January 17, 1859, the Moldavian assembly unanimously elected Colonel Alexander John Cuza

(formerly Prefect of Galatz) as their prince; and on February 5 the vote was repeated in the Wallachian assembly. France and Russia were apparently privy to the plan; Great Britain joined them in an agreement to make an exception in the person of Cuza. Turkey had to follow suit; Austria was too preoccupied with Italian military preparations to think of active interference.

(7) Experiment of a Native Prince

The election of Cuza was ratified in 1861. In the following year the central committee was abolished, the two assemblies merged into one, and Bucarest made the capital of the new state. Cuza now began to carry out an extensive programme of reform. Universities were founded at Bucarest and Jassy; elementary education was made compulsory. The Church was declared independent of the Greek Patriarchate in 1864; the ecclesiastical domains, amounting to nearly a third of the total area of the country, were taken over by the State. A land law (1864) was passed, enabling the peasants to obtain freehold properties varying from 7½ to 15 acres. Though the plots so obtained were in most cases too small to be of great value, and the peasantry, reduced by centuries of serfdom to habits of improvidence, in most cases still continued in a state of semi-dependence upon the great landowners, the measure had the immediate effect of creating a class of over 400,000 peasant proprietors.

The two main Rumanian parties now began to appear: the Conservatives (the Whites) under the leadership of Lascar Catargiu, and the Liberals (the Reds) under the joint leadership, until their quarrel in 1883, of John Brătianu and C. A. Rosetti. But Cuza found the constitution unworkable, and by a *coup d'état*, in 1864, expelled the deputies and

appealed for a plebiscite to give him the right of initiating legislation, and of nominating a Senate. The Chamber was to be elected by universal franchise. The appeal was overwhelmingly successful; and the *coup d'état* was recognized by the Powers. But Cuza's reforms had made him too many enemies, and his private life was not such as to secure him an independent moral standing in Rumania or elsewhere. A counter-movement took force in Bucarest, and Cuza was deposed. At the end of February 1866 he fled the country. The throne was now offered to Count Philip of Flanders, who refused it. Prince Charles, a younger son of the Catholic and South-German Hohenzollerns, was then approached. The Powers had, in the meantime, determined that the new prince was to be a native of the country. But Napoleon III openly, and William of Prussia tacitly, approved of Prince Charles's candidature. Acting, it is said, on the advice of Bismarck, the prince travelled in disguise through Austria, and landed at Turnu Severin on May 8, 1866. Two days later, amid scenes of great enthusiasm, he took the oath before the Rumanian parliament at Bucarest as Carol, Hereditary Prince of Rumania.

The Powers again accepted an accomplished fact, and Rumania had another lesson in the advantages of political opportunism.

(8) Prince Carol and Rumanian Independence

The new prince, who was 27 years old at the time of his election, was a man of high character, good intelligence, and, what was of equal value, tact and patience. He is said to have remarked, in the early days of his reign, that he was called upon to consider innumerable questions 'which elsewhere chiefs of departments settle in the course of ordinary routine'. From the point of view of foreign policy the prince's sense of

duty and his own preferences were shown in a telegram sent by him to the King of Prussia in 1869 : 'Bien que je sois aujourd'hui prince de Roumanie, je suis et je reste toujours un Hohenzollern.' The prince married, in 1869, Elizabeth ('Carmen Sylva'), daughter of the Prince of Wied.

In October 1866 the prince went to Constantinople. The Sultan agreed to a hereditary dynasty, an army of 30,000 men, and the right to a separate coinage (bearing, however, Ottoman insignia). Foreign treaties of the Porte were only to be binding on Rumania when they did not interfere with her established rights; but the new principality could not conclude treaties or conventions directly with foreign Powers.

In the meantime a ministry of all parties was formed, and a new constitution promulgated, with an upper and a lower house of Representatives, ministerial responsibility, and a royal veto upon all legislation.

The situation was difficult. The treasury was empty, the floating debt some seven millions sterling; the army was ill-equipped and mutinous; there were no railways, and but few roads, with still fewer bridges. Administration was bad; the politicians had been educated on revolutionary formulas, and party spirit was high and undisciplined. Austria and Russia were complaisantly pessimistic about the future of a country where disorder and bankruptcy would but facilitate their interference. But by personal visits to St. Petersburg, Vienna, and Paris, Prince Carol managed to reassure Europe against any Rumanian 'irredentism' and to secure a breathing space for internal reforms. A concession was granted for the construction of a railway from Bucarest to Giurgevo; German experts came to reorganize the War Department and the army; a rural police was instituted; and a road tax (with an alternative of three days' personal service) set up.

Less commendable were the anti-Semitic measures, which brought about strong protests from Great Britain and France.

During the Franco-Prussian War Rumanian popular opinion was at first almost entirely on the side of France. A conspiracy against the German dynasty, organized in the expectation of a French victory, fell through after an abortive rising at Ploești. The situation was aggravated by a sudden financial crisis. A railway concession had been granted to a German firm in 1869; the coupons of the railway bonds were due on January 1, 1871; the contractors announced their inability to meet the payments. The burden thus fell upon the Rumanian Government; and Prussia threatened force if the coupons were not paid. Anti-German feeling now reached its climax in an attack on the German colony in Bucarest. The prince, after an unsuccessful appeal to the guaranteeing Powers to change the constitution, threatened to abdicate (March 1871).

This decision, and the victory of Germany in the war, had a sobering effect. At once a group of Conservatives, led by Catargiu, undertook to stand by the prince. This ministry—the fourth in five years—held office until 1876. Its last budget (£4,000,000) was nearly double that of 1866; and it was able to secure a 5 per cent. loan in Paris.

During its tenure of office the administration was modernized, the army became well organized and equipped, and, though the payment of tribute to the Porte continued, Rumania began to receive from the guaranteeing Powers the consideration due to an independent state. This was evidenced by the commercial convention concluded with Austria-Hungary, on the latter's initiative, on July 22, 1875, in spite of the opposition of Turkey, Great Britain, and France. For Austria-

Hungary it was a purely economic arrangement, in which she aimed at re-establishing the preponderance lost through the opening of the Danube to western trade; for Rumania the compact had primarily a political importance, and she therefore submitted to heavy economic sacrifices. Anxious not to appear as lagging behind in goodwill, Russia accepted a similar convention in the following year.

The liberal opposition in Rumania had, however, grown so restive at its exclusion from power that a revolution was threatened. The resignation of the ministry was necessary to save the country from civil war. Three new cabinets followed each other in quick succession. After the establishment of the third, under the Liberal Brătianu, popular opinion was preoccupied by the reopening of the Eastern question. The violent suppression of the Bulgarian revolt had rendered likely the outbreak of a Russo-Turkish war. Such a war was fraught with both beneficial and sinister possibilities for Rumanian independence.

The conclusion of the convention with Austria-Hungary had been indeed only the consummation of a change in the relations between the two countries which had set in almost at once after the creation of the German Empire. The new Central and East European policy, the foundation of which was laid in the interview between Bismarck and Beust at Gastein in the autumn of 1871, involved the inclusion of an independent Rumania, which should cover the flank of the Germanic advance to the south. Prussia therefore changed her tone with Rumania. Bismarck wrote to Prince Carol that he had reluctantly come to the conclusion that Russia's traditional policy was incompatible with an independent Rumania. The suggestion therefore was that Rumania's security lay in closer contact with Austria-Hungary. This advice was echoed in turn

from several other quarters, and by the summer of 1873 had matured into a definite suggestion of alliance by Count Andrassy, the new Austro-Hungarian Foreign Secretary. With the more urgent turn of events that policy was substantiated in the secret treaty concluded between Russia and Austria-Hungary in January 1877, when, in return for Austrian neutrality, Vienna stipulated, amongst other things, that Rumanian territorial integrity should be respected by Russia. In that treaty 'integrity' meant the situation before 1856, and therefore logically implied the retrocession of the Bessarabian districts to Russia; but, as Russia had undertaken not to acquire any territory on the right bank of the Danube, Austria-Hungary sought to maintain the separation of the Slav world by promising, immediately after the actual outbreak of war, to secure for Rumania a part of the Dobruja at the conclusion of peace, an arrangement which, so far, had not entered into Rumania's calculations.[1]

There were Rumanian statesmen, like Cogălniceanu, who were inclined to place Rumania's fate in the hands of Austria, and even conceived the possibility of solving the Transylvanian problem by some measure of federation with Austria-Hungary. But Prince Carol, though anxious to shake off Turkish suzerainty, was determined that Rumanian independence should either be proclaimed by Europe or achieved by the Rumanians themselves, so that it should not form a ground for subservience to one of the neighbouring empires.

When, therefore, the conference of ambassadors attempted at Constantinople (November 1876) to settle Balkan affairs, Prince Carol asked that Rumania's course of action in the case of a Russo-Turkish war should be defined, and her neutrality guaranteed by

[1] Dispatch of the Rumanian agent in Vienna, Bălăceanu, July 20, 1877.

the Powers. The Conference refused the request. Russia had already shown her impatience, and had threatened to occupy Rumania if Turkey occupied Serbia and Montenegro. A Rumanian delegation to the Russian General Headquarters succeeded in postponing any definite declaration by Rumania. Prince Carol temporized further in January with a Russian offer (coincident with the Russo-Austrian secret agreement) guaranteeing integrity 'for the duration of the war', and with the Turkish offer to combine against Russia; but finally decided to regularize, by a convention, contingencies which it was hardly in his power to avoid. He sanctioned, on April 16, 1877, a convention by which, in return for free passage and friendly treatment for her armies, Russia undertook to respect Rumania's political rights, as well as 'to maintain and defend her actual integrity'.

Rumanian public opinion had, between January and April, been aroused by Turkey's official language about the country as one among other similarly privileged provinces, and as inhabited by 'Ottoman subjects'. An offer of military co-operation was contemptuously rejected by the Tsar, who declared that 'it was only under the auspices of the Russian forces that the foundation of Rumania's future destinies could be laid'. But that co-operation had insistently to be asked for after the second battle of Plevna; and the demand of Prince Carol, that the independent formation and command of the Rumanian army should be maintained, received more than satisfaction by his appointment to the supreme command of the Russo-Rumanian armies massed round Plevna. It is doubtful whether this, or the unquestioned acknowledgement of the Rumanian authorities and public liberties, would have been granted had the throne been occupied by a native prince.

(9) The Congress of Berlin (1878) and Rumanian Independence

Notwithstanding the valuable assistance given by the Rumanian army, particularly in the third battle of Plevna, Rumania was neither consulted concerning the treaty which was concluded at San Stefano (March 3, 1878), nor invited to participate in the deliberations. Rumania's independence, proclaimed by her Parliament on May 21, 1877, was recognized (Art. V).[1] Russia obtained from Turkey the Dobruja to a line south of, and roughly parallel to, the Constanza–Cernavoda line, and the delta of the Danube, reserving the right to exchange these territories with Rumania for the three southern districts of Bessarabia (Art. XIX). This provision was not altogether unexpected in Rumania, but it was hoped that the valuable assistance of the Rumanian army and the Convention of April 16, 1877, would have been a sufficient safeguard against it. The Rumanian Government now objected in a memorandum to the Powers on March 8 and on April 19, and, in a formal protest at St. Petersburg, actually invoked the Convention of April 16, 1877. But upon the terms of that instrument Gortchakoff put the slippery construction that, since the Convention was concluded in view of a war to be waged against Turkey, it was only against Turkey that Russia undertook to guarantee Rumania's integrity ; Russia herself was not in the least bound by that arrangement. Further, the territories had been ceded not to Rumania, but to Moldavia, by the Treaty of Paris (1856), which, so far as Rumania was concerned, was obviously a dead letter.

The Treaty of Berlin so restricted the fruits of Russia's victory that the Powers were unwilling to oppose her on

[1] See text in *The Eastern Question*, No. 15 of this series, App. IX.

minor points. Great Britain, though regarding with 'deep regret' Russia's persistence in demanding the Bessarabian districts, was not willing to go to war on the question. Bismarck did not wish to offend Russia. France and Italy were of like mind. The fate of the districts was consequently determined before the meeting of the Berlin Congress. In that assembly the question came up for discussion, and was practically settled on the very day when, after much argument, it was decided to allow the Rumanian delegates, Brătianu and Cogălniceanu, to defend their point of view before the Congress. The Treaty of Berlin finally recognized Rumania's independence 'on the same terms as those imposed on Serbia', and on the condition that Rumania accepted in exchange for the Bessarabian districts the Dobruja 'as far as a line starting from the east of Silistria, and terminating on the Black Sea, south of Mangalia', with the Serpent Island and the delta of the Danube.[1] The recognition of Rumanian independence was also made contingent upon the abolition of Article VII of the Constitution, which denied to non-Christians the right of becoming Rumanian citizens, and the emancipation of the Rumanian Jews.[2] The international position of Rumania was also defined, and she was allowed a representative on the International Commission of the Danube.

On August 20, 1878, the Rumanian Government addressed to the Powers a circular note, promising to carry out loyally these decisions, which indeed it could not refuse to accept. But, on submitting the Bill for Jewish emancipation to Parliament, the Government met with such opposition that they had to accept modifications which stultified the intentions of the

[1] Treaty of Berlin; Protocol No. X and Arts. xliii, xlv, and xlvi. See *The Eastern Question*, No. 15 of this series, App. X.

[2] Art. xliv.

Congress of Berlin. After exhausting negotiations, France, Great Britain, and Italy were prepared to accept a compromise, but Bismarck remained inflexible. It soon became obvious, however, that Bismarck was using the Jewish question only as a means for securing a favourable settlement in a long-standing dispute between the Rumanian Government and a German concern interested in the Rumanian railways.[1] Rumania submitted to heavy financial sacrifices, whereupon Bismarck at once insisted on the formal recognition of Rumania's independence (February 1880).

Equally protracted and harassing were the negotiations concerning the delimitation of the Dobruja. Bessarabia was 'evacuated' by the Rumanian authorities, who then, upon a European mandate, took possession of the Dobruja, although a certain current of Rumanian opinion advocated the refusal of it, as a passive protest against the high-handedness of Russia and the Powers. As the newly-created state of Bulgaria was at the time little else than a detached Russian province, Russia, alone among the Powers, opposed and succeeded in preventing the demarcation of a strategically sound frontier for the new Rumanian province, which would have included Silistra.

A third question arising from the dispositions of the Congress of Berlin was that of the Danube navigation, which neither the numerous Commissions, nor the notes exchanged, nor the Conference which met in London in April 1883, were able to bring to a satisfactory conclusion. Indeed, it is interesting to note that all the three questions of international import concerning Rumania which were raised by the Congress of Berlin still await solution.[2]

[1] See pp. 29 and 118.

[2] See Appendix to this book; also No. 15 of this series (IV, *The Danube Question*); and *International Rivers*, No. 149, §§ 19–23.

The consolidation of the state was completed on March 26, 1881, when Parliament unanimously proclaimed Rumania a kingdom. The time was ripe for this measure, but the circumstances of the proclamation were significant of the lack of balance in Rumanian politics. The Conservative opposition used the excitement aroused by the assassination of the Czar, Alexander II (March 13, 1881), to start an agitation against the Liberal Government. In order to refute charges of republicanism this Government then proposed that Prince Carol should be elevated to the rank of monarch. As King Carol had no heirs, a family pact signed at Sigmaringen (November 1880) upheld Article LXXXIII of the Rumanian Constitution, according to which the succession to the throne passes, in the absence of direct male heirs, to the ruler's eldest brother and his descendants. Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern thus became heir to the throne; he subsequently renounced his rights in favour of his sons, the eldest of whom, Prince Ferdinand (born 1865), was formally proclaimed heir-apparent to the Rumanian throne on March 18, 1889.

(10) Foreign Policy (1880–96). Austro-Hungarian Alliance

The kingdom of Rumania had no historical, geographical, or important ethnographical points of contact with the region south of the Danube; the aims of a future 'irredentist' policy could only have embraced neighbouring tracts of foreign territory inhabited by Rumanians. Down to the date of the Berlin Congress such tracts were confined to Austria-Hungary, but by that Congress a similar sphere of attraction for Rumanian aspirations was created in Russia. Russia's conduct, which had been strongly condemned by her own public opinion, had aroused much bitterness;

and a certain uneasiness was caused by her supreme influence in Bulgaria. Russian intentions in that direction aimed at the creation of a Russian protectorate; the province was then to be linked up to the Russian Empire by the annexation of the Dobruja, and enlarged by union with Eastern Rumelia. The plan was to be put into application after the fall of Prince Alexander of Battenberg. When that event took place, in 1886, the anti-Russian party which succeeded to power in Bulgaria offered the throne to King Carol, who was not altogether opposed to such a personal union, while his Government vigorously supported it. But Russian opposition was so categorical, and her threats so comprehensive, that the Bulgarian offer was rejected.

Though it was in Rumania's interest to maintain friendly relations with both neighbouring empires, the new situation created by her independence, and the changes which were then taking place in the grouping of the European Powers, made it imperative that she should secure the effective support of either Russia or Austria-Hungary for a case of emergency. Rumanian opinion was divided. The prince was much attracted towards the Central European group; and his bias was fostered by overtures from Vienna and Berlin. Austria-Hungary had given much friendly diplomatic assistance in the difficulties which had arisen for Rumania from the Berlin Convention; and the generation of 1878, which gradually came to the front in politics, could not forget the humiliation of the country by Russia. The influence of German education was also great. Many prominent statesmen were educated in Germany; the German Evangelische Knaben- und Realschule in Bucarest, which is directly under the control of the German Ministry of Education, has had a larger number of scholars than any other school in the capital. Further, as time went on, German finance

acquired a hold on the country, and bound over the richer classes in the German interest.

On the other hand, there was an anti-German party, the strength of which was due to tradition, to community of religion with Russia, and to the absence of any Russian merchants (and hence of irritating petty commercial quarrels). This party had, naturally, most of its adherents among the *boyars* and the peasants. It became of more importance with the growth of irredentist sentiment. Magyar oppression in Transylvania was indeed no worse than Russian oppression in Bessarabia; but the Rumanians in the latter province were only peasants, while those in Transylvania were a solidly established and spirited middle class, whose protests kept pace with oppressive measures.

Matters soon came to a crisis. Rumanian public opinion as a whole greatly resented Austrian attempts, during the negotiations on the question of the Danube (1881–3) and at the London Conference (1883), to acquire a preponderant influence on the Lower Danube, which, it was said, would have amounted in fact to a protectorate over Rumania. While the Rumanian Government notified the Powers that it could not recognize the dispositions of the London Conference, in which it had not been allowed to participate, Austria claimed for them an executive character. In the summer of 1883, certain irredentist remarks were made by a Rumanian member of Parliament at a semi-official banquet at Jassy following the unveiling of a statue of Stephen the Great. The incident was at once exploited; and unwarranted proportions were given to it by the Austro-Hungarian Government, which went so far as to declare that Rumania was seeking war. The unreasonable attitude of the Rumanian opposition only rendered more acute a situation dangerous in itself, and the Government therefore welcomed an

invitation to King Carol to visit Berlin. On his way home, the King passed through Vienna. A few days later, the Rumanian Prime Minister, John Brătianu, senior, went to Vienna, where he had a long interview with Count Kalnoky (September 24, 1883). Two days later he met Prince Bismarck at Gastein. The result was a secret defensive treaty of alliance between Austria-Hungary and Rumania, which also included provisions concerning a common policy in the East. The dispositions of the London Conference, on the other hand, were left in abeyance. It is significant that King Carol pledged himself to oppose any democratic changes in the Rumanian Constitution. The treaty was never submitted to the Rumanian Parliament; and remained generally unknown till its production by the King at the Crown Council of 1914. Notwithstanding this secrecy, and in spite of a subsequent tariff war and differences on the question of Danube control, Rumania was, until the Balkan War, a faithful 'sleeping partner' in the Triple Alliance, which, besides effecting certain occasional relaxations in the treatment of the Rumanians of Hungary, assured to Rumania the external security necessary for peaceful development.

The advent to power in 1895 of a notorious irredentist, Dimitru Sturdza, caused a momentary alarm in Austria-Hungary; but a meeting of the Emperor and King Charles in 1896 restored the former confidence. Two years later, relations with Russia were set on a better footing by a visit of the King to the Tsar.

(11) Internal Events, 1881–1907

The Constitution was revised in 1883–4, when, among other more or less technical changes, trial by jury was instituted for all press offences except those

against the Rumanian royal family and foreign sovereigns, and payment of members of the two Houses during the session was introduced. No further changes of importance took place. The opposition to the Liberal Government became so violent in 1887–8 that the Conservatives threatened a revolution in favour of Prince George Bibescu, if the ministers would not resign. Their resignation followed; and from 1888 to 1895—except for a short interval—the country was governed by a coalition of the older Conservatives and the Junimists, a body of young Conservatives who took their name from a club formed in Jassy in 1874. In 1895 a Liberal Ministry under Dimitru Sturdza succeeded to power; it fell four years later amid scenes of disturbance in Bucarest, and owing, largely, to a supposed weakness of attitude towards the Hungarian Government on the question of the Rumanian schools in Transylvania.

On the resumption of power by the Conservatives the country found itself faced by a financial crisis. Money had been borrowed too freely, and spent too lavishly; deficits were made good by the issue of treasury bonds. Two and a half millions of these bonds were almost due; the treasury was empty, the money market (1899–1900) unfavourable, and the year's harvest a failure. The Conservatives proposed a small reduction of expenditure and a large increase of taxation; the Liberals, a permanent annual reduction of expenditure by more than £750,000, and therefore only a slight increase of taxation. The electors naturally preferred the latter programme; and the Liberals, again under Sturdza, returned to office (1901–4). Sturdza's policy of retrenchment was followed by the opposition (1905–7), and continued by him on his recall to office during the agrarian troubles of 1907.

During this period, with a liberal supply of foreign

(primarily German) capital, extensive economic progress was achieved. In 1889 a gold standard was introduced. The railway service was improved and extended; works such as the harbour at Constanza and the Danube bridge at Cernavoda were constructed. A commercial marine was developed by the establishment of a State service of passenger and cargo steamers. A mining law, passed in 1895 in the face of very considerable opposition, gave to non-Rumanians the right to lease lands for long periods for the working of petroleum.

The two greatest difficulties, the land and the Jewish questions, were not, however, solved. The clause excluding Jews from Rumanian citizenship was deleted from the Constitution by order of the Berlin Congress; but naturalization had deliberately been made so difficult a process for the Jews—a special vote of the Legislature had been required, with a two-thirds majority for each individual case—that from 1880 to 1884 less than a fifth of the 385 persons who became naturalized Rumanians were Jews. No further change in the system took place; and the non-naturalized Jewish population in Rumania at the outbreak of the European war was about 300,000. These Jews were liable to military service and direct taxation, but were excluded from the franchise, had no civil rights, and could not own rural land.

The Jewish question is primarily economic, and is controlled very largely by the fear that the Jews would, by the lapsing of mortgages, acquire a preponderant ownership of small holdings in the country. The result of the Land Law of 1864 [1] and the growth of absenteeism had actually been the rise of a new class of middlemen—generally Jewish—who rented the lands

[1] See above, p. 26.

from the *boyars* on a three or five years' lease, and lent money to the peasants on very hard terms.

In 1866 and 1872 and again in 1879 laws were passed to improve the position and increase the numbers of these small proprietors. These laws were not sufficient to prevent peasant risings in 1888 and 1889. In 1889 a new land law divided the State domains among the peasantry. The land was divided into lots of 12, 25, and 37½ acres; and the peasants could purchase the smaller lots on very easy terms. The number of peasant proprietors was thus largely increased, but their position remained unsatisfactory. The smallness of the holdings and the bad farming habits and general ignorance of the peasants[1] continued to have baleful effects. Absenteeism also increased; and the selfish indifference of the upper classes left the peasants without any natural guidance.

The result was a very serious rising in 1907, directed first against the Jewish middlemen, but soon affecting all the large landowners. Towns and villages were sacked and partly burned; 140,000 soldiers were required to suppress the rebellion. A few military units became disaffected, and a number of landowners even advocated Austrian interference. As a result of this rebellion, the system of leasing public lands to middlemen was abolished, and new credit facilities were given to the peasants.

During the European war the desperate situation of the country resulted in a bold, though at the time unsuccessful, attempt to settle the great internal questions in a liberal spirit, and to rally the classes interested in their settlement. The peasants were promised land purchase and a wide franchise, and the Jews were promised civic equality (see p. 95).

[1] In spite of theoretically compulsory education, the national educational budget has been so small that 60 per cent. of the population are illiterate.

(12) The Balkan Wars and the End of the Alliance with Austria-Hungary

During the peaceful era of the Austro-Hungarian alliance Rumania gradually became estranged from Bulgaria and Greece. Bulgaria had never razed the fortifications on the Rumanian frontier, in accordance with the terms of the Berlin Treaty; and Bulgarian official publications spoke of the Dobruja as *Bulgaria irredenta.* Further, the question of the Koutso-Vlachs had resulted in a triangular campaign in Macedonia. Relations were especially strained with Bulgaria in 1908, when a Bulgarian court acquitted the Bulgarian murderers of a Rumanian propagandist; and with Greece in 1906, when the Patriarch and Greek organizations opened a campaign of persecution against the Koutso-Vlachs after the definite recognition of the latter as Rumans by the Sultan. Diplomatic relations with Greece were actually broken off in 1905, 1906, and 1910.

It was natural therefore that there should have been some suspicion among Balkan circles that the visit of various Turkish statesmen and of the heir to the throne, Prince Izzeddin, at Bucarest, had been the occasion of a Turco-Rumanian military convention; and therefore the participation of Rumania was not sought when the Balkan League was formed, though the idea of such a league had been put forward by Prince Carol in the first year of his reign. The first intimations of the forthcoming action of the League were accompanied, on the part of Bulgaria, by an acknowledgment of Rumania's right to certain compensations in return for friendly neutrality; and Rumania submitted at the London Congress (1912–13) a claim for the rectification of her Dobrujan frontier, following the line Tutrakan-Balchik. At the request of

the Powers, Rumania accepted the arbitration of the conference of ambassadors in St. Petersburg, which granted her Silistra with a radius of three kilometres. Rumanian opinion was very unfavourable to this decision, and Parliament difficult to convince; and the attitude of the Bulgarian delegates did not allow the demarcation of the boundary to be carried to a conclusion.

When the possibility of a conflict between the Balkan allies became evident, Rumania warned Bulgaria that such a contingency would force her to intervene. So early as 1880, Prince Carol had remarked to Bismarck that Rumania would only be menaced by a real danger when a Great Bulgaria came into existence. This danger now threatened; and Rumania, moreover, could not allow Serbia, her one possible ally in case of a conflict with Bulgaria, to be crushed. Incensed public opinion would have forced action which the Government might have felt reluctant to undertake. Accordingly, when war broke out between the Bulgarians and the Serbians and Greeks, on June 29, 1913, the Rumanian armies overran a considerable portion of Bulgaria, though no actual collision occurred with Bulgarian troops, which withdrew before them; the Rumanians, at the request of the King of Bulgaria, refrained also from entering Sofia. As Turkey also seized the opportunity to recover Adrianople, the position of Bulgaria was hopeless. She therefore agreed to accept the Rumanian terms regarding the frontier in the Dobruja; and Rumania proposed an armistice on July 21, to which Greece and Serbia were induced to consent. Rumania's preponderant position was recognized by the holding of the Peace Conference at Bucarest, under the presidency of her Prime Minister, Mr. Maiorescu. The Rumanian demands concerning the new frontier in the Dobruja, from Tutrakan to Ekrene, were accordingly embodied in Art. II of the Treaty of

Bucarest of 1913, Rumania acquiring an accession of territory of about 2,900 square miles, with a population of about 280,000.

The rôle of Germany and Austria-Hungary in the events of 1912–13 induced a change in the foreign policy of Rumania, who sought to guard herself by closer relations with Russia against a Bulgaria subjected to Central European influence. The effect was visible in the scant support which action on the side of the Central Powers received at the Crown Council of August 4, 1914, when the King produced the secret treaty of 1883. The policy of intervention on the side of the Central Powers was favoured by the King and two statesmen only.

Note A.—The Question of the Danube[1]

'The fate of Rumania was, and ever will be, closely connected with the freedom of the Danube.'—*King Carol I.*

The question of the Danube has been dealt with repeatedly in conferences and congresses, but these have led only to compromises, either on political lines or promoting particular interests, between the Powers interested in the navigation on the Lower Danube and the two chief riverain states, Russia and Austria-Hungary. The international principle has not been furthered in this way; the smaller riverain states have certainly not been benefited by the system, and the position of the Danube under international law has remained vague. And yet no river is more truly international, for not only does the Danube touch the territories of several states, but the freedom of its navigation is a matter of serious interest to many nations remote from its waterway.

In the Middle Ages the traffic on the Danube was of

[1] For a summary of the Danube question see *The Eastern Question*, No. 15 of this series; and *International Rivers*, No. 149.

considerable importance, but with the coming of the Turks the free use of the river was lost. Austrian ships were only allowed to descend as far as Belgrade, where the goods had to be trans-shipped into Turkish boats; and the ports on the Lower Danube—Vidin, Giurgiu, Ruschuk, &c.—had also become mere ports of trans-shipment. The Treaty of Passarowitz (1718), which granted freedom of trade on land and water, with special privileges for Austrian subjects, effected a certain improvement. But the situation acquired a totally new aspect when Russia, which had steadily expanded southwards, reached the Danube. The Treaty of Bucarest (1812) brought her frontier down to Kilia, the northernmost arm of the Danube delta, while the Treaty of Adrianople (1829), fixing the boundary at the southernmost arm, St. George, placed the whole delta under Russian domination.

The effects of these changes were soon to become apparent. By means of extensive works Turkey had kept open in the arm of Sulina a navigable channel, 16 ft. deep. Traffic had been steadily increasing. After the opening of the Black Sea to foreign trade, Metternich encouraged the foundation of an Austrian navigation company, whose vessels were to call at the Danubian and even the Levantine ports. But, in order to force the Black Sea traffic to Odessa, Russia abandoned the work previously undertaken by the Turks at Sulina; and in 1836 she established a quarantine at the Sulina mouth, the goods having to be taken to Odessa for disinfection. To safeguard her interests Austria concluded a convention with Russia (November 13, 1840), the latter undertaking to keep the mouths of the river in navigable condition and to build a lighthouse; trade was declared free, and the taxes were fixed which Russia could impose upon shipping. But the arrangement remained a dead letter. The lighthouse

was never built, and in 1853 the depth of the channel had been reduced to 7½ ft. Navigation became so dangerous that freight from Constantinople to Galatz cost over £1 per ton more than to Odessa, though the distance was the same.

Meanwhile the attention of the Powers of Europe was more and more drawn to the question of the Danube, owing to the increasing importance of the Danubian and Black Sea corn-lands to Western Europe; further, the political events which led to the Crimean War necessarily emphasized the political importance of the river. Accordingly, the second of the four points contained in the notes exchanged at Vienna on August 8, 1854, between the representatives of Great Britain, France, and Austria, declared that relations between Russia and the Ottoman Empire could not be established on a secure footing 'if the navigation at the mouths of the Danube be not freed of all obstacles, and made subject to the principles laid down by the Congress of Vienna'. The scope of this declaration was expounded by Lord Clarendon in a dispatch to the British envoy, Lord Westmorland. 'A general treaty', he wrote, 'ought to ensure for that purpose the establishment of an independent authority, which should have the right and the power to remove all obstacles placed by Russia in the way of free navigation on the Sulina arm, and such obstacles as may arise in the future.'

In the Treaty of Paris (March 30, 1856), which terminated the Crimean War, the principle of international control as laid down by the Congress of Vienna was accepted and extended to the whole Danube.[1]

[1] The Congress of Vienna had not concerned itself with the Danube, because Turkey was not at that date included in the European state system.

Navigation was declared free. Two commissions were created:

1. A Danube European Commission consisting of delegates from Austria, France, Great Britain, Prussia, Russia, Sardinia, and Turkey, and entrusted with the execution of the works necessary to render the mouths of the river navigable by removing all impediments. Its power extended to Isaccea, some way above the delta. It was to be temporary, and it could levy dues at a reasonable rate to cover expenses, subject to the proviso that vessels of all flags were to be treated on a footing of complete equality.

2. A Danube River Commission (Riverain Commission) consisting of delegates from all the reverain states—Austria, Bavaria, the Sublime Porte, and Württenberg—together with representatives of the three Danubian Principalities (Serbia, Wallachia, and Moldavia), and entrusted with the preparation of regulations and the improvement and maintenance of navigability of the river. It was to be permanent, and was to take up the functions of the European Commission on the dissolution of that body.

The rectification of her Bessarabian frontier in another article of the treaty removed Russia from the banks of the Danube; and in consequence Austria, who disliked international control of the river except when it operated as a check on Russian ambitions, at once exerted herself to minimize it by the action of the Riverain Commission, in which she played a leading rôle. This body produced (November 7, 1857) a Navigation Act which embodied principles directly opposed to those of the Congress of Vienna. River traffic was reserved for riverain states; goods excluded by the tariff of any riverain state were excluded from the whole course of the river; riverain states reserved the right to levy dues for the upkeep of works and the improvement of navigation. The Powers rejected the

Act as contrary to the spirit of the treaties, and the Riverain Commission thereupon ceased to exist.

The time-limit of the European Commission was extended from year to year, and for a further period of five years by the Paris Conference of 1866. The same Conference ratified a Public Act determining the rights and duties of the Commission. It was declared to have authority over the mouths of the Danube, and to design and carry out necessary works, to be entitled to levy dues to cover expenses, to enact binding regulations and supervise the navigation, and to enjoy the benefit of neutrality in time of war. It will be convenient to add here the terms of the additional Act of 1881. The Treaty of Berlin (1878) made the European Commission entirely independent of the territorial authority; and it consequently became necessary to revise the terms of the Public Act. According to the Additional Act the European Commission is a 'juristic person of Public International Law'. It appoints, pays, and dismisses its functionaries, who are chosen without distinction of nationality, and take an oath of allegiance to the commission. Disputes are settled in its name. It exercises financial control, undertakes works on the river without reference to the territorial authorities, possesses ships and a recognized flag; and its property, works, and staff enjoy the benefits of neutrality.

The Conference of 1866 also adopted the Regulation appended to the Public Act, and applicable to the navigation of the Lower Danube.

Russia had never digested the restrictions imposed on her activity by the Treaty of Paris, and missed no opportunity of weakening them. Taking advantage of the conflict of 1870, the Russian Chancellor Gorchakoff issued a circular declaring that the Emperor 'could no longer consider himself bound by the stipulations of the Treaty of 1856, in so far as they trenched

upon his sovereign rights in the Black Sea'. As things were, it was impossible to oppose to the Russian claims the will of a united Europe; on the other hand, it became imperative to secure further the liberty of the Danube navigation, now that Russia had expressed her determination to rule on the Black Sea. A conference was consequently summoned to London in March 1871, and decided that

1. The Black Sea was no longer neutral.

2. The Powers of the European Commission were extended to April 24, 1883.

3. The Powers possessing that part of the Danube where the cataracts and Iron Gates offered impediments to navigation were to have the right to levy a provisional tax on vessels of every flag which might henceforth benefit by the removal of those impediments, until the extinction of the debt contracted for the execution of the works.

During the Russo-Turkish War of 1877–8 Russia disregarded the various treaties and conventions; all traffic on the Danube was stopped, the buildings of the European Commission were wantonly destroyed, and its staff was summarily ordered away. At the Berlin Congress of 1878, Lord Beaconsfield protested against the proposed retrocession of Bessarabia to Russia, as Article XX of the Treaty of Paris expressly declared that Russia agreed to that rectification of the frontier 'in order that the freedom of the Danube navigation may be better secured'. But, after a prolonged discussion between the Russian and Austro-Hungarian representatives, it was agreed that the channel of the Kilia arm and the mouth of Stari Stambul were to form henceforward the southern boundary of the Russian Empire, while the delta with the Dobruja and Serpent Island were to go to Rumania, who was now to be represented on the European Com-

mission. The execution of the works at the cataracts and Iron Gates was entrusted to Austria-Hungary. The powers of the European Commission were extended to Galatz, and it was empowered to formulate, in co-operation with delegates from the riverain states, regulations for the navigation from the Iron Gates to Galatz in harmony with those in force from Galatz to the sea (Articles LII–LV).

In accordance with this last disposition a sub-committee, composed of the delegates of Austria-Hungary, Germany, and Italy, was entrusted with the preparation of a draft. It went somewhat beyond its functions in proposing the creation of a Mixed Commission, composed of the delegates of the three riverain states and an Austrian delegate who should preside by right and possess a casting vote. This proposal, introducing as it did an element of Austrian control over a portion of the river where Austria was not a riverain state, reflected the influence of Austria, who considered that her interests on the Danube were paramount, and was distasteful to various Powers, and especially to Rumania, who recorded an energetic protest. A modified proposal was put forward by the French delegate to the European Commission, M. Barrère, according to which the number of the Mixed Commission was to be raised to five by the addition of a member of the European Commission, to be chosen according to the alphabetical order in French nomenclature of the countries concerned and to sit for six months. This proposal had the advantage of depriving Austria-Hungary of the casting vote and of creating a link between the European and the Mixed Commissions. But, like the first scheme, it conceded to Austria the right to sit permanently on a body which controlled with final judicial authority a portion of the river where she was not riparian; and Rumania again

protested, with the result that, though Barrère's proposal was accepted, it was never carried into effect.

The European Commission was now approaching the term of its mandate—April 24, 1883. Two Powers, Russia and Austria-Hungary, were opposed to its continuance; Great Britain, whose commercial interests on the Danube were at that date at least equal to those of Austria, desired its continued existence and the extension of its powers to Brăila, the limit of sea-borne commerce on the river. To decide these points and to confirm the navigation regulations drawn up in virtue of Article LV of the Treaty of Berlin, a conference of the Great Powers—Great Britain, Austria-Hungary, France, Germany, Italy, Russia, and Turkey—met in London in February 1883.

Of the minor riverain states Bulgaria, still a vassal of Turkey, was represented by the Turkish ambassador. Serbia and Rumania asked for admission, but were conceded a consultative voice only. Great Britain supported Rumania's claim to full participation, but the opposition of Austria and Germany was effective. Serbia ultimately accepted the restricted rôle allowed her, but Rumania, herself since 1878 a member of the European Commission, declined to be represented on such terms, and declared that the decisions of the Conference should not be binding on her.

The result of the Conference was that the powers of the European Commission were prolonged for twenty-one years, with subsequent tacit renewal for periods of three years; they were moreover extended to Brăila. The consent of Russia, however, was only obtained by allowing her complete control of the northern (Oksakov) mouth of the Kilia arm, while on the rest of the Kilia arm the two riverains (Russia and Rumania) were to apply the regulations in force on the Sulina arm. The regulations for navigation, river

police, and superintendence drawn up in 1882 were declared applicable between the Iron Gates and Brăila, but owing to Rumania's opposition and to her conclusion in the autumn of 1883 of a defensive alliance with Austria, they were never put in force.

The net results of the Treaty of London were:

1. The confirmation of the liberal interpretation of Article CIX of the final Act of the Congress of Vienna.

2. The establishment on the Danube of a plurality of regimes instead of the unity aimed at by the Congress of Vienna.

3. Disregard of the sovereign rights of the riverain states of the Lower Danube.

4. The maintenance and confirmation of an institution altogether exceptional, and at first only provisional, viz. the European Commission.

The situation on the Danube is therefore anomalous, and has given rise to evil of a more positive character. Among the greatest natural obstacles to navigation on that river are the rapids at the Iron Gates. The Berlin Congress had given Austria a mandate to execute the necessary works in order to create a free passage, with the right to levy a tax to cover the expenses. That mandate was subsequently transferred to Hungary, who in 1895 at last began the construction along the Serbian shore of a canal, which was finished in 1899. Austrian and Hungarian authorities themselves recognize the absolute inadequacy of the construction. The current is so rapid that even the most powerful Danube steamers have difficulty in passing up stream; while, on the other hand, the canal is not deep enough to carry the traffic, which was, for instance, completely interrupted for two months in 1908 on that account. These natural difficulties are rendered more harmful by a system of onerous fiscal regulations. According to comparative figures given by the *Neue Freie Presse*, of

Vienna (April 12, 1899)—which publication is certainly not biassed in favour of Rumanian interests—the duties per ton of cargo at the Iron Gates were eight and a half times as heavy as the corresponding duties in the Nord-Ostsee canal, though the construction of the latter had necessitated an expenditure five times greater than that for the Iron Gates canal. Moreover, the towage duties were almost three times higher, though the respective distances compared as 1 to 56. The taxes were not uniform, but differed according to the class of goods, with the result that, to quote the Viennese paper again, 'the burden falls primarily upon the traffic coming in transit from the Lower Danube up stream', while 'the traffic from Austria and Hungary—that is, our export of manufactured goods—suffers less than would have been the case had the duties been imposed on another basis'. In view of the opening of the canal, the Rumanian State Monopolies concluded in 1898 a contract with a south-German navigation company for the towage of oil-tank barges to Regensburg (Ratisbon). The arrangement worked successfully in 1899, but broke down when the Hungarian Government enforced the new tariff of dues at the Iron Gates. The oil export has been since carried out by rail, and mainly by sea through Constanza. The Rumanian, Russian, French, and Bulgarian Governments lodged a protest against the Austro-Hungarian tariff, but no agreement could be achieved. Finally, though the region in question is partly Rumanian and largely Serbian, Hungary has created national agencies on foreign territory, imposing the Hungarian language for official use.

The Treaty of Bucarest (1918) reconstituted the European Commission, but made it consist solely of 'representatives of states situate on the Danube or the European shores of the Black Sea', thus contrast-

ing with the wider scope given by all previous treaties to international interests.[1]

Note B.—The Question of the Dobruja

When the Congress of Berlin conceded to Russia the three southern districts of Bessarabia, it was agreed that Rumania should receive as compensation the delta of the Danube, Serpent Island, and the Dobruja. Disagreement immediately arose respecting the southern boundary of the last-named district, and especially the town of Silistra on the Danube, which Russia desired to reserve for Bulgaria, while Rumania coveted it as the most convenient point for bridging the Danube. After two years of abortive commissions, the Rumanian frontier was finally drawn so as to exclude this town and reach a point south of Mangalia on the Black Sea. Though this did not satisfy the aspirations of Rumania, it gave her some valuable territory which she has developed with energy and ability and at great expense. A magnificent bridge and causeway extending for more than 12 miles across the river and marshes was constructed at Cernavoda. A railway was built to connect that town with the main line and with the harbour of Constanza, which under Rumanian auspices has developed into a busy and thriving seaport.

Rumania, however, has never accepted her limitations to the south, and the Balkan Wars gave her an opportunity of reopening the question. By the Treaty of Bucarest (August 10, 1913) she secured the line Turtukai–Dobrich–Balchik, which had always been the object of her ambitions.

[1] For text of these articles, see *International Rivers*, No. 149 of this series, Appendix IV.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) Religious

The State religion of Rumania is that of the Orthodox Eastern Church. While the introduction of Christianity is generally attributed to the Slav monks Cyril and Methodius, the Latin origin of religious terms (*dumnezeu, cruce*, etc.) suggests that Christianity already existed during the Roman occupation. Slav influence probably coincided with the great Slav invasion in the sixth century; it was then that Slavonic became the language of the Church, persisting, like Latin in the west, until the sixteenth century. At that juncture, under the influence of a cultural and religious renascence, it was replaced by Rumanian, only to be supplanted shortly afterwards by Greek, with the coming of the Phanariote regime.

Down to 1864 the Rumanian Church was subordinate to the Patriarchate of Constantinople. In that year it was proclaimed independent, national, and autocephalous, though this change was not recognized by the Patriarchate till 1885; simultaneously, the secularization of the property of the monasteries put an end *de facto* to the influence of the Greek clergy. Religious questions of a dogmatic nature are settled by the Holy Synod at Bucarest, composed of the two Metropolitans and eight Bishops *in partibus*; the Minister for Education, who has administrative functions in connexion with the Church, having only a deliberative voice. As a reminiscence of the ecclesiastical com-

munity with the Rumanians of Hungary which existed in the sixteenth century, the Primate of Bucarest still bears the title of 'Metropolitan of Hungro-Wallachia'; while the Metropolitan of Jassy is known as the 'Metropolitan of Moldavia and Suceava' (in Bukovina), from the time when Bessarabia and Bukovina formed an integral part of Moldavia.

For the purpose of ecclesiastical administration Rumania is divided into 366 urban parishes, with 596 churches, and 3,299 rural parishes, with 6,165 churches. The ecclesiastic personnel numbers about 8,000; its members have the character and position of public officials (Law of 1893). The clergy are married; the higher dignities, however, are only open to monks. Metropolitans and bishops are elected by the Synod, senate, and deputies, in a joint session.

There are about 60 convents, with roughly 1,700 monks and 2,700 nuns. The census of 1900 gave the following figures concerning the religious division of the population: 5,452,047 Orthodox Rumanians; 188,272 Roman Catholics (mostly foreigners), with 130 churches; 24,180 Protestants (all foreigners), with 18 churches, Lutherans being roughly in the proportion of 2 to 1; 6,598 Armenians, with 16 churches; 269,015 Jews, with 305 synagogues; and 43,740 Mohammedans, with 260 mosques; other creeds and denominations, 16,148. In northern Dobruja, in the larger towns of Moldavia, and in Bucarest there are a number of Russian *hipovans*, who have emigrated from Russia to escape the persecution of the official Church; they possessed 28 churches in 1900. The Roman Catholics have an Archbishop at Bucarest, and a Bishop at Jassy.

Religion has never played an important part in Rumanian national life, as is shown by the absence of religious conflicts and sectarianism. The causes of this

condition are historical and social. During the whole period of Rumanian subjection the language of the Church was foreign, and so were its higher clergy. The resulting religious passivity remained unstirred during the domination of the Turks, who contented themselves with treating the unbelievers with contempt, and made no attempt to interfere with their creed or worship. Not a single mosque was built on Rumanian territory during the four centuries of Turkish domination. During the decline of Turkish power, the language and administration of the Rumanian Church were Greek, and its centre of gravity was Russia; but the Greeks and the Russians were the two factors primarily responsible for Rumania's decadence in the eighteenth century, and for the trials of its recovery in the nineteenth—a fact not calculated to deepen the faith of the people or render the Church more popular with them.

The ecclesiastical reforms of 1864, which abolished the temporal privileges of the Church, erred through their purely negative character. No provision was made for the clergy when the wealth of the monasteries was converted to the State. They were left for thirty years in complete destitution, and remained, in consequence, outside the general intellectual and social development of the country—a situation the more damaging to their standing and reputation as the same period saw the rise of an all-powerful bureaucracy. Materially, their position was improved by the law of 1893, which included the priests among other Government officials; but the change was in other respects disadvantageous.

(2) Political

Constitution.—Rumania is a constitutional monarchy, governed, according to the Constitution adopted in 1866, by an assembly elected on universal suffrage. Certain modifications were introduced in 1879 and in 1884. The Constitution resembles that of Belgium more than any other.

The royal power is hereditary, in direct and collateral male line. In default of a male heir, the Senate and Chamber of Deputies in joint session have a right to choose a king among the royal families of western Europe. The person of the King is inviolable. He exercises his prerogatives through ministers responsible to Parliament.

The legislative power is vested in the King in Parliament. Parliament consists of a Senate (120 members) and a Chamber (183 members). The Universities of Bucarest and Jassy send each a member to the Senate, which also includes as *ex-officio* members the Heir-Apparent, the two Metropolitans, and the diocesan bishops. Senators must be forty years old and possess an income of £376. They are elected by two colleges of electors. The first, electing sixty senators, involves as qualification a yearly income from real property of at least £80; the second includes the owners of a revenue of from £32 to £80—from real property—as well as the manufacturers and merchants paying licence duties of the first or second degree. There are in addition a certain number of electors belonging to the liberal professions, or to some public service. The senators are elected for eight years; one-half of their number by lot seeks re-election every four years.

There are no property qualifications required for members of the Chamber, who must, however, have reached their twenty-fifth year. They are chosen by

three colleges of electors. The first elects 75 deputies, and is composed of owners of real property returning a minimum income of £48. The second college, which elects 70 deputies, is composed exclusively of town-electors, namely, members of the liberal professions and of the public services, persons paying a minimum direct tax of 20 *lei* (francs), persons in receipt of a public pension, &c. The third college elects only 38 deputies. It includes the mass of the rural population (which in 1912 formed 83·6 per cent. of the total population), and all those who enjoy political rights while not being qualified for any other college. But only literates in receipt of a yearly income of £12 are entitled to a direct vote; of the rest, fifty citizens elect one delegate, who is entitled to one vote in the constituency of the district capital. The members of the Chamber are elected for four years. Both senators and deputies receive 20 *lei* for each day of actual attendance, and travel free on the railways.

The King may dissolve either or both assemblies, or convene a special session; he may also temporarily veto any measure passed by Parliament. The initiative rests with either Assembly, the Cabinet, or the King; the budget and the yearly bills fixing the strength of the army, however, must first be voted in the Chamber. Measures passed by Parliament and sanctioned by the King are promulgated in the *Monitorul Oficial.*

Executive power is vested in the King and a Council under the presidency of a Prime Minister, composed of nine ministers with equal cabinet rank and representing: the Interior, Foreign Affairs, Justice, Industry and Commerce, Agriculture and Public Domains, Finance, War, Public Worship and Education, and Public Works.

The Constitution proclaims the inviolability of domicile, the liberty of speech, of the press and of assembly,

and absolute liberty of creed and religion, in so far as the forms of religious celebration do not come into conflict with public order and decency. It recognizes no distinction of class and privilege, all citizens sharing equal rights and duties within the law. (Cf., however, pp. 41, 42 with regard to the position of the Jews.) Individual liberty and property are guaranteed; but only Rumanian citizens can acquire real property. Capital punishment does not exist, except for military offences in time of war.

Local Government.—The Rumanian administration is highly centralized, following in many directions the French model. For administrative purposes Rumania is divided into thirty-two departments (*județ*), each governed by a prefect nominated by the Minister of the Interior, with an elected council. The departments are subdivided into districts (*plasă*), which have at their head a sub-prefect dependent on the prefect. There are urban and rural boroughs, the administration of which is in the hands of a council and of a mayor (*Primar*) elected from among its members. The election of the Mayor must be sanctioned by the King, who has the right to dissolve the Communal Councils. All the permanent officials are nominated by the central authority.

The Judiciary.—The judicial organization of the country is centred in the Ministry of Justice. It comprises, as courts of first instance, justices of peace and tribunals, appeal being allowed from the first to the second. Assizes meet at fixed periods in the various departments for the hearing of criminal cases. There are four Courts of Appeal, in Bucarest, Jassy, Craiova, and Galatz. The highest court is the High Court of Cassation, at Bucarest, founded in 1861, with a civil and a criminal section. There are, in all, 141 Justices of the Peace, and in each capital of department a civil

tribunal, a correctional tribunal, and a court of assizes. There are also two Mohammedan tribunals, at Tulcea and Constanza. Judicial work is based upon the *Code Napoléon*, introduced in 1865, and adapted in certain respects to the needs and customs of the country.

Character of Government.—The political ignorance of the masses and the varied influence exercised on the electorate by the highly centralized administration give Rumanian Governments considerable control over the elections. Between the German system, where the Emperor chooses the ministers independently of Parliament, and the English system, where the members of the executive are indicated by the electorate through the medium of Parliament independently of the Crown, the Rumanian system takes a middle path. Neither the Crown, nor the electorate, nor Parliament has exclusive power. The Government is not, generally speaking, defeated either by the electorate or by Parliament. The Crown has the final decision in changes of regime; and upon the King falls the delicate task of interpreting the significance of political or popular movements. The system—which comes nearest to that of Spain—has its advantages in a young and turbulent polity, by enabling its most stable element, the King, to ensure a continuous and harmonious policy. But it also makes the results dangerously dependent on the quality of that same element, and of the influences that may be brought to bear upon it.

The Civil Service.—With the acquirement of an autonomous administration and the introduction of the liberal Constitution, there began a race among Rumanian statesmen to adopt western institutions. The abrupt solution of the main national question gave rise to the two great political parties, before larger circles of popular opinion could have received a political education. In order to gain support for

their particular policy, the two political parties organized armies of officials by the lavish creation of sinecures for their supporters. Commerce and industry were therefore neglected by the elements rising from the lower classes; and this greatly facilitated the intrusion of foreign, especially Jewish, elements into the country. The only qualification required for entering the civil service, the lowest grade excepted, is a degree in law, which, on account of the prevailing conditions in the faculty of law, is easily obtained. Large numbers of recruits are consequently added every year to the political parties and to the civil service, many of whom create for themselves a claim to priority by embarking upon political agitation while yet on the registers of the University. Every change of government is the occasion for vast alterations in the personnel of the central and local administration; and the party funds have to be supplemented by other miscellaneous sources for the purpose of maintaining, while in opposition, the mass of out-of-work officials.

The grave economic crisis of 1899 forced the Government to abolish in 1901 almost 4,000 places, and generally to reduce the salaries of the civil servants on a progressive scale. These two measures secured an economy in expenditure of 8,800,000 and 6,838,000 *lei* respectively; but they caused much hardship in the lower grades of the service, and with the improvement of economic conditions the old system of sinecures was brought back. The number of persons in official employment amounted in 1904 to 102,560, and their remuneration to 107,617,995 *lei*. This sum does not include expenditure on the army, nor the civil list. In 1904, 18,423,231 *lei* in pensions were paid by the State.

The Political Parties.—When Greek influence, emanating from Constantinople, began to make itself

felt in the eighteenth century, a nationalist faction arose for the purpose of opposing it. This faction often relied upon the support of one of the neighbouring Powers, and was known accordingly as the Russian, the Austrian, &c., party. But no national party proper took form until after the death of Rhigas in 1798, when, as a first effect of the French Revolution, his Rumanian followers seceded into a 'National Party' which was promptly dubbed by its opponents the 'French party'. With the election of Cuza (1859) the external danger diminished, and the politicians divided upon principles of internal reform, giving rise to the Liberal and Conservative parties. The two organizations kept truce during the period preceding the accession of Prince Carol, when grave external dangers were threatening, and combined in a coalition ministry at the introduction of the Constitution of 1866. But, this done, the truce was broken; and political strife again awoke with all the more vigour for having been temporarily suppressed. The two parties vied with one another in the introduction of reforms, with the result that ere long the main lines of legislation were exhausted. Liberals and Conservatives settled down to maintain what they created, including a large following of superfluous officials. Whereas originally they had been known by the name of their political creed, they came, significantly enough, to be distinguished by the names of their leaders without conveying thereby any definite programme. Upon being asked once in the Senate to state the programme of the Liberal party, a follower of Mr. Ion Brătianu, senior, replied, 'We are a collectivity, of which Mr. Brătianu is the highest expression'; hence the name of 'Collectivists' often given to the Liberals.

It is characteristic of the conditions prevailing in Rumanian political life, that none of the groups which

sprang up from time to time with a view to furthering certain definite political ideals could persist. Such was the fate of the able group of men connected with the literary society *Junimea*, which entered politics in 1881 under the leadership of Mr. P. P. Carp, with a policy of agrarian reform and administrative decentralization. A few years ago a group of politicians, mainly of the old Conservative party, detached themselves and became the Conservative-Democratic party under the leadership of Mr. Take Ionescu. They are duly known as 'Takiști'; and the majority of them are recruited from the lower grades of officials and the lower middle-class. The actual leader of the old Conservative party is Mr. Alexander Marghiloman, though the circumstances of the war have cut across existing party divisions.

Two new parties were founded in Jassy in the eighties: a Radical group led by Georg Panu, an able rationalist writer; and a Socialist group, under the leadership of the brothers Nadejde, both secondary school teachers. They were later joined by Dobrogeanu-Gherea, a brilliant essayist, who migrated from Russia. After a short space of independent existence the Radicals, with the exception of Panu, joined the Conservative party, while the Socialists became the left wing of the Liberal party. In 1917, under the influence of the Russian Revolution, ten advanced Liberal deputies seceded and formed a Labour party under the leadership of Dr. Cantacuzino; but so far they have no definite organization behind them. More recently, General Averescu has taken in hand the creation of a large People's party, based upon the peasantry.

The Political Press.—With very few exceptions, the Rumanian political press is entirely in the service of the various party organizations. Before the war

the chief organs of the Liberal party were *L'Indépendance Roumaine* and *Viitorul*; the old Conservatives controlled *La Politique* and the *Epoca*; while Mr. Take Ionescu's policy was represented by *La Roumanie* and the *Acțiunea*. He also enjoyed the support of *Adevărul*, a widely-read, professedly independent evening paper, with Radical tendencies. The one independent daily paper was the *Universul*, a well-edited journal, enjoying the widest circulation in the Rumanian press (150,000–200,000 daily). The groups of writers connected with the more important literary periodicals (especially the *Convorbiri Literare*) also represented certain social tendencies; and much interesting matter was to be found in the weekly *Nova Revistă Romînă*, started by the University professor Rădulescu-Motru for the purpose of supplying a platform for independent opinion. The German community of Bucarest published two daily papers, the *Bukarester Tageblatt*, and the *Rumänischer Lloyd*. The Nationalist, anti-Semite tendencies were reflected in Mr. Iorga's *Neamul Romănesc*.

(3) Public Education

Primary Education.—This was made free and compulsory by the Act of 1864, 'where schools are available', for children between seven and eleven years of age. Art. XXIII of the Constitution of 1866 confirmed these dispositions. Nevertheless, according to the census of 1912, the percentage of illiterates among the population above seven years of age was 60·7. This is due, in the first place, to the lack of teachers, of whom there were in 1906 only 5,949, whereas 11,500 were considered necessary. Several training colleges have since been established. The second difficulty results from the insufficiency of schools, which have to be provided and equipped by the local authorities. The law

of 1886 gave the central authority executive powers, with the result that the number of rural primary schools increased from 3,307 in 1895–6 to 4,695 in 1909–10 (+ 42 per cent.), only 80 per cent. of them possessing their own buildings. The inadequacy of the increase is indicated by the number of pupils they had to accommodate, 198,534 and 504,297 (+ 154 per cent.) respectively; the average number of pupils for each teacher was 78. A remedy was sought in the creation, in 1896, of a 'School Bank'; but the results of this have not given full satisfaction, and its scope was reduced in 1901. Finally, the backward state of primary education is enhanced by irregular attendance, due mainly to social causes, which a system of fines has not been able to eradicate. In 1910 only 53·5 per cent. of the country children were able to find admittance in the schools, and of these only 66·6 per cent. attended regularly. 13,297,271 *lei* were allotted in 1910–11 for primary education. Two points of interest may be mentioned in this connexion. It is significant that the peasant rising of 1907 broke out and assumed the most violent character in districts possessing the largest percentage of illiterates, although they were the richest agricultural districts and although the rising was due to economic causes. Secondly, the report for 1910 of the Inspector for Primary Education states that

> insistent demands for the creation of schools were received at the Ministry from numerous villages. The important sacrifices which those villages were prepared to make vouched for the earnestness of their request;

but the Ministry was unable to satisfy the demand through lack of teachers.

Secondary Education.—The Act of 1864 was supplanted in 1898 by a new law, which introduced in the lycées, consisting of eight classes, a treble division. The first four classes are uniform. With the fifth, the

curriculum is divided into classical, modern, and science sections. French and German are generally compulsory subjects; the pupils of the last two sections having to take in addition a course in either English or Italian.

There are also a number of gymnasia containing only the first four classes. The schools for girls are classified as of the first and second degree, corresponding roughly to the gymnasia and lycées respectively. The number of secondary schools was so insufficient that serious overcrowding resulted. A regulation of 1885 therefore limited the number of pupils, and made admission dependent on a competitive examination. Whatever the results of the examination, foreigners, including Jews, only find admission after the Rumanian applicants have been satisfied. With the same end in view a law passed in 1901 introduced a system of fees, thus abolishing for secondary education the principle of 1864. In the school year 1913–14, 36 per cent. of the applicants (4,905) were refused admission. The maximum number of pupils, 16,707 in 1897–8, fell to 12,682 by 1908–9.

The reduction in the number of theological seminaries provided for by the Church Law of 1893 was carried further in 1901, when only three such institutions were left, one at Jassy and two at Bucarest. In 1913–14, 84 per cent. of the applicants were refused.

The State schools are supplemented by a number of private boarding-schools, comparatively expensive, and generally frequented by pupils in need of supervision for attaining the standard required at public examinations. The Jewish communities have a number of schools in the larger towns, and so also have the German. The Evangelische Knaben- und Realschule of Bucarest, supervised and subsidized by the German and Austrian educational authorities, attracted in the years before the war more pupils than any other school in the country.

Technical and Commercial Education is provided in 8 agricultural colleges, 27 arts and crafts schools, a number of commercial schools, the engineering and veterinary colleges of Bucarest, and schools of domestic economy for girls. Bucarest also possesses an Academy of Art; and Academies of Music exist in several of the larger towns. There are in addition a large number of experimental workshops and farms in which pupils are trained. In 1909–10 there were seven training schools for teachers and eight military schools. A staff school exists at Bucarest. In 1913–14, 76 per cent. of the applicants could not find admission in the various technical schools.

Higher Education is provided in the Universities of Jassy and Bucarest, on the basis of the law of 1898. They possess faculties of law, art, philosophy, science, medicine, and theology. The University of Bucarest is frequented in normal times by over 5,000 students. A High School of Economics was founded in 1914.

(4) General Observations

Popular Opinion and National Sentiment

In order to gauge at their right value expressions of Rumanian public opinion, it should be remembered that roughly 85 per cent. of the population are peasants, that 60·7 per cent. of the inhabitants above seven years of age can neither read nor write (1912), and that foreigners (mainly Jews) to the extent of nearly 7 per cent. of the total population are denied political rights.

The peasants, as a factor in political life, are negligible, both on account of their poverty and of their cultural backwardness, as well as on account of the prevailing limited franchise and of the difficulties of organization under which a rural population labours. Centuries of exploitation have, moreover, made the

mass of the Rumanians submit passively to oligarchic government. But it should be noticed that there are signs of a change of temper. The importance of the land question has been discussed above (p. 41). Land-hunger was the chief cause of the peasant risings which occurred in 1888, 1889, 1894, 1900, and 1907. The last was particularly severe, and was marked, for the first time, by defections among the troops.

No labour organization of any importance exists in Rumania. Rumanian native industry is yet in its infancy and scattered, whereas in the larger and more concentrated industries, such as the oil wells, the skilled workers are to a great extent foreign, and only temporarily resident in the country. The persistence of national conflicts in eastern Europe has been detrimental to the growth of international forces like socialism. A small group of intellectual socialists, unable to find popular support, was forced to join the Liberal party. In recent years a few hundred workers have created an organization which has come under the influence of the Russian Marxian socialists and is affiliated to the International.

So long as the Rumanian countries were under Turkish and Greek influence, trade, the liberal professions, and the public services were exclusively in the hands of foreigners. The Greeks disappeared from the public services with the constitution of the Rumanian state. Those elements of the native population which might have formed a commercial middle class were absorbed by the over-elaborate State administrative services; so that trade and certain liberal professions still remained to foreigners—Armenians, Jews, Greeks, Bulgars, Italians, Austrians, Swiss, &c.—who do not enjoy political rights. It may be said, therefore, that a middle class exists socially but not politically, as the interests of the large army of officials and

of the numerous lawyers are bound up with those of the governing oligarchy.

The small class of great Rumanian *boyars*, in so far as it still exists, has lost most of its economic and political importance. The real governing class may be said to consist of (*a*) intellectuals, forming the general staff of the parties, who have received a liberal education abroad, and tend to imitate foreign, rather than develop native characteristics; (*b*) the sons of those who have achieved wealth and station in the period of transition from dependence to independence, people with unequal education, devoting themselves to politics and agriculture, and exercising special influence in the political organizations of the provinces; (*c*) individuals belonging to the lower classes, without education, who by hard work, good fortune, or other means have acquired wealth during the more recent economic advance; most of them are farmers, some are manufacturers and traders.

The fact that the achievement of independent political power coincided with a brilliant economic development, in neither of which was the lower class able, or the foreign middle class allowed, to share, has placed in the hands of the ruling class a monopoly both of wealth and of political power. This class also contains a free admixture of foreign, especially Greek, blood. For it is interesting to note that, throughout modern history, the mass of the population of the Rumanian principalities has lived in almost complete cultural separation from its aristocracy, which was subjected in turn to Slav, Greek, and French cultural influence. This was one of the causes of the backwardness of the masses, who were unable to participate in a renascence foreign in language and in spirit. More recently, the town population has been involved in the 'progressive' movement; but the pre-

dominant influence which French civilization still exercises has kept the peasant outside it. In Transylvania, where the common language has been the cultural language, the peasant has been able to rise much above the level of his brethren in Rumania.

Within the last few decades, a new, pure Rumanian current has penetrated Rumanian literary life, and it is interesting to note that (like all previous movements which have made a lasting contribution to the nation's culture) it was progressing simultaneously and unitedly among the Rumanians on both sides of the Carpathians. Equally striking and suggestive is the fact that, whereas the centre of gravity of social life moved with the achievement of independence to the towns, where the political leaders worked hard to improvise a national middle class, and totally ignored the peasant, the new literary and artistic movement, except in so far as it is satiric, has gone back to the land, and centred all its productions round the personality and the life of the peasant.

The Rumanians of Macedonia

It is impossible to supply accurate figures concerning the Rumanian population of Macedonia. Estimates of writers and travellers vary between 150,000 and 3,000,000; about 300,000 is the more generally accepted estimate. They are usually known as 'Koutso-Vlachs'; among themselves, the name of 'Aromuni' is in use.[1]

Simultaneously with the first signs of Bulgarian renascence there appeared also indications of a national movement among the Koutso-Vlachs, which became more marked with the union of the Rumanian Principalities in 1859. There was no possibility of union with the new Rumanian state; but as, on the other hand, domination of Macedonia by one of the other

[1] Cf. above, pp. 11, 43.

Balkan nations involved a danger of absorption, the Koutso-Vlachs generally favoured the *status quo*.

Rumanian propaganda in Macedonia began about 1865, when a first school was established at Tarnova. In 1870 a sum of 14,000 *lei* appeared in the Rumanian budget as a subvention to the Koutso-Vlachs. In the following years these contributions were increased. The Koutso-Vlach movement became very marked after the events of 1877–8. In 1879 'The Macedo-Rumanian Society' was founded, with the object of collecting funds for their schools and publishing books for their use.

From the beginning, the Koutso-Vlach nationalists came into conflict with the Patriarchate, which was led by the Bulgarian defection of 1870 to fear a further reduction of the field of its authority. As recognition of national rights in Turkey depended upon the possession of an independent religious organization, to which were usually also granted certain lay privileges, the Rumanian Government made repeated efforts to obtain the nomination of a bishop for the Koutso-Vlachs in Macedonia. On November 6, 1896, the Koutso-Vlachs provisionally elected Mgr. Antim to be their metropolitan. His recognition was violently opposed by the Patriarch at Constantinople. The Rumanian Government at once approached the Porte through its diplomatic channels, and at the same time issued a circular note to the foreign chancelleries, which contained the principle of Rumanian interest in the Balkans:

> The affairs of Macedonia . . . are the object of our constant interest, as they concern the future of a numerous population of Rumanian race and the political balance of the Peninsula.

The message from the throne at the opening of Parliament, February 24, 1905, explicitly stated the Rumanian demands. After difficult negotiations, the

Sultan issued, on May 22, 1905, an *iradé* recognizing the Rumanian nationality of the Koutso-Vlachs, and granting them the right to elect 'muktars' (mayors). Within a short space of time, sixty Rumanian communities were established in Macedonia.

The Patriarchate and Greek organizations embarked upon a campaign of persecution against the Koutso-Vlach population, which drew energetic protest from the Rumanian Government. Various incidents gave the conflict an acute character; and on September 16, 1905, diplomatic relations between Athens and Bucarest were broken, to be permanently resumed only in 1910.

Meanwhile the Bulgarian propaganda was making great strides in Macedonia, and acquired a violent revolutionary character with the formation in 1894 of the so-called 'Organization of the Exterior'. The movement was accentuated in 1899, and led for a time to very strained relations with Bulgaria in 1900. The Balkan troubles of 1912–13 again brought the question to the fore. It was first discussed privately between Rumanian and Bulgarian statesmen, and formally at the London Conference (1912–13), in the presence of the Rumanian minister. No difficulties were encountered in coming to an agreement, which was embodied in a Protocol signed in London by Dr. Danev and the Rumanian Minister, Mr. Mișu, on January 29, 1913. The arrangement was confirmed in Article 4 of the Protocol of the St. Petersburg Conference (May 9, 1913), and was subsequently the occasion of an exchange of letters between Mr. Maiorescu and Mr. Tontcheff, the first Bulgarian delegate to the Conference of Bucarest (August 4, 1913). Therein Bulgaria undertook to

grant autonomy to the Koutso-Vlach schools and churches existent in the future Bulgarian possessions, and to allow the creation of an episcopate for them; with liberty for the Rumanian Government to subsidize, under the supervision of

the Bulgarian Government, the said cultural institutions, existent or to be established.

Correspondence couched in identical terms passed on August 5, 1913, between Mr. Maiorescu on the one hand, and Mr. Venizelos, the chief Greek delegate, and Mr. Pasich, the chief Serbian delegate, on the other.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) Internal

(*a*) *Roads*

In 1913 the length of the metalled roads in Rumania amounted to 44,573 kilometres, of which 4,162 kilometres were national roads, 4,936 kilometres departmental roads, and the remainder communal and village roads. Of the latter class there were also about 11,000 kilometres of unmetalled tracks. The roads are classified according to the authority responsible for their upkeep. The communal and village roads are of little use for the transport of merchandise, and at certain times in the year are practically impassable.

(*b*) *Rivers*

The utility of the rivers of Rumania as commercial waterways is diminished by the large quantities of sand and mud which are washed down in spring, when the melting of snow in the mountains swells them into torrents, by the difficulties of locking, owing to the large volume of water which has to pass down in spring, and by the dryness of summer and autumn, when often there is not sufficient water to make navigation by barges a possibility.

The navigable rivers of Rumania are the Danube, the Pruth, and the Sereth.

The *Danube* enters Rumania just above the Iron Gates and forms the southern boundary of Rumania for most of the 590 miles from that point to the sea.

The river is navigable from Sulina to Ratisbon (Regensburg) in Bavaria. The Sulina mouth is the only one used for navigation, the St. George and Kilia mouths being constantly choked with sand and mud washed down by the river. The Sulina mouth is kept navigable by continuous dredging operations carried on by the European Commission of the Danube, which controls the river from the mouth to Brăila, a distance of about 100 miles. Above that point the ports are under the control of the riparian Powers. There is from 22 to 24 ft. of water in the river from the mouth to Brăila, so that ocean-going vessels up to 6,000 tons can reach the ports of Galatz and Brăila with full cargoes. Above Brăila the river is capable of taking vessels up to 10-foot draught as far as Turnu-Severin. The chief up-river ports of the Danube are Cernavoda, Silistra, Oltenița, Giurgiu, Zimnicea, Turnu-Magurele, Corabia, Calafat, Turnu-Severin.

The navigation of the Danube in winter and spring is rendered impossible at certain periods by the prevalence of ice and by the floods which follow upon the melting of the ice. Navigation is usually closed by ice from about the beginning of January until the latter part of February: occasionally ice forms before the end of December, and in 1909, when the winter was very severe, navigation could not be resumed until the middle of March. The river freezes very quickly and has been known to freeze across at Brăila, where the width is 330 yds., in six hours; consequently the risk to navigation at such times is very great. There are winter harbours and emergency winter harbours on the river, where ships may take refuge during the time when navigation is blocked. Ships may have to stay in these for a very long time between winter and spring, because when the thaw comes the ice is forced down by floods, and packs to considerable heights, and then there is great danger

of ships being caught by a sudden rush of ice before reaching the next emergency harbour, which is often a long distance away. As these emergency winter harbours are rarely connected with railways, the trans-shipment of goods is impossible.

Navigation is also liable to be hindered in summer if the water becomes very low. In the summer of 1911, for instance, owing to the low level of water in the river, large stocks of grain in up-river districts could only be forwarded in small quantities, and thus great delays occurred before the grain reached Brăila.

The European Commission of the Danube was constituted for political reasons after the Crimean War by the Treaty of Paris in 1856, and now consists of eight members, one of whom is nominated by each of the following Powers: Great Britain, France, Russia, Austria, Turkey, Germany, Italy, and Rumania. Its head-quarters are at Galatz. The Commission is responsible for the control of traffic as far as Brăila, for dredging the river up to that point, for buoying the river below Galatz, and for the upkeep of lighthouses in the river below Galatz and along the coast to the mouth of the St. George's Channel. It possesses a fleet of 16 steamboats for purposes of administration, technical service, and inspection of navigation, and about 50 smaller craft of different kinds, and has workshops at Sulina. Pilotage is necessary and compulsory both over the bar and in the river. The expenses of the Commission are covered by the dues charged on vessels using the portion of the river which it controls. (For the burden of these dues see p. 49.) It is stated that its income in 1913 was £125,834, leaving a surplus over expenditure of £36,892.

The *Pruth*, which forms the eastern boundary between Rumania and Bessarabia, is about 500 miles in length, of which about 400 miles are in Rumania, and is navigable as a general rule for ships and

lighters of about 600 tons as far as a point opposite to Jassy, a distance of about 150 miles. In dry summers navigation is often much impeded owing to lack of water. There is a considerable grain traffic from Russian and Rumanian villages on the river to Galatz, where cargoes are trans-shipped to ocean-going steamers. Before the war the river was controlled by a Commission composed of Rumanians, Austrians, and Russians, which owned a steamboat, 7 floating elevators, a dredge, and a few barges. Until recent years the possibilities of the river as regards navigation were neglected, but about the year 1909 a Russian company put on a fleet of special boats able to navigate the river at low water; and attempts were being made before the war to develop the Russian town of Reni as an export town.

The *Sereth* rises in the Bukovina, flows south, traversing Moldavia, and joins the Danube at Galatz. Its length in Rumania is about 210 miles. The river is used for the purpose of floating timber, cut from the forests of Moldavia, down-stream for shipment into ocean-going vessels at Galatz. According to the author of *La Roumanie Économique*, it was used for the transport of grain about 1876, but this traffic no longer exists. The *Bistriţa*, a tributary of the Sereth, is also used to a considerable extent for rafting timber.

(c) *Railways*

2,299 miles of railway are owned by the State, while 83 miles are privately owned. The gauge is 1·436 metres—the usual gauge throughout Central Europe—and, except between Bucarest and Ploeşti and between Cernavoda and Constanza, where the track is double, the tracks are single throughout. According to official returns the actual capital expenditure on the State railways to 1911 was 967,204,000 lei (420,706 lei per mile). These figures cannot, however, be taken as a safe guide in calculating the revenue on the money

invested, as expenditure on the upkeep of lines is added, as incurred, to capital account and nothing is apparently set aside for renewals and depreciation.

The existing railways need not be described.

Lines projected or in course of construction are as follows:

1. A line traversing the Dobruja from Dobrich (whence there is railway communication with Balchik on the Black Sea and the Bulgarian port of Varna) to Tulcea on the St. George mouth of the Danube. This line has now been completed to Babadag, about 25 miles south of Tulcea.

2. A line from Craiova to Gruia on the Danube, where it is intended to bridge the Danube and obtain direct communication with Nish, thereby making a connexion between Rumania and the Salonika outlet to the Aegean Sea.

3. A line from Dorohoi to the frontier, giving additional railway communication with Czernowitz.

4. A line from Bucarest to Faurei in the department of Buzău, tapping an important part of the plain of Wallachia.

5. A line from Bârlad eastward, crossing the Pruth at Falciu to join the new line from Leipzigskaya to Akkerman and Odessa.

The locomotives used on the Rumanian railways are designed to burn a mixture of coal (brown lignite) or wood with oil fuel. The use of oil fuel on the railways has increased in 20 years from 500 to 152,000 tons per annum; and the stations are now equipped with oil storage reservoirs. The consumption of lignite in 1909 was 126,621 tons and of imported coal 15,855 tons. The value of the rolling stock increased from 28,000,000 lei in 1887 to 114,714,000 lei in 1911. It is stated that in 1915 the rolling stock consisted of 921 engines, 1,498 carriages, and 23,930 wagons. In spite of the increase of the rolling stock there have been continual complaints

of its insufficiency to meet growing requirements. In 1912 a number of productive wells were compelled to shut down owing to lack of transport for the oil.

The number of trains run on the State Railways for the year 1910–11 was 181,786, and the total number of passengers carried was 10,233,000, of which 3·7 per cent. were first-class, 14·4 per cent. second-class, and 81·9 per cent. third-class passengers. The mean revenue per passenger was 3·26 lei.

The following figures show the increase in revenue from the State Railways in recent years:

	Cereals and flour.		*General merchandise.*	
Year.	*Metric tons.*	*Revenue, lei.*	*Metric tons.*	*Revenue, lei.*
1901–2	2,309,143	14,365,999	2,280,647	19,494,115
1902–3	2,339,351	14,666,311	2,290,030	20,267,776
1903–4	2,276,349	14,578,978	2,681,012	22,563,404
1904–5	1,429,729	8,990,015	2,762,967	22,040,618
1905–6	2,437,587	16,084,354	3,254,226	27,290,491
1906–7	2,495,912	16,356,781	3,525,145	29,373,648
1907–8	2,271,450	14,745,238	4,426,964	34,802,536
1908–9	1,692,510	10,594,362	4,624,903	32,421,750
1909–10	1,983,024	12,781,086	4,899,087	35,441,193
1910–11	2,983,990	18,515,455	5,191,083	38,091,262

The total gross revenue from all sources per kilometre of line for the year 1910–11 was 28,323 lei, and the expenses per kilometre of line, 17,579 lei.

(*d*) *Ports on the Danube*

CERNAVODA.—On the right bank of the Danube, 186 miles above Sulina. The population is 5,750. The town stands just below the King Carol Bridge which carries the railway from Bucarest to Constanza. There is a short line from the town to a junction on the main line called Seligni. The town possesses a harbour just below the railway bridge on the right bank and an anchorage opposite near the left bank.

Industries.—A cement factory, an oil refinery, joinery works, and factories for making screws; also stone

works and bakeries. The town possesses a post office, telegraph, and telephone. For the ten years 1902–11 its imports averaged ·4 per cent. and its exports ·6 per cent. of the import and export trade of Rumania.

SILISTRA.—On the right bank of the Danube, 234 miles above Sulina. The population of 12,000 consists mainly of Bulgarians and Turks. The town, which is a steamer station, was ceded to Rumania by Bulgaria in 1913. The nearest railway is at Calarasi on the other side of the Danube, 12 kilometres away.

Industries.—Cereals, wood, wine, tobacco, steam mills, tanneries, and cloth factories. It is the centre of a large agricultural district, and there is much forest and some pasture. The town possesses a bank, a post office, telegraph, and telephone.

GIURGIU.—On the left bank of the Danube, 306 miles above Sulina. The population is 20,629. There is a steamer station above the town, which is only available for summer use.

Industries.—Export of timber, grain, petroleum, and salt; import of coal, iron, and textiles; large steam saw-mills. There is a ferry to Ruschuk, a Bulgarian town on the right bank of the Danube, 5 kilometres south-west of Giurgiu, from whence there is railway communication with the interior of Bulgaria and the important Bulgarian seaport of Varna on the Black Sea. Giurgiu is connected by railway with Bucarest (67 kilometres), and with Blejești, to the north-west. The water-supply is stated to be not above suspicion. There is a post office, telegraph, and telephone. For the ten years 1902–11 the imports of Giurgiu averaged 2·4 per cent. and the exports 5·2 per cent. of the import and export trade of Rumania.

TURNU-MAGURELE.—On the left bank, 372 miles above Sulina. The population is 10,500. The town is the capital of the department of Teleorman.

Industries.—Large factories and workshops, including an agricultural implement factory, and linen, aerated water, furniture and brick factories. There is also a considerable export of corn to Brăila. The town is lighted by electricity and possesses a boulevard and 52 streets. There is a railway to Costeşti (118 kilometres) and a ferry to the Bulgarian fortress of Nikopol. For the ten years 1902–11, the imports of Turnu-Magurele averaged ·5 per cent. and the exports 4·8 per cent. of the import and export trade of Rumania. The town has a post office, telegraph, and telephone.

Corabia (New Corabia).—On the left bank, 395 miles above Sulina. The population is 9,124. The town possesses a harbour and two lumber sheds.

Industries.—A brick factory, quarries, and three power mills. There is a post office, telegraph, and telephone, and a railway north to Piatra (75 kilometres) on the main line from Craiova to Bucarest. For the ten years 1902–11 the imports of Corabia averaged ·3 per cent. and the exports 4·9 per cent. of the import and export trade of Rumania.

Calafat.—On the left bank, 495 miles above Sulina. Population 7,000. A steamer station.

Industries.—Fishing and corn trade, three mills, and two brick-kilns. There is a railway to Craiova (106 kilometres), and also a steam ferry to Vidin, in Bulgaria, which is connected by railway with the interior of Bulgaria. The town has a post office, telegraph, and telephone. For the ten years 1902–11 its imports averaged ·6 per cent. and its exports 5·7 per cent. of the import and export trade of Rumania.

Gruia.—On the left bank, 529 miles above Sulina. Population 1,516. There is a landing pier and ferry.

Industries.—Brick-yards, a glass factory, and a water-mill. This town is proposed as the Rumanian terminus of the railway from Craiova which is to cross the

Danube into Serbia at this point, thereby giving a railway outlet through Serbia to the Aegean Sea. There is a post office, telegraph, and telephone.

TURNU-SEVERIN.—On the left bank, 580 miles above Sulina. Population 23,643. A steamer station.

Industries.—Trade in live stock, preserved meat, petroleum, cereals, leather, and chalk. There are two mills and a machine shop, and large Government shipyards for building steamers, lighters, and tugs. Turnu-Severin, a modern commercial town situated on the main line from Orsova to Craiova and Bucarest, is the capital of the department of Mehedinți, and the seat of the Rumanian Customs House. It possesses a good and plentiful water-supply, electric light, a post office, and a telegraph and telephone system. There are cattle-wharves to the west of the town. For the ten years 1902–11 the imports averaged 3·5 per cent. and the exports 1·5 per cent. of the import and export trade of Rumania.

(*e*) *Danube Steamship Service*

The following are the chief companies operating on the Danube:

The *Rumanian River Service*, which owns 11 passenger boats, 11 tugs, 87 barges of from 100 to 1,500 tons capacity, 14 tanks for petroleum, and 11 pontoons.

The *Russian Danube Steam Navigation Company*, which owns 12 steamers of a maximum draught of 15 feet.

The *Austrian Danube Steam Navigation Company*, which owns 80 paddle tugs, 43 passenger boats, 11 screw steamers, and 834 iron barges of an average capacity of 520 tons.

The *Hungarian Company for River and Sea Navigation*, which owns 14 paddle steamers for passenger

traffic, 48 tugs, and 298 iron barges of between 175 and 1,000 tons capacity.

There are also 80 tugs, 579 iron barges ranging from 700 to 1,600 tons capacity, and 37 floating elevators privately owned.

The river traffic on the Danube consists of passenger traffic between Serbian or Austrian and Rumanian or Bulgarian ports, and freight traffic (*a*) between Rumanian ports on the Danube and Brăila, Galatz, and Sulina, where cargoes are trans-shipped to ocean-going vessels; (*b*) between Austrian and Serbian ports and the ports of Brăila, Galatz, and Sulina, with cargoes for trans-shipment; and (*c*) from Russia, Rumania, and Bulgaria to Austria and Serbia.

The freight and passenger traffic on the Danube is very largely in the hands of the Austrian Danube Steam Navigation Company, but the Rumanian River Service has in recent years made great progress in competition with other lines trading on the Danube. It is assisted by a reduction in railway rates on goods landed by it for transport by the Rumanian railways, and by a reduction of 50 per cent. in railway rates on German lines on goods carried by it to Serbian, Bulgarian, and Rumanian ports. The boats of the Rumanian Service are mostly built at the Government yard at Turnu-Severin, though some of the steamers are sent farther up the river to have their engines put in.

The river traffic on the Danube shows a steady annual increase, the number of ships which entered Rumanian river ports for the years 1909, 1910, and 1911 being respectively 28,969, 33,976, and 35,054.

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

In 1913–14 there were in Rumania 3,087 post offices, which dealt with a total of 181,426,000 letters, postcards, newspapers, &c. There were also 3,143 telegraph

offices, which dealt with 4,863,000 messages. The length of the lines at that date was 25,308 kilometres. The telephone service is divided into urban and inter-urban systems. In 1913 there were 1,615 kilometres of line in use on the urban systems, and 38,894 kilometres of line on the inter-urban systems. The number of subscribers in that year was approximately 16,000, and about 22,000,000 messages were sent.

(2) External

(*a*) *Maritime Ports*[1]

Brăila.—On the left bank of the Danube in the district of the same name, 107 miles above Sulina. The population is 62,545, of which about 11,000 are Jews. The British colony numbers about 40.

The river is very deep here; at the entrance of the basin and along the quay the depth varies from 15 to 42 feet at different periods of the year. The length of quay along the river is 2,000 ft., and an additional quay, 1,000 ft. in length, is under construction. There are also large docks to the north of the town. The quays are equipped with fixed and floating grain-elevators and fixed and movable cranes. Besides the Customs warehouse, there are other warehouses of a total capacity of at least 25,000 tons.

The town possesses electric light, the principal streets are paved, and there are electric tramways, one of which goes to Lake Sarat, 8 kilometres south-west of the town, where there are medicinal iodine and sulphur springs. There is railway communication with Galatz to the north (32 kilometres), and with Buzău, on the line to Bucarest, to the south-west (133 kilometres).

Industries.—Paper-mills, rope, candle, soap, starch,

[1] For the Danube River Ports see above, p. 81.

nail and wire factories, saw-mills, a tannery, and flour-mills.

Brăila is the centre of the grain export trade of the Danube, practically all shipments made at Galatz and Sulina being for the account of firms whose head-quarters are at Brăila. In addition there is a large import of general merchandise and coal. Incoming cargoes are discharged at the dock, but the bulk of cargoes for export are loaded in the river from barges. The following table shows the number of ships and total tonnage which entered the port in the years 1906–11:

	1906.	*1907.*	*1908.*	*1909.*	*1910.*	*1911.*
No. of ships	652	569	498	575	713	703
Tonnage	935,696	839,426	745,099	876,250	1,089,449	1,100,182

For the ten years 1902–11 the imports of Brăila averaged 19·6 per cent. and the exports 23·1 per cent. of the total import and export trade of Rumania.

Galatz (Galați).—On the left bank of the Danube, 93 miles from Sulina, in the department of Covurlui. The population is 71,641, of which 12,000 are Jews. The British colony numbers about 50.

The area of the docks is 20 acres, the length of the quays is 1,640 ft., and the depth of water at the entrance varies between 15 ft. and 42 ft. There is a wet dock 1,640 ft. in length, 395 ft. in width and 16½ ft. in depth; a floating dock 262 ft. by 55 ft.; and a Government dock 167 ft. in length. The quays can accommodate vessels drawing 24 ft. Larger vessels must anchor in deeper water and be loaded by means of gangways and shoots. The quays are equipped with a movable and a fixed crane and two elevators, but they are narrow, with no very great accommodation for stores. The town has an abundant supply of pure water laid on by hydrants, electric light and gas, and electric trams.

There is railway communication north to Bârlad and

Jassy, and south, *via* Brăila, to Buzău and Bucarest (262 kilometres), and to Feteşti, whence there is railway communication with Bucarest and Constanza.

Industries.—Chemical manufactures, saw-mills, flour-mills, rope-works, metal-works, wire, soap, nail and candle factories. There are also a petroleum refinery and extensive fisheries. The trade of the port is the export of timber and cereals and the import of general merchandise. It is, moreover, the most convenient outlet for wood from Transylvania, Galicia, and Bukovina, but it suffers in competition with the Russian port of Odessa, to which the freights on the Russian railways are much lower. For the ten years 1902–11 the imports of Galatz averaged 19·1 per cent. and the exports 12·7 per cent. of the total import and export trade of Rumania.

Galatz is the head-quarters of the International Commission of the Danube.

Constanza (Constanța).—In the Dobruja, on the Black Sea. The population is 16,000. The British colony numbers about 35.

The depth of water at the harbour bar is from 18 to 20 ft., and alongside the quays 20 ft. Constant dredging operations are necessary to prevent the harbour being silted up with mud discharged into the Black Sea by the Danube. There are coal wharfs, timber wharfs, a petroleum basin, 36 State-owned petrol storage tanks with a capacity of 5,000 cubic metres, and 45 storage tanks, privately owned, of a total capacity of 132,000 tons. The value of the land in the neighbourhood of the town has increased enormously in recent years. There is one large hotel and several small ones, a casino, gas and electric light supply, and a water-supply from the Danube.

Constanza is the only ice-free port of Rumania, and has been largely built with Government money.

Being at the terminus of the railways from Bucarest and Buzău, which unite to cross the Danube at Cernavoda, it does a very large trade in the export of cereals and petroleum.

For the ten years 1902–11 the imports of Constanza averaged 15·3 per cent. and the exports 17·5 per cent. of the total import and export trade of Rumania.

SULINA.—At the mouth of the central channel of the Danube. The population, which is a very mixed one, is 7,347. The British colony numbers about 20.

The town possesses a lifeboat station, two lighthouses, several big factories and workshops, a large coal wharf, and accommodation for repairing ships, but there is no railway. The length of quays is about 2 miles. There are elevators for loading and unloading cereals and coal. The depth of water at the bar is 24 ft., and sea-going vessels can come alongside the quays on both sides of the river. Cargoes are usually discharged on to the quay-side and loaded from lighters in the river. There is a road 20 ft. broad on the southern bank leading to Tulcea. The following table shows the number of ships loaded at the port in the years 1906–10:

	1906.	*1907.*	*1908.*	*1909.*	*1910.*
No. of ships	417	435	273	157	365
Tonnage	909,898	956,131	526,011	248,423	720,717

For the ten years 1902–11 the imports of Sulina averaged 2·5 per cent. and the exports ·14 per cent. of the total import and export trade of Rumania. This does not, however, represent accurately the amount of trade done by the port, as the bulk of the exports and imports are consigned from or to up-river ports and are only trans-shipped at Sulina, and therefore do not appear in the trade returns.

BALCHIK (Rumanian BALCIC).—This small port on the south-east coast of the Dobruja was ceded to Rumania by the Treaty of Bucarest in 1913. It is

stated to be merely an open roadstead, with unsafe anchorage and only small facilities for dealing with cargo. It has since the war been connected by rail with the town of Dobrich, and if developed would serve an important area. According to Bulgarian official figures the trade of the port for 1910 and 1911 was as follows:

	Sailing vessels.	*Tonnage.*	*Steamers.*	*Tonnage.*	*Cargo in tons.*	*Passengers.*
			Entered.			
1910	299	7,214	220	93,526	8,644	1,403
1911	195	5,327	249	137,877	7,157	2,209
			Cleared.			
1910	296	7,190	219	91,440	41,505	1,561
1911	195	5,327	249	137,250	70,608	2,563

(*b*) *Shipping Lines*[1]

In normal times the principal steamship lines trading with Rumania were:

The *Rumanian State Maritime Service* (see below).

The *Johnston Line* from Liverpool and Antwerp, which maintained a regular service in general merchandise.

The *Austrian Lloyd Steam Navigation Company*, which maintained a fortnightly service between Trieste and Odessa.

The *Hungarian Levant Line*, which maintained a fortnightly service between Constantinople and the Danube, calling at Constanza.

The *German Levant Line* from Hamburg and Antwerp, with a service once a month.

The *Russian Steam Navigation Company*, which maintained a service between Odessa and Alexandria, calling at Rumanian ports once a month.

[1] For the Danube River Services see above, p. 84.

The *Società Nazionale di Servizi Marittimi*, which ran weekly between Rumanian and Italian ports, except in winter.

Other lines running irregularly to Rumanian ports were the *Bell Line*, the *Westcott & Laurance Line*, and the *Fraissinet Line*.

In 1913 the *America-Levant Line* had direct sailings every two or three weeks from New York to Brăila and Constanza.

The *Rumanian State Maritime Service* consisted before the war of five mail steamers, fitted with wireless, with an average speed of 18 knots and a gross tonnage of from 1,600 to 3,400, and seven cargo boats, which plied between the Danube ports of Rumania and Antwerp and Rotterdam. The mail service (which is called the *Oriental Line*) maintained a bi-weekly service between Constanza and Alexandria, calling at Constantinople, Smyrna, and Piraeus. The line was run in connexion with the Orient Express from Ostend *via* Berlin and Bucharest to Constanza, which in recent years has carried a considerable number of passengers. Of the passenger traffic through the port of Constanza shown in the following table, the share of the Rumanian Maritime Service was considerably over 90 per cent. :

Year.	*Passengers landed.*	*Passengers embarked.*
1910 . .	20,541	17,516
1911 . .	23,756	23,217
1912 . .	22,996	25,435
1913 . .	26,591	29,762

The cargo service (which is called the *Occidental Line*) did a fair trade in cereals to Belgium and Holland.

Merchandise imported into Rumania by the Rumanian cargo-boat service profits by a reduction of 25 per cent. on the normal railway freight rates and 15 per cent. on the tariffs for special goods : a similar reduction also applies to the trans-shipment charges.

In spite of this, the Rumanian Maritime Service has been run at a loss for many years, only six of the last twenty years showing a favourable balance; and a proposal was on foot in 1911 to sell the lines to a company to be organized under Rumanian law and to receive a subsidy from the Government for maintaining the lines under the Rumanian flag. It was proposed that this company should be formed with German capital and should be under German control. The steamship lines would in that event be run in connexion with the German railway systems in course of construction in Asia Minor, thus giving Germany an additional link with Asia Minor and the Middle East. The proposal had not matured before the outbreak of the European War.

(c) *Telegraphic Communication*

The only cable connexion between Rumania and the outside world is the line from Constanza to Constantinople. There is a wireless station at Constanza.

(B) INDUSTRY [1]

(1) Labour

(a) *Labour Conditions*

The Rumanian peasant is underfed and, while fairly industrious, works in a somewhat listless manner; though capable of vigorous bursts of energy, he is as a rule not equal to a continuous steady effort. He is unambitious and unthrifty, and generally content to live in a state of squalor. Labour is easily obtained, and as a rule is cheap. In agricultural districts the wages vary between 80 bani (7½*d.*) and 1 leu 20 bani (11½*d.*) a day for male labour and 70 bani and 1 leu a day for female labour. In industrial districts good

[1] For the advantages provided by the industrial legislation of 1887 and 1906, see below under 'Customs and Tariffs', p. 128.

wages are paid, e.g. Rumanians working in the oil-fields were, before the war, earning 10 lei per day as drillers, 3 lei 40 bani per day as labourers underground, and 2 lei 50 bani per day as surface labourers; female labour was also used at the rate of about 2 lei per day.

(*b*) *Emigration*

A considerable amount of emigration to the United States takes place. From 1900 to 1911 the following numbers of Rumanians were admitted to the United States: 1900, 398; 1901, 761; 1902, 2,033; 1903, 4,740; 1904, 4,364; 1905, 7,818; 1906, 11,425; 1907, 19,200; 1908, 9,629; 1909, 8,041; 1910, 14,199; 1911, 5,311. The following are more detailed figures for the period 1912–15, showing (*a*) the numbers of Rumanians who entered the United States, (*b*) the numbers of Rumanians who departed from the United States:

	Admitted to U.S.A.			*Left U.S.A.*		
Year.	*Total.*	*Male.*	*Female.*	*Total.*	*Male.*	*Female.*
1912	8,329	6,752	1,577	5,824	5,363	461
1913	13,451	10,373	3,078	3,156	2,859	345
1914	24,070	19,748	4,322	3,837	3,359	478
1915	1,200	852	348	899	789	113

Excluding Rumanians permanently settled in territories immediately adjoining Rumania, small numbers of Rumanians have migrated to the south of Bulgaria and the north of Macedonia. These settlements are of comparatively recent origin, not older than the eighteenth century. How far such movements may have continued is not known, but they had probably greatly diminished before 1914 and have now almost certainly ceased. Speaking generally there seems to be little inducement or tendency for Rumania to exhibit any considerable or regular flow of emigration, especially as the country is not populated up to its economic possibilities.

(c) *Immigration*

Figures regarding present immigration cannot be given, but Rumania has always attracted foreign settlers. The Rumanian Jews nearly all came originally from Austria and the Polish provinces of Russia. This immigration first became considerable in the nineteenth century, when the number of Jews in Moldavia doubled between 1831 and 1838. The migration of Jews from Moldavia into Wallachia began after 1860. At that date there were in Wallachia 9,234 Jews, forty years later there were 65,000. Together with Greeks and Armenians the Jews form about two-thirds of the commercial and industrial classes of Rumania. Apart from those Bulgarians who have permanently settled in Rumania, there was before the war a large number of immigrant Bulgarians to all parts of Rumania, especially to the neighbourhood of the towns and large villages of the plains. Turks, Tatars, Russians, Greeks, and Armenians have also established colonies. The Greeks, on making a competency, frequently emigrate; the Armenians are more stable residents. Germans are found in three distinct groups: (1) those who have immigrated from the old Saxon settlements in Transylvania; (2) German colonists of the Dobruja; (3) Germans who have come more recently.

(2) Agriculture

The total area of arable land in Rumania in 1909 was (according to the *Anuarul Statistic al Romaniei*) 7,998,890 hectares, or just over 60 per cent. of the whole area of the country. Of this area 7,826,796 hectares were arable or pasture land, the remainder being utilized for the cultivation of vines, plums, &c. In 1913 the Treaty of Bucarest added about 772,000 hectares to the country, the greater part of which is arable land.

Agriculture forms the industry of about 80 per cent. of the population in Rumania. Before the country received its Constitution in 1866, the land was almost entirely in the hands of large landed proprietors, and the position of the Rumanian peasants was that of serfs. Since 1868 the Rumanian Government has nominally aimed at encouraging the purchase of land by the peasants; and, in order to finance the purchases, agricultural credit institutions have been formed by the State. In spite of this, statistical returns show that in 1911 only 3,153,645 hectares out of a total of 7,826,796 hectares devoted to agriculture were held in properties not exceeding 10 hectares in extent, and that 3,810,351 hectares were held in properties of upwards of 100 hectares. In the departments of Brăila, Ialomița, and Teleorman the average holding amongst the large proprietors was 2,120, 1,805, and 1,214 hectares respectively. The statistics for 1914 show that the total area held by small proprietors had only increased by 163,506 hectares, whilst the area devoted to agriculture had during the same period increased by 138,934 hectares.

The agrarian question has always been one of great importance in Rumania, and successive Governments have been elected on promises of a popular agrarian policy, but practically nothing has as yet been accomplished. The electors to the Senate consist of the most prosperous part of the population, whose interest it is not to distribute but to retain the lands which they possess.[1] So recently as July 14, 1917, the Senate, by 70 votes out of a house of 84 members, rejected

[1] The frequency of peasant risings (cf. above, pp. 42, 70) shows how ineffectual has been the agrarian legislation of the latter part of last century, which aimed at the restoration of alienated land to landless peasants and the fixing of maximum rents and of a minimum wage for labourers.

a bill which had been adopted by the Chamber of Deputies by a majority of 120 votes to 14, providing for agrarian reform and universal suffrage.

Some years ago the State started agricultural colleges in different parts of the country for instruction in the technical side of all branches of agriculture and fruit-farming. There are to-day 17 such schools in existence. In addition to this, the Crown Domains, which consist of 12 estates, exercise great influence as model establishments. The systematic encouragement of a proper system of husbandry, together with instruction in branches of industry to ensure a profitable treatment of agricultural produce, has been very beneficial.

One of the consequences of the extremely hot summers is that the Rumanian harvest is exceptionally early; properly speaking it begins in June, though the rape crop is gathered as early as May. The winter crops (wheat and winter barley) are gathered by the end of June and the spring crops (oats and barley) by the end of July. The maize crop is not gathered until November, as it is not allowed by the Government to be gathered before it is 'cured'. If gathered and used for food before then, it is likely to cause sickness. Preparation for the sowing of the 'winter crop' begins in August, and sowing goes on until November. The winter crop consists of wheat, rape, and a small quantity of barley. The spring crops (oats and barley) are sown as soon as the frost breaks. The corn crops other than maize are exported in the autumn; the bulk of the maize crop is not exported until the spring after it has been gathered, and the small quantity which is exported in the autumn is usually mixed with old maize in order to disguise it.

The ground is very fertile, and very little use is made of artificial manure as an agent of production.

(*a*) *Products of Commercial Value*

The chief corn crops, maize, wheat, barley, oats, and rye, together with colza, linseed, and rape, are cultivated throughout the country except in the mountainous districts, but the largest production comes from the valleys of the Pruth and Sereth in Moldavia and the plains of the Danube in Wallachia. The cultivation of sugar-beet and tobacco has increased considerably in recent years, upwards of 25,000 hectares being now devoted to these crops. The bulk of the fruit is grown in the provinces which lie on the southern slopes of the Transylvanian Alps. The area devoted to the production of plums is about 70,000 hectares, and to vines about 83,000 hectares. The latter are chiefly cultivated in the valleys of the Sereth and Pruth. A large quantity of the productive land in the neighbourhood of the rivers is utilized as pasture; the area under grass (natural and artificial pastures) in 1907 was 578,638 hectares.

Maize and Wheat.—By far the most important of Rumanian crops are maize and wheat. Normally more than two-thirds of the total area utilized in the production of cereals is devoted to these two crops. The total production of maize is as a rule greater than that of wheat, but, as maize forms a very large portion of the diet of the peasants, the proportion available for export is always considerably less. Notwithstanding this Rumania is a great exporter of maize, and for the period 1909–14 her average annual export of that crop was second only to that of the Argentine. The actual figures are:

	Metric tons.[1]
Argentine	3,193,900
Rumania	1,193,800
United States of America	1,010,100
Russia	718,900
Hungary	328,700

[1] 1 metric ton = 1,000 kilograms or ·98 of a ton.

As regards the export of wheat, Rumania occupies the fifth place for the same period, the annual averages being :

	Metric tons.
Russia	4,348,900
Canada	2,124,200
Argentine . . .	2,118,200
United States of America .	1,677,200
Rumania . . .	1,353,100
India	1,277,900

The cultivation of barley and oats has increased in recent years, but that is rather at the expense of other crops, such as rye, colza, and linseed.

Statistics of the cultivation, production, and yield of the principal crops from 1905 to 1914 are shown in Table I in the Appendix.

Tobacco.—The cultivation of tobacco has increased in recent years, as is shown by the following figures :

	Area under cultivation.	*Production.*
	Hectares.	*Metric tons.*
1901	4,552	2,904
1905	7,717	3,944
1911	9,992	9,303

The export of tobacco of various kinds in 1911 amounted to 1,141 metric tons, against an import of 385 tons.

(*b*) *Forestry*

A considerable extent of the country, particularly in the neighbourhood of the Carpathians, is still under forest. The area (including land under scrub) amounts to at least 2,690,000 hectares, of which over 1,000,000 hectares belong to the State, 125,000 to the Communes, 71,000 to the Crown Domains, while nearly 1,500,000 are privately owned. The timber obtained consists of oak, beech, fir, elm, poplar, and alder. Of the total area under forest only about 220,000 hectares are being

exploited commercially, and systematic forestry has only been introduced in recent years. There is still a considerable waste by reckless lumber dealers who have no interest in the proper cutting of the forests.

Statistics show that the export of wood from Rumania has increased in the last ten years from a value of 14,887,000 lei to over 24,000,000 lei, but in the same period the import of wooden manufactures has increased from 2,754,000 lei to 15,000,000 lei. There is, therefore, a good opening for the development of the manufacture of wooden articles in the country.

(c) *Land Tenure*

Under the Rumanian Law of Inheritance each child is entitled to a portion out of the land owned by its father. Owing to the great lack of education of the peasants and the absence of any system of registration of title, it became impossible to obtain a good title to land, as there were always numerous persons claiming an interest in each piece of land. To get over this difficulty a system of 'consolidation' was introduced in 1900, under which no lease or transfer of land is operative unless and until it has been 'consolidated', which is the name given to the formalities whereby the transfer of the property is entered on the records of the tribunal having jurisdiction in the locality where the land is situate.

(3) Fisheries

This industry is owned by the State. Owing to uneconomical exploitations of the fishing grounds and the damage caused by steam navigation, the industry, which in 1880 was of considerable importance, declined to such an extent that in 1893 the import of fish was six times as great as the export.

[1] See also above under 'Agriculture', p. 95.

In 1895 a close period was introduced by legislation, and strict supervision has since been exercised by the State, with the result that the industry is again becoming of importance. The lower reaches of the River Danube and the large lakes and lagoons are the sources of supply; and there are important fish markets at Galatz, Tulcea, Brăila, Bucarest, and Craiova. The fisheries are partly administered directly by the State and partly let on lease.

The chief fish is the carp, which attains a remarkable size, often weighing as much as 20 kg. It is of a much better flavour than the ordinary pond carp. Other species are sturgeon, sterlet, mullet, perch, and tench, and oyster culture is being encouraged. Rumanian caviare, which is large and of grey colour, finds a ready market, and the bulk of it is exported to Germany. The chief export of fish is to Austria and Turkey.

(4) Petroleum

The petroleum industry in Rumania has only of recent years developed into a business of magnitude, although the production of petroleum has been carried on on a small scale for many years. It is stated by experts that the Rumanian oil-fields may be regarded as practically continuous from the Serbian frontier on the Danube to the Bukovina. At present petroleum is being produced in four departments, viz. Prahova, Dambovița, Buzău, and Bacău. About 90 per cent. of the production comes from Prahova, where the industry is carried on in sixteen different localities, the chief of which are Moreni, Bustenari, Campina, Băicoiu, and Tintea. In Dambovița it is carried on in five, and in Bacău in four localities.

The oil is obtained partly from hand-dug wells and partly from bore-holes. In recent years the Rumanian Government has paid great attention to the

development of the petroleum industry; and a school for expert borers has been founded and the most improved methods of extraction have been adopted, among others the rotary boring system which is largely replacing the Canadian system. It is stated that the Rumanian methods of winning oil are at the present time second to none.

The following are the official returns (to the nearest thousand) of the annual production of crude oil in Rumania for the 10 years 1904–13:

Year.	*Metric Tons.*
1904	493,000
1905	605,000
1906	873,000
1907	1,112,000
1908	1,128,000
1909	1,276,000
1910	1,330,000
1911	1,520,000
1912	1,770,000
1913	1,847,000

On December 31, 1915, the winning, refining, and sale of petroleum in Rumania were in the hands of 94 companies with a total nominal capital of 536,057,998 lei and paid-up capital of 403,872,563 lei; of this the bulk is foreign money, Germany providing the greater part. The net profit made by these companies was roughly 47,173,661 lei The principal companies are:

The *Steana Romana,* which has a capital of 120,000,000 lei; this company is almost entirely German, and the controlling interest in it is held by the Deutsche Bank.

The *Astra Romana,* with a capital of 60,000,000 lei, also a German concern.

The *Rumanian Consolidated Oil Fields, Ltd.*, with a capital of £1,750,000 sterling; this is an English company.

The *Romano-Americana*, with a capital of 25,000,000 francs. All the shares of this company are held by the Standard Oil Company of America.

The *Orion*, with a capital of 20,100,000 lei; this is a Dutch company.

The *Danube Oil Trading Company of Rumania, Ltd.*, with a capital of £700,000 sterling; this is an English company.

The *Union Oil Co., Ltd.*, with a capital of £600,000 sterling, an Anglo-German concern.

The *Concordia*, with a capital of 12,500,000 lei, also an Anglo-German concern.

The *Chiciurra Oil Fields of Rumania, Ltd.*, with a capital of 12,625,000 lei.

The *United Crude Oil Producers*, with a capital of 11,678,000 lei.

Of the other companies none has a capital exceeding 10,000,000 lei.

Leases of oil lands are obtained from the peasant owners for terms up to 50 years at a nominal rent, plus a royalty on the amount of oil produced. The lessee has to undertake to make good all damage to crops caused by oil fountains, &c. Native labour is very largely used, and the employment of at least 25 per cent. of native labour is made compulsory by the industrial law of the country. Native wages range between 10 lei per day for highly skilled labour and 2·50 lei per day for labourers.

The industry has been handicapped in the past by the insufficiency of transport facilities, and during 1912 a large number of productive wells were for that reason compelled to shut down. A pipe-line had, however, been laid from Băicoiu in the Prahova district to Constanza on the Black Sea and was opened for use as far as Cernavoda on the Danube in 1916; but according to recent information this line was taken

up, during the German occupation of Wallachia, and relaid to the harbour of Giurgiu in order to facilitate the transport of oil to Central Europe. With the additional transport facilities thus afforded the petroleum industry should expand very rapidly, as the Rumanian Government has a large number of tank wagons on the railways and in addition a large fleet of barges on the Danube, which will be available for the transport of oil from those districts not served by the pipe-line. The following are the official figures, in metric tons, of the export of petroleum and its products for the 10 years 1904–13:

	Crude, fuel, &c.	*Kerosine.*	*Benzine.*	*Total.*
1904 . .	44,516	77,064	36,403	157,983
1905 . .	48,709	116,322	45,983	211,014
1906 . .	52,548	193,774	70,032	316,354
1907 . .	76,580	256,306	84,241	417,127
1908 . .	75,032	258,322	120,451	453,805
1909 . .	48,951	257,629	106,516	413,096
1910 . .	114,435	334,080	122,403	570,918
1911 . .	227,790	317,645	121,854	667,289
1912 . .	313,580	348,145	171,161	832,886
1913 . .	374,258	412,209	233,532	1,029,999

The use of oil fuel for industrial purposes has largely increased in Rumania in recent years, and nearly all the locomotives in use on the railways are constructed to use as fuel a mixture of petroleum and coal, coke or wood; statistics show that, whereas in 1893 only 500 tons of oil were used on the railways, in 1909–10 152,000 tons were used. The stations are being equipped with large reservoirs.

The refining industry is carried on either in the neighbourhood of the oil-fields or at large distributing centres such as Bucarest, Ploeşti, Cernavoda, Galatz, Băicoiu, and Constanza. The following figures show the expansion of the refining industry and of the use of petroleum products in the country in recent years:

	1900–1.	1913.
	Metric tons.	*Metric tons.*
Petroleum refined	160,717	1,787,245
Benzine consumed in the country . . .	625	30,131
Petrol consumed in the country . . .	30,400	51,396
Residues consumed in the country . . .	55,894	560,492

In 1908 the Rumanian Government passed a law for the legal apportionment of domestic sales of illuminating oil and for the regulation of prices. The object of this legislation was to prevent the large oil companies from combining to fix the prices of illuminating oil in the domestic market, and ousting the small trader by cutting prices. The apportionment of domestic sales is in general based on the rated annual capacity of crude oil consumption, assisted by a rough sliding scale by means of which small refineries obtain a larger proportionate share of the domestic trade than the larger refineries. The Finance Ministry determines each year the total domestic requirements of illuminating oil, and informs each refinery of the quantity allotted to it for the year. All other refined oil produced must be exported or stored under Government control. The maximum domestic selling prices are fixed by the Government on the basis of the average price of crude oil, with an addition of from 3·50 lei to 4·50 lei for cost of refining and profit. The price may be changed every three months, the refineries being notified by the Council of Ministers.

(5) Minerals

There is no official information as to the minerals in Rumania. Although a commission was appointed in 1908 to investigate and report on the country's mineral resources, no report has yet been issued. Other information available is largely theoretical.

Amber exists in considerable quantities in Buzău

and on the banks of the Danube, where it is found in the rivers after the spring torrents.

Coal.—Beds of anthracite crop out in various parts of the country. It is mined at Schela in the department of Gorji, and is also found at Moroieni in the department of Dambovița and at Baia de Fer in Valcea.

Bituminous coal is found in different parts of the country, and it is stated that there are extensive beds in the Dobruja.

Lignite (inferior 'brown coal'), mixed with petroleum residues, is largely used for fuel on the railways and in factories. Deposits exist in the departments of Mehedinți, Muscel, Dambovița, Bacău, Rimnicu-Sărat, Buzău, Putna, Gorji, and Prahova.

The following table gives the production of coal of all kinds in metric tons for the years 1902–12:

Years.	*Metric tons.*
1902–3	122,485
1903–4	124,858
1904–5	130,321
1905–6	144,327
1906–7	128,417
1907–8	160,786
1908–9	147,370
1909–10	165,440
1910–11	195,783
1911–12	242,027

Though there were in existence in 1910 twenty-three concessions to work coal, the industry is not in a flourishing condition, and only employs about 1,000 persons.

Copper is found in the departments of Mehedinți, Suceava, and Tulcea (in the Dobruja). At Baia, in the department of Mehedinți, are found veins of copper pyrites; the mineralized zone is extensive and continuous, but no development work has yet been done. Deposits of copper pyrites have also been found

at Altuntepe in the centre of the Tulcea district, and these had been worked extensively in places prior to the entry of Rumania into the war. Since the German occupation of the Dobruja considerable advance in the mining of this ore has been made. It is stated (*Chemiker Zeitung*, July 28, 1917) that smelting works for treating copper ores have been erected at Jassy, Bouffea, and Campania, and that about 5 tons of sulphate of copper a day are being produced.

Gold was worked in the days of the Turkish occupation of Rumania, and traces of the metal are found in the gravel in some of the rivers. It is stated that it could be recovered in appreciable quantities.

Graphite is known to exist in the departments of Suceava, Gorji, and Mehedinţi, but it is not worked commercially.

Gypsum is said to exist in large quantities in proximity to the beds of salt. It is not worked commercially.

Iron.—Iron manganese is found at Brosteni in the valley of the Bistriţa, and the ore is said to contain 35 per cent. of iron. The deposits are estimated at 12,000,000 cubic feet—36,000,000 tons. This body of ore is not yet being worked commercially. Deposits of hematite are said to exist in the departments of Suceava, Muscel, Gorji, Tulcea, and Brăila. Bog-iron has been found in the departments of Mehedinţi, Gorji, and Suceava. In 1910 there were seven concessions in existence for working iron in Rumania.

Marble and Granite.—There are large quantities of stone and building material of all kinds in different parts of the country. Most of the quarries are worked by the State. Marble is quarried in the Dobruja and in the departments of Arges, Gorji, and Mehedinţi. Excellent granite is found in the Dobruja, and there are important quarries there. The industry employs about 1,600 persons.

Mercury.—There are said to be large deposits of this metal of unsurpassed quality in the districts of Tutova, Muscel, Arges, and Valcea. They are not worked commercially.

Ozokerite occurs in the petroleum region, where there are evidences of large quantities. It is said to contain as much as 30 per cent. of resinous matter. It is being worked at Solești in Bacău.

Salt.—There are rich deposits extending for a distance of about 100 miles along the southern foot-hills of the Carpathians. Two beds at Ocnele-Mari (department of Valcea) and Târgu-Ocna (department of Bacău) are estimated to contain 600,000,000 tons. The salt is found in thick beds at a depth of from 30 to 100 feet below the surface; and it is stated that one of these contains pure rock salt from 800 to 1,000 ft. thick. The industry was being carried on as far back as 1868. It is estimated that on the basis of an annual output of 100,000 tons the deposits will last for 200 years. The industry is a Government monopoly and employs from 900 to 1,000 persons; convict labour is largely employed. The chief centres of the industry are Slănic, Târgu-Ocna, and Ocnele-Mari.

The following table gives the production of salt in metric tons for the years 1902–11:

Years.	*Metric tons.*
1902–3	105,056
1903–4	109,175
1904–5	117,450
1905–6	115,681
1906–7	124,400
1907–8	129,287
1908–9	122,978
1909–10	148,918
1910–11	130,251
1911–12	115,251

The export of rock salt (chiefly to Bulgaria, Serbia, France, and Russia) was 44,104 metric tons in 1910 and 24,452 in 1911.

Sulphur is found in proximity to the deposits of petroleum. It is not worked commercially.

(6) Other Industries

Breweries.—There are only 14 large breweries in the whole of Rumania. The best-known firms are those of Bragadir, Luther, and Oppler, all of which are situated at Bucarest. The industry could not flourish prior to 1896 owing to heavy Government and Commune duties; in that year the Government duty was reduced by one-half, and since then the production has largely increased. Rumanian beer is somewhat heavy in character. Barley for brewing it is obtained from the country, malt and wheat from manufacturers chiefly at Bucarest; hops are imported from Germany and Austria. The import of hops, the bulk of which came from Austria, amounted in 1911 to 122 metric tons, of the value of 368,000 lei. A small export trade in beer is done with Turkey and Bulgaria, and a considerable quantity is imported from Germany and Austria.

Building Materials.—This industry has increased in importance in recent years, and in 1911 there were 21 factories in different parts of the country engaged in the output of cement, bricks, glass, &c. The most important branch of the industry is the manufacture of cement, which is in demand for town improvements, waterworks, &c., and the harbour extensions at Constanza. Cement is also used to an increasing extent in the erection of modern buildings. The chief centres of the industry are Cormarnic (where there are four factories), Cernavoad, Brăila, Azuga, and Sinaia. Lime is mostly produced in the district of Muscel, the largest factory being at Câmpulung. The most important

centres of the brick-making trade are Bucarest and Jassy.

Chemical Industry.—Apart from the petroleum refineries, the most important branch of this industry is the manufacture of soap and candles. In addition to numerous small and unimportant factories, there are five large factories at Galatz, five at Brăila, three at Bucarest, and one each at Craiova and Bârlad, with an aggregate nominal capital of 1,363,000 fr. The import of soap and candles has now become insignificant, as the home demand is almost entirely supplied by the Rumanian factories.

There are two factories of chemical manure, of which one is situated at Caracal in Romaneți, six factories for the production of vegetable oil (four in Bucarest, two in Galatz), and two gunpowder factories owned by the State at Bucarest and Laculeți.

Distilleries.—Like the flour-mills, oil-mills, and breweries, the distilleries were excepted until 1906 from the benefits of the industrial law of 1887. There are between forty and fifty establishments employing over 200 hands each. Rumanian spirits are prepared mostly from maize, potatoes, and malt. All the distilleries have their own refineries, as refined spirits alone can be forwarded from the establishments. The larger houses operate with improved appliances introduced from Germany.

Electrical Industry.—This industry has been introduced only in recent years, but is making great strides in Rumania. The plant is mostly supplied by German firms. There are now important electrical works in Bucarest, Jassy, Galatz, Craiova, and Brăila. Electricity is used throughout the country for illuminating purposes, but is used for traction purposes only in Bucarest, Brăila, Galatz, and Jassy.

Flour Milling.—This industry is of long standing,

and so far back as 1876 the annual export of flour amounted to over 1,000 metric tons. There are numerous peasant mills situated on the water-courses in different parts of the country, chiefly used for milling maize, the staple food of the peasants. The number of these is stated to be about 7,500. There are also many steam mills, especially in the departments of Botoșani, Dorohoi, Doljiu, and Mehedinți, which mostly produce flour for home consumption. The milling industry did not get the benefit of the industrial law of 1887 until 1906. In recent years it has developed very rapidly. The most important mills are nearly all situated on the seaports or up-river ports of the Danube, but there are other mills of first importance at Bucarest, Jassy, Craiova, and Ploești. The export of wheat flour, which amounted in 1902 to just over 19,000,000 kilos, reached in 1911 a total of almost 78,000,000 kilos. The bulk of the trade is with the Eastern Mediterranean, especially Turkey and Egypt. It is probable that the transfer to Greece of Turkish islands in the Aegean Sea will affect this trade, as local producers will get the benefit of the Greek tariff. The flour milled is of two distinct kinds, viz. that made from Muntenian wheat and that made from the strong red wheat grown in Moldavia. The former is of poor quality, but the latter is stated to be as good as the best Hungarian flour.

Glass Manufacture.—There are five glass factories of importance in Rumania. The largest, which is owned by a German firm, is at Bogdănești, the others being at Bucarest, Botoșani, Azuga, and Lespezii. The glass manufactured in the country is of the coarser kind, and there is a good demand for glass of better quality from abroad. The value of the glass manufactures imported in 1911 was over 4,000,000 lei Sand for use in the factories is imported from the

Bukovina and Galicia, although the hills of Moldavia are composed of sand.

Meat.—At one time a considerable trade was done with Germany in the export of live cattle to that country. But the export of live animals through Hungary was prohibited in 1908. Slaughter-houses have, however, been constructed at Turnu-Severin and Burdujeni, in order to facilitate the export of meat to Central Europe, and a considerable trade is now springing up. The export of meat in 1911 (which showed a considerable advance on that of 1910) totalled 1,162 metric tons, of a value of 1,266,000 lei.

Metallurgical Industry.—Though there are according to statistical returns about 30 factories in the country engaged in the metallurgical industry, with the exception of factories for the manufacture of bolts, wire, nails, and the like, of which there are several doing a good trade, nearly all the factories included under this heading are nothing more than fitting and repairing shops. At Bucarest there is a firm of boiler-makers (a branch of a foreign concern), but its balance sheets show that it is not in a flourishing condition.

Silk.—Attempts have been made to found an industry in the manufacture of silk, and for that purpose a number of silk-worm eggs were imported in 1908. The attempts have not been successful, as it is found that there is great risk of the destruction of the mulberry leaves by drought in any but wet summers.

Sugar Factories.—There are five sugar factories and one glucose factory of importance in Rumania. The industry, despite heavy State bounties, failed to prosper in early days, and when the sugar bounties were abolished it was wrecked. In 1895 the bounties were again introduced, and the industry has since recovered and is now in a satisfactory condition. The production for 1910–11 amounted to 50,000 metric tons of sugar and

750 metric tons of glucose. The consumption of sugar in the country increased from 8,000 metric tons in 1899–1900 to 30,000 metric tons in 1910–11. The import of sugar and glucose for 1911 amounted to 900 metric tons, and during the same year nearly 6,000 metric tons were exported, chiefly to Turkey.

Tanneries.—There are between 20 and 30 tanneries in the country, and the industry is on the increase. At present it is hampered by the heavy duties on the import of hides and tannin extracts, but endeavours are being made to obtain a reduction of these duties. The import of boots and other leather goods is very considerable, and has regularly exceeded 3,000,000 lei in value for several years, and with the assistance of a Government tariff a large industry in the country and also throughout the Balkan peninsula might be developed.

Textile Industry.—The total value of the textiles produced in the country has grown rapidly in the last few years and now amounts annually to over £1,200,000. The goods made are of the cheaper kind. In spite of the fact that the duty on the import of yarns is high, no textile fabrics excepting hemp are spun in the country, and wool to the value of about £100,000 is annually exported to be sent back manufactured. The value of cotton yarn imported for use in the mills averaged during the 10 years 1902–11 over £750,000.

There are seven cloth factories, six weaving-mills for cotton and linen, six embroidery factories, eight rope works, four felt factories, and two wadding factories. These are situated mostly in Bucarest, Brăila, Ploești, Jassy, and Piatra (department of Neamtu). Only the coarser kinds of cloth are produced, such as are used for military uniforms and peasants' clothes. The demand is for very heavy clothes, and there is a large consumption of wadding, a good deal of which comes from abroad.

Wooden Goods.—The position of the industry at the present time leaves a good deal to be desired. Although there is a large industry in the sawing of timber (there are upwards of 50 large saw-mills in the country, employing thousands of hands), a large quantity of the timber, especially oak, is exported annually to France in a raw or half-worked state. The export industry is largely in the hands of German firms, which are not concerned to encourage the development of a national industry in the manufacture of wooden goods; and in this direction very little is done. There are only nine factories of any importance for the manufacture of wooden goods, and none of these is in a strong financial position. The import of cabinet-makers' wares and turnery alone amounted in 1911 to upwards of 4,000,000 lei.

(7) Water-power

Experts have calculated that the water-power available in Rumania amounts to not less than 150,000 horse-power, but very little use is yet made of this enormous energy in the industries of the country. In 1912 the power obtained by the use of water throughout the country amounted to only 8,676 h.p., representing only about 6·5 per cent. of the total power used in the country.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) Domestic

(*a*) *Towns*[1]

Bacău is the capital of the department of the same name. The population is 17,000. There is railway communication north *via* Suceava to Bukovina, north-west to Piatra, and south to Focșani.

[1] For the chief ports, see above, pp. 81, 86.

Industries.—Manufacture of paper, cloth and clothing, timber, and petroleum. There are branches of two large banks and several small banks.

BOTOȘANI is the capital of the department of the same name, on a branch of the West Moldavian railway. The population is 34,000.

Industries.—Corn and flour mills, distilleries, glass and sugar factories. There are branches of two large and three small banks.

BUCAREST is situated on the River Dambovița in the department of Ilfov. The population is 388,000, including about 50,000 Jews. The city is the seat of the Government and the residence of the King, the financial and judicial centre of Rumania, and the centre of the whole Rumanian railway system.

Industries.—The chief are manufacture of asphalt, boilers, boots and shoes, cement, candles, china, earthenware goods, and bricks. Besides distilleries, breweries, and iron-foundries, there are factories for glucose, glue, leather, paper, rope, soap, and starch, also large petroleum refineries. In addition to the eight principal banks of Rumania which have their offices in Bucarest, there are 22 smaller banks and bankers. Four newspapers, Rumanian and French, and one German, have their offices there.

CRAIOVA, in the department of Doljiu, is an important railway centre. The population is about 52,000. Craiova has railway communication west to Turnu-Severin, south-west to Calafat, east to Pitești and Bucarest, and north to the foot-hills of the Alps at Bumbești. Considerable trade is done here in agricultural products, the principal export centres being Calafat, Cetătea, and Bechetu.

Industries.—Manufacture of belting, candles, carriages, leather, lime, soap, and terra-cotta; there are also corn- and flour-mills.

JASSY is the capital of the department of the same name, and an important railway centre, as the only railway communication with Russia goes east from the town. The population is about 77,000. There are railway communications north to Dorohoi, south to Bârlad, east into Bessarabia for Odessa, and west into the plains of Moldavia.

Industries.—Manufacture of bricks, brushes, candles, furniture, rope, leather, cement, and textiles; brewing, corn- and flour-mills, and iron-foundries. There is a branch of one large bank, and there are six small banks.

PLOEȘTI, the capital of the department of Prahova, is also an important railway centre. The population is about 57,000. The town is the centre of the petroleum industry. There are railway communications south to Bucarest, east to Buzău, south-east to Slobozia and Feteşti, north-west to Campina, Sinaia, and *via* Predeal to Brasso (Kronstadt) in Transylvania, and north to Slănic and Valeni.

Industries.—Corn- and flour-mills, manufacture of candles, soap, cloth, plaster of Paris, and leather goods, distilleries and manufacture of spirits, tanneries. There are branches of three large banks and there are four small banks.

(*b*) *Chambers of Commerce*

There are ten Chambers of Commerce in Rumania, situated at Craiova, Pitești, Ploești, Bucarest, Brăila, Galatz, Focșani, Jassy, Botoșani, and Constanza, each of which has jurisdiction over certain specified departments; by this means the whole country is brought within the purview of the Chambers of Commerce. Meetings of the Chambers of Commerce are held periodically, when matters of commercial importance are discussed. All merchants and traders are entitled

to become members and to benefit from all information available at the Chamber of Commerce to which they belong. It does not appear from the returns that the most important branches of industry and commerce are properly represented in the membership of the different Chambers.

(c) *Commercial Intelligence Department*

In 1912 the Rumanian Government created, under the control of the Ministry of Industry and Commerce, a Central Bureau for the collection and supply of commercial information. The object was to furnish to merchants and traders, and to all persons wishing to trade in Rumania or any other country, information free of charge on all questions of general economic interest, and to collect and disseminate through the medium of the official publications all tenders and advertisements likely to be of interest to merchants and traders. The Department was divided into various sub-departments, each corresponding with the different Chambers of Commerce and having its head office at the same place. Commercial Attachés to the Department were appointed in various countries for the purpose of collecting and forwarding information upon commercial matters for dissemination throughout the country; and a system was instituted by means of which information might be obtained from the Department either by letter or interview. In addition it was intended that the Department should be enabled to furnish information as to the credit and reputation of merchants and traders in the country or abroad to any persons desiring information.

(d) *German Commercial Penetration*

It is only necessary to read the directory of merchants trading in the chief towns of Rumania to realize that

in all branches of commerce in that country Germans play a very large part. This is in spite of the fact that the Rumanians have always looked upon themselves as Latins, and have imbibed French ideas and customs, and largely use the French language as an alternative to their own tongue.

Although so early as 1839 there was a German colony in Bucarest of sufficient importance to warrant the Prussian and Austrian Governments taking official steps to safeguard their interests, German commercial activity in the country dates, properly speaking, from the time when a German prince was established on the throne in 1866 as the first king of a united Rumania. So early as 1840 two German newspapers had been founded in Bucarest, but the first step towards the introduction of Germans into Rumanian commercial life was taken when a German financier named Strousberg was entrusted with the construction of railways in Rumania. Dr. Strousberg was unsuccessful in his efforts, as he met with a great deal of opposition on every side, and ultimately was compelled to give up the enterprise as a failure. The money having, however, been found in Germany, and having also been guaranteed by the Rumanian Government, this failure was used by Bismarck to force the Rumanian Government to conclude a fresh arrangement with the assistance of German money.

From that time onward, with one exception, all Rumanian loans have been raised in Germany, and in 1915 Germans actually held over one third of the Rumanian public debt, which at that time amounted to upwards of £60,000,000 sterling. Of the eight large banking concerns in Rumania (exclusive of the Rumanian National Bank), four have been founded either directly or indirectly by German and Austrian money; and German capital amounts to at

least 50 per cent. of the total capital involved in Rumanian banking businesses. Germany, too, holds a very large share in almost all the branches of Rumanian industry. For instance, the manufacture of sugar from beet is almost entirely in German hands; German and Austrian capital have established two rice-cleaning mills at Brăila; Germans are largely interested in the manufacture of nails, which is almost the only flourishing metal industry in Rumania; the electrical industry is largely in German hands, as is also the milling and flour trade. In addition, Germans hold the largest interest in the petroleum industry.

This result has been brought about in several ways. In the first place, the Central European railways grant special reductions to goods destined for Rumania, the result of this being that German goods dispatched by rail are thereby enabled to compete on almost equal terms with sea-borne goods from other countries. In the second place, the German steamship lines to the East work in connexion with the Rumanian Maritime Service which runs between Constanza and Alexandria; the Atlantica Steamship Company, trading between Hamburg, Antwerp, and the Danube, is subsidized by the Austrian Government; and the Austrian and Hungarian lighter companies, also subsidized by their respective Governments, are the strongest concerns trading on the Danube. Moreover, in recent years an express service has been run from Berlin to Bucarest and Constanza in connexion with the steamers owned by the Rumanian Government; and by that means an increasing passenger traffic *via* Constanza to Constantinople and the Eastern Mediterranean has sprung up. Again, an important navigation company was formed in 1913 at Munich under the name of the Bavarian Lloyd, backed by the Deutsche Bank and various German petroleum com-

panies, the object of which was to increase the importance of the Danube as a waterway for the export of German goods. In addition, Germany has taken care to exercise all the influence possible in the country by means of German schools which are scattered all over Rumania, and of which the most important, those at Bucarest, are supervised and subsidized by the German Government. The schools are not confined to Germans residing in Rumania, but are open to Rumanians as well. By this means the German language has gradually become very widely known amongst the educated classes in the country; and, as a result, German universities attract Rumanian students in constantly increasing numbers. The German habit of forming a German society wherever a few of the nation are found together has also been instrumental in exercising a powerful social influence in the country.

In addition to these influences, German traders have for many years made it their business to send their representatives constantly about the country, and have assisted their trade also by publishing in the Rumanian language and in a form attractive to Rumanian ideas the trade circulars and catalogues of goods which are offered to the country. They also apparently go much farther than English traders in meeting the requirements of small Rumanian merchants as to the size and quality of their consignments of goods.

As a result of the increase of German influence in Rumania, there is no doubt that Germany has in recent years looked upon the Rumanian route to the Black Sea as likely to prove an important adjunct to her schemes in Asia. It is noteworthy that proposals were on foot in 1913 for the transfer of the Rumanian Maritime Service, which has for many years been run at a loss, into a private concern to be

controlled by Germans and financed with German capital. Moreover, proposals have since the outbreak of war appeared in German newspapers, which show that the Rumanian railways are intended to form part of the projected international system running from Hamburg to Bagdad.

(2) Foreign

The following tables relating to foreign trade appear in the Appendix:

Table II.—Principal articles exported, 1901–11.

Table III.—Total value of exports, distinguishing principal countries, 1901–11.

Table IV.—Percentage of value of exports taken by different countries, 1901–11.

Table V.—Percentage of quantity of exports taken by different countries, 1901–11.

Table VI.—Principal articles imported, 1902–11.

Table VII.—Percentage of value of imports from different countries.

Table VIII.—Percentage of quantity of imports from different countries.

The figures given in this report relating to export trade are taken from the *Statistical Abstract* where possible; other figures are those given in the Rumanian official publication *Comerțul Exterior al Romaniei* for 1911. The figures relating to import trade are taken from the latter publication.

In considering the external trade of Rumania it must be borne in mind that the figures for the years subsequent to 1911 are not reliable as an indication of the prosperity of the country. In the first place, the Dardanelles were closed for considerable periods in 1912 and 1913 owing to the war between Turkey and Italy and the two Balkan Wars, with the result that the export of goods from the country by sea was

greatly restricted; and, in the second place, the purchase of grain by the Rumanian Government for military purposes diverted large quantities of grain which in normal times would have gone abroad. In weight the exports of Rumania have always been considerably in excess of the imports, but down to the year 1899 the imports were invariably of greater value. Since that year, however, the export trade has, with two exceptions, invariably shown an excess in value over the import trade, the two exceptions being the years 1904 and 1908, when the Rumanian harvest was exceptionally bad. The following are the official figures:

Year.	*Exports.*	*Imports.*	*Excess exports.*	*Excess imports.*
	Fr.	*Fr.*	*Fr.*	*Fr.*
1901 . .	353,831,000	292,436,000	61,395,000	—
1902 . .	374,819,000	283,345,000	91,474,000	—
1903 . .	355,630,000	269,924,000	85,706,000	—
1904 . .	261,872,000	311,372,000	—	49,500,000
1905 . .	457,101,000	337,538,000	119,563,000	—
1906 . .	491,360,000	422,114,000	69,246,000	—
1907 . .	554,019,000	430,509,000	123,510,000	—
1908 . .	379,431,000	414,058,000	—	34,627,000
1909 . .	465,057,000	368,300,000	96,757,000	—
1910 . .	616,505,000	409,716,000	206,789,000	—
1911 . .	691,720,000	569,745,000	121,975,000	—

Rumania is a purely agricultural country, that industry forming the occupation of about 80 per cent. of the inhabitants; consequently the volume of the country's external trade depends almost entirely upon whether the harvest in the country has been good or bad.

(*a*) *Exports*

Down to the year 1911 cereals represented not less than 70 per cent. in value of the total exports of the country and, although the export of petroleum and its products increased from 57,641 metric tons in 1901 to over 667,000 tons in 1911 (see p. 103), it had only just

begun to have any appreciable effect upon the volume of the country's exports. As the harvest is far the greatest source of income of the country, a bad harvest reacts immediately upon the imports as well as on the exports. For instance, the year 1908 was an extremely bad one for the harvest, and the year 1909 was not good enough to leave any margin over for any unnecessary expenditure; consequently the value of imports fell from 430,000,000 lei in 1907 to less than 370,000,000 lei in 1909. The prosperity of the country has increased enormously in recent years, the total value of the external trade for 1911 amounting to 1,260,000,000 lei as against 475,000,000 lei in 1880, while in the period 1901–11 alone the external trade of the country was practically doubled.

The cereals exported by the country consist mainly of wheat and maize, the average quantity of these two crops exported during the eleven years 1901–11 being 1,136,994 metric tons of wheat and 832,389 metric tons of maize (see Table II). Next in importance amongst cereals is the barley crop, which for the same period showed an average export of 335,115 metric tons. Other crops in which a considerable export is done are oats, rye, linseed, millet, and beans. A considerable and increasing export trade was also being done in flour and bran. The export of wood, the bulk of which comes from Moldavia, showed some slight increase during the period 1901–11, but represented an annual value of only about 24,000,000–28,000,000 lei. The remaining exports consist chiefly of eggs, fish, hides, refined sugar, and raw wool.

Normally, the chief purchasers of Rumanian exports are Belgium, Austria, Holland, the United Kingdom, and Germany. The exports to Belgium consist almost entirely of cereals, of which a large quantity ultimately find their way to the United Kingdom. Belgium's share of the export trade has decreased since 1901,

part of the trade having been taken by Holland; it nevertheless represents an average in value of 35·9 per cent. and in quantity of 33·5 per cent. of Rumania's total export trade for the period 1901–11. The quantity taken annually by Austria depends upon the quality of the Austrian harvest. In 1904 and in 1909, when the Austrian harvest was bad, that country took over 20 and 24 per cent. in value of the Rumanian exports. In other years the percentage taken by Austria has averaged about 9 per cent. Holland's share of Rumanian exports has increased since 1903 and now averages over 15 per cent., that of the United Kingdom being rather less. The exports to the United Kingdom consist mainly of cereals, of which maize normally forms the bulk, and mineral oils. Germany, whose export trade to Rumania has of recent years been the largest, does not on the average purchase more than 6 per cent. of Rumania's exports.

(*b*) *Imports*

Since 1901 Germany has had the lion's share of the import trade into Rumania, notwithstanding the advantages of geographical position which Austria possesses (see Tables VII, VIII). During the period 1901–11 the imports from Germany into Rumania represented between 27 and 34 per cent. of the total value of Rumania's imports. The imports from Austria during the same period varied between 29 per cent. in 1904 and 22 per cent. in 1908. In point of quantity the United Kingdom has always had a large percentage of the import trade, owing to the fact that Rumania imports most of her coal from Great Britain; in point of value, however, the imports from the United Kingdom into Rumania, which were only 19·5 per cent. of the whole in 1902, have never reached that figure since then, but have shown a slight gradual decrease. These

three countries taken together normally do over 72 per cent. of Rumania's total import trade; Italy and France each do between 4 and 6 per cent., Turkey and Russia between 3 and 4 per cent. In 1911 the United States contributed 2¼ per cent.

It is shown by the Table VI in the Appendix that the chief imports into Rumania are iron and steel manufactures, machinery, cotton and linen goods, wool and woollen goods, vehicles, jute manufactures and wearing apparel, leather and leather goods, and silk manufactures.

Iron and Steel Manufactures and Coal.—The import of these goods made a great advance during the years 1902–1911 owing to the development of railways by the State, the development of industries generally, and particularly the petroleum industry, and the large sums which have been expended in urban improvements by the chief towns of the country. The imports for 1911 were valued at about 80,000,000 lei, as against 18,000,000 lei in 1901. The import of coal showed only a small increase during that period owing to the large increase in the use of petroleum and its residues as fuel.

The imports of coal and iron and steel goods (other than machinery) for 1911 were supplied by the following countries:

	Coal. *Tons.*	*Iron and Steel Manufactures.* *Tons.*
United Kingdom	194,906	41,302
Germany	24,757	94,171
Austria-Hungary	14,022	54,992
Belgium	14	19,802
Holland	5,692	2,499
France	—	1,560

Machinery.—This branch of import trade has shown a steady increase, from 15,700,000 lei in 1902 to 59,156,000 lei in 1911. The import of agricultural

machinery has largely increased of recent years with the development of systematic agriculture in the country, and in 1911 this item contributed 20,000,000 lei of the total machinery import. The following are the figures for the chief varieties of agricultural machinery imported in 1911 :

	Lei
Traction engines . .	4,187,000
Threshing machines . .	4,218,000
Drills	870,000
Reaping machines . .	8,748,000
Other machinery . .	2,023,000

The last-named item includes machinery driven by steam, gas, petrol, and electric power, in which there has been an important increase.

The imports of machinery in 1911 were divided between different countries as follows :

	Germany.	*Austria-Hungary.*	*United States.*	*United Kingdom.*
	Lei	*Lei*	*Lei*	*Lei*
Traction engines . .	1,480,226	1,041,108	19,213	1,506,580
Threshing machines .	1,087,783	1,880,806	11,188	1,195,169
Reapers . . .	550,302	7,884	7,605,914	377,799
Drills	292,469	436,344	111,213	22,686
Steam engines . .	3,581,794	1,635,305	9,958	111,930
Petrol engines . .	1,620,272	264,249	115,394	624,572
Dynamo electric engines	4,876,517	330,715	13,120	32,085
Cables	4,473,194	1,278,188	—	32,645

Vehicles.—The import of these showed in 1911 a value almost 3½ times greater than that of 1910 and 5 times greater than that of 1909. This was due to large imports of railway trucks, carriages, and motor cars. The purchases under this heading showed indeed a marked increase during the years 1902–11, averaging over 10 million lei for the years 1908–10 as against an average of just over 1,000,000 lei for the period 1902–5. The countries from which they came in 1911 were :

	Lei.
Belgium	14,857,000
Austria-Hungary	12,239,000
Germany	4,387,000
France	3,499,000
Italy	1,495,000

Cotton and Jute Yarns and Tissues.—The trade in goods of this class showed an expansion of 29 per cent. in the period 1902–11. The total for 1911 was 91,558,000 lei, imported mainly from the following countries:

	Lei.
United Kingdom	31,837,000
Austria-Hungary	18,653,000
Italy	16,252,000
Germany	15,647,000
France	2,201,000
Switzerland	2,038,000
Belgium	1,707,000
United States	1,083,000

Cotton and Jute Manufactures.—This category comprises chiefly (*a*) curtains, covers, table linen, drapery, and tissues (embroidered by hand); (*b*) jute goods; (*c*) oil-cloth, &c. Apart from the year 1911, when the import of these articles was exceptionally high, this trade has shown little expansion. These goods were supplied in 1911 mainly by the following countries:

	Lei.
Austria-Hungary	10,939,000
Germany	5,702,000
France	4,177,000
United Kingdom	3,303,000
Switzerland	1,190,000
Italy	1,121,000

Woollen Goods.—Imports under this heading consist chiefly of (*a*) woollen tissues and stuffs; (*b*) felt, hats, &c.; (*c*) natural wools; (*d*) woollen yarn. This

branch of trade also showed a steady increase during the years 1902–11, having risen from an average of 25,000,000 lei to one of 39,000,000 lei annually.

In 1911 the bulk of the imports came from the following countries:

	Lei.
Germany	22,368,000
United Kingdom	8,185,000
Austria-Hungary	11,509,000
Italy	4,292,000
France	2,670,000

Hides and Leather Articles.—Except for the year 1911, which was abnormal, the annual import of these goods was usually of a value of about 13,000,000 lei. In 1911 the imports amounted to 23,000,000 lei, supplied mainly by the following countries:

	Lei.
Germany	10,173,000
Austria	8,153,000
France	1,629,000
United Kingdom	1,473,000

Silk Goods.—This branch of trade showed a steady increase during the period 1902–11. The imports in 1911 were exceptionally high and were supplied mainly by the following countries:

	Lei.
Germany	6,063,000
France	5,005,000
Austria-Hungary	3,360,000
Switzerland	2,984,000
United Kingdom	1,916,000
Italy	1,007,000

Trees, Wood, and Wooden Manufactures.—These consist chiefly of cabinet-makers' wares, tanning substances, young vines, casks and barrels of oak, and basket work. The import of goods in this category increased largely during the period 1902–11, totalling

over 15,000,000 lei in 1911 as against 2,700,000 lei in 1902. In 1911 they were provided chiefly by :

	Lei
Austria-Hungary . .	6,348,000
Germany	3,070,000
France	1,501,000
United Kingdom . .	804,000
Italy	620,000

(c) *Customs and Tariffs*

The present customs tariff in Rumania dates from March 1, 1906. For the purpose of the tariff, articles are divided into three main headings : animals and animal products, products of the soil, and products of the subsoil.

The tariff is very wide and covers practically everything of value. It is designed to produce revenue and not to protect home industries, and therefore makes no discrimination in favour of raw materials or manufactured goods not produced in the country. The incidence of the tariff is affected by various commercial treaties with the United Kingdom, Germany, Italy, France, Austria-Hungary, Russia, Sweden, Greece, and Denmark. It is also affected by the laws for the encouragement of industry passed in 1887 and 1906, under which industrial undertakings possessing a fixed capital of at least 5,000 lei, and employing a minimum of 25 workpeople, obtain the following advantages, provided not less than two-thirds of the workmen employed are Rumanians :—

(1) A free grant in case of need of from 1 to 5 hectares as a site for a factory.

(2) Freedom from all direct taxation by the State, district, or commune.

(3) Freedom from customs duties for machinery and apparatus needed either for the erection of the factory or for running it.

(4) Freedom from customs duties for raw material not obtainable in the country.

(5) A reduction of 25 per cent. on the railway transport charges on all products of the factory.

(6) A reduction on the tax on revenue for a period of 30 years.

(7) A grant of free use of water-power for purposes of the factory.

(*d*) *Transit Trade*

Rumania's transit trade is not of great importance and is decreasing. For the period 1901–11 it averaged only 144,000 metric tons per annum. The traffic is almost entirely in goods, mainly grain and wood, consigned from and to countries contiguous with Rumania, for the transport of which the Danube is the most convenient route. A certain amount of postal traffic has arisen of recent years in connexion with the express train service from the Central European Empires to the East.

(*e*) *Trade Routes*

1. The principal trade route is the Danube, and the imports and exports *via* the mouth of the Danube, i. e. through Brăila, Galatz, and Sulina, in normal years amounted to 40 per cent. of the total trade. A large quantity of the export trade is brought down the Danube in lighters, and is trans-shipped to ocean-going vessels at one of these three ports for export abroad. In recent years Constanza has become a port of great importance for both the export and import trade; this is owing partly to its railway connexion via the Danube bridge at Cernavoda with the plains of Moldavia and Wallachia, and partly to the fact that it is the only open port on the Black Sea during January and February, when the Danube is normally ice-bound;

consequently, during the winter months the whole of the import and export trade *via* the Black Sea is done through this port.

The actual amount of export trade done by Sulina is considerably in excess of that shown in the official returns, because corn sent down in lighters from the river ports of the Danube for trans-shipment at Sulina is not included in the figures of exports from Sulina; and, as that port has no railway connexion with any part of Rumania, there is practically no consignment of goods from up country to Sulina other than that carried by lighters for trans-shipment.

2. Goods consigned to and from Galicia and the Bukovina are sent *via* Burdujeni and Czernowitz. The export by this route in normal years does not exceed 2·5 per cent. of the total export trade, but the import trade is considerably larger, and amounts on an average to over 7 per cent. of the total trade.

3. Goods consigned to or from Transylvania are sent *via* Dorna or Predeal, and to a less extent *via* the Rother Thurm Pass or Orsova. The export of goods by these routes is normally small, but the import is considerable, consisting largely of expensive goods of small weight.

4. Exports to Russia go mostly *via* the mouth of the Danube, but a considerable trade is done by rail *via* Jassy.

5. For exports and imports between Rumania and Bulgaria the Danube is the sole route, and the bulk of goods consigned to or from Bulgaria are shipped from the ports of Corabia, Turnu-Magurele, Zimnicea, and Giurgiu, and the Bulgarian ports of Ruschuk, Sistov, Lom Palanka, and Vidin.

(D) FINANCE

(1) Public Finance

The Budget of Rumania has shown a steady increase in recent years, as the following figures show :

Budget.	*Lei.*
1901–2	218,500,000
1905–6	232,620,000
1909–10	435,685,000
1913–14	536,360,050

The increase is largely due to expenditure on public works and to the increased requirements for the service of the public debt, which, as the result of a number of loans contracted for the purpose of railway and harbour improvement, rose from 1,240,000,000 lei in 1898 to 1,840,000,000 lei in 1915.

With one exception all the loans of the Rumanian Government prior to 1914 were raised in Germany, and German financiers were thereby enabled to obtain for themselves valuable collateral advantages, such as a monopoly for the manufacture of cigarette papers. It is stated that in 1915 Germans held no less than one-third of the total public debt of Rumania.

The finances of the country were in a healthy state down to the year 1912, and the annual revenue during the previous decade showed a satisfactory surplus over expenditure.

The Revenue is derived from the following principal sources :

Direct taxes :—land tax, tax on patents, licences on sale of spirits, 5 per cent. tax on salaries, tax on vines and plum orchards, &c.

Indirect taxes :—customs and excise.

State monopolies on sale of tobacco, cigarette papers, matches, playing cards, explosives, and salt.

Revenue from public services, viz. postal and

telegraph services and harbour and dock dues, profits of the Rumanian River Service.

Revenue from State domains, viz. farms, forests, fisheries, mines and quarries, sale of salt for export, sale of Government lands.

(2) Currency

Unit 1 ban.

100 bani = 1 leu, value $9\frac{3}{5}$d. or 1 franc.

25·22 lei = £1 sterling.

Gold in 12, 20, 25, 50, and 100 lei pieces.

Silver in 50 bani, 1, 2, and 5 lei pieces.

Copper in 1, 2, 5, and 10 bani pieces.

Nickel in 5, 10, and 20 bani pieces.

National Bank Notes of 5, 20, 100, 500, and 1,000 lei are in use.

In normal times the exchange on London fluctuates between lei 25·20 and 25·46 to the £1.

(3) Banks and Credit Institutions

The principal banks of Rumania are the following:

Banque Nationale de Roumanie. Capital, 12,000,000lei. Head office, Bucarest. Branches: Brăila, Craiova, Galatz, Jassy, and 27 agencies.

Bank of Rumania, Ltd. Capital, £300,000. Head office, London. Branch at Bucarest. This is an English concern. Dividends: 1911, $8\frac{3}{4}$ per cent.; 1912, $8\frac{1}{3}$ per cent.; 1913, $8\frac{1}{3}$ per cent.

Banque Générale Roumaine. Capital, 12,500,000 lei. Head office, Bucarest. London agents: the Diskonto-Gesellschaft. Branches at Brăila, Constanza, Craiova, Giurgiu, Ploești, and Turnu-Magurele. Dividend in 1912, 10 per cent. This is a German concern, and was founded in 1895 by the Diskonto-Gesellschaft and S. Bleichröder of Berlin.

Banque Commerciale Roumaine. Capital, 12,000,000 lei. Head office, Bucarest. Branches at Brăila, Craiova, Balchik, Galatz, Constanza, Ploeşti. This bank, though nominally founded in Antwerp, is an offshoot of the Darmstädter Bank, and works entirely with German capital.

Banque Marmorosch, Blank & Co. Capital, 15,000,000 lei. Head office, Bucarest. Branches at Brăila, Constanza, Giurgiu, Turnu-Magurele. London agents: Deutsche Bank, Dresdner Bank, London County and Westminster Bank. Dividends, 1909–12, 10 per cent. This bank was founded partly with Rumanian capital in conjunction with the Darmstädter Bank.

Banca Romaneasca. Capital, 25,598,000 lei. Head office, Bucarest. Branches at Brăila, Constanza, Galatz, Silistra, Tulcea. London agents: Banque Belge pour l'Étranger.

Banque Agricole. Capital, 18,500,000 lei. Head office, Bucarest. Branches in 13 large Rumanian towns. London agents: Banque Belge pour l'Étranger.

Banca Romana. Head office, Brăila. London agents: Deutsche Bank.

In addition to the foregoing there are in Rumania numbers of small private banks which have their places of business in Bucarest or other large towns.

There is also a system of credit institutions founded by the State for the purpose of assisting agriculture in the country. The following are the most important:

Crédit Foncier Rural. This was designed to assist purchases by large proprietors of Government monastic lands which were in 1873 offered for sale. By means of this the purchasers of property were enabled to leave a large portion of the purchase price on mortgage, to be amortized by annual payments over a long or short term. The Crédit Foncier Rural is now a national institution of the first importance.

Agricultural Bank. This was instituted in 1894 as a company limited by shares for the purpose of financing agricultural industry. It advances money on agricultural merchandise and products, animals, and implements.

Caisse Rurale. This was established under a law passed in 1908 to assist Rumanian peasant farmers to purchase their farms. The capital is 10,000,000 lei, of which 50 per cent. was provided by the State and 50 per cent. by public subscription. The shares are registered, and can only be held by Rumanian subjects. The institution acts as an intermediary between proprietors who desire to sell their lands and peasants who desire to buy them, and if necessary fixes the price payable by the latter. As a protection for the peasants it has a right to review bargains made by peasants with proprietors, in cases where the former appear to have been unfairly treated. The operations of the Caisse Rurale in 1910 and 1911 showed profits respectively of 420,000 lei and 639,000 lei.

Crédit Agricole. This institution was founded in 1892 with the object of advancing on loan to farmers the sums necessary for agriculture and the industries derived from it, and also to assist farmers who are in need of money to stock farms which they have purchased.

There were also in 1912 in different parts of Rumania numerous rural banks, most of which were founded since 1901. The total number of these in that year was 2,656, and the aggregate paid-up capital amounted to over 61,000,000 lei. There are also 17 artisan banks and about 300 co-operative societies of various kinds.

The prosperity of the urban population in Rumania in the years 1910–12, and the large increase of industrial activity during the same period, caused a large number

of small banks to spring into existence at that time. Apparently there is no State control over the formation of banks in Rumania; and there is no doubt that unless this tendency is checked it will lead to great financial difficulty in times when agriculture is less prosperous. Apart from this there is evidence to show that the rural banks and the co-operative societies have done much to increase the agricultural prosperity of the country, as they have enabled the small peasant farmers to purchase for co-operative use agricultural machinery which is of the greatest importance to their industry.

(E) GENERAL REMARKS

The Economic Value of the Dobruja to Rumania

The economic value of the Dobruja to Rumania, apart from the minerals which it contains and the access which it gives to the Black Sea at all seasons of the year, is not great. The Dobruja became part of Rumania by the Treaty of Berlin of 1878, being then a most unwelcome present from Russia in exchange for Bessarabia. Since that date Rumania has not done a great deal to develop the country.

As regards agriculture, the northern part of the Dobruja is not of very great value, the marshes which fringe the course of the Danube being succeeded by waterless steppe only suitable for grazing land. To the south, however, in the neighbourhood of Constanza, agriculture has been undertaken and a considerable amount is now done. Farther south, the area under cultivation is still more extensive; and the portion of the Dobruja which was given to Rumania by the Treaty of Bucarest was looked upon by Bulgaria as one of the most productive districts of the Kingdom.

A great deal of grain was exported from Varna; and the exports of grain from Balchik, all of which came from the immediate neighbourhood, averaged over 50,000 tons for the years 1910–11.

The exploitation of the minerals in the Tulcea district of the Dobruja had only recently begun when war broke out, but, as soon as the Germans had driven the Rumanians northwards across the Danube, they took immediate steps to exploit the copper deposits there; and it is stated that copper ore was produced in large quantities and exported to Germany. Though Rumania possesses other deposits of copper, these are the only deposits where any attempt has been made at commercial development. Of the other minerals in the Dobruja the most important is coal. The deposits have not yet been exploited and of their commercial value not much is known.

The real value of the Dobruja to Rumania, however, lies in the possession of the port of Constanza. That port has been made and developed by the Rumanian Government for the purpose of supplying the country with an ice-free port, of which it is in need, and without which it must be placed in a position of dependence upon its neighbours. Moreover, the port of Constanza would be of no service to Bulgaria. The produce of that part of the Dobruja which is served by Constanza is, and for many years to come will be, insignificant; and in Bulgarian hands the port would only offer means of checking the independent economic development of Rumania and would be a constant source of friction.

APPENDIX

TABLE I. PRINCIPAL CROPS

1. Area under Cultivation (in hectares). 2. *Total Yield (in quintals).* 3. Yield per Hectare (in quintals).

Crop.	*1905.*	*1906.*	*1907.*	*1908.*	*1909.*	*1910.*	*1911.*	*1912.*	*1913.*	*1914.*
WHEAT .										
1	1,958,250	2,022,843	1,714,317	1,801,685	1,689,044	1,948,217	1,930,164	2,069,420	1,623,105	2,111,730
2	*28,511,180*	*30,561,500*	*11,648,107*	*15,108,643*	*16,022,536*	*30,162,399*	*26,033,561*	*24,334,331*	*22,913,340*	*12,599,745*
3	14·6	15·1	6·8	8·4	9·5	15·5	13·5	11·8	14·1	6·0
MAIZE .										
1	1,975,761	2,081,906	1,928,592	2,020,315	2,123,473	1,986,259	2,085,251	2,079,220	2,146,971	2,065,566
2	*16,083,949*	*35,423,231*	*15,622,927*	*21,406,939*	*19,031,690*	*28,129,198*	*30,041,407*	*28,198,466*	*31,113,288*	*27,827,065*
3	8·1	17·0	8·1	10·6	9·0	14·2	14·4	13·6	14·5	13·5
RYE .										
1	161,199	183,929	146,659	147,052	136,564	173,861	131,796	107,244	90,583	84,073
2	*1,876,194*	*2,293,526*	*652,462*	*674,555*	*789,542*	*2,014,472*	*1,274,721*	*915,447*	*948,025*	*496,943*
3	11·6	12·5	4·4	4·6	5·8	11·6	9·7	8·5	10·5	5·9
BARLEY.										
1	528,758	558,700	509,693	620,190	549,186	549,391	507,201	499,885	562,539	568,422
2	*5,857,250*	*7,446,054*	*4,454,011*	*2,817,104*	*4,494,512*	*6,441,104*	*5,686,522*	*4,557,783*	*6,022,717*	*5,366,280*
3	11·1	13·3	8·7	4·5	8·2	11·7	11·2	9·1	10 7	9·4
OATS .										
1	372,730	381,914	352,468	490,338	484,504	446,760	401,415	381,785	522,149	427,506
2	*2,875,108*	*3,964,809*	*2,703,554*	*2,480,760*	*4,045,772*	*4,463,669*	*4,016,454*	*3,040,640*	*5,514,336*	*3,673,984*
3	7·7	10·4	7·7	5·1	8·4	10·0	10·0	8·0	10·6	8·6
COLZA .										
1	251,584	30,587	16,691	13,038	69,146	96,076	63,856	64,545	80,384	72,965
2	*1,850,169*	*144,921*	*35,417*	*60,280*	*347,932*	*915,348*	*418,783*	*362,753*	*518,139*	*385,738*
3	7·4	4·7	2·1	4·6	5·0	9·5	6·6	5·6	6·4	5·3
LINSEED.										
1	33,473	23,540	12,825	18,157	12,173	13,402	21,124	31,761	27,299	8,357
2	*79,147*	*134,744*	*37,495*	*42,609*	*48,501*	*85,695*	*142,289*	*182,332*	*134,447*	*39,059*
3	2·4	5·7	2·9	2·3	4·0	6·4	6·7	5·7	4·9	4·7

TABLE II. PRINCIPAL EXPORTS. VALUES (in thousands of francs).

Principal articles.	*1901.*	*1902.*	*1903.*	*1904.*	*1905.*	*1906.*	*1907.*	*1908.*	*1909.*	*1910.*	*1911.*
Cattle . . .	2,647	2,507	2,748	3,810	1,335	565	811	2,351	2,231	5,457	5,958
Cereals: Wheat .	79,593	116,655	105,806	108,710	251,342	231,523	207,256	140,378	178,402	329,619	244,824
,, Barley . .	22,736	32,021	35,930	21,490	38,744	49,306	50,802	19,674	37,446	41,196	59,848
,, Oats . .	10,208	16,271	29,968	9,971	14,446	19,142	14,318	7,095	20,338	17,042	26,386
,, Rye . .	15,792	11,286	12,539	4,890	21,933	20,419	17,005	7,695	8,872	16,015	16,606
,, Maize . .	92,916	103,795	75,000	45,142	5,107	65,774	166,766	98,569	102,716	69,597	183,218
,, Millet . .	4,652	1,964	1,798	695	105	2,126	4,311	2,458	1,729	1,679	4,227
,, Wheat flour .	7,200	3,814	4,935	2,694	9,907	14,577	10,892	5,381	6,504	12,509	18,421
,, Bran of all kinds	1,683	1,462	1,332	737	768	2,156	1,662	1,015	1,189	1,482	2,902
,, Haricots .	10,533	4,959	7,554	1,096	757	8,750	6,153	8,019	7,463	9,052	19,195
Eggs . . .	4,832	4,944	3,983	3,364	2,274	2,844	3,766	3,609	2,973	3,429	4,312
Fish . . .	4,058	5,461	4,215	2,805	2,719	1,938	2,330	3,035	2,167	1,191	1,467
Petroleum (crude, refined, and benzine)	29,982	3,742	6,084	8,776	12,137	18,636	24,298	38,041	35,302	38,066	39,888
Sugar . . .	3,599	—	—	136	1,361	936	895	1	1	232	2,019
Wood . . .	14,887	14,399	19,656	20,253	25,628	26,540	24,044	25,494	28,442	24,055	24,462
Wool (raw) . .	1,766	1,857	1,855	2,282	3,247	2,762	1,396	1,081	1,513	1,629	1,742

TABLE III. EXPORTS TO PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES (MERCHANDISE ONLY)

VALUES IN THOUSANDS OF FRANCS

Countries.	*1901.*	*1902.*	*1903.*	*1904.*	*1905.*	*1906.*	*1907.*	*1908.*	*1909.*	*1910.*	*1911.*
United Kingdom	24,439	41,381	31,302	25,619	31,488	52,553	86,387	40,380	34,658	33,505	55,980
Austria-Hungary	49,135	44,123	49,192	52,764	41,055	31,878	32,730	25,990	115,030	37,284	62,874
Belgium	174,539	204,324	171,039	70,499	146,864	152,495	134,061	105,771	121,297	226,242	263,468
Bulgaria	3,108	2,769	2,985	5,554	6,614	3,927	3,010	3,569	4,391	5,391	5,945
France	9,848	11,401	10,311	8,659	18,551	28,175	32,424	27,789	27,502	46,875	48,879
Germany	39,468	19,752	14,588	19,605	34,675	23,780	56,078	24,567	26,604	24,281	33,008
Greece	1,526	1,349	1,139	1,457	2,411	1,056	498	631	666	896	807
Holland	11,729	13,356	28,865	34,818	83,400	54,840	91,729	60,020	49,491	99,111	76,907
Italy	18,025	20,167	27,025	21,615	47,193	91,274	44,366	34,379	33,998	68,672	49,592
Russia	6,284	5,586	6,195	6,036	3,867	2,723	5,703	7,891	4,129	6,262	6,971
Serbia	1,097	931	1,112	1,004	847	724	898	829	1,310	758	716
Spain	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	2,121	742	3,312	4,737
Switzerland	1,275	427	349	78	35	214	50	158	80	113	193
Turkey (incl. Egypt)	11,592	8,020	10,625	7,828	15,097	30,781	35,247	28,336	28,360	27,398	35,747
United States	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	259	249
Other countries	1,766	1,233	903	6,336	25,004	16,940	30,838	17,000	16,799	36,146	45,647
Total	353,831	374,819	355,630	261,872	457,101	491,360	554,019	379,431	465,057	616,505	691,720

* Not separately distinguished. Included with 'Other countries'.

TABLE IV. PERCENTAGE OF VALUE OF EXPORTS TO DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

	1901.	*1902.*	*1903.*	*1904.*	*1905.*	*1906.*	*1907.*	*1908.*	*1909.*	*1910.*	*1911.*
United Kingdom	6·91	11·04	8·80	9·78	6·89	10·70	15·59	10·64	7·45	5·43	8·09
Austria . .	13·89	11·78	13·83	20·15	8·88	6·49	5·91	6·85	24·74	6·05	9·09
Belgium . .	49·32	54·51	48·09	26·92	32·13	31·04	24·20	27·83	26·08	36·69	38·09
Egypt . .	0·02	0·17	0·33	0·58	0·22	0·57	0·78	2·37	1·48	1·43	2·13
France . .	2·78	3·04	2·90	3·31	4·06	5·73	5·85	7·32	5·91	7·60	7·07
Germany . .	11·15	5·27	4·10	7·49	7·58	4·84	10·12	6·47	5·72	3·94	4·77
Holland . .	3·32	3·56	8·12	13·31	18·25	11·16	16·56	15·82	10·65	16·07	11·12
Italy . .	5·09	5·38	7·60	8·25	10·32	18·57	8·01	9·06	7·31	11·14	7·16
Russia . .	1·78	1·49	1·74	2·30	0·85	0·55	1·03	2·08	0·89	1·02	1·01
Turkey . .	3·26	1·97	2·66	2·41	3·09	5·69	5·58	5·10	4·62	3·02	3·04

TABLE V. PERCENTAGE OF QUANTITY OF EXPORTS TO DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

	1901.	*1902.*	*1903.*	*1904.*	*1905.*	*1906.*	*1907.*	*1908.*	*1909.*	*1910.*	*1911.*
United Kingdom	8·73	12·53	9·78	10·66	7·22	11·83	16·33	11·78	8·66	7·26	10·10
Austria . .	13·99	11·90	14·40	20·82	9·22	7·74	7·42	10·22	22·23	8·40	10·79
Belgium . .	54·88	54·18	46·84	23·60	29·31	28·43	20·47	22·38	23·07	32·28	33·99
Egypt . .	0·01	0·27	0·51	0·89	0·32	0·42	1·28	3·71	2·50	2·54	3·57
France . .	2·23	2·74	3·03	4·17	5·84	6·25	7·17	7·96	6·80	7·67	6·53
Germany . .	4·57	4·12	3·15	6·16	6·76	4·63	9·71	5·54	4·86	3·54	4·41
Holland . .	3·84	3·95	8·29	13·93	17·98	11·51	15·70	14·74	10·85	15·60	10·83
Italy . .	5·85	5·74	8·09	8·27	10·10	18·04	7·42	8·21	8·18	10·57	6·99
Russia . .	1·63	1·15	1·35	2·80	1·62	0·55	1·03	1·67	0·78	0·45	0·67
Turkey . .	1·49	1·31	1·95	2·20	3·04	4·93	4·88	5·24	4·74	2·83	2·76

TABLE VI. PRINCIPAL IMPORTS. VALUES (in thousands of francs).

	1902.	*1903.*	*1904.*	*1905.*	*1906.*	*1907.*	*1908.*	*1909.*	*1910.*	*1911.*
Coal, coke and peat .	5,883	5,847	5,883	6,202	6,036	10,931	9,026	7,339	7,789	8,322
Iron and steel manufactures	20,863	22,728	31,750	40,767	52,025	68,105	66,356	53,739	63,530	80,007
Machinery . . .	15,705	17,527	25,741	25,354	38,926	44,281	37,561	32,101	39,219	59,156
Vehicles . . .	600	859	1,700	3,415	23,563	12,740	13,546	7,715	11,289	37,974
Cotton and jute yarns and tissues	67,055	51,588	57,148	66,506	79,132	74,151	74,421	65,634	66,185	91,558
Cotton and jute manufactures . . .	11,835	8,978	7,827	12,646	17,046	22,040	21,156	17,967	20,720	28,309
Hides, leather, and leather manufactures . .	15,041	12,050	10,074	10,275	15,978	14,063	15,534	13,565	14,919	23,023
Wool and woollen manufactures . . .	32,663	19,212	23,449	28,520	37,600	36,061	37,833	31,472	36,246	51,130
Silk and silk manufactures	9,536	8,736	8,900	9,825	12,308	9,954	12,537	12,265	14,892	20,597
Colonial fruit and provisions	7,245	10,573	10,695	10,206	10,855	10,845	11,095	11,111	12,627	12,793
Chemical products and manufactures . .	6,678	5,341	5,983	6,451	8,014	6,529	7,640	7,860	8,279	9,483
Live trees and wooden manufactures . .	2,754	2,832	3,288	7,365	9,580	8,885	10,072	9,763	10,447	15,027

TABLE VII. PERCENTAGE OF VALUE OF IMPORTS FROM DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

	1901.	*1902.*	*1903.*	*1904.*	*1905.*	*1906.*	*1907.*	*1908.*	*1909.*	*1910.*	*1911.*
United Kingdom	19·30	19·55	15·97	14·48	15·06	14·85	16·23	16·12	15·69	13·86	15·02
Austria . .	24·42	24·56	27·56	29·86	28·47	28·31	24·45	22·94	23·27	23·91	24·05
Belgium . .	1·74	1·82	2·10	3·31	2·22	2·55	3·27	3·12	3·16	3·41	4·93
France . .	6·43	6·00	6·04	5·72	4·96	4·60	4·73	5·62	6·43	6·26	6·23
Germany . .	28·83	28·28	29·00	29·48	27·10	33·70	34·27	34·01	33·84	33·74	32·25
Holland . .	1·59	2·19	1·42	1·81	1·52	0·85	1·29	1·36	1·46	1·42	0·84
Italy . .	7·46	7·00	5·26	5·20	4·30	4·31	4·77	5·20	4·80	5·31	5·02
Russia . .	2·16	2·28	3·21	2·61	2·65	2·44	2·19	3·08	2·92	2·87	2·38
Turkey . .	3·76	3·30	4·04	2·96	3·82	3·75	4·32	3·45	3·15	3·38	2·38
U.S.A. . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	0·89	2·26

TABLE VIII. PERCENTAGE OF QUANTITY OF IMPORTS FROM DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

	1901.	*1902.*	*1903.*	*1904.*	*1905.*	*1906.*	*1907.*	*1908.*	*1909.*	*1910.*	*1911.*
United Kingdom	26·88	30·08	29·42	29·88	21·52	22·94	36·13	33·31	31·26	28·96	28·79
Austria . .	20·83	22·32	22·24	23·83	39·29	32·66	19·60	16·35	20·25	21·29	25·26
Belgium . .	2·17	2·25	2·77	3·03	2·19	3·87	3·57	3·46	3·43	3·48	4·89
France . .	1·66	1·85	1·84	1·99	1·51	1·63	1·35	1·45	1·83	1·69	1·82
Germany . .	14·37	16·52	14·14	14·91	11·79	15·55	14·32	17·59	19·07	20·27	18·98
Holland . .	8·99	7·65	2·54	2·22	1·30	1·06	1·33	1·62	2·83	3·68	1·29
Italy . .	2·86	3·04	2·88	2·65	1·63	2·55	3·19	1·96	3·08	2·82	2·23
Russia . .	2·59	4·46	5·69	5·34	3·72	4·88	3·65	4·71	4·64	3·64	3·37
Turkey . .	8·53	6·74	10·89	6·92	7·63	10·12	10·01	8·14	7·88	7·41	5·13
U.S.A. . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	0·44	1·23

AUTHORITIES

Historical

Damé, F. *Histoire de la Roumanie contemporaine.* Paris, 1900.
Miller, W. *The Balkans.* London, 1896.
Mitrany, D. Rumania, in *The Balkans.* Oxford, 1915.
Sturdza, A. *La Terre et les races roumaines.* Paris, 1905.
Xénopol, A. D. *Histoire des Roumains.* Paris, 1896.

For the Danube Question, see Authorities given in No. 149, *International Rivers.*

Economic

Annuaire du Danube (1912). Bucarest.
Annuaire International de Statistique agricole (1912). Rome, 1913.
Anuarul Statistic al Romaniei (1911).
Benger, G. *Rumania in 1900.* Translated by A. H. Keane. London, 1900.
British Diplomatic and Consular Reports, Annual Series.
Comerțul Exterior al Romaniei (1911). Bucarest, 1913.
Davis, J. E. *Trust Laws and Unfair Competition.* Washington, 1915.
Encyclopaedia Britannica, 11th edition.
Home Office. *Mines and Quarries,* Part IV, for 1912.
Jones, Grosvenor M. *Government Aid to Merchant Shipping.* Washington, 1916.
Kirke, Dorothea. *Domestic Life in Rumania.* London, 1916.
Le Mouvement économique (various issues). Bucarest.
Obedenare, M. G. *La Roumanie économique,* 1876.
Redwood, Sir Boverton. *Petroleum.* London, 1913.
Shipping World Year Book, 1917.
Statesman's Year Book, 1917.
Statistical Abstract of Principal and other Foreign Countries (1901–12).
University of Jassy. *Annuales Scientifiques* (1902).
U.S.A. Consular Reports.

MAPS

There are Rumanian maps on the scales of 1 : 50,000, 1 : 100,000, and 1 : 200,000. Of these the first covers the whole of Rumania except the Dobruja and western Wallachia. The second covers south-western Rumania from Bucarest to the Black Sea and part of northern Moldavia. The third covers the whole of Rumania except the Dobruja and Wallachia west of Bucarest, and there is a special map of the Dobruja on the same scale.

Rumania is covered by the War Office map on the scale of 1 : 1,000,000 (G.S.G.S. 2758, sheets North M 35, L 34, L 35, K 34, K 35). For historical boundaries and ethnography see Table and note on maps in *The Eastern Question*, No. 15 of this series.

LONDON:

PUBLISHED BY H. M. STATIONERY OFFICE.

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

1920.

Price 3/- net.