



This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

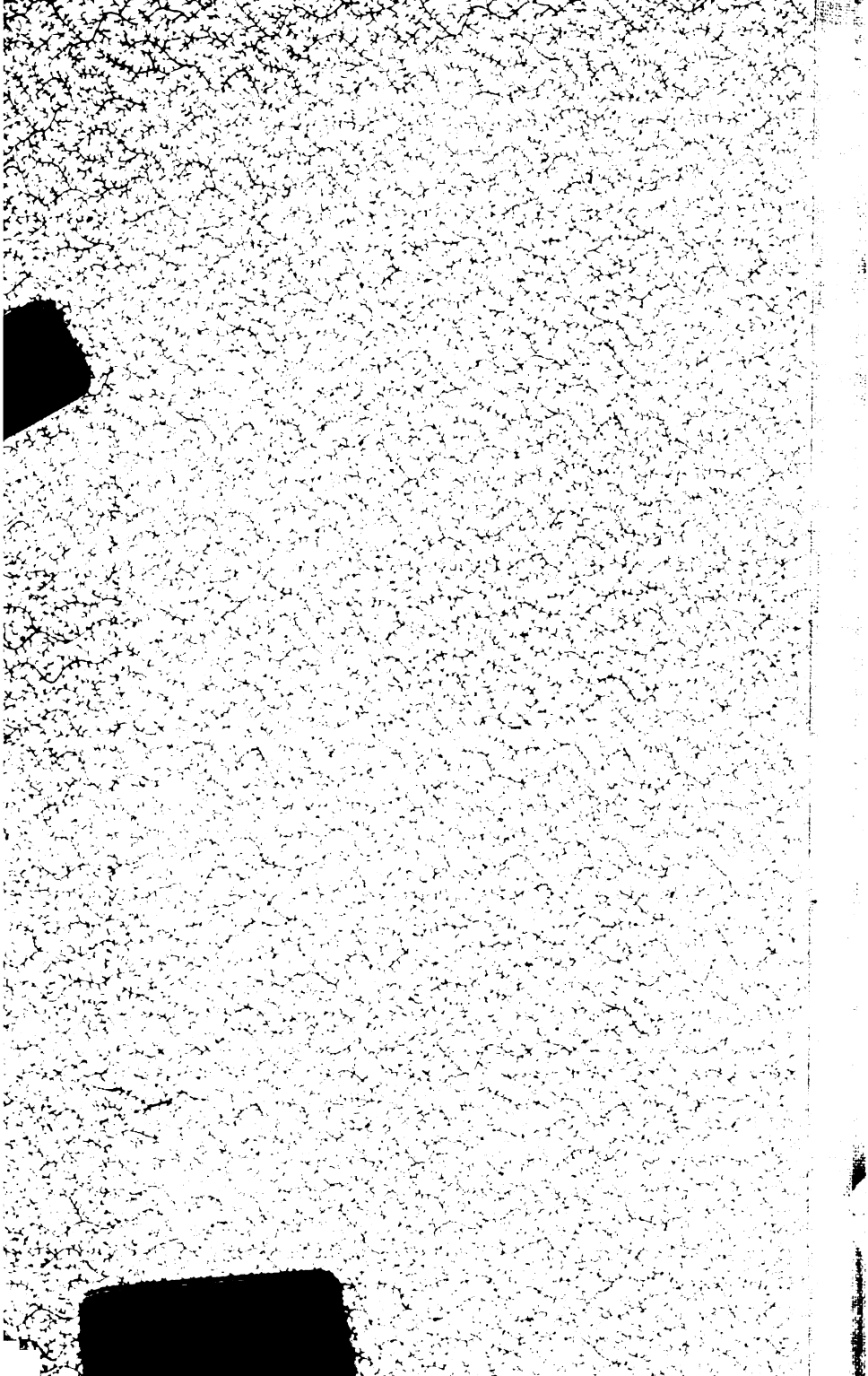
- + *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.
- + *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.
- + *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.
- + *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at <http://books.google.com/>

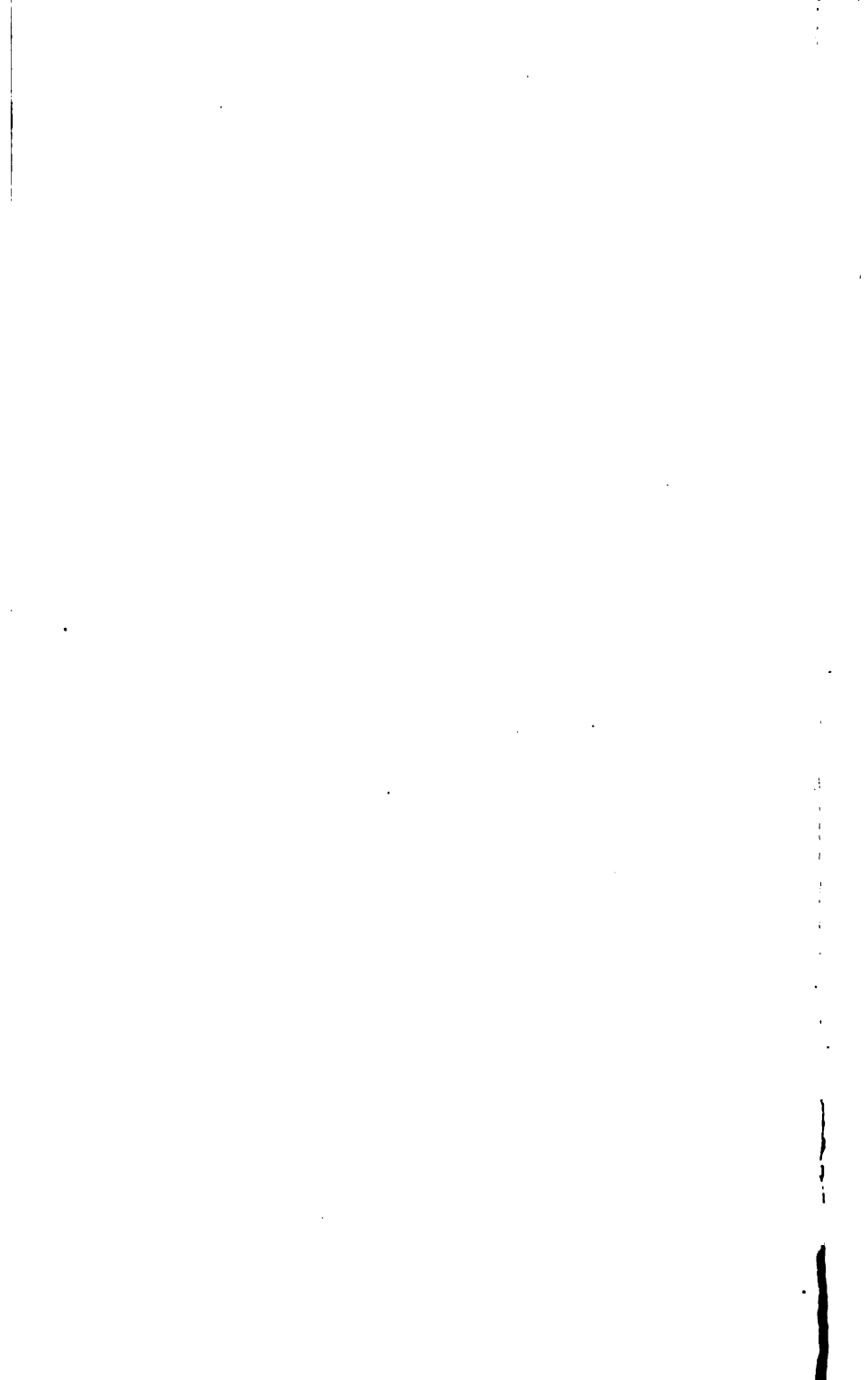


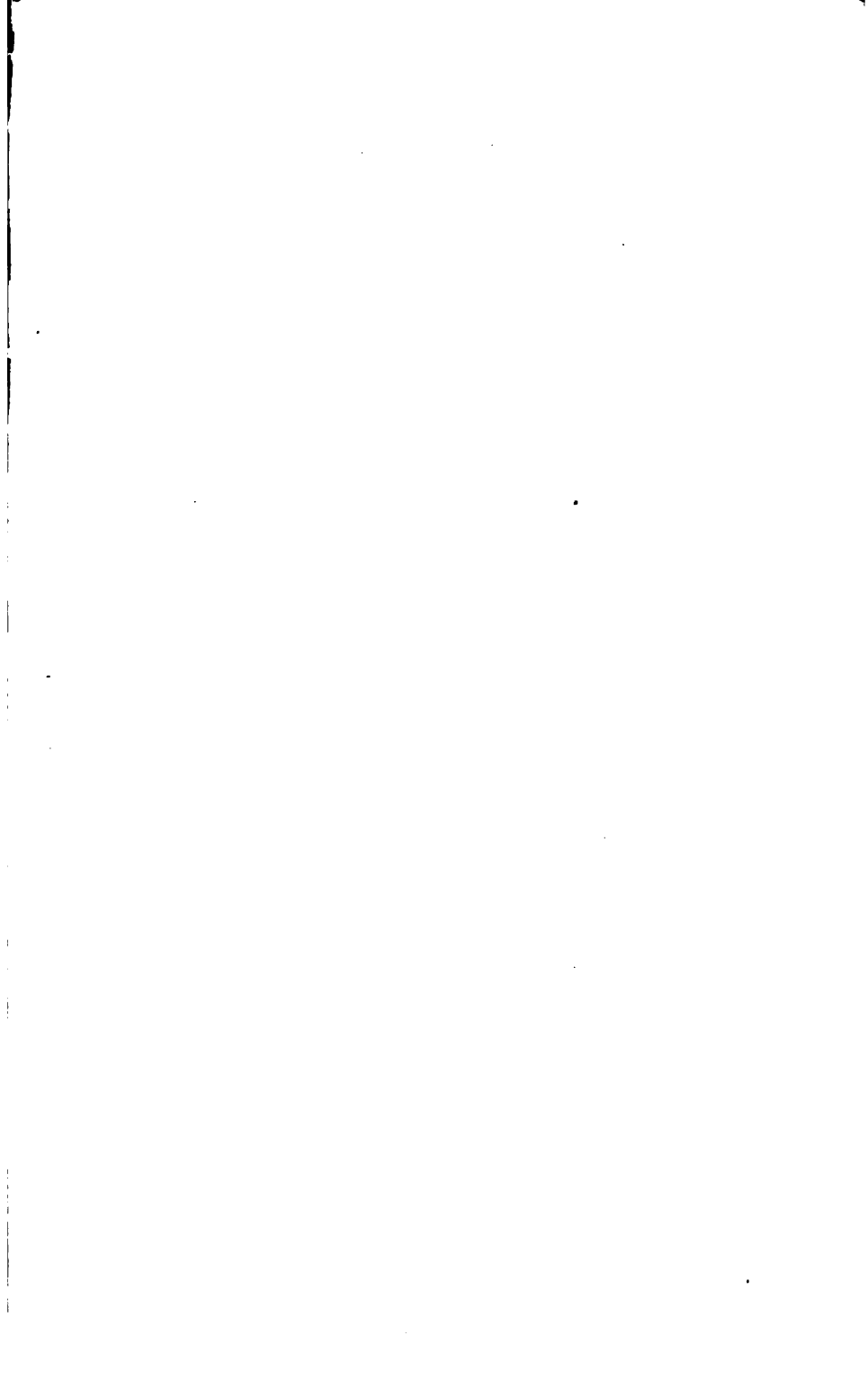
3 3433 08230225 2

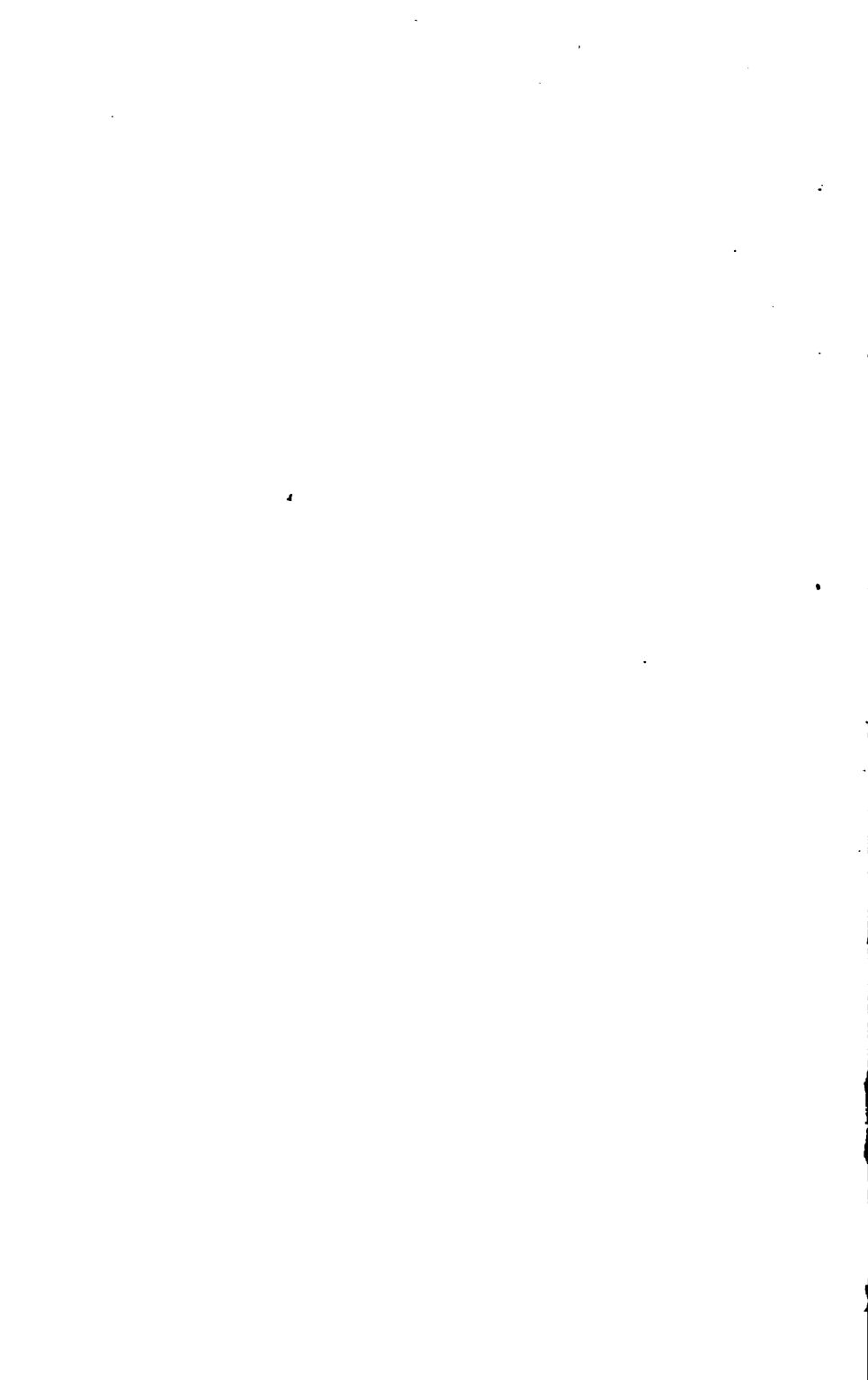


JAN 21 1915

GIVE
BUREAU
TORGONYS







575555

BALKAN STATES:
EXHIBITION-EARL'S:
COURT-LONDON-1907.



1907
K.K.T.

BULGARIA
OF TO-DAY

OFFICIAL EDITION OF THE BULGARIAN
MINISTRY OF COMMERCE & AGRICULTURE



BULGARIA OF TO-DAY

NEW YORK
LIBRARY

LENOX AND
TILDEN



H.R.H. PRINCE FERDINAND OF BULGARIA.

His Majesty

Bulgaria. Ministerstvo na turgoviyata. i
zemledyeliето.

BULGARIA OF TO-DAY

LONDON

OFFICIAL EDITION OF THE BULGARIAN MINISTRY
OF COMMERCE AND AGRICULTURE,

1907

575555

**PRINTED AND BOUND BY
HAZELL, WATSON AND VINEY, LD.,
LONDON AND AYLESBURY**

CONTENTS

	PAGE
INTRODUCTION	xi

PART I

THE COUNTRY AND THE POPULATION

CHAPTER I

GEOGRAPHY	3
1. Mountains.—2. Hydrography.—3. Climate.—4. Vegetation.—5. Fauna.	

CHAPTER II

THE BULGARIAN NATION	17
1. Historical Sketch.—2. Population.	

CHAPTER III

POLITICAL AND ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANISATION	36
1. Constitution of the Bulgarian Principality.—2. Fundamental Principles of the Government and the Administrative Organisation of the Principality.—3. The Budget.—4. The Executive Power and the Administration.—5. Justice.	

CHAPTER IV

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN BULGARIA PAGE 78

1. Primary Education.—2. Establishments for Secondary Education.—3. Higher Colleges: University of Sofia.—
4. Technical Instruction.—5. Institutions for Defective Children.—6. Diverse other Institutions.

CHAPTER V

THE BULGARIAN CHURCH AND FOREIGN RELIGIONS . 115

1. Orthodox Creed.—2. Foreign Religions in Bulgaria.

PART II

THE ECONOMIC CONDITION OF BULGARIA

CHAPTER I

FORESTS 125

1. History of Bulgarian Forestry.—2. Varieties of Trees.—
3. Administration of Forests.—4. The Felling of Timber.—
5. Propagation and Renewal of Forests.—6. Patrolling of the Forests.—7. General Condition of the Forests.

CHAPTER II

LANDED PROPERTY AND AGRICULTURE 142

- Agriculture.—Live Stock.—Agricultural Institutions.

CHAPTER III

MINES, QUARRIES, AND HOT SPRINGS 153

- Mines.—Quarries.—Hot Springs and Mineral Waters.

CHAPTER IV

ARTS AND TRADES 163

1. Sketch of the Economic Condition of the Principality.—
2. Handicrafts.—3. Manufactures.—4. Labour Legislation
- 5. Industrial Legislation.—6. Institutions.

CHAPTER V.

	PAGE
ROADS AND MEANS OF COMMUNICATION	202
1. Railways.—2. Posts, Telegraphs, and Telephones.	

CHAPTER VI

FOREIGN COMMERCE	227
1. Imports and Exports.—2. Articles of Importation and Exportation.—3. Maritime Commerce.	

CHAPTER VII

BANKING INSTITUTIONS	274
1. Bulgarian National Bank.—2. Bulgarian Agricultural Bank.—3. Insurance Companies.—4. Savings Banks.—5. Monetary System.	

DIAGRAMS	<i>At the end.</i>
--------------------	--------------------

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

	<i>Frontispiece</i>
	FACING PAGE
H.R.H. PRINCE FERDINAND OF BULGARIA	xi
H.R.H. PRINCE BORIS OF TIRNOVA, CROWN PRINCE OF BULGARIA	xi
ROCKS OF BELOGRADTCHIK	3
PEAKS NEAR KARLUKOVO	4
STARA-PLANINA	6
"ISKER" GORGE	8
WATERFALL, KALOFER	10
MOUNTAIN STREAM	12
ROYAL PALACE, SOFIA	20
GROUP OF PEASANT GIRLS FROM THE VILLAGE OF VETREN	28
FLOVDIV (PHILIPPOLIS)	37
MONUMENT OF THE TZAR LIBERATOR, SOFIA	40
"TARGOVSKA ULITZA" STREET, SOFIA	44
"MARIA LOUISA" STREET, SOFIA	52
"TZAR LIBERATOR" STREET, SOFIA	60
"VASSIL LEVSKY" MONUMENT, SOFIA	72
GYMNASIUM FOR BOYS, ROUSTCHOUK	100
GYMNASIUM FOR GIRLS, VARNA	102
MATERNITY HOSPITAL, SOFIA	104
HOSPITAL OF ALEXANDER I., SOFIA	106
MARKET HALL, JAMBOL	108
NATIONAL MUSEUM, SOFIA	110
NATIONAL THEATRE, SOFIA	112
RILO MONASTERY	115

	FACING PAGE
INTERIOR OF THE CHURCH OF RILO MONASTERY	116
SHIPKA PASS MONASTERY	118
" SAINT CRAL " CATHEDRAL, SOFIA	120
WALNUT FOREST NEAR KAZANLIK	136
ATTAR OF ROSES DISTILLERY	144
ATTAR OF ROSES DISTILLERY, KAZANLIK	148
TUNNEL ON THE SOFIA-KASPITCHAN RAILWAY LINE	204
VIEW OF LOUCOVIT (KIL. 124'982) ON THE SOFIA-KASPITCHAN RAILWAY LINE	214
GENERAL POST OFFICE, SOFIA	218
HARBOUR OF VARNA	227
HARBOUR OF BOURGAS	230
HARBOUR OF BOURGAS	234
BULGARIAN NATIONAL BANK, SOFIA	274
NATIONAL AGRICULTURAL BANK, SOFIA	280



H.R.H. PRINCE BORIS OF TIRNOVA, CROWN PRINCE OF BULGARIA.

INTRODUCTION

ON April 12th, 1877, the Imperial Government of Russia handed to the representatives of the Great Powers at St. Petersburg a circular note stating that it had exhausted all pacific means for putting an end to the intolerable condition of the Bulgarians under the Turkish yoke, and announcing that it had declared war against Turkey.

The events inaugurated by this memorable act ended with the preliminary treaty signed at San Stefano, near Constantinople, which was ratified on March 18th, 1878.

This treaty called to life once more, after five centuries of servitude, the ancient Bulgarian kingdom so well known to the general history of the Middle Ages. But although the boundaries of the new State had very little resemblance with those of the ancient empire of Tzar Simeon, they were still further restricted by the Treaty of Berlin.

This Treaty, signed on July 13th, 1878, thus defined the frontiers of the Principality of Bulgaria : to the north, the right bank of the Danube, from the river Timok to the Black Sea, a little to the south of the village of Mangalia ; to the east, the Black Sea to the middle of the Gulf of Aliman, near the village of Kuprikery ; to the south, a line starting from this latter village and cutting the mountains of Strandja and the Rhodopes, the river Arda, the Rilo mountain, and the Osso-

govo heights, whose peak Pateritza separates the Turco-Servo-Bulgarian frontiers; and to the west, from Pateritza, the watershed of Morava to the north-western front of the Stara-Planina and from there to the mouth of the Timok.

To the south of Bulgaria a new province was created, consisting of a part of the vilayet of Danube and part of the vilayet of Adrianople: it was called Eastern Roumelia, and had for its capital Plovdiv (Philippopolis). This province, although continuing to form an integral part of the Turkish Empire, was granted a special and privileged administrative government, similar to that of the island of Samos, with a Christian governor and a national assembly. In 1885, the revolution of Plovdiv modified this situation by proclaiming the union of Eastern Roumelia with the Principality, which union was confirmed in April 1886 by the Conference of Constantinople.

As for the remaining Bulgarian provinces which saw for a day the light of liberty by virtue of the Treaty of San Stefano, they were thrown back under the yoke which they had just shaken off and returned once more to the domination of the Sultan.

It is true that the Treaty of Berlin placed on the Turkish Government the obligation of giving to these provinces also a certain degree of liberty. A draft of reforms was even prepared in 1880; but it remained such, and Macedonia continues to be what it was before the Russo-Turkish War.

A little more than a quarter of a century has elapsed since these events.

In Russia, as well as in Bulgaria, this first anniversary has been celebrated with great solemnity. It is to be hoped that before very long it will have another echo with the inauguration

of the monument raised in Sofia by a grateful country to the Tzar Liberator.

Bulgaria has, therefore, had an independent existence of some twenty-five years. And yet, what a difference between the former Turkish province and the present Principality! Where misery and devastation reigned before, a flourishing country extends now, full of energy and promise. In the place of the former oppressed "rayas," to-day there is a young nation whose aptitude for progress, for the sciences and industry, has been already proved. New towns have sprung up, railways traverse the territory in all directions, well-maintained public roads connect the smallest villages, telegraph lines show at every step the work of civilisation. Harbours built in conformity with modern requirements are opening to Bulgaria vistas for the development of her maritime commerce. Close upon a milliard francs have been spent upon these various public works, but what deserves our special notice is not the magnitude of the outlay, but the immense amount of energy displayed, systematically and with a never-flagging zeal, during this quarter of a century, in the face of obstacles and difficulties, in order to reach the level of European culture.

Everything had to be replaced. It is not only the political conditions which have altered, but social life itself. At a moment's notice, and practically out of nothing, a new administration had to be organised and the diverse organs of the national life to be improvised. Hardly anything of the preceding regime was or could be utilised. In this connection, it is interesting to observe the different fortunes of a conquered province. When a province which had formed part of a civilized country passes to a nation equally civilized, one

may say that in many respects the change is an unimportant one, because in such a case the conqueror retains almost all the institutions, the only difference being that in the future they work in the name of the new sovereign authority. The political condition of such a province is the only thing which is affected, the administrative and judicial system and the wealth continuing as before. On the other hand, if one attempted to form a modern state out of a country which has been devastated for centuries, or if one tried to transform a Turkish province into a country after the pattern of the European States, every step would be strewn with obstacles, and there would be nothing of the former state of things that could be utilised. In such a case, the only thing to be done would be to borrow from other nations the experience which they have accumulated during their long efforts, and to transplant it into the desolated land. We may well imagine the effervescence which would inevitably follow, the prodigious energy which would be expended in the task, and how under such conditions one could only proceed with uncertain and faltering steps in trying to complete a piece of work bearing the marks of hurried labour. This is practically what happened in Bulgaria, and it is only by taking into account the exceptionally difficult conditions in which the Principality found itself on the morrow of its liberation, that one will be able to appreciate the efforts displayed and the results obtained.

Bulgaria may truly be proud to-day of the work accomplished. Her perseverance in the path of civilisation has been crowned with success. Her organisation is now completed. In all the branches of public life order has been introduced. The organising genius which all the historians, and more

particularly the Slav historian Jreček, have noticed in the ancient Bulgarians, has once more revealed itself.

The Principality is determined to persevere in the road which it has traced for itself. It is ever ready to grasp all occasions that offer to show Europe its intentions. It has participated, within the limits of its means, in the international enterprises destined to promote the progress of the world. We shall only mention here the important part which it took in the International Exhibitions at Liège and Milan, where the visitors could vividly realise the progress which has been attained in the various departments of the national economy.

The present volume is intended by its authors to supplement the knowledge of Bulgaria acquired by those who may visit the Bulgarian Section of the Balkan Exhibition held at present in London. It may be also read with profit by all those who may desire to know our country.

THE MINISTRY OF COMMERCE
AND AGRICULTURE.

PART I
THE COUNTRY AND THE PEOPLE

1



ROCKS OF BELOGRADTCHIK.

CHAPTER I

GEOGRAPHY

I. MOUNTAINS

THE Principality of Bulgaria presents, from the orographical point of view, a happy combination of high mountain chains encircling broad and fruitful plains. At the foot of lofty peaks, whose summits often attain a height of over 2,000 metres, extend, as far as eye can see, valleys whose average height above sea-level is 200 metres.

The total surface of the country comprised within the mountainous zones may be thus divided :

	Metres high.	Sq. kilometres.			
From	0 to 200	.. 35,545·9 = 37·3	per cent. of Bulgarian territory.		
"	200 .. 500	.. 31,439·2 = 33	"	"	"
"	500 .. 900	.. 16,068·8 = 16·9	"	"	"
"	900 .. 1,400	.. 9,111·9 = 9·6	"	"	"
"	1,400 .. 2,000	.. 2,570·6 = 2·7	"	"	"
"	2,000 and over	.. 486·8 = 0·5	"	"	"

These figures show that about 70 per cent. of the total area of Bulgaria consists of land susceptible of the highest degree of cultivation.

The average height above sea-level of Bulgaria is 425 metres.

The character of the country is determined by its mountain systems. We may distinguish chiefly the following mountain groups : the mass of the Rilo-Rhodopes, the long chain of the Stara-Planina, the Danubian table-land, and the transi-

tional belt stretching between the Rilo-Rhodopes and the serpentine chain of the Stara-Planina.

The Rilo and the Rhodopes present together a compact mass whose various branches stretch out in all directions. The chief characteristic of these mountains is the huge cliffs suddenly cleft by valleys that open out all at once before the traveller's wondering eye—valleys dotted here and there with deep pools. The highest summits are not always on the line of the water-shed. Here and there rise great blocks of igneous rocks. The Rilo is the highest mountain of Bulgaria. Several peaks exceed 2,700 metres above sea-level, and the Moussalla reaches 2,924 metres. Considering the space included between peaks of over 2,700 metres in height, it must be recognised that the Rilo is the highest mountain of Eastern Europe. Its northern and eastern slopes are dotted with numerous lakes enclosed among rocky cliffs and peaks covered with perpetual snow. In a word, the Rilo has all the peculiarities of the Alps.

The Rhodopes are similar to the Rilo on their western side ; as we advance towards the east, their slopes grow steeper and steeper, while the height decreases and their outlines grow more and more undulating. The principal spurs extend towards the north as far as the Bulgarian frontier, and slope down steeply to the fertile plain of the Maritza. The streams flowing from the lakes of Adrianople and Haskovo have divided the Rhodopes on the eastern side into numerous plateaux lying east and west. The watersheds are 2,000 metres above sea-level. The most noteworthy peaks are the Sutkia (2,187 m.), the Batachki (2,082 m.) and the Tchepelarski Karlik (2,186 m.).

The Rhodopes, like the Rilo, afford no practicable road into Turkey. The roads wind round the mountains, following on the east the course of the Maritza, and on the west the valley of the Strouma.



The Stara-Planina crosses the whole district from the river Timok to the Black Sea. Its length is 600 kilometres, its average width only 30. Geological researches have proved that this mountain has been formed by horizontal accumulations caused by pressure from the south.

Orographically and geologically, the Stara-Planina divides into three belts : the western, reaching to the Isker gorge, the central, as far as the Demir Kapia, and the eastern, merging into the Black Sea coast.

The western Stara-Planina is flanked north and south along its whole length by parallel lines of peaks. The northern slopes are most precipitous and imposing. The Midjur, its highest peak, reaches an altitude of 2,165 metres. This region is difficult of access. The only two passes, the Sveti Nicolas (1,302 metres) and the Petrohan, are 1,438 metres above the sea.

The central chain is likewise bounded by peaks on the north. The southern flank slopes steeply down and merges into the level country. From here there is a view of the highest peaks of the Stara-Planina. Several summits rise to a height of over 2,000 metres : the Ioumrouktchal is 2,372 metres. By a strange contrast, it is here too that the best roads are to be found. Thus, the passes of Araba Konak and of Hain Boghaz are less than 100 metres high. Other passes, though higher (1,300 to 1,700 m.) are nevertheless more accessible, owing to the fact that the mountain is at these points very narrow, and the plain penetrates gradually right into the heart of the mountain. The chief pass is the Shipka (1,260 m.).

The eastern Stara-Planina is totally different. The bendings of Strata have here been quite superficial. Consequently high peaks and ancient rocks of primary formations are entirely absent. The mountain consists of several chains divided, in consequence of the proximity of the sea, not transversely but lengthways. Under these conditions the

district is not easily accessible, though there are no great eminences.

Parallel to the Stara-Planina extends, on the south, the Sredna-Gora. Like the former chain, it sinks lower towards the east. The Ichtiman mountain acts as a nucleus connecting the Rilo and the Rhodopes, the Sredna-Gora and the Stara-Planina: it separates the basins of the Isker and the Maritza. The valley of the Strema divides the Sredna-Gora into two distinct masses: the Sredna-Gora proper and the Karadja Dag, or Roebuck mountain. The former is lofty, thickly wooded, and picturesque. Its highest peak, the Great Bogdan, is 1,574 metres high. The fertile plains of Zlatitza, Karlovo, Kazanlik (famous for its attar of roses) and Sliven extend between the Stara-Planina and the Sredna-Gora. The no less fertile plain of the Maritza lies between the Rhodopes and the Sredna-Gora.

East of the river Sasliyka, as far as the Maritza, rise the Sakar mountains (854 m. high) and the Strandja (1,035 m.). These heights, and others of less importance, compose what Hochsteiger calls the Toundja Group.

The chief mountain of South-west Bulgaria is the Vitosha, which rises from the plain of Sofia, the capital of the Principality. Its highest peak, the Tcherni Varh, rises to a height of 2,285 metres.

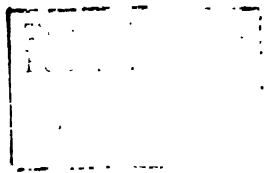
The Verila Planina (1,419 m.) serves as a connecting link between the Vitosha and the Rilo and separates the waters of the Isker and the Strouma. On one side lies the plain of Doubnitza, on the other that of Samakov.

To the extreme south-west, just on the Turko-Bulgarian frontier, is the Ossogovo, whose highest summit, the Rouen, is 2,227 metres high.

Between the plains of Kustendil and Znépólé lies a mountainous country called Kraichté. Some of its peaks are fairly high. We need only mention the Ouchi (1,927 m.), the



STARÁ-PLANINA.



Milevska Planina (1,730 m.) and the Tchernooko (*i.e.* Black Eye, 1,875 m.).

Above the plain of Znépolé rises a remarkable mountain, the Roui (1,706 m.).

Numerous hills break into ridges throughout the south-westerly region towards the south-east, and send their spurs into Servia. All this part of Bulgaria offers a succession of deep valleys which are only dried-up lakes, as geological research has demonstrated. They are the valleys of Sofia, Samakov, Doubnitza, Kustendil, Radomir, Pernik, and Znépolé.

North of the farthest crests of the Stara-Planina stretches the vast plain of the Danube. Many tributaries of the great river furrow the plain, of which the strata are almost invariably horizontal.

2. HYDROGRAPHY

The hydrography of Bulgaria owes its peculiar characteristics both to the climate and to the situation of the Danube (which forms the whole northern frontier) the Black Sea and the Archipelago. These are the basins which receive all the streams of Bulgaria. Our country possesses no large rivers. The numerous mountains intersect the land and part everywhere the courses of the streams, whose waters flow separately and cannot mingle. The Isker alone forms a happy exception, flowing across the whole width of Bulgaria.

The Black Sea is a basin whose greatest length lies east and west, 1,187 kilometres long and 613 broad. Its area, according to the calculations of Strelbutski, is 423,973 square kilometres, its average depth 1,100 metres. It is deepest (2,616 m.) to the south of the Crimean peninsula, and very shallow between Sebastopol to Bourgas. Almost the whole way along this coast it is very difficult for vessels

to approach land. For two or three kilometres out from the shore, the sea is scarcely eight or ten metres deep. Further, the shores are almost everywhere either steep and mountainous, or broken and marshy. In spite of all these difficulties Bulgaria, by dint of great efforts and sacrifices, possesses to-day two harbours constructed to meet all modern requirements—Varna and Bourgas.

The Danube flows from the Black Forest mountains across Germany and Austro-Hungary, forms the boundary between Servia and Roumania and between Bulgaria and Roumania, and falls into the Black Sea, forming a delta. It is a mighty river, discharging 5,000 cubic metres of water per second; the width of its bed varies from 700 to 1,200 metres. Its depth near Widin is 8 metres, near Rahovo 7 metres 70 cm., near Nicopolis 12 metres 9 cm., near Rustchuk 4 metres. The greatest variation of the water-level is 5 metres 5 cm. A large number of islands lie along its whole course, round which the river branches. The Danube was frozen over thirteen times between 1836-96. It freezes, on an average, thirty-nine days in the year. It remained longest frozen during the memorable winter of 1878-9.

The principal tributaries of the Danube are the Lom, the Ogosta, the Isker, the Vid, the Ossem, and the Iantra. All these streams rise in the Stara-Planina, except the Isker, which rises in the Rilo, and flows right through the Stara-Planina in a magnificent gorge. The streams rise at all heights, and everywhere supply the people of the country with water-power, used up till now for turning primitive mills ranged in an endless succession along the whole course of the streams. On reaching the plain the streams flow more slowly, while, on the other hand, their beds become deeper and deeper as you approach the mouth. They are then no longer fordable, and no more mills are to be seen. Floods are very frequent, but never destructive. Generally speaking, the tributaries



"ISKER" GORGE.

of the Danube derive their waters from the mountains alone, and lose some of it all along their course. Together they do not contribute more than 250 cubic metres of water per second.

The Maritza is the river of Southern Bulgaria. Several streams whose sources are in the Rhodopes, the Stara-Planina and the Sredna-Gora, flow into it. The tributaries on the right bank, coming from the luxuriant forests of the Rhodopes, are of almost the same depth all the year round, while those on the left bank, coming from the bare rocks of the Stara-Planina, are subject to variations: swift and deep in the rainy season and in spring, they are almost dried up in summer. The Toundja and the Arda are the chief affluents of the Maritza, which they join near Adrianople. The former rises in the Stara-Planina and the latter in the Rhodopes. Beyond Tatar-Pazardjik the Maritza flows more slowly. Advantage is taken of this for the conveyance of timber, the trunks being simply fastened together and guided like primitive rafts.

Not many streams fall into the Black Sea; the most important are the Kamtchia and the Pravadiska.

Lakes are not numerous in our country. Some lagoons are to be found near the Black Sea; their origin is attributed partly to the fluctuations of the sea. The most important are the Guebedjé (20 metres deep), the Salt Lake, near Anhialo, Nafakioi, Atanaskioi, and Mandren. On the banks of the Danube, isolated creeks have turned into marshes: they are most numerous between the mouths of the Isker and the Iantra. There are also marshes in the valley bottoms, and among the heights of the Rilo and the western Rhodopes, which contain, as we have said above, more than a hundred lakes in the midst of the lofty summits. These lakes are very similar to the "Sea Eyes," of the Carpathians.

3. CLIMATE

As regards climate, Bulgaria shares the rather unfavourable position of all the eastern part of the Balkan Peninsula. The beneficent winds of the west reach us cold and dry. The north-easterly winds to which the country is most exposed keep the temperature low. Here are some climatological data which will enable the reader to form a correct idea of the general temperature in our country.

During the ten years 1884 to 1903, the mean annual temperature in the towns of the centre was :

at Sofia	(550 metres above sea-level)	..	9·9° C.
„ Plevna	(105 „ „ „ „)	..	11·2° C.
„ Bourgas	(14 „ „ „ „)	..	12·5° C.
„ Philippopolis	(160 „ „ „ „)	..	12·4° C.
„ Gabrovo	(375 „ „ „ „)	..	10·0° C.

If we reduce the temperature of all these towns * to sea-level we find that the greatest difference of temperature is 15°, and that the isotherm passing through Bulgaria is 12°.

The mean altitude of Bulgaria being 425 metres, the mean annual temperature for the whole Principality will be 10° centigrade.

The average temperature for the coldest month (January) and for the hottest month (July) is :

	January.	July.	Differences.
Sofia	1·9	20·6	22·5
Plevna	1·5	23·2	24·7
Bourgas	1·9	22·8	20·9
Philippopolis	0·4	23·5	23·9
Gabrovo	1·1	20·4	21·5

The difference between the highest and lowest temperatures

* The temperature of these towns is that of the whole Principality.



WATERFALL, KALOGER.

1

in the year is 20° C., which amounts to saying that the climate of the country is a continental one.

The hottest day of the last ten years was August 7th, 1896 (at Plevna, 41.8°) and the coldest was January 6th, 1894 (at Gabrovo, 25°).

The winds in Bulgaria are conditioned by the barometric state of all Europe and more distant regions. The prevailing ones are westerly and north-westerly. Northerly and north-easterly winds are more rare. There are also local tendencies, as for instance at Gabrovo, where southerly winds are frequent. The winds, which are rather strong, blow almost constantly the year round.

With regard to rain, Bulgaria occupies a middle position between Eastern and Western Europe. The rainy season corresponds to that of all Eastern Europe. At that time the rains are very heavy, but there is also a sufficiency of rain during the other seasons of the year.

The average rainfall for the whole year is 26.5 inches. The regions least favoured in this respect, *e.g.*, the shores of the Black Sea, get nevertheless at least 17.6 inches.

The following figures show the distribution of the rainfall among the seasons of the year.

		(Spring 27.6 per cent.
	..	{ Summer 34.2 ..
Sofia, 193.2 rainy days, 26.2 in.	..	{ Autumn 21.7 ..
		{ Winter 16.8 ..
		{ Spring 28.0 ..
	..	{ Summer 37.1 ..
Plevna, 143.7 rainy days, 23 in.	..	{ Autumn 16.6 ..
		{ Winter 18.3 ..
		{ Spring 25.7 ..
	..	{ Summer 27.5 ..
Bourgas, 123.3 rainy days, 23.3 in.	..	{ Autumn 19.7 ..
		{ Winter 26.7 ..

Philippopolis, 110·9 rainy days, 20·8 in.	{	Spring 23·5 per cent.
		Summer 34·5 "
		Autumn 21·6 "
		Winter 20·4 "
Gabrovo, 169·5 rainy days, 35·1 in. . .	{	Spring 28·9 "
		Summer 37·1 "
		Autumn 15·6 "
		Winter 18·4 "

Snow falls usually from November to April. At Sofia it snows on an average 42·2 days in the year, at Philippopolis 14·8, at Bourgas 12·8

As regards moisture and clouds, Bulgaria is half-way between the Mediterranean region and Central Europe. The average density of cloud during the year varies from 5 (at Philippopolis) to 5·5 (at Gabrovo). The month of November is the cloudiest (7·9 at Sofia). August is the clearest (2·6 at Bourgas). The average moisture varies from 70 per cent. (at Gabrovo) to 79 p.c. (at Bourgas). It diminishes in summer to 58 p.c., and rises to 66 p.c. in December. The atmospheric pressure reaches its maximum in summer at Philippopolis (13·3) and its minimum in January at Gabrovo (3·4).

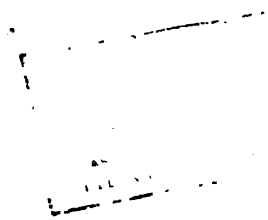
4. VEGETATION

In this respect also Bulgaria holds a middle place between the forests of Central Europe, the steppes of Russia, and the Mediterranean districts. The mountains are covered with forests similar to those of Central Europe. Certain regions of the Danube remind one of the Russian steppes, and Southern Bulgaria produces plants belonging to the countries of the south of Europe.

Bulgaria was formerly, as the memoirs of various travellers testify, very rich in forests. Unfortunately a great part of



MOUNTAIN STREAM.



them have perished in consequence of reckless consumption and prospecting for minerals. What still remains is in the mountains at a distance from towns and the principal arteries of communication.

The forests of the plains are composed chiefly of oaks (*quercus*) of all species. Above 500 metres altitude is found the beech (*Fagus silvatica*), the commonest and most important tree of our mountains. In a wide middle zone, the oak and the beech grow together, the former covering the lower slopes, the latter the upper slopes. The evergreen oak grows at altitudes exceeding 1,000 metres. Lower down, with the oak and beech are mingled the hornbeam (*Caprinus duinensis*), the elm (*Alnus glutinosa*) the plane (*Acer pseudoplatanus*) and others. Above the beech, in the Rhodopes, and also on the Rilo, extend usually forests of conifers, with the fir (*Abies pectinala* and *Picea excelsa*), the pine (*Pinus silvestris* and *Pinus laricio*), the *Juniperus nana*. The beech has in several places driven out the conifers, which are now rarely to be found in the Stara-Planina and in the Ossogovo. In the fields, as well as on the slopes of the lower hills, are found, instead of forests, shrubs, brambles and thorns of all kinds. The most characteristic are the groves of lilacs (*Syringa vulgaris*).

The north ridge of the Rhodopes offers perfect specimens of the vertical distribution of trees in our forests. According to Dr. Dingler, the forests of oak go as high as 700 metres, the beech to 1,300 metres, mingled here and there with conifers, the latter beginning above 1,100 metres. The highest tree-covered region reaches 1,900 feet above sea-level.

South Bulgaria, which is sheltered by the Stara-Planina from the north winds, is rich in Southern plants.

The grains most cultivated are wheat, maize, and barley next come rye, oats, millet, and spelt. Buckwheat is little grown. On the other hand, rice is very common in the valley

of the Maritza. Potatoes are beginning to be introduced in places where the soil is poor.

The grape ripens everywhere in Bulgaria up to 500 metres above the sea. The mulberry grows well in the lower zones.

Tobacco of excellent quality is grown at the foot of the Rhodopes, and in the valley of the Strouma.

Cotton is grown in the south-eastern districts. Hemp and flax are particularly abundant in the south-west. Aniseed, sesame, and poppies flourish in the south, in the south-west, and colza in the north.

Roses are extensively cultivated in the south-west, especially at Kazanlik and Karlovo.

Since the sugar industry was introduced into Bulgaria, the cultivation of beetroot is rapidly extending.

All kinds of vegetables and salads are grown in the market gardens and in the fields near the towns and villages.

Among the more important fruit-trees may be mentioned the hazel, walnut, almond, apple, pear, quince, plum, peach, apricot, etc. In the rich orchards of Southern Bulgaria are grown also the fig and pomegranate. The plains of Kustendil and Gabrovo are the richest in fruit-trees. There is here valuable material for export.

5. FAUNA

The Bulgarian fauna is that of south and Central Europe. The population being still thin, and the uninhabited area still considerable, wild beasts are far from extinct. Carnivora and birds of prey still inflict ravages among domestic animals and poultry.

We may mention the bear (*Ursus arctus*) which lives in the mountain forests; the wolf (*Canis lupus*) found everywhere; the jackal, which lurks in the Stara-Planina, but is dying

out ; the fox, found everywhere ; the wild boar, in the forests and hills ; the wild cat, polecat, etc.

Game.—The stag (*Cervus elaphus*), formerly widespread, is now found only in the great forests ; the chamois (*Capella rupicapra*) among the precipitous rocks of the Rilo and the Stara-Planina ; the roebuck (*Cervus capriolus*) in all the mountains ; the hare, everywhere.

Aquatic Animals.—The otter (*Lutra vulgaris*) hides in the bushes by the sides of streams (they may be seen in summer in the lakes of the Rilo) ; the *Delphinus delphis*, on the shores of the Black Sea ; the seal lives in the caves on the Black Sea coast, near the Bulgarian Dobrudja.

The Bulgarian *birds* are of very varied species, in consequence of the fact that the country is visited every year, in spring and autumn, by several species which only stay for a time. Many birds which spend the summer to the north of Bulgaria migrate in winter to the south. Several species of birds of prey are found : the eagle, owl, and falcon. We may mention, among feathered game, the pigeon, woodcock, partridge, pheasant, moorhen, bustard, snipe, wild goose, wild duck, etc.

Among the Chelonia are found chiefly land and water tortoises.

Several species of reptiles are found. The snake (*Elaphis quadriliniatus*) sometimes attains a length of two metres. Among poisonous serpents is the viper (*Vipera berus* and *Vipera ammodites*).

Fish are found in the waters of the Danube, in the streams and marshes, and in the Black Sea. The Danube fish belong for the most part to the genus *accipenser* : the sturgeon, cod, silurus, carp, bream, etc. In the tributaries of the Danube there are the barbel, nasus, etc. ; in the Black Sea, the mud-fish, mackerel, etc.

The animals useful to man may be grouped in three cate-

gories : domestic animals, those employed in agriculture, and those used for food.

The domestic animals are the cat and dog. Beasts of burden : the buffalo, ox, horse, ass, mule.

Animals used for food : the sheep, goat, pig, horned cattle, geese, ducks, fowls, turkeys, pigeons, etc.

CHAPTER II

THE BULGARIANS

I. HISTORICAL SKETCH

THE first difficulty which the student of the history of the Balkan nations encounters is the question of races. It is as great a stumbling-block with the Bulgarians as with the other Southern Slavs. Eminent historians have undertaken the most laborious research work and yet the results of their studies cannot be said to agree, or to offer a satisfactory solution to the fascinating problem of the origin of the Bulgarians. Still the usually accepted theory, that of the Slav historian Jireček, may be summed up as follows: The Balkan Peninsula has been inhabited since the earliest times known to history by different tribes belonging to distinct races. Of these we may mention the Thraco-Illyrians, the Thraco-Macedonians, and the Thraco-Dacians. At the beginning of the third century, the Slavs made their first appearance and, crossing the Danube, came to settle in the great plains between the river and the Balkans. Later, they proceeded southwards and formed colonies among the Thraco-Illyrians, the Roumanians, and the Greeks. This Slav emigration went on for several centuries. In the seventh century of the Christian era a Finno-ugric tribe reached the banks of the Danube. It is known that this tribe came from the Volga and, crossing Russia, proceeded towards ancient Mœsia, where it took possession of the whole north-east territory of the

Balkans between the Danube and the Black Sea. These were the Bulgars, or Bolgars. The Slavs, having a far stronger character than the races they had found in the peninsula, had already imposed on them their language and customs. To a certain extent, the Bulgars met with the same fate: they assumed the language of the Slavs, and some of their customs. The Bulgars, however, gave their name to the mixed race, and, thanks to their energy and power of organising, assumed the political supremacy. The Bulgarian kingdom, thus founded, was soon enlarged. The chief characteristics of the Bulgars were warlike virtues, discipline, patriotism, and enthusiasm. The Bulgarian kings brought their victorious armies to the gates of Constantinople, whose very existence they threatened. The Greek Emperor sought their friendship, and even consented to pay them tribute. Bulgaria attained her greatest empire in the reign of King Kroum.

The greatest event in this period of Bulgarian history is the introduction of Christianity. This took place in the reign of King Boris, towards the end of the ninth century. Boris was the first Christian king of Bulgaria, and from his reign dates the history of Bulgaria as a civilised and settled country developing its powers to a considerable point.

Another event perhaps even more important was the appearance about this time of the great apostles Cyril and Methodius, the originators of the cyrilic alphabet, which has been adopted by all the Slav peoples, including Russia. The foundations of national culture having thus been laid, a literary movement began in Bulgaria.

Under the reign of Tsar Simeon, the son of Boris, the Bulgarian empire increased still further. It embraced not only Bulgaria proper, but Wallachia, part of Hungary and Transylvania, part of Albania and Epirus, of Macedonia and Thessaly. Simeon, no longer content with the title of king, called himself Tsar, "emperor and autocrat of all Bulgarians

and Greeks." This title was retained by Bulgarian sovereigns until the conquest of the kingdom by the Osmanlis.

The glory and supremacy of Simeon's reign, unfortunately, did not last. Internal struggles had begun, owing to the jealousies of some of the nobles and their spirit of adventure. The boyars, the knights and dignitaries of Bulgaria, had always had great authority. In the reign of Boris II. (A.D. 963), a boyar named Shishman Mokar raised a party and took possession of the whole of Western Bulgaria, turning it into a separate kingdom. Boris was overwhelmed by fresh misfortunes. The Russians invaded Bulgaria, and Boris called in the help of the Emperor, John Zemissius, who took advantage of the situation to gain possession of the kingdom. Fortunately, the successor of Shishman, Tsar Samuel, whose reign was as brilliant as that of Simeon, succeeded in reuniting the kingdom of Bulgaria, with Prespa as capital.

In 1015 Bulgaria, after a long and unlucky war with Byzantium, was brought to subjection. A new state of things began for the Bulgarians, who till then had never felt the control of an enemy. The people longed for liberty, and there were many attempts at revolt. Towards 1186, two brothers, John and Peter Assen, raised a revolt and succeeded in re-establishing the ancient kingdom, choosing as capital Tirnova, their native town. It was then that Tirnova became what it still remains, the historic town of Bulgaria. The reign of John and Peter Assen was a brilliant time for Bulgaria. Art and literature flourished as never before, and commerce developed to a considerable extent. Once more the Bulgarian empire was respected and feared abroad. This lasted as long as the dynasty founded by John and Peter Assen continued to reign. Unfortunately, this dynasty died out in 1257, and Bulgaria fell into the hands of usurpers. Once more it was divided, and different chiefs, among them Roman, George Terter and Michael Shishman, tried in turn to found

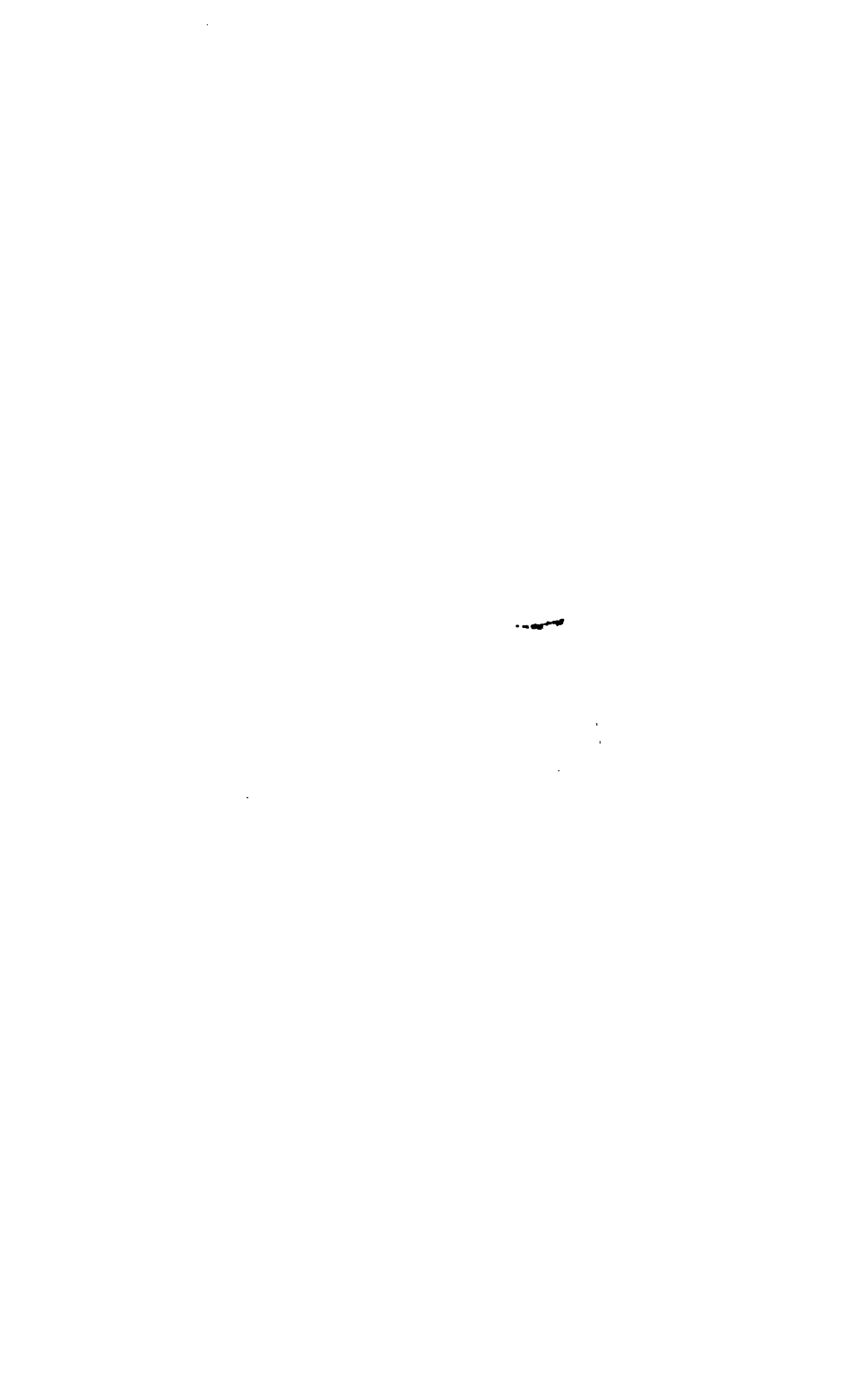
dynasties and protect the country. They all failed. On the one side the Servians, on the other the Magyars, and afterwards the Turks, who were already settled in the south of the peninsula, cast greedy eyes on Bulgaria. At last, as a result of the famous and fatal battle of Kossovo (A.D. 1393), Bulgaria lost her political independence and became a simple Ottoman province.

Soon afterwards she lost the independence of her autonomous Church, and in spiritual matters became a slave of the Phanar. All the other Christian peoples of the peninsula were in their turn subjected by the Turks.

For a long while, Europe remained in ignorance of the fate of Christians under the Ottoman yoke. Distracted by bloody wars, she scarcely noticed their slavery for centuries. And yet, the history of the Christians under Turkish rule in the Middle Ages is of the greatest interest. Had the rulers been of the same race and religion as the vanquished, the subjection might have been more tolerable. Ottoman domination was not, however, a simple political domination. Ottoman tyranny was social as well as political. It was keenly and painfully felt in private as well as in public life; in social liberty, manners and morals; in the free development of national feeling; in short, in the whole scope of human life. According to our present notions, political domination does not infringe upon personal liberty, which is sacred for the conqueror. This is not the case with Turkish rule. The Bulgarians, like the other Christians of the Balkan peninsula, were, both collectively and individually, slaves. The life, possessions, and honour of private individuals were in constant peril. The bulk of the people, after several generations, calmed down to passivity and inertia. From time to time the more vigorous element, the strongest individualities, protested. Some Bulgarian whose sister had been carried off to the harem of some pacha would take to the mountains and make



ROYAL PALACE, SOFIA.



war on the oppressors. The haidukes and voivodes, celebrated in the national songs, kept up in mountain fastnesses that spirit of liberty which later was to serve as a cement to unite the new Bulgarian nation.

But it is a noteworthy fact that the Osmanlis, being themselves but little civilised, did not attempt to assimilate the Bulgarians in the sense in which civilised nations try to effect the intellectual and ethnic assimilation of a subject race. Except in isolated cases, where Bulgarian girls or young men were carried off and forced to adopt Mohammedanism, the government never took any general measures to impose Mohammedanism or assimilate the Bulgarians to the Moslems. The Turks prided themselves on keeping apart from the Bulgarians, and this was fortunate for our nationality. Contented with their political supremacy and pleased to feel themselves masters, the Turks did not trouble about the spiritual life of the *rayas*, except to try to trample out all desires for independence. All these circumstances contributed to allow the Bulgarian people, crushed and ground down by the Turkish yoke, to concentrate and preserve its own inner spiritual life. They formed religious communities attached to the churches. These had a certain amount of autonomy, and, beside seeing after the churches, could keep schools. The national literature, full of the most poetic melancholy, handed down from generation to generation and developed by tradition, still tells us of the life of the Bulgarians under the Ottoman yoke. In these popular songs, the memory of the ancient Bulgarian kingdom is mingled with the sufferings of the present hour. The songs of this period are remarkable for the oriental character of their times, and this is almost the sole trace of Moslem influence.

In spite of the vigilance of the Turks, the religious associations served as centres to keep alive the national feeling. At the beginning of the nineteenth century, when Russia

declared war against Turkey (1827), Bulgaria awoke. Unhappily, her hopes were vain, but the impulse had been given and, one after the other, Roumanians, Servians, and Greeks were roused from their lethargy.

The emancipation of the Bulgarian Church preceded the political emancipation, and we may fairly say that if the latter is not entirely the work of Bulgarians, at least the deliverance of the national Church from the Greek yoke was the exclusive work of the best of the nation. Their efforts were crowned with success in 1870, when the Bulgarian Exarchate was established at Constantinople.

While the more conservative saw their salvation in the freeing of the Bulgarian Church from the authority of the Greek patriarch, a new generation was growing up who were not content with merely ecclesiastical liberty. Young men began to emigrate in large numbers, and Roumania became the centre for Bulgarian emigrants who were to prepare some bold attacks on the oppressor. A series of insurrections shook the foundations of the Ottoman Empire. By degrees, Greeks, Roumanians, and Servians recovered their independence. In 1875 and 1876, events of exceptional gravity decided the Powers to interfere to good purpose. While an insurrection was breaking out in Herzegovina, the French and German consuls at Salonica were assassinated by Moslem fanatics. An insurrection among the Bulgarians of the Sandjak of Philippopolis was repressed by Turkish massacres and atrocities which, voiced by Gladstone, brought down the indignation of Europe. Servia, willing to profit by these disturbances to attempt a complete separation from Turkey, ordered her army across the frontier. The Powers were forced to call a Conference, which met at Constantinople on December 11th—23rd, 1876.

This Conference marks an important epoch in Bulgarian history. For the first time in the official relations of the

Powers, the name "Bulgaria" was mentioned, and the first outlines for the organisation of the coming Principality were sketched.

At the first meeting, Comte de Chaudordy, French Envoy Extraordinary, in the name of the Powers represented at the Conference, presented a project of reform concerning Servia, Montenegro, Bulgaria, Bosnia, and Herzegovina. As he was speaking, the noise of great guns reached the ears of the plenipotentiaries: it was a carefully planned surprise. The President of the Conference, Sawfet Pacha, rose and solemnly announced that this firing was to proclaim the beginning of constitutional government in the Ottoman Empire. "The great deed," he said, "which is this moment being accomplished changes a state of things which has lasted six centuries. The Constitution, granted by his Majesty the Sultan to his peoples, is proclaimed. It opens for Turkey a new era of happiness and prosperity." It is true that the Constitution was proclaimed, but it only lasted for a morning. The Turkish plenipotentiaries answered all the proposals of the Powers by a *non possumus*, which they based on the statement that the new Constitution assured liberty to all nationalities.

The project of the Powers for Bulgaria included the following measures: the districts inhabited by Bulgarians were to be divided into two provinces. According to the map attached to the document, the Eastern Province, with Tirnovo as capital, was to include the Sandjaks of Roustchouk, Tirnovo, Toultscha, Varna, Sliven, Philippopolis (not including Sultan-Eri and Ahi-Tchélebi), the kazas of Kirklisi, Moustapha-Pacha and Kasilagatch; and the Western Province, with Sofia as capital, the Sandjaks of Sofia, Vidin, Nisch, Uşkub, Monastir, the three kazas of the north of Sérès, and the kazas of Stroumitza, Tikvesch, Velès, and Kastoria. Districts of from five to ten thousand inhabitants were to stand as the administrative unit.

Christian and Mohammedans were to be settled homogeneously in these districts. Each district was to have at its head a mayor and a district council, elected by universal suffrage, and was to enjoy entire autonomy as regards local affairs. Several districts would form a Sandjak with a prefect (*mutes-sarif*) at its head who was to be Christian or Mohammedan, according to the majority of the population of the Sandjak. He would be proposed by the Governor-General, and nominated by the Porte for four years. Finally, every two Sandjaks were to be administered by a Christian Governor-General nominated by the Porte for five years, with consent of the Powers. This functionary would govern the province with the help of a provincial assembly, composed of representatives chosen by the district councils for a term of four years, at the rate of one deputy to thirty or forty thousand inhabitants. This assembly would nominate an administrative council of ten members. The provincial assembly would be summoned every year to decide the budget and the redivision of taxes. The armed force was to be concentrated in the towns and there would be local militia beside. The language of the predominant nationality was to be employed, as well as Turkish. Finally, a Commission of International Control was to supervise the execution of these reforms.

The Ottoman plenipotentiaries asked leave to present another plan, which was granted. They entered a determined protest against two essential points in the project of the Powers: the Christian Governors, approved by the Powers and the Commission of Control. The project was the result of much consideration and reflection and of a number of notes exchanged by the Cabinets, especially of the Austrian note of December 30th, 1875. The Powers were the less able to give up the Christian Governors and the control, as they saw that no other guarantee would secure the execution of many of the reforms which the diplomatists of Yildiz-Kiosk

were always ready to grant on paper. In vain the Conference conceded several secondary points ; Turkey persisted in her refusal, and the Conference separated without achieving any result. The thunder of war was already heard afar off.

The Russo-Turkish war broke out on April 12th, 1877, and what Turkey had refused to yield of her own accord was wrested from her by force of arms, in the preliminary treaty of San Stefano. By this treaty, Bulgaria was made an autonomous Principality subject to Turkey (Art. 6), with a Christian government and national militia. The Prince of Bulgaria was to be freely chosen by the people and accepted by the Sublime Porte, with the consent of the Powers. As regards internal government, it was agreed that an assembly of notables, presided over by an Imperial Commissioner and attended by a Turkish Commissioner, should meet at Philippopolis or Tirnova before the election of the Prince to draw up a constitutional statute similar to those of the other Danubian principalities after the Treaty of Adrianople in 1830. In this way, the form of government for Bulgaria which had been sketched in the project presented to the Conference at Constantinople was almost finally determined by the Russians at San Stefano. Then came the Congress of Berlin ; its discussions were based on the Treaty of San Stefano, which almost served as a first draft for the Treaty of Berlin.

The Treaty of Berlin contains the following decisions on the subject of the new Principality : " Bulgaria is to be an independent Principality, subject to the Sultan, with a Christian government and a national militia ; the Prince of Bulgaria will be freely chosen by the Bulgarian nation and accepted by the Sublime Porte, with the approval of the Great Powers ; no member of a reigning European family can be elected Prince of Bulgaria ; in case of a vacancy of the throne the election will be repeated under the same conditions and with the same forms ; before the election of the Prince, an

assembly of notables will decide on the constitutional statute of the Principality at Tirnova. The laws will be based on the following principles : difference of religion forms no hindrance to the exercise of all civil and political rights and the holding of public office ; commercial treaties concluded with the Porte will be binding on Bulgaria, she will not be able to introduce any changes in them without the consent of the Power concerned ; no transit duties can be charged on merchandise passing through Bulgaria ; the rights and privileges of foreign subjects, the right of consular jurisdiction and protection, as instituted in the capitulations and by custom, will hold good until abrogated with the consent of the Powers concerned ; Bulgaria will pay tribute to Turkey and will take part in her debts ; Bulgarians travelling in Turkey will be under Turkish law and subject to the Turkish authorities."

As we are not considering Bulgaria from an international standpoint, a number of these clauses do not concern us. We will only observe that, whatever may have been said of the sovereignty or half-sovereignty of Bulgaria, we must not overlook the fact that this question cannot be solved by a study of the enactments of the Treaty of Berlin. This treaty, which imposes so many conditions on Bulgaria, itself stipulates that immediately after the election of the prince Bulgaria shall enjoy complete autonomy. It follows, then, that from that moment Bulgaria must be autonomous, and, each day bringing new successes, Bulgaria was able to really become a sovereign state, and far eclipse the vassal and tributary principality of 1878. With the consent of the parties concerned, the capitulations were abolished ; the tribute is not paid ; commercial treaties are freely made between Bulgaria and the Powers ; each day brings a change in the relations of Turkey and Bulgaria. Everything depends on moral or physical force. So long as Bulgaria remains strong she may consider

herself sovereign ; if weak, she is only half-sovereign. As to the clauses of the Treaty of Berlin concerning the government of the country, they only remained valid until the beginning of the autonomy. They were binding on Bulgaria before and during the Tirnova assembly and after it, until the election of the prince.

The constituent assembly met at Tirnova February 10th—22nd, 1879, and soon voted the Constitution of the country which, with some slight modifications, is still in force. This assembly, dissolved immediately after the passing of the Constitution, was followed by another for the election of the prince, April 29th, 1879. Alexander of Battenberg was unanimously elected.

We will not dwell upon the contemporary history of Bulgaria, but only mention a few of its most important and salient events. These are the union of Eastern Roumelia with Northern Bulgaria (September 6th, 1885), the Servo-Bulgarian war of the same year, which brought glory to the Bulgarian army, and the election of His Royal Highness Ferdinand I. as Prince of Bulgaria (July 7th, 1887).

Since the election of His Royal Highness, Bulgaria has enjoyed absolute peace. Thanks to this circumstance, and to the watchfulness of the head of the State, this long time of peace has been well employed in the inner and outer consolidation of the country, in the moral and intellectual development of the people, in all the enterprises which to-day place Bulgaria in the rank of civilised and well-ordered countries. Finally, let us mention another event of the highest importance for the future of the Principality: the foundation of a dynasty by the marriage of His Royal Highness and the birth of Boris, Prince of Tirnova, the first heir to the throne of Bulgaria.

2. POPULATION

According to a special law, a census of the population of Bulgaria is taken at fixed periods. This important task is entrusted to the Direction of Statistics, whose method of operation is such as to secure perfectly reliable results. The different Governments which have been in power since the liberation of Bulgaria have always given their special attention to this institution, which has already rendered signal services, and whose importance is bound to grow with the development of the country.

Owing to its good organisation and to its trained personnel, the Direction of Statistics possesses at the present hour complete information on all those branches of the national activity which can be translated into figures.

The census taken by the Direction of Statistics on December 31st, 1905, shows that at that date the Principality had a population of 4,035,646 inhabitants. The following table contains the results obtained by the censuses taken at various periods.

Census of December 31st.	Male sex.	Female sex.	Totals.
1905	2,057,175	1,978,471	4,035,646
1900	1,909,567	1,834,716	3,744,283
1892	1,690,626	1,620,087	3,310,713
1887	1,605,389	1,548,986	3,154,375
1884	476,462	466,218	942,680*
1880	1,027,803	980,116	2,007,919†

From this table it appears that, during the period 1880-1905, the population of Bulgaria increased by 1,085,047 inhabitants.

If we compare the total number of inhabitants with the total area of the Principality, we obtain 39 inhabitants per square kilometre, which represents the present density of population in Bulgaria. We may, therefore, conclude that Bulgaria,

* Only for Southern Bulgaria.

† Only for Northern Bulgaria.



GROUP OF PEASANT GIRLS FROM THE VILLAGE OF VETREN.



with her rich soil and her natural advantages, can easily support a population considerably larger than the present one.

The greater part of the inhabitants live in the country but the number of towns is relatively a large one (73). The capital of the Principality, Sofia, has a population of 82,621. The towns next in importance are as follows: Plovdiv (Philippopolis), 45,707 inhabitants; Varna, 37,417; Roussé (Roustchouk), 33,632; Sliven, 25,027; Shoumen, 22,275; Pleven, 21,145; Stara-Zagora, 20,788.

The following table contains the names of towns with a population from 10,000 to 20,000, and from 5,000 to 10,000:

No.	Towns with 10,000 to 20,000 inhabitants.	Population.	No.	Towns with 10,000 to 20,000 inhabitants.	Population.
1.	Tatar-Bazardjik	17,555	1.	Toutrakan	.. 9,845
2.	Vidin	16,388	2.	Panagurichté ..	9,729
3.	Yambol	15,741	3.	Sevliévo	9,712
4.	Dobritch	15,397	4.	Eski-Djoumaya	9,549
5.	Haskovo	15,105	5.	Kavakly	8,416
6.	Vratza	14,916	6.	Lovetch	8,178
7.	Stanimaka	14,157	7.	Leskovetz	8,106
8.	Razgrad	13,799	8.	Gabrovo	7,816
9.	Sistova	13,441	9.	Karlovo	7,812
10.	Bourgas	12,949	10.	Gorna-Oréhovitza	6,819
11.	Kustendil	12,334	11.	Baltchik	6,588
12.	Tirnovó	12,185	12.	Karnobat	6,583
13.	Silistria	12,055	13.	Oréhovo	6,197
14.	Tchirpan	11,868	14.	Nova-Zagora	5,879
15.	Doupnitza	11,231	15.	Berkovitza	5,784
16.	Kazanlik	10,790	16.	Pechtéra	5,779
17.	Lom	10,730	17.	Provadia	5,724
18.	Samokov	10,205	18.	Anhialo	5,464
			19.	Nikopol	5,236
			20.	Béla	5,166
			21.	Loukovit	5,037

The next table, which is of special importance from an economical point of view, shows the repartition of the families as regards the number of their members. The circumstance which deserves special notice is the comparatively important number of large families. These latter form a kind of patriarchal groups, in which several generations of descendants have remained with undivided property under the authority of one family head. Such families were formerly more frequent, but the law of successions has a tendency to reduce their number by splitting the rural properties among the various members of the family.

Number of members of families.	Number of families.		Total.
	Population of towns.	Population in the country.	
1	19,299	11,807	31,106
2	22,311	25,035	47,346
3	28,182	45,747	73,929
4	29,732	66,554	96,286
5	27,884	82,771	110,655
6	21,746	83,635	105,381
7	13,636	69,216	82,852
8	7,619	48,218	55,837
9	3,646	30,756	34,402
10	1,757	19,005	20,762
11	737	11,506	12,243
12	340	7,570	7,910
13	180	4,853	5,033
14	79	3,446	3,525
15	44	2,187	2,231
16	39	1,499	1,538
17	16	1,069	1,085
18	14	786	800
19	8	528	536
20	1	368	369

As regards the various nationalities, the population of the Principality is distributed as follows :

No.	Nationality.	Population.	
		Men.	Women.
1.	Bulgarian	2,022,920	1,959,786
2.	Russian	1,715	1,479
3.	Servian	1,154	707
4.	Montenegrin	115	33
5.	Turkish	21,344	7,693
6.	Austro-Hungarian	3,114	3,191
7.	American	31	36
8.	British	65	47
9.	Belgian	36	29
10.	German	269	226
11.	Greek	3,928	3,329
12.	Spanish	41	347
13.	Italian	617	520
14.	Persian	238	182
15.	Roumanian	1,242	853
16.	French	276	276
17.	Swiss	50	43
18.	Other nations	20	7

The following table shows the distribution of the population as regards the countries of origin.

No.	Birthplace.	Population.		Total.
		Men.	Women.	
1.	Bulgaria	1,981,166	1,929,182	3,910,348
2.	Turkey	55,924	31,550	87,474
3.	Roumania	7,219	6,323	13,542
4.	Russia	4,075	3,266	7,341
5.	Servia	2,451	1,987	4,438
6.	Austro-Hungary	4,678	5,205	9,883
7.	Greece	613	209	822
8.	Montenegro	185	38	223

No.	Birthplace.	Population.		Total.
		Men.	Women.	
9.	Italy	258	128	386
10.	Germany	207	200	407
11.	France	148	162	310
12.	Switzerland	57	81	138
13.	England	47	37	84
14.	Spain	1	2	3
15.	Belgium	36	49	85
16.	Denmark	4	1	5
17.	Holland	5	2	7
18.	Sweden	3	1	4
19.	Norway	4	—	4
20.	United States	18	24	42
21.	Persia	59	8	67
22.	Other countries outside Europe ..	17	16	33
Total population :		2,057,175	1,978,471	4,035,646

The following table shows the repartition of the population of Bulgaria as regards the vernacular languages :

No.	Vernacular language.	Population.	
		Men.	Women.
1.	Bulgarian	1,632,266	1,572,753
2.	Russian	1,767	1,503
3.	Servian	1,621	1,104
4.	Croatian	100	102
5.	Tzech	649	763
6.	Polish	94	64
7.	Other Slav languages ..	799	703
8.	Turkish	254,475	243,345
9.	Tartar	8,306	7,964
10.	Greek	35,538	34,223
11.	Jewish	18,198	18,257
12.	Armenian	7,690	5,804

No.	Vernacular language.	Population.	
		Men.	Women.
13.	German	2,339	2,682
14.	French	292	351
15.	Italian	495	336
16.	Roumanian	42,356	41,588
17.	Tzigan	48,496	46,153
18.	Albanian	1,162	162
19.	Hungarian	354	523
20.	English	64	50
21.	Arab	41	17
22.	Persian	32	3
23.	Other Non-Slav languages	41	21

As regards the various religions existing in the Principality, and the vernacular language of the inhabitants, the population of Bulgaria is distributed as follows :

No.	Vernacular language.	CONFESSIONS.					
		Orthodox.		Catholic.		Protestant.	
		M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.
1	Bulgarian	1,608,001	1,549,214	11,623	11,494	1,317	1,281
2	Russian	1,309	1,018	7	9	15	14
3	Servian	1,587	1,079	17	15	1	1
4	Croatian	18	27	78	74	1	—
5	Tsach	51	108	478	533	119	121
6	Polish	9	8	76	50	1	—
7	Other Slav languages ..	128	121	109	112	555	468
8	Turkish	4,297	4,275	1	1	1	1
9	Tartar	—	1	—	—	—	—
10	Greek	35,469	34,172	30	24	35	24
11	Jewish	3	9	—	—	1	—
12	Armenian	722	474	32	32	62	60
13	German	92	237	1,267	1,463	529	471
14	French	12	37	224	247	29	35
15	Italian	8	21	476	313	2	2
16	Roumanian	42,311	41,519	15	19	5	16
17	Trigany	9,624	9,310	5	5	—	—
18	Albanian	396	153	6	—	1	—
19	Hungarian	32	118	233	322	64	59
20	English	1	5	10	7	52	38
21	Arab	8	5	11	6	—	—
22	Persian	—	—	—	—	1	—
23	Other Non-Slav languages	—	2	12	6	11	9
	Total	1,704,078	1,641,913	14,710	14,732	2,802	2,600

CONFESSIONS.									
Arm.-Grégor.		Mahommedan.		Jewish.		Old believers.		Freethinkers.	
M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.
9	9	10,886	10,680	14	19	—	—	416	56
1	1	—	—	43	40	390	421	2	—
—	1	12	4	—	2	—	—	4	2
—	—	—	—	3	1	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	1	1	—	—	—	—
—	1	—	—	5	4	—	—	3	1
4	2	2	—	1	—	—	—	—	—
297	314	249,938	238,754	—	—	—	—	1	—
—	—	8,306	7,962	—	1	—	—	—	—
—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	4	2
—	—	—	—	18,181	18,248	—	—	13	—
6,866	5,238	3	—	—	—	—	—	5	—
—	—	—	—	440	503	—	—	11	8
—	1	—	—	27	31	—	—	—	—
6	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	2	—
—	2	—	—	24	29	—	—	1	3
—	—	38,867	36,838	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	758	9	—	—	—	—	1	—
—	—	6	8	17	16	—	—	2	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—
1	—	21	5	—	1	—	—	—	—
—	—	31	3	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	18	4	—	—	—	—	—	—
7,124	5,570	308,848	294,267	18,757	18,896	390	421	466	72

1911



PLOVDIV (PHILIPPOLIS).

CHAPTER III

POLITICAL AND ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANISATION

I. CONSTITUTION OF THE BULGARIAN PRINCIPALITY

It is too early as yet to attempt writing a constitutional history of Bulgaria. The modern history of the Principality barely covers thirty years, and may be said to begin with the arrival of the first Prince in the country. Between the ancient Bulgarian kingdom and Bulgaria of our time there is a break of several centuries, which makes it impossible to establish any logical connection of the present with the past. The Organic Statute which now regulates the political life of Bulgaria is, so to speak, the product of a day. Its origins are not buried far back into the past history of the country, neither is it the result of the sole efforts of the Bulgarian nation. The Great Powers, at the same time as they proclaimed the independence of Bulgaria, not only fixed the form of the future government of the Principality, but also laid down the main principles of its public law. Under these circumstances, history is but of small practical value in the study of the political organisation of modern Bulgaria, and we, therefore, only propose to give a brief sketch of the events and institutions which preceded the present order of things.

Very little is known of the political organisation of the ancient Bulgarian kingdom. At the beginning, the govern-

ment appears to have been purely aristocratic. The king was invested with absolute power, and, in the discharge of his functions, was assisted by a council of six great noblemen, or "boliars," whence the word "boliarstvo," or nobility. The royal court was composed of a great number of pages, equerries, and small noblemen from all over the country. The noblemen and the clergy shared between themselves the government of the kingdom. Serfdom seems to have existed from the very first.

Under the feudal system, while the authority of the king suffered diminution, the royal titles, on the contrary, rose in dignity. The king was called "Cæsar" and "Imperator," he sent and received ambassadors, wore a purple mantle and a crown, and carried a sceptre. The succession was regulated by the law of primogeniture, in the descending male line, women being excluded by the Salic Law. In the absence of children, the succession devolved on the eldest brother. During the minority of the king the regency belonged by right to his mother. When a royal family became extinct, the noblemen proclaimed a new dynasty in the person of one of their peers.

All state functions formed the exclusive privilege of the boliars. The entire political organisation was modelled on that of the Byzantine Empire. The highest state dignitary, who was one of the king's relatives, was called "despot." Then came the "sebastocrat," or the king's brother. There was a chamberlain, a minister of finance, and various other dignitaries, to whom were entrusted the different State services. Every province had at its head a prefect, or "ban," who represented the king. Society was divided into three classes: the nobility and the clergy, the tradesmen, and the peasants, or pariahs. These latter were allowed to possess land, to which, however, they were tied. They also had to pay taxes to the upper classes.

The legislative power was vested in the king and in the council of bishops. Among the various sources of law of the period, we may mention the Chrysobulles or royal decrees, the decisions of the councils, the prefectoral ordinances, and the decisions of the law courts.

During the Turkish domination, Bulgarian formed the Vilayet of Danube, her lot differing little from that of the other Ottoman provinces in the Balkan Peninsula. Until the Treaty of Paris in 1856, Turkey had no more than a rudimentary political organisation. Being a theocratic state, all the public institutions emanated from the Calif, as the representative of Mahommed. The Koran held the place of civil and criminal law, and the duty of its ministers was to punish all those who broke its commandments. Every parish had a "cadi," who was appointed by the spiritual chief. The cadi concentrated in his hands all jurisdictions, judging without appeal all cases, civil and criminal, and observing no fixed rules of procedure in the application of the few principles which the Koran contained on the subject of civil relations. When the disputes were of a more complicated character, the cadi was assisted by two notables of the parish who, however, only had a consultative voice in the decisions. In certain special cases, the Sheik-ul-Islam of Constantinople, which is the highest religious tribunal in Turkey, had the right to revise the decisions of the cadis.

At the Congress of Paris Turkey, as one of the participating parties, was admitted into the concert of European Powers. With the object of showing herself worthy of the honour, Turkey undertook to introduce a certain number of law reforms, borrowing, chiefly from France, a criminal code, a commercial code, etc. On that same occasion, civil tribunals were for the first time created in Turkey, being called Mahkémé-Nizamié, or law courts. In 1867 they were introduced in the Vilayet of Danube by the then Governor-

General, Midhat Pasha. These were tribunals of first instance and courts of appeal, each consisting of three or four judges. Their jurisdiction, however, was never strictly defined, while their usefulness was rendered illusory by the fact that the jurisdiction of the cadis remained intact. These latter, being popular with a population fanatically attached to the Koran, continued to hear all sorts of cases, so that the new law courts were soon ignored by the private parties and forgotten by the Government.

The principle of the separation of powers was quite unknown. The administrative authorities were at the same time judiciary organs. The police authorities held the place of assize courts; they judged and executed their decisions without any semblance of process. Public life was practically non-existent. The customs of the population were simple and primitive. There were no means of communication, the word industry was hardly known, commerce was insignificant, and agriculture formed the sole occupation of the "rayas." In these conditions, and given the low level of intellectual and moral development, the absence of a more perfect political organisation tallied well with the general state of things.

The description which we have just given remains to this day true of the greater part of the Turkish provinces, and especially of Macedonia.

Such was the state in which the Russians found Bulgaria in 1877. No sooner had they crossed the Danube than their first thoughts were given to the administrative organisation of the country. There exists on this subject an interesting report which was prepared by the Russian Imperial Commissary in Bulgaria and read by him before the constituent assembly at Tirnovo. The task of remodelling the administration of the country was entrusted to a special commission which accompanied the troops and was placed under the authority of the Commander-in-Chief of the Russian armies.



MONUMENT OF THE TZAR LIBERATOR, SOFIA.

As early as July 7th, 1877, the Commissary submitted to the approval of the Commander-in-Chief a scheme for the civil organisation of the sandjaks and kazas of Bulgaria, the respective governors issuing at the same time orders that the few institutions which had remained from the former regime should continue in operation.

In the turmoil of the war, the work of restoration was for a time forgotten. Besides, the undertaking proved a very difficult one, while the few results which had been obtained were hardly encouraging. Properly speaking, there could be no question of a real administrative organisation before the signature of the Treaty of San Stefano. In virtue of one of the clauses of that treaty, Russia appointed a Commissary-General, with the mandate to organise the civil government of Bulgaria. The choice fell on Prince Dondoukoff-Korsakoff. He was allowed a period of two years to accomplish his task, but this term was subsequently reduced by the Treaty of Berlin to nine months. Korsakoff appointed an administrative council, which may be said to be the earliest vestige of civil government in the Principality after the war. The council consisted of six members, who were placed at the head of the following departments: Commissary's chancery and diplomatic correspondence, military affairs, interior, justice, finance, and public instruction and religions. Northern Bulgaria was provisionally divided into sixteen departments which, in their turn, were sub-divided into thirty-two districts. As regards Southern Bulgaria, or Eastern Roumelia, the Treaty of Berlin reserved for it a different fate. The chief of the judiciary section, Lucanoff, appointed a commission to collect the materials necessary for the drawing up of regulations. The labours of this commission resulted in the important work entitled "Provisional Rules for the Organisation of Justice in Bulgaria," which was promulgated at Plovdiv on August 24th, 1878. These rules

dealt with the judiciary organisation, and with civil and criminal procedure. They abolished the few remaining institutions, most of which only existed on paper, substituting in their place a completely new scheme. Henceforth, the judiciary authority was to be vested in the Councils of Elders and in the ordinary and exceptional courts. The independence of the administrative authority received a formal recognition. Councils of Elders were instituted in all the communes. The ordinary courts were district and departmental, these latter acting as courts of appeal. The exceptional jurisdictions were four in number: administrative, military, religious and Mahommedan. The Orthodox, Mahommedan, and Jewish confessions were to have tribunals of their own. Commercial courts were to be established in the principal commercial centres, but this was never done. The jurisdiction of the military courts and their procedure were maintained as fixed by the proclamation of July 1st, 1877. It should be further mentioned that the new regime displayed great toleration towards the Mahommedans, who had been until lately masters of the country. This indulgence will be easily understood, if we state that the official language of the new courts was to be Bulgarian or Russian, both of which were equally unintelligible to the Turks. Besides, the courts had been ordered to observe the local and national usages and traditions, until the elaboration of new laws. These usages and traditions differed considerably with the various nationalities. All these considerations, as well as the desire to show how much the new regime differed from the Asiatic intolerance which had preceded it, were the cause of the "Provisional Rules" sanctioning the creation, in addition to the Councils of Elders and the local courts, of special Turkish civil courts, which must not be confounded with the religious courts which the Turks had, together with all the various other nationalities. The Mahommedan courts had the same

jurisdiction as the common law courts in all cases where the dispute lay between Mahommedan parties. If the suitors were of different nationality, the case came before the two courts, sitting jointly under the presidency of the oldest member.

As might have been expected, things during this transitional period did not always go for the best. The Russians did all in their power to replace the old order of things, which the population would stand no longer, with European institutions. There were circumstances, however, which rendered their task extremely difficult. In the first place, the state of war and the other daily excitements, which did not calm down for a long time, were not the conditions most suitable to the performance of their mission. The abolition of the former administration did not take place everywhere at the same time, but had to keep pace with the success of the Russian troops which, only gradually, and at the cost of torrents of blood, drove the enemy southwards. At the beginning, the labour was nothing short of a tower of Babel where it was impossible to understand much of what went on. The administrative machinery, built as it was at haphazard with heterogeneous materials, jarred and weighed down in all its parts, while intelligent workmen still laboured to make it go.

The provisional government had for mission also to prepare a scheme for the new constitution of the country. This task was entrusted to the Russian professor Gradovsky, who was assisted by General Domontovitz. The draft, which was written in Russian and had for title "Organic Statute," was submitted to the Constituent Assembly of Tirnova on February 10th-22nd, 1879, by the Commissary-General, Don-doukoff-Korsakoff. Very little is known of the sources from which Professor Gradovsky drew, or of the principles which guided him in his work. On some of the most important

points, the initiative of the author had been strictly defined by the Treaty of Berlin, which had already fixed the form of the future government of Bulgaria. As regards his sources, it is practically certain that Professor Gradovsky was greatly influenced by the Servian and Belgian constitutions, and also by the Russian communal institutions, in so far as the autonomy of the communes was concerned.

Many of the liberal institutions which now form part of the constitution did not figure in the original draft, but are due to the initiative of members of the Constituent Assembly. The differences between the draft as it was submitted and the constitution as it was voted by the Assembly are numerous, and in some respects of far-reaching importance. The draft reserved the entire legislative initiative to the Prince and to the Government, thus excluding the members of the legislative body from the right of originating new laws. By its composition, the National Assembly would have had the character of a senate rather than that of a popular assembly. All its members were not to be elected by universal suffrage, the Prince having the right to appoint a certain number of deputies, while the Exarch, the bishops, and the presidents of the law courts were to be members of the Assembly, by virtue of the office which they held. The draft provided for the creation of a State Council, whose duty was to advise the Government in the preparation of bills, to act as supreme administrative court, to decide disputes between the judiciary and administrative organs, to authorise extraordinary expenditure and communal loans, to sanction expropriations of public utility, and to watch over the observance of the constitution.

The Constituent Assembly, to which the examination of this draft of the "Organic Statute" was submitted, consisted of 231 members, of whom 89 had been elected by popular suffrage, at the rate of one deputy per 10,000 male



" TARGOVSKA ULITZA " STREET, SOFIA.



inhabitants, 21 were appointed by the Imperial Commissary (11 of these members were Mahommedans), 5 represented different societies, 11 members, of whom 9 Orthodox, 1 mufti and one rabbi represented the clergy, and the remaining 105 members were high functionaries, presidents of law courts, and of departmental and municipal councils.

The draft was referred to a committee of 15 members, who were to examine it and report to the Assembly. The debates which followed the presentation of the committee's report show that even at that early period Bulgaria did not lack men fully equipped for such an important task.

The principal speakers during these debates were the same men who, during the subsequent twenty-five years have played the foremost part in the political life of the country. Mostly young men who had recently returned from the European universities, they brought into the Assembly their stores of knowledge, personal recollections, and observations, gathered during their sojourn in the different capitals of Europe, where they had followed closely the parliamentary life of other countries. The greater part of these men were not "notables," and owed their position in the Assembly, not to their social position, but to popular suffrage. Linked, as they were, with Occidental liberalism, they represented in an assembly composed mainly of Turkish rayas, the ideas of civilisation and culture. We can detect, even at that early stage, the different tendencies which were soon to divide the country into political parties.

The work of the committee appears more retrograde even than the draft itself. In the place of a State Council, the committee proposed the creation of a senate. Mere citizenship did not entitle one to political rights; in order to be a voter it was necessary to possess certain pecuniary qualifications, which became heavier for those who were candidates for the Assembly. The report of the committee was rejected,

and the Assembly took up the Russian draft, discussing it point by point.

The alterations which were introduced bore on the name of the bill, as well as on most of the provisions which it contained. The title which the Assembly selected was: "Constitution of the Bulgarian State." The principle of a State Council was rejected; the legislative body secured for itself the right of initiating laws and the composition of the Assembly was made uniform, the pecuniary census being abolished, and all members being elected by universal suffrage.

The constitution, with the above amendments, was passed on April 16th, 1879, and was countersigned by all the deputies of the Constituent Assembly, as well as by the Imperial Commissary, the Ottoman delegates, and the representatives of the Great Powers. The relatively small part which these latter took in the labours of the Assembly of Tirnova was due to the fact that, in accordance with the stipulations of the Treaty of Berlin, they had been co-operating with the Imperial Russian Commissary in the preparation of his scheme. Their abstention may have been also prompted by the consideration that, with the passing of the Organic Statute, the mission of the provisional government practically terminated.

Such were the circumstances under which was ushered into life this constitution, which already has behind it a history of twenty-five years. Among its other merits, the principal one is that it has survived more than one crisis, and has attained an age which may excite the envy of some other countries. Its history has been a very stormy one. A fragile craft, entrusted to inexperienced sailors, it was launched into a stormy sea, and had from the very first to struggle against thousands of internal and external dangers. It would take too large a space to describe in these pages its history, which is practically the history of Bulgaria during the last quarter of a century. We shall only mention that, as a

consequence of the *coup d'état* of 1881, the constitution was for a time suspended. The law of July 1st-13th invested the Prince with extraordinary powers for a period of seven years, and conferred on him the right to issue decrees, creating new institutions and having the authority of law. At the expiration of the seven years, the Prince was to call a grand National Assembly to revise the constitution in the light of acquired experience, and in conformity with the newly created institutions.

It may be added at this place that the original intention of the Russian Government had been to make a provisional constitution, which should be revised after a few years' trial. But the Constituent Assembly declined to create a provisional state of things, and the constitution which it passed remained a final one.

In virtue of the law which we have just mentioned, the Chamber of Deputies was immediately dissolved. The most important undertaking of the new regime was to create a State Council. This institution, which shared with the Prince the legislative attributes, consisted of eight members elected by the nation, four appointed by the Prince, and of the ministers who, however, only had a consultative voice. Although the extraordinary and unlimited powers conferred on the Prince excluded the collaboration of a National Assembly, the Prince deemed it expedient to promise to convoke the representatives of the people, if the interest of the country should require this.

The absolutist regime thus inaugurated did not live to the end of its seven years' term, and the Constitution of Tirnova was once more restored by the proclamation of September 6th, 1883.

Since that date the constitution has been uninterruptedly in force. On two occasions only a partial revision of the constitution was undertaken. The first attempt occurred shortly after the restoration of the Constitutional Government

in 1883, but the contemplated changes could not be effected, a subsequent law having pronounced that the conditions and forms prescribed by the constitution in case of a revision had not been complied with. A second attempt at revising the constitution followed in 1893, and this time it met with better success, the fourth grand National Assembly of Tirnova having, on May 15th of that year, amended Articles 6, 38, 59, 86, 114, 115, 125, 126, 139, 141, 144, and 161.

The Bulgarian Constitution consists of a hundred and sixty-nine clauses, grouped into twenty-two chapters which, in their turn, are subdivided into sections. The various chapters deal with the following subjects: I. The territory of the Principality; II. The prerogatives of the Prince, and their limits; III. The residence of the Prince; IV. The coat of arms, seal, and national flag of the Principality; V. The manner of succession to the throne; VI. The majority of the Prince, the regency, and the guardianship; VII. The accession to the throne and the oath; VIII. The civil list of the Prince and of his household; IX. Religion; X. Laws; XI. State properties; XII. The citizens of the Bulgarian Principality; XIII. National representation; XIV. Ordinary National Assembly; XV. Duties of the National Assembly; XVI. Manner of introducing and examining of bills; XVII. The budget; XVIII. State loans; XIX. Convocation of the National Assembly; XX. Grand National Assembly; XXI. Supreme public institutions, Council of Ministers, and ministries; XXII. Mode of revising or altering the constitution.

2. FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES OF THE GOVERNMENT AND THE ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANISATION OF THE PRINCIPALITY

According to the Bulgarian Constitution, the government and the administrative organisation of the Principality repose on the following principles:

(1) Separation of public authorities into legislative, executive and judiciary.

(2) Perfect equality of citizens, as regards civil and political rights.

(3) Inviolability of the person, residence, property, and correspondence.

(4) Liberty of conscience, liberty of the press, liberty of public meetings, and liberty to form associations.

(5) Direct and secret universal suffrage for the election of members of the National Assembly, and departmental and municipal councils.

(6) Local self-government.

THE PRINCIPAL PUBLIC AUTHORITIES

The Principality of Bulgaria is a constitutional and hereditary monarchy, with a national representation. The legislative and executive authorities exercise the national sovereignty in the name of the nation and within the limits prescribed by the fundamental law of the country.

The legislative power is vested in the Prince and in the National Assembly, acting jointly.

The chief prerogatives of the Crown are as follows :

(1) *Administrative Prerogative.*—The executive power belongs to the Prince. All the administrative organs act in his name and under his supreme control. In virtue of his prerogative, the prince appoints and dismisses the ministers and, through these latter, all the civil and military functionaries. He is the supreme chief of the military forces of the country in time of peace, and their commander-in-chief in time of war. He represents the country in its international relations and at the national solemnities. All the treaties with foreign States are concluded in his name and by authority of the National Assembly.

The person of the Prince is sacred and inviolable.

The Prince has the title of Royal Highness.

(2) *Legislative Prerogative*.—Once a year, from October 15th to December 15th, the Prince convokes the National Assembly in ordinary session ; he summons it in extraordinary sessions whenever there are important State matters requiring immediate decision. The Prince opens the session personally or through a delegate appointed *ad hoc*. The throne speech, which he pronounces on this occasion, contains a statement of the general condition of the country's affairs, and specifies the various bills and propositions which the Government will submit to the approval of the National Assembly. The closure of the annual parliamentary labours is accompanied by the same ceremonial as the opening of the session. The Prince has the right, after convoking the Assembly, to prorogue its session, but the prorogation may not extend beyond two months, and must not occur more than once in the course of the same session. He may also dissolve the Assembly and order new elections. The exercise of the right of dissolving the National Assembly is reserved for exceptionally grave cases, when the relations between the legislature, on the one hand, and the Prince or the Government on the other, have become greatly strained. On such occasions the settlement of the conflict is left to the nation itself.

The direct power of the Crown over the legislative activity of the Assembly is considerable. The Prince may, through his ministers, initiate bills and propositions. All the laws which have been passed by the Assembly are promulgated in the name of the Prince, and become operative only after they have been published in the *Official Journal*. The royal approval of the new laws must be given in the course of the session which has passed them.

The Prince may issue regulations and order measures, having the obligatory force of laws, whenever the State is threatened with immediate internal or external danger.

All such measures, however, must be adopted by the Cabinet Council, and entail the collective responsibility of all the ministers. They must be submitted to the approval of the National Assembly in the course of its earliest session. A special disposition of the Constitution expressly forbids the levying, by means of such extraordinary regulations, of new taxes or duties, the National Assembly having alone the right to impose such.

The measures and regulations which the Government issues with the object of ensuring the application of laws, must be submitted to the approval of the Prince, after which they are published in the *Official Journal* in the form of decrees.

(3) The *Judiciary Prerogative* of the Crown includes: (a) the right of pardon, or the right of relieving persons condemned by the law courts of the whole or of parts of their punishment. No capital sentence may be executed unless it has been approved by the Prince, who may substitute in its place a lighter penalty; (b) the right of amnesty, which the Prince exercises jointly with the National Assembly, every act of amnesty presupposing a special law sanctioned by the Prince.

(4) All the law courts of the country render their decisions and sentences in the name of the Prince.

The royal dignity is hereditary, passing in the direct descending male line. The heir to the throne attains his majority at the age of eighteen years. If he succeeds to the throne before that age, the royal prerogatives are exercised during his minority by a regency. This latter consists of three members, all of them being past or actual ministers or members of the Supreme Court, who are appointed by the Grand National Assembly.

The Civil List of the Prince is fixed by the constitution at a million francs per annum.

NATIONAL ASSEMBLY

The Bulgarian nation participates in the government of the country by means of the deputies which it sends to the *National Assembly*.

There are two kinds of national assemblies: the ordinary National Assembly and the Grand National Assembly.

The ordinary National Assembly meets in regular session every year from October 15th to December 15th. In cases of special emergency, or when pending questions demand a prompt decision, the Chamber is convoked in extraordinary session.

The deputies for the National Assembly are elected according to a special law, of which we propose to give here a brief description. The electoral lists are prepared and published by special commissions of the municipal councils. The persons interested have the right of correcting any omissions or mistakes which they may detect in the registers. All such claims are inquired into by the respective municipal council, whose decision may be taken in appeal before the Justice of Peace and the District Court. If the dispute is taken before the High Court of Cassation, this latter may annul the decisions of the lower courts in the same way as in ordinary cases. All electoral suits are exempt from stamp duties. For election purposes the country is divided into special districts, whose number and description are determined by a special law. The royal decree fixing the date of the elections must be published at least a month before the day fixed for polling. No electors may be called under the banners or requisitioned for any other State service during the five days preceding the election, or on the day of polling. All those who have been so called must be disbanded. Every elector must be provided by the municipality with an electoral card, without



" MARIA LOUISA " STREET, SOFIA.



which no one is allowed to record his vote. For this purpose, the Ministry of the Interior sends to all communes special cards, which the communal authorities must fill with the name, surname, age, etc., of the electors, specifying at the same time the election for which the card is issued and the section in which the bearer must vote. These cards must be distributed to the electors at least ten days before the polling. Those electors who, for some reason or other, have been omitted, may apply to the Justice of Peace, who is authorised by the law to issue to them electoral cards, a supply of these being sent to him at the same time as to the communal authorities. The Justice of Peace makes a written report of the action of the defaulting mayor, who is liable to criminal prosecution. Every candidate must be supported by at least twenty electors, whose names must be communicated to the District Court. He has the right to be represented in each voting place by an elector who watches over his interests. The returning bureau is composed of a president, who must be a judge, and of four other members, of whom one is a member of the departmental council, one a mayor, and the remaining two teachers in the primary schools. Ten days before the polling the Courts of Appeal chooses, by way of lot, the presidents of the returning bureau from among the members of the Court of Appeal, the district courts, and the Justices of Peace. The other members of the bureau are chosen in the same way by the District Court.

The voting is by secret ballot. The ballot-box is locked with three keys, of which one remains with the president, and the other two with the members of the returning bureau. Before recording his vote, the elector shows his card, which the returning bureau verifies by comparing it with the electoral lists. The vote, which must be folded in four, is handed to the returning president, who, without opening it, deposits it

into the ballot-box. The president of the returning bureau has under his authority the police forces in his electoral district, and has the right to requisition their services, as well as those of the army. The polling lasts from seven o'clock in the morning until six o'clock in the afternoon. When the polling is terminated, the president of the returning bureau appoints from among the electors two persons to verify the result. The candidates and their agents have the right to be present while this is being done. First of all, the electoral cards are counted over and the result of the operation checked by the marginal notes made on the electoral lists during the polling. If the number of the cards does not correspond to the electoral lists, preference is given to these latter, the incident being mentioned in the records. The president, after announcing the result in a loud voice, opens the ballot-box. The votes which have not been properly filled are not counted, but are annexed to the records. The result of the operation is recorded in a special report, which is signed by the members of the returning bureau, the verifiers, and the candidates or their agents, after which it is announced to those who are present. The report is made in two copies, of which one, accompanied by the different documents, votes, lists, cards, etc., and duly sealed with the seal of the local municipality, is sent to the president of the District Court, while the other is forwarded to the sub-prefect. The District Court, without opening the parcel containing the cards and the votes, mentions in a special report the majority required, and proclaims as deputies those candidates who have obtained the greatest number of votes in the division.

The verification of the result belongs to the National Assembly, which, being the sole judge of the regularity and legality of the elections, has the power to confirm them or to annul them.

The Bulgarian subjects of the male sex who have attained their majority and enjoy civil and political rights are electors. The foreigners who have been naturalised also have the right of voting.

All Bulgarian subjects who are at least thirty years old, are able to read and write, and who have not been deprived of their civil and political rights, may be elected as deputies to the National Assembly. The naturalised foreigners may be elected as such only if they have resided in the country at least fifteen years since their naturalisation. This period, however, may be reduced by a special law to three years.

A deputy is elected for every 20,000 inhabitants, and his mandate lasts for five years.

The Constitution guarantees to the deputies complete freedom of opinion, as well as the inviolability of their person. Every deputy is free to express his opinions and to vote according to his conscience and understanding. The national representatives may not be imprisoned for debt five days before the opening of the session, or while it lasts. During the same period, they may not be arrested and prosecuted for crimes, except when these entail the heaviest penalty. In this latter case, their arrest may be effected with the assent of the National Assembly.

The powers of the ordinary National Assembly are fixed by the Constitution as follows :

1. *Administrative Powers.*—The National Assembly chooses its own officers, consisting of a president, two vice-presidents, secretaries, and questors. It also fixes the internal regulations, and the order of its work.

The debates and the voting are public. On the demand of a certain number of deputies, the Chamber may decide to sit with closed doors.

2. *Legislative Powers.*—The National Assembly shares with

the Prince the legislative initiative. Every deputy has the right to make propositions and to introduce bills, if he is supported by one-fourth of the members present. The National Assembly may amend the bills and propositions introduced by the Government. The deputies have the right to make interpellations. By means of this important prerogative, the deputies can force individual ministers or the entire Government to explain their line of conduct and to state their intentions on some special matter, or as regards their general policy.

The National Assembly may appoint commissions of inquiry or institute inquiries as regards the conduct of the Government. It may submit to the Prince special addresses. As a rule, these addresses are in answer to the Throne Speech. By means of these addresses, the national representatives can express their sentiments concerning the bills or measures which have been announced in the Throne Speech or the conduct of the Government.

The Bulgarian citizens have the right to petition the National Assembly which decides, after having taken the opinion of the competent ministers.

In the last place, no law may be enacted, amended, or completed unless it has been examined by the National Assembly, which alone has the right to interpret its true bearing. In connection with this, we may add that, according to the Constitution, the Principality is governed by laws which have been passed and promulgated in conformity with the requirements of the Constitution. Nothing may be done unless it be in virtue of some law which has been sanctioned by the sovereign authority in the country, acting as delegate of the nation, and previously brought to the knowledge of the subjects, who thus are enabled to learn the limits of their rights and duties. In one word, the citizens are placed under the authority of laws, and not of State institutions that have

been invested with public force. Nevertheless, in cases of emergency, when the country is threatened with internal or foreign danger, this constitutional guarantee may be temporarily suspended, and the executive authorities may issue orders having the character and the obligatory force of laws.

The National Assembly alone is competent to decide whether all the conditions requisite for the validity of a law have been complied with.

The Grand National Assembly has the same composition as the ordinary National Assembly, and its members are elected in the same way. The only difference between the two is that the number of members of a Grand National Assembly is twice that of the ordinary National Assembly, every electoral unit of 20,000 inhabitants sending two deputies instead of one.

The Grand National Assembly may decide only those matters which have necessitated its convocation. A Grand National Assembly is called in the following cases :

1. To decide questions of exchanging or ceding a portion of the territory of the Principality.
2. To revise the Constitution.
3. To elect a new Prince when the reigning family becomes extinct, owing to absence of descendants who can occupy the throne.
4. To appoint regents during the minority of the heir to the throne.
5. To authorise the Prince to accept the government of another State.

3. THE BUDGET

The State Budget is submitted every year to the approval of the legislative Assembly. It is examined by chapters, and the Assembly may not strike out or modify a chapter

without explaining the reasons which have determined its action. In cases where the National Assembly cannot be convoked in time, while unavoidable expenditure must be incurred, the previous Budget continues in force, provided the National Assembly grants its approval in the nearest session, and subject to the joint responsibility of the ministers.

No State loan may be contracted without the consent of the National Assembly. If the Government finds it imperative to have recourse to a loan for the purpose of meeting exceptional expenditure while the National Assembly is not sitting, this latter must be immediately convoked in extraordinary session. If, however, there are serious obstacles in the way of an immediate convocation, the Prince, acting on the advice of the Council of Ministers, may authorise a loan not exceeding three millions of francs, on condition that the approval of the National Assembly be obtained in the nearest session. The Prince may also sanction, subject to the same conditions, an expenditure not exceeding one million francs for the purpose of meeting needs for which the Budget has made no provision.

The closure of the Budget's exercise is effected in virtue of a special law which is passed by the National Assembly at the end of the financial year. On this occasion, the Minister of Finance presents to the National Assembly and to the High Court of Accounts a report dealing with the financial state of the country during the year. The High Court of Accounts has an independent semi-judiciary organisation which enables it to exercise a strict control over the financial administration of the State. It consists of a president, six councillors, and a great number of reporters and accountants. The president and the councillors are appointed by royal decree on the proposition of the National Assembly, which alone can revoke them. The High Court of Accounts sub-

mits the accounts of the Government to a minute examination which is based on the items of expenditure, as they are prepared by the Government, and on the accounts furnished by the various spending departments. The High Court of Accounts submits a general report to the National Assembly, with whom the final decision rests.

Thanks to the measures which have been taken for the advancement of all branches of agriculture and of the national industry, thanks also to the gradual increase of the population, the stability of the national finances may be said to have been assured.

The various steps which have been taken for the improvement of the financial organisation of the Principality, coupled with the general economic development of the country, have produced during the year 1905 a revenue which had never been attained before. It reached the sum of 127,606,502 francs, as against 119,655,507 francs during 1904, 101,272,234 francs during 1902, and 97,987,346 francs in 1903. This gradual increase in the revenue is due, in a great measure, to a series of excellent crops.

Owing to this increased revenue, the State has been able not only to meet the ordinary and extraordinary expenditure, but also to add considerably to the sinking fund.

The new laws of which we have spoken are as follows :

1. The law of budgetary accounts (passed on February 28th, 1904, and in operation since February 1st, 1905), which has replaced the one of 1885. Its main object is to secure an efficacious control over the expenditure and to eliminate the causes which had been hitherto disturbing the equilibrium of the State Budget.

This same law has put a stop to the prevalent practice of making provision for extraordinary credits which tend to burden the Budgets and upset the finances of the State. Henceforth, the maximum of such exceptional expenditure

must not exceed two million francs, of which one million, in virtue of Article 126 of the Constitution, is debited to the Budget which has made the provision, while the other million is carried over to the Budget of the following year. The law prohibits all other exceptional credits, unless fresh sources of revenue have been found to cover them.

2. A law for the collection of direct taxes (sanctioned by royal decree on March 14th, 1905, and published in the Official Journal, No. 64, of March 23rd, 1905), which contains a series of measures securing the prompt collection of all direct taxes.

3. A law concerning duties on transfers of property (ratified by Royal Decree No. 57 of January 13th, 1905, and promulgated on April 4th, 1905, in the Official Journal, No. 73), providing a progressive duty on inherited estates, increasing the duty on gifts, and greatly reducing the number of owners of personalty who had formerly succeeded in escaping from paying this duty.

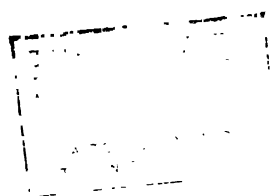
4. A law of excise and licences for selling alcoholic drinks (ratified by royal decree on January 31st, 1905, and promulgated in the Official Journal of the same date), which introduces a stability in the revenue derived from this source, as formerly all drinks did not pay an excise duty. This is the first attempt at placing the production and the sale of alcoholic drinks under a strict State control.

The most important part of this law, however, is that in virtue of which the State has reserved for itself the exclusive right of importing, making, and wholeselling of salt, matches, and cigarette paper, hoping thus to increase its revenue from these sources.

Besides, this law stipulates that in the future the duty on tobacco and the Mourourié must be paid in gold and not in silver—a circumstance which will increase the quantity of gold held by the State, and thus reduce the



"TZAR LIBERATOR" STREET, SOFIA.



expenses formerly incurred by the State Treasury owing to the agio.

5. A law on compulsory labour, law of the State and communal roads (ratified by royal decree No. 1 on January 12th, 1904, and promulgated in the Official Journal of January 20th, 1904), amends the former law in the sense that henceforth this duty must be paid in cash. This new law also contains a certain number of provisions facilitating the imposition of those persons who have formerly succeeded in escaping from this duty.

6. A law on military tax. According to the former law on the organisation of the armed forces of the Principality of Bulgaria, the tax imposed on those who were exempt from serving in the army varied from ten to five hundred francs while the present law subdivides the tax into fifteen categories, varying from ten to a thousand francs.

The State privileges on the articles already enumerated, as well as on playing-cards, have already increased the revenue from these chapters, and have thus enabled the State to meet the deficiencies produced by some of the remaining chapters of the Budget. This new revenue figured for the first time in the Budget for 1906.

When these privileges have been definitely established, it is expected that they will increase from four to five millions of francs the revenue derived from the excise and the customs.

In order to form a clear and exact notion of the financial condition of the country, it is enough to examine the balance-sheets of the Principality, comprising its liabilities and its assets, the State properties included. This balance-sheet shows that at the present hour the country enjoys a firmly established financial situation.

The following table contains the assets and the liabilities of the Principality on January 1st, 1907 :

ASSETS

	Franca.
Total amount of general assets	74,671,416
Reserve funds of the 5 per cent. Loan of 1902..	1,500,000
Reserve funds of the 5 per cent. Loan of 1904 ..	1,000,000
Cost of railways and harbours	189,500,000
State buildings	41,980,000
State properties	19,712,872
Invested as capital in the Bulgarian National	
Bank	15,495,385
War materials	166,000,000
	<hr/>
Total	509,859,673

LIABILITIES

	Franca.
Total amount of general liabilities	39,912,890
Consolidated debt	357,208,000
	<hr/>
Total amount of liabilities	397,120,890
Thus, there are assets of	509,859,673
As against liabilities of	397,120,890
	<hr/>
Which leaves a surplus of	112,738,783

The following table shows in francs the state of the Public Debt on January 1st, 1907.

STATE OF PUBLIC DEBT ON JANUARY 1st, 1907

	Originally.	Paid off until December 31st, 1906.	Remained on January 1st, 1907.
Bulgarian 6 per cent. Loan, 1888	46,777,500	14,140,500	32,637,000
Bulgarian mortgage 6 per cent. Loan, 1889	30,000,000	8,655,000	21,345,000
Bulgarian " " 1892	124,962,500	24,176,500	99,786,000
Bulgarian 5 per cent. Loan, 1902	106,000,000	1,850,000	104,150,000
Bulgarian 5 per cent. Loan, 1904	99,980,000	690,000	99,290,000
Debt of Eastern Roumelia to the Sublime Porte	10,910,208	9,500,000	357,208,000
Debt to the Bulgarian National Bank in current account	—	—	1,410,208
Debt to the Bulgarian Agricultural Bank, in current account	—	—	15,155,616
Debt in Treasury bonds..	—	—	2,553,347
			703,064
Total in francs	—	—	377,030,235
Sums due to the Government			
1. By the Sublime Porte	..	3,885,583.35	
2. Unconverted Consols of the 6 per cent. Loan, 1888	..	398,000 —	
3. Reserve funds of the 5 per cent. Loan, 1902	..	1,500,000 —	
4. Reserve funds of the 5 per cent. Loan, 1904	..	1,000,000 —	
5. Sums advanced by the Government to private persons	..	912,508 —	
6. Various current accounts	..	23,318,925 —	31,015,016

346,015,219

The Budget for the revenue and the expenditure of the Principality during the year 1907 is as follows :

Art. 1.—The ministers are authorised to spend during the year 1907, in accordance with the laws of the Principality, the sums indicated in the annexed tables, and amounting to

	Francs.
	<u>121,969,441</u>
(a) Civil List	2,581,620
(b) Public Debt	32,187,764
(c) High Court of Accounts	254,520
(d) Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Religions	5,482,117
(e) Ministry of the Interior	8,164,365
(f) Ministry of Public Instruction	11,381,975
(g) Ministry of Finance	7,913,890
(h) Ministry of Justice	4,656,538
(i) Ministry of War	28,820,804
(j) Ministry of Commerce and Agriculture ..	5,535,959
(k) Ministry of Public Works, Roads, and Communications	<u>14,986,889</u>
Total of Expenditure	121,969,441
Surplus of Revenue	<u>13,559</u>
Total	121,983,000

Art. 2.—For the purpose of covering the above expenditure, the ministries are authorised to collect, during the year 1907, in accordance with the laws of the Principality, the sums indicated in the tables annexed to this law and amounting to

	Francs.
	<u>121,983,000</u>
(a) Direct Taxes	41,380,000
(b) Indirect Taxes	36,890,000
(c) State Privileges	10,650,000

	Francs.
(d) Duties	6,525,000
(e) Fines	135,000
(f) Revenue from Communications	15,000,000
(g) Revenue from State Properties and Funds ..	7,728,000
(h) Various other revenues	3,065,000
	<hr/>
Total of Revenue	121,983,000

4. THE EXECUTIVE POWER AND THE ADMINISTRATION

The executive power is entrusted to special *ministers*, who are placed by the Prince at the head of the Government. One of the most important duties of the ministers consists in taking the measures necessary for the exact application of the laws which have been passed by the National Assembly and approved by the Crown. The general conduct of the political and administrative affairs belongs to the Council of Ministers, acting under the supreme control of the Prince, who appoints among them a President of the Council.

There are in Bulgaria eight ministries, namely :

1. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Religions. ✓
2. The Ministry of the Interior.
3. The Ministry of Justice ✓
4. The Ministry of Public Instruction.
5. The Ministry of Finance.
6. The Ministry of Commerce and Agriculture.
7. The Ministry of Public Works, Roads, and Communications.
8. The Ministry of War. ✓

In addition to the powers which belong to the different ministers in their capacity as heads of the various Government departments, an important rôle is reserved by the Constitution to the Council of Ministers in the following cases :

1. If, on the demise of the Prince, the throne remains

vacant owing to failure of heirs, the Council of Ministers assumes the reins of government and summons within a period of one month a Grand National Assembly to elect a new Prince.

2. The Council of Ministers is invested with supreme authority if the Prince dies without having appointed regents. Whenever this occurs, a Grand National Assembly must be summoned within a month's time to appoint such regents.

Every official act must bear, in addition to the signature of the Prince, that of one minister or of all the ministers, these latter being the responsible representatives of the executive authority.

The ministers are held responsible to the Prince and to the National Assembly for all their acts. This responsibility is collective for all the ministers in the case of measures which have been decided by the Council of Ministers, and individual with respect to the acts of the ministers as heads of the various State departments.

The Constitution makes a distinction between the political or parliamentary responsibility of the ministers and their civil and criminal responsibility. Art. 153 of the Constitution regulates the first kind of responsibility, while art. 155 deals with their civil and criminal responsibility. The ministers are held civilly or criminally responsible in the following cases : (a) When they have acted treacherously towards the Prince or towards the country ; (b) when they have violated the Constitution ; (c) when they have committed the crime of high treason, or have injured the interests of the State or of private individuals for their personal benefit.

The impeachment of the ministers is pronounced by the National Assembly, which also decides in all cases where ministers in office are accused of common law crimes or misdemeanours.

The ministers accused are judged by a special State Court,

which is composed of the councillors of the Supreme Appellate Court, and of as many judges chosen by lot among the presidents of the Appeal Courts and District Courts. The impeachment is entrusted by the National Assembly to one of its members, who has the title of *State Prosecutor*. The procedure which the State Court follows, as well as the penalties which it may inflict on the guilty parties, are laid down in the law of December 13th, 1880.

The common law misdemeanours which the ministers may have committed fall within the jurisdiction of the High Court of Cassation if they are still in office, and of the ordinary courts after they have resigned.

No minister who has been found guilty and condemned may be pardoned or amnestied by the Prince without the consent of the National Assembly.

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANISATION

The Principality is divided for administrative purposes into twelve departments, having for their centres the following towns: Bourgas, Varna, Viddin, Vratza, Kustendil, Plovdiv (Philippopolis), Plevna, Roussé (Roustchouk), Sofia, Stara-Zagora, Tirnova, and Shoumen. At the head of every department there is a prefect who is appointed by royal decree on the proposition of the Minister of the Interior. In his department the prefect is the agent of the central government and, as such, he represents the entire executive authority. He is entrusted with the control over the administration of the various communes, and over the finances of the department, being assisted in this latter task by a special financial director who is placed under his orders. The prefect is also the chief of the departmental police.

There is a Departmental Council attached to every prefecture. The members of this Council vary from twelve to thirty, according to the importance of the department, and

are elected by universal suffrage, direct and secret, for a period of three years. The Departmental Council (corresponding to the French *Conseils Généraux*) meet every December in regular session, which lasts a month. The duties of the Departmental Council consist in assessing the taxes among the communes of the department, in administering the departmental properties, in preparing the departmental budget, and in revising the accounts of the various institutions which are placed under its control. The Council is also consulted on all matters relating to proposed construction for the benefit of the department—new railways lines, highways, etc.

The Departmental Council appoints a permanent committee, consisting of two of its members who, under the presidency of the prefect, watch over the carrying into effect of the Council's decisions.

Besides the Departmental Council, there are attached to each prefecture a Medical Council and an Educational Council. The first of these superintends the sanitary conditions and the public hygiene in the department, while the educational council administers and supervises the various educational establishments of the department.

The departments are subdivided into *districts (arrondissements)*, of which there are 71 in the Principality. The districts are administered by *sub-prefects*, who act as intermediaries between the prefecture and the communes of the district, in so far as their administration is concerned. As chief of the district police, the sub-prefect conducts the judiciary police and is held responsible for the public safety in the district.

Some of the more important centres, such as Sofia, Plovdiv, Roustchouk, and Varna, have town prefects, who exercise within the limits of their respective towns the functions of police prefects. They are appointed by royal decree, on the advice of the Minister of the Interior, and are entrusted with the application of the various laws and regulations, in the

discharge of which duty they may issue regulations having for their object the maintenance of good order in the towns.

ORGANISATION OF THE COMMUNES

The Bulgarian Constitution contains a special disposition (art. 3) securing complete self-government to the communes.

We must read the reports of the Constituent Assembly in order to realise the jealous anxiety with which the first Bulgarian legislators have tried to guarantee the independence of the communes. There can be no doubt that the protracted debates which took place on that occasion did far more than the laconic text of art. 3 to lay the indestructible foundations of the autonomy of these administrative units. Not contenting themselves with merely formulating the principle of this independence, they repeatedly declared that, in their opinion, the central government must take no part in the administration of the communes, or maintain any agents of its own to interfere with their affairs. In the same way, the only functionaries of the central government whose presence is tolerated in the higher administrative units, such as the districts and departments, are the officers entrusted with the police, justice, or the general interests of the State, such as the fisc, customs, etc.

The commune, which forms the basis of the State fabric, enjoys a complete autonomy, which cannot be compared with any other similar institution. It is the smallest unit in the administrative organisation of the country. Every district is subdivided into communes, which are either urban or rural. The commune is a corporation. Every Bulgarian subject must belong to a commune and figure in its registers, the laws of the country not tolerating the state of vagrancy.

The members of the Municipal Council are elected by universal suffrage, in the same way and subject to the same precautions as the members of the National Assembly. The

electors comprise all the grown-up members of the commune who enjoy political and civil rights. From this number are excluded those who have been condemned to hard labour or are waiting their trial, the tenants of ill-famed houses, the beggars, the non-Christian gipsies, and the members of the army and police forces.

All members of the commune who can read and write, are at least thirty years old, and enjoy full civil and political rights, may be elected as municipal councillors. Those who have got a complete secondary education may be elected at the age of twenty-five. The persons belonging to the following categories are not eligible: those who have been sentenced to penalties involving deprivation of electoral rights, the members of the standing army, the state functionaries, the contractors to the State, departments, or communes, those who have no profession and do not own landed property in the commune. The Municipal Councils in the urban communes are elected for a period of three years, and those in the rural communes for two years. The Municipal Councils in the towns have four ordinary sessions during the year, and those in the rural communes have three, each session lasting fifteen days at least. The Council may be called in extraordinary session if the interests of the commune require it, and the councillors or the prefect demand such a convocation.

The sittings of the Municipal Councils are public, except in a few cases.

As regards their validity, the decisions of the Municipal Councils fall into three categories: (1) Decisions which become immediately enforceable without requiring the approval of a higher authority; (2) decisions which may not be executed until they have been approved by a higher authority; (3) decisions requiring the royal approval, which is granted in the form of a decree.

Besides the decisions which it may take in virtue of the

powers conferred on it by the law of the communes, the Municipal Council is bound to furnish all information for which the prefect may ask. The prefect also has the right of submitting to the examination of the Municipal Council any questions concerning the general welfare of the commune, such as the building of roads, religious exercise, charitable objects, or public instruction.

The Municipal Council elects from among its members a mayor and two assistant-mayors, who form between themselves the municipal executive. The mayor represents the commune in its relations with the other public departments. He is the depository of the administrative authority within the limits prescribed by the law, and sees that the binding decisions of the Municipal Council, as well as the lawful orders of the central government, are properly carried out. In performing these duties, the mayor has the right to issue orders or to make regulations which have the same obligatory force as the regulations of the other administrative authorities, and whose non-observance may entail fines up to fifty francs in the towns, and twenty-five francs in the rural communes.

5. JUSTICE

According to Article 13 of the Constitution, the judiciary power is vested exclusively in the law courts and magistrates, which act in the name of the Prince. This principle constitutes the main guarantee of the independence of the judiciary authorities as regards the other State authorities—the Prince and the legislative assembly.

In performing their work, the law courts must observe the exact sense of the acting laws of the Principality. They must be guided by the general spirit of the laws whenever the text is obscure or incomplete, and, in the absence of all law

bearing on the dispute, they must decide according to general usage and equity.

There are no administrative courts in the Principality. The conflicts between the administrative authorities and private persons who have been wronged belong to the jurisdiction of the ordinary law courts. The administrative authorities are strictly enjoined to abstain from deciding any disputes bearing on civil rights, the judiciary authorities having exclusive cognisance of such disputes.

The law organs of the Principality are as follows : *Justices of Peace, Departmental Courts, Courts of Appeal, and the Supreme Appellate Court.* Before the law of January 12th, 1904, there existed another category of courts, which were called communal courts. There used to be one of these courts in every village, judging small disputes between villagers amounting up to fifty francs in civil cases, and twenty-five francs in criminal cases. These courts consisted of the local mayor as president, and of two municipal councillors acting as assistant judges. Since 1904, the communal courts have been abolished, and their jurisdiction merged into that of the Justices of Peace.

The Justices of Peace, to the number of 115, sit in the chief towns of the districts. In some of the principal towns there are several Justices of Peace, their number varying with the importance of the place. In Sofia there are five Justices of Peace, distributed between the various quarters of the capital.

The jurisdiction of the Justices of Peace in civil matters is determined by the law of December 15th, 1891, on Civil Procedure (articles 15-22). It comprises all civil and commercial disputes up to a thousand francs ; disputes about property when the value does not exceed a thousand francs, and possessory claims irrespective of the value of the property involved. As police courts, the Justices of Peace deal



"VASSIL LEVSKY" MONUMENT, SOFIA.

17

with all infractions and misdemeanours entailing an imprisonment up to six months, and fines up to five hundred francs.

The decisions of the Justices of Peace in civil disputes are final up to a hundred francs. In all such cases, a right of appeal on matters of form lies with the District Court. All the other decisions of the Justices of Peace may be taken in appeal before the respective District Courts, which act then as courts of appeal. Their decisions are final, and can only be taken in appeal before the Supreme Appellate Court on matters of form.

The Departmental Courts, to the number of twenty-three, sit in the chief towns of the departments, as well as in some of the more important centres. They form the first degree in the judiciary hierarchy, and their jurisdiction is a very extensive one. According to the dispositions of the law, they have cognisance of all civil, commercial, and criminal cases which do not fall within the jurisdiction of the Justices of Peace or of the Special Courts. Commercial courts, as distinct institutions, do not exist in the Principality.

In criminal cases of a certain importance the judges, who are then called "Crown Judges," are assisted by a jury who take part in the decisions. The duty of serving on the jury is honorary and obligatory, and falls on all Bulgarian subjects who know the official language of the country and pay at least a hundred francs a year as direct taxes, or possess a secondary education. No one can be exempt from this duty except for some legal cause.

The verdicts of the jury, when unanimous, are final. In such case, the only recourse allowed lies with the Supreme Appellate Court. In all other cases, a right of appeal lies with the Courts of Appeal, which examine the affair afresh, and decide without the participation of a jury.

The Courts of Appeal are to the number of three: one in Sofia, one in Plovdiv, and one in Roustchouk. They form the

second degree in the judiciary organisation of the country, and their jurisdiction comprises all the cases which have come before the departmental courts. Their decisions are final, and can only be attacked by way of a recourse to the Supreme Appellate Court.

There is one Supreme Appellate Court for the whole Principality, its seat being in Sofia. It is composed of two civil chambers and one criminal chamber. In examining the appeals, this court does not go into the facts of the case. The mission of the Supreme Court is to ensure the just and uniform application of the laws by the various courts in the country. The Supreme Appellate Court, sitting with all chambers united, may, at the invitation of the Minister of Justice, decide judiciary questions offering great difficulties and differently interpreted by the various law courts. The opinions which the Supreme Appellate Court expresses on such occasions are published in the Official Journal, and serve as guide to the judges. If the Supreme Court finds that in deciding a case some irregularity has been committed, the case is returned to the Court which has originally decided to examine it a second time by different judges.

The District Courts, the Courts of Appeal, and the Supreme Appellate Court, are all collegiate institutions. The decisions must be given by at least three judges. The Justice of Peace is entrusted to a single magistrate, who is assisted by a clerk.

The decisions of the law courts are executed by bailiffs, whose duties are regulated by the Law of Civil Procedure. The prosecutors and assistant-prosecutors attached to the Departmental Court are entrusted with the execution of the criminal sentences which have become final.

The judiciary career is open to all Bulgarian subjects who fulfil the following conditions: (1) They must be at least twenty-six years old; (2) they must have completed the full course of legal instruction; (3) they must have passed

with success a State examination, and served at least six months as candidates attached to a Departmental Court. The candidate must also know the official language of the country, he must enjoy civil and political rights, and must not be accused of crimes entailing the penalty of hard labour.

The promotion of judges to a higher rank takes place periodically, after they have occupied a position for a fixed number of years, and have been favourably reported upon by the superior Court.

The judges, public prosecutors, and Justices of Peace are appointed by royal decree, on the advice of the Minister of Justice. They are selected from a list of three candidates, recommended by the respective courts. The Minister of Justice, however, is not obliged to choose one of the three candidates whose names have been submitted by the Court, and may recommend the appointment of other candidates, provided they have the indispensable qualifications.

According to the law regulating the judiciary organisation of the country, no judge may be at the same time a deputy, barrister, civil servant, professor, teacher, merchant, editor of political newspapers, member of a political party, concessioner, State contractor, or chairman or director of a commercial company.

The principle of the permanency of the judges has been introduced in the judiciary organisation of the country, but not as regards all the judges. Those judges and examining magistrates alone are permanent who have a special legal instruction and have served as such for a period of fifteen years. No permanent judge may be placed on the retired list except at his own request, or in virtue of a disciplinary decision rendered by the proper judiciary authority. He may not be transferred to a different post, even though it be a superior one, except with his written consent. The officers of the Public Prosecution department are not permanent.

The judges, as all the State functionaries, are held responsible for their acts civilly, criminally, or disciplinarily.

In addition to the ordinary law courts, there are in the Principality a certain number of special tribunals. To this category belong the military courts, the religious courts, and the consular courts.

The jurisdiction of the military courts comprises all criminal offences, whether they be of the common law or professional, which have been committed by persons serving in the active army. The Orthodox religious courts deal with disputes touching on marriage, divorce, or on religion in general. They are, however, strictly forbidden to have cognisance of the proprietary relations between married parties, these falling within the jurisdiction of the ordinary courts. The Mahomedan courts, or the courts of the muftis, are competent to decide the following affairs : personal or proprietary relations between married persons and relatives belonging to the Mahomedan religion, and questions touching on inheritance, marriage, and divorce, between parties of the same confession.

The decisions of the religious courts are executed by the bailiffs of the ordinary courts, whose permission must be previously obtained.

The Consular Courts in Bulgaria exist in virtue of art. 8, § 2 of the Treaty of Berlin. They have cognisance of all civil and commercial disputes arising between foreign subjects and not involving landed property in Bulgaria. In this latter case, the Bulgarian courts are alone competent to decide the dispute.

The jurisdiction of the Consular Courts, which constitutes an interference with the sovereignty of our country, may have had its *raison d'être* at the time of our political emancipation, when the Bulgarian courts were not as yet thoroughly organised. To-day, however, when the country possesses a

judiciary organisation based on the principles prevailing in all the civilised countries, it is nothing short of an anomaly. As a matter of fact, the regime of the Capitulations is on the eve of its disappearance from the Principality. For a certain time past, the foreign subjects themselves have been voluntarily renouncing the consular jurisdiction and protection, preferring to turn to the Bulgarian courts, where they are always certain to find every desirable security for justice and equity in the settlement of their disputes.

CHAPTER IV

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN BULGARIA

DURING the Turkish domination, until the eve of our political emancipation (February 19th, 1878), the Bulgarian schools used to be administered by the national religious communities. It is a fact worth noticing that, notwithstanding the persecutions of the Turkish Government and the difficulties created by the Greek Church, under whose spiritual control we continued until 1872, there have always been thoroughly organised schools in Bulgaria. This is the more remarkable as these schools had to depend for their only means of maintenance on private gifts and church foundations. In these poorly endowed schools were brought up most of those Bulgarians who were to lead the nation in its struggle for religious and political liberty, and who, when the independence of the country was proclaimed, in their various capacities as politicians and functionaries, had to undertake the organisation of the young Bulgarian state.

Almost the first thoughts of the new régime after the Russo-Turkish war were directed to the public instruction, the administration of schools being confided in Eastern Roumelia to the Direction of Public Instruction, and in Northern Bulgaria to a special ministry.

Primary education was made obligatory for all children of both sexes. The "Provisional Regulations," which were published by the Governor-General, Prince Alexander Bogoridi,

contained special dispositions on this point as regards Southern Bulgaria, while in virtue of Article 78 of the Bulgarian Constitution, elementary instruction was made, and continues to be, obligatory for all the inhabitants of the Principality.

The Direction of Public Instruction in Eastern Roumelia and the Ministry of Public Instruction were no sooner created than they began in earnest the reorganisation of the public schools. Special laws were passed in the course of the year 1880, dealing with primary and secondary education. Later on, when the union between Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia was proclaimed, the educational legislation which was in force in the latter province was repealed and its place taken by the laws, regulations, and programmes of the Principality.

The first legislative attempt at embracing the whole educational system of the country and placing it on more solid foundations was the law introduced in 1891 by the then Minister of Public Instruction, M. Georges Jivkoff, and passed by the Sixth Ordinary National Assembly. This law, which repealed all previous legislative and administrative regulations, continues to remain in force until this day. According to its provisions, which, however, in that respect did not alter the former state of things, the organisation, general direction and supreme control of the educational establishments, as well as of the institutions having for their objects the intellectual and moral development of the country, were vested in the Ministry of Public Instruction.

The personnel of the Ministry of Public Instruction consists of a chief of the section of secondary, special and higher instruction, a chief of the section of elementary instruction, two general inspectors of the secondary and special schools, a medical inspector, six assistants-chief, an accountant, and two Assistant-accountants.

The schools of the Principality are divided by the law of

1891 into national schools and private schools. All the schools that are provided for by the State, departments, districts or parishes, and where the instruction is given in Bulgarian, are considered as national schools. To the category of private schools belong all the educational establishments which are supported by the various religious communities, associations, confraternities or private individuals.

The national schools, in their turn, are subdivided into primary schools, secondary schools, professional schools and high schools.

I. PRIMARY EDUCATION

The primary instruction is given in the primary and infant schools.

The infant schools have for their object the preparation of the children for the primary schools. Infants between the ages of three and five years are admitted in the lower divisions, and those between five and six in the higher division. They are taught all sorts of games, songs, drawing, manual work, and simple arithmetic.

The teaching in these schools is entrusted exclusively to school mistresses. Until quite recently, the post of directress of infant schools was open to all graduates of the gymnasia for girls whose curriculum included an instruction in the Froebel method. Since September 1905, however, a special course for head mistresses of infant schools has been opened in Sofia, the studies lasting two years.

The object of the primary school is to give the future citizen a moral education, to develop him physically, and to give him the most indispensable knowledge. The studies last four years, and are subdivided into four divisions (art. 25).

The school year begins on September 1st and lasts, in the

towns, until June 25th, and in the villages until the beginning of May (art. 27).

The subjects taught include morals, catechism, Bulgarian, ancient Bulgarian, civic instruction, national geography, arithmetic, natural history, drawing, singing, gymnastics, manual work (for boys), and embroidery (for girls).

Every parish or village of more than fifty houses must have at least one primary school (art. 31). The hamlets and villages of less than fifty houses are considered, for educational purposes, as parishes (art. 32). A division must not comprise more than fifty pupils, exceptions to this rule being, however, permitted in special cases. The progress of the pupils is ascertained by means of examinations at the end of every year. These examinations are required for the third and fourth divisions only, the practice in the first two divisions consisting in simple talks with the object of systematising the knowledge which the children may have acquired in the course of the year. The enactment rendering public instruction obligatory extends to all children between the ages of six and twelve.

PROVISIONS OF THE LAW CONCERNING THE OBLIGATORY INSTRUCTION AND THEIR SANCTIONS

The parents, guardians and, in general, all those to whom children of the above age are entrusted, must see that the children in their charge receive a regular education (art. 13). The only temporary or permanent exception allowed by the law is in favour of children physically or intellectually unfit and of those who have already received their primary instruction (articles 21 and 22).

When a pupil does not attend the school regularly, the head master informs the school committee, which in its turn brings the fact under the notice of the pupil's parents (articles

39 and 40). If the child still fails to attend the classes, the persons responsible for him are liable to fines from one to three francs, the decision resting with the mayor of the parish. When this fine has been inflicted on the parents or guardians three times in succession they become liable to fines from five to thirty francs, the decisions resting with the departmental education council (art. 40).

If the head masters and presidents of the educational councils to whom the carrying out of these provisions is entrusted fail to give effect to the law, they are punishable by fines varying from 10 to 100 francs.

The proceeds from all these fines go to the schools funds of the respective parishes.

Supplementary Instruction.—With the object of enlarging the scope of knowledge acquired in the primary schools, the respective authorities organise evening and holiday classes with the gratuitous co-operation of the teachers of primary schools. During the last few years, however, the Ministry of Public Instruction has been awarding fees varying from 20 to 150 francs to those teachers who have distinguished themselves most. The curriculae of these supplementary classes include, in addition to the subjects taught in the primary schools, also practical agriculture, viticulture, sericulture, apiculture, fructiculture, and, for girls, dress-making, bringing up of children, singing, and house work.

Qualifications of Teachers.—Persons aspiring to become teachers in a primary school must fulfil the following conditions :

1. They must be Bulgarian subjects.
2. They must have graduated at a pedagogical school.
3. They must be more than seventeen years old.
4. They must be of good morals and be free from physical defects.
5. They must have passed successfully the State examination

admitting them to the career. Article 62 of the law admits persons who have graduated a gymnasium or other secondary school to compete for the post of teacher, if they fulfil the other conditions. This departure from the prescriptions of Article 58 was rendered necessary owing to the number of young men who have graduated in pedagogical schools not being sufficient to fill the vacancies caused by the multiplication of schools or by the retirement of old teachers.

The State examination for admission to the post of teacher comprises an oral and a written examination. This latter consists of two themes, one bearing on pedagogics in general and the other dealing with educational methods. In appraising the merits of the first of these papers, special attention is paid to the treatment of the subject, and to the style. No one is admitted to the oral examination unless he has obtained a satisfactory mark in the written test. The oral examination is both theoretical and practical, this latter consisting of two lessons given before the pupils of a special division which is attached to the pedagogical schools.

Classes of Teachers.—The teachers in primary schools are provisional or regular. All persons who have graduated with success a pedagogical or a high school may be appointed as provisional teachers. As such they receive a salary of 900 francs per annum. After a year's practice they are admitted to the State examination and become regular teachers, if they have passed it with success. The regular teachers are divided into three classes, those of the third class having a salary of 1,140 frs. per annum, those of the second class 1,426 frs., and those of the first class 1,680 frs. The promotion from one class to a higher one takes place at the end of five years of successful teaching.

This is the lowest scale of salaries, but the parishes are free to increase them or to grant supplementary fees.

Maintenance of Primary Schools.—The maintenance of

primary schools is at the joint charge of the parishes and the State. The parishes are solely responsible for the school buildings and their upkeep; they also supply the materials, libraries, furniture, service, heating, and superintend the gardens. The salaries of the teachers are at the burden of the State, which receives from the parishes 400 francs for every teacher irrespectively of his rank, the difference falling at the charge of the State budget.¹ In the poor parishes along the frontier the whole of the teachers' salaries are paid by the State.

Management and Control of the Primary Schools.—The general direction of and the control over the primary schools, as well as of all the other educational establishments and institutions pursuing the moral and intellectual advancement of the nation, belong to the Ministry of Public Instruction (art. 1. of the law), which exercises these attributes, as regards the primary schools, through school inspectors, departmental education councils, and educational committees.

School Inspectors and Educational Districts.—The law of the inspection of primary and secondary schools of 1889, amended by the laws of 1901 and 1907, divides the Principality into twelve school departments, corresponding to the twelve administrative departments which in their turn are subdivided into fifty school districts. There is a departmental school inspector at the head of every school department, and an inspector at the head of each educational district. Some of the educational districts comprise two administrative districts and the others only one. The law permits the indefinite multiplication of the educational sub-districts according to the requirements of the case, and

¹ This arrangement has been in force since January 1st, 1905. Formerly, according to Article 182 of the law of 1891, the State contributed two-thirds of the salaries of the teachers, and the parishes one-third.

the Ministry seems determined to avail itself of this provision of the law so as to establish a school inspectorate in every district.

To the post of departmental inspectors are appointed former professors of high schools who have had a university education—by preference pedagogical—and who have distinguished themselves by their contributions to the pedagogical literature. The departmental inspectors are divided into three classes. Those belonging to the first class receive a salary of 4,680 francs per annum, those of the second class 3,500 francs, and those of the third class 3,120. They receive every year, irrespectively of their class, a sum of 720 francs for travelling expenses.

The inspectors of districts are selected among the teachers of primary schools who have served in that capacity five years at least, and have passed successfully the examination for the post of inspector.

The examination consists of an oral and a written test. The first of these includes questions on teaching and education and one on educational administration. The written examination bears on questions from the pedagogical science, didactics, the methods of teaching, the various subjects figuring in the curriculum of the primary schools, inspections of schools, the application of the Law of Public Instruction, and of the school regulations, and lastly on questions from the pedagogical and educational literature.

The district inspectors are divided, according to their seniority, into three classes. Those belonging to the first class receive an annual salary of 2,620 francs, those of the second class 2,400 francs, and those of the third class 2,136 francs. In addition, they receive every year a sum of 480 francs for travelling expenses.

The control over the district inspectors and over the progymnasia in a department belongs to the departmental

inspector, who also supervises all the elementary schools of the department. The district inspectors supervise the elementary schools of the arrondissements, with the exception of the primary school of the town or the village which is the seat of the district inspectorate, these schools being under the immediate control of the departmental inspectors. These last are in direct touch with the Ministry of Public Instruction and with the other organs of the administration. The duties of the district inspectors, on the contrary, are limited to the inspection of the schools under their authority.

At least thrice every year the inspectors of every department hold meetings under the presidency of the departmental inspector to discuss and decide various educational or disciplinary questions.

Departmental Educational Councils.—There is an educational council for every administrative department. This council is composed as follows :

1. The prefect, acting as president.
2. The directors of the gymnasia or other secondary schools in the chief town of the department.
3. The president or, in his absence, the vicé-president of the district court.
4. The school inspectors of the department.
5. The head masters of the primary schools in the chief town of the department.
6. Two teachers of secondary schools, elected by the teachers of the chief town of the department.
7. The president and the secretary of the departmental council.
8. The mayor of the chief town of the department.

The departmental school council meets in regular sessions every month. It may meet at other times if there is any need for this.

The duties of the departmental educational council are very important. They are laid down by the Law on public instruction as follows :

1. Uniform application of the educational laws and regulations throughout the department.
2. Examination of disputes which may arise between the educational committees, the parish councils, and the teachers.
3. Revision of disciplinary punishments inflicted on teachers.
4. Punishment of parents and teachers who have been found guilty of breaking the regulations concerning the obligatory attendance of primary schools.
5. Opening of new schools and examination of all questions affecting the educational department in general.

The decisions of the departmental educational councils are submitted to the approval of the Minister of Public Instruction, who has the power of annulling or modifying them.

Educational Committees.—These are the earliest Bulgarian autonomous institutions. They first appeared during the Turkish domination, and attained a high degree of development, in the face of the persecutions to which the Bulgarian nation was exposed. As representative organs of the Bulgarian nationality, they contributed more than any other institution to the intellectual and moral awakening of the nation, and the foundation of an independent Bulgarian Church, as well as the organisation of the first Bulgarian school, are in a large measure due to their efforts. The numerous schools, the trained teachers, and the enlightened classes which existed in Bulgaria at the time of our political emancipation are so many proofs of the beneficent activity of these national educational committees. Owing to the important part which they played in our national revival, these committees have become with the Bulgarians a traditional institution which has been maintained by the various educa-

tion laws and which continues to this day to form part of the educational system of the country.

Article 21 of the law of 1891 provides for an educational committee in every town and village. The duties of these committees, which act as a special committee of the communal councils, consist in looking after the educational work in their respective circumscriptions. They are composed of five members in the towns and of three members in the villages. The mayor of the town or village is, by right president of the committee. The remaining members are elected by universal suffrage and by secret ballot at the same time as the members of the municipal councils.

The powers and the duties of the educational committees are as follows :

1. To appoint teachers in the primary schools.
2. To provide the means for the maintenance of the schools.
3. To assist poor pupils.
4. To prepare the school budget.
5. To supervise the school buildings and furniture.
6. To find means for the construction of new buildings, to supply educational appliances, and to see that all children liable to obligatory instruction attend regularly the classes.
7. To administer the property and the funds of the schools.

PRIVATE SCHOOLS

In addition to the national schools, there are in Bulgaria various private educational establishments. To this group belong all the denominational schools of Mahommedans, the schools organised by the different Christian congregations and associations, the schools of the Jewish communities, and those belonging to private individuals.

No private school may be opened without the authorisation

of the Ministry of Public Instruction, which exercises a permanent control through its inspectors over all the private educational establishments in Bulgaria.

The teachers in the Jewish and Christian schools must have the same qualifications as those of the national schools (art. 58). The Mahommedan teachers must be Bulgarian subjects who have attained the standard of learning corresponding to the title of "hodja."

Foreign subjects are allowed to open schools in Bulgaria only for children of foreign subjects, provided they give notice to the Ministry of Public Instruction, through the departmental educational inspectorate, and supply full information concerning the organisation of their school. The official curriculum is not obligatory for the educational establishments belonging to foreigners, except where they decide to receive as pupils Bulgarian subjects. In this latter case, they fall under the authority of the common law, and must comply with all its prescriptions, viz. adopt the official curriculum and make Bulgarian the teaching language (art. 216). Foreigners may open schools for languages, professional schools, and schools of fine arts, even when they are destined for Bulgarians (art. 217).

Having explained briefly the organisation and the administration of the primary schools in Bulgaria, we now propose to give some statistical information concerning these same schools during the school year 1903-1904.

INFANT SCHOOLS

During the year 1903-1904, there were throughout the Principality forty infant schools, attended by 2,707 children, of whom 1,289 were boys and 1,418 girls.

The teaching in these schools was entrusted to forty-six schoolmistresses and to two schoolmasters, without including in this number the schoolmasters and schoolmistresses of

the Jewish school at Schoumen, who conducted at the same time the Jewish infant school in this town.

As regards their nationality, these schools were distributed as follows :

Nationality	Number of Schools.	School masters.	Schoolmistresses.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
1. Bulgarian ..	25	—	25	689	645	1,334
2. Greek ..	5	—	11	362	604	966
3. Jewish ..	5	2	4	159	100	259
4. French ..	1	—	1	12	16	28
5. German ..	1	—	1	20	13	33
6. American ..	3	—	4	47	40	87
Total ..	40	2	46	1,289	1,418	2,707

The average age of the children attending the infant schools varied from four to six years, in conformity with Article 15 of the Law on Public Instruction. The pupils were occupied with plays, singing, manual work, embroidery, drawing, and arithmetic.

PRIMARY SCHOOLS

Number of Schools.—During the year 1903–1904, there were 4,344 primary schools for pupils of both sexes, of which 118, or 2·72 per cent. of the total number, were for boys, 35, or 0·8 per cent. for girls, and the remaining 4,191, or 94·48 per cent., mixed.

The following table shows the distribution of the primary schools between the different nationalities of the Principality.

Nationality.	Boys' Schools.	Girls' Schools.	Mixed Schools.	Total number of Schools.
1. Bulgarian national ..	67	4	2,989	3,060
2. „ private ..	4	—	71	75
3. „ Catholic ..	—	—	3	3
4. „ Protestant ..	—	—	10	10
5. „ Mahommedan ..	—	—	22	22

Nationality.	Boys' Schools.	Girls' Schools.	Mixed Schools.	Total number of Schools.
6. Turkish	27	15	915	957
7. Greek	11	7	35	53
8. Jewish	5	4	23	32
9. Armenian	—	—	9	9
10. French	2	5	2	9
11. Tartar	—	—	8	8
12. German	1	—	2	3
13. Roumanian	—	—	2	2
14. Lipovane	—	—	1	1

The Bulgarian private schools, to the number of seventy-five, belong to small villages and hamlets which, in virtue of Article 32 of the law, could not have communal schools, and were consequently obliged to send their children to the schools of the neighbouring villages. All these schools, which were opened with the permission of the Ministry of Public Instruction, are maintained by the parishes alone, or by the parents of the pupils.

The French and German schools are Congregational establishments. They are frequented not only by children of French or German extraction, but also by those of other Catholic or Protestant nationalities, and even by children of orthodox parents.

The tables given show that nearly all the schools of the different nationalities, not excluding even those of the Mahomedans and Tartars, are mixed schools. They also show that 75·27 per cent. of all the schools in Bulgaria were Bulgarian (national, private, Protestant, Catholic, and Mahommedan), while the remaining 24·73 per cent. belonged to the various other nationalities.

Proportion between the number of Schools and the Population.—According to the census taken on January 1st, 1901, the Principality had a population of 3,744,283, of which 1,909,567 were of the masculine sex, and 1,834,716 of the feminine sex.

As against this population there were, during the year 1903-1904, 4,344 schools, or a school to every 862 inhabitants.

This proportion is not, however, the same for all the nationalities of the Principality. Thus, in the case of the Bulgarian population (2,887,860), there was one school for every 943 inhabitants; for the Mahommedan population (539,656) one for every 563 inhabitants; for the Greek population (70,887), one for every 1,337 inhabitants; for the Jewish population (32,573), one for every 1,018 inhabitants.

STUDENTS

Number of Students.—The number of students in all the schools was 340,668, of whom 220,620 were boys, and 120,048 girls.

As regards their nationalities, the students were distributed in the way shown in the subjoined table, which is based on the statistical data for the year 1903-1904 :

Schools.	Number of Pupils.		Total number of Pupils.
	Boys.	Girls.	
1. Bulgarian national	167,760	94,541	262,301
2. „ private	1,243	505	1,748
3. „ Mahommedan	805	343	1,148
4. „ Catholic	246	196	442
5. „ Protestant	113	104	217
6. Turkish	23,537	20,051	43,588
7. Greek	3,173	1,673	4,846
8. Jewish	2,694	1,659	4,353
9. Armenian	426	367	793
10. French	212	297	509
11. Tartar	141	115	256
12. German	115	88	203
13. Roumanian	139	109	248
14. Lipovane	16	—	16
Totals	220,620	120,048	340,668

PROPORTION BETWEEN THE NUMBER OF STUDENTS OF THE
MASCULINE AND FEMININE SEXES

In round numbers, there were 54 girls to every 100 boys, or, in different terms, 68 per cent. of the total number of scholars belonged to the masculine sex, and the remaining 32 per cent. to the feminine sex.

This proportion varies according to the different nationalities.

Thus, for every 100 boys in the Bulgarian schools there were	50·35 girls
For the same number of boys in the Bulgarian private schools there were	40·62 ..
For the same number of boys in the Bulgarian Mahommedan schools there were	40·60 ..
For the same number of boys in the Bulgarian Catholic schools there were	79·63 ..
For the same number of boys in the Bulgarian Protestant schools there were	92·30 ..
For the same number of boys in the Bulgarian-Turkish schools there were	84·76 ..
For the same number of boys in the Bulgarian-Greek schools there were	52·70 ..
For the same number of boys in the Bulgarian-Jewish schools there were	61·58 ..
For the same number of boys in the Bulgarian-Armenian schools there were	85·68 ..
For the same number of boys in the Bulgarian-French schools there were	140·74 ..
For the same number of boys in the Bulgarian-Tartar schools there were	81·56 ..
For the same number of boys in the Bulgarian-German schools there were	76·52 ..
For the same number of boys in the Bulgarian-Roumanian schools there were	78·41 ..

For the same number of boys in the Bulgarian-

Lipovane schools there were 0'00 girls

These figures prove :

1. That the number of girls in our national schools is superior only to that in the Bulgarian private and Bulgarian Mahommedan schools. It is inferior to that in all the other primary schools. There are several reasons for this : (a) the greater number of the other schools are in the towns, where the population, being better educated, takes more care of the instruction of their children ; (b) our rural population, on the other hand, has not as yet realised the necessity of educating the young girls and of making the same sacrifices for them as for their boys.

2. That the number of girls in French schools is superior to that of the boys. It will be a mistake to conclude from this fact that the number of French girls in Bulgaria is higher than that of the boys belonging to the same nationality, or that the French girls are more studious than the girls of the other nationalities. The explanation of this apparent preponderance is that the French schools, as also the German schools, are confessional establishments, and are attended not exclusively by French or German students, but by all the Catholic children in general, and even by orthodox children who are anxious to learn the French or the German language.

It should be mentioned also that, of the nine French schools five are for girls and only two for boys, while the remaining two are mixed.

3. That the Mahommedan primary schools come before all the other schools, excepting the French, as regards the proportion between boys and girls, there being more than 80 girls to every 100 boys.

This fact is rather surprising, and will suggest doubts as to the correctness of the prevalent opinion that the Turks do not send their daughters to school. But, however that may be,

it should be remembered that the Turkish schools are such only in name, the teaching staff being composed of ignorant "hodjas" and of still more ignorant "kadines," who restrict their teaching to mere prayers, although the programme of the schools contains such subjects as Bulgarian, Turkish, and arithmetic. It will, therefore, be risky to conclude from the number of Turkish schools, or from the number of teachers and students, about the instruction of the Mahommedan population of Bulgaria.

COMPARISON BETWEEN THE NUMBER OF STUDENTS AND THAT OF CHILDREN LIABLE TO PRIMARY INSTRUCTION

According to the census of 1900, the total number of children between the ages of six and twelve years was 670,375, of whom 338,205 were boys and 332,170 girls. It must be mentioned here that the course of primary instruction is four years and not six years, as it used to be before 1899. The children, therefore, attend the primary schools not until the age of twelve, but until the age of ten. On the other hand, there are children who only begin to attend school at the age of seven. In the last place, an allowance must be made for the pupils who remain two years in the same division. Taking all this into account, it will be more correct to place the average period of attendance at five years, or, in other words, to consider that only children between the ages of six and eleven are obliged to attend the primary schools. The number of such children is 554,568, of whom 279,540 are boys and 275,228 girls. Of this number, as we have seen, 340,668, namely 220,620 boys and 120,048 girls, have attended the primary schools during the year 1903-1904. So that, of the children for whom the attendance of schools is obligatory, 78·9 per cent. of the boys and 43·64 per cent. of the girls, or 61·43 per cent. of the two sexes, have complied with the requirements of the law.

THE NUMBER OF STUDENTS AS COMPARED WITH THE TOTAL
POPULATION OF THE PRINCIPALITY

The comparative tables which we have already given and those which we now propose to give will help the forming of an idea of the extent to which primary instruction is spread over the country. By adopting this method as regards Bulgaria, we arrive at the following conclusions for the year 1903-1904:

Total population of the Principality : 3,744,283 inhabitants.
Number of pupils during the year 1903-1904 : 340,668, or 9·1 pupils per 100 inhabitants. This proportion of 9·1 per cent. varies with the different nationalities. Thus, it is :

9·9 per cent. for the Bulgarians (Orthodox, Catholic, Protestant, Mahommedans).

8·0 „ „ for the Turks.

6·8 „ „ for the Greeks.

13·4 „ „ for the Jews.

It appears from these figures that, as regards instruction in Bulgaria, the Jews occupy the first place, and the Greeks the last. It is only fair to add that, in reality, the Jews stand even better than is shown by these figures, a considerable proportion of young Jews who attend the Bulgarian national schools not being included in the above statistical tables.

TEACHING STAFF

Number of Schoolmasters.—The number of schoolmasters throughout the Principality during the year 1903-1904 was 7,786, of whom 5,425 were schoolmasters and 2,361 schoolmistresses.

The following table will show the distribution of schoolmasters between the various groups of primary schools :

School.	Teaching Staff.		Total.
	School-masters.	School-mistresses.	
1. Bulgarian	4,075	2,146	6,223
2. „ private	46	29	75
3. „ Mahommedan	31	—	31
4. „ Catholic	6	10	16
5. „ Protestant	6	14	20
6. Turkish	1,033	37	1,070
7. Greek	86	35	121
8. Jewish	82	45	127
9. Armenian	21	13	34
10. French	13	22	35
11. Tartar	8	—	8
12. German	10	3	13
13. Roumanian	7	5	12
14. Lipovanian	1	—	1

PROPORTION BETWEEN THE NUMBER OF STUDENTS AND
TEACHERS

The total number of pupils, 340,668, when divided by the total number of teachers, 7,786, gives on an average 44 pupils per teacher.

This proportion varies with the nationality of the schools.

Thus, there is :

1	teacher	for	45	Bulgarian	students.
1	„	„	40	Turkish	„
1	„	„	40	Greek	„
1	„	„	34	Jewish	„
1	„	„	29	Roumanian	„
1	„	„	23	Armenian	„

It is generally admitted that a school is the better organised and in more advantageous conditions if only a small number

of students are entrusted to a teacher. It is with good reason believed that discipline, successful teaching, and all the good results which are expected therefrom, are more likely to be attained if a teacher does not have to supervise too many students at a time. Circumstances and life in Bulgaria, however, are such that it is quite impossible to form an idea of the real state of things by merely comparing the number of teachers with that of students. As a matter of fact, the Bulgarian national schools are the best organised, although the relative number of their teachers is inferior to that in the other schools. If the other nationalities seem more advanced in this respect, it is because, as a rule, they are not very numerous, and the number of students sent to school not a high one.

THE NUMBER OF TEACHERS COMPARED WITH THE TOTAL POPULATION OF THE COUNTRY

This relation is also a criterion for judging of the degree of civilisation which a nation has reached. Taking the statistical figures for the year 1903-1904 as the basis, we may reckon one teacher for every 480 inhabitants. Applied to the different nationalities of Bulgaria, these same statistical figures show that there is :

One teacher for every	464	Bulgarians.
” ” ” ”	504	Turks.
” ” ” ”	585	Greeks.
” ” ” ”	256	Jews.

SCHOOL BUDGET

We give here only the items of expenditure for the year 1902-1903, as supplied by the Direction for Statistics :

School.	Francs.		Total.
	By the State.	By the Communes.	
Bulgarian national ..	4,136,062	2,819,079	6,955,141
„ private ..	—	25,543	25,543
„ Catholic ..	—	1,880	1,880
„ Protestant ..	—	5,239	5,239
„ Mahommedan ..	—	7,255	7,255
Turkish	27,870	230,576	258,446
Tartar	316	11,384	11,700
Greek	—	95,845	95,845
French, German	—	42,549	42,549
Roumanian	—	27,676	27,676
Jewish	—	148,070	148,070
Lipovanian	—	220	220
Armenian	—	45,905	45,905
Gypsy	—	90	90
Total fees	4,164,248	3,461,311	7,625,559

THE EXPENDITURE ON PRIMARY SCHOOLS COMPARED WITH
THE TOTAL POPULATION

Without taking into account the fact that the teachers in the Mahommedan, Bulgarian Mahommedan, and private schools are as a rule badly paid, a comparison between the total population of the country and the general expenditure during the year 1902-1903 shows that, on an average, to every inhabitant corresponds a sum of 2'04 francs.

THE EXPENDITURE ON SCHOOLS COMPARED WITH THE
NUMBER OF STUDENTS

If we divide the total expenditure by the total number of students, we obtain the sum of 22'38 francs, which represents the average annual cost of every student.

2. ESTABLISHMENTS FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION

GYMNASIA FOR BOYS

There are throughout the Principality ten gymnasia for boys, of which five have two sections—classical and modern. The object of the gymnasia is to give the students a general knowledge of a more advanced character, and to prepare them for their higher studies. The secondary studies comprise two courses: the elementary course, which lasts three years, and the higher course, which lasts four years. The curriculum of the gymnasia covers the following subjects, which are obligatory for all regular students:

(1) Religious instruction; (2) Bulgarian language; (3) French and German; (4) Russian; (5) Latin; (6) Greek; (7) History; (8) Geography and Civic Instruction; (9) arithmetic; (10) geometry and geometrical drawing; (11) algebra; (12) descriptive geometry; (13) physics; (14) chemistry; (15) natural science; (16) psychology; (17) logic and ethics; (18) drawing; (19) calligraphy; (20) singing; (21) gymnastics.

The higher course is subdivided into two sections: classical section and section of science. The special studies in the classical section are Greek, Latin, and literature, and those of the science section geometrical drawing, drawing, and descriptive geometry.

HIGH SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS

There are eight high schools for girls. The entire course lasts seven years, and is divided into elementary and higher departments. The elementary department comprises five classes and the higher two. There are high schools which have only five classes. The higher department is subdivided into two sections: general instruction and pedagogics.



GYMNASIUM FOR BOYS, ROUSTICHOUK.



The elementary course, which lasts five years, covers the whole circle of studies which are indispensable to the citizen and to the mother of a family. The section of general instruction in the higher course has for object to prepare the girls for the more serious studies in the universities. The pedagogical section prepares teachers for the primary schools.

The curriculum of the lower course in these high schools comprises the following subjects :

(1) Religious and moral instruction ; (2) Bulgarian ; (3) Russian ; (4) French or German, optional ; (5) Bulgarian and universal history ; (6) Bulgarian and universal geography ; (7) arithmetic, elements of geometry and algebra ; (8) natural science, (9) physics and chemistry, (10) hygiene and the principles of bringing up of children ; (11) domestic economy ; (12) drawing and calligraphy ; (13) embroidery ; (14) music and singing ; (15) gymnastics.

The general instruction course in the higher department comprises : (1) Bulgarian and ancient Bulgarian ; (2) French or German ; (3) history of literature of the ancient and modern nations ; (4) contemporary history and history of civilisation ; (5) psychology, logic, and ethics ; (6) mathematics ; (7) physics and chemistry ; (8) natural science ; (9) drawing ; (10) music and singing ; (11) Latin, optional.

In the pedagogical section : (1) Bulgarian language and literature ; (2) Russian ; (3) French or German (not obligatory) ; (4) pedagogics ; (5) practical exercises in pedagogics ; (6) psychology, logic, and ethics ; (7) anthropology, chemistry, and popular medicine ; (8) civic instruction ; (9) embroidery and drawing ; (10) music and singing ; (11) gymnastics.

The organisation of the high schools for girls, as we have described it, has undergone since September 1st, 1904 some alterations, in accordance with the law of February 12th of the same year. According to this law, the high schools for girls will have, with some unimportant differences, the

same organisation as the high schools for boys. These high schools are four in number. The remaining four high schools have been turned into pedagogical high schools for girls. Another provision of the same law authorises the opening of professional classes, which are to be supplementary to the lower classes of the secondary schools belonging to the State or to the communes.

All the high schools for girls, with the exception of one, which is subsidised by the State to the extent of one-half of the salary of its teaching staff, are at the charge of the State budget.

INCOMPLETE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

(a) State Schools

The State supports seven schools of three classes for boys and two of six classes for girls. The curriculum of these schools is the same as that of the corresponding classes in the high schools.

(b) Communal Schools

There are in the Principality 161 class schools belonging to the communes. They are distributed as follows :

1. Fifteen schools for boys, of which one has six classes, six five classes, three four classes, and five three classes.

2. Twenty-three schools for girls, of which one has six classes, eleven five classes, four four classes, and seven three classes.

3. One hundred and twenty-three mixed schools, of which four have four classes, fifty-one three classes, ten two classes, and fifty-eight only one class.

The curriculum is almost the same as that of the corresponding classes in the high schools.



GYMNASIUM FOR GIRLS, VARNA

11

The conditions for the appointment and the dismissal of teachers are the same as in the high schools. The salaries are also the same, with this sole difference—that the State contributes one-half, the other half being paid by the communes, at whose charge is the general maintenance of the primary schools.

All the schools belonging to this category are administered by directors, appointed by the Ministry of Public Instruction, who must fulfil the same conditions as the directors of the high schools. The only exception to this rule are the schools which have only one class. As regards their administration, these schools are assimilated to the primary schools.

PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS

(a) Pedagogical Schools for Boys

There are five pedagogical schools for all the Principality. These are institutions for secondary education, whose object is to train teachers for the primary schools. The course of studies is divided into four classes, and lasts four years.

A school comprising three classes is attached to every training college, of which it forms the lower department. Besides, there are in every pedagogical school four model elementary divisions, in which the practical training of the future teachers takes place.

The following are subjects taught in the training school :

(1) Religious instruction ; (2) Bulgarian ; (3) Moral psychology and pedagogics ; (4) school practice ; (5) mathematics ; (6) civic instruction and political economy ; (7) history and geography ; (8) physics and chemistry ; (9) rural economy ; (10) hygiene and popular medicine ; (11) natural science ; (12) Russian ; (13) drawing and calligraphy ; (14) singing and violin ; (15) gymnastics ; (16) manual work.

The number of students who are admitted every year in the first form of these schools is fixed by a ministerial decree. The candidates must pass a competitive examination before a special commission which is appointed by the Ministry of Public Instruction. To this examination are admitted boys who are not younger than fourteen years and not older than seventeen, and who also have passed with success and good conduct at least three classes of a high school.

THE MANAGEMENT OF THE SECONDARY AND PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS.—TEACHING STAFF

The management of the high schools and of all class schools is entrusted to directors who, in that capacity, are responsible for the carrying into practice of all the legislative enactments and regulations. They also preside over the meetings of professors, represent their respective establishments before the public authorities, parents and guardians of the students, supervise the internal affairs of the school, watch over the good order, teaching, and discipline, and are directly responsible for all that concerns their school.

The directors are selected among the senior professors of secondary schools, and receive as salary: directors of high schools, 5,400 francs per annum, and the directors of the incomplete high schools, 4,200 francs.

The professors of the secondary schools are divided into two categories: regular professors and free professors. The salaries of the regular professors are fixed as follows:

Those of 1st class get 4,200 francs per annum.

„ „ 2nd „ „ 3,600 „ „ „

„ „ 3rd „ „ 3,000 „ „ „

The free professors are appointed to teach certain subjects, and receive a salary of 2,400 francs per annum.

The candidates for the post of professor in a high school must



MATERNITY HOSPITAL, SOFIA.

1950
L. 1000
ACTA
TUDEN

be Bulgarian subjects, must have graduated in a secondary school, and must hold a university diploma. The promotion from one class to a higher one takes place at the end of five years of successful teaching. The number of lessons which the professors must give varies, according to the subject, from eighteen to twenty-four per week.

The appointment and the dismissal of the professors take place by a ministerial decree. When it is a question of dismissing a regular professor, the preliminary agreement of the departmental educational council must be obtained.

There are altogether 681 professors and 117 schoolmistresses distributed between the various high schools, secondary schools, or incomplete high schools belonging to the State or to the communes. As regards their rank, they are distributed as follows :

183	professors	and	6	schoolmistresses	of 1st class.
135	”	”	7	”	” 2nd ”
163	”	”	7	”	” 3rd ”
183	”	”	15	”	temporary.
122	”	”	82	”	voluntary.

MEDICAL TEACHERS

An important innovation has been introduced since the year 1903-1904: medical teachers of both sexes have been attached to every educational establishment, with the mission of continually watching over the sanitary condition of the schools and over the physical development of the students. Besides, these medical teachers give lessons in hygiene, chemistry, anthropology, anthropometrical statistics, and sanitary management. They are appointed by the Ministry of Public Instruction, and receive a salary of 3,000 francs per year.

There are now seventeen teachers-doctors and eight women

doctors in the various high schools belonging to the State and the communes. The departmental and district doctors are also entrusted with the supervision of the sanitary conditions of the communal schools.

With a view of facilitating the task of the directors the Ministry of Public Instruction authorises these latter to choose among the members of the teaching staff a certain number of preceptors who help him in their administrative work and supervise in a more direct manner the conduct and the general education of the students. As might be expected, these preceptors have very few lessons in the week.

CONDITIONS AND ENTRANCE EXAMINATIONS IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS AND INCOMPLETE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The admission of students to a high school or to an incomplete secondary school is preceded by a preliminary examination, which is more or less severe according to the different cases.

Only those students who have completed the full course of studies in a primary school, and are not older than fourteen years, can be admitted to the first class of a high school.

At the termination of the secondary studies the students must pass a final examination, which is called in Bulgaria an examination of maturity. The examination takes place before a special commission and comprises a written and an oral test. This commission sits twice during the year : in January and in December.

The promotion from one class to a higher one is dependent on the success achieved by the student during the year.

The total number of students in the nine State high schools and the two communal ones was, during the year 1903-1904 :



HOSPITAL OF ALEXANDER I., SOFIA

THE NEW YORK
PUBLIC LIBRARY
ASTOR LENOX AND
TILDEN FOUNDATIONS

(1) 8,148 in the State high schools for boys, including in this number the students of the incomplete secondary schools.*

(2) 5,323 in the high schools for girls and in the schools of only six forms.

(3) 2,701 in the training schools.

(4) 633 in the model divisions attached to the training colleges.

3. HIGHER COLLEGES.—UNIVERSITY OF SOFIA

The Higher College of Sofia, which was founded on January 1st, 1889, has since been reorganised by the law of 1904, which changed its name into that of University. It is placed under the control of the Ministry of Public Instruction.

The University of Sofia comprises at present three faculties:

(a) Historico-Philological Faculty, with 16 chairs.

(b) Physico-Mathematical Faculty, with 17 chairs.

(c) Law Faculty, with 11 chairs.

Each one of these faculties has all the indispensable accessories (seminars, cabinets, collections, laboratories, observatories, botanical gardens, stations for observation, etc.), which are conducted by specialists.

The professorial staff is composed of regular and extraordinary professors, permanent and privat docents and lecturers.

The administration of the University is vested in an Academic Council, which elects at the commencement of every year a rector. Each one of the three faculties has its Faculty Council, which is presided over by the dean, chosen by the professors of the faculty.

The library of the University, which forms a separate organisation, is entrusted to a special librarian.

The general management belongs to the secretary of the

* In this number are included the students of the supplementary classes attached to the training colleges.

University, while the financial department is placed under a questor.

The members of the teaching body, as also the whole staff, are appointed by the Ministry of Public Instruction, on the advice of the Academical Council, and on the presentation of the rector of the University.

The studies last eight semesters. There are two kinds of examinations—university and academical—at the end of the fourth and of the eighth semesters, for the obtainment of doctor's degree.

There are two categories of students, regular and auditory. In order to be admitted as a regular student, the candidate must have completed the course of studies in a high school, and passed with success the final examination. Those who do not fulfil the above conditions are admitted only as auditory students.

During the year 1904-1905, the number of students in the University was as follows :

1. Historico-philological Faculty, 212 students, of whom 73 were women.

2. Physico-Mathematical Faculty, 238 students, of whom 37 were women.

3. Law Faculty, 493 students, of whom two were women.

Altogether 943 students, of whom 112 were women.

Professorial Staff :

				Frs. per annum.
Regular professors 17,	each receiving	„	7,200
Extraordinary professors	.. 11,	„	„	6,000
Docents professors 11,	„	„	4,800
Lecturers 4,	„	„	—
Assistant tutors 9,	„	„	—

The total expenditure incurred by the State for the maintenance of the University of Sofia reaches the sum of 450,000 francs.



MARKET HALL, JAMBOL.

2

4. TECHNICAL INSTRUCTION

SCHOOL FOR DRAWING

The object of this school is : (1) to encourage the fine arts, (2) to prepare teachers of drawing and calligraphy for the high schools and the professional schools, (3) to prepare designers and artists for the different branches of industry (icon-painting, carving, ceramics, decoration-art, weaving, etc.). In accordance with this object, the school is divided into two main sections : (a) section of artists and of teachers in drawing, etc., (b) section of artistic industries. A common preparatory course serves as a connecting link between the two sections. The ordinary course corresponds, in degree, to the instruction given in the secondary schools, and lasts three years. The special sections are subdivided into several higher courses, corresponding to the different art specialties.

The subjects taught in the preparatory course are : drawing in black of plaster models (ornaments and busts) and of carving models, modelling, decorative arts, projective drawing, perspective, anatomy, architecture, and history of art.

The higher course comprises for the present the following branches : fine arts, icon-painting, preparatory school for teachers of drawing in the high schools, decorative motifs, wood-carving, ceramic and lithography.

The conditions for the admission to the first class of the preparatory course is for the candidate to have passed at least four classes in a high school. Those who do not fulfil the above condition may, however, be admitted as auditors.

The preparatory course was attended during the year 1903-1904 by 66 students, of whom 55 were boys and 11 girls.

During the same year, the number of students of the higher course was 58, of whom 44 were boys and 14 girls, or altogether 124 students, of whom 99 were boys and 25 girls.

The teaching staff is composed of regular and extraordinary professors.

	Frs. per annum.
The regular professors of 1st class receive	6,000
” ” ” ” 2nd ” ”	4,800
” ” ” ” 3rd ” ”	3,600

The council of professors may propose the nomination of free professors, who are paid from 5 to 15 francs per lesson. The total number of professors is 15, of whom 9 are regular and 6 extraordinary.

At the head of the school there is a director, who is appointed, as are all the professors, by ministerial decree on the proposition of the school council.

The cost for the maintenance of the school is 91,000 francs a year.

5. INSTITUTIONS FOR DEFECTIVE CHILDREN

SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB

This school was opened in Sofia some years ago, through the initiative of a noble foreigner. With the object of encouraging this humanitarian undertaking, the Ministry of Public Instruction makes an annual grant which amounted for the year 1904-1905 to 10,000 francs.

INSTITUTE FOR BLIND

This institute was opened towards the end of 1905. Its organisation has been entrusted to a specialist, who had been previously sent by the Ministry of Public Instruction to study the organisation of similar institutes in Vienna and St. Petersburg.

The grants provided by the budget of 1904 in favour of the last two institutions amount to nearly 100,000 francs.



NATIONAL MUSEUM, SOFIA.

6. DIVERSE OTHER INSTITUTIONS

EDUCATIONAL MUSEUM

An Educational Museum has been recently created by the Ministry of Public Instruction. The object is : (1) to collect and preserve all the materials which may serve hereafter for the study of the educational history of Bulgaria. These materials will comprise : various regulations and educational laws, prints and manuscripts, curriculae, manuals, guides for teachers, various educational appliances, means for preserving discipline, etc. ; (2) to familiarise the teaching profession with the pedagogical literature of Bulgaria and of the other countries, and (3) to place under the eyes of the educational authorities, teachers, and all those who are interested in educational questions and in the national instruction, the different kinds of materials and accessories which are in use in Bulgaria and in the other countries, and so to help the choosing for our schools of those materials which are most likely to produce the best results.

The Educational Museum is at the same time a sort of information and verification office as regards questions touching on education.

It comprises three sections : historical section, pedagogical library, and a collection of educational materials.

EDUCATIONAL LIBRARIES AND LABORATORIES

Every school has two libraries, one for the student and the other for the teachers. A complete collection of manuals, guides, and various instruments is kept to facilitate the work of the teachers. The funds necessary for the buying of these materials are derived partly from the school taxes and the rest from the budget of the Ministry of Public Instruction. The communes are bound to provide the funds for their respective schools. The decisions concerning the

buying of books and other materials are taken by the Council of Teachers and submitted to the approval of the Ministry of Public Instruction.

NATIONAL LIBRARIES

There are two national libraries in the Principality, one in Sofia and the other in Plovdiv. The library in this latter place remains from the time of Eastern Roumelia. These two libraries are administered by directors, who are appointed by the Ministry of Public Instruction. The annual expenditure for the two libraries reaches the sum of 80,000 francs.

COMMUNAL READING-ROOMS

Throughout the Principality, there are a thousand communal reading-rooms, whose object is to help the intellectual and moral development of the population and the general progress of the country. Every reading-room is an intellectual centre where, besides the libraries which are placed at the disposal of the population, public lectures and popular conferences are regularly held. In the more important towns, popular courses are given, and the education of poor children and orphans is assisted by voluntary contributions. The communes and the Ministry contribute to this work in the shape of annual or occasional subsidies.

NATIONAL MUSEUM

In virtue of a law of 1889, the State is considered owner of all the antiquities which are buried in the Bulgarian soil, and have not yet been discovered, such as ancient coins, monuments, statues, sarcophagi, instruments, arms, manuscripts, etc. Shortly after the proclamation of our independence, excavations were undertaken in many parts of the country, and the antiquities discovered were collected in Sophia. The National Museum of Sofia has two sections, one for archæo-



NATIONAL THEATRE, SOFIA.



logical objects and the other for ethnographical objects. It has also a gallery for fine arts.

The administration of the Museum is entrusted to a director who is under the control of the Ministry of Public Instruction. The annual cost of this Museum is 80,000 francs.

CENTRAL METEOROLOGICAL STATION

The study of the country from a meteorological point of view is concentrated in the meteorological station of Sofia, which has under its control 125 similar stations in the different towns of the Principality.

The director of the central station is appointed by the Ministry of Public Instruction, and receives a salary of 5,600 francs per annum.

The maintenance of the meteorological stations entails an annual expenditure of about 40,000 francs. Special sums are granted for collecting agricultural statistics (10,000 francs in 1901).

NATIONAL THEATRE

The State company, "Tears and Laughter," which has been subsidised by the State for many years past, has been recently reorganised into a National Theatre. This latter receives an annual subscription of 100,000 francs. The new State Theatre of Sofia, which was built after the plans of the Austrian architect Kelmer, was inaugurated in January 1907. The theatre is under the management of a director and an administrator, both of whom are appointed by the Ministry of Public Instruction.

Several provincial theatres and dramatic companies are also subsidised by the State. The total amount of these subventions during the year 1904 was 15,000 francs.

EDUCATIONAL BUDGET

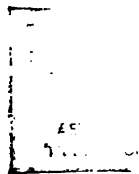
The maintenance of the University and of the secondary

and professional schools depending on the Ministry of Public Instruction entails an expenditure of 4,201,000 francs, distributed as follows :

	Francs.
1. University	450,000
2. School of Fine Arts	91,000
3. High schools, training colleges, class schools ..	2,780,000
4. Payment of one-half of the salaries of teachers in the communal schools	880,000

The Ministry also spends the following sums for the intellectual development of the country :

1. Fees paid to organisers of evening classes and expenses for the upkeep of school gardens	Francs. 10,000
2. Lectures for teachers	10,000
3. Subventions to two orphanages	32,000
4. Mahomedan schools	75,000
5. Grants to boarding schools and private schools	15,000
6. Popular lectures, conferences, scientific, philan- thropical, and artistic societies, and similar institutions	10,000
7. Grants for archæological researches	3,000
8. To the Literary Society, and for its publication, <i>Annual Magazine of National Science and Literature</i> (60 printed sheets)	20,000
9. Funds for construction and repair of school buildings	20,000
10. Maintenance of a sanatorium and consumptive teachers	5,000
11. To the Student's Circle of Sofia	5,000
12. Literary and artistic enterprises, scientific researches	46,000
Total	4,201,000





RILO MONASTERY.

CHAPTER V

THE BULGARIAN CHURCH AND FOREIGN RELIGIONS

I. ORTHODOX CREED

THE autonomous orthodox Bulgarian Church forms an inseparable part of the Holy Orthodox Church.

The Bulgarian Exarchate comprises all the Bulgarian dioceses in the provinces of the Turkish Empire, as they were enumerated explicitly or in general terms by the Great Firman of 8 Silhidje 1286 (1870), as well as the dioceses of the Bulgarian Principality.

The number of the orthodox Bulgarian population in Turkey which recognises the authority of the Exarchate is 1,200,000, there remaining about 400,000 Bulgarians who still owe allegiance to the Greek Patriarchate.

In the Principality itself, the orthodox population which acknowledges the spiritual jurisdiction of the Exarchate is a little over three millions.

The Bulgarian dioceses in Turkey which are governed by Bulgarian metropolitans are those of Ochrida, Uskub, Monastir (Pelagonia), Velès, Nevrokop, Debra, and Strouma. Article 10 of the Firman of 1870 recognised to all the dioceses of the Exarchate the right of having Bulgarian bishops at their head, but fourteen of these dioceses still remain without spiritual chiefs.

The dioceses of the Principality, which are all administered

by metropolitans, are to the number of eleven, namely those of Tirnovo, Sofia, Plovdiv, Varna-Preslav, Dorostol-Tcherven (Roustchouk), Vratza, Viddin, Sliven, Stara-Zagora, Lovetch, and Samokov.

For the purposes of their administration, the dioceses are subdivided into vicarages and parishes.

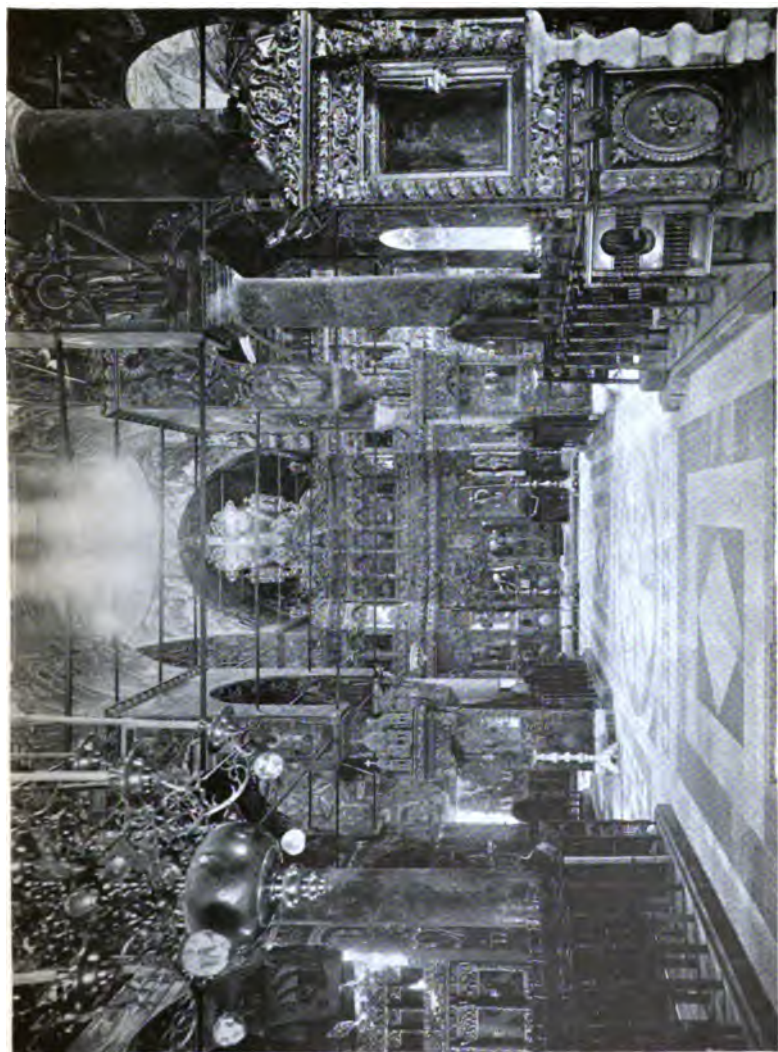
The Bulgarian Orthodox Church is governed by the canon laws and regulations, as well as by the Organic Statute of the Bulgarian Exarchate.

According to the Organic Statute, the general administration of the Exarchate belongs to the Holy Synod and that of the dioceses to their respective bishops. The Holy Synod, which is the highest organ of the Church, has as its president His Beatitude the Exarch, and as members all the metropolitan bishops of the Bulgarian Church. These latter, however, exercise their right by delegation, four of them, who are chosen by the General Assembly, forming, so to speak, the permanent Holy Synod and dispensing the synodal authority. At the head of every diocese there is a Council, composed of the metropolitan bishop, as president, and of four parish priests who are elected by their peers for a period of four years. The ecclesiastical authority in the diocese is vested in the bishop, who exercises it with the assistance of the Council. The sentences and decisions of the diocesan Council may be taken in appeal before the Holy Synod.

The Exarch and the metropolitan bishops are chosen for life, the election taking place by secret ballot. The laymen take part in these elections on the same footing as the members of the clergy.

At the head of every vicarage, of which there are forty-two in the Principality alone, there is a vicar who is appointed by the Government, on the presentation of the respective bishop.

The town and village parishes are placed under the direct authority of the vicars. The town parishes comprise from



INTERIOR OF THE CHURCH OF RILLO MONASTERY.



200 to 300 houses, and the village parishes from 150 to 200 houses.*

The parish priests, provided they fulfil certain conditions, are freely chosen by the members of the parish, and receive their ordination in accordance with the canon laws.

The number of churches in the Principality is 1,627, without counting 379 chapels. In Turkey, there are at present 1,067 churches.

The clergy is composed of 1,961 priests in the Principality, and of 1,174 priests in the dioceses of the Turkish Empire.

All marriages and divorces are within the exclusive jurisdiction of the ecclesiastical authorities. Questions concerning the validity of marriage or its dissolution are regulated by the canon laws.

According to these laws, the legal age for contracting marriage is fixed at nineteen years for boys and seventeen years for girls. There are ten grounds on which the marriage tie may be dissolved. The request of one of the parties, when based on adultery, does not of itself entail the dissolution of marriage. The party which has been found guilty of adultery is not allowed to marry its accomplice. The custody of the children, in case of divorce, is given to the innocent side, except when the children are below the age of five years, in which case they are left with the mother. The mutual consent of the married couple is not a ground for divorce. All marriages contracted in opposition to the canon laws or regulations are considered null and void.

The Diocesan Council is the sole competent authority to judge affairs of divorce, its decisions being submitted to the approval of the respective metropolitan bishop.

* This organisation exists for the present only in the Principality.

2. FOREIGN RELIGIONS IN BULGARIA

The Bulgarian constitution guarantees complete freedom to the foreign creeds, and no one living in Bulgaria may be disturbed on account of his religious convictions. Difference in religion may in no case be a ground for restricting the rights of Bulgarian citizens.

The principal creeds which are recognised in the Principality are the Mahommedan, the Roman Catholic, the Jewish, the Armenian, and the Protestant. The Orthodox Greeks are under the jurisdiction of the Patriarch of Constantinople.

As regards the different confessions, the population of the Principality is distributed as follows :

3,100,000	Orthodox Bulgarian.
643,000	Mahommedans.
66,635	Greeks-Patriarchists.
33,569	Jews.
28,569	Catholic.
14,581	Armenians.
4,524	Protestant.

The Mahommedan population is organised in religious communities, which are administered by muftis or assistant-muftis. These are freely chosen by the faithful, and confirmed by the Government, which allows them monthly salaries. There are thirty-six Mahommedan communities, administered by sixteen muftis and twenty-six assistant-muftis. The mufti of Sofia is at the head of the organisation.

The duties of the muftis are entirely spiritual. The Mahommedans consider them as their spiritual leaders, to whom is entrusted the maintenance of good order in their communal affairs. Every mufti is the head of an administration which is subsidised by the Government and deals, among other matters, with questions of divorce, successions, etc., among



SHIPKA PASS MONASTERY.

Mahommedans. The muftis are also entrusted with looking after the religious establishments, mosques, and taxes, as well as with the management of the vakoufs. These latter are landed properties bequeathed by Mahommedans for purposes of charity and for the needs of the Mahommedan creed.

Every mufti is assisted by one or two secretaries, who are also paid by the Government, and by an administrative council, the members of which are chosen by the Mahommedan population of the district.

The Mahommedan schools are also subsidised by the Government, and their management is entrusted to committees chosen exclusively by Mussulmans. The muftis and the Mahommedan council are placed under the authority of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Worship, with which they correspond in the official language of the country.

The Catholics have two representatives in Bulgaria : Archbishop Menini, at Plovdiv and Bishop Doulcet at Nicopol. They are appointed by the Propaganda of Rome, and are independent of each other. As regards the Bulgarian Government, these two representatives of the Catholic creeds, and also the various institutions belonging to the same creed, enjoy certain privileges which amount to practical independence.

The Jews also have a representative, who is the Grand Rabbi residing in Sofia. The Grand Rabbi is elected by the Jewish population of the Principality, subject to the approval of the Government, which allows him a salary. As spiritual chief of the Jews, the Grand Rabbi has the direction of all the affairs concerning the Jewish creed, or touching marriages, divorces, etc. In the towns, the Jews are organised in special communities whose administration is entrusted to synagogical committees.

The Grand Rabinat of Bulgaria is in direct relations with the Ministry of the Foreign Affairs and the Creeds, and serves

as intermediary between the Ministry and the religious community, whose decisions are submitted to its approval. This same Ministry also superintends and confirms the elections of the synagogical committees.

The organisation of the Armenians is in a comparatively rudimentary state, which is due to their small number. Nevertheless, Armenian communities have been formed in the principal towns, and possess their own churches. The Armenian priests are appointed directly by the Armenian Patriarch of Constantinople.

The Bulgarian Government has granted the Armenians complete freedom to arrange their communities as they please, and does not intervene except when the Armenians themselves turn to the Ministry of the Creeds. The Armenians have no general representative in Bulgaria.

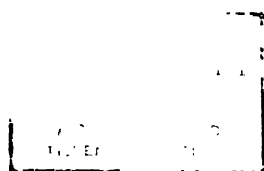
The Protestants (evangelical) are even less numerous than the Armenians. Two American missions carry on the work of propaganda in the Principality—the Congregational Mission and the Methodist-Episcopalian Mission. The Evangelical pastor of Sofia is at the head of the Evangelical Churches throughout the country. The Churches, however, enjoy perfect autonomy in their government. Every Church exercises its rights directly or by delegation. There is for every Church an ecclesiastical Council, which is chosen by the majority of the faithful. The pastors are entrusted with the management of religious affairs, in which task they are assisted by the respective councils.

The Methodist Episcopalians enjoy the same privileges and have a similar organisation. They recognise as their chief the bishop delegated by the American Methodist Episcopalian Mission, to which all pastors and preachers are answerable.

The Greek population of Bulgaria forms a special category. Although they are orthodox like the Bulgarians, as regards their religion they depend on the Œcumenical Patriarchate



"SAINT CRYL" CATHEDRAL. SOFIA.



of Constantinople. The Greek bishops in the Principality (in Plovdiv, Varna, Sozopol, Anchialos and Messemvria) are appointed by the Patriarch of Constantinople, with the preliminary consent of the Bulgarian Government.

The religious communities of the Greeks are organised in the same way as the communities of the other creeds. The bishop, assisted by a council freely chosen by the Greek population, administers the affairs of the community, and decides all questions touching on marriage, divorce, etc. The councils, as also the Greek educational committees, are chosen by the community, but their election is not submitted to the approval of the Bulgarian Government.

PART II
THE ECONOMIC CONDITION OF
BULGARIA

CHAPTER I

FORESTS

I. HISTORY OF BULGARIAN FORESTRY

UP to the time of the constitution of Bulgaria as an autonomous principality, the history of our forestry is very obscure. All we know is, that in ancient times the country was covered with impenetrably dense virgin forest. Unfortunately, the greater part of this forest has been cut down by the peasants who wanted pasture land. Up to the very eve of our deliverance from the Ottoman yoke, no control was exercised over the demolition of forests and no measures were taken for their preservation.

The State granted entire liberty to private persons to pasture their flocks and herds in the forests when and how they chose. From time immemorial certain parishes had forests of their own, called "baltalik" by the Turks. The parishioners alone had the rights of cutting wood or of pasturage within the boundaries of the forest of the parish, and they profited by these rights to their heart's content, the more so as no dues were exacted in return.

Private individuals looked upon the forests as their own property. In return for the payment of a certain tax, they thought they had a right to dispose of it, to cut wood at their pleasure, and even to make clearings without being accountable to any one for their action. There was as yet no such thing as public interest in forestry.

In 1869 (11 Horse, 1285, according to Mohammedan reckon-

ing) the Turkish Government published a law which brought a certain amount of control to bear on the exploitation of forests ; but from the inquiries made we are pretty well assured that this law, together with the subsequent orders and instructions issued concerning its application, remained a dead letter, save for a few of its clauses which were carried out in certain vilayets.

In consequence of these facts free Bulgaria, in place of the virgin forest which had been the pride of the country, started with forests sadly thinned, their area reduced to a minimum.

The Russo-Turkish war contributed further to the work of devastation. Such forests as had thus far escaped, for one reason or another, were completely cut down and turned into waste lands.

The first enactment by the Bulgarian Government for the protection of forests was the ordinance of December 20th, 1878, issued by the section of the Ministry of Finance. The ministry ordered governors of provinces to appoint special keepers to look after the forests. Many other enactments followed, for the levying of taxes on all forests, whether they belonged to the State, to parishes, or private individuals (1879), to prohibit the export of wood (1880)—this having caused the destruction of forests in neighbouring countries,—and to order the collection of seeds for the replanting of forests. Further instructions determined the portions of forest which might be felled, and exercised control over attempts of individuals to monopolise forest-land, incendiarism, destructive exploitation, etc.

These measures did not produce the hoped-for results. They were insufficient to cure the country people of their old habits, and the destruction of forests went on just as before.

At last, in 1884, the National Assembly passed the first law on the administration of forests. This law contained excellent and practical provisions. It divided forests into three

classes, according as they belonged to the State, to parishes, or to individuals. The general control was placed in the hands of the Minister of Finance. The actual work of forestry was confided to foresters (later on inspectors of forests), one being appointed for every administrative department. Each of them had a certain number of keepers under him. The duty of this staff was to preserve the woods from injury and to arrange a systematic division of forests into "blocks" for felling in regular succession to provide charcoal, planks, and fuel. In short, this law contained all the enactments which experience had suggested to the legislators as capable of improving the condition of our forests. It was received with enthusiasm by sensible men, but the great majority of the Bulgarian people felt differently. Being used to felling at will, they opposed an obstinate resistance to the new order of things.

Five years later, therefore, the National Assembly passed a new Bill in place of the one of 1884. This certainly proved more efficacious. From 1890 onwards the staff of foresters was increased and really sensible methods of forestry in Bulgaria date from that time. The question was approached in earnest. New and detailed orders made clear to the inspectors of forests what results were expected from their work. Measures were taken for the survey of the forests and the study of the methods of the day and the renewal of disafforested woodland. A register of forests was begun and provisional plans for administration were drawn up. All this preparatory work, meagre as it still was, at least struck the attention of the foresters. The favourite occupation of those who were interested in their work was the starting of nurseries of young trees on State and parish property, especially in the neighbourhood of schools. In a short space of time, millions of young trees of all kinds were ready for disposal, and these were planted in the yards and gardens of towns and villages,

along the roads, and in other places. Later, definite statistics were collected, with an exact survey of all the forests, the determination of their boundaries, etc. A special course of surveying was arranged for young keepers, who were made to pass a theoretical and practical examination, and were thus better prepared for their work of restoration. All these excellent measures quickly improved the staff.

With the idea of filling in certain gaps in the law of 1889, the National Assembly in 1897 elaborated a third law, which brought no changes in the ownership of forest-land, but completely reorganised the service and issued fresh measures for the protection of forests, for the registration, and more particularly for the rational exploitation of parish forests.

Six years later a new law took its place. This act of 1904 continued the programme of reform. It decided, once and for all, questions relating to the ownership of forest-land and commons according to an inexpensive and summary system of procedure. It also offered a definite solution for differences as to the easements of forests which had been in abeyance since the war of independence, and it decided on a programme of practical work.

To sum up, we may say that these frequent changes in forest laws all have as motive the wish to obtain the greatest possible return from the forests compatible with their preservation.

The total area of the forests of Bulgaria is 3,041,324 hectares, which may be classed as follows :

State property	902,816·6 hectares.
Parish property	1,565,242 ..
Private property	519,636·9 ..
Belonging to schools, churches, mosques, and other religious establishments ..	53,628·9 ..
<hr/>	
Total	3,041,324·4 hectares.

The State, therefore, may be said to own one-third of the total area of forest-land, the parishes half, and the remainder (about $\frac{1}{3}$ th) belongs to private persons or to religious communities.

The State forests are situate in the mountainous districts of Stara-Planina, the Rhodopes, and Rilo. They number 438.

The parish forests are mostly in the south and west of the Principality, and number 2,966.

The forests belonging to individuals are mostly situate in the plains. They are small and scattered. Here we may remark that, with one or two exceptions, there are no great landed proprietors in Bulgaria.

The forests of Bulgaria occupy 30 per cent. of the whole area of the country. Bulgaria is, therefore, by 1 p.c. richer in woodland than Hungary, Slavonia and Croatia taken together, 3 p.c. richer than Switzerland, 4 p.c. more than Germany, 8 p.c. more than Italy and Roumania, 13 p.c. more than Spain, 14 p.c. more than France and Greece, and 25 p.c. more than Portugal. On the other hand, she has 3 p.c. less forest than Austria, Sweden and Norway.

The population, according to the last census, being 3,744,283, there is about one hectare of forest in Bulgaria to every inhabitant.

As regards the height of the trees, the forests may be classed as follows: 1,060,463·8 hectares have trees of above average height; 1,980,662·8 hectares have trees of average height or less. About one-quarter of the former class consists of conifers.

The annual productive force of a large forest of a hundred years old (hard-wood trees) of good quality and normal density is, per hectare, 3·05 m. cube.

That of a forest 20 years old (low growth, hard-wood trees) is 2·45 m. 3.

That of a forest 100 years old (tall trees, soft wood) 5·69 m. cube.

That of a forest 20 years old (low growth, soft wood) 4·15 m. cube.

These figures, reduced to a standard density of '5, as an average for all kinds of forest, give the following results :

Annual productive energy of a forest 100 years old (tall trees, soft wood), per hectare, 1'50 m. cube.

That of a forest 20 years old (low growth) 1'22 m. cube.

That of a forest of tall trees, soft wood 2'84 m. cube.

That of a forest of 20 years (low growth, soft wood) 2'07 m. cube.

The forests of Bulgaria are valued at about 600 million francs.

The Export Trade in Timber.—Bulgaria exports all kinds of woods, soft and hard, both as raw materials and manufactured. During the five years from 1898 to 1902, Bulgaria exported on an average 30,206,648 kilograms of timber of the value of 1,205,146 francs. She imported during the same period, on an average, 36,773,886 kilograms, costing 1,917,080 francs. The importation has constantly decreased ; from 3,542,078 for the year 1898, it fell to 1,267,238 in 1902. On the other hand the export trade has increased ; from 1,016,639 for the year 1898, it rose to 1,563,691 in 1902.

Bulgaria for the most part imports soft wood, whether as raw material or manufactured. During the period already mentioned, 75 p.c. of all material imported consisted of these woods ; 50·5 p.c. of the export trade is in the timber of conifers. Among our customers, Turkey figures for 85 p.c., Servia for 3 p.c., Roumania for 1 p.c., Austro-Hungary for 0·7 p.c. The rest, about 7 p.c. in all, is divided between Germany, France, Greece, Belgium, Egypt, and other countries.

Austro-Hungary sold us the greater part of our imported wood, 81 p.c.; Roumania 10 p.c., Turkey and Servia 8 p.c., other countries 1 p.c.

Turkey buys of us soft wood, both raw and manufactured, firing and charcoal. France, Germany, and Belgium require hard timber, and Egypt planks. We, for our part, import soft wood, both raw and manufactured, furniture and casks bought mostly in Austro-Hungary, Germany, Belgium, and France.

All these data are taken from the statistics of import and export for the years 1898-1902.

There is, strictly speaking, no manufacture of wooden articles in Bulgaria. We may, however, mention the steam factories for making doors, windows, and parquet belonging to Mr. Ilia Kisseloff at Kritchim, and to Mr. Srebernicoff at Dolna Bania; a match factory at Kostenetz Bania, started by a foreign company; the timber-yards of the brothers Ivanoff at Belovo, for planks of all sizes; the timber-yards of the brothers Balabanoff, in the fine forest of the Rilo monastery, for all kinds of building materials, and others at Bourgas, Roustchouk, and Varna.

All the other timber-yards in the forests are as yet in a primitive condition, and only work during certain months of the year, when they can utilise the water-power of the streams. They saw planks of all qualities. The quantity of material turned out never exceeds six or seven hundred cubic metres per annum. In the Rhodopes and the Rilo district there are as many as 500 of these timber-yards and in the Stara-Planina about 150. The former make a speciality of soft wood, the latter of hard wood. There are, besides, a certain number of workshops which turn out platters, lids, mortars, bowls, etc., especially at Sevlievo and Gabrovo. A model workshop of this kind was started at Gabrovo in 1904 in the State property Liga. It belongs to Mr. Ouzounoff.

Of the material worked up in the timber-yards only soft wood is exported. As to small articles made by hand, such as bowls, platters, lids, boxes, etc., we exported :

In 1895	—	174,000 kilograms	worth	46,000 francs.
„ 1896	—	113,000	„ „	36,000 „
„ 1897	—	71,000	„ „	23,000 „
„ 1898	—	72,000	„ „	18,000 „
„ 1899	—	67,000	„ „	17,000 „
		<hr/>		<hr/>
		497,000	„ „	140,000 „

During the same period, we imported 722,000 kilograms, worth 250,000 francs; on the average 144,000 kilograms per annum to the value of 50,000 francs.

It is interesting to consider the quantity of timber furnished annually by our forests with regard to its grades of quality. The following tables show us the quantities of timber felled during the last three years :

(a) STATE FORESTS

	Building material in cubic metres.	Fuel in cubic metres.	Charcoal in kilograms.
1901	56,431·63	190,286·56	1,244,806
1902	94,676·38	206,822·52	1,246,336
1903	87,301·40	209,873·23	1,438,351

(b) PARISH FORESTS

1901	98,489·49	346,581·85	3,397,829
1902	160,356·80	639,057·95	3,911,189
1903	131,949·70	564,984·73	4,362,816

(c) PRIVATE PROPERTY

1901	116,225·10	509,360·15	1,350,474
1902	100,920·79	686,232·28	1,357,271
1903	142,694·04	590,461·44	757,005

To these figures should be added the quantity of timber which is cut in a contraband fashion, and this is considerable.

These figures, reduced to a standard area for all classes of forests, prove * :

(1) That a hectare of the State forests yields on an average :
0'084 cm. of building timber.

0'672 cm. of fuel.

4'353 kilograms of charcoal.

(2) That a hectare of the parish forests yields on an average :
0'083 cm. of building timber.

0'330 cm. of fuel.

2'48 kilograms of charcoal.

(3) That a hectare of the forests of private owners yields on an average :

0'21 cm. of building timber.

0'77 cm. of fuel.

2'01 kilograms of charcoal.

Revenue of the products and by-products of the forests during the same three years :

STATE FORESTS

Year.	Building timber. Franca.	Fuel. Franca.	By-products. Franca.	Total. Franca.
1901	88,497'14	125,157'07	16,948	230,602'21
1902	140,323'15	154,114'86	22,850	317,288'01
1903	184,207'72	181,732'09	25,411	391,350'81

PARISH FORESTS

Year.	Building timber. Franca.	Fuel. Franca.	By-products. Franca.	Total. Franca.
1901	142,301'12	303,036'16	12'051	457,388'28
1902	185,678'02	357,112'87	16'767	559,557'89
1903	198,265'97	365,225'99	12'439	575,930'96

* No allowance is made for illegal felling.

From these data we can see that a hectare of State forest brings in 0'34 francs per annum, and a hectare of parish forest 0'34 francs. This small yield may be attributed to the low tariff for State and parish timber, and to the heavy cost of transport. The revenues are equal because of the uniformity of these tariffs.

2. VARIETIES OF TREES

Bulgaria possesses a great variety of leaf-bearing trees and conifers; those of the former class are most abundant. Those specially cultivated are the oak (*Quercus pedunculata*, *Q. sessiliflora*, *Q. cerris*); the beech (*Fagus sylvatica*); the common ash (*Fraxinus excelsior*); the elm (*Ulmus campestris*, *U. effusa*, *U. montana*); the plane tree (*Acer platanoides*, *A. pseudoplatanus*, *A. campestre*); the yoke-elm (*Carpinus betulus*); the lime (*Tilia grandifolia*, *T. parvifolia*, *T. argentea*); the willow (*Salix caprea*, *S. pentandra*); the poplar (*Populus tremula*, *P. alba*, *P. nigra*). The commonest conifers are the pine (*Pinus sylvestris*, *P. austriaca*, *P. pence*, *P. mughus*) and the fir (*Picea excelsa*, *P. pictinata*).

The forests of the Principality are rich in shrubs and herbs of all kinds. Among the more noteworthy are the following: *Alnus viridis*, *Berberis vulgaris*, *Cerasus chamaecerasus*, *Cornis* (*C. mas*, *C. sanguinea*, *C. pentogyna*), *Daphne mesereum*, *Hedera Helix*, *Ligustrum vulgare*, *Lonicera* (*L. xylostemum*, *L. caprifolia*, *L. nigra*), *Prunus spinosa*, *Ramnus* (*R. catharactica*, *R. frangula*), *Rus cotinus*, *Rosa* (*R. alpina*, *R. conina*), *Salix* (*S. fragilis*, *S. purpurea*, *S. viminalis*), *Sambucus* (*S. racemosa*), *Vaccinium* (*V. myrtillus*, *V. vitis-idaea*), *Viburnum* (*V. opulis*, *V. lantana*), *Viscum album*, etc.

Plantation has been, and unfortunately still is, carried on in a very primitive fashion. However, in the neighbourhoods of Varna, Pravadia, Anchialo, Aitos, Bourgas, Peschtera, and

elsewhere there are excellent plantations of a better class. The woods are thick and in good condition, consisting of magnificent oaks, pines, and *Picea excelsa*. The trees are tall, round, and smooth. These better kinds of trees are rare in the other districts, or only to be found in small isolated groups. Good thick forests have been preserved in out-of-the-way places difficult of access. No doubt, when they are connected with the principal arteries of modern traffic they will be the object of remunerative undertakings.

As to the quality of the kinds of wood, it should be observed that it is superior to those of exotic growth. Bulgarian timber is distinguished by its numerous annual rings, its bright colours, rich structure, and relative flexibility. In a word, it possesses all the qualities which make wood durable and useful for all kinds of purposes.

As regards climate and vegetation, Bulgaria may be divided into four zones :

(1) The Warm Zone.—This zone is partly low-lying, partly as high as 400 metres above sea-level. Formerly it was covered by vast forests. Their place is now occupied by plains under cultivation. The soil is damp for a considerable depth. The characteristic tree of the zone is the *Quercus pedunculata*, which is to be found by itself or mixed with *Ulmus*, *Acer campestre*, *Fraxinus*, *Carpinus* and *Tilia*. *Quercus cerris* flourishes in poor dry land.

(2) The Moderate Zone runs almost parallel above the first. The characteristic tree is *Quercus sessiliflora*. The plantations are thick, the trees tall and well grown. In the higher districts the beech is also to be found.

(3) The Cold Zone begins where beeches are to be found, and reaches an altitude of 1,300 metres above sea-level. The principal tree is the beech; indeed this zone might be called the Beech Zone. Although the largest and most wooded of the three, it is the least valuable; lying as it does in hilly

districts, cut off from means of communication, its immense reserves of timber cannot be utilised. There are very beautiful woods composed entirely of beech, and others where the beech occurs mixed with ash and plane. The southern slopes of Rilo and the Rhodopes and their valleys abound in firs. The higher districts of the beech zone contain the *Picea excelsa*, which grows at still higher altitudes.

(4) The fourth and highest zone of vegetation extends from 1,300 to 2,000 metres above sea-level. It begins with the beech, mixed with *Picea excelsa*, but the latter has almost the monopoly of this zone, and very thick woods of it are to be found. The lower boundaries are scattered with pines, above which *Pinus pence* grows in beautiful groups or fine single trees. Above this (1,800 metres above sea-level) *Pinus mughus* appears among the *Picea excelsa*. Still higher there is nothing but bare rocks.

The vertical partition of the forests of Bulgaria is shown in the following table :

Owners.	Up to 400 m. above sea. Hectares.	400-1,000 m. above sea. Hectares.	1,000-2,000 m. above sea. Hectares.
The State ..	296,546·9	347,546·7	258,525
Parishes ..	791,365	466,648·7	307,228·3
Private owners	314,307·45	179,381·85	79,578·5
	<u>1,402,219·35</u>	<u>993,577·25</u>	<u>645,331·8</u>
Total ..	3,041,128·40 hectares.		

3. ADMINISTRATION OF FORESTS

The superintendence of the forests of the Principality is in the hands of the Ministry of Commerce and Agriculture. A special department of the Ministry is charged with the execution of the forest laws. The staff consists of a chief of the department, an inspector-general of forests, an engineer for forests, and two assistant chiefs.



WALNUT FOREST NEAR KAZANLIK.



The territory is divided into forest districts, each including several administrative centres which, in turn, control a certain number of forest stations.

In accordance with the budget of 1905, the service is performed by six district inspectors, forty foresters, and twenty adjuncts. This is, so to speak, the upper staff of the administration of forests. There is, therefore, a district inspector to every 506,856·4 hectares and a forester to every 76,028·15 hectares.

This year the Ministry created a special bureau to superintend the canalisation of mountain streams. It is to consist of a chief of the department (a foreigner), two assistant chiefs (one of whom is to be a foreigner), an engineer, a draughtsman, and an administrator. The bureau will start work as soon as the staff is appointed.

Considerable technical knowledge is required of the upper staff of foresters. The six district inspectors have gone through a thorough training in their speciality. Of the forty foresters, twenty-eight have passed through a school of forestry, six have had a special training, and the others are all more or less prepared for the service.

The duty of patrolling the forests is confided to keepers specially appointed for the purpose. The budget provides for one keeper to every 1,500 hectares of forest and from three to seven foresters of a higher grade to every administrative centre. There are, besides, a great number of subalterns for different services. All this staff belongs to the State; the parish forests also employ foresters, one to every 50,000 hectares.

The salaries of all these functionaries are provided for in the budget as follows :

A district inspector of the first class receives 4,800 francs per annum, with 600 francs for travelling expenses.

A district inspector of the second class receives 4,200 francs per annum with 600 francs for travelling expenses.

A forester of the first class receives 3,600 francs per annum, with 300 francs for the keep of a horse.

A forester of the second class receives 3,000 francs per annum, with 300 francs for the keep of a horse.

A forester of the third class receives 2,400 francs per annum, with 300 francs for the keep of a horse.

An adjunct of the first class receives 2,100 francs per annum, with 240 francs for the keep of a horse.

An adjunct of the second class receives 1,440 francs per annum, with 240 francs for the keep of a horse.

A head keeper receives 1,080 francs per annum, a mounted keeper 840 francs, a keeper 600 francs.

The keepers in the parish forests receive respectively : head keepers 900 francs, mounted keepers 720 francs, keepers 480 francs.

Private owners of forests are obliged to employ their own keepers.

The total budget for forests in the year 1905 was 739,820 francs, 641,829 francs of which was spent in salaries, the remaining 98,000 francs on the improvement of the forests.

4. THE FELLING OF TIMBER

The State fells both its own forests and those belonging to the parishes, according to a programme drawn up every year by the Ministry.

Private owners fell their forests according to certain plans arranged in tables.

There are three systems of management : (1) the State fells its own forests and those belonging to the parishes ; (2) the right of felling is disposed of by auction ; (3) the right of felling is handed over to a third party.

The sales of timber, etc., take place either by auction, or in the way of a concession, or retail to the inhabitants of the district according to tariffs drawn up by the forest authorities.

Felling of pines and firs takes place all the year. The other forests are felled from September 15th to March 31st.

The proceeds from the State forests go, of course, to the State Treasury. So do the proceeds from the parish forests. But the State spends this revenue exclusively on the upkeep of the parish forests and returns any excess to the respective parishes. As a rule, the parishes are allowed no say in the management of their forests.

5. PROPAGATION AND RENEWAL OF FORESTS

Villages situated in forests are obliged to afforest 45 per cent. of their land, those near forests 25 p.c., and those in the open country 6 p.c. of their land.

Wherever the area afforested falls short of these proportions resort must be made to artificial methods. Certain districts of particular importance are also afforested. The work is carried on under State inspection.

Owing to the fact that the soil of Bulgaria is rich in vegetable matter, young trees take root with vigour and, although no particular care has as yet been taken of the plantations, very good results have been obtained. Dozens of hectares have been reafforested in several districts. Most of the planters have been influenced, not by any speculative project, but by a wish to beautify their estates or improve their hygienic condition. The reafforesting of already existing forests takes place by natural methods in conjunction with a periodical and rational system of felling, this system being at once the least costly and the best adapted to the different kinds of timber. But one thing must be observed: owing to the want of experience of Bulgarian foresters, the national system of renewal leads to a crossing of the different kinds, and the high forests are changed into low growth. The reverse is seldom the case.

6. PATROLLING OF THE FORESTS

The patrolling of the forests is confided, as we have already seen, to special keepers. There are 500 of these for the State forests and 2,135 for the parish forests. That is to say, there is a keeper to every 1,805·3 hectares of State forest and to every 734 hectares of parish forest.

In spite of the keepers' vigilance, much damage is done in malice or by theft. The country people have not yet grasped the importance of the preservation of forests for rural economy, and the keepers are not yet well trained for performing their difficult task.

7. GENERAL CONDITION OF THE FORESTS

All the forests of the Principality are not as yet classified, still less sub-divided and surveyed and their boundaries marked. All have not as yet been seriously taken in hand.

No distinction has been made between forests pure and simple and the other possessions of the Bulgarian peasant. Vineyards are to be found among the forests, and are in their turn divided by fields and meadows ; all these things shade into one another. That is the reason why our peasants do not, as yet, see any great difference between a meadow and a forest, a vineyard and a meadow. They pasture their cattle anywhere and everywhere and at any time, without distinguishing between young forests and old ones, without even any regard to fresh plantations. This is the way with most of the peasants, and it results from their notions of rural economy. Hence come all the difficulties which hinder at every step the work of restoring and preserving our forests.

On the other hand, the Bulgarian government makes every effort to stop the devastation of forests and establish a state of things which shall safeguard the well-being of the rural population.

The finest forests of tall timber lie on the most inaccessible heights of Stara-Planina, Rilo, the Rhodopes, and Sredna-Gora. Such are the beechwoods of Berkovitz, Vratza, Teteven, and indeed those on most of the northern slopes of Stara-Planina and Sredna-Gora between the village of Klissoura (Carlovo) and Staro-Novo Selo (Philippopolis).

The forests of the Rilo Monastery are particularly rich and well preserved. These forests would form the basis of a very profitable speculation if the necessary funds were forthcoming. An important Sofia firm (Balabanoff brothers) has purchased the concession for twenty years, starting from 1902. The Rilo forests are coniferous.

The ash and elm plantations at Longosa, along the river Kamtschia to the Black Sea, 30 kilometres from Varna, deserve special mention. Lower down, there are woods of low growth, the timber of which is particularly hard and good; for instance, the woods of Hasakia at Bourgas, of Guenichada at Varna, of Balabandéré at Aütos; and Caramas Kaia at Anchialo.

Altogether, the forests of the Principality are of great promise, thanks to the natural richness of the country, even though as yet their importance has not been universally realised.

The improvement of our forests demands enormous sacrifices, but on the other hand a time will come when the revenue from the forests will play an important part in the State budget. The Bulgarian Government, fully aware of its duties and its interests, concentrates its efforts to this end: to make our forests, by the simplest means, in the near future a source of riches, which are so sorely needed by the young State for the completion of its organisation

CHAPTER II

LANDED PROPERTY AND AGRICULTURE

WITH a total area of 9,570,450 hectares, the Principality of Bulgaria contains :

(1) 2,156,701·05 hectares of inhabited area, roads, rivers, etc. ; in all 22·54 per cent. of the total area.

(2) 2,867,870·79 hectares of forest ; 29·96 of the total area.

(3) 2,975,386·21 hectares of arable land ; 31·09 p.c. of the total area.

(4) 352,404·36 hectares of meadow land ; 3·68 p.c. of the total area.

(5) 124,680·08 hectares of gardens, orchards, rose-gardens and vineyards ; 1·30 p.c. of the total area.

(6) 123,207·64 hectares of marshes, reed-beds, islands, thickets, and salt marshes ; 1·29 p.c. of the total area.

(7) 970,199·87 hectares of pasture land, 10·14 p.c. of the total area.

We see from these figures that the total area of ground susceptible of cultivation is 4,422,670·52 hectares, or 46·21 p.c. of the area of the country. Governmental statistics prove that the greater part of the arable land and of that suited to any kind of culture comes more and more under cultivation. About the year 1892 2,623,312 hectares were being cultivated, that is 59·30 p.c. About the year 1897 these figures rose to 3,452,470·65 hectares, 78 p.c. The remaining 22 p.c. is pasture land.

As regards ownership, the total area of the Principality is divided into :

(1) Private property : 3,977,557·72 hectares, or 41·56 p.c. of the total area.

(2) Parish property : 2,291,156·50 hectares, or 23·94 p.c. of the total area.

(3) Inhabited area, rivers, roads : 2,156,701·05 hectares, or 22·54 p.c. of the total area.

(4) State property : 1,015,903·23 hectares, or 10·61 p.c. of the total area.

(5) Property belonging to churches, schools, monasteries, etc. : 29,131·50 hectares, or 1·35 p.c. of the total area.

Total : 9,570,450 hectares.

So that, without counting the inhabited area, rivers, roads, etc., the area that can be turned to account is 7,413,748·95 hectares, 3,977,557·72 of which belong to private owners ; 3,428,466·9 hectares belong to 546,084 proprietors who live on their own land ; 599,090·8 hectares belong to 253,504 proprietors who do not live on those lands.

The following table gives details relating to the distribution of the property of the former class :

	Number of Proprietors.		Area of each property.			Total area of the properties of each class.
I	65,870		up to	5	décar.	157,227·2 déc.
2	37,256	from	5 to	10	„	278,367·9 „
3	59,735	„	10 to	20	„	895,795·6 „
4	54,841	„	20 to	30	„	1,373,820·1 „
5	49,637	„	30 to	40	„	1,735,515·5 „
6	44,093	„	40 to	50	„	1,982,240·6 „
7	85,177	„	50 to	75	„	5,254,165·9 „
8	53,418	„	75 to	100	„	4,618,268·4 „
9	53,018	„	100 to	150	„	6,419,925 „
10	21,108	„	150 to	200	„	3,621,738·7 „
11	14,112	„	200 to	300	„	3,390,952·9 „

	Number of Proprietors.	Area of each property			Total area of the properties of each class.
12	4,017	from	300 to 400	décar	1,372,807·7 déc.
13	1,593	„	400 to 500	„	708,602·6 „
14	1,591	„	500 to 1,000	„	1,051,188·2 „
15	428	„	1,000 to 2,000	„	577,745·2 „
16	96	„	2,000 to 3,000	„	229,908·5 „
17	56	„	3,000 to 5,000	„	214,812·8 „
18	38	„	5,000 and more	„	401,586·1 „

Altogether 546,084 local proprietors, owning 34,284,669 décares, or 3,428,466·9 hectares.

Without reproducing the statistics regarding the second class, we may state that the characteristic trait of Bulgarian land tenure is the system of small holdings. The land is mostly in the possession of peasants. Another fact deserves attention: the non-existence of large estates in Bulgaria. Indeed, as we have just seen, the 34,284,669 décares of the first class are parcelled out into 7,248,648 holdings, that is about 4 décares to a holding. As to the properties of the second class, their total area of 5,490,908·2 décares is divided into 733,693 holdings, which confirms the general rule.

One consequence of this parcelling out of land in Bulgaria is the growing tendency of the more intelligent peasants to round off their properties. As yet the attention of Bulgarian legislators has not been arrested by this fact, and no special law has been passed dealing with the rounding off of rural properties. Still, it is only just to mention that the law of 1904 on the management of pasture ground contains certain clauses, obviously meant to encourage and facilitate the rounding off of small plots of land. In fact, this law decrees a discount of 40 per cent. in favour of the purchasers of small plots, when they come to an understanding with their neighbours for the rounding off of their respective properties. Both parties are at liberty to make one another all compensations



ATTAR OF ROSES DISTILLERY.



necessary for the rounding off of their properties. This law being of so recent a date, it is as yet impossible to judge of its results.

We have seen that the total area of land under cultivation about 1897 was 3,452,470·65 hectares. There are two chief categories of cultivation : permanent cultivation (vines, roses, orchards, natural meadows, etc.) which covers about 477,084 hectares, and arable land, such as fields, vegetable gardens, fallows, etc., which cover the greater area, about 2,975,386 hectares. In the latter class are the lands devoted to agriculture strictly so called.

Our most usual system of agriculture is that of double sowing, combined with ground tilled but left unsown (fallows). This system is completed by pastures and natural meadows for cattle-breeding. In 1892, of the total area susceptible of cultivation (2,215,312 hectares), 1,272,927 were tilled and sown. At that time, therefore, about 42·50 p.c. of the arable land lay fallow. Five years later, things were very different ; of 2,975,386·21 hectares of arable land 65·11 p.c. (1,968,628·66 hectares) were sown in 1897. Of the same quantity of arable land, 2,039,810·71 hectares (67·60 p.c.) were sown in 1898 and 2,046,796·21 hectares (67·80 p.c.) in 1899. In other words, the proportion of fallow land has been as follows :

1892	42·50 per cent.
1897	33·89 ..
1898	31·44 ..
1899	31·20 ..

In the eastern provinces, such as Varna and certain provinces by the Danube, beside the system above described, there are other combinations in use. According to one of these, the land is sown for several successive years and then left fallow for some time. The statistics which we have just quoted include this class of fallow land which of course, strictly speaking, are not fallows. But be that as it may, the above table shows that during the period of eight years the proportion

of sown land has increased and the fallows diminished, at the rate of 11·30 per cent. ; which is an undeniable proof of progress in Bulgarian agriculture.

The land devoted to agriculture, strictly so called, which as we have seen was in the year 1899 about 2,046,791 hectares, added to that under other cultivation (vineyards, rose-gardens, orchards and meadows), gives a total of 2,520,401 hectares of productive land. The following table shows the uses to which it is put :

Products.	Hectares.	Proportion.
1 Cereals	1,877,615·82	74·49 per cent.
2 Oleaginous plants ..	15,891·39	0·64 ..
3 Vegetables	32,941·79	1·31 ..
4 Other culinary plants ..	31,892·37	1·27 ..
5 Forage	440,859·20	17·49 ..
6 Vines	110,942·87	4·40 ..
7 Roses	5,094·35	0·20 ..
8 Orchards	5,163·21	0·20 ..
Total	2,520,401	hectares.

These figures prove conclusively that three quarters of the productive land is devoted to cereals, and only one quarter to the seven other categories, the most important of which is forage.

The following comparative table shows the progress in cultivation from 1892 to 1899 :

Products.	Hectares cultivated in 1892.	Hectares cultivated in 1899.	Proportionate decrease.
1 Cereals	1,194,847	1,877,615·82	57·14 p.c.
2 Oleaginous plants	9,883	15,891·39	60·79 ..
3 Vegetables	10,333	32,941·79	218·79 ..
4 Other culinary plants	20,012	31,892·37	59·36 ..
5 Forage	343,342	440,859·20	28·40 ..
6 Vines	96,000	110,942·87	15·56 ..
7 Roses	4,352	5,094·35	17·04 ..
8 Orchards	2,158	5,163·21	139·24 ..
Total	1,680,927	2,520,401·00	49·94 ..

The annual yield of cereals is calculated at 30,000,000 hectolitres in the following proportion :

Wheat	12,000,000	hectolitres.
Maize	7,000,000	„
Barley	5,000,000	„
Oats	2,500,000	„
Rye	3,000,000	„
Millet	300,000	„
Spelt	200,000	„
Total	30,000,000	„

As regards the quantity of its cereals, Bulgaria occupies the tenth place after Sweden. As regards wheat and maize, it occupies the eighth, as regards oats and rye, the tenth.

According to their fertility per head of the population, the provinces of the Principality form three groups :

(1) 14 hectolitres per head : Roustchouk, Varna, Bourgas, and Plevén.

(2) 11 hectolitres per head : Stara-Zagora, Tirnova, Shoumen, Vratza.

(3) 8 hectolitres per head : Kustendil, Philippopolis, Sofia, Vidin.

The primitive form of plough is still in use. For some time past, however, modern agricultural implements which greatly facilitate field labour have been introduced. The following table shows the number of agricultural implements in use :

Implements.	In 1897.	In 1908.	Proportional increase or decrease.
1 Ploughs ..	365,877	391,225	+ 6.92 per cent.
2 Iron Ploughs ..	32,399	38,923	+ 20 „
3 Harrows ..	5,353	38,080	+ 730 „
4 Drills	46	89	+ 93 „
5 Reaping Machines	731	1,385	+ 86 „

Implements.	In 1897.	In 1902.	Proportional increase or decrease.
6 Threshing Machines	94	125 +	31 per cent.
7 Bolting Machines	1,484	3,481 +	134 ..
8 Winnowing Machines	14,233	30,117 +	112 ..
9 Mowers	1,748	3,318 +	87 ..
10 Haymakers ..	81	104 +	23 ..
11 Watercarts ..	66	10,782 +	— ..
12 Crushing Machines	80	207 +	158·75 ..

The Ministry of Commerce and Agriculture actively encourages the introduction of perfected machines. Its efforts in this direction are seconded by the Bulgarian Agricultural Bank and by the National Agricultural Society.

The Bulgarian farmer has not as yet quite learned the use of manures. In the province of Sofia sheep's dung is turned to account. In the Stara-Planina district, the Rhodopes, and Sredna-Gora, where the earth is poor, and chiefly vines, roses, and fruit are grown, manure is indispensable for fertilisation. Stable manure is the only kind in use.

The principal industrial plants grown in Bulgaria are tobacco, roses, and beetroot.

Tobacco culture is carried on chiefly in the South and in the provinces of Silistria and Kustendil. The area of the plantations is estimated at 3,000 hectares. The province of Haskovo has the greatest yield, over 800,000 kilograms of tobacco yearly; then follows Philippopolis, with 300,000 kilograms; Kustendil, 270,000 kilograms; Silistria, 210,000 kilograms. According to approximate calculations based on various statistics, we may conclude that three-fourths of the tobacco crop of the Principality is consumed by the inhabitants and only a quarter is exported. In point of view of quality, Bulgarian tobacco may be compared with the Turkish tobacco of Macedonia and Enidj. Leaf tobacco for manufacture is sold at from 80 centimes to 1 franc 50 cen-



ATTAR OF ROSES DISTILLERY, KAZANLIK.



times the kilogram. The Bulgarian Government encourages the culture of tobacco by distributing seed of good quality, free of cost, among the planters, by setting a bounty on the export tariff and by authorising the Bulgarian National Bank to consent to loans on the surety of certificates granted to the planters until they are able to dispose of their crops advantageously.

The rose crop is next in importance after tobacco. The roses are used exclusively for the distilling of the famous Bulgarian attar of roses, which is known and appreciated throughout the world, and received the highest distinctions at the Paris Exhibition of 1900. The rose gardens are limited to 148 parishes of the provinces of Philippopolis and Stara-Zagora, and occupy a total area of 5,094 hectares. The quantity and quality of the attar depend very much on the weather at the time of bloom and gathering. The roses most cultivated in Bulgaria are the red rose (*Rosa damascena*) and the white rose (*Rosa alba*). The best gardens are at Kazanlik, Karlovo, Klissoura, and Stara-Zagora.

The following table shows the amount of attar exported during the five years 1900-1904 :

Year.	Kilograms.				Francs.	
1900	5,346	3,707,943
1901	3,027	2,140,538
1902	3,676	2,609,159
1903	6,210	3,734,950
1904	4,394	2,741,038

The cultivation of beetroot has been introduced quite recently and is confined to the province of Sofia, where it occupies 2,000 hectares. The sugar refinery near Sofia utilises the whole crop.

Hemp and rape are being more and more grown—rape for exportation, and hemp for its fibre, which is used by rope-makers, especially in the large rope-works near Sofia.

Rice is largely grown in the province of Philippopolis and, to a certain extent, at Kotcharinova, in the province of Kustendil. The crop is estimated at two million kilograms yearly.

The yield of haricot beans is about eight million kilograms yearly.

LIVE STOCK

The rearing of live stock constitutes an important branch of the rural economy of the country. However, as we have seen, pastures and fallows tend to diminish, being replaced by more elaborate cultivation. For this reason, while decreasing his pastures, the Bulgarian farmer increases his forage by the cultivation of various crops, the chief of which are vetch and lucern. The total area occupied by lucern, vetch and wild millet was, in 1892, 31,342 hectares, and in 1899 88,455·84 hectares. The quantity of these forage plants grown has, therefore, tripled in seven years. The Ministry of Commerce and Agriculture each year distributes gratis a large quantity of lucern seed, and exempts from all taxes ground sown with lucern.

The following table gives some idea of the live stock of Bulgaria :

Animal.	Number in 1893.	Number in 1900.	Proportional difference More. Less.
1 Horses ..	343,946	494,557	43·78 p. c.
2 Mules ..	8,264	8,887	7·56 "
3 Donkeys ..	81,610	107,098	31·23 "
4 Cattle ..	1,425,781	1,596,267	11·95 "
5 Buffalos ..	342,193	431,487	26·09 "
6 Sheep ..	6,868,291	7,015,385	2·14 "
7 Goats ..	1,263,772	1,405,190	11·19 "
8 Pigs ..	461,635	367,501	— 20·39 p. c.
9 Poultry ..	3,426,637	4,751,751	38·86 "

The improvement of the different animals is brought about by means of selection. Another system that obtains in Bulgaria is crossing native breeds with the best breeds of other countries. To this end, the Government seconds the efforts of permanent commissions in the provinces and of the agricultural co-operative societies. There are in the Principality five large State depots for stallions and a certain number of stations for cattle-breeding, especially near the agricultural colleges of Sadovo (Philippopolis) and Roustchouk. The Government awards prizes to the breeders who specially distinguish themselves, and helps them in the purchase of pedigree beasts for breeding purposes. Dairies, which play so important a part in farm management, and which, though as yet only in their beginning in Bulgaria, will certainly develop enormously, are the object of special attentions on the part of the Government.

On the whole, the State agricultural institutions are rapidly developing, and so are the agricultural enterprises due to private initiative. A special section of the Ministry of Commerce and Agriculture (created in 1894) is concerned with the superintendence of everything relating to agriculture in the Principality. This section is subdivided into other sections, occupied with the respective branches of agriculture, viticulture, fruit-growing, cattle-breeding, and bee-keeping. The whole country is divided into forty-four agricultural districts, under the management of agricultural inspectors. It is the duty of these inspectors to see to the carrying out of the various agricultural laws (village police, phylloxera, silkworms, eggs, etc.), and to promote useful knowledge of farm management by organising lectures, demonstrations, etc.

The State supports two schools of agriculture, one at Sadovo and one at Roustchouk. Model farms adjoin both schools, which were founded in 1883. Their aim is to train agriculturists and agricultural inspectors. Another State school

at Pleven is open to young men who wish to take up fruit-growing and viticulture. Five other elementary schools serve to propagate essential practical knowledge among the rural population. Several others will shortly be opened. In this case, the action of the Government is admirably seconded by private initiative. For the last ten years the National Society of Agriculture has constantly been effecting improvements in our agriculture. It publishes an excellent review, which appears fortnightly, beside a great number of books treating practical subjects in a popular style.

Finally, we may mention that the programme of pedagogical school and seminaries includes a course of agriculture for priests and village schoolmasters.

CHAPTER III

MINES, QUARRIES, AND HOT SPRINGS

THE mines of Bulgaria, which seem to have played an important part in ancient times, were until lately completely abandoned. The researches of the last few years have brought to light old mines, dating from Roman times, and considerable quantities of slag, the remains of former workings. Ancient galleries and pits have been found in the following localities: at Bakarlik and Rossen-Bair, in the vicinity of the villages Dulgerly, Kara-tepe, Ra-cov-dol and Karakeuny, in the department of Bourgas; at Bakardjik, close by the village Eris Mahale, in the district of Sliven; in the western part of the Balkans, near the villages of Sgori-rad and Lutadjik, in the neighbourhood of the village Tchiprovitzi, department of Vratza, and near the village of Zabel, district of Trn. All these places were formerly mining centres, where copper, lead, and zinc ores used to be worked. It appears also that some of these lodes known to the Romans had been worked again by the Saxons in the fourteenth century. The reasons for their abandonment have not been explained, but are probably due, in part at least, to the imperfections of the old systems of working. Some of these old mines, for instance, the concessions "Iconomoff" and "Troude" in the department of Bourgas, and Placalnitza-Medna-Planina, in the department of Vratza, have lately resumed working, and copper veins have been discovered that repay the labour.

Under Turkish dominion the Bulgarian mining industry had almost ceased to exist, except at Samokov, where from time immemorial iron had been obtained in a primitive fashion. The iron was obtained from the magnetite coming from the natural disaggregation of the syenites from the mountain of Vitosha. This mineral was smelted in charcoal furnaces, much after the style of the Catalan furnaces. The industry survived until the Russo-Turkish war, but, during the years following, the opening of new means of communication and the development of foreign mines brought about a rapid fall in the market price of iron. Also the new economic conditions resulting from the independence of Bulgaria caused a decline in the industry which had formerly been the pride of the Turkish empire and now has a merely historical interest.

In 1879 the State started working the Bulgarian mines, by opening the lignite mine at the village of Mochino, twenty-seven kilometres from Sofia. This mine, which yielded good lignite, was worked until 1891. Its total produce (105,000 tons) was consumed exclusively by the town of Sofia and the railway Tsaribrod-Sofia-Belovo.

In 1891 the State began prospecting the basin round the Mochino mine, and opened another at Pernick, seven kilometres from Mochino. Up to that time no prospecting had been undertaken and no mine examined, all that was done consisting merely in a few rough geological estimates, which served as the basis for the researches organised by the State and by private persons in consequence of the passing of the law on mines in 1892. Before this law was passed questions of this kind had been settled in accordance with the Turkish law by which some prospecting was allowed, but had led to no result. After the law of 1892, which reserves privileges to the prospector, permits for prospecting began to be granted. They are given for two years, and some of them

lead to concessions being granted. According to the law of 1892, and its amendments of 1906, concessions last in perpetuity. From 1892 to the end of 1904, 1,138 permits for prospecting were granted. During the same time the Government granted twenty-five concessions, namely :

FOR COAL

"Kalpazan," in the parish of Nova Mahala, district of Gabrovo.

"Prince Boris," in the parish of Neikovo, district of Drenovo.

"Badaschte," in the parish of Stoevtzi, district of Drenovo.

"Lev," in the parish of Mrazetzi, district of Nova-Zagora.

"Princess Nadejda," in the parish of Hainito, district of Nova-Zagora.

"Boteff," in the parish of Kadevtzi, district of Gabrovo.

"Trojalo," in the parishes of Slivnitza and Aldomirovtzi, district of Sofia.

"Nadejda," in the parish of Dramtcha, district of Sofia.

"Kroum," in the parish of Rebrovo, district of Sofia.

"Boris," in the parishes of Tseretzel and Balcha, district of Sofia.

"Youjno-Bulgarska-Tsentralna Mina" and "Tsentralna Mina v'Youjna-Bulgaria," which together form a single concession, are one kilometre from the station on the railway from Sofia to Constantinople.

"Vulcan," in the parish of Marinovo, district of Stara-Zagora, near the railway from Sofia to Constantinople.

"Hadji-Dimitre," in the parish of Tcham-Déré, district of Sliven.

"Ouspeh," in the parish of Lom-Palanca, on the Danube.

FOR COPPER

"Placalnitza-Medna-Planina," in the village of Zgorigrad, province of Vratza.

"Schtastié," in the village of Belogradchik, in the same province.

"Iconomoff," in the parish of Bourgas.

"Troude," in the parish of Bourgas.

The last two concessions are one kilometre from the Black Sea.

FOR MANGANESE

"Bela," in the parish of Arnaoutlaré, province of Varna, near the Black Sea.

"Dobra-Nadejda," near the railway from Yamboli to Bourgas, district of Yamboli.

OTHER MINERALS

A concession for iron, "Spassenié," in the parish of Breznik, district of Trn.

A concession for lead, "Todor," in the parish of Milkovtzi, province of Trn.

A concession for lead, copper, and zinc, "Blagodar," in the parish of Dolna-Lubata, department of Kustendil.

A concession for bituminous schist, "Toundja," in the parish of Kazanlik, department of Stara-Zagora.

On most of the above concessions serious prospecting has been done and preparations made for the working of the lodes.

The Government proposes to grant shortly to private individuals the following new concessions :

Three concessions for coal in the department of Bourgas ;

A concession for coal in the department of Stara-Zagora ;

A concession for zinc in the department of Vratza.

A concession for iron in the department of Bourgas.

Beside these concessions granted to private individuals the mining law of 1892 reserves to the State two large lignite-

bearing basins—Pernik-Mochino-Vladaja and Bobov-dol. The former is the more important ; in it the State has opened the mine of Pernik, 28 kilometres to the south-east of Sofia. The pit mouth, close to the village of Pernik, is on the edge of the lignite-bearing basin. The lignite gives about 4,528 thermal units. The yield of the mine in 1906 was 161,000 tons. About 70,000 tons of it is used by the Bulgarian railways, the rest by factories and for general heating purposes.

The total yield of the mine from the date of its opening (1902) to the end of 1906 amounts to 1,465,648 tons.

The mine is connected with the Bulgarian State Railways by a branch line 1 kilometre 800 metres in length, forming a junction with them at Pernik station, on the Sofia-Radomir railway.

The basin of Bobov-dol is as rich in lignite as that of Pernik. The State opened the mine there in 1891, but owing to the lack of means of communication the mine only yields coal for local consumption—about 4,000 tons.

The mine will be soon connected with the Bulgarian State railways by a branch line 30 kilometres long, and it is expected that on the termination of this line the regular working of the mine will be undertaken in earnest.

Besides these two large basins, the State has reserved another in the central Balkans, the "Belnovrh" coal-mine. The mining law of 1891 further secured to the State a vein of lead in the Rhodope Mountains near the village of Lacavitza. This vein, for which very little prospecting has been done, is at present of no great consequence owing to its distance from the railways and the lack of all means of communication.

QUARRIES

The mountainous districts of the country contain a great number of quarries, which, although they are worked on a

large scale, have not as yet been sufficiently studied as regards their classification and importance. They abound in great variety of granite, marble, lithographic and mill-stones, fuller's earth, fire-clay, all kinds of ochre, etc.

The following are the principal quarries :

For *Argillaceous Clay*.—Near Loucovit, and at Panéga (district of Lovetch), where there are two lime-kilns.

Potter's Clay.—Near Tchoukorovo and Bistritza (province of Sofia) and at Torlak (district of Roustchouk). The "Isida Factory" at Novo Selo, near Sofia, uses Tchoukorovo clay for its pottery producer. The Torlak clay is partly exported to Roumania, partly used for pottery purposes at the "Troude Factory" at Roustchouk. Considerable quantities of clay are exported to Roumania from the village of Onanetz.

The *Lithographic Stone* of Négochevo (25 kilometres from Sofia and 14 from the Sofia-Constantinople railway) has a good appearance and excellent quality, but for want of capital the quarry has for the present stopped work.

Marble.—The most important quarries are at Bouzloudja (district of Kazanlik), Berkovitza (province of Vratza), of Belovo, on the railway from Sofia to Constantinople, and in the neighbourhood of Kavakli.

Soft limestone is found in the villages of Pirgos and Krassène (district of Roustchouk) and at Varbechitza (district of Vratza). Most of the materials extracted at Pirgos and Krassène are exported to Roumania ; the principal buildings of Bucharest are made of this stone.

The *silver sand* obtained at the station of Guébedgé, near Varna, is suitable to the manufacture of glass. For ornamental purposes, the beautiful serpentines of the neighbourhood of Philippopolis, the andesite of Eni-Keui (district of Bourgas) the syenites of Vitusha and of the neighbourhood of Philippopolis, and the granites of Doubnitza and Kustendil are in use.

HOT SPRINGS AND MINERAL WATERS

Bulgaria possesses a great number of hot and mineral springs. Some of these are worked by the State; others, according to the present law, are granted temporarily or permanently to different parishes. There are others of which as yet no use is made.

Some of the most important springs have been enclosed in a primitive fashion since the Roman times, or under the Turkish rule. Quite recently, the mining section of the Ministry of Commerce and Agriculture has succeeded in capturing the mineral springs at Sliven, Banki, Varshetz, and Meritchléri. The Bulgarian Government has voted a credit of 2,000,000 francs for the construction of modern health resorts at Banki, Varshetz, Hissar, and Meritchléri. The buildings are expected to be ready for opening in two years' time.

There are, all in all, more than 200 hot and mineral springs in Bulgaria, distributed between some eighty different places.

In the department of Sofia there are twenty-three, the hottest of which is Dolnia Bania (61° C.). The town of Sofia itself possesses very good hot springs, slightly mineral, of a temperature of 47° C. The municipality of Sofia has begun this year the building of public baths which will cost 1,500,000 francs.

We may further mention the baths of Kniajevo, Gornia, Bania, Banki, and Panitcherévo, all in the neighbourhood of Sofia.

The hot springs of Varshetz (province of Vratza) are celebrated throughout the country.

The province of Plovdiv (Philippopolis) has over forty springs, the most important being those at Hissar, which are well known throughout the East, and the wonderful pool of Tchepino, in the heart of the Rhodope Mountains.

TABLE SHOWING THE ANALYSIS OF THE
COMPARED WITH THAT OF CARLSBAD,

TO 100 PARTS OF WATER BY WEIGHT.	MERITCHLÉRI.	CARLSBAD.	
		Sprudel.	Mühlbrunnen.
Analyst.	E. Hintz.	E. Ludwig and I. Mauthner.	
Date of Analysis.	1899.	1897.	
Sulphate of Soda	2·252725	2·4053	2·3911
Bicarbonate of Soda	2·235823	1·8364	1·8095
Chloride of Soda	1·125683	1·0418	1·0288
Bicarbonate of Lithium	0·005639	0·0196	0·0188
Bicarbonate of Ammonia	—	—	—
Bicarbonate of Calcium	0·180114	0·4628	0·4703
Bicarbonate of Strontium	0·009996	0·0005	0·0005
Bicarbonate of Baryum	—	—	—
Bicarbonate of Magnesium	0·051945	0·2537	0·2458
Oxide of Iron	0·002523	0·0041	0·0039
Oxide of Manganese	0·000112	0·0003	—
Sulphate of Potash	0·063953	0·1862	0·1888
Bromide of Soda	0·002173	—	—
Iodide of Soda	0·000074	—	—
Fluoride of Soda	—	0·0051	0·0046
Phosphate of Soda	0·000092	—	—
Calcium Phosphate	—	0·0007	0·0009
Phosphate of Aluminium	—	0·0004	0·0005
Arsenate of Soda	0·000062	—	—
Nitrate of Soda	0·004958	—	—
Nitrate of Ammonia	—	—	—
Borate of Soda	0·007253	0·0040	0·0029
Organic Matter	—	—	—
SiO ²	0·100349	0·0715	0·0735
Free Carbonic Acid	5·978035 0·257833	6·2924 0·1798	6·2399 0·5169
TOTAL ..	6·235868	6·4722	6·7568

NATURAL MINERAL WATER OF MERITICHLÉRI
BERTRICH, MARIENBAD AND FRANZENSBAD

BERTRICH. Bergquelle.	MARIENBAD.		FRANZENSBAD.		
	Ferdinands- Brunnen.	Kedtenbacher.	Franzens- quelle.	Salzquelle.	Wiesenquelle.
R. Fresenius E. Hintz.	Gintl.	Redtenbacher.	Berzelius.		Zembeh.
1890.	1879.	1892.	—		—
0'886009	4'73092	4'3234	3'1901	2'8020	3'3398
0'728315	1'91968	1'7232	0'9544	0'9581	1'6540
0'217757	1'80746	1'6588	1'2018	1'1406	1'2135
0'001843	0'03041	0'0159	0'0062	0'0041	0'0041
0'000720	0'00744	—	—	—	—
0'167511	0'70735	0'8408	0'3375	0'2643	0'2569
0'002773	—	0'0010	—	—	—
—	—	0'0004	—	—	—
0'152230	0'70653	0'4012	0'1329	0'1567	0'1210
0'002564	0'07374	0'0186	0'0413	0'0125	0'0233
0'000232	0'01836	0'0048	0'0072	0'0018	0'0036
0'031828	0'04926	0'7087	—	—	—
0'000599	—	—	—	—	—
0'000009	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
0'000130	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	0'0026	0'0026	0'0026
—	0'00633	0'0040	—	—	—
0'000213	—	—	—	—	—
0'003489	0'01236	—	—	—	—
—	—	0'0039	—	—	—
0'001448	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	0'0052
—	0'10052	—	—	—	—
0'049100	0'07765	0'0434	0'0612	0'0638	0'0612
2'246770	10'24801	9'7481	5'9352	5'4065	6'6852
0'075912	3'17930	1'0925	2'7854	1'5854	2'2869
2'322682	13'42731	10'8406	8'7206	6'9919	8'9721

At Kustendil there are excellent hot springs, and in the department of that name, at the village of Bania, near Doubnitza, is the hottest spring in the country, its temperature being 83° C.

In the department of Bourgas the best known springs are at the village of Lidji, near Bourgas, and at Sliven, where the installations are thoroughly up to date.

The department of Stara-Zagora has also an abundance of springs. The most important is that of Meritchléri. By the analysis on pp. 160-161, it can be seen that the natural mineral water of Meritchléri equals the celebrated Carlsbad water in quality.

CHAPTER IV

INDUSTRIES AND TRADES

I. SKETCH OF THE ECONOMIC CONDITION OF THE PRINCIPALITY

BULGARIA is an agricultural country. The prosperity of the inhabitants depends almost entirely on the harvests, which in consequence serve as a criterion for judging the economic state of the country. The consequences of a good or bad harvest are felt not only in agricultural circles but in commerce, trades, and industries, and this to such an extent that to judge whether the harvest of any year was good or bad one has only to look at the statistics of trade with other countries. The extent of foreign trade is in direct proportion with the crops : a good harvest is followed by a great increase of trade with foreign countries, which a bad harvest almost immediately paralyses.

It is easy to see the truth of this statement from the following table, where the figures for grain export are compared with the figures for the general foreign trade (both import and export) for a period of ten years.

Year.	Imports. Francs.	Exports. Francs.	Total. Francs.	Export of cereals. Francs.
1894 ..	99,229,193	72,850,675	172,079,868	55,871,305
1895 ..	69,020,295	77,685,546	146,705,841	60,473,405
1896 ..	76,530,278	108,739,977	185,270,255	94,089,072
1897 ..	83,994,236	59,790,511	143,784,747	46,418,601
1898 ..	72,730,250	66,537,007	139,267,257	48,491,343

Year.	Imports. Francs.	Exports. Francs.	Total. Francs.	Export of cereals. Francs.
1899 ..	60,178,079	53,467,099	113,645,178	32,801,247
1900 ..	46,342,100	53,982,629	100,324,729	27,128,280
1901 ..	70,044,073	82,769,759	152,813,832	51,717,228
1902 ..	71,246,492	103,684,530	174,931,022	63,699,691
1903 ..	81,802,281	108,073,639	189,876,220	74,215,802

On the other hand the importance of our foreign trade may be estimated by the operations of the Bulgarian National Bank, which is chiefly occupied with exchange and current accounts operations. It has been established during the last ten years that the exchange operations and the amount of current accounts which correspond to years with good harvests differ considerably from those of years with poor crops. This may be seen from the following table :

Year.	Exchange operations in francs.	Difference as compared with the previous year.	Year.	Exchange operations in francs.	Difference as compared with the previous year.
1894	22,244,964	—	1899	26,616,404	- 19,572,078
1895	24,828,714	+ 2,583,749	1900	18,099,215	- 8,517,188
1896	38,982,145	+ 16,153,430	1901	33,387,225	+ 15,288,309
1897	46,554,373	+ 7,572,228	1902	39,592,176	+ 6,204,651
1898	46,188,473	- 365,890	1903	42,969,355	+ 3,377,179

Whatever may be the importance of the agricultural exports—and the progress made in the development of this branch gives confident hope for the future—Bulgaria cannot be called a rich country. As in all agricultural countries, our sole source of national wealth is the land. Industries are only beginning ; agriculture itself is carried on by the expansive system, whereas it is the intensive system which is generally a characteristic of rich agricultural countries and advanced cultivation.

It is difficult to attempt a calculation of the national

wealth ; however, if we may be allowed to quote the interesting statistics published by Mulhall * in 1888, the following comparative table will give us a fair idea of the economic situation :

Country.	National wealth in milliards of francs.	Francs per head of population.	Country.	National wealth in milliards of francs.	Francs per head of population.
England ..	235	6,175	Norway ..	6	3,050
Denmark ..	10	5,750	Italy ..	74	2,500
France ..	215	5,600	Austria ..	96	2,475
Holland ..	24	5,400	Portugal ..	10	2,175
Belgium ..	25	4,175	Russia ..	127	1,375
Switzerland	12	4,125	Roumania ..	15	2,750
Spain ..	63	3,700	Servia ..	5	2,700
Germany ..	161	3,500	Greece ..	7	4,050
Sweden ..	16	3,125	Bulgaria ..	5	1,750

If it be true that the constant increase of exports and decrease of imports are a proof of growth of wealth, Bulgaria may be said to have made considerable progress of late years. The following table shows us the statistics of the trade in the Principality from its foundation until 1903 :

Year.	Imports. Francs.	Exports. Francs.	Total. Francs.	Exportation as compared with importation. Francs.
1879	32,137,800	20,092,854	52,230,654	— 12,044,946
1880	48,223,637	33,118,200	81,341,837	— 15,105,437
1881	58,467,100	31,819,900	90,287,000	— 26,647,200
1882	41,564,966	34,252,421	75,817,387	— 7,312,545
1883	48,929,575	46,126,405	95,055,980	— 2,803,170
1884	51,194,324	35,291,160	86,491,484	— 15,897,164
1885	44,040,214	44,874,751	88,914,965	+ 834,537
1886	64,285,309	50,404,314	114,689,623	— 13,880,995
1887	64,742,481	45,747,247	110,489,728	— 18,995,234

* " The Dictionary of Statistics."

Year.	Imports. Franca.	Exports. Franca.	Total. Franca.	Exportation as compared with importation. Franca.
1888	66,362,431	64,198,634	130,561,065	— 2,163,797
1889	72,869,245	80,581,076	153,450,321	+ 7,711,831
1890	84,530,497	71,051,123	155,581,620	— 13,479,374
1891	81,348,150	71,065,085	152,413,235	— 10,283,065
1892	77,303,007	74,640,354	151,943,361	— 2,662,653
1893	90,867,900	91,463,653	182,331,553	+ 595,753
1894	99,229,193	72,850,675	172,079,868	— 26,378,518
1895	69,020,295	77,685,546	146,705,841	+ 8,665,251
1896	76,530,278	108,739,977	185,270,255	+ 32,209,699
1897	83,994,236	59,790,511	143,784,747	— 24,203,725
1898	72,730,250	66,537,007	139,267,257	— 6,193,243
1899	60,178,079	53,467,099	113,645,178	— 6,719,980
1900	46,342,100	53,982,629	100,324,729	+ 7,640,529
1901	70,044,073	82,769,759	152,813,832	+ 12,725,686
1902	71,246,492	103,684,530	174,931,022	+ 32,438,038
1903	81,802,581	108,073,639	189,876,220	+ 26,271,058

In order to attain to European standards of civilisation as soon as possible, Bulgaria has been obliged to have recourse to loans. These loans have always been devoted to productive undertakings, such as railways, bridges and roads, harbours, quays, etc. Last year the seaport of Bourgas was opened for trade, and this year the port of Varna. The creation of these two ports is of the utmost importance to the economic growth of the Principality. In future Bulgarian oversea trade will be able to develop unhindered and take a greater scope.

Bulgaria possesses 1,440 kilometres of railway, or about 1·7 kilometres of railway to 100 square kilometres of area and 4·7 kilometres of railway per 10,000 inhabitants. If we take into account the new lines in course of construction and others now planned, we may estimate 2,000 kilometres of railway line for the near future. Bulgaria has already sur-

passed Servia, Greece, and Turkey in this respect, if the area of these countries is taken into consideration. The railways are State property and under State management.

The new line joining the Varna-Sofia branch with the Turkish railways at Salonica will doubtless be one of the most important lines, both economically and from a strategic point of view. Bulgarian economists have long been convinced that in the future the Turkish market will be the best outlet for Bulgarian products.

The extension of the railways has reacted considerably on trade. Several places which before were backward in civilisation and possessed no industries have begun to make progress since the railways diminished distances and facilitated communication. The general well-being of the country and the State budget itself owe much to the railways. The budget of State expenses for the past six years is as follows :

1900	83,827,863 francs.
1901	96,826,900 „
1902	98,898,337 „
1903	98,017,900 „
1904	106,163,400 „
1905	111,920,000 „
1906	117,953,000 „
1907	121,983,000 „

Bulgaria is a young country, but it cannot be denied that she has the talent of assimilating whatever is good and useful in other nations. This is indeed one of her characteristics.

The necessity of encouraging nascent commercial and industrial undertakings obliged the State from the first to establish several banking institutions. First among these are the National Bank of Bulgaria and the Agricultural Bank. We shall consider this subject later ; at present we will only

remark that both institutions are in full prosperity and that their capitals increase daily. The turnover of the National Bank of Bulgaria for 1903 was 1,676,891,146.45 frs. and for 1904 1,928,371,548.22. The two following tables show that the capitals of these banks are chiefly used by merchants and manufacturers :

Securities held by the Bulgarian National Bank on December 31st, 1907 :

	Frs.	Merchants.	Frs.	Manufacturers.
Sofia	1,977	3,125,267.43	590	1,587,292.—
Roustchouk ..	2,041	792,181.67	102	89,973.45
Varna	466	371,104.97	116	86,750.52
Plovdiv	2,403	1,180,497.31	247	182,989.18
Tirnova	36	27,875.—	460	197,696.19
Bourgas	248	1,049,564.13	21	129,073.77
Total	7,171	6,546,490.51	1,536	2,273,775.11

	Frs.	Workmen.
Sofia	421	196,287.—
Roustchouk ..	66	18,185.—
Varna	12	7,432.—
Plovdiv	79	28,535.—
Tirnova	—	—
Bourgas	40	14,444.20
Total	618	264,883.20

Securities deposited with the bank during the year 1904 :

	Frs.	Merchants.	Frs.	Manufacturers.
Sofia	8,444	12,690,249.—	3,179	6,749,398.—
Roustchouk	14,940	5,094,957.19	1,751	1,249,901.05
Varna	3,463	2,320,348.14	1,009	712,031.50
Plovdiv	10,622	5,080,324.93	1,171	935,222.35
Tirnova	402	379,072.03	1,908	828,967.12
Bourgas	1,666	3,134,012.96	314	720,682.87
Total	39,537	28,698,964.25	9,332	11,196,202.89

	Frs.	Workmen.
Sofia	1,687	708,524'—
Roustchouk ..	405	156,417'90
Varna	41	27,030'—
Plovdiv	356	159,350'10
Tirnova	1	150'—
Bourgas	226	53,358'—
Total	2,716	1,104,830'—

The Agricultural Bank is exceedingly useful in encouraging agriculture. In a very short space of time it has so extended the number of its operations and the amount of its capital as to have gained a high rank among institutions of the kind.

Year.	Operations in francs.	Difference.
1899	493,759,187'21 —	21,989,642'02
1900	507,307,502'60 +	13,548,315'39
1901	535,575,182'03 +	28,267,679'43
1902	827,690,477'23 +	292,115,295'20
1903	972,538,557'22 +	144,848,079'99

Although the object of the Agricultural Bank is to assist the agricultural classes, it deals with merchants and manufacturers, as can be seen from the following table showing the securities held by the bank distributed between agriculturists and non-agriculturists :

Year.	Frs.	Agriculturists.	Frs.	Non-agriculturists.
1899	249,377	54,823,955'70	12,410	5,943,596'60
1900	282,161	56,628,822'80	13,470	6,140,519'10
1901	295,320	57,321,668'61	14,905	6,385,343'05
1902	296,966	54,408,969'26	15,837	6,335,605'52
1903	274,601	50,403,786'13	15,172	6,273,861'45

2. HANDICRAFTS

Up to the time of our national emancipation, agriculture and small handicrafts had always been the sole resource of the Bulgarian people. With widespread poverty, few practicable roads, and an apathetic Government, until the time of which we speak, all the circumstances combined to condemn such few attempts at industrial enterprise as were made to failure.

Let us first explain what we mean by the word "handicraft." In Bulgaria any permanent occupation is called "handicraft." An "artisan" is a man who devotes his time to one of these handicrafts, either by himself or in company with his workmen and apprentices. In order to become a master, one must have been both apprentice and workman, and have brought one's craftsmanship to a certain degree of perfection, attested by a regular certificate. Every craft is represented by a guild which formulates all the rules concerning the exercise of its business. For the last twenty-five years the handicrafts have been declining, and at present it is only in a few out-of-the-way places that they preserve their original character. The reason for this is that, directly after our political emancipation, the influence of West European capitalistic production made itself felt. On the one hand, the large estates in the country were being divided in consequence of the disappearance of large patriarchal families, and the population of the towns was rapidly increasing. On the other, in conformity with the spirit of the constitution, Bulgaria was declared open for trading purposes. Foreign products also came in, and social life was completely changed, in part by the new political *régime* and the new administrative organisation. In fact, requirements increased to such an extent that the population chiefly occupied in small handicrafts or with agriculture could no longer cope with the fresh expenses of the State, the less so as these weighed heavily

on farmers and artisans. For this reason, many of the latter shut up shop and departed to seek their living elsewhere.

According to information furnished by the Chamber of Commerce of Sofia, in 1876, that is to say, two years before the emancipation, there were in that town about sixty soap-boilers. In 1896, although the population had quadrupled, only four or five remained. At Stara-Zagora, before the war, there were 2,500 weaving-sheds for coarse cloths; to-day there are only thirty. At Pirdop, the house industry of spinning, which is the speciality of the town, was carried on in 700 houses before the war; now it is only to be found in twenty or thirty. And so on, with the other trades which have come in contact with the new methods of production; in none has the number of independent artisans increased.

This decline of handicrafts, of course, reduced one class of work-people to poverty. The State was obliged to consider the case of the artisan, and this was the beginning of the legislation for workmen, of which we shall speak further on. The Government seems to have mistaken the causes of the decline of handicrafts, and to have attributed it to decentralisation. It would be nearer the truth to regard it as an economic necessity, brought about by social conditions. For this reason the hopes of the Government were but partially realised. These legislative measures reassured public opinion for a little while, but they never brought about a real improvement for the handicrafts. About the same time, all the efforts of the Government to conclude with Austro-Hungary, one of her most formidable rivals, a commercial treaty protecting native industry proved unavailing, and the ingress of foreign articles could not be checked.

After all, one may ask if it is possible, in a country so undeveloped as Bulgaria, to maintain and develop small manufactures or handicrafts, and that by means of artificial restrictions imposed by the State. The answer to this question

is yes or no, according to the rate at which the productive forces of the nation develop as compared with its new needs. But, at least, we can affirm that small handicrafts will continue to exist in a new shape, and will form the antipodes of the nascent manufactures. It is, therefore, too early as yet to speak of the disappearance of handicrafts ; and we may see the proof of this in older countries, where capitalist manufacture has been in existence more than fifty years, and yet does not injure the handicrafts, which change in character but do not disappear.

Doubtless, the economic development of Bulgaria will operate on all existing forms of production. Certain professions will entirely disappear, others will attain a certain degree of perfection, and yet others will be merged in manufacture on a larger scale. But this change will not take place so quickly as certain sections of public opinion in Bulgaria expect, and to affirm the contrary would be to ignore the most elementary principles of political economy.

3. MANUFACTURES

It is a question of great importance for the future of Bulgaria to know whether she will remain an agricultural country or turn to industrial occupations. For the last seven or eight years this question has been under consideration, and Bulgarian economists have not yet been able to solve it. Many of them are of opinion that Bulgaria does not possess the qualities requisite for the development of national industries, and will always remain an agricultural country. But even they must recognise that the invincible force of universal progress will oblige Bulgaria to develop her industries as she modernises her methods of farming, just as other countries, among them France, Germany, and Italy, have done.

The oldest Bulgarian manufacture is weaving, which from

ancient times has been widely spread in the country as a house industry. The wool of the district was worked up into cloths, carpets, braids, serges, etc., which were in request throughout the Ottoman Empire. The most important weaving centres are Pirdop, Panaguiourichté, Karlovo, Sopot, Koprivchitza, Klissoura, Kalofer, Gabrovo, Trevna, Sliven, Kotel and Samokov. Under Turkish rule, these towns supplied cloth to the Imperial army. Bulgarian cloths were held in the greatest esteem, and there was a constant demand for them in Greece, in Asia Minor, at Pirof and Nisch, in Bosnia and Herzegovina, etc.

Owing to this success, in 1880 some private individuals decided to start modern workshops. The example was given by the towns of Gabrovo and Sliven, where there are now large factories, organised on the most modern principles. There are as many as twenty-six factories in other towns, among them, at Samokov and Kazanlik. Bulgaria, therefore, holds the first place for weaving in the Balkan peninsula. The following table gives interesting statistics regarding the Bulgarian weaving industry.

Town.	Number of factories.	Number of spindles.	Hydraulic horse-power.	Horse-power of steam.	Power-loom s.	Hand-loom s.
Gabrovo	.. 7	6,400	385	370	92	—
Sliven	.. 14	8,016	200	240	85	121
Samokov	.. 2	1,020	65	16	15	—
Karlovo	.. 1	1,244	40	80	12	—
Kazanlik	.. 1	850	—	100	8	—
Kotel	.. 1	300	10	—	—	6
Total	.. 26	17,830	700	806	212	127

The total value of the weaving sheds and factories is about 5,500,000 francs. The capital is exclusively Bulgarian, the result of years of industry and thrift. Had foreign capital

been invested in the industry, it might have had a far greater development. We hope that capitalists will interest themselves in our textiles, the more so as the new protectionist tariff guarantees the future of the national industries.

Three thousand workpeople, men, women, and children, are employed. The country owns about 7,000,000 sheep, which yield 120,000 kilograms of wool yearly. For the last ten years this has not sufficed for the manufacture, which has been obliged to supplement the supply from foreign markets. The importation of wool increases every year, as may be seen from the following table :

Year.	Natural Wool.		Washed Wool.		Carded Wool.	
	Kilograms.	Frs.	Kilograms.	Frs.	Kilograms.	Frs.
1904	468,676	561,295	8,881	23,042	1,322	2,540
1903	299,082	359,082	11,613	39,414	4,088	17,869
1902	311,128	369,578	21,626	62,164	20,994	54,491
1901	237,447	279,832	92,376	258,421	2,056	7,193
1900	52,337	55,134	22,362	79,510	22	79
1899	37,042	42,607	15,139	43,616	105	425
1898	54,621	52,112	79,455	225,379	14	45
1897	138,875	155,029	17,174	52,574	7,154	21,640
1896	107,861	123,641	11,728	37,219	40	335
1895	313,216	351,428	37,633	110,835	9	45
1894	540,063	605,317	38,615	60,636	5,164	17,643
1893	328,162	295,804	9,216	9,297	1,128	2,599
1890	313,395	311,127	no separate account taken		18	135

Most of the natural wool imported comes from Roumania, the washed wool from Austria, Germany, France and Belgium.

As a matter of course, the export of Bulgarian cloths grows considerably each year, as is shown by the following statistics :

Year.	Coarse cloths.		Serges.	
	Kilogr.	Frs.	Kilogr.	Frs.
1904	51,319	121,843	264,870	1,130,528
1903	57,015	133,999	329,510	1,631,860
1902	81,475	161,266	397,661	1,601,639
1901	62,149	173,324	391,705	1,577,497
1900	57,793	143,309	335,778	1,376,896
1899	70,733	172,815	277,716	1,187,425
1898	75,825	200,503	297,126	1,330,127
1897	62,165	209,498	260,047	1,049,816
1896	59,126	180,925	210,213	800,009
1895	86,875	307,892	244,531	982,746
1894	104,770	408,903	267,070	1,126,454
1893	127,230	514,235	223,754	971,051

Year.	Cloth and dyed stuffs.		Kilogr.	Braids.	Frs.
	Kilogr.	Frs.			
1904	7,270	47,811	126,532		615,038
1903	6,925	48,506	147,583		701,023
1902	13,243	78,671	188,568		923,268
1901	13,111	77,163	179,602		830,810
1900	8,744	50,644	148,885		680,358
1899	8,248	48,490	165,866		757,854
1898	12,361	67,415	191,867		847,244
1897	9,531	55,435	137,573		646,548
1896	6,967	40,804	135,250		635,402
1895	7,910	52,504	165,791		773,290
1894	5,795	32,363	186,799		884,823
1893	8,108	49,807	184,141		868,982

The following tables show the amount exported to different countries in the years 1903, 1901, 1897, and 1894.

I. EXPORT OF COARSE CLOTHS

		1903.		1901.	
	Kilogr.	Frs.	Kilogr.	Frs.	
Austria ..	11,354	29,360	5,603	15,704	
Roumania ..	2,111	4,780	5,167	25,794	
Servia ..	18,515	43,035	19,649	49,207	
Turkey ..	25,035	56,824	31,730	82,619	
		1897.		1894.	
Austria ..	6,977	24,135	6,820	25,488	
Roumania ..	8,880	25,182	4,849	14,124	
Servia ..	17,161	56,618	16,584	65,894	
Turkey ..	29,147	103,563	69,450	283,949	

2. EXPORT OF SERGES

		1903.		1901.	
Austria ..	—	—	698	2,100	
Roumania ..	1,200	2,130	1,390	4,478	
Servia ..	7,898	26,670	4,941	19,053	
Turkey ..	320,412	1,603,060	380,618	1,532,322	
		1897.		1894.	
Austria ..	—	—	87	436	
Roumania ..	839	3,497	9,659	27,583	
Servia ..	1,646	7,234	2,075	9,360	
Turkey ..	233,162	906,896	227,200	998,122	

3. EXPORT OF CLOTHS AND DYED STUFFS

		1903.		1901.	
Austria ..	—	—	10	60	
Roumania ..	90	1,134	43	374	
Servia ..	6,636	45,565	92,774	75,478	
Turkey ..	23	357	225	870	
		1897.		1894.	
Austria ..	—	—	—	—	
Roumania ..	—	—	1,084	2,911	
Servia ..	9,458	59,220	4,674	29,024	
Turkey ..	73	1,215	18	312	

It will be seen that our principal markets are Turkey, Roumania, Servia, and Austria. The latter competes with us, with no great success, in the manufacture of machine-made carpets, imitating our hand-loom tapestries, which are mostly sent to Turkey.

But the bulk of the produce is sold in the country, the exports amounting to two or three million francs per annum, while the sales at home are about eight million.

The inhabitants who used to wear coarse cloths, woven at home, are taking to buying ready-made clothes. This is another cause of the decline of house industries. In point of view of quality, the ceaseless efforts of the manufacturers to improve their wares have met with every success; Bulgarian cloths and stuffs are in no way inferior to the foreign article. The import, therefore, was likely to decrease, and it has done so, as may be seen from the following statistics :

Imports.	1891-94 Frs.	1895-98 Frs.	1899-1902. Frs.
Coarse cloths	27,228	130,617	45,100
Serges	14,404	47,094	100,822
Undyed stuffs and cloths ..	22,754	13,459	4,372
Dyed	1,404,098	1,538,212	1,204,565
Shawls	254,578	224,254	144,034

The limited scope of this work does not allow us to treat in full the other industries which have been started in the country, thanks to the constant efforts of the Government, and which are all prospering. We can best give some idea of them by means of statistics of the factories of the Principality. The factories in question are those which employ no less than twenty hands, and whose capitals are over 25,000 francs.

A census of the industrial establishments in Bulgaria was taken for the first time at the end of 1906 (December 31st). Before we examine the results of this census, it will be of

interest to see what the state of these industries was before that date. This we can gather from the following table :

Industries.	Factories opened before 1897.			Factories opened between 1897 and 1900.		
	No.	Capital in thousands of francs.	Number of workmen employed.	No.	Capital in thousands of francs.	Number of workmen employed.
1. Leather ..	3	215	150	4	775	127
2. Woollens ..	25	4,609	1,716	1	110	40
3. Alcohol ..	6	1,055	67	3	830	71
4. Beer ..	12	2,081	288	4	355	60
5. Soap ..	4	200	75	1	45	15
6. Pottery ..	4	996	210	5	1,760	460
7. Ironmongery	3	220	70	1	40	4
8. Shot ..	—	—	—	1	22	27
9. Furniture ..	2	140	30	2	300	75
10. Carpets ..	2	120	386	—	—	—
11. Cigarette paper	1	60	45	—	—	—
12. Silk ..	1	100	160	—	—	—
13. Cotton ..	—	—	—	1	1,200	450
14. Stockings, etc.	1	15	25	—	—	—
15. Dying ..	1	10	32	1	10	30
16. Spirits ..	6	325	51	—	—	—
17. Sugar ..	—	—	—	1	3,000	300
18. Matches ..	—	—	—	1	300	—
19. Chemicals ..	—	—	—	1	50	12
20. Cardboard ..	—	—	—	1	30	7
Total ..	71	10,176	3,002	28	8,271	1,678

According to the calculations of the Ministry of Commerce and Agriculture, the total number of factories and workshops founded in Bulgaria, from the date of our emancipation to 1901, comes to about 440, with a total capital of 50,000,000 francs.

As to the *present state* of Bulgarian industry, we have not at hand exact statistics of the number of workpeople and the capital employed. But, taking into account that the minimum capital of each factory or workshop under consideration is

25,000 francs, and the minimum number of hands employed 20, it will be seen that our industries are of considerable importance. Some of these factories employ as many as two or three hundred hands. Beside this, we have not taken account of the small enterprises, whose number is legion. In the department of the Chamber of Commerce of Sofia alone, there are over 500 workshops, 108 of which are carpenters' shops.

On December 31st, 1907, there were 166 industrial establishments, distributed as follows :

- 3 Mining.
- 8 Metallurgical.
- 6 Ceramics.
- 15 Chemicals.
- 57 Food stuffs and breweries.
- 51 Textiles.
- 8 Furnitures.
- 13 Leather.
- 1 Paper Mill.
- 4 Various other industries.

The capital invested in these industries is shown in the following table :

Industry.	Number of factories.	Capital invested, francs.	Per cent.	Average per factory.
Food stuffs and				
brewing 56	14,375,543'51	46'98	256,706'13
Textiles 45	6,603,526'41	21'58	146,745'03
Ceramics 6	1,926,690'87	6'30	321,149'61
Chemicals 13	1,338,962'25	4'38	102,997'10
Mining 3	774,077'52	2'53	258,025'87
Leather 12	685,180'00	2'14	54,598'33
Furniture-making	8	599,616'55	1'92	73,702'07
Metallurgical 6	331,246'34	1'08	55,208'00
Paper 1	185,433'00	0'61	185,433'00
Various others 4	3,818,946'34	12'46	954,736'59
Total ..	154	30,599,432'79	100'00	198,697'68

As regards the amount of capital invested, therefore, the industries of food stuffs and brewing (mills, breweries, and distilleries), occupy the first place; then follow the textile industry and, in the third place, the industry of pottery. The total of capital invested, on January 1st, 1905, in the various industrial establishments favoured by the State amounted to 30,599,432'79 francs.

The number of hands employed in these factories at the same date, including the owners of factories, was 7,026, of whom only 677 were owners or managers. The distribution of these persons among the various industries is shown in the following table :

Industry.	Number of factories.	Number of persons employed.			Per cent.	Average per factory.
		Men.	Women.	Total.		
Textiles	51	1,178	1,565	2,743	44'61	54
Mining	3	1,347	—	1,347	21'91	449
Food stuffs and						
brewing	57	877	106	983	15'99	17
Metallurgical ..	8	238	—	238	3'87	30
Leather	13	237	—	237	3'85	18
Chemical products	15	128	65	193	3'14	13
Furnitures	8	185	—	185	3'01	23
Ceramics	6	170	—	170	2'76	28
Paper	1	20	2	22	0'36	22
Various	4	31	—	31	0'50	8
Total	168	4,411	1,738	6,149	100'00	37

As regards the number of persons employed in each of these factories, they are distributed as follows :

Factories employing workmen until December 31st, 1907.	Number of factories.		Number of persons employed.			Per cent.
	Absolute.	In p.c.	Men.	Women.	Total.	
No person employed	10	6'02	—	—	—	—
Less than five persons employed	17	10'24	47	4	51	0'83
From 5- 9 persons	28	16'87	189	15	204	3'32
„ 10-19 „	45	27'11	568	66	634	10'31
„ 20-29 „	23	13'86	406	143	549	8'93
„ 30-49 „	18	10'87	508	171	679	11'04
„ 50-99 „	15	9'04	763	297	1,060	17'24
„ 100-499 „	9	5'42	659	1,042	1,701	27'66
„ 500-999 „	—	—	—	—	—	—
Above 1,000 persons	1	0'60	1,271	—	1,271	20'67
Total	.. 166	100'00	4,411	1,738	6,149	100'00

Of the 166 factories, only 117 employ mechanical motors. The number of these latter, and their motor power for all the industries, is shown in the following table :

Description of motors.	Number of motors.	Horse-power.	Per cent.
Fixed steam engines	.. 86	5,049	56'25
Turbines 21	2,523	28'11
Locomotives	.. 34	675'50	7'52
Water-wheels	.. 271	518'12	5'77
Electro-motors	.. 6	133'25	1'48
Benzine or petroleum motors	7	56	0'62
Other mechanical motors ..	6	22	0'25
Total	431	8,976'87	100'00

The motor power employed in most of the factories is water. Electricity, however, is gradually pushing its way to the front, the majority of the textile factories at Gabrovo and Sliven using electric motors.

We have already given the number of workmen employed in the various industrial establishments, We propose now to examine how they are distributed as regards nationality, education, and proprietary status.

Of the 6,149 persons employed, excluding the owners and managers, who number 877, only 399, of whom eight women, are foreign subjects.

Of these same persons, 4,114 have received an education, and 3,035, of whom 1,265 are men and 770 women, are illiterate. These latter form 30 per cent. of the total of workmen.

The proprietary status of the persons employed in the various factories in Bulgaria, as in most other countries, is not a very prosperous one. This will be gathered from the following table :

	Men.	Number of employees.		Per cent.
		Women.	Total.	
Possessing no property ..	3,291	1,663	4,954	80·56
Owning a house	249	61	310	5·04
Having other property besides a house	725	10	735	11·95
Possessing other property but no house	146	4	150	2·45
Total	4,411	1,738	6,149	100·00

In the last place, it is of interest to know the distribution of the employees as regards their age and the number of working hours per day. This information will be found in the subjoined table (p. 183).

Such is, briefly speaking, the state of the Bulgarian industries at the present hour. Within a comparatively short space of time, they have made considerable progress and, judging from the past, we have every reason to believe that before many years are over their development will double, if not triple.

NUMBER OF WORKMEN EMPLOYED.														
Age.	8 hours and less.		From 8-10 hours.		From 10-12 hours.		From 12-15 hours.		More than 15 hours.		Total.			
	M.	W.	M.	W.	M.	W.	M.	W.	M.	W.	M.	W.	Total.	Per cent.
	Up to 12 years ..	3	1	5	4	13	49	—	17	1	—	22	71	93
From 13-15 years	—	13	27	39	135	289	3	127	6	—	171	468	639	10'39
„ 16-20 „	13	28	353	71	432	560	36	260	26	—	860	919	1,779	28'93
„ 21-30 „	40	2	765	12	631	86	94	23	51	—	1,581	123	1,704	27'71
„ 31-40 „	16	—	485	7	329	42	80	4	49	—	959	53	1,012	16'46
„ 41-50 „	9	—	232	27	168	21	85	10	24	—	491	58	549	8'93
„ 51-60 „	5	1	102	21	96	8	23	6	9	—	235	36	271	4'41
Above 61 years ..	1	2	36	2	39	4	13	2	3	—	92	10	102	1'66
Total ..	87	47	2,005	183	1,843	1,059	307	449	169	—	4,411	1,738	6,149	100'00
Per cent. ..	2'18		35'58		47'19		12'30		2'75				100'00	

4. LABOUR LEGISLATION

During a comparatively short period of social and political freedom, Bulgaria has undergone important economic changes.

The present development of the industrial activity of the bulk of the population is very different from their social condition before our political emancipation, when trades and handicrafts were carried on in a primitive fashion. The world's economic evolution has entirely changed the character of the more advanced countries, nor has Bulgaria escaped this influence. New methods of production and of the organisation of work are gradually replacing the old *régime* of social economy. A great number of small trades, in which nothing but hand labour was employed, have been driven out by machinery and capitalist production. The decline of hand labour and the eclipse of the individual by machinery aggravated the position of the work-people; for the competition, inevitable in all industrial organisation, necessitated increasing the rate of production by the introduction of machines and the lengthening of the working hours, while it reduced the workmen's wages and brought about the employment of women and children.* These inevitable consequences have long been felt in the great industrial centres of Europe. The lengthening of the working day and the overworking of employees brought about a sentiment in favour of the work-people, and the attention of Bulgarian legislators was drawn to the necessity of regulating their condition. The first labour law promulgated was that concerning women and children working in factories, which was passed early in 1905. Several important principles had, however, already been laid down and applied in the law for

* The number of women and children employed in our factories is about 50·70 per cent. of the total number of hands.

organising trades and trades unions in 1903. Among these were regulations for the employment of apprentices, for the maximum number of hours in the working day, and the age of apprentices (fifteen years at least). But the law of 1905 regulating the work of women and children generalises and lays down the legal conditions for the employment of children under fifteen, and for women of all ages, occupied in factories, mines, quarries, workshops and other industrial undertakings. The new regulations did not forbid the employment of women and children, they only combated abuses. In its principles, the law is identical with the resolutions which the Berlin Conference of 1890 recommended to the legislators of all civilised nations.

The minimum age at which children are admitted into factories is determined so as to make it possible for them to attend the obligatory primary schools, and at the same time not to hinder their physical development. Article 3 runs as follows: "Children of either sex who have not attained the age of twelve years must not be employed in factories, workshops, at pit mouths, in quarries, or sewers. By way of exception, however, children under twelve, but in no case under ten, may be employed in the undertakings specially mentioned in the decree of the Prince, on the advice of the Sanitary Council and of the Ministry of Commerce and Agriculture. Children under fifteen and women under twenty-one cannot be employed in the subterranean parts of mines or quarries."

This law takes no cognisance of *home employment*, but when the latter expands to an industrial enterprise, and especially when it takes the form of salaried work, and the number of women and children employed, not counting the members of the family, is more than five, the enactments of Article 2 (and of the whole law in general) come into full force. The law distinguishes, as has just been said, between

the work of a family and that of work-people who are not members of the family. Workers of either sex, under the age of eighteen, are not allowed in factories where the work is specially deleterious to health.

The working day for children of both sexes up to the age of fifteen is eight hours. Women, of whatever age, may not be employed for more than ten hours a day. Women and children must be allowed an interval for rest after working five consecutive hours. Night work is absolutely forbidden to women of all ages, and to children under fifteen. This clause, however, will not operate until five years after the publication of the law. An exception is made for children of the male sex in cases of exceptional pressure of work, but this exception only holds good for children of at least thirteen. Finally, in establishments where the work is never interrupted, children may be employed up to eleven at night, provided eight hours of rest are allowed before beginning work next day.

Women of all ages and children under fifteen have a right to one day of rest per week. This day generally falls on Sunday, when, according to the law on Bulgarian holidays, all industrial establishments are bound to close.

The law of 1905 contains special clauses concerning sanitary conditions and protective measures in the interests of employees in factories; it gives no details, however, on the subject of insuring work-people against accidents in the course of their work. Article 24 orders that the fines paid by manufacturers for infractions of this law shall serve as the nucleus of a fund for insurance against accidents and old age, when a special law shall have introduced such insurance.

The task of seeing that the law respecting women's and children's work is properly executed is confided to the Ministry of Commerce and Agriculture. A section for the Inspection of Labour is about to be created for this purpose. At present,

the Ministry exercises its control by means of labour committees in different towns. Each committee is composed of five members, namely, the mayor of the town, the parish doctor, the district school inspector, the district engineer, and a representative of the local trades unions. The committee thus formed has the same privileges as factory inspectors, and performs its duties either collectively or by delegating one or more members to report on a case.

Factory inspectors have the right of noting down all infractions. Their evidence constitutes proof before the tribunals which, on conviction, may impose fines of 15 to 50 francs. In certain cases, the fine may amount to 500 francs, but must never exceed that limit. All infractions of the clauses concerning the health and safety of the employees in industrial concerns are liable to a fine of from 50 to 500 francs.

Factory inspectors and Labour Committees are obliged to send annual reports of their work to the Ministry of Commerce and Agriculture. The Ministry publishes these reports, which contain a vast amount of data, by means of which, in a few years' time, we shall be able to judge of the measures that must eventually be taken.

As we have said before, the law concerning the employment of women and children is the first of a series of measures for labour legislation which the Government proposes to introduce. The employment of labour, in general, is at present subject to no restrictions, but we believe that the necessity of general labour legislation will soon make itself felt.

The protection of labour has lately been advanced by the "Law encouraging Bulgarian Commerce and Industry," of 1905. A special clause of this law obliges those who profit by the privileges it confers on them to set aside a fund of insurance for the work-people engaged in their establishments. The workmen are to increase this fund by stoppages on their

wages. The details of the organisation of this insurance are settled by special regulations, now being prepared.

During the session of 1904, the Ministry introduced a bill concerning the employment of agricultural labourers which, however, still awaits the approval of the National Assembly.

The bill in question attempts to settle and regulate the relations of landowners and the labourers in their service. While leaving the contracting parties entire liberty in their reciprocal engagements, the bill aims at retaining a sufficient supply of field labourers and attempts to protect them from the exploitation of certain landowners.

This short *résumé* shows that the labour legislation of our country keeps pace with the new conditions of economic development. It is far from complete, for the very reason that the economic evolution of the country has not yet reached its final stage. Native industries are still of too recent a date to bear the expenses which laws protecting labour would impose on them. Far from that, they themselves need encouragement and protection. But, while we admit thus much, we do not ignore the principle that labour must invariably be protected, because of the great and vital interests which depend on it. We are convinced that here, as elsewhere, social misery can only be prevented by rational measures, taken in time.

The ideal of all true political economy is to direct the productive forces of a nation to concentrated useful and rational employment. This, of course, can only be accomplished by degrees, without forcing the position and never losing sight of the local conditions at any given time.

Such are the principles which will guide the Bulgarian Government in the future development of its labour legislation.

5. INDUSTRIAL LEGISLATION

As we have already said, Bulgaria is, first and foremost, an agricultural country, her exports consisting almost exclusively of cereals and cattle. Her imports are all sorts of manufactured articles which are not made in the country, or not made in sufficient quantity. But the general tendency of modern states is, to create and develop a national industry which produces the objects necessary for home consumption and, at the same time, offers a scope of varied and concentrated employment to the active forces of the nation. Bulgaria, too, is actuated by this principle. The governing classes among us early grasped the idea that the future of our country depends on the possession of national industries, parallel with agriculture and independent of it ; and it must be admitted that the Legislative Assembly and the Government have concentrated their efforts to this end. The first task was to introduce and protect such industries as were likely to take root and flourish. Capital must be attracted and, to tempt enterprising capitalists, such concessions and privileges must be granted as would bring a satisfactory profit within their reach.

This was the object of the law for the encouragement of local industry, of December 20th, 1894, and the supplementary law of 1896. These were replaced by another, passed January 25th, 1905, under the title of "A Law for the Encouragement of Bulgarian Commerce and Industry," which came into force on March 26th of the same year. This new law only extends the principle of protection introduced by that of 1894. Later on, we shall give its chief enactments. As a supplement to the measures taken for local industry, Bulgaria has decided on the programme of a new customs tariff which, as is well known, served as a basis for our negotiations with

the European States for the conclusion of fresh commercial treaties.

According to clause 1 of the Law for the Encouragement of Bulgarian Commerce and Industry, all industrial enterprises which are likely to prove useful to the country, or to yield the country a part of their working expenses by employing native raw materials, labour, fuel, motor-power, etc., or to reduce the price of commodities, enjoy the privileges granted by the law, according to the measure of their importance and utility. These privileges are of two kinds: general advantages, by which all industrial enterprises profit without distinction, and special privileges, by which only the industries mentioned in the law can profit. Enterprises of the latter class enjoy these special privileges for a period of from ten to thirty years, according to the importance of the undertaking.

The general privileges, common to all industrial enterprises, are as follows:

(a) The use of water-power, without payment, where this is not on a private property.

(b) Exemption from customs duties for such machines and parts of machines, tools, and accessories, needful for the installation of enterprise, as are not made in the Principality and come from countries which have concluded commercial treaties with Bulgaria.

(c) Exemption from customs duties for such building materials as are not found or made in the country, and are indispensable for the construction of the factory and its out-buildings.

(d) Exemption from customs duties for raw material, when it is imported in order to be exported again, after having been worked up or finished off.

(e) A free grant of land belonging to the State, the province, or parish, for the installation of the factory. The area

of the land granted in this way to be determined according to the needs of the enterprise, and in no case to exceed five decares.

(f) Machinery, tools, coal, benzine, etc., for the factory will be carried by the State railways at a rate 35 per cent. below the lowest usual charge for those commodities.

Article 8 of the law compels all public institutions to buy from native sources, even if native commodities should be as much as 15 per cent. dearer than similar articles manufactured abroad.

The enjoyment of special privileges is reserved to such enterprises, enumerated in the law, as employ at least 5 horse-power and fifteen regular hands, for at least six months in the year, and use machinery and tools worth not less than 20,000 francs. These industries are as follows :

1. Sugar, products of sugar, chocolate, glucose.
2. Spinning, weaving and machine knitting in wool, silk, cotton, hemp and jute, tapestry, etc.
3. Rope-making.
4. Pottery, such as stoves, drain-pipes, water-pipes, fire-bricks, Marseilles tiles.
5. Cart- and carriage-building and construction of other vehicles.
6. Mines, quarries of marble, granite, etc., and metallurgical industries.
7. Stone-cutting (marble, granite, etc.).
8. Cements and different kinds of chalk, gypsum, asphalte, etc.
9. Conserved foods, slaughter-houses and buildings intended for the fattening of animals previous to the preserving and exporting of meat, utilisation of waste products of slaughter-houses.
10. Milling and flour pastes.
11. Paper and wood pulp.

12. Iron and foundries.
13. Refineries for petroleum and its products.
14. Chemical products, matches, chemical manure, artificial colours, etc.
15. Soap and candles.
16. Glass.
17. Tanneries.
18. Dye works.
19. Beer brewing, alcohol and brandy distilling.
20. Furniture, wood-carving, carpenters' and joiners' work.
21. Oils, both animal and vegetable.
22. Electric installations for motor-power.
23. Silk-worm culture.

All other industrial enterprises which are innovations for the country, fulfil the conditions of Article 15 of the law, and whose utility is recognised by the Ministry of Commerce and Agriculture, also enjoy special advantages, which are as follows :

(a) Exemption from customs duties and *octroi* for raw or partially wrought material, if such material cannot be obtained in the country, or can only be obtained in insufficient quantity.

(b) The factory buildings are exempt from the buildings tax and the additional centimes.*

(c) Exemption from patent dues and the additional centimes.

(d) The original shares are exempt from stamp duties.

(e) The coal needed by the factories may be supplied by the State mines at reduced rates, determined by the Ministerial Council.

(f) Raw or partially wrought material essential to the undertaking, building materials for the factory buildings,

* Surtax added to certain taxes, the proceeds from which are reserved for departmental and communal budgets.

and the objects manufactured, will be carried by the State railways at a reduction of 35 per cent. on the usual tariff for such things.

(g) Gratuitous use of State land to obtain stones, sand, gravel, clay, and other similar materials for buildings and manufactures.

The State, the departments, and the parishes will enter on contracts with the manufacturers who enjoy these special advantages, for the supply of such objects as are necessary, or a period of from five to ten years.

The exclusive right of manufacture in some definite district, for a period of thirty years at most, is now only granted to factories of the following products :

Sugar, stuffs and threads of silk, cotton, linen and hemp, ropes, refinery of petroleum and its products, animal, mineral, and vegetable oils and grains, all kinds of preserved goods, slaughter-houses and stalls for the fattening of cattle with a view to the conserving and exportation of meat, food pastes, basket work, fine leather for boots, marble, granite, etc., iron, foundries, carts and other vehicles, paper, wood-pulp and cardboard, glass, artificial dyes, chemical manures and requisites for chemical laboratories, turpentine, cement, lime and plaster of Paris, beside all other new industries whose utility is recognised by the Ministerial Council.

The right of exclusive manufacture in a certain district is granted by the Ministerial Council on the evidence of the Ministry of Commerce and Agriculture. The manufacturer wishing to obtain this right has to apply to the Ministry of Commerce and Agriculture, enclosing plans, estimates, etc.

The effect of these measures, as will be seen, must be to encourage nascent industries and doubtless enterprising men will not hesitate to profit by them.

A special law of January 23rd, 1904, regulates the organisation of trades and professional syndicates. This law is the

outcome of tolerably long experience, acquired under the regime of a former law on the same subject. Its object is not so much to favour artisans, as to oblige them to form separate corporations in order to prevent unfair competition, to collaborate for the improvement of the trade, to form funds for insurance and loans, etc. Under the existing regime, then, no one can practise a trade without possessing a regular certificate given him by the syndic of his guild, after he has given proof of a sufficient knowledge of the trade which he proposes to follow. Several clauses of the law concern the relations of employers and apprentices or pupils, and details are given as to the necessary contracts. Employers are in this way sure of a constant supply of apprentices and pupils, while the latter are protected from every kind of ill-usage at the hands of their masters.

A further object of this law is to improve handicrafts by the establishment of technical schools, and by the organisation of exhibitions, competitions, etc. Several important institutions, such as co-operative and friendly societies, are the outcome of the initiative of the guilds. Certainly, these are indirect methods of improving handicrafts; others, more efficacious, must be taken to improve the situation of the artisans. It is to be hoped that the National Assembly will soon fill this gap in our industrial legislation.

In 1904 the National Assembly passed a law concerning trade marks, replacing that of 1892-3. The authors of this law were actuated by the principles laid down by different international congresses on the subject of the protection of industrial property. Up to that time, foreign manufacturers did not hesitate to introduce merchandise into Bulgaria without indicating its origin, manufacture, composition, etc. Most often the labels of foreign merchandise gave incorrect statements. To put an end to all these abuses from which the consumers had to suffer, the new law of trade marks re-

gulates and guarantees the right to certain trade marks, and severely punishes imitators and manufacturers who put false statements on the labels of their wares. As regards industrial property, the law only protects legally registered trade marks. Registration is optional, except for certain articles where the interests of native industry and commerce demand it. Trade marks are registered without Government guarantee; however, the Industrial Properties Office of the Ministry of Commerce and Agriculture is obliged, before registering a trade mark, to make sure that it is not an imitation or counterfeit of some already registered trade mark, in which case it is obliged to refuse registration.

Registration takes place in the Industrial Properties Office, forming part of the Ministry of Commerce and Agriculture. To this end, the manufacturer must present a written application, accompanied by the copies of the trade mark, a block of the size of $10 \times 8 \times 2\frac{1}{2}$ centimetres and certificates, if the trade mark has already been registered in another country. The proprietor receives a certificate for every trade mark registered. Registration holds good for ten years, at the end of which it must be renewed, or else it loses its efficacy. A trade mark cannot be handed over without the business which it represents.

We have already indicated the enactments of the new law as regards manufacturers and trades-people whose wares are despatched or offered for sale with misleading labels. The outside indications on labels, packing-cases, vessels, etc., concern the quality, quantity, weight, contents, origin and composition of the merchandise, besides its process of manufacture and its patents and privileges, if any. In all cases of infraction proceedings may be taken either officially or at the instance of the patentee.

A distinctive label is obligatory for the following articles : brandy, wine, liqueurs, ink, sealing-wax, gum, matches,

petroleum, and threads, whether these articles are manufactured in the country or abroad. It must describe the quantity, weight, contents, nature, and origin of the merchandise. A special regulation orders that boxes of cotton thread, whether manufactured in the country or abroad, must have an indication of the system of numbering which obtains in the country from which they come.

The daily increasing number of commercial travellers has long called for the intervention of the legislator, the more so as they abused with impunity the confidence of their foreign employers and that of the trades-people with whom they had to do. The new law concerning commercial travellers, published in *The Official Journal*, March 26th, 1905, and which came into effect on September 26th, put an end to this state of things. Article 2 obliges every commercial traveller to procure a legitimation card from the Ministry of Commerce and Agriculture, if he is a foreigner, and from the Chambers of Commerce, if he is a Bulgarian. The card is handed over on the presentation of a certificate of identity and the power of attorney of the firm which the traveller represents. Commercial travellers must pay a tax of 50 to 150 francs, according to the three categories in which they are classed; this is considered as a duty on their profession. No commercial traveller has the right to take orders on his own account, or for a firm which he does not represent. He is also forbidden to take orders from private persons who buy for their own requirements. He may not carry any merchandise with him beyond his samples, and he is obliged to keep a book of orders.

6. INSTITUTIONS

The institutions specially deputed to superintend the development of commerce and industry, handicrafts and

agriculture, together with those connected with these branches of our national economy, are the following :

The Ministry of Commerce and Agriculture.

The Permanent Committees attached to the Prefectures.

The Parish Councils.

The Agricultural Bank.

The Chambers of Commerce.

The Commercial Museums.

The Ministry of Commerce and Agriculture was created at the time of the revision of the constitution in 1893. All the institutions charged with the superintendence of trade, industry, and agriculture, were thus placed under a single supreme authority. Several laws and regulations have settled the organisation of the Ministry, its powers and methods of operation, beside those of its dependencies.

The Departmental Councils date from 1878 ; for ten years they were active as branches of the central government which granted them subsidies from the State Budget. Since 1888 the Departmental Councils have been considered as autonomous departmental institutions, and have their own separate accounts. Their revenues are chiefly drawn from the additional centimes of the State taxes. The members of the departmental councils are elected by universal suffrage in each department, to the number of three delegates to every 20,000 inhabitants of both sexes. Their time of office lasts three years. We have already described the routine of the Departmental Councils and the powers of the Permanent Committees. It suffices to add that the Permanent Committee is chiefly occupied with the improvement of agriculture, of cattle, and of rural economy in general. Only indirectly does it have to do with commerce and industry. The greater stress laid on rural economy is easily understood, if it is remembered that the Permanent Committees come most in contact with the agricultural population, and that more

often than not its members are farmers. On the other hand, commerce and industry are more under the protection of the Ministry and of the Chambers of Commerce. Thanks to this specialisation, agriculture is adequately encouraged. The departmental councils distribute excellent seeds every year. They make considerable sacrifices to improve the breed of cattle. They also encourage the initiative of farmers by organising competitions for poultry-rearing, fruit-growing, etc. Scholarships have been granted to a number of young men who wish to take up farming, so as to allow them to study methods in foreign technical schools. Finally, the permanent committees keep up the technical schools at the cost of the departments. Thus, the Departmental Council of Sofia has for the last four years been supporting three model schools, a workshop at Trn for the manufacture of oriental carpets, and two carpenters' shops at Koprivchitza and Etropolé. Special theoretical and practical courses, intended to bring up to date different trades that have long been practised in Bulgaria, have given excellent results, thanks to the exertions of the Departmental Councils.

The scope of the parish councils as regards commerce and industry is much the same as that of the Departmental Councils, only on a smaller scale. These latter grant subsidies to those parishes of their respective departments whose means are insufficient.

The Agricultural Bank is one of the institutions which most contribute to the bettering of the economic condition of the country, as we have shown in the chapter devoted to that establishment.

A most useful institution was created by the law of December 20th, 1894, when, at the suggestion of merchants, Chambers of Commerce were started in the most important business centres. At the present day, there are Chambers of Commerce in Sofia, Philippopolis, Varna, and Roustchouk.

They are directly dependent on the Ministry of Commerce and Agriculture. They are obliged to keep the Ministry informed of the commercial and industrial fluctuations of their district, and to give advice on matters within their competence. In a general way, they are commissioned to take measures to encourage commerce and develop relations between Bulgarian merchants and foreign countries. They are the consulting organ of the Ministry, and the different administrations have to apply to them, whenever they have questions to settle dealing with commerce and industry.

Every chamber consists of thirty-two members, elected by a majority of the electors of the respective district. All the traders of the district above twenty-five years of age, who enjoy civil rights and pay taxes amounting to not less than 25 francs per annum are voters and eligible as members of the chambers. Half the members retire from office every four years : those retiring may be re-elected.

The Chambers of Commerce meet in regular annual sessions to vote the budget for the year and to decide on questions submitted to them. The execution of their decisions is confided to a standing committee consisting of president, vice-president, and secretary. The secretaries are paid, both the other posts are honorary. The committee is elected for two years.

The Chambers of Commerce have thoroughly justified the hopes of their founders. They have become the centres of all commercial and industrial activity. A series of useful measures adopted by the National Assembly or by the Government are the outcome of their enlightened initiative. In questions of the highest importance, such as the drawing up of a new customs tariff and the conclusion of commercial treaties, the Chambers of Commerce have been particularly useful. It is only since their creation that industrial legis-

lation has been able to lay a solid foundation for national industries and technical education. In 1902, inquiry offices and commercial museums were added to the Chambers of Commerce, and commissioned to give information to inquirers about the credit of native traders and the products of the country. Foreign business houses and manufacturers are sure to obtain prompt and trustworthy information from these offices and museums, which have already given proofs of their utility during their short existence.

The expenses of the Chambers of Commerce are defrayed by the traders themselves, by means of a supplementary tax added to the tax on trades and professions. The total budget of the four Chambers of Commerce amounts to about 140,000 francs.

The Commercial Museums are intended to contribute to the development of local industries and to facilitate trade with foreign countries. According to their programme, it is the duty of these museums to point out to traders who send them samples the improvements which might be made in their wares, and to put them in communication with buyers. They undertake to find buyers for first-class articles which are fit to compete with similar articles made abroad. The collection of tools and machines purchased abroad is always at the disposal of all concerned, who can thus make themselves acquainted with the improvements and simplifications introduced in all branches of trade. As regards commercial information, the museums assist the Chambers of Commerce in their work.

The programme we have just indicated is shared by the Bulgarian Commercial and Industrial Museum, attached to the Ministry of Commerce and Agriculture, and started in June, 1898. This museum, besides, grants loans to small traders, buys certain products of local industry on its own account, sells machines and other farm implements to farmers

as cheaply as possible, and protects certain industries, such as hat-making, knife-making, tapestries, etc

The Sofia Commercial and Industrial Museum forms part of the Ministry of Commerce and Agriculture, its superintendent being a functionary of that department.

CHAPTER V

ROADS AND MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

I. RAILWAYS

UNTIL 1894 all the Bulgarian railways and public works were under the management of the Board of Public Works, which formed part of the Ministry of Finance. During that year a special Ministry of Public Works, Roads, and Communications was created. The Department of Railways, which has existed since 1901, was in 1905 reorganised into a General Board of State Railways and Ports.

The central administration of the railways and ports consists of the following officials : one general director, one assistant director, one engineer-in-chief, one secretary, and the heads of the following departments : Traffic and commerce, consisting of six sections, viz., tariffs, control of receipts from goods, control of receipts from passenger tickets, control of receipts from luggage, claims, and statistics ; maintenance, rolling-stock, and traction. This last department consists of a technico-economic section, a section of accounts, and a section of inventories.

The personnel of the railways consists of 197 officials and employés attached to the central administration, and of 2,187 officials and employés belonging to the various other services.

The following table shows the way in which the personnel of the railways is distributed :

(1) CENTRAL ADMINISTRATION

	Officials.	Employés.	Total.	Personnel per kilometre.
Administrative Section ..	9	14	23	0'02
Department of Traffic ..	43	11	54	0'04
Department of Maintenance	15	5	20	0'02
Department of Traction ..	16	2	18	0'01
Department of Commerce	36	7	43	0'04
Section of Plant	20	5	25	0'02
Section of Accounts ..	10	4	14	0'01
Total ..	149	48	197	

(2) WORKING DEPARTMENTS

Transports	—	412	412	0'34
Stations	228	479	707	0'60
Traction	195	212	407	0'34
Plant	16	97	113	0'09
Maintenance	65	461	526	0'45
Sanitation	18	4	22	0'02
Total	522	1,665	2,187	
Grand total	671	1,713	2,384	

TARIFFS

The tariffs for the transport of passengers, for through or local traffic, are based on the distances between the stations and the fares of all the existing communications.

The following are the various tariffs for the transport of passengers which are now in operation on the Bulgarian State railways :

(a) Local tariff.

(b) Neighbouring tariff, in operation between the Bulgarian State railways and the Oriental Railways.

(c) Tariff for the conveyance of passengers between Austria-Hungary, Servia, Bulgaria, and Turkey.

(d) Tariff for the conveyance of passengers between Northern Germany and the East.

(e) Tariff for the conveyance of passengers between Southern Germany and the East.

(f) Tariff for the conveyance of passengers between Switzerland and the East.

(g) Tariff for the conveyance of passengers between the Bulgarian State railways and the Austro-Hungarian Danube Steamship Company.

(h) Tariff for the conveyance of passengers between the Bulgarian State railways and the Hungarian Company of River and Maritime Navigation.

(i) Tariff for the conveyance of passengers between the Bulgarian State railways and the Bulgarian Commercial Society for Navigation.

(j) Tariff for the conveyance of passengers between France and Belgium, on the one hand, and Austria-Hungary, Servia, Roumania, Bulgaria and Turkey, on the other : (a) by way of Southern Germany and Arlberg, and (b) by way of Germany, North Avricourt.

(k) Tariff for the conveyance of passengers between England and the East : (a) by way of Calais-Dover, (b) by way of Ostend-Dover, and (c) by way of Harwich-Hook of Holland.

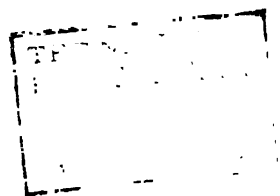
All these tariffs include at the same time the charges for the transport of luggage.

According to tariffs *i* and *k* the Bulgarian State railways issue tickets for stations beyond Vienna. Up to Vienna, the tickets issued are regulated by the tariff *c*, so that a passenger going from Sofia to London must hold two tickets, of which one is valid up to Vienna and the other beyond that place.

No special arrangements exist on the Bulgarian State



TUNNEL ON THE SOFIA-KASPITCHAN RAILWAY LINE.



railways for the transport of emigrants, these latter being carried as ordinary passengers.

Remarks.—(a) A reduction of 50 per cent. on the price of the ordinary tickets is allowed in favour of the following categories of passengers :

1. Children between the ages of four and ten years, and this without any formalities. Children below the age of four are conveyed free of charge if they do not occupy a separate seat.

2. Members of the military profession.

3. Students, when they travel separately. If they travel in groups of at least ten persons and are accompanied by their teachers they are allowed a reduction of 75 per cent.

4. Harvestmen, mowers, masons, if they travel in groups of at least forty persons.

5. Members of scientific societies, pilgrims, theatrical companies, if they travel in parties of at least twenty persons.

6. Railway employes who have already used their right to travel free of charge, and the members of their families.

Booking offices issue tickets to children and soldiers without any formality. In the case of students who travel separately, a certificate from the authorities of their respective schools is required.

To the various classes which are mentioned in the tariffs the tickets are issued without any formality. The persons mentioned in 6 must be provided with a card, issued by the General Management to each one individually.

(b) The ministers and some high functionaries travel over the State railways free of all charges. The employes of the State railways also travel free of charge: (1) in the course of their employment; (2) twice during the year, when they are on leave of absence; (3) when they are appointed or dismissed.

Persons entitled to travel free of charge are provided with annual passes and with special permits.

LOCAL SERVICE

GENERAL TARIFF

The general tariff, which contains the rates for the transport of goods by fast trains and by goods trains, is arranged as follows :

Fast trains.	{	Full tariff.										
	{	Reduced tariff.	No special conditions required, for quantities above 5,000 kil.									
Goods trains.	{	Partial consignment.	<table style="border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="font-size: 3em; vertical-align: middle;">{</td> <td style="padding-right: 10px;">Bulky goods</td> <td style="padding-left: 20px;"></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="font-size: 3em; vertical-align: middle;">{</td> <td style="padding-right: 10px;">" "</td> <td style="padding-left: 20px;">1st class.</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="font-size: 3em; vertical-align: middle;">{</td> <td style="padding-right: 10px;">" "</td> <td style="padding-left: 20px;">2nd class.</td> </tr> </table>	{	Bulky goods		{	" "	1st class.	{	" "	2nd class.
{	Bulky goods											
{	" "	1st class.										
{	" "	2nd class.										
	{	Full rates.	<table style="border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="font-size: 3em; vertical-align: middle;">{</td> <td style="padding-right: 10px;">Class A.</td> <td style="padding-left: 20px;"></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="font-size: 3em; vertical-align: middle;">{</td> <td style="padding-right: 10px;">" B.</td> <td style="padding-left: 20px;"></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="font-size: 3em; vertical-align: middle;">{</td> <td style="padding-right: 10px;">" C.</td> <td style="padding-left: 20px;"></td> </tr> </table>	{	Class A.		{	" B.		{	" C.	
{	Class A.											
{	" B.											
{	" C.											

In addition to the general tariff there are seventeen exceptional tariffs, viz. :

Exceptional Tariff.	No.	1.	Live animals.
" "	" "	2.	Various goods.
" "	" "	3.	Alcohol; wine, vinegar.
" "	" "	4.	Cement, hydraulic lime.
" "	" "	5.	Salt.
" "	" "	6.	Cereals and oleaginous grains.
" "	" "	7.	Flour and bran.
" "	" "	8.	Tobacco in leaf.
" "	" "	9.	Wood for building.
" "	" "	10.	Eggs and dead poultry.
" "	" "	11.	Stones, etc.
" "	" "	12.	Explosive materials.
" "	" "	13.	Cheese and kashkaval.
" "	" "	14.	Vegetables and fruits.

Exceptional Tariff.	No. 15.	Iron, steel, etc.
„	„	„ 16. Petroleum.
„	„	„ 17. Skins and intestines.

THROUGH SERVICE BETWEEN THE BULGARIAN STATE RAILWAYS
AND THE ORIENTAL RAILWAYS

<i>General Tariff</i>	The same as in the local service.
Special Tariff.	No. 1.	Live animals.
„	„	„ 2. Various kinds of goods.
„	„	„ 3. Beer.
„	„	„ 4. Wine, alcohol, etc.
„	„	„ 5. Salt.
„	„	„ 6. Cereals.
„	„	„ 7. Flour, and miller's products.
„	„	„ 8. Bran.
„	„	„ 9. Wood for building.
„	„	„ 10. Eggs.
„	„	„ 11. Stone for building.
„	„	„ 12. Explosive materials.

THROUGH SERVICE BETWEEN AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, SERVIA,
BULGARIA, AND TURKEY

<i>General Tariff</i>	The same as for local service.
Exceptional Tariff.	No. 1.	Live animals.
„	„	„ 2. Various kinds of goods.
„	„	„ 3. Beer.
„	„	„ 4. Alcohol, wine, vinegar.
„	„	„ 5. Mineral waters.
„	„	„ 6. Sugar.
„	„	„ 7. Iron, steel, etc.
„	„	„ 8. Paper, etc.
„	„	„ 9. Glass.

Exceptional Tariff.	No.	10.	Pottery and porcelain.
"	"	"	11. Cement, concrete, etc.
"	"	"	12. Prunes and prune marmalade.
"	"	"	13. Furniture.
"	"	"	14. Salt.
"	"	"	15. Tobacco.
"	"	"	16. Rope-making materials.
"	"	"	17. Cereals and oleaginous grains.
"	"	"	18. Flour, and miller's products.
"	"	"	19. Wood for building.
"	"	"	20. Bi-carbonate of soda.
"	"	"	21. Goods sent by fast through trains.
"	"	"	22. Meat, eggs, poultry.
"	"	"	23. Railway rolling-stock.
"	"	"	24. Petroleum.
"	"	"	25. Chrome ores.
"	"	"	26. Lead.
"	"	"	27. Plaster, gypsum.
"	"	"	28. Inflammable materials.
"	"	"	29. Removal vans.
"	"	"	30. Starch, etc.
"	"	"	31. Cotton stuffs.
"	"	"	32. Earthen pipes.
"	"	"	33. Chlorate of lime, soda, etc.
"	"	"	34. Slates, etc.
"	"	"	35. Fruits, etc.
"	"	"	36. Silk-cocoons.
"	"	"	37. Canvas for sacks and packing.
"	"	"	38. Malt.
"	"	"	39. Wood, glue, cardboard, etc.
"	"	"	40. Cork.
"	"	"	41. Porcelain.
"	"	"	42. Coal

THROUGH SERVICE BETWEEN GERMANY AND SERVIA, BULGARIA
AND TURKEY, *via* AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

The General Tariff is subdivided as follows :

Fast trains.	}	Ordinary rates.
		Reduced rates.
Goods trains.	}	Goods belonging to Class I.
		" " " " II.
Exceptional Tariff.	No.	
"	"	1. Goods of various kinds.
"	"	2. Eggs and dead poultry.
"	"	3. Live poultry by slow trains.
"	"	3a. Live poultry by fast trains.
"	"	4. Lard.
"	"	5. Prunes.
"	"	6. Cereals and oleaginous grains.
"	"	7. Maize.
"	"	8. Bran.
"	"	9. Fresh fruit.
"	"	10. Nuts.
"	"	11. Vegetables.
"	"	12. Mineral ores.
"	"	13. Slate for roofs.
"	"	14. Unworked skins.
"	"	15. Tobacco.
"	"	16. Beer and empty beer-barrels.
"	"	17. Sugar.
"	"	18. Starch, glucose, etc.
"	"	19. Vinegar and spirits of wme.
"	"	20. Iron and iron goods, etc.
"	"	21. Machinery of all kinds.
"	"	22. Military rifles.
"	"	23. Copper.
"	"	24. Lead.
"	"	25. Dross.

Exceptional Tariff.	No. 26.	Zinc, etc.	
"	"	27.	Railway rolling-stock.
"	"	27a.	" " " Constantinople.
"	"	28.	Glass.
"	"	29.	Pottery and porcelain.
"	"	30.	Cement and stones.
"	"	31.	Lignite briquettes.
"	"	32.	Slates.
"	"	33.	Lithographic stones.
"	"	34.	Cardboard.
"	"	35.	Sulphate of iron crystals.
"	"	36.	Paper.
"	"	37.	Cotton stuffs.
"	"	38.	Linen stuffs.
"	"	39.	Wool.
"	"	40.	Wooden toys.

**THROUGH SERVICE BETWEEN HUNGARY AND BULGARIA, *via*
SOMOVIT AND ROUSTCHOUK**

Exceptional Tariff.	No. 1.	Sugar.
"	"	2. Goods of various kinds.
"	"	3. Mineral waters.
"	"	4. Iron.
"	"	5. Glass.
"	"	6. Paper.
"	"	7. Pottery and porcelain.
"	"	8. Cement.
"	"	9. Wooden furniture.
"	"	10. Iron furniture.
"	"	11. Agricultural machines.
"	"	12. Jute sacks.

Exceptional Tariff.	No. 13.	Starch.
”	”	” 14. Extracts from oak and pine wood.
”	”	” 15. Rope-making materials.
”	”	” 16. Brushes.
”	”	” 17. Lamps.
”	”	” 18. Glue.
”	”	” 19. Matches.
”	”	” 20. British gum.
”	”	” 21. Rock salt.

THROUGH SERVICE BETWEEN THE BULGARIAN STATE RAILWAYS
AND THE HUNGARIAN COMPANY FOR RIVER AND MARITIME
NAVIGATION, *via* SOMOVIT AND ROUSTCHOUK

General Tariff.

Fast trains.	{ Full rates.
	{ Reduced rates.
Goods trains.	{ Class I.
	{ ” A.
	{ ” B.

Exceptional Tariff.	No. 1.	Sugar.
”	”	” 2. Goods of various kinds.
”	”	” 3. Skins, etc.
”	”	” 4. Iron, etc.
”	”	” 5. Paper, etc.
”	”	” 6. Tobacco.
”	”	” 7. Salt.
”	”	” 8. Cereals.
”	”	” 9. Mineral ores.
”	”	” 10. Wood for building.
”	”	” 11. Bones, etc.
”	”	” 12. Cement, etc.

Exceptional Tariff.	No. 13.	Starch.
”	”	” 14. Wine, alcohol, etc.
”	”	” 15. Empty sacks.
”	”	” 16. Flour, etc.
”	”	” 17. Pottery and porcelain.

THROUGH SERVICE BETWEEN ROUMANIA AND BULGARIA, BY
WAY OF THE DANUBE, *via* SOMOVIT AND ROUSTCHOUK

This service is practically the same as that between the Bulgarian State railways and the Hungarian Company for River and Maritime Navigation, *via* Somovit and Roustchouk.

THROUGH SERVICE BETWEEN THE BULGARIAN STATE RAILWAYS
AND THE IMPERIAL AND ROYAL COMPANY FOR STEAM
NAVIGATION ON THE DANUBE, *via* SOMOVIT AND
ROUSTCHOUK.

General Tariff.

Fast trains.	{	Ordinary rates.
	{	Reduced rates.
Goods trains.	{	Class I.
	{	” A.
	{	” B.

Exceptional Tariff.	No. 1.	Sugar.
”	”	” 2. Goods of various kinds.
”	”	” 3. Skins, etc.
”	”	” 4. Iron, etc.
”	”	” 5. Glass works.
”	”	” 6. Pottery and porcelain.
”	”	” 7. Cement, etc.
”	”	” 8. Cereals, etc.
”	”	” 9. Mineral ores, stones, etc.
”	”	” 10. Wood for building.

Exceptional Tariff.	No. 11.	Bones, etc.
”	”	” 12. Beer, etc.
”	”	” 13. Flour, etc.

The collection and delivery of goods are regulated by means of delivery or transit notes, which are exchanged between the guards of trains and the station authorities, and, on the frontier, between the respective railway administrations.

The mode of packing on the Bulgarian State railways is the same as that laid down in the Regulations for their working and in the Convention annexed to those Regulations.

The instruments employed on the Bulgarian State railways for loading and unloading of goods are wheel-barrows, covers, wooden bridges, ladders, ropes, levers, and cranes. The methods followed are the same as those which are laid down in the Convention annexed to the Regulations, etc.

CLASSIFICATION OF STATIONS

There are altogether seventy-two railway stations on the Bulgarian State railways. For administrative purposes they are divided into five classes, as follows: 1st class, Sofia; 2nd class, Bourgas, Varna, Gornia-Oréhovitza, Katinetz Plevna, Roustchouk, Tzaribrod, and Yambol; 3rd class, Bellovo, Eski-Djoumaya, Ichtiman, Cornobal, Kaspitchan, Kostenetz-Bania, Mezdra-Vratza, Pernik, Poppovo, Razgrad, Roman, Tirnovo, and Shoumen. Of the remaining railway stations, twenty-one belong to the 4th class and twenty-six to the 5th class.

The statistics here appended are taken from the official report of the Ministry of Public Works, Roads, and Communications for the year 1905.

A complete list of the Bulgarian State railways, with the indication of their length and the date of their opening, will be found in the following table:

Lines.	Date of Opening.	Length in kilometres.	
		Real.	Virtual.
Roustchouk-Varna	Aug. 10, 1888	222,510'70	272
Tzaribrod to the Servian frontier ..	June 23, 1888	4,007'10	192
Tzaribrod-Sofia-Bellovo)			
Sofia-Pernik	Dec. 9, 1893	32,470'—	47
Choumen-Kaspitchan	June 20, 1895	23,248'—	26
Pernik-Radomir ..	Feb. 6, 1897	14,352'40	18
Sofia-Roman	Feb. 20, 1897	109,219'65	119
Guébedjé-Devnia ..	Sept. 27, 1898	14,759'50	15
Roman-Plevna ..	July 18, 1899	83,288'47	89
Plevna-Choumen ..	Nov. 8, 1899	242,914'87	262
Somovit-Yassen ..	Sept. 1, 1899	35,281'—	35
Roustchouk-Tirnova ..	Oct. 8, 1900	129,047'46	150
Tchirpan-Nova-Zagora	Sept. 5, 1900	79,549'35	80
Jamboli-Bourgas ..	May 18, 1900	110,429'80	112
		<hr/>	
		1,257,496'20	1,417

Besides these lines there are a certain number of branch lines built by industrial concerns, whose private property they are. Thus, a line 675 metres long connects the factory "Balabanoff" with the Sofia-Roman line. Another line, 475 metres long, belonging to the Pottery company "Isida," connects their works with the line Tzaribrod-Sofia-Bellovo near the village of Novo-Seltzi.

All these lines are State property, and are worked by the State. The only exception to this rule is the line Bellovo-Sarambey, which was built before the liberation of Bulgaria by the Oriental Railway Company, which continues to own it. The line, however, is worked by the Bulgarian State, which appoints all its officials and employés, and, in return, receives from the Oriental Company, according to the Convention of March 8th, 1894, a sum of 1,200 francs per annum for every kilometre and 6 centimes per axle-kilometre for the rolling stock.

The line Tchirpan-Nova-Zagora, which was built by the

Bulgarian State, is now leased to the Oriental Railway Company by an Agreement of March 16th-28th, 1899.

The cost of the various State railway lines is shown in the following table :

Railway line.	Kilometres.	Net value in Francs.	
		Total.	Per kilometre.
Roustchouk-Varna ..	222,510·70	50,884,910	228,686
Tzaribrod - Sofia - Vakarel	114,137·65	14,335,656	125,600
Sofia-Pernik	32,470·—	5,792,612	178,398
Pernik-Radomir ..	14,352·40	971,949	67,722
Sofia-Roman	109,219·65	27,685,434	253,485
Roman-Choumen ..	326,203·34	23,501,326	72,045
Choumen-Kaspitchan	23,248·—	2,406,543	103,515
Somovit-Yassen ..	35,281·—	691,963	19,613
Guébedjé-Devnia ..	14,759·50	285,151	19,320
Roustchouk-Tirnova	129,047·46	9,969,209	77,252
Jamboli-Bourgas ..	110,429·80	11,085,706	100,386
Tchirpan-Nova-Zagora	79,549·35	4,181,188	52,561
Total ..	1,211,208·85	151,791,638	125,322

(Average)

The net cost is, therefore, about 125,322 frs. per kilometre. As for the rolling-stock, its cost, distributed among the various lines, is as follows :

Railways.	Cost of rolling-stock per kilometre. Francs.
Roustchouk-Varna	2,490,534
Tzaribrod-Sofia-Vakarel	1,795,615
Sofia-Pernik	363,434
Pernik-Radomir	160,641
Sofia-Roman	1,222,485
Roman-Choumen	3,651,143
Choumen-Kaspitchan	260,213
Somovit-Yassen	394,897
Guebedjé-Devnia	165,197
Roustchouk-Tirnova	1,444,406
Jambol-Bourgas	1,211,729
Tchirpan-Nova-Zagora	—
Total	13,160,294

DESCRIPTION.	Number.		Total Tare.	Total Distance.	Brakes.				
	Of carriages.	Of axles.			With screws.	Hardy.	Westinghouse.	Tubes for "Hardy" brake.	Tubes for "Westinghouse" brake.
			Tons.	M.					
Carriages, Royal and of the Inspection	19	59	349'60	125'67	17	17	7	1	7
" for passengers of 1st class	10	27	135'30	55'00	2	6	5	—	—
" " " mixed 1st and 2nd class	43	109	721'00	266'50	24	37	3	—	26
" " " of 2nd class	17	45	209'40	91'32	5	11	—	—	—
" " " mixed 2nd and 3rd class	9	23	128'20	52'50	9	9	—	—	—
" " " of 3rd class	103	267	1414'80	603'20	64	79	2	—	30
" of the post office	26	68	380'90	155'30	20	23	—	—	17
Luggage wagons	56	149	653'60	314'10	55	39	—	4	26
Heating wagons	12	29	211'90	68'50	12	—	—	12	—
Goods trucks, covered	1067	2134	9931'65	4395'4	497	—	—	—	—
" " for grains	254	506	1302'60	694'45	20	—	—	—	—
" " " horses	6	12	43'90	18'80	1	1	—	3	—
" " uncovered	742	1484	5182'50	2849'55	264	—	—	—	—
Trucks of two stories for small cattle	11	22	84'20	37'40	4	—	—	—	—
" for cattle	37	74	239'00	125'80	14	—	—	—	—
" for poultry and game, 3 and 4 stories	18	36	165'30	73'35	14	—	—	—	—
" platforms	28	56	126'20	84'80	5	—	—	—	—
" for large timber and wood	46	92	263'10	151'20	12	—	—	—	—
" for ballast	297	594	1751'30	1085'03	70	—	—	—	—
" with water reservoirs	4	8	24'00	10'40	4	—	—	—	—
" " gas	1	2	19'00	5'00	1	—	—	—	—
" " cranes	3	6	53'70	9'30	—	—	—	—	—
" " with reservoirs for alcohol	4	8	34'40	14'60	4	—	—	—	—

The table (pp. 216-17) contains full details concerning the rolling-stock of the Bulgarian State railways at the end of 1906. The locomotives, to the number of 102, which are not included in the table, belong to various systems, the Zwilling two-cylinder ones predominating. Nearly all of them have been supplied by well-known German and Austrian firms.

The statistics which are annually published by the Ministry of Public Works, Roads, and Communications show, in an unmistakable way, how the inhabitants of the Principality avail themselves of the facilities offered by the railways. The number of passengers, as well as the quantities of goods transported by the railways, increase every year in an astonishing proportion, as will be seen from the following tables.

Year.	Trains.	Passengers.	Tons of transports.	Animals transported by fast trains during one year.	Cattle trucks.	Official parcels.
1900	12,138	742,394	595,883	15	596	63,127
1901	16,570	679,620	903,633	33	668	74,634
1902	15,370	864,563	779,644	44	1,165	71,844
1903	16,137	961,242	817,018	34	1,424	79,823
1904	22,041	1,164,405	1,152,383	50	1,270	94,109
1905	21,976	1,349,550	1,169,416	75	1,293	105,139

In 1905 per cent. more or less as compared with other years.						
Year.	Trains.	Passengers.	Transport.	Animals.	Cattle trucks.	Official parcels.
1900	+ 81'05	+ 81'78	+ 96'25	+ 400	+ 116'95	+ 66'55
1901	+ 32'72	+ 98'57	+ 29'41	+ 127	+ 98'56	+ 40'87
1902	+ 42'98	+ 56'18	+ 49'99	+ 70	+ 10'99	+ 46'34
1903	+ 36'18	+ 70'40	+ 43'13	+ 120	+ 10'13	+ 31'72
1904	- 0'29	+ 15'90	+ 1'39	+ 50	+ 1'81	+ 11'72
1905	—	—	—	—	—	—



GENERAL POST OFFICE, SOFIA.

As regards the income derived from the Bulgarian State railways, and the expenditure which they entail, the table next appended will show that these kept pace with the general development of the traffic.

Years.	Revenue.	Expenditure	Net Revenue.	Capital employed.	Per cent.	Net revenue of 1905 compared with former years.
1900	6,163,454	3,891,208	2,272,246	150,438,451	1'51	+1,526,619 or 67'01 p.c.
1901	7,285,097	4,718,706	2,566,391	153,529,211	1'67	+1,322,474 " 48'02 p.c.
1902	7,498,178	5,347,855	2,150,323	160,770,744	1'33	+1,648,542 " 76'66 p.c.
1903	8,226,842	5,692,969	2,533,873	161,576,979	1'57	+1,264,992 " 49'92 p.c.
1904	10,960,288	7,144,334	3,815,954	164,966,623	2'31	- 17,089 " 0'45 p.c.
1905	11,170,970	7,372,105	3,798,865	170,966,656	2'22	—

The above figures constitute a sufficient justification of the sacrifices which the Principality has made in continually extending the railway system of the country. Three new lines are now under construction, and before very long nearly 400 kilometres will be added to the present Bulgarian railway system.

2. POSTS, TELEGRAPHS, AND TELEPHONES

Twenty-seven years ago, when a national Government took the place of the provisional Russian administration, the newly created Direction of the posts and telegraphs inherited from this latter 27 post and telegraph stations, with a staff of 107 officials and a telegraph network of 1,630 kilometres, representing 2,582 kilometres of telegraph wires.

The Direction was divided into two sections, corresponding to the two services—posts and telegraphs—which acted independently one of the other. The fusion between these two sections could not be effected until July 1st, 1880, when the General Direction of the posts and telegraphs, such as it exists to-day, was for the first time organised.

**SITUATION OF THE BULGARIAN STATE RAILWAYS FROM THE COMMENCEMENT
OF THEIR WORKING UNTIL 1905 INCLUSIVELY**

No.		1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.
1	Length of railway lines	1,175,778	1,175,778	1,175,778	1,175,778	1,175,778	1,175,778
2	Cost of lines with rolling stock	190,438,451	153,599,411	166,770,744	161,576,979	164,905,653	170,966,056
3	Gross receipts	6,163,454	7,285,097	7,498,178	8,326,842	10,060,288	11,170,970
4	Receipts per kilometre	5,228	6,203	6,377	6,977	9,322	9,501
5	Gross expenditure	3,891,208	4,718,706	5,347,855	5,692,969	7,144,334	7,372,103
6	Expenditure per kilometre	3,616	4,004	4,548	4,842	6,076	6,370
7	Net receipts per kilometre ±	+2,562,246	+2,566,391	+2,830,323	+2,533,872	+3,285,912	+3,748,865
8	Proportion between receipts and expenditure	+2,112	+2,186	+1,825	+2,154	+3,245	+3,531
9	Proportion between profits and capital	63	65	71	69	65	66
10	Line "Bourgas" gross receipts per kilometre	1,51	1,57	1,33	1,57	1,31	1,22
11	"Sofia"	5,615	6,950	7,203	9,740	13,266	12,427
12	"Rouschouk"	14,100	13,502	13,591	13,356	18,356	20,342
13	"Central"	4,908	5,633	7,336	8,826	13,127	10,889
14	"Rouschouk-Tranovo" gross receipts per kilometre	2,80	—	3,907	4,131	4,768	5,271
15	"Central" gross expenditure per kilometre	2,814	2,950	3,049	3,209	4,053	4,609
16	"Bourgas" gross expenditure per kilometre	3,932	3,875	4,525	4,943	7,198	7,346
17	"Sofia"	—	—	—	—	—	—
18	"Rouschouk"	3,592	4,030	4,848	4,831	5,614	6,329
19	Proportion between receipts from passengers and gross receipts	38,73	37,10	37,34	35,87	31,52	34,68
20	Proportion between receipts from luggage and dogs and gross receipts	1,55	1,38	2,01	1,78	1,70	1,90
21	Proportion between receipts on express goods traffic and gross receipts	1,98	1,63	56,38	58,82	64,06	60,79
22	Proportion between receipts on slow goods traffic and gross receipts	49,16	50,93	—	—	—	—
23	Proportion between receipts on various taxes and gross receipts	8,58	8,96	4,27	3,53	2,72	2,63
24	Expenses of central administration compared with gross expenditure	9	6	6	7	8	7
25	Expenses of traffic service compared with gross expenditure	27	—	—	—	26	26
26	Expenses of maintenance service compared with gross expenditure	30	—	—	—	28	26
27	Expenses of traction service compared with gross expenditure	34	—	—	—	39	40
28	Passengers transported	742,394	679,620	864,563	961,222	1,164,405	1,349,250
29	Passenger kilometrage	63,637,230	54,798,994	69,335,791	75,747,110	90,984,579	100,282,126
30	Express goods traffic	2,948	4,357	3,278	3,903	3,670	4,184
31	Ton kilometrage	397,512	502,032	399,666	438,807	468,863	548,375
32	Slow goods traffic	592,935	899,276	776,366	813,114	1,148,713	1,169,583
33	Ton kilometrage	49,460,416	67,303,739	73,857,166	88,274,720	128,809,668	120,843,016

The post and telegraph offices at first restricted their operations to expediting the home and foreign postal or telegraph correspondence, and to issuing money orders.

It would be difficult to describe the exact state of the post and telegraph services at the time when they were taken over by the new Bulgarian Government, owing to the absence of exact statistical data. We gather, however, from some reports dealing with the period between April 1st and July 14th, 1880, that the cost of their maintenance was about 100,000 francs per month, or 1,200,000 per year, as against a revenue of 42,000 francs per month, or 504,000 francs per year. There was, therefore, a deficit of 700,000 francs.

During the same period, the operations of the post and telegraph services amounted to 30,000 telegraphic messages—home, foreign, and transit—per month, or 395,000 messages per annum, and 100,000 letters and parcels per month, or 1,200,000 per year. These figures, it should be added, only refer to Northern Bulgaria.

After the year 1880, the aspect of things changes and a great development in the two services is noticeable. About that date Bulgaria joined the International Postal Union, and was admitted to participate in the various International congresses. She also succeeded in obtaining the closing of the Austrian post offices at Sofia, Roustchouk, and Varna, which existed in virtue of the Capitulations, but whose further maintenance had become without object. The operations of the posts and telegraphs were gradually extended, the services of parcel-post, subscriptions to newspapers, home and foreign money orders, letters and parcels with declared value being introduced in the principal post offices. The union of Northern Bulgaria with Eastern Roumelia in September 1885 brought about the fusion of their postal administrations. On that occasion, and later on, during the Servo-Bulgarian war, the newly organised administration of the Bulgarian posts

and telegraphs proved that it was already capable of rendering the country great assistance in time of emergency.

During the year 1885, the various offices belonging to the postal and telegraph administration transmitted 642,566 home and foreign telegraphic messages and 5,438,272 letters or postal parcels. During the same period, the sums of money sent by postal orders or bills amounted to 23,424,562 francs.

At the commencement of 1886, there were 108 post and telegraph offices, with a staff of 1,011 officials and a telegraph network of 3,548 kilometres, representing 5,889 kilometres of wire. The revenue from the two services during 1886 was 1,257,830 francs, while the expenditure amounted to 2,206,154, thus leaving a deficit of 648,318 francs.

During the period of the following seven years (1886-1894), the development of the postal organisation of the Principality continued uninterrupted, notwithstanding the difficulties created by the political situation of the country and the heavy claims on the national exchequer. Seventeen new posts and telegraph offices were opened, while the Austrian post office at Plovdiv was abolished. Bulgaria concluded postal conventions with Roumania, Great Britain, Japan, Germany, Spain, etc. A telegraph cable was laid across the Danube, connecting Viddin with Kalafat. During that same period, the earliest foundations of the Bulgarian telephone system were laid down with the construction of a telephone line between Sofia and Plovdiv.

The condition of the Bulgarian posts and telegraphs during 1894 is shown by the following figures : 125 post and telegraph stations with a staff of 1,073 officials ; 3,894 kilometres of telegraph lines, representing 9,728 kilometres of telegraph wires ; 47 kilometres of urban telephone lines, with 299 kilometres of telephone ; 173 kilometres of intra-towns telephone lines, with 335 kilometres of telephone wires ;

Home and foreign telegrams transmitted, 1,234,263 ;

letters and postal parcels transmitted, 16,430,000 ; sums of money transmitted by post, 218,105,695 frs. ; expenditure, 2,534,263 frs. ; revenue, 2,303,474 frs. ; deficit, 230,789 frs.

The period from 1894 to the present day has been marked by several important reforms, which may be said to have completed the organisation of the Bulgarian posts and telegraphs.

(1) Until 1896 the town population was the only one which could avail itself of the post and telegraph services. Since then, however, the entire country, not excepting even the smallest village or hamlet, has been included in the system of rural posts which form part of the central organisation.

(2) Towards the same period, savings banks were introduced in the various post and telegraph offices. Some interesting figures relating to these important institutions will be given later on.

(3) The telephone service has been systematically organised and several new lines, among which those of Sofia-Roustchouk and Roustchouk-Varna, have been opened. A telephone service was at the same time introduced in these last two towns, while a cable crossing the Danube between Roustchouk and Jjurgevo has connected the Bulgarian and Roumanian telephone lines.

(4) A revision of the various postal tariffs has resulted in the reduction of certain taxes. Thus, the charge on home letters was reduced from 15 to 10 centimes per 15 grammes.

(5) The system of payment on delivery and of reimbursement was also introduced during the period in question ; 49 new post and telegraph stations and 1,779 postal agencies were opened throughout the country.

The present state of the Bulgarian posts, telegraphs, and telephones may be summed up as follows : 183 post and telegraph stations, of which 9 are summer offices and 24 travelling posts ; 1,758 postal agencies ; 3,495 officials, of

whom 1,758 are paid by the communes; telegraphs: 5,261 kilometres, representing 10,021 kilometres of telegraph wires; telephones: 145 kilometres of urban lines, with 1,900 kilometres of wires four central stations and 565 telephone posts; 900 kilometres of intra-towns telephone lines, with 1,420 kilometres of telephone wires; letters and parcels transmitted by the post per annum, 29,063,043; sums transmitted by post, 273,241,748 frs.

The cost of maintaining the post and telegraph organisation during 1903 amounted to 3,160,000 frs. The revenue for the same period was 3,373,553 francs, this leaving a surplus of 213,557 frs.

Such, briefly speaking, is the progress which the administration of the Bulgarian posts and telegraphs has been able to accomplish during its existence of twenty-five years.

1917



HARBOUR OF VARNA.

CHAPTER VI

FOREIGN COMMERCE

I. IMPORTS AND EXPORTS

WE have already given a table of the general commerce of Bulgaria from 1879 to 1904. In the present chapter, we propose to examine the foreign trade of Bulgaria from 1890 to 1904, arranged in quinquennial periods and according to the three main commercial routes: the Black Sea, the Danube, and the mainland.

The following table shows the movement of the imports and exports during these three periods:

IMPORTS

	1890-1894.		1895-1899.		1900-1904.	
	Millions of frs.	Per cent.	Millions of frs.	Per cent.	Millions of frs.	Per cent.
By sea ..	24·3	28·08	24·2	33·36	29·4	36·83
„ the Danube	31·9	36·86	24·6	33·92	21·6	27·06
„ land ..	30·4	35·06	23·7	32·72	28·8	36·11
Total	86·6	100·00	72·5	100·00	79·8	100·00

EXPORTS

By sea ..	28·5	37·39	30·6	41·83	46·7	46·11
„ the Danube	26·2	34·36	26·5	36·21	27·4	27·14
„ land ..	21·5	28·25	16·1	21·96	27·1	26·75
Total	76·2	100·00	73·2	100·00	101·2	100·00

TOTAL (IMPORTS AND EXPORTS)

By sea ..	52·8	32·44	54·8	37·62	76·1	42·02
„ the Danube	58·1	35·69	51·1	35·07	49·0	27·10
„ land ..	51·9	31·87	39·8	27·31	55·9	30·88
	162·8	100·00	145·7	100·00	181·0	100·00

If we compare the figures for the last period (1900-1904) with those for the first two periods, we shall find that the difference in the imports and exports is as follows :

IMPORTS

	1890-1894.		1895-1899.	
	Millions of fra.	Per cent.	Millions of fra.	Per cent.
By sea ..	+ 5·1	+ 8·75	+ 5·2	+ 3·47
„ the Danube	- 10·3	- 9·80	- 3·0	- 6·86
„ land ..	-	+ 1·05	+ 5·1	+ 3·39
Total	- 6·8		+ 7·3	

EXPORTS

By sea ..	+ 18·2	+ 8·72	+ 16·1	+ 4·28
„ the Danube	+ 1·2	- 7·22	+ 0·9	- 9·07
„ land ..	+ 5·6	- 1·50	+ 11·0	+ 4·79
Total	+ 25·0		+ 28·0	

TOTAL (IMPORTS AND EXPORTS)

By sea ..	+ 23·3	+ 9·58	+ 21·3	+ 4·40
„ the Danube	- 9·1	- 8·59	- 2·1	- 7·97
„ land ..	+ 4·0	- 0·99	+ 16·1	+ 3·57
Total	+ 18·2		+ 35·3	

The above figures show very clearly that there has been a progressive increase in the imports by the Black Sea. While, during the first period (1890-1894), the imports only

formed 28·08 p.c. and during the second period (1895-1899), 33·36 p.c. of the total importation, during the last period they rose to 36·83 p.c. The increase in the imports by sea has been mainly at the expense of those by way of the Danube which, in their turn, fell from 36·86 p.c. of the total importation during the first period and 33·92 p.c. during the second period to 27·06 p.c. during the period 1900-1904.

The imports by land have been somewhat unsteady : from 36·05 p.c. of the total importation during the first quinquennial period, they fell to 32·72 p.c. during the second period, in order to rise again to 36·11 p.c. during the period 1900-1904. The imports by sea during this last period have been by 8·75 p.c. superior to those of the first period and by 3·47 p.c. to those of the second period ; whereas the imports by way of the Danube have, during the last period, been by 9·80 p.c. inferior to those during the first period, and by 6·88 p.c. to those of the second period. The imports by land have been by 1·05 p.c. inferior to those during the first period and by 3·39 p.c. to those of the second period.

The importation by sea is principally made through the ports of Varna and Bourgas. The imports by way of Varna during the first quinquennial period attained 17·74 p.c. of the total importation and 63·17 p.c. of the importation by sea ; during the second period, they were 20·89 p.c. and 62·59 p.c. respectively, while during the last period they formed 27·54 p.c. of the total importation, and 74·77 p.c. of the importations by sea. The imports by way of Bourgas formed, during the first period, 9·58 p.c. of the total importation and 34·12 p.c. of the importation by sea ; during the second period, 11·87 p.c. and 35·58 p.c., and during the period 1900-1904, 8·80 p.c. and 23·90 p.c. respectively.

The importation by way of the Danube is made in the following ports :

At Roustchouk, where the imports during the first quin-

quennial period formed 15·17 p.c. of the total importation and 41·15 p.c. of that by way of the Danube; during the second period 16·29 p.c. and 43·04 p.c., and during the last period 14·96 p.c. and 55·34 p.c. respectively.

The imports by way of Sistova formed 8·53 p.c. of the total importation and 23·13 p.c. of that by way of the Danube, during the first period; 6·65 p.c. and 19·59 p.c. during the second period, whereas during the last period they fell to 3·77 p.c. and 13·91 p.c. respectively.

The imports through the customs-house at Somovit, which was only opened during the last period, after Somovit had been connected with Plevna by a railway line, formed 2·25 p.c. of the total importation and 8·32 p.c. of that by way of the Danube.

At Widdin, where the imports formed 3·31 p.c. of the total importation and 8·99 p.c. of that by way of the Danube, during the first period, 2·36 p.c. and 7·02 p.c. during the second period, and 1·95 p.c. and 7·23 p.c. respectively, during the last period.

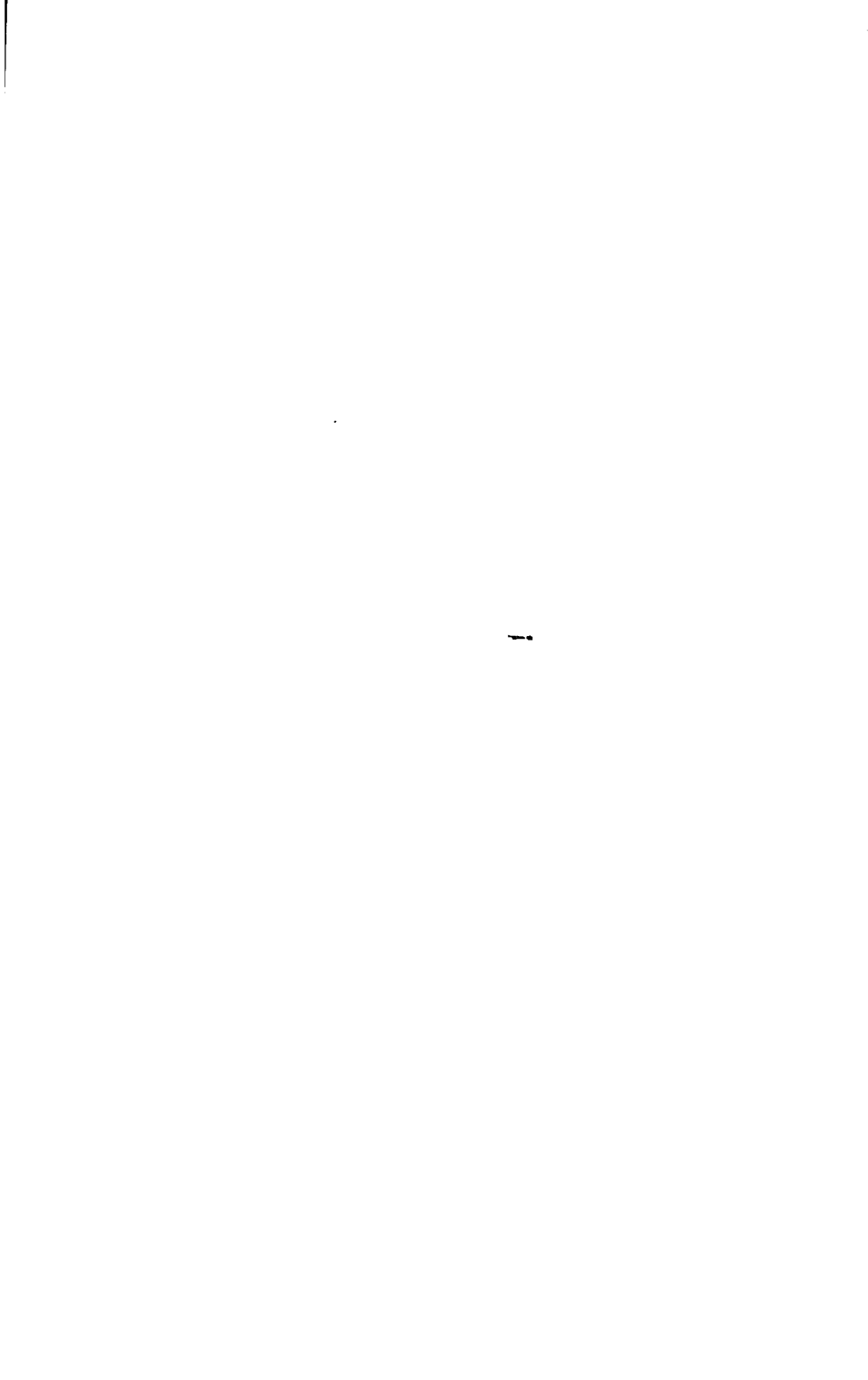
At Oréhovo, where the imports during the first period formed 2·77 p.c. of the total importation, and 7·52 p.c. of that by way of the Danube, 3·02 p.c. and 8·92 p.c., respectively, during the second period, and 1·51 p.c. and 5·60 p.c. respectively, during the last period.

The importation by land and by railway is principally made through the customs-houses of Sofia, Plovdiv and Harmanly. The imports through the customs-house at Sofia formed 14·96 p.c. of the total importation and 42·66 p.c. of that by way of the land, during the first period, 15·37 p.c. and 46·97 p.c., respectively, during the second period, while during the last quinquennial period they rose to 18·74 p.c. and 51·90 p.c. respectively.

The imports through the customs-house at Plovdiv during the first period formed 13·78 p.c. of the total importation



HARBOUR OF BOURGAS.



and 39·28 p.c. of that by land, 14·07 p.c. and 43·01 p.c., respectively, during the second period, and 13·69 p.c. and 37·92 p.c. during the period 1900-1904.

The imports through the customs-house at Harmanly formed 3·60 p.c. of the total importation and 10·7 p.c. of that by land during the first period, 1·67 p.c. and 5·09 p.c., respectively, during the second period, and 2·25 p.c. and 6·24 p.c. during the last period.

The figures in the table which we have given also show that the exports by sea have increased, but more gradually than is the case with the imports. This increase has been at the expense of the exports by the two other channels, especially of those by way of the Danube. Thus, the exports by way of the Black Sea during the first period (1890-1894) formed 37·39 p.c. of the total exportation; during the second period (1895-1899) they rose to 41·83 p.c., while during the last period (1900-1904) they reached 46·11 p.c. On the other hand, the exports by way of the Danube have fallen to 27·14 p.c. of the total exportation during the last period. These exports formed during the first period 34·36 p.c. and 36·21 p.c. during the second period.

The exports by land during the last period, as compared with those during the second period, have risen from 21·96 p.c. to 26·75 p.c. of the total exportation.

The exports by sea during the last period show an increase of 8·72 p.c., as compared with those during the first period and 4·28 p.c., as compared with those during the second period. On the other hand, the exports by way of the Danube during the last period have decreased by 7·22 p.c., as compared with those of the first period, and by 9·07 p.c., as compared with the second period. As regards the exports by land, during the last period they have been 1·50 p.c. lower than those of the first period and 4·79 p.c. higher than those of the second period.

The exports by sea are made chiefly through the ports of Varna, Bourgas, and Balchik. At the port of Varna they formed, during the first quinquennial period, 16·83 p.c. of the total exportation and 45·02 p.c. of the exportation by sea; during the second period they formed 17·58 p.c. and 42·03 p.c., respectively, while during the last period they rose to 19·52 p.c. and 42·33 p.c.

The exports by way of Bourgas formed, during the first period, 11·72 p.c. of the total exportation and 31·35 p.c. of the exportation by sea; during the second period they formed 16·21 p.c. and 38·74 p.c., and during the last period 17·50 p.c. and 37·95 p.c., respectively.

The exports through the port of Balchik formed, during the first period, 7·94 p.c. of the total exportation and 21·23 p.c. of the exportation by sea; during the second period they formed 7·22 p.c. and 17·20 p.c., and during the last period 8·88 p.c. and 19·25 p.c., respectively.

The exportation by way of the Danube is made through the following ports:

Oréhovo, where the exports during the first period formed 4·56 p.c. of the total exportation and 13·26 p.c. of the exportation by way of the Danube; during the second period 5·11 p.c. and 14·12 p.c., respectively, and 4·24 p.c. and 15·62 p.c. during the last quinquennial period.

The exports through the port of Sistova, during the first period, formed 6·73 p.c. of the total exportation and 13·26 p.c. of the exportation by way of the Danube; they formed 6·32 p.c. and 17·44 p.c. during the second period, and 3·86 p.c. and 14·22 p.c. during the last period.

The exports by way of the port of Roustchouk, during the same period, formed 4·72 p.c., 5·12 p.c., and 3·63 p.c. of the total exportation and 13·73 p.c., 14·13 p.c., and 13·38 p.c. of the exportation by way of the Danube.

The exports by way of Viddin represent 4·12 p.c. of the

total exportation during the first period; 4·12 p.c. during the second period, and 4·34 p.c. during the last period. During the same periods, they formed 11·97 p.c., 11·98 p.c., and 13·30 p.c. respectively, of the total imports by way of the Danube.

The exports through Lom formed 2·72 p.c. of the general exportation during the first period, 3·41 p.c. during the second period, and 3·40 p.c. during the last period. They represented, during the same periods, 7·90 p.c., 9·43 p.c., and 12·53 p.c. of the exportation by way of the Danube.

As regards the exportation by land, the exports through the customs-house at Harmanly occupy the first place. They represented 15·67 p.c. of the general exportation, and 55·99 p.c. of the exportation by land, during the first period; 11·37 p.c. and 51·78 p.c. during the second, and 8·62 p.c. and 32·21 p.c. during the last period.

The customs-house at Sofia comes next, with 1·42 p.c. of the total exportation during the first period; 4·05 p.c. during the second period, and 7·63 p.c. during the last period. The exports through Sofia during the same periods formed 5·03 p.c., 18·44 p.c. and 28·53 p.c. of the total exportation by land. The great increase in the exports by way of Sofia is due principally to the development of the egg trade, which during the last few years has been carried almost exclusively by way of Sofia-Tzaribrod, and to some extent also to the increased exportation of animal waste products:

In the third place comes the customs-house at Plovdiv, with 3·36 p.c. of the total exports during the first period; 3·31 p.c. during the second period, and 6·18 during the last period. The proportion as regards the imports by land was 11·89 p.c., 15·08 p.c. and 23·11 p.c., respectively. One of the main causes for the increase in the exports by way of Plovdiv is to be found in the recent troubles in Macedonia and the vilayet of Adrianople, these having diverted a con-

siderable part of the exports which were formerly made by way of the frontier customs-houses, to the railway line Plovdiv-Harmanly, and from there to Constantinople-Adrianople-Dede Agatch, this latter route offering greater security.

The preceding figures establish, therefore, that during the last few years commerce has greatly developed in the direction of the maritime ports of Bulgaria. This is due principally to the construction of the railway lines Yambol-Bourgas and Sofia-Plevna-Varna, which connect the interior of the country with the two main ports on the Black Sea, Varna and Bourgas. A great proportion of the cereals from Southern Bulgaria, which were formerly exported to Constantinople and Deda Agatch by way of Harmanly, are now directed to Bourgas. In the same way, the cereals from Northern Bulgaria which, before the construction of the railway line Sofia-Varna, were exported by way of the Danube, are now being sent to Varna. This result from the construction of the said railway lines is sufficiently explained by the situation of the two main Bulgarian ports, and by the great facilities which they present for the commercial relations of Bulgaria with the outside world.

The next few tables show the foreign trade of Bulgaria, as distributed with respect to the origin or destination of the articles imported and exported. The different countries are arranged according to the average amount of their imports and exports during the last quinquennial period. The absolute value of the imports and exports, as well as their relation to the total importation and exportation, are given for each country with which Bulgaria has commercial dealings. The tables also give for each country the absolute and relative difference between the period 1900-1904 and the first two quinquennial periods.



HARBOUR OF BOURGAS.

1

As regards the quantity of the imports, Austria-Hungary has occupied during the last fifteen years the first place. The imports from this country attained their highest point during the period 1890-1894, when they rose to 37.5 per cent. of the total importation of Bulgaria. Since then, however, a considerable decrease is noticeable, the second period representing only 28.9 per cent. and the third period 27.3 per cent. of the total importation. This fall is due to the fact that during the first period the general importation of Bulgaria was much greater than it has been since (fourteen millions of francs more than in the second period and seven millions more, as compared with the last period). This appreciable decrease in the total importation must have been principally at the expense of Austria-Hungary, as during the first period the other countries had as yet no Bulgarian markets for their produce, and could hardly compete with the imports from Austria-Hungary.

Next in importance, as regards the quantity of imports, comes England. The imports from this country show a continual decrease with respect to their absolute value, but are rather unsteady as compared with the total importation of Bulgaria. Thus, while during the first period they represented 21.8 per cent. of the total importation, they rose to 23.8 per cent. during the second period, and fell again to 17.6 per cent. during the period 1900-1904.

Turkey comes immediately after England, with a shifting importation. The imports from that country during the first period formed 12.3 per cent. of the total importation. During the second period they fell to 11.6 per cent., while during the last quinquennial period they rose to 13.8 per cent. of the total importation.

Then come Germany, Italy, France, and Russia, with an ever-increasing importation. Thus, the imports from Germany during the first period reached 9.5 per cent. of the total

IMPORTS

No.	COUNTRY OF ORIGIN.	PERIODS.					
		1890-1894.		1895-1899.		1900-1904.	
		Fra.	Per cent.	Fra.	Per cent.	Fra.	Per cent.
1	Austria-Hungary . .	32,544,557	37·5	20,933,925	28·9	21,802,178	27·3
2	England . .	18,847,894	21·8	17,255,951	23·8	14,070,067	17·6
3	Turkey . .	10,687,268	12·3	8,432,011	11·6	11,029,112	13·8
4	Germany . .	8,247,176	9·5	9,181,217	12·7	10,978,719	13·8
5	Italy . .	1,849,735	2·1	2,727,462	3·8	5,386,180	6·8
6	France . .	3,684,577	4·3	3,603,348	5·0	4,088,789	6·2
7	Russia . .	4,406,321	5·1	3,451,508	4·8	4,122,435	5·2
8	Roumania . .	2,093,029	2·4	1,920,505	2·6	2,301,531	2·9
9	Belgium . .	1,697,749	2·0	2,293,292	3·2	2,268,115	2·8
10	Servia . .	1,067,864	1·2	1,008,495	1·4	868,086	1·1
11	Switzerland . .	999,440	1·2	651,759	0·9	695,120	0·9
12	Greece . .	195,440	0·2	474,938	0·6	340,129	0·4
13	United States	102,360	0·1	256,786	0·3	329,888	0·4
14	Holland . .	93,959	0·1	61,037	0·1	311,955	0·4
15	Sweden and Norway . .	60,579	0·1	61,881	0·1	66,231	0·1
16	Other countries	77,801	0·1	176,512	0·2	266,430	0·3
	Total . .	86,655,749	100·-	72,490,627	100·-	79,824,965	100·-

DIFFERENCES IN IMPORTS

No.	COUNTRY OF ORIGIN.	DURING THE PERIOD 1900-1904, MORE OR LESS.			
		1890-1894.		1895-1899.	
		Frs.	Per cent.	Frs.	Per cent.
1	Austria-Hungary .	- 10,742,379	33'0	+ 868,253	4'1
2	England. . . .	- 4,777,827	25'3	- 3,185,884	18'5
3	Turkey	+ 341,844	3'2	+ 2,597,101	30'8
4	Germany	+ 2,731,543	33'1	+ 1,797,502	19'6
5	Italy	+ 3,536,445	191'1	+ 2,658,718	97'5
6	France	+ 1,304,212	35'4	+ 1,385,441	38'4
7	Russia	- 283,886	6'4	+ 670,927	19'4
8	Roumania	+ 208,502	10'0	+ 381,026	19'8
9	Belgium	+ 570,366	33'6	- 25,177	1'1
10	Servia	- 199,778	18'7	- 140,409	13'9
11	Switzerland . . .	- 304,320	30'4	+ 43,361	6'7
12	Greece	+ 144,689	74'0	- 134,809	28'4
13	United States. . .	+ 227,528	222'3	+ 73,102	28'5
14	Holland	+ 217,996	232'0	+ 250,918	411'1
15	Sweden and Norway	+ 5,652	9'3	+ 4,350	7'0
16	Other countries .	+ 188,629	242'5	+ 89,918	50'9
	Total	- 6,830,784	7'9	+ 7,334,338	10'1

EXPORTS

No.	COUNTRY OF ORIGIN.	PERIODS.					
		1890-1894.		1895-1899.		1900-1904.	
		Frs.	Per cent.	Frs.	Per cent.	Frs.	Per cent.
1	Belgium .	1,218,129	1·6	6,169,539	8·4	23,121,658	22·9
2	Turkey .	22,389,260	29·4	18,688,287	25·5	22,690,585	22·4
3	England .	13,673,881	17·9	16,907,719	23·1	18,254,797	18·0
4	Germany .	8,465,456	11·1	10,508,855	14·4	9,333,581	9·2
5	Austria-Hungary .	3,448,086	4·5	4,677,645	6·4	9,003,100	8·9
6	France .	17,241,587	22·6	9,516,058	13·0	6,524,962	6·5
7	Greece .	399,905	0·5	870,012	1·2	3,488,393	3·4
8	Italy .	1,681,797	2·2	1,419,520	1·9	2,975,279	2·9
9	Roumania .	800,491	1·1	503,817	0·7	1,294,784	1·3
10	United States	20,055	0·0	181,574	0·2	660,030	0·7
11	Servia .	286,122	0·4	274,226	0·4	627,752	0·6
12	Holland .	79,284	0·1	566,801	0·8	281,544	0·3
13	Russia .	42,351	0·1	98,775	0·1	204,407	0·2
14	Switzerland .	9,335	0·0	6,686	0·0	199,932	0·2
15	Other countries	—	—	—	—	1,137,214	1·1
16	Not ascertained	6,458,439	8·5	2,874,514	3·9	1,427,876	1·4
	Total .	76,214,178	100·-	73,244,028	100·-	101,225,894	100·-

DIFFERENCES IN EXPORTS

No.	COUNTRY OF ORIGIN.	DURING THE PERIOD 1900-1904, MORE OR LESS.			
		1890-1894.		1895-1899.	
		Frs.	Per cent.	Frs.	Per cent.
1	Belgium . . .	21,903,529	1798·1	+ 16,952,119	374·8
2	Turkey . . .	+ 301,325	1·3	+ 4,022,298	21·5
3	England . . .	+ 4,580,916	33·5	+ 1,347,078	8·0
4	Germany . . .	+ 868,125	10·3	- 1,175,274	11·2
5	Austria-Hungary .	+ 5,555,014	161·1	+ 4,325,455	92·5
6	France . . .	- 10,716,625	62·2	- 2,991,096	31·4
7	Greece . . .	+ 3,082,488	772·3	+ 2,618,381	301·0
8	Italy . . .	+ 1,293,482	76·9	+ 1,555,759	109·6
9	Roumania . . .	+ 494,293	61·7	+ 790,967	157·0
10	United States . .	+ 639,975	3191·1	+ 478,456	263·5
11	Servia . . .	+ 341,630	119·4	+ 353,526	128·9
12	Holland . . .	+ 202,260	255·1	- 285,257	50·3
13	Russia . . .	+ 162,056	382·6	+ 105,632	106·9
14	Switzerland . .	+ 190,597	2041·7	+ 193,246	2890·3
15	Other countries .	+ 1,137,214	0·0	+ 1,137,214	0·0
16	Not ascertained .	- 5,030,563	77·9	- 1,446,638	50·3
	Total . . .	+ 25,011,716	32·8	+ 27,981,866	38·2

importation, they rose to 12·7 per cent. during the second period, and to 13·8 p.c. during the last period. The imports from Italy formed 2·1 p.c. of the total importation during the first period, 3·8 p.c. during the second, and 6·8 p.c. during the last. The imports from France represented 7·3 p.c. of the total importation during the first period, 5 p.c. during the second, and 6·2 p.c. during the last. The imports from Russia, which during the last period rose to 5·2 p.c. of the total importation, formed 4·8 p.c. during the second and 5·1 p.c. during the first.

Belgium, Servia, etc., come after Russia, but the imports from these countries are considerably smaller and the variations are not so important.

A comparison between the import trade of the last period and that of the two preceding ones shows a considerable increase in the imports from the following countries: Italy, 3·5 millions of francs, or an increase of 191·1 p.c. as compared with the first period; Germany, 2·7 millions of francs, or 33·1 p.c.; France, 1·3 millions of francs, or 35·4 p.c.; and Belgium, 0·6 million of francs, or 33·6 p.c. During the same period, the imports have decreased by 10·7 millions of francs, or 33·0 p.c. in the case of Austria-Hungary and by 4·8 millions of francs, or 25·3 p.c. in the case of England.

The increase in the imports during the last period, as compared with those during the second period, has been the greatest in the case of the following countries: Italy, 2·6 millions, or 30·8 p.c. more; Germany, 1·8 millions, or 19·6 p.c. more; France, 1·4 millions, or 38·7 p.c. more; Austria-Hungary 0·9 million, or 4·1 p.c. more; Russia, 0·7 million, or 19·4 p.c. more, etc. On the other hand, the imports from England have decreased by 3·2 millions of francs, or 30·8 p.c.

It will be seen from the table of exports that our export trade with Belgium has greatly and rapidly developed, rising from 1·2 millions of francs during the first period to 6·2 millions

during the second period, while during the period 1900-1904 it reached a total of 23·1 millions of francs. Putting it in different terms, while our exports to Belgium represented during the first period 1·6 p.c., and during the second period 8·4 p.c. of the total exportation, they rose during the last period to 22·4 p.c., or nearly a quarter of the total exportation of Bulgaria. Belgium is, therefore, the most important buyer of our products, and especially of our cereals.

For a period of fifteen years, Turkey was the country to which the greatest part of the Bulgarian exports went. They amounted to 22·3 millions of francs, or 29·4 p.c. of the total exportation, during the first quinquennial period; to 18·7 millions, or 25·5 p.c. during the second, and to 22·7 millions, or 22·4 p.c. during the period 1900-1904. Turkey has been thus far the only country where our cattle and the products of our industry have been able to find profitable markets.

England is the second largest importer of our cereals, coming with 17·9 p.c. of the total exports during the first period, 28·1 p.c. during the second, and 18·0 p.c. during the period 1900-1904.

Then follows Germany, especially as regards the Bulgarian cereals; Austria-Hungary, with raw animal and other materials, and France with cereals.

In the last place come Greece, Italy, and Roumania. Our exports to these countries are not so important, but here also there has been a certain increase in the exports during the period 1900-1904.

The increase in the exports during the period 1900-1904, as compared with those during the first period, is especially noticeable in the case of the following countries: Belgium, with an increase of 21·9 million francs, or 8,798·1 p.c.; Austria-Hungary, 5·6 millions, or 161·1 p.c.; England, 4·6 millions, or 33·5 p.c.; Greece, 3·1 millions, or 772·3 p.c.; Italy, 1·3 millions, or 10·3 p.c.; the United States, 0·6 million,

or 3,191·1 p.c., etc. The exports to France, on the other hand, have decreased by 10·7 millions of francs, or 62·2 p.c.

The exports during the last quinquennial period, compared with those during the second period (1895-1899), have increased as regards the following countries : Belgium, 17·0 millions of francs, or 274·8 p.c. ; Austria-Hungary, 4·3 millions, or 92·5 p.c. Turkey, 4 millions, or 21·5 p.c. ; Greece, 2·6 millions, or 301·0 p.c. ; Italy, 1·6 millions, or 109·6 p.c. ; England, 1·3 millions, or 8·0 p.c. The exports to France have decreased by 3 millions of francs, or 31·4 p.c., and those to Germany by 1·2 millions, or 11·2 p.c.

In order to give a more clear idea of the Bulgarian import and export trade, the table on the opposite page has been arranged so as to show the relation between our exports and imports during the last three quinquennial periods, as also the value of our exports corresponding to every 100 francs' worth of imports from other countries.

By means of this table, we can better understand the character of the commercial relations of Bulgaria with the various other countries, and so form a truer idea of what the commercial policy of our country towards those countries should be. We can also ascertain from it what quantities of goods we export to those countries, as against the goods which we buy from them. As regards this latter point, we find that for every 100 francs' worth of imports we export goods of a smaller value in the case of the following countries : Russia, 5 francs ; Switzerland, 29 francs ; Austria, 41 francs ; Italy, 55 francs ; Roumania, 56 francs ; Servia, 72 francs ; Germany, 85 francs ; and Holland, 90 francs. As regards the remaining countries, the case is the reverse, our exports being larger than our imports. Thus, our exports to Belgium and Greece were ten times larger than our imports from those countries ; in the case of Turkey and the United States, they were double our imports, while the exports to France were

EXPORTS

No.	COUNTRY.	PERIODS.		
		1890-1894.	1895-1899.	1900-1904.
		For 100 francs' worth of imports.		
1	Austria-Hungary	10'6	22'3	41'3
2	England	72'5	98'0	129'7
3	Turkey	209'5	221'4	205'7
4	Germany.	102'6	114'5	85'0
5	Italy	90'9	52'0	55'2
6	France	467'9	264'1	130'8
7	Russia	1'0	2'9	5'0
8	Roumania	38'2	26'2	56'3
9	Belgium	71'7	269'0	1019'4
10	Servia	26'8	27'2	72'3
11	Switzerland	0'9	1'0	28'8
12	Greece	204'6	183'2	1025'6
13	United States.	19'6	70'7	200'1
14	Holland	84'4	928'6	90'3
	Total	88'0	101'0	126'8

30 p.c. higher than the imports. The proportion between the exports and imports is almost the same during the first two quinquennial periods.

As regards the variations in the foreign trade of Bulgaria during the same three periods, we find that the Bulgarian exports to France during the first period amounted to 467'9 p.c. as against every 100 francs' worth of imports from that country ;

during the second period they were 264·17 p.c., and during the period 1900-1904, 130·8 p.c. A similar decrease is to be observed in the Bulgarian exports to Germany: from 102·6 p.c. during the first period and 114·5 p.c. during the second, they fell during the period 1900-1904 to 85 p.c., as against every 100 francs' worth of imports from Germany. In the case of Belgium, the reverse is true: our exports to that country, which during the first period hardly amounted to 71·7 p.c., rose during the second period to 269·9 p.c., and during the last period to 1,019·4 p.c., as against every 100 francs' worth of Belgian goods imported by Bulgaria. The increase in the Bulgarian exports to the remaining countries, viz. Greece, the United States, England, etc., has been proportionate to the increase in the Bulgarian imports from those countries. In the last place, the table proves that the general export trade of Bulgaria, as compared with her import trade, has considerably increased during the last two quinquennial periods. Thus, while during the first period to every 100 francs' worth of imports there corresponded only about 88 francs' worth of exports, during the second period these latter were slightly superior to the imports, whereas during the period 1900-1904 they had exceeded the imports by more than 25 per cent.

One of the most important questions in dealing with the foreign trade of a country is to know in what this trade consists, and what are the imports and exports of which it is composed. We can thus determine what are the articles for which a demand is felt, and what are those which the country produces in excess.

The Bulgarian statistical authorities group the various articles comprised in the Bulgarian commerce into 28 categories, which are in their turn subdivided into 890 different kinds of goods.

The tables which we give on pp. 246-49 have been arranged

for the purpose of showing the average foreign importation into Bulgaria during the last three quinquennial periods, as distributed in categories of goods, and the average exportation from Bulgaria during the same number of years, as distributed in kinds of goods. In addition to the absolute figures for every category or kind of articles imported or exported, the tables in question contain also the absolute and relative percentage of the general importation and exportation during the last quinquennial period, as compared with the first two periods (Tables I. and II.).

As regards the quantity of imports, the first place in the foreign importation during the three quinquennial periods has been held by the category "textile materials and products." This category represented 39·8 p.c. of the total importation during the first period, 34·1 p.c. during the second period, and 35·7 p.c. during the period 1900-1904. The increase in the importation of those articles during the last period amounts to 7·6 millions of francs, or 10·1 p.c., as compared with the first period, and to 3·7 millions of francs, or 15·1 p.c., as compared with the same imports during the second period. The imports of textile articles have been continually increasing notwithstanding the great development of the textile industry in Bulgaria. The explanation of this fact will be found in the progress of our people, which from year to year tries to dress better and to live more comfortably and hygienically than in the past.

Next after the textile articles comes the category "metals, and products of the metallurgical industry," with 8·9 p.c. of the total importation during the first period, 11·7 p.c. during the second, and 9·5 p.c. during the last period. The imports of metals and products of the metallurgical industry during the period 1900-1904 have decreased by 0·2 million francs, as compared with the first period, and by 0·9 million francs, as compared with the second period.

IMPORTS

No.	CATEGORIES OF GOODS.	PERIODS.					
		1890-1894.		1895-1899.		1900-1904.	
		Frs.	Per cent.	Frs.	Per cent.	Frs.	Per cent.
1	Live animals	512,365	0·6	490,492	0·7	489,440	0·6
2	Animal food stuffs	1,370,482	1·6	1,345,770	1·9	1,283,390	1·6
3	Cereals and diverse wheat products	1,739,119	2·0	1,159,798	1·6	917,638	1·1
4	Fruits, grains, and vegetables	551,040	0·6	604,572	0·8	1,145,639	1·4
5	Colonial produce	8,193,273	9·4	5,304,280	7·3	5,244,021	6·6
6	Spirituous drinks	3,944,497	4·6	1,080,303	1·5	477,798	0·6
7	Preserves and sweets	894,566	1·0	591,811	0·8	1,100,605	1·4
8	Manure and waste	139,083	0·2	152,511	0·2	192,040	0·2
9	Combustibles	739,708	0·9	747,050	1·0	761,002	1·0
10	Chemical products	520,613	0·6	613,630	0·9	1,026,778	1·3
11	Tannins and dyeing stuffs : paints and varnish	1,130,075	1·3	1,193,693	1·6	1,412,280	1·8
12	Resins, minerals, oils, and pastes	2,833,741	3·3	2,324,882	3·2	3,219,823	4·0
13	Oils, fats, wax, and their derivatives	3,349,082	3·9	2,889,561	4·0	3,349,085	4·2

14	Articles for medical use (drugs) and medicines	539,072	0'6	503,231	0'7	470,297	0'6
15	Perfumes	153,099	0'2	115,577	0'2	161,065	0'2
16	Stones, earth, glass, and their products	2,456,230	2'8	2,536,836	3'5	1,998,682	2'5
17	Metals and products of the metallurgical industry	7,701,012	8'9	8,454,077	11'7	7,539,646	9'5
18	Raw materials and products of wood.	4,051,666	4'7	3,794,591	5'2	2,260,917	2'8
19	Paper materials and products	1,854,618	2'1	1,777,236	2'5	2,060,913	2'6
20	Skins, products of fellmongery	4,474,063	5'2	3,945,212	5'5	5,071,747	6'4
21	Textile materials and products.	25,871,975	29'8	24,743,932	34'1	28,485,172	35'7
22	India-rubber, gutta-percha, and their products	291,111	0'3	362,898	0'5	417,263	0'5
23	Railway cars, carriages, and ships	810,453	0'9	536,598	0'7	815,564	1'0
24	Machines, instruments, and apparatuses	6,695,361	7'7	2,264,153	5'9	5,612,703	7'0
25	Ironmongery, toy-trade, and articles of luxury (jewellery)	664,643	0'8	528,661	0'7	476,322	0'6
26	Articles of literature and of plastic art.	221,599	0'3	233,687	0'3	306,006	0'4
27	Articles not mentioned in the other categories	4,953,203	5'7	2,195,586	3'0	3,529,129	4'4
	Total.	86,655,749	100''	72,490,628	100''	79,824,965	100''

DIFFERENCES IN IMPORTS AS COMPARED WITH THE PERIOD 1900—1904

No.	CATEGORIES OF GOODS.	PERIODS.					
		1890—1894.			1895—1899.		
		Fra.	Per cent.	Fra.	Per cent.	Fra.	Per cent.
1	Live animals	-	22,925	4.5	-	1,052	0.2
2	Animal food stuffs	-	87,092	6.4	-	62,380	4.6
3	Cereals and diverse products of wheat	-	821,481	47.2	-	242,190	20.9
4	Fruits, vegetables, and grains	+	594,599	107.9	+	541,067	89.5
5	Colonial products	-	2,949,232	36.0	-	60,259	1.1
6	Spirituous drinks	-	3,466,699	87.9	-	602,505	55.8
7	Preserves and sweets	+	206,039	23.0	+	508,794	86.0
8	Manure and waste	+	52,957	38.1	+	39,529	25.9
9	Combustibles	+	21,294	2.9	+	13,952	1.9
10	Chemical products	+	506,165	97.2	+	413,148	67.3
11	Tannins and dyeing matters, paints and varnish	+	282,205	25.0	+	218,387	18.3
12	Resins, minerals, oils, and pastes	+	386,082	13.6	+	894,941	38.5
13	Oils, fats, wax, and their produce	+	3	0.0	+	459,524	15.9

14	Articles for medical use (drugs) and medicines	-	68,775	12·8	-	32,934	6·5
15	Perfumes	+	7,966	5·2	+	45,488	39·4
16	Stones, clay, glass, and their produce.	-	457,548	18·6	-	538,154	21·2
17	Metals and products of the metallurgical industry	-	1,790,749	2·1	-	914,431	10·8
18	Raw material and products of wood industry and sculpture	-	161,366	44·2	-	1,533,674	40·4
19	Paper materials and products	+	206,295	11·1	+	283,677	16·0
20	Skins and products of fellmongery	+	597,684	13·4	+	1,126,535	28·6
21	Textile materials and products	+	2,613,197	10·1	+	3,741,240	15·1
22	India-rubber, gutta-percha, and their products	+	126,152	43·3	+	54,365	15·0
23	Railway cars, carriages, and ships	+	5,111	0·6	+	278,966	52·0
24	Machines, instruments, and apparatuses	-	1,082,658	16·2	-	1,348,550	31·6
25	Ironmongery, toy-trade, and articles of luxury (jewellery)	-	188,321	28·3	-	52,339	9·9
26	Articles of literature and plastic art	+	84,407	38·1	+	72,319	30·9
27	Articles not mentioned in the other categories	-	1,424,074	28·8	+	1,333,543	60·7
	Total	-	6,830,784	7·9	+	7,334,337	10·1

₹

Then follow the categories "machines, instruments, apparatuses," with a decrease of 1.1 million francs, or 16.9 p.c. during the period 1900-1904, as compared with the first period, and an increase of 1.3 million francs, as compared with the second period; "colonial products," with a decrease of 2.9 million francs during the last period, as compared with the first; "hides and fellmongery," with an increase of 0.6 million francs during the last period, as compared with the first, and 1.1 million francs, as compared with the second.

The fall in the imports of textile articles during the last period, as compared with the first, is principally due to the reduced orders placed by the War Office, while the decrease in the importation of the articles belonging to the second category, such as sugar products, coffee, and tea, is to be explained by the fact that large quantities of these goods were imported towards the end of the first period, in order to escape the duties imposed on them by the new excise law. The rise in the imports of the last category of goods is due to increased importation of leather articles and furs during the last period.

In the tables dealing with the exports, the goods are arranged according to their quantity during the last period. The goods enumerated in these tables practically exhaust the whole foreign trade, representing as they do 99.5 p.c. of the total exportation of the country.

The average exportation of cereals (wheat, maize, rye, oats, canary-seed, etc.) rose to 58 million francs during the first period, to 54 million francs during the second, and to 62 million francs during the third period. It represented nearly 76 p.c. of the total exportation during the first period, 75 p.c. during the second, and 62 p.c. during the period 1900-1904. If we add to the cereals the exports of the other agricultural products (colza, tobacco, beans, peas, fruits, etc.) and those which are intimately connected with agriculture (cattle,

poultry, eggs, etc.), we shall find that the exports of agricultural products represented 80 p.c. to 85 p.c. of the total exportation, while the exports in manufactured foods, animal waste, and others, only amounted to 15-20 p.c. (Tables III. and IV.).

If we compare our export trade during the last quinquennial period with that of the two preceding ones, we shall find that the exports during the period 1900-1904 have decreased only in the case of wheat and corn, by 8 million francs, or 19 p.c., as compared with the other two periods. On the other hand, the exportation of several other products has increased. Thus, the exports of maize have increased by 5.5 million francs, or 54.5 p.c., as compared with the first period, and by 8.2 million francs, or 107.9 p.c., as compared with the second period; eggs, by 5.1 million francs, or 93.5 p.c., more than in the first period, and by 4.4 million francs, or 362.7 p.c., more than in the second period; barley, by 4.2 million francs, or 283 p.c. more than during the first period, and 4.1 million francs, or 254.8 p.c., more than during the second period; oats, by 2.4 million francs, or 772.7 p.c., more than in the first period, and by 2.5 million francs, or 1,268.8 p.c., more than in the second period; wheat flour by 2.3 million francs, or 381.6 p.c., more than in the first period, and by 1.9 million francs, or 178.5 p.c., more than in the second period; colza, by 1.5 million francs, or 498.1 p.c., more than in the first period, and by 1.8 million francs, or 1672.9 p.c., more than in the second period; silk-worm cocoons, by 1.7 million francs, or 370.2 p.c., more than in the first period, and by 0.2 million francs, or 135.1 p.c., more than in the second period; rye, by 0.7 million francs, or 25.3 p.c., more than in the first period, and by 1.6 million francs, or 86.1 p.c., more than in the second period.

III.—EXPORTS

No.	DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	PERIODS.					
		1890—1894.		1895—1899.		1900—1904.	
		Fra.	Per cent.	Fra.	Per cent.	Fra.	Per cent.
1	Wheat	43,201,208	56·7	43,405,973	59·3	35,138,244	34·7
2	Maize	10,228,085	13·4	7,601,525	10·4	15,803,601	15·6
3	Eggs	548,203	0·7	1,226,179	1·7	5,673,942	5·6
4	Barley	1,479,744	1·9	1,598,553	2·2	5,671,686	5·6
5	Rye	2,666,349	3·5	1,815,285	2·5	3,377,547	3·3
6	Attar of roses	569,549	0·8	2,114,917	2·9	2,986,726	3·0
7	Sheep and lambs	3,024,264	4·0	2,340,576	3·2	2,961,329	2·9
8	Wheat flour	601,733	0·8	1,040,405	1·4	2,897,653	2·9
9	Oats	307,569	0·4	196,125	0·3	2,684,105	2·6
10	Silkworm cocoons	516,446	0·7	922,976	1·3	2,170,027	2·1
11	Kaschkaval (kind of cheese)	1,113,689	1·5	1,057,307	1·4	2,054,403	2·0
12	Colza	311,880	0·4	105,263	0·1	1,865,419	1·8
13	Woollen stuffs, coarse stuffs called "abas" and "chayak"	1,753,305	2·3	3,339,873	4·5	1,777,206	1·8
14	Oxen, cows, calves	1,378,447	1·8	709,368	1·0	1,640,753	1·6
15	Ram, sheep and lamb skins	888,980	1·2	1,108,821	1·5	1,489,348	1·5
16	Goat and kid skins, raw	313,573	0·4	571,611	0·8	1,276,234	1·3
17	Tobacco in leaf	254,070	0·3	206,507	0·3	1,114,110	1·1
18	Haricot beans, beans, peas, etc.	234,648	0·3	403,191	0·6	1,014,654	1·0
19	Linen trimmings (gaitan)	858,916	1·1	732,068	1·0	807,116	0·8
20	Worked wood (staves, planks, etc.)	566,784	0·7	219,384	0·3	699,346	0·7
21	Horses, mares, colts, etc.	393,645	0·5	314,122	0·4	597,554	0·6
22	Buffaloes and young buffaloes	492,135	0·7	169,402	0·2	590,945	0·6
23	Canary seed	42,187	0·1	90,640	0·1	548,667	0·5
24	Sheep skins tanned, and other kinds of worked skins	194,074	0·3	196,612	0·3	537,042	0·5

25	Bran and food for cattle	26,924	0'0	91,266	0'1	441,929	0'4
26	Raw and squared wood	152,057	0'2	462,894	0'6	365,635	0'4
27	Ordinary cheese	398,855	0'5	315,140	0'4	333,168	0'3
28	Poultry (chickens, geese), etc.	298,575	0'4	181,063	0'2	301,578	0'3
29	Fresh and salted butter	75,038	0'1	57,137	0'1	265,986	0'3
30	Aniseed	62,978	0'1	216,590	0'3	223,883	0'2
31	Copper unworked and in old pieces	1,178	0'0	62,614	0'1	195,246	0'2
32	Raw silk in hair and silk refuse	105,266	0'1	77,895	0'1	173,991	0'2
33	Sausages and dry salted meat (pastarna)	143,675	0'2	102,534	0'1	164,022	0'2
34	Mules	203,433	0'3	121,874	0'2	160,503	0'2
35	Wood for fuel and charcoal	83,689	0'1	105,773	0'1	158,110	0'2
36	Rice	6,203	0'0	49,350	0'1	155,601	0'2
37	Rams, goats, and kids	191,973	0'2	45,122	0'1	150,190	0'1
38	Hay, straw, and vetches	13,731	0'0	5,634	0'0	135,656	0'1
39	Membranes, bladder and animal intestines	62,497	0'1	99,044	0'1	132,351	0'1
40	Garden seeds and others	166,346	0'2	61,005	0'1	132,070	0'1
41	Buffalo, ox, and calf hides	228,392	0'3	158,935	0'2	121,769	0'1
42	Walnuts, nuts, and chestnuts	6,532	0'0	11,605	0'0	115,419	0'1
43	Fine and coarse woollen carpets	53,109	0'1	40,854	0'1	113,882	0'1
44	Redoul	113,085	0'2	79,001	0'1	96,511	0'1
45	Asses	130,307	0'2	67,159	0'1	81,581	0'1
46	Bones and wooden shoes	31,551	0'0	51,468	0'1	72,469	0'1
47	Fresh and dry vegetables	82,655	0'1	64,835	0'1	60,536	0'1
48	Wool, washed and greasy	92,578	0'1	34,604	0'0	56,362	0'1
49	Spelt and mixed wheat	450,111	0'6	131,240	0'2	44,845	0'0
50	Ordinary wine	7,209	0'0	22,394	0'0	21,920	0'0
51	Other goods	1,056,739	1'4	1,040,355	1'4	1,573,024	1'6
Total		76,214,178	10'0	73,244,028	10'0	101,225,894	10'0

IV.—DIFFERENCES IN EXPORTS

No.	DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	During the period 1900-1904, more or less.					
		1890-1894.			1895-1899.		
		Fra.	Per cent.	Fra.	Per cent.	Fra.	Per cent.
1	Wheat	- 8,062,964	18.7	-	8,267,720	19.0	
2	Maize	+ 5,575,516	54.5	+ 8,202,076	107.9		
3	Eggs	+ 5,125,739	935.0	+ 4,447,763	362.7		
4	Barley	+ 4,191,942	283.3	+ 4,073,133	254.8		
5	Rye	+ 681,198	25.3	+ 1,502,262	86.1		
6	Attar of roses	+ 2,417,177	424.4	+ 871,809	41.2		
7	Sheep and lambs	- 62,935	2.1	+ 620,753	26.5		
8	Wheat flour	+ 2,295,920	381.6	+ 1,857,248	178.5		
9	Oats	+ 2,376,536	772.7	+ 2,487,980	1268.6		
10	Silkworm cocoons	+ 1,653,581	320.2	+ 1,247,051	135.1		
11	Kaschkaval (kind of cheese)	+ 940,714	84.5	+ 997,096	94.3		
12	Colza	+ 1,553,530	498.1	+ 1,760,156	1672.2		
13	Woolen stuffs, coarse stuffs called "abas" and "chayak"	+ 23,901	1.4	+ 437,333	23.6		
14	Oxen, cows, calves	+ 262,306	19.0	+ 931,385	131.3		
15	Sheep, and lamb skins	+ 600,368	67.5	+ 380,527	34.3		
16	Goat and kid skins	+ 962,661	307.0	+ 704,623	123.3		
17	Tobacco in leaf	+ 860,040	338.5	+ 907,603	439.5		
18	Haricot beans, beans, peas, etc.	+ 780,006	332.4	+ 611,463	151.7		
19	Woolen materials (gaitan)	+ 51,800	6.0	+ 75,048	10.3		
20	Worked woods, planks, etc.	+ 132,562	23.4	+ 479,962	218.8		
21	Horses, mares, colts, etc.	+ 203,909	51.8	+ 283,432	90.2		
22	Buffaloes and young buffaloes	+ 98,810	20.1	+ 421,543	248.8		
23	Canary seed,	+ 506,480	1200.6	+ 458,027	505.3		

2. ARTICLES OF IMPORTATION AND EXPORTATION

We give here a brief summary of a careful study of the trade of Bulgaria with each one of the principal European States which the Ministry of Commerce and Agriculture has published in a separate volume.

(I) TURKEY

	1890-1894. Francs.	1895-1899. Francs.	1900-1904. Francs.
Imports into Bulgaria . .	10,687,268	8,432,011	11,029,112
Exports from Bulgaria . .	22,389,260	18,668,287	22,690,585
Total	33,076,528	27,100,298	33,719,697
Exports +	11,701,992 +	10,236,276 +	11,661,473

It appears from these figures that the importation into Bulgaria, as well as the exportation from Bulgaria, were the largest during the last quinquennial period. The balance of trade was in favour of the exports during the whole three periods, amounting to 11·7 million francs, or 104·49 p.c. during the first period, to 10·2 million francs, or 121·40 p.c. during the second, and to 11·7 million francs, or 105·73 p.c. during the last.

Articles of Importation.—Oil, fats, wax and wax products, textile articles, preserves and jams, colonial articles, fruits, vegetables and similar products, grains (seeds), food stuffs, hides and leather products.

Articles of Exportation.—Sheep and goats, wheat and corn, wheat flour, cheese, linen and woollen stuffs, cattle, maize.

(2) ENGLAND

	1890-1894. Francia.	1895-1899. Francia.	1900-1904. Francia.
Importation into Bulgaria . .	18,847,894	17,255,951	14,070,067
Exportation from Bulgaria . .	13,673,881	16,907,719	18,254,797
Total	32,521,775	34,163,670	32,324,864
Exports —	5,174,013	348,232	+ 4,184,730

The imports from England into Bulgaria were largest during the first quinquennial period, while the exports from Bulgaria to England reached their highest point during the last period. The total trade, imports and exports included, was largest during the second period. The balance of trade was in favour of the exports only during the last period; 4·2 million francs, or 29·74 p.c., while during the first two periods it was in favour of the imports, 5·2 million francs, or 27·45 p.c., during the first period, and 0·3 million francs, or 9·02 p.c., during the second.

Imports.—Textiles, metals and metal goods, machines, instruments and apparatus, colonial articles, leather and leather goods, chemical products.

Exports.—Maize, wheat, corn, attar of roses.

(3) AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

	1890-1894.	1895-1899.	1900-1904.
Imports into Bulgaria . .	32,544,557	20,933,925	21,802,178
Exports from Bulgaria . .	3,448,086	4,677,645	9,003,100
Total	35,992,643	25,611,570	30,805,278
Exports —	29,096,471	16,256,280	— 12,799,078

The imports from Austria-Hungary were greatest during the first period, while the exports from Bulgaria to Austria-

Hungary attained their highest point during the last period. The total trade, imports and exports included, was greatest during the first period. The balance of trade was in favour of the imports during the whole three periods, viz. : 29·1 million francs, or 89·41 p.c. during the first, 16·3 million francs, or 77·66 p.c. during the second, and 12·8 million francs, or 58·71 p.c. during the last period.

Imports.—Textiles, colonial articles, machines, instruments, and apparatus, metals and metal work, paper and card, wood work, cabinet work, knitted goods.

Exports.—Eggs, sheep and goat skins, maize, tobacco in leaf, hides, wheat.

(4) BELGIUM

	1890-1894.	1895-1899.	1900-1904.
Imports into			
Bulgaria . .	1,697,749	2,293,292	2,268,115
Exports from			
Bulgaria . .	1,218,129	6,169,539	23,121,658
Total	2,915,878	8,462,831	25,389,773
Exports —	479,620 +	3,876,247 +	20,853,543

The imports from Belgium were greatest during the second period, while the Bulgarian exports to Belgium reached their highest point during the last period. The total trade, imports and exports included, was largest during the period 1900-1904. The balance of trade was in favour of the imports only during the first period, 0·5 million francs, or 28·25 p.c., while during the last two periods it has been in favour of the exports : 3·9 million francs, or 169·03 p.c. during the second period, and 20·6 million francs, or 919·42 p.c. during the last period.

Imports.—Metals and metal works, textiles, stones, clay, glass, machines, instruments, and apparatus.

Exports.—Wheat, maize, barley, attar of roses.

(5) GERMANY

	1890-1894.	1895-1899.	1900-1904.
Imports into			
Bulgaria . .	8,247,176	9,181,217	10,978,719
Exports from			
Bulgaria . .	8,465,456	10,508,055	9,333,581
Total	16,712,632	19,690,072	20,312,300
Exports +	218,280 +	1,327,638 -	1,645,138

The imports from Germany were greatest during the third period, and the exports from Bulgaria reached their highest point during the second period. The total trade, imports and exports included, was largest during the last period. The balance of trade was in favour of the exports during the first two periods, viz.: by 0·2 million francs, or 2·65 p.c. during the period 1890-1894, and by 1·3 million francs, or 14·46 p.c. during the period 1895-1899, while during the last period the excess of imports over exports was 1·6 million francs, or 14·98 p.c.

Imports.—Textiles, metals and metal work, machines, instruments and apparatus, leather and leather articles, railway cars, carriages, steamers and locomotives.

Exports.—Wheat, eggs, barley, maize, attar of roses.

(6) FRANCE

	1890-1894.	1895-1899.	1900-1904.
Importation into			
Bulgaria . .	3,684,577	3,603,348	4,988,789
Exportation from			
Bulgaria . .	17,241,587	9,516,058	6,524,962
Total	20,926,164	13,119,406	11,513,751
Exports +	13,557,010 +	5,912,710 +	1,536,173

The imports from France into Bulgaria were greatest during

the last quinquennial period, while the Bulgarian exports to France attained their maximum during the first period. The total trade, imports and exports included, was largest during the first period. The balance of trade was in favour of the exports during the three periods. It was heaviest during the first period, amounting to 13·6 million francs, or 367·94 p.c.; during the second period it fell to 5·9 million francs, or 164·09 p.c., while during the third period it only amounted to 1·5 million francs, or 30·79 per cent.

Imports.—Textiles, leather and leather articles, machinery, instruments and apparatus, metals and metal work, oils, fats, wax, and their compounds.

Exports.—Wheat, colza, leather and kid, attar of roses, maize, silk-worm cocoons.

	(7) ITALY		
	1890-1894.	1895-1899.	1900-1904.
Imports into			
Bulgaria . .	1,849,735	2,727,462	5,386,180
Exports from			
Bulgaria . .	1,681,797	1,419,520	2,975,279
Total	3,531,532	4,146,982	8,361,459
Exports —	167,938	1,307,942	2,410,901

The imports from Italy into Bulgaria and the exports from Bulgaria to Italy reached their highest points during the last period. The total trade between the two countries was largest during the same period. The balance of trade was in favour of the imports all through the fifteen years, amounting to 0·2 million francs, or 9·08 p.c. during the first quinquennial period, to 1·3 million francs, or 47·95 p.c. during the second period, and to 2·4 million francs, or 95·04 p.c. during the last.

Imports.—Textiles, colonial articles, leather and leather goods, metals and metal work.

Exports.—Silk-worm cocoons, wheat, maize, rye, oats.

(8) RUSSIA			
	1890-1894.	1895-1899.	1900-1904.
Imports into			
Bulgaria . .	4,406,321	3,451,508	4,122,435
Exports from			
Bulgaria . .	42,351	98,775	204,407
	<hr/>		
Total	4,448,672	3,550,283	4,326,842
Exports —	4,363,970	— 3,352,733	— 3,918,028

The exports from Russia into Bulgaria were greatest during the first period, while our exports to Russia attained their maximum during the last period. The total trade, imports and exports combined, was largest during the first period. The balance of trade has been in favour of the imports during the whole time, amounting to 4·4 million francs, or 99·04 p.c. during the first period, 3·4 million francs, or 97·14 p.c. during the second, and 3·9 million francs, or 95·04 p.c. during the last.

Imports.—Resins, mineral oils (petroleum and naphtha), colonial articles, leather and leather articles, metals, etc.

Exports.—Attar of roses.

(9) GREECE			
	1890-1894.	1895-1899.	1900-1904.
Imports into			
Bulgaria . . .	195,440	474,938	340,129
Exports from			
Bulgaria . . .	399,905	870,012	3,488,393
	<hr/>		
Total	595,345	1,344,950	3,828,522
Exports +	204,465	+ 395,074	+ 3,148,264

The imports from Greece were greatest during the second period, while the Bulgarian exports to Greece reached their highest point during the last period. The total trade, imports and exports combined, was largest during the same period. The balance of trade has been always in favour of the exports, amounting to 0·2 million francs, or 104·62 p.c. during the first period, 0·4 million francs, or 83·16 p.c. during the second, and 3·1 million francs, or 925·61 p.c. during the last.

Imports.—Oils, fats, wax and their compounds, spirits, and colonial articles.

Exports.—Wheat, maize, flour, haricot beans, beans, peas.

(10) ROUMANIA			
	1890-1894.	1895-1899.	1900-1904.
Imports into			
Bulgaria . .	2,093,029	1,920,505	2,301,531
Exports from			
Bulgaria . .	800,491	503,817	1,294,784
	<hr/>		
Total	2,893,520	2,424,322	3,596,315
Exports —	1,292,538	1,416,688	1,006,747

Our commerce with Roumania, both as regards imports and exports, was greatest during the last period. The balance of trade has been invariably in favour of the imports, amounting to 1·3 million francs, or 61·75 p.c. during the first period, 1·4 million francs, or 73·77 p.c. during the second, and 1·0 million francs, or 43·74 p.c. during the last.

Imports.—Wood work, cabinet work, knitted goods, resins, mineral oils, glue, leather and leather articles, colonial articles.

Exports.—Maize, wheat, barley, haricot beans, etc.

(II) SERVIA

	1890-1894.	1895-1899.	1900-1904.
Imports into			
Bulgaria	1,067,864	1,008,495	868,086
Exports from			
Bulgaria	286,122	274,226	627,752
Total	1,353,986	1,282,721	1,495,838
Exports —	781,742 —	734,269 —	240,334

From the above figures it results that the imports from Servia were greatest during the first quinquennial period, while the exports from Bulgaria attained their maximum during the last period. The total commerce, imports and exports combined, was greatest during the same period. The balance of trade has been in favour of the imports the whole time, the greatest difference, 0·8 million francs, or 73·21 p.c. occurring during the first period.

Imports.—String, ropes, hemp twine, braids, inflammable stuffs, wood work, cabinet work, knitted goods, hides.

Exports.—Maize, cloth, serge, unwashed wool, rice.

(I2) UNITED STATES

	1890-1894.	1895-1899.	1900-1904.
Imports into			
Bulgaria	102,360	256,786	329,888
Exports from			
Bulgaria	20,055	181,574	660,030
Total	122,415	438,360	989,918
Exports —	82,305 —	75,212 +	330,142

The above figures show that the trade between Bulgaria and the United States reached its highest point during the

last period. The balance has been in favour of the imports during the first two periods, with 0·08 million francs, or 80·41 p.c., by 0·07 million francs, or 29·29 p.c. respectively, while during the last period the exports exceeded the imports by 0·33 million francs, or 100·08 p.c.

Imports.—Machinery, instruments and apparatus, metals and metal work, textiles.

Exports.—Attar of roses, kid-skins.

(13) SWITZERLAND

	1890-1894.	1895-1899.	1900-1904.
Imports into Bulgaria . . .	999,440	651,759	695,120
Exports from Bulgaria	9,335	6,686	199,932
Total	1,008,775	658,445	895,052
Exports —	990,105	645,073	495,188

The imports from Switzerland into Bulgaria were greatest during the first period, and the exports from Bulgaria to Switzerland during the last period. The total trade, imports and exports combined, was largest during the last period. The balance of trade was in favour of the imports during the whole time, amounting to 0·99 million francs, or 99·07 p.c. during the first period, 0·64 million francs, or 98·97 during the second, and 0·49 million francs, or 71·24 p.c. during the last.

Imports.—Textiles, machinery, instruments, apparatus, preserves and sweets.

Exports.—Eggs and prunes.

(14) HOLLAND

	1890-1894.	1895-1899.	1900-1904.
Imports into Bulgaria	93,959	61,037	311,955
Exports from Bulgaria	79,284	566,801	281,544
Total	173,243	627,838	593,499
Exports —	14,675	+ 505,764	— 30,411

The imports from Holland into Bulgaria were greatest during the last period, while the exports from Bulgaria to Holland attained their maximum during the second period. The total commerce, imports and exports combined, was greatest during the second period. The balance of trade was in favour of the exports only during the second period, amounting to 0·51 million francs, or 828·62 per cent., while during the first period the imports exceeded the exports by 0·01 million francs, or 15·62 p.c., and during the last period by 0·03 million francs, or 9·75 p.c.

Imports.—Textiles, leather and leather articles, resins, mineral oils, and glue.

Exports.—Wheat, maize, colza, barley.

(15) SWEDEN AND NORWAY

Bulgaria does not export anything to either of these countries. The only article which it imports from them is unworked iron, of which it imported for 60,579 francs during the first period, for 61,881 francs during the second, and for 66,221 francs during the last period. Thus the increase, although insignificant, is a constant one.

Bulgaria also has commercial relations with other countries,

but the trade done is so small that the Statistical Bureau has not kept any special records in their cases. An exception to this rule has been made in the last three years in the case of Spain, Egypt, and Crete. Before the two periods 1890-1894 and 1895-1899, no records were kept for what have been termed "other countries," so that these latter are grouped under the category of "unknown destination." The exports of "unknown destination" are practically limited to cereals, which are shipped by way of Braila, the shippers of this latter port being unable to give beforehand the exact destination of these cereals.

3. MARITIME COMMERCE

Before concluding the chapter on the foreign trade of Bulgaria, we propose to give a brief survey of the movement of shipping in the Bulgarian ports. The reader will then be able to form a complete idea of the general commerce of the Principality.

From the statistical data for the years 1895-1899, it appears that during that period the various Bulgarian ports of the Black Sea and the Danube were annually visited, on an average, by 8,949 vessels, with a net tonnage of 2,441,816 tons. During the following period (1899-1904) the number of vessels rose to 12,674, with a net tonnage of 2,991,235 tons. This total was composed of 3,439 sailing vessels, or 27·13 p.c., with a tonnage of 289,916 tons, and 9,235 steamers, or 72·87 p.c., with a tonnage of 2,701,319 tons. During the year 1905 the ports of Varna and Bourgas were visited by 2,480 ships, with a tonnage of 1,363,763 tons.

The shipping has, therefore, increased by nearly 40 p.c. in the course of the last five years. These figures also show that the number of steamers is continually increasing, at the expense of the sailing vessels.

In the following table (pp. 270-71), the shipping and coasting service during the last two quinquennial periods are arranged according to the flag under which the vessels sail and the description of the vessels.

During the first quinquennial period, the Bulgarian flag was represented, as regards the tonnage, by 44·97 p.c. of the sailing vessels. The figures for the next period prove that the number of Bulgarian vessels of this category is continually increasing. The proportion of the foreign vessels during the same period is therefore 55·03 p.c. as regards the number of ships, and 77·74 p.c. as regards their tonnage. The Turkish flag occupies the first place in the importance of the shipping which it covers, and is closely followed by the Greek flag.

During the next period (1900-1904) the foreign shipping decreases to the advantage of the Bulgarian shipping. The number of sailing vessels falls to 41 p.c., while the tonnage rises to 78 p.c., which shows that the foreign countries with which Bulgaria has maritime relations now send bigger vessels, owing to the greater facilities offered by our new harbours. It is also worth noticing that during this period the Austro-Hungarian shipping occupied the first place, if not by the number of ships, at least by their tonnage.

What we have said thus far only refers to sailing vessels. As regards the steamers, the following figures will give an idea of our maritime commerce. The Bulgarian flag is represented by only 6 p.c. of the total number of steamers, and by 10 p.c. of their tonnage. The remaining 94 p.c. of steamers which visit the Bulgarian ports on the Black Sea and the Danube belong to foreign nationalities. Austria-Hungary occupies the first rank, with 66 p.c. of steamers and 58 p.c. of their tonnage. Then comes Russia, with 17 p.c. of the total number of steamers and 12 p.c. of their tonnage, followed by England, Roumania, and Turkey. Thus much for the period 1895-1899. During the following

period (1900-1904) the figures show some slight variations. Austria-Hungary still heads the list, with 65 p.c. of the total number of steamers, which are, however, of increased tonnage. Then come Russia, with 14 p.c., Roumania, with 8 p.c., and Greece, with 4 p.c. Generally speaking, the foreign shipping has increased by nearly 50 p.c. during the last five years.

The last table (pp. 272-73) shows the distribution of shipping arranged according to the description of the ships and the flags under which they sail.

If we examine the various figures which this table contains, we shall find that for the present the shipping on the Danube, both as regards the number of vessels and their tonnage, is superior to that of the Black Sea. Thus, of the whole number of vessels, only 3,351, of a net tonnage of 1,190,535 tons, or about 27 p.c. annually visit the Black Sea, while the vessels calling at the various ports on the Danube reach 9,323, or 73 p.c. of the total number of ships, with a tonnage of 1,798,700 tons. The shipping on the Danube is, therefore, 46 p.c. higher than that of the Black Sea, as regards the number of vessels, and 20 p.c. as regards the tonnage.

Bulgaria has sixteen ports, of which seven are on the Black Sea and nine on the Danube. The two principal ports on the Black Sea are those of Varna and Bourgas, and those on the Danube are Roustchouk and Sistova.

The relative importance of those ports, as regards their shipping, is shown by the following figures :

The port of Bourgas receives 37·53 p.c. of the general shipping of the Black Sea, as regards the number of vessels, and 40·47 p.c. of the tonnage. The traffic of this port, as compared with the general shipping of the country (the Danube and the Black Sea), corresponds to 9·93 p.c. of the number of ships, and to 16·11 p.c. of the tonnage.

The port of Varna occupies the second place, with 24·82 p.c. of the total shipping of the Black Sea, as regards the number

of vessels, and 48·67 p.c. of the tonnage. It takes 6·56 p.c. of the total shipping of the country, as regards the number of vessels, visiting it, and 19·37 p.c. of the tonnage.

The port of Roustchouk comes next, with 13·76 p.c. of the total number of ships, and 12·72 p.c. of the tonnage, as regards the shipping on the Danube, and with 10·12 p.c. and 7·66 respectively as regards the total shipping of the country.

The port of Sistova occupies the last place, with 13·36 p.c. of the number of ships, and 12·64 p.c. of the tonnage, as regards the shipping in the Danube, and with 9·74 p.c. and 7·61 p.c. respectively of the total shipping of Bulgaria.

Roustchouk, therefore, occupies the first place as regards the number of ships which annually visit its port, while the first place as regards the tonnage of the vessels falls to the port of Varna.

FLAG.		AVERAGE DURING			
		1895-1899.			
		Number.	Per cent. of total.	Tonnage.	Per cent. of total.
Bulgarian	sail	1,186	44·97	45,711	22·26
	steam	373	5·91	231,417	10·35
Aust.-Hungarian	sail	57	2·16	21,965	10·70
	steam	4,228	66·98	1,310,538	58·60
Russian	sail	10	0·38	1,126	0·55
	steam	1,093	17·32	282,507	12·63
Turkish	sail	1,127	42·74	53,057	25·84
	steam	115	1·82	57,650	2·58
Roumanian	sail	79	3·00	30,027	4·62
	steam	162	2·57	23,234	1·04
Greek	sail	159	6·03	47,352	23·06
	steam	107	1·69	49,324	2·20
English	sail	5	0·19	1,624	0·79
	steam	166	2·63	201,353	9·00
German	sail	1	0·04	225	0·11
	steam	26	0·41	33,754	1·51
French	sail	3	0·11	942	0·46
	steam	27	0·43	31,246	1·40
Italian	sail	7	0·27	3,113	1·51
	steam	10	0·16	10,110	0·45
Other nationalities	sail	3	0·11	205	0·10
	steam	5	0·08	5,336	0·24
Total foreign	sail	1,451	55·03	159,636	77·74
	steam	5,939	94·09	2,005,052	89·65
Total Bulgarian and foreign	sail	2,637	100·00	205,347	100·00
	steam	6,312	100·00	2,236,469	100·00
Total Bulgarian and foreign	sail and steam	8,949	—	2,441,816	—

THE PERIODS				MORE OR LESS DURING THE PERIOD			
1900-1904.				1900-1904.			
Number.	Per cent. of total.	Tonnage.	Per cent. of total.	Number.	Per cent.	Tonnage.	Per cent.
2,000	58'16	61,376	21'17	+ 814	68'63	+ 15,665	34'27
306	3'31	138,920	5'14	— 67	17'96	— 92,497	39'97
143	4'16	58,104	20'04	+ 86	150'88	+ 36,139	164'53
6,155	66'65	1,594,370	59'02	+ 1,927	45'58	+ 283,832	21'66
7	0'20	1,209	0'42	— 3	30'00	+ 83	7'37
1,334	14'45	297,194	11'00	+ 241	22'05	+ 14,687	5'20
872	25'36	34,920	12'04	— 255	22'63	— 18,137	34'18
80	0'87	29,539	1'09	— 35	30'43	— 28,111	48'76
120	3'49	42,453	14'64	+ 41	51'90	+ 12,426	41'38
776	8'40	56,075	2'08	+ 614	379'01	+ 32,841	141'35
249	7'24	74,269	25'62	+ 90	56'60	+ 26,917	56'84
258	2'79	132,126	4'89	+ 151	141'12	+ 82,802	167'87
11	0'32	5,134	1'77	+ 6	120'00	+ 3,510	216'13
154	1'67	224,749	8'32	— 12	7'23	+ 23,396	11'62
11	0'32	3,029	1'05	+ 10	1000'00	+ 2,804	1246'22
114	1'23	154,901	5'74	+ 88	338'46	+ 121,147	358'91
2	0'06	1,152	0'40	— 1	33'33	+ 210	22'29
34	0'37	41,808	1'55	+ 7	25'93	+ 10,552	33'80
17	0'49	7,974	2'75	+ 10	142'86	+ 4,861	156'15
15	0'16	18,312	0'68	+ 5	50'00	+ 8,202	81'13
7	0'20	296	0'10	+ 4	133'33	+ 91	44'39
9	0'10	13,325	0'49	+ 4	80'00	+ 7,989	149'72
1,439	41'84	228,540	78'83	— 12	0'83	+ 68,904	43'16
8,929	96'69	2,562,399	94'86	+ 2,990	50'35	+ 557,347	27'80
3,439	100'00	289,916	100'00	+ 802	30'41	+ 84,569	41'18
9,235	100'00	2,701,319	100'00	+ 2,923	46'31	+ 464,850	20'58
12,674	—	2,991,235	—	+ 3,725	41'67	+ 549,419	22'50

FLAG.	IN THE BLACK SEA.				
	Number.	Per cent. of total.	Tonnage.	Per cent. of total.	
Bulgarian	{ sail	1,278	59'55	26,766	43'71
	{ steam	220	18'26	138,319	12'25
Aust.-Hungarian	{ sail	0	0'00	0	0'00
	{ steam	220	18'26	281,036	24'88
Russian	{ sail	3	0'14	250	0'41
	{ steam	106	8'80	94,464	8'36
Turkish	{ sail	832	38'77	30,163	49'26
	{ steam	80	6'64	29,539	2'61
Roumanian	{ sail	2	0'09	470	0'77
	{ steam	2	0'16	969	0'09
Greek	{ sail	29	1'35	3,176	5'19
	{ steam	251	20'83	131,889	11'69
English	{ sail	1	0'05	4	0'01
	{ steam	154	12'78	224,749	19'90
German	{ sail	—	—	—	—
	{ steam	114	9'46	154,901	13'72
French	{ sail	0	0'00	179	0'29
	{ steam	34	2'82	41,808	3'70
Italian	{ sail	1	0'05	224	0'36
	{ steam	15	1'24	18,304	1'62
Other nationalities	{ sail	—	—	—	—
	{ steam	9	0'75	13,325	1'18
Total foreign	{ sail	868	40'45	34,466	56'29
	{ steam	985	81'74	990,084	87'75
Total Bulgarian and foreign	{ sail	2,146	100'00	61,232	100'00
	{ steam	1,205	100'00	1,129,303	100'00

ON THE DANUBE.				BY THE BLACK SEA Per cent.		BY THE DANUBE. Per cent.	
Number.	Per cent. of total.	Tonnage.	Per cent. of total	By number.	By tonnage.	By number.	By tonnage.
722	55'84	34,611	15'13	63'90	43'61	36'10	56'39
86	1'07	601	0'04	71'90	99'57	28'10	0'43
143	11'06	58,103	25'41	0'00	0'00	100'00	100'00
5,935	73'91	1,313,335	83'54	3'57	17'63	96'43	82'37
4	0'31	959	0'42	42'86	20'68	57'14	79'32
1,228	15'29	202,730	12'89	7'95	31'79	92'05	68'21
40	3'09	4,757	2'08	95'41	86'38	4'59	13'62
—	—	—	—	100'00	100'00	—	—
118	9'13	41,983	18'36	1'67	1'11	98'33	98'89
774	9'64	55,105	3'51	0'26	1'73	99'74	98'27
220	17'02	71,093	31'09	11'65	4'28	88'35	95'72
7	0'09	236	0'02	97'29	99'82	2'71	0'18
10	0'77	5,130	2'24	9'09	0'08	90'91	99'92
—	—	—	—	100'00	100'00	—	—
11	0'85	3,029	1'32	—	—	100'00	100'00
—	—	—	—	100'00	100'00	—	—
2	0'15	973	0'43	0'00	15'54	100'00	84'46
—	—	—	—	100'00	100'00	—	—
16	1'24	7,750	3'39	5'88	2'81	94'12	97'19
0	0'00	0	0'00	100'00	99'96	0'00	0'04
7	0'54	296	0'13	—	—	100'00	100'00
—	—	—	—	100'00	100'00	—	—
571	44'16	194,073	84'87	60'32	14'45	39'68	85'55
7,944	98'93	1,571,415	99'96	11'04	38'67	88'96	61'33
1,393	100'00	228,684	100'00	62'40	21'12	37'60	78'88
8 040	100'00	1,572,016	100'00	13'05	41'81	86'95	58'19

CHAPTER VII

BANKING INSTITUTIONS

I. BULGARIAN NATIONAL BANK

THE Bulgarian National Bank was founded in virtue of a decree rendered by Prince Dondoukoff Korsakoff, Imperial Russian Commissioner, on January 25th, 1879, and started its transactions on June 6th of the same year.

According to its statutes, which were confirmed by the Imperial Commissioner, the Bulgarian National Bank, considered as a State institution, received a capital of 2,000,000 levs (francs) in gold, which has since been increased by the capitalisation of the annual profits.

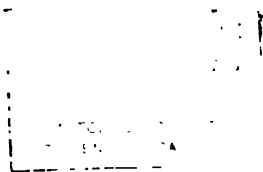
The statutes withheld from the bank the right to issue bank-notes. This precaution was deemed necessary at a time when the population of the country had lost all faith in the Turkish paper money, which was to such an extent depreciated that a Turkish pound (100 piastres in gold) fetched as much as 1,100 to 1,200 piastres in paper money.

It was to be expected that at the beginning the bank found it difficult to invest profitably either its own capital or the money which private persons had deposited into it. The various banking transactions had not yet attained the development of the present day, and for some time the bank was more like a deposit bank than a discount institution.

In 1883, when trade in the country began to revive and



BULGARIAN NATIONAL BANK, SOFIA.



the Government realised that the capital of the bank was not sufficient to meet the needs of the population, a bill was introduced in the National Assembly having for its object to transform the Bulgarian National Bank into a limited liability company, with a capital of 12,000,000 francs, of which the Government was to contribute one-third, while the remaining two-thirds were to be covered by public subscription. The bill also secured to the bank the right to issue bank-notes payable at sight.

The bill passed the chamber, and in due course became law. But, owing to all sorts of circumstances, the proposed alteration could not be carried out, and the bank remained what it originally was—a State bank.

In 1885 the National Assembly altered the statutes of 1879 as regards the capital of the bank, which, from 3½ million francs—this sum had been reached owing to the capitalisation of the interests during the seven years—was raised to 10,000,000 francs. The difference was to be supplied by the State Treasury. The new statutes reserved to the Bulgarian National Bank the exclusive privilege of issuing bank-notes.

The altered régime of the bank as settled by the new statutes was inaugurated on September 1st, 1885, but in consequence of grave political events of the period, the union between Northern and Southern Bulgaria and the Servo-Bulgarian war, the bank did not properly begin all the transactions which the new statutes had sanctioned until February 1886. The political situation, fortunately, improved very quickly, and, the country having resumed its normal existence, commerce and industry entered on a period of development and progress. The commercial relations of the country with other states acquired a special importance, and this circumstance greatly increased the demand for credit. The bank did all that its modest means allowed to second the

efforts of the commercial and industrial part of the community. Soon, however, the capital of the bank became manifestly insufficient. In order not to fail in the task which it had undertaken, the bank procured foreign capital, which was the more readily advanced as the interest which the bank offered to pay was relatively a high one (7 p.c. on deposits for a period of at least five years). On the other hand, the confidence with which the bank, as a State institution, inspired the population enabled it to extend the issue of bank-notes. As a result of the law of 1886, the bank contracted with the Deutsche Bank of Berlin a loan which was guaranteed by the emission of mortgage preference shares to the nominal sum of 10,000,000 francs. A further issue of similar preference shares for the nominal value of 10,000,000 francs followed in 1893.

Provided with an increased capital, the bank quickly developed its discounting transactions, and rendered great assistance to the departments and communes, as well as to private persons, by advancing them loans on mortgage. Thanks to these mortgage loans, a great number of our towns were reorganised and their hygienic conditions improved.

In proportion as its operations developed, the progress of the bank grew steadier. It placed its capital at the disposal of the commercial and industrial sections of the population, and thus rendered them inestimable services. Owing to its powerful protection, many of the commercial, industrial and banking establishments were started which, in their turn, contributed so much to the economical development of the Principality.

The following tables contain a summary of the operations of the Bulgarian National Bank since its reorganisation in 1885 until 1904.

BANKING INSTITUTIONS

277

ACCOUNTS.	YEARS.			
	1885	1890	1895	1900
	IN THOUSANDS OF FRANCS.			
Capital	6,073	9,120	9,120	9,120
Reserve fund	—	1,086	3,023	4,393
Bank notes in circulation	213	1,957	1,680	21,826
Term deposits	644	13,575	39,790	60,715
Mortgage preference stock	—	3,757	19,423	18,192
Cash at bank	3,658	4,597	6,400	13,259
Portfolio	4,249	7,951	17,850	23,060
Loans { departments	3,775	9,637	19,307	16,455
communes				
agricultural banks				
Mortgage loans	53	12,156	24,516	32,787
Special current accounts	158	2,805	9,563	16,761
Net profits	652	1,000	1,491	1,418
Total of transactions	164,281	540,364	1,225,312	1,506,181
				1,928,371

**BALANCE-SHEET REPRESENTING THE SITUATION OF THE
BANK ON DECEMBER 31st, 1904**

ASSETS.	France.	LIABILITIES.	France.
Capital not paid	879,600	Capital	10,000,000
Bullion	19,722,200	Reserve capital	4,393,000
Foreign correspondents	24,285,500	Reserve fund	996,400
Bulgarian State funds	18,201,000	Bank notes in circulation	40,217,400
Portfolio	24,313,300	Mortgage preference stock	16,904,200
Uncovered current accounts	12,962,900	Term deposits	59,725,600
Loans on securities	1,088,800	Unlimited deposits	801,100
" mortgages	29,377,100	Deposits on security without interest	1,002,300
" to the Agricultural Bank	1,159,800	Current accounts bearing interest	12,999,400
" departments and communes	18,325,200	Current accounts without interest and with bank's branches	18,172,500
" the State	179,300	State Treasury	1,618,800
" the Public Treasury	168,100	Foreign bills for collection	647,300
Local correspondents	1,287,800	Certificates against bills and bonds	4,753,000
Current accounts without interest and with the branches	14,692,900	Interest for 1901	941,100
Deposits	26,717,800	Deposits	26,717,800
Securities	4,885,900	Net profits	2,528,300
Difference in exchange on the mortgage preference stock	1,752,000		
Reality and personalty	1,123,500		
Others	1,375,500		
Total	202,418,200		202,418,200

ORGANISATION AND ADMINISTRATION

The central seat of the Bulgarian National Bank is in Sofia, the capital of Bulgaria.

The bank has branches in Roustchouk, Varna, Plovdiv, Tirnova, and Bourgas. It has agencies in Viddin, Plevna, Sistova and Sliven.

The branches of the Bulgarian Agricultural Bank in the various district centres act as correspondents of the Bulgarian National Bank.

The administration of the bank is vested in an Administrative Council, which is appointed by the Prince, and consists of a governor and four administrators.

The management of the branches is entrusted to directors, who are also appointed by the Prince.

TRANSACTIONS OF THE BANK

The Bulgarian National Bank deals with the following transactions :

1. Accepts deposits from public institutions and private persons, redeemable at terms or on demand, and bearing interest or not.
2. Advances loans, secured by mortgages, to private persons, or to the departments and communes.
3. Advances loans on security of bills, goods, or bills of lading.
4. Accepts uncovered current accounts.
5. Discounts commercial bills and Treasury bonds.
6. Accepts and collects commercial bills.
7. Delivers letters of credit and pays their value on presentation.
8. Buys and sells securities for its clients.
9. Accepts on deposit all kinds of securities.

10. Receives the State revenues and effects governmental payments to the extent of these revenues.

11. In the last place, the bank undertakes to supply information concerning merchants.

The bank has the right to issue bank-notes up to a sum which must in no case surpass the triple of its capital and reserve fund, and provided it has in its vaults, in bullion, at least one-third of the value of the bank-notes in circulation.

The bank-notes actually in circulation are divided into seven series : 5-franc notes, 10-franc notes, 20-franc notes, and 100-franc notes, in gold, and 5, 10, and 50-franc notes in silver.

According to the statutes, the net profits of the National Bulgarian Bank are distributed as follows :

10 per cent. to the reserve fund.

3 per cent. as premiums for the Administrative Council and the functionaries.

87 per cent. for the Bulgarian Government.

The interest which the Bulgarian National Bank pays on the sums deposited with it is :

4 per cent. on deposits for five years.

3 per cent. on deposits for three years.

2 per cent. on deposits for one year.

An interest of 1 per cent. is paid on unlimited deposits and on current accounts bearing interest.

If the sums deposited belong to bankers no interest is paid.

The bank charges 8 per cent. interest on its mortgage loans, and 7 per cent. on loans guaranteed by all kinds of securities.

2. THE BULGARIAN AGRICULTURAL BANK

The Bulgarian Agricultural Bank owes its origin to an institution dating from the time of the Turkish domination.



NATIONAL AGRICULTURAL BANK, SOFIA.



In 1863 Midhat Pasha, Governor of the Danubian Vilayet, prepared a scheme for the creation of "urban" banks, which were intended to assist the rural population. The scheme having been approved by the Turkish Government, several of these banks were established in the course of the same year. The peasants were allowed to repay in kind the loans which were advanced to them, the banks themselves selling the agricultural products. With the object of increasing the capital of the banks, a special tax was introduced obliging the farmers to hand every year to these institutions part of their produce in kind.

When it was realised that these banks were of great service to the rural population, to which they advanced money at 12 per cent. interest—instead of 30–100 per cent., as the usurers generally did—the Turkish Government extended the reform to the whole empire, and obliged the peasants to create similar banks in all the district centres.

According to their statutes one-third of the net profits of these banks were destined for works of public utility, such as bridges, roads, fountains, schools, etc., while the remaining two-thirds went to increase the capital of the banks.

On the eve of the creation of the Principality, these banks dealt in three kinds of transactions: personal loans, loans on securities, and mortgage loans.

During the Russo-Turkish war, several of these banks lost their fortunes, the functionaries of the Turkish Government having carried away all the funds, as well as the securities and other property belonging to the banks' clients. After the war, the debtors refused to pay, and only part of the property of the banks was restored, by means of the issue of new bonds. Owing to the destruction or loss of the registers and other documents, it has been impossible to determine the exact condition of the banks at that period.

On June 20th, 1879, the Provisional Russian Adminis-

tration published new regulations applying to the urban banks of Northern Bulgaria, which were then for the first time called "agricultural banks."

According to the disposition of these new regulations, the agricultural banks had to look for their clients among the agricultural classes. The net profits from the sale of the agricultural products were, as before, reserved for the increase of the funds of the banks.

The first legislative enactment placing these agricultural banks on a firm foundation was the law of December 23rd, 1894, which entrusted their administration to a special department of the Ministry of Commerce and Agriculture. Three years later (February 24th, 1897), another law created an Administrative Council, consisting of a director and of two councillors, in which the management of the agricultural banks was vested.

By 1895, these banks had greatly enlarged their transactions, and secured the representation of the Bulgarian National Bank in those places where it had no branches of its own. In the following year, they concluded abroad a loan of 30,000,000 frs., at 5 per cent. interest, of which only five-sixths have been issued. By means of this capital, the banks have been able to greatly extend their business, and have now become the soul of the rural economy of our country.

These agricultural banks are now regulated by the law of December 31st, 1903, which gave them the name of Bulgarian Agricultural Bank, as well as by the law of March 24th, 1905. Its capital amounts to 35,000,000 frs., to which are added the annual profits. 25 per cent. of these latter are, however, reserved for the advancement of the different branches of agriculture.

ORGANISATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE BANK

The Central Administration of the Agricultural Bank is in Sofia.

The bank has branches in 85 district centres, and agencies in 75 of the more important villages of Bulgaria.

The administration is entrusted to an Administrative Council which consists of a governor and of four administrators, who are appointed by the Prince. At the head of every branch there is a director, who also is appointed by the Prince.

TRANSACTIONS OF THE BANK

The principal transactions of the bank are as follows :

1. Accepts deposits.
2. Advances loans, guaranteed by mortgage or securities.
3. Advances loans, guaranteed by goods, cattle, seeds, agricultural produce.
4. Advances to farmers sums for buying cattle, seeds, and agricultural implements.
5. Advances personal loans.
6. Opens uncovered current accounts to farmers and co-operative societies.
7. Buys, for the account of farmers and at their request, agricultural implements, machines, cattle, and seeds.
8. Advances to the departments and communes loans, destined for the amelioration of the rural economy of the country.
9. Collects the value of commercial bills.
10. Transfers bills.
11. Accepts various deposits.

The interests which the bank pays or charges are fixed as follows :

5 p.c. interest per annum on deposits for five years.

4 p.c. " " " " " " " three years.

3 p.c. " " " " " " " one year.

The bank pays 1 per cent. interest on deposits left for unlimited terms up to 50,000 frs., beyond which sum no interest is allowed.

The interest charged on loans guaranteed by the deposit of securities, is 6 p.c. per annum, on mortgage loans, 7 p.c., and on loans with personal guarantees, 8 p.c.

The tables on pages 285-86 will give the reader an idea of the progress which the bank has made since 1881.

3. INSURANCE COMPANIES

There are at present two native insurance companies and five foreign ones, which are doing business in Bulgaria.

Those foreign insurance companies which want to extend their operations to the Principality must deposit a security, consisting of a sum of money or in bonds, and that for the whole period during which they transact business in Bulgaria. Besides, they must comply with the prescriptions of the commercial code bearing on the subject of insurance companies.

The native companies are relieved from the obligation of depositing any security. These companies are: "Balkan" and "Bulgaria."

"BALKAN" NATIONAL INSURANCE COMPANY

This company, whose central seat is in Sofia, was founded in 1895. It has a capital of 2,000,000 francs, of which 1,500,000 have been paid in. The number of shares at the time of its foundation was 20,000, including the founders' shares, of which there were 7,500. Each share is worth 100 francs nominally.

BALANCE-SHEET OF THE BULGARIAN AGRICULTURAL BANK ON DECEMBER 31st, 1906

ASSETS.		LIABILITIES.	
	In thousands of francs.		In thousands of francs.
Stock	9,677	Capital	37,968
State funds	8,661	Reserve capital	2,115
Foreign clients	1,351	Reserve funds	6,127
Inventory	1,002	Current accounts	8,213
Branches of the Bank	48,912	Transfers	455
Buying of cheques	14	Foreign bills for collection	905
Depositors	14,385	Branches of the Bank	48,946
Deposits	7,374	State Treasury	4,583
Bills	958	Securities deposited	14,386
Income stamps	68	Depositors	7,374
Loans on agricultural produce	8,799	Deposits of the Government law courts	4,623
Personal loans	49,228	Deposits of orphans	8,328
Advances to agricultural enterprises	17	Term deposits	22,650
Bonds of the 5 p.c. 1896 loans	6,109	5 p.c. 1896 loan	28,225
Difference in the rate of the 1896 loan	3,066	Bulgarian National Bank for manor properties and farms	850
Mortgage loans	15,619	Interest and commission	1,924
Loans on securities	1,415	Nominal profit from State funds	175
Loans to debtors on manor properties and farms	801	Salaries of functionaries	97
Current accounts of companies	17,009	Foreign clients	10
Agencies	89	Transitory accounts	12,421
Realty of insolvent debtors	2,050		
Divers	1,384		
Special current accounts	12,384		
Total	210,373	Total	210,373

In 1895, the company "Balkan" entered into an agreement with two of the insurance companies which were at that time in operation in Bulgaria, namely: "Dacia Romania" and "National." In virtue of this agreement, the portfolio of these companies, as regards fire insurances, was on September 1st, 1905 handed over to the "Balkan," this latter company assuming their rights and liabilities as regards their clients in Bulgaria.

At the beginning of 1896, the "Balkan" included in its operations life insurances, the same two companies ceding to it shortly afterwards all the insurances of this kind which they had accepted in Bulgaria.

During the following year another and the last branch of the business of the company "Dacia Romania," that concerning mutual associations, passed over to the "Balkan."

Finally, in 1897, the company "Balkan" still further strengthened its position as a first-class insurance company. The General Insurance Company "Otetchestro," of Sofia, transferred to the "Balkan" its portfolio and shares, viz.: 20,000 shares of 50 francs each and 10,000 new shares of 50 francs in gold each, wholly paid up. In return, the "Balkan" undertook to pay 25 francs in gold for every share of the original stock which had been issued at 75 frs. In consequence of this transaction, the "Balkan" had, at the beginning of 1897, 30,000 shares of 100 francs each, of which 50 per cent. had been called in. The capital of the company remained 1,500,000 frs., as it had originally been fixed.

About the same period the "Balkan" undertook an inquiry in Macedonia with a view of extending its business. The results having proved encouraging, it began from 1898 to contract insurances in that province.

A special law of 1898 included the shares of the company

"Balkan" in the list of securities which are accepted by the State institutions.

Until 1897 the work of the company was restricted to the following three departments: fire and life insurances, and insurance against damage done by hail. Since then, however, it has created three new branches: insurance against accidents, insurance of transports, and reinsurance.

The progress made by the company "Balkan" will be seen from the following table, which gives the dividends distributed to the shareholders from 1896 to 1904:

Year	Dividend on Founder's shares.	Dividend on Ordinary shares.
1896	22'50 fr.	18'50 frs.
1897	22'50 "	18'00 "
1898	22'00 "	18'00 "
1899	19'00 "	16'00 "
1900	19'50 "	16'00 "
1901	19'50 "	16'00 "
1902	14'00 "	12'00 "
1903	16'80 "	14'00 "
1904	16'80 "	14'00 "

THE FIRST BULGARIAN INSURANCE COMPANY "BULGARIA"

The central seat of this company is in Roustchouk. The "Bulgaria" was founded in 1891, and began its work with a capital of 1,000,000 francs, distributed in 10,000 shares of 100 francs each. In consequence of a decision of the general assembly of the shareholders, held on November 29th, 1891, the capital was increased in 1892 by 500,000 francs, by means of the issue of 5,000 new shares of 100 frs. each, which were allotted at a premium of 15 frs. per share. The profit re-

sulting from this operation was added to the assets of the company.

The bye-laws of the company were altered in the course of 1898. The modifications touched on the mode of distribution of the net profits and on the internal administration. The company was also authorised to raise its capital to 2,000,000 frs., but no use has been made thus far of this power, the capital remaining 1,500,000 frs.

During its first years, the company "Bulgaria" dealt exclusively in insurance against fire, investing its free capital in loans which were secured by mortgages. In 1897, however, it began to contract life insurances, while in 1897 it included in its operations insurances against accidents, and insurances of transport.

Since 1896 the company has been doing a considerable amount of business in Turkey, where it has several agencies.

The high rate at which the shares of the "Bulgaria" are quoted, as well as the importance of the dividends which it annually pays, are sufficient justification of the high esteem in which this company, together with that other native insurance company, the "Balkan," is held.

The following list contains the dividends which have been distributed to the shareholders of the "Bulgaria" from 1892 until 1904 :

Year	Dividends per share.	Year.	Dividends per share.
1892	fr. (gold) 7'80	1899	fr. (gold) 20'00
1893	„ 12'00	1900	„ 20'00
1894	„ 16'00	1901	„ 20'00
1895	„ 18'00	1902	„ 20'00
1896	„ 19'00	1903	„ 20'00
1897	„ 23'00	1904	„ 20'00
1898	„ 20'00		

The shares of the "Bulgaria" are now quoted at 245 frs. (gold) per share.

The shares of the "Bulgaria," as those of the "Balkan," are accepted by all State institutions as legal security.

FOREIGN INSURANCE COMPANIES

The foreign companies now operating in Bulgaria are as follows :

"New York" Life Insurance Company.

"Union" Insurance Company against fire.

"Phoenix" Insurance Company, London.

"Anchor" (Der Anker, Gesellschaft für Lebens- und Rentenversicherungen in Wien).

"Assicurazioni Generali," of Trieste.

The Insurance Company "New York" has been doing business in Bulgaria since 1887. It only accepts life insurances. The Bulgarian branch has its seat in Sofia, and is subordinate to the General Agency of the "New York" for Europe, whose offices are in Paris.

The Company "Union" has been represented in Sofia since 1897. Like the "New York," it only contracts life insurances.

The Sofia branch is under the immediate control of the central Administration in Paris.

The "Phoenix" deals exclusively in fire insurances, and has agencies in Sofia and Varna.

The "Anchor" contracts all kinds of insurances. It is one of the oldest insurance companies in Bulgaria. Its general agency is in Sofia.

Finally, the "Assicurazioni Generali," which has only lately been established in Sofia, contracts life and fire insurances. The General Agency for Bulgaria is in Sofia.

4. SAVINGS BANKS

The creation of post office savings banks is due to a law which was passed in 1885, and has since been repealed by the law of 1896. The Bulgarian Government acts as guarantor of the savings banks. The sums which may be deposited in the savings banks vary from 1 fr. to 2,000 frs., this latter sum being the highest which the banks can accept. An exception to this rule is made in favour of charitable funds or friendly societies, which are allowed to deposit sums up to 5,000 frs. The sums may be deposited either in the name of the person who pays them in, or in that of a third party, generally a minor. Every depositor receives, free of charge, a book in which the sums deposited are entered by means of special stamps, which are affixed to the book and initialled by the responsible official. Provided with this book, the depositor may apply to any post office in the Principality, which is bound to pay him the required sum, entering the disbursement on the corresponding page.

All the funds of the savings banks are deposited by the post offices or by the State comptrollers in the Bulgarian National Bank. The Bank pays the savings banks an interest of $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. per annum, of which 4 per cent. goes to the depositors, while the remaining $\frac{1}{2}$ p.c. is retained to cover the expenses of the administration of the savings banks.

No embargo may be placed on sums deposited with the savings banks.

Such are, briefly, the dispositions of the law which regulates the savings banks at the present time.

The savings banks have, from the very first, met with a favourable reception on the part of the population. Without entering into further details, we reproduce some figures from the official report of the Administration of Posts and Telegraphs for the year 1906. This table will, better than all

comments, give an idea of the importance of these institutions and of their present financial situation.

The number of books issued in the course of 1905 reached 26,190. The sums deposited during the same year amounted to 18,032,022 francs, distributed between 198,876 different payments. These figures, compared with the corresponding figures of the previous years, testify to the rapid development of the savings banks. Thus, in 1903, the number of books issued was 17,786, and the sums paid in 10,446,333 francs, while in 1904 they were respectively 24,090 and 14,866,737 francs. So that in the course of two years there was an increase of 8,404 as regards the number of books issued, and of 7,585,689 francs as regards the sums deposited.

The law regulating the savings banks authorises them to acquire State securities on behalf of their clients. At the beginning of 1904 the savings banks had invested in this class of security a sum of 8,124,500 francs, consisting of 16,249 bonds, 500 francs each, of the 6 per cent. mortgage loan of 1892. In the course of that year they invested in the same securities a further sum of 800,000 francs. The capital of the savings banks at present invested in State securities amounts to 15,424,500 francs.

The total capital of the savings banks is about 34,000,000 francs.

The official statistics contain some interesting data as regards the social condition of the clients of the savings banks. About 75·87 p.c. of the depositors, or 117,207, are men, of whom 49·21 p.c. are married, and the rest bachelors. The women depositors, who number 37,314, form 24·23 p.c. of the total number of clients. The majority of them, 58·94 p.c., are married, the remainder being spinsters. As regards their age, 70 p.c. of the depositors are of full age, and 30 p.c. minors. Nearly 87 p.c. of the depositors act on their own behalf, and 13 p.c. on behalf of third parties, mostly minors.

With respect to their professions, the depositors were distributed in the following proportion: married women 12·54 p.c., artisans 14·55 p.c., state functionaries 13·93 p.c., servants 9·51 p.c., agriculturists 5·65 p.c., students 8·45 p.c., infants below the age of seven 5·16 p.c., merchants 5·75 p.c., military profession 5·93 p.c., teachers 5·84 p.c., workmen 3·28 p.c., liberal professions 4·26 p.c., priests 0·47 p.c., and various other professions 4·68 p.c.

The total number of depositors during 1906 was 154,521, distributed as follows :

Artisans	22,484, or 14·55 per cent.
Functionaries	21,531 ,, 13·93 ,, "
Married women	19,386 ,, 12·54 ,, "
Servants	14,692 ,, 9·51 ,, "
Students	13,060 ,, 8·45 ,, "
Soldiers	9,175 ,, 5·93 ,, "
Teachers	9,026 ,, 5·84 ,, "
Tradesmen	8,883 ,, 5·75 ,, "
Farmers and breeders	8,732 ,, 5·65 ,, "
Children	7,961 ,, 5·16 ,, "
Liberal professions	6,588 ,, 4·26 ,, "
Miscellaneous	4,476 ,, 2·89 ,, "
Workmen	4,778 ,, 3·10 ,, "
Societies and reading-rooms	815 ,, 0·53 ,, "
Clergymen	718 ,, 0·47 ,, "
Wine and fruit growers	759 ,, 0·49 ,, "
State institutions and communal administrations	444 ,, 0·29 ,, "
Schools and ecclesiastical committees	430 ,, 0·28 ,, "
Charitable societies	326 ,, 0·21 ,, "
Fishermen	150 ,, 0·10 ,, "
Private industrial societies	93 ,, 0·06 ,, "
Silk-worm and bee-keepers	14 ,, 0·01 ,, "
Total	154,521 ,, 100 per cent.

As regards their nationality the depositors were distributed as follows :

Bulgarians.. .. .	22,294, or 92.55 per cent.
Jews	834 ,, 3.47 ,, ,,
Greeks	249 ,, 1.03 ,, ,,
Armenians	196 ,, 0.82 ,, ,,
Turks	142 ,, 0.59 ,, ,,
Austro-Hungarians	88 ,, 0.36 ,, ,,
Roumanians	74 ,, 0.30 ,, ,,

The remaining 0.88 per cent. belonged to the various other nationalities of the Principality.

The service of savings banks has been introduced in almost all the post and telegraph offices in the country.

The table given on pages 296-97 shows the operations of the various savings banks during the period 1896-1905.

5. MONETARY SYSTEM OF BULGARIA

The monetary units which have been adopted by Bulgaria are the *lev* (having the value of one franc) and the *stotinka* (centime), being the hundredth part of a lev.

For some years after the creation of the Principality, the Government found it impossible to introduce any national coins. It had to tolerate the circulation of all kinds of foreign money—Servian, Roumanian, Russian, etc., coins which inundated the market.

In 1881 the Government put into circulation two million francs of Bulgarian copper money, but these, as well as the twelve million of silver money which were issued in 1883-1884, proved quite insufficient to drive away the foreign money, so that the latter continued to be used in all commercial transactions. It was not until 1887 that the Government prohibited the circulation of Servian and Roumanian coins,

COMPARATIVE TABLE OF TRANSACTIONS OF THE POST OFFICE

Years.	Savings bank books.			Deposits.		Withdrawals.			Books in which interest was entered.		
	Issued.	Cancelled.	In circulation.						During the year.	After the expiration of the year.	Total.
				Number.	Fr.	Number.	Fr.	Ct.			
1896	8,186	—	8,186	27,236	1,352,693	6,888	535,527	—	—	—	—
1897	9,590	36	9,554	53,783	3,237,086	25,434	2,061,706	25	5,640	2,100	7,740
1898	11,670	120	11,550	75,043	4,663,529	47,226	3,696,822	40	10,864	2,410	13,274
1899	11,917	340	11,577	83,821	5,547,952	70,232	4,916,801	85	15,895	2,743	18,638
1900	12,821	494	12,327	90,963	6,246,603	76,209	5,559,226	80	19,258	3,115	22,373
1901	15,253	652	14,601	114,675	8,195,506	85,741	6,481,921	50	22,949	3,403	26,352
1902	17,048	745	16,303	131,505	9,339,525	96,630	8,188,560	95	29,374	3,778	33,152
1903	17,786	846	16,940	139,361	10,446,333	95,467	7,943,581	95	35,880	4,079	39,959
1904	20,090	1,121	18,969	176,587	14,866,735	105,872	10,402,063	44	42,228	5,052	47,280
1905	26,160	1,204	24,956	198,876	18,032,022	121,350	12,752,150	70	54,317	5,367	59,684
Total	150,521	5,558	148,963	101,850	81,927,980	731,049	62,538,362	84	236,405	32,017	268,422

SAVINGS BANKS DURING THE YEARS 1896-1905 INCLUSIVELY

Average amount of				The average per loan of				Proportionate distribution.			Total number of transactions during the year.	Total sum.		Increase as compared with the previous year.			
Deposits.		Withdrawals.		Deposits.		Withdrawals.		One book.	One deposit.	One withdrawal.							
Fr.	Ct.	Fr.	Ct.	Fr.	Ct.	Fr.	Ct.	Inhabitants.				Fr.	Ct.	Operations.	Fr.	Ct.	
49	66	77	90	165	24	65	41	404	121	480	42,310	1,888,220	—	—	—	—	
60	18	81	06	182	10	115	98	186	61	130	96,547	5,298,792	25	54,237	3,410,572	23	
62	14	78	27	158	34	125	54	112	44	70	147,213	8,360,351	40	50,666	3,061,539	13	
66	18	70	—	135	75	120	31	81	39	47	184,608	10,464,753	85	37,395	2,104,402	45	
68	69	72	94	117	47	104	50	70	41	48	202,366	11,805,831	80	17,758	1,341,077	95	
71	46	75	59	120	89	95	61	54	33	44	242,021	14,677,427	50	39,655	2,871,595	70	
71	02	84	74	111	05	97	37	45	28	39	278,335	17,328,085	95	36,314	2,850,658	45	
74	95	83	21	103	09	78	61	57	26	39	292,573	18,389,914	95	14,236	861,829	—	
84	19	98	25	119	88	83	88	30	21	35	358,829	25,268,798	44	61,258	687,883	49	
90	67	105	08	121	—	85	60	27	20	33	406,040	30,784,172	70	52,211	5,515,374	26	
69	91	82	70	133	48	97	28	105	43	97	2,258,042	144,466,348	84	36,373	2,270,495	27	
Average for all the years.													Average for all the years.				

while in 1887 the same measure was extended to the Russian roubles.

The following table contains the years during which the various Bulgarian coins were issued :

Years.	Lev in gold.	Lev in silver.	Copper money.	Nickel money.
1881	—	—	2,100,000	—
1883	—	10,000,000	—	—
1884	—	2,500,000	—	—
1885	—	7,130,000	—	—
1886	—	370,000	—	—
1888	—	—	—	3,000,000
1891	—	8,000,000	—	—
1892	—	5,000,000	—	—
1894	3,000,000	12,000,000	—	—
1901	—	—	1,000,000	—
Total	3,000,000	45,000,000	3,100,000	3,000,000

Quite recently a further stock of nickel coins was put in circulation.

The gold coins comprise pieces of 100, 20, and 10 levs.

The stock of silver money consists of coins of 5, 2, 1, and 0·50 francs.

The stock of copper money consists of coins of 20, 10, 5, 2, and 1 centimes.

The stock of nickel money consists of coins of 20, 10, 5, and 2·50 centimes.

The standard of Bulgarian money is $\frac{200}{10000}$, in the case of the gold coins and the silver coins of 5 francs, and of $\frac{835}{1000}$ in the case of the silver coins of 2, 1, and 0·50 francs.

The weight of the gold and silver coins is the same as that adopted by the Latin monetary convention, viz. : 6·4516 grammes in the 20-franc gold pieces, and 5 grammes for the silver franc.

Standard.—The Bulgarian monetary system is based on

the double standard of gold and silver. There is almost always a difference between the gold and the silver, to the advantage of the first. At present, however, the agio between the two has practically disappeared.

No circulation of foreign silver or copper money is allowed on Bulgarian territory. The gold coins of the countries belonging to the Latin Union are received at their nominal value. Thus, a piece of 20 frs. in gold is accepted in payment of 20 levs in gold. As for the other foreign gold coins, their value is regulated by the following rate, which has been established by the Government :

One pound sterling of 20 shillings	.. =	25	levs in gold			
Eight Austrian florins =	20	,, ,,			
One Austrian ducat =	11	,, ,, 60 ct.			
Twenty German marks =	24	,, ,, 50 ,,			
One pound Turkish =	22	,, ,, 60 ,,			
One half Imperial of 5	} Issued between 1861 and 1886	}	= 20	,,	,, 50 ,,	
Russian roubles					
One piece of 3 Russian roubles					
One Imperial of 10 Russian roubles (issued after 1880) =	40	,,	,,	—	
One Imperial of 15 Russian roubles (issued after 1897) =	40	,,	,,	—	
One piece of 10 Russian roubles (issued after 1897) =	26	,,	,,	50 ,,	

The smaller gold coins of these countries are accepted at proportionate values.

All the other foreign coins which are not included in the convention of the Latin Union are also received in payment, provided they belong to the metric system.

**BALKAN STATES EXHIBITION
EARL'S COURT, 1907**

• • •

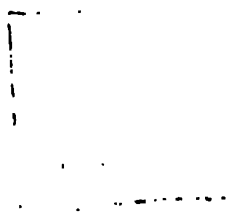
FINE ART IN BULGARIA

Supplement to "Bulgaria of To-day"

By AUDREY PROTITCH



**LONDON
BULGARIAN MINISTRY OF COMMERCE
AND AGRICULTURE
1907**



PRINTED BY
HAZELL, WATSON AND VINEY, LD.,
LONDON AND AYLESBURY.

FINE ART IN BULGARIA

I

FOREIGN ARTISTS IN BULGARIA

THE liberation of Bulgaria, which was not the result of the sole efforts of the Bulgarian nation, brought about a radical change in the life of the people, and profoundly altered the interests and the activities of the educated classes.

Whereas before the creation of the Principality the chief object of these classes consisted in the intellectual awakening of the Bulgarian nation, with the advent of political freedom, secured through pressure of European and mainly English public opinion and by foreign military intervention, the almost exclusive attention of the Bulgarian Governments and of the national leaders was directed towards the political and economic uplifting of the oppressed "rayas" of yesterday. All that was undertaken for the intellectual advancement of the people during the first years after the liberation was limited to the organisation of primary and secondary education. Nor could it be otherwise so long as the needs of the country in that respect continued to be the most keenly felt. While there was still a lack of trained men for the various governmental and municipal services, any suggestion for patronising or encouraging the fine arts would certainly have been left unheeded and relegated to the domain of pious wishes.

This was felt not only by the different Bulgarian Governments but even by those who, before the liberation of Bulgaria, had devoted themselves to the cultivation of the fine arts, and among whom the most prominent name is that of Nicolas Pavlovitch (born in Sistova in 1835 and died in Sofia in 1849). Abandoning commerce, Pavlovitch had graduated with great success at the academies of fine art in Vienna (1856) and Munich (1859), and, after visiting the various museums in Dresden and Prague, had exhibited during 1860 in Belgrade, the then centre of Bulgarian emigrants and revolutionaries, two pictures whose subjects had been suggested by ancient Bulgarian history. He then went to St. Petersburg and Moscow, where, as he puts it, "the inhabitants are not entirely absorbed in commerce and money-making, but have an interest in the fine arts and are given to intellectual pursuits." In 1861, however, we find him back in his native country, where he endeavoured, by means of his lithographs and pictures of subjects both ancient and modern, to stimulate his compatriots to political and intellectual life. He also tried to reform and modernise church painting in accordance with the requirements of the latest artistic technique, and made two unsuccessful attempts at opening a school of painting, publishing with that purpose a pamphlet under the title of "Establishment for Painting" (printed in Roustchouk in 1867). He painted portraits, and, in the palace of the Pasha of Roustchouk, he illustrated a Turkish history of the Janissaries. And yet, when Bulgaria had regained her political freedom, instead of availing himself of the seemingly more favourable conditions in order to pursue the realisation of his long-cherished ideals, he preferred to become a simple school inspector for a period of seven years (1878-1885), believing that in this way he would be most useful to his country. If a genuine artist arrived at such a conclusion and willingly abandoned his fondest dreams,

what could the fine arts expect from the Government or the leaders of the nation, who were then faced with the task of organising a newly created State and training a people, weakened by five centuries of political servitude, to the use of freedom ?

But although the various Bulgarian administrations had felt their main mission to consist in the organising of primary and secondary education, perhaps for that very reason, and because they performed their work well, they also rendered unconsciously the greatest service to art.

The curriculum of the secondary schools provided that drawing should be taught as an obligatory subject. There were not as yet many Bulgarians who had been trained for that particular work, while most of those who could have undertaken it were called to more important positions. The Bulgarian Government, under these circumstances, had no other choice than to bring from abroad teachers of drawing, just as it had done for other subjects. This practice was not only followed during the first years after the liberation of the Principality, but, as the dearth of native teachers continued to be felt long after the Government had begun to send young Bulgarians to study in the various European academies, and did not entirely disappear even after the State School of Painting had been opened in Sofia in 1896, recourse had still to be had to foreign teachers ; with this difference, however, that after this latter school had begun to provide the secondary schools with drawing-masters, the foreign artists engaged by the Government were destined to serve as professors in the various departments of the School of Painting, especially those reserved for art industries. The school, although transformed in 1905 into an Academy, is as yet in its infancy, and the assistance of foreigners is still needed in those branches of art where native masters are lacking.

Besides the requirements of the educational establishments,

various other circumstances contributed to the influx into Bulgaria of foreign artists.

In 1885, during the Servo-Bulgarian war, several artists visited the Principality as military correspondents and artists for various illustrated papers, and were not content with merely sending war-sketches, but availed themselves of their sojourn in Bulgaria to borrow for their pictures subjects from Bulgarian history, scenery, and country life. Other foreigners came with the object of opening private schools for painting, or to try their luck, not as drawing-masters or State functionaries, but as free artists whose adventurous spirit had brought them to Bulgaria. The most important representative of this latter class of foreign artists who made Bulgaria their temporary home was Haidou-kevitch.

The foreign artists, those who had been invited by the Bulgarian Government as well as those who had come on their own account, brought with them an art which until then had no representatives in Bulgaria.

Before the liberation the only form of art that existed in Bulgaria was religious painting. This latter, however, had become so petrified into old, traditional Byzantine forms, and was carried on by people so ignorant and absolutely devoid of artistic taste or education, that the productions of this kind due to Vladislav Dospevsky (graduate of the Academies of Kiev, Odessa and St. Petersburg) stand quite apart, while the efforts of Nicolas Pavlovitch to reform icon-painting remained without any appreciable results. Besides the painting of icons, the best Bulgarian artists of that period—such as Vladislav Dospevsky and Nicolas Pavlovitch—worked also in portraiture, while the last-named did something in etching and historical painting.

These modest, if naïve and rather specialised, beginnings of fine art in Bulgaria unfortunately did not bear any im-

mediate fruits after the liberation of the Principality. One of the most gifted representatives of Bulgarian art at that time, Vladislav Dospevsky, although a Russian subject, was poisoned in a prison in Constantinople for acting as correspondent of European newspapers, while, as before stated, Nicolas Pavlovitch temporarily abandoned his artistic career in order to become a school inspector.

Failing to find in the young Principality any artistic soil or interest in the fine arts, the foreign artists, with very few exceptions, made only a brief stay there, and either returned to their native countries or sought better prospects elsewhere. They nevertheless contributed their share to the development of art in Bulgaria, not only as teachers and professors or as participators in the various artistic exhibitions which were organised by the State or under State patronage, but mainly by the productions which they left behind in the possession of the National Museum, the Prince, or private individuals.

As regards the development of art in Bulgaria, the most lasting influence has been exercised by those foreign artists whose pictures are preserved in the National Museum of Sofia, and are therefore most easily accessible to the public.

The Polish painter Piotrovsky, who first came to Bulgaria in 1885 as correspondent and artist of various illustrated newspapers—*The Graphic* among others—renewed his visit a little later and left in Bulgaria, besides his war-sketches and military pictures which are now the property of the Bulgarian Prince and of private persons, also his great picture, "The Massacre in Batak by the Bashi-bazouks in 1876." This production, notwithstanding the predominant and almost dazzling effect of the light from the burning village reflected in the river, shows a greater talent than any other picture in the Museum for rendering plastic feminine forms (for which the Bulgarians have not as yet a

very certain feeling) and draped masculine figures. It also displays great mastery in individualising crowds and in rendering events in a simple and easily comprehensible form: to the right—the burning village, Batak; to the left—mutilated, dying Bulgarians and the victors, covered with their cheap glory: Circassians, Bashi-bazouks, Turkish women and Tzigans, revelling in the dreadful spectacle presented by the burning village, the naked feminine forms, or occupied in dividing the booty.

The Italian artist *Boloungaro*, who spent several years in Sofia as teacher in one of the high schools, in technique belongs to the Impressionist School. One of his best-known pictures represents evening falling over a Bulgarian landscape, and symbolised by a string of peasant carts descending a hill.

The Dalmatian Arndt, who spent a short time in Bulgaria as teacher in the Gynasium of Sofia, made a fine pen-drawing of the ruins of the Church of St. Sofia. The ancient building rises behind a Turkish street of low huts. The sobriety and the few technical means by which the artist renders the most typical elements of his subject place this pen-drawing far above all the other pictures dealing with the same theme.

The Frenchman de Fourcade, who was also a teacher in the Gymnasium of Sofia, figures in the National Museum with four pictures of Constantinople. In these pictures, which have had a considerable influence on young Bulgarian artists, de Fourcade appears a master in rendering graceful details, in freshness and warmth of colour, and in the lighting of houses, roads, human figures, and especially of trees and bushes, which, in the intermingling of brilliant light and shadow, have the appearance of bunches of fresh, green flowers.

Madame Sliapin, Russian, remained for a considerable time in Sofia as owner and manager of a private school of painting. Her pictures are in the Rembrandt style, and deal with typical Russian subjects such as "Passed like a Dream."



FINE ARTS.

.



The Tzech Holarek, who never visited Bulgaria, is represented in the National Museum by his great picture, full of tragic inspiration, "The Return of the Bulgarian Prisoners, blinded by Basil I, A.D. 1014." The grey winter landscape lit by the last rays of the setting sun, the pitiless snowstorm, the helplessness of the long line of mutilated soldiers losing itself in the distance, the weeping and the prostration of the blinded prisoners—all this makes of Holarek's picture a striking canvas-tragedy of human misery inflicted by human cruelty.

The statues of B. Shatz, for many years professor in the State School of Painting, are devoid of artistic merit, and have exercised no influence on Bulgarian sculpture.

Among the remaining foreigners who have resided temporarily in Bulgaria and have left their productions hanging in the collections of the Prince or of private individuals, only those who have taken part in the various art exhibitions need be mentioned here. They are: Ulrich, Canela, Petras, Madame Shatz, de François, Amzel, Kronberger, Oberbauer, Madame Goloubeva, Madame Hadji-Mikeff, etc. In the earliest exhibitions in Bulgaria, organised by the Prince or by other persons, besides the productions of the above foreign artists, pictures of various other Western artists were also exhibited. Thus, in one of these exhibitions which was organised by the Society for the Encouragement of Fine Art in Bulgaria, artists like Laslo, Angelli, Panzinger, Recuajel, de Brun, Lemaire, Aivazovsky, Sudkovski, Leo Lerch, Hugo Birgel, Zeifert, and Bromberger were represented by one or more of their pictures.

As regards the development of artistic taste in Bulgaria, the importance of those foreign artists who made Bulgaria their temporary home, participating in the various exhibitions and leaving their productions in the Principality, can hardly be over-estimated. Some of them have served as models to rising Bulgarian talent. Thus, Alexander Bojinoff,

the well-known cartoonist, began his work as landscape painter with an imitation of one of de Fourcade's pictures. George Atanassoff, another promising artist and a graduate of the State School of Painting in Sofia, in his picture "Buffaloes" has undoubtedly been influenced by Boloungaro's picture "Evening." But far more decisive has been the influence on Bulgarian art of those foreigners who were naturalised and remained permanently in Bulgaria. Together with the young Bulgarians who had studied abroad, principally in Munich, Florence, Paris, Rome, Turin, and Prague or in the Sofia School of Painting, they have done practically everything for the artistic education of the Bulgarian public and for raising art in Bulgaria to its present level.

II

ART EXHIBITIONS

THE slow and painful progress of artistic life in Bulgaria, and the gradual spreading of artistic taste among the Bulgarian public, will be best seen from a brief survey of the history of art exhibitions in Bulgaria.

The first art exhibition was organised in 1887 by Ivan Angeloff, teacher in the Gymnasium of Sofia and a graduate of the Munich Academy of Fine Arts. This exhibition, which contained three pictures painted in Bulgaria and a number of sketches and studies dating from the artist's student days in Munich, as well as drawings by students of the Gymnasium, was held in one of the drawing-rooms of the Gymnasium in honour of the Prince, who had recently been elected to the Bulgarian throne. Besides the royal visit, the exhibition only attracted the attention of a few personal friends of the artist.

Some five years later, on the occasion of the first Bulgarian

Industrial and Agricultural Exhibition, held in Plovdiv in 1892, the first collective art exhibition was organised, the productions of the various Bulgarian artists, nearly all of whom were teachers in the gymnasium, being exhibited. The section of the exhibition in which, besides the above artists, Bulgarian students of painting and sculpture in the foreign art academies also participated, attracted so little attention that no printed catalogue of the work exhibited was ever issued. The only Bulgarian newspaper which noticed it was *Balkanska Zora*, where a long article appeared under the initial M., behind which probably was hidden some Bulgarian artist who was himself taking part in the exhibition. Even the organ of the administration of the exhibition, the object of which during its two years' publication was to inform the public concerning the progress of the exhibition and to acquaint it with the objects collected, makes no mention of the section where for the first time the works of the Bulgarian artists had been brought together. All that it contains on the subject is a brief notice dealing with the picture of Holarek, "The Return of the Bulgarian Prisoners blinded by Basil I., 1014."

This first exhibition of Bulgarian art, which did not entirely deserve the neglect with which it was treated, was followed in 1894 by another—the first independent art exhibition consisting of productions by members and non-members of the Association for Encouraging the Fine Arts in Bulgaria. This exhibition, as also those which followed in 1897, 1898, and 1899, was organised with the co-operation and the pecuniary assistance of the Government.

The first collective art exhibition without any moral or material assistance from the Government was that organised by the Society of Modern Art, and held in 1904. This society, which was formed in 1903, has shown from the very first, and continues to show, a great, almost feverish activity. It has

already organised, at its own risk and with its private resources, three exhibitions of the productions of all its members, and seven exhibitions of pictures by individual members. Besides, the Society of Modern Art, as also the Society of Bulgarian Artists, took part in the first Southern Slav Art Exhibition, which was held in Belgrade in 1904, while during the months of August and September, 1906, it organised the second Southern Slav Art Exhibition in Sofia. On this last occasion the Society of Modern Art was helped by the State, both morally and materially.

With the awakening and development of artistic interest and taste in Bulgaria, the moral success of Bulgarian art was assured, and material encouragement and prosperity were not slow to follow. This last was to some extent true even of the earliest exhibition, that organised by Ivan Angeloff, only the buyer then was not a Bulgarian, but a foreigner, a Slav, who had been captivated by the genuine Bulgarian subjects of pictures like that of the "Ruins of St. Sophia" and the views of the village of Slivnitza, and of Sofia as it appeared in its Turkish character, before the new planning of the town had been carried into effect.

The first purchases of pictures by the State for the National Museum date from 1892, and were made during the Commercial Industrial Exhibition in Plovdiv. The most generous buyer of productions of art is the Prince, who owns the richest art collection in Bulgaria. The purchases by the Prince, the Government, or by private persons have increased with each succeeding exhibition. There have been cases where all the pictures exhibited were sold. This happened during the first exhibition organised by the Society of Modern Art in 1904, and at the private exhibition of Alexander Bojinoff and Peter Morozoff in 1906. For the purpose of acquiring pictures and statuary figuring in the second Southern Slav Art Exhibition held in Sofia last year and in the exhibition

organised at the same time by the Society of Bulgarian Artists on the occasion of the tenth anniversary of the State School of Painting, the Prince spent a sum of 35,000 francs, while the Government granted a credit of 25,000 francs.

The orders given by the civil and ecclesiastical authorities have done almost as much for the development of the fine arts in Bulgaria as the purchasers of pictures at the various exhibitions. Dr. Iv. Shishmanoff, while editor of the *Magazine for Popular Recreation, Science and Literature*, published by the Ministry of Public Instruction, in his desire to collect and preserve materials for the Bulgarian ethnography by the reproduction of various national types in their picturesque and decorative costumes, of the remains of ancient Bulgarian architecture, and of implements of home industries, entrusted this task to various artists, and chiefly to Iv. Markvitchka. They were to prepare a series of pictures of national, and principally of peasant costumes, so that the national dress might be preserved, at least in the pages of the *Sbornik*, from total disappearance, with which modern conditions of life threatened them. On the initiative of Constantin Velitchkoff, Minister of Public Instruction, in 1896 the Cabinet Council decided to offer to the Tsar Nicholas II., on the occasion of his coronation, an album of Bulgarian pictures dealing with purely Bulgarian subjects, such as national types and scenery, landscapes, revolutionaries from the pre-liberation period, Bulgarian and Turkish architecture, ruins, etc. About twenty artists worked for this album, and prepared sixty-two pictures. In 1902 Dragan Tzankoff, as President of the National Assembly, entrusted to Nicolas Mihaïloff the painting of the portraits of all the former Presidents of the Sobranje, which are now hung in the library of the National Assembly. The Central Administration of the Bulgarian Agricultural Bank commissioned Ivan Markvitchka and Anton Mitoff to decorate the ceiling and the walls of the

Council Hall of the Bank with frescoes whose subjects were taken from national life. The Prince, the commission to which was entrusted the transformation of the former mosque "Tcherná Djamía" into the Orthodox church "Sveti Sedmotchislenitzi," the Holy Synod which superintended the building of the Theological Seminary in Sofia and the adjoining church, the Committee "Tsar Liberator" which raised the Mausoleum commemorating the Russian soldiers who were killed during the siege of Plevna, as well as private persons belonging to the Sofia parishes of St. Sofia and St. Sedmotchislenitzi—have all placed orders with the State School of Painting for icons to be hung in the different churches and chapels, the work being executed by the professors and students of the school, and mainly by Ivan Markvitchka, Anton Mitoff, and Stephan Ivanoff. The repairing of old churches and the building of new ones bring in orders for icons, which are no more imported from Russia but are painted by Bulgarian artists.

Such artistic treasures as are to be found at present in Bulgaria are preserved in places easily accessible to the general public, as the National Museum, the Central Offices of the Bulgarian Agricultural Bank, the Library and the Central Hall of the National Assembly, the walls of the latter being decorated with portraits by Nicolas Mihaïloff of the Tsar Liberator, the first Bulgarian Prince, Alexander, the reigning Prince, the first Bulgarian Princess, Maria Louisa, the Heir-apparent, Prince Boris, a group of the royal children, as well as with an icon of the Bulgarian Saints Cyril and Methodius, by Anton Mitoff. We may further mention the churches of Saint Sofia and of Sveti Sedmotchislenitzi, the chapel of the Theological Seminary of Sofia, and the Mausoleum of Plevna, which all possess specimens of modern Bulgarian icon-painting.

The richest artistic collection in Bulgaria is owned by the

Prince, the pictures being distributed among the various royal residences in Sofia, Plovdiv, and Varna, and in the royal villas at Sitniakovo, district of Samokov, and at Joroubliani, near Sofia. A certain number of productions by Bulgarian artists have found their way abroad, and are now the property of various museums and private persons. Foreigners who have lived in Bulgaria also own pictures by Bulgarian artists. The Prince has more than once presented pictures to the Regiment of Minsk (Russia) whose honorary colonel he is, to his relatives, and to members of the diplomatic body. At the first Southern Slav Art Exhibition held in Belgrade, in which members of the two Bulgarian societies, "Modern Art" and "Bulgarian Artists," took part, King Peter of Servia acquired for his palaces several works by members of these societies, while the Servian Government bought a certain number of Bulgarian pictures for the Servian National Museum, the example being also followed by some private persons. At the Universal Exhibition of Liège (Belgium) in 1905 several productions by Bulgarian artists, more especially those which attracted attention with their Oriental or Bulgarian subjects, were bought by foreign collectors. The picture galleries of Prague, Cologne, etc., own pictures by Jaroslav Veshin. These pictures deal with Bulgarian topics, and were painted after Veshin had settled in Bulgaria and obtained his naturalisation. There are two Bulgarian artists—Binembbaum and Paxin, both of them graduates of the Academy of Munich—who live permanently abroad, the latter being a regular contributor to *Simplicissimus* of Munich and to the now extinct *Der liebe Augustin* of Vienna.

The appreciable success which has attended the various art exhibitions, and the growing number of orders given by the civil and ecclesiastical authorities, deprive the Bulgarian artists of any right to complain of indifference on the part of public opinion in Bulgaria towards the fine arts; the more

so as some of the exhibitions and the execution of many of the orders given were not such as to justify even the moderate expectations of a society whose artistic taste is not as yet distinguished by its exactness.

III

IMITATION AND FOREIGN INFLUENCE

DURING the first years after the liberation of the Principality the foreign artists who had been called to Bulgaria, and the Bulgarians who had graduated at the various European academies of fine arts, found no trace of an art which could be said to meet the requirements of the time. But in return they discovered an abundance of subjects which were quite new to them: wild and romantic scenery which the peasants' imagination had peopled with mythical beings, and heroes whose memory still survived in legends and in the national songs which had not as yet been affected by the new conditions of life. Original architecture, preserved in the towns and villages, and interesting both in its general character and in picturesque details, offered tempting attractions to the artist. There were also the various national types in their curious costumes—Bulgarians, Turks, Gypsies and the other Oriental nationalities. The country was covered with ruins of old churches and fortifications bearing evidence of the ravages of time and an indifferent population. If we add the fresh recollections from the revolutionary period and from the unequal struggle with the national oppressors, we get a good idea of the rich subjects and materials which were still waiting for artistic treatment.

Neither were the artists slow to avail themselves of these favourable conditions. Those among them who had lived in Bulgaria, or who, without visiting the country, took an





interest in its history and inhabitants, found in these a plentiful supply of new themes for their inspiration. Thus we find Holarek, some of whose pictures have been acquired by the State and are now the property of the Bulgarian National Museum, going to Bulgarian history of the eleventh century and taking as subject for his best-known picture an episode from the momentous struggle of the Bulgarian King Samuel with the Greek Emperor Basil I., known also under the name of the "Killer of the Bulgarians," in consequence of his order for the blinding of 11,000 Bulgarian soldiers taken captive. Piotrovsky, in his picture "The Massacre by the Bashi-bazouks," has borrowed his subject from recent Bulgarian history—the atrocities committed in 1876 by Bashi-bazouks, Gypsies, and Turkish irregulars which filled Europe, and especially England, with horror, and first raised the question of bettering the lot of the oppressed Bulgarians. In the same way Boloungaro, in his picture "Evening," represents a Bulgarian landscape with peasants, while Arndt treats the ruin of "St. Sofia" and the adjoining Turkish quarter in winter.

Great as the part played by foreign artists in the development of the fine arts in Bulgaria has been, it was not of the same decisive importance as that which fell to the artists who, although born and educated abroad, had made Bulgaria their permanent home. It was to these latter, helped by young Bulgarian artists, and not to the migratory birds to whom the Principality was never more than a temporary nest, that fell the hard task, rendered doubly difficult in the absence of any encouragement, of solving the most trying of all problems—viz. to reconcile the outer forms of art with the spirit of the new subjects which offered themselves to the artist's inspiration. The past history of Bulgarian art, as also its present phase, may be said to consist of an incessant struggle between the subject treated and the form of its treatment. The struggle

has been immensely complicated owing to the stereotyped Western mannerisms in vogue among Bulgarian artists and the absence among them of a sufficiently strong individuality to raise them above the limitations of traditional patterns. This state of things is no more than might have been expected under the given circumstances. With the exception of Yaroslav Veshin, who had fully matured his talent before he settled in Bulgaria, the remaining Bulgarian artists—the few foreign ones included—had only just completed their professional education, and had hardly yet had time to divest themselves of the tyranny of foreign examples and to develop any distinct individuality of their own. What the academies in which they had studied failed to give them had to be acquired after their return to Bulgaria, and was only secured by persistent effort. In course of time the older artists succeeded in shaking off the chains of traditional style, while the younger school gradually freed itself from the domination of foreign influences. Considerable as was the success of that effort at emancipation, there has been thus far no talent sufficiently strong to create a style of its own or to win for itself an acknowledged place as innovator.

The evolution of the spirit and methods of Bulgarian art has been clearly reflected in the various art exhibitions which have been held in recent years, and can also be traced in the pictures in the National Museum in Sofia.

During the earlier period the traditional patterns which stereotyped nearly all artistic productions appear the more noticeable since they were accompanied by an uncertain and defective technique. The pictures belonging to this class betray a somewhat vulgar taste both in conception and rendering of the subjects treated. The sense of outline, movement, colour and atmosphere, as well as command of grouping, have never been strong points with Bulgarian artists. Their models lack individuality, and bear a close resemblance to one

another, the attention of the artists being mainly engrossed in faithfully reproducing the smallest details of the various national costumes. The human figures, instead of being alive, look like draped wax statues. This predominance of the purely ethnographical element over colour and movement is specially striking in large compositions such as peasant weddings, dances, markets, etc., in nearly all of which the over-elaboration of the secondary details is at the expense of the living element. Nature and the human figure are never treated for their own sake, but only serve to illustrate some ethnographical side or to produce a desired effect. The same may be said even of portraits, especially of royal personages, officers, and fashionable ladies. The face, for some of the artists, seems a matter of secondary importance; what preoccupies them is to render every insignificant detail of uniform or toilette, even those which are almost invisible to the naked eye. This tendency to minuteness in detail is equally noticeable in the faces, many of which seem to have taken on the official air of the uniforms.

Bulgarian artists have been hitherto more exposed to the danger of pandering to vulgar conventionalities and types than to that of succumbing to foreign influences. Success, both moral and material, was most easily gained by stereotyping the low tastes of the public, and to this temptation of winning cheap glory the higher interests of art have more than once been sacrificed.

The influence of foreign masters is principally noticeable with the younger artists, and has made itself more especially felt during recent years. Among the older artists, *Ivan Angeloff* belongs to the school of Millet, whose influence is visible in his pictures of peasant life. The artist who has shown himself most susceptible to foreign influence is undoubtedly *Nicolas Mihailoff*. His compositions "Krali Marko," "Nymphs and Dragons," bear unmistakable signs

of Arnold Böcklin, Franz Stuck, and Ludwig von Hoffmann, while in his portraits he has been influenced in turn by Lenbach, Habermann, Stuck, and F. A. von Kaulbach.

Another young artist, *Alexander Montajoff*, has been at different periods under the influence of such different and very often opposed masters as Böcklin, Max Zilbermann, Graf von Kolkreuth, and Segantini. *Anna Hodina*, in her Munich landscapes, is influenced by the Jugendstil and by the group known as Die Scholle. *Alexander Bojinoff* has been influenced at different periods by the works of different masters, and the same may be also said of the decorative artist *Haralampi Tatcheff*.

In speaking of the influence of foreign masters on Bulgarian artists, it should be added that in most cases it is but of brief duration. With their return to their country Bulgarian artists gradually shake off the yoke of foreign influence, and this they accomplish the more easily as there are in Bulgaria few, if any, masterpieces of the great European artists.

IV

CHARACTERISTICS OF BULGARIAN ART

THE art gallery of the National Museum in Sofia, which has now been in existence for nearly twenty years, hardly gives the visitor, especially the foreign one, a true idea of the present state of art in Bulgaria. This gallery was intended to promote the æsthetic education of the nation by collecting together and bringing within easy reach of the public the best productions of Bulgarian art. With this object the Government periodically purchased the works of Bulgarian artists at the various art exhibitions. The earliest State purchases were made between 1892, the date of the

first Bulgarian National Exhibition, and 1899, when the Society for the Encouragement of Fine Art in Bulgaria held its last exhibition. Then followed a period of seven years, during which no additions were made to the art gallery of the National Museum. The loss which resulted to the gallery was the greater, as these few years coincide with one of the most active stages in the development of Bulgarian art. The Society of Contemporary Art alone organised during that period four general and seven "one-man" exhibitions, many of the pictures exhibited deserving to be added to the collection of the National Museum. The State, however, abstained from making any purchases, because the Museum was then being enlarged and had not yet been officially opened. The opening took place in 1905, since when the Government has returned to the original practice of enriching the art gallery by periodical purchases of new pictures.

Owing to these gaps, the picture gallery of the National Museum is of small assistance to the student in striving to determine the principal characteristics of Bulgarian art. Of far greater importance for that purpose are the art exhibitions which have been held during recent years in Sofia or abroad, and where Bulgarian art has been well represented both in quality and quantity. This is especially true of those exhibitions in which the artists belonging to both Bulgarian art societies have participated at the same time. There have been hitherto two such occasions: in 1904, during the first Southern Slav Art Exhibition, held in Belgrade, and in 1906, when the members of the Society of Art took part in the second Southern Slav Art Exhibition held in Sofia, while the Society of Bulgarian Artists organised an independent exhibition of the works of its members.

For the purpose of the present chapter, the Belgrade Exhibition offers far greater interest, not only because on that occasion the Bulgarian artists figured with better-selected

productions, but also, and mainly, because the juxtaposition of these latter with the works of Croatians, Slovenians, and Servians brought into more striking prominence the characteristic traits of Bulgarian art.

The four nationalities which took part in these exhibitions may be classed into two groups, Croatians and Slovenians forming the first, while the Servians and the Bulgarians formed the second. The most striking feature of the works of the Croatian and Slovenian artists was their form and technique. There can be little doubt that this peculiarity is due to the political condition of these two nationalities, neither of which exists as an independent political unit. Both Croatians and Slovenians are engaged in a racial struggle with the predominant German element in the Austro-Hungarian Empire—a struggle which is reflected in all the departments of their national life, art not excluded. They realise that, if they are not to be worsted in this struggle, they must not prove themselves inferior to their rivals in those respects where the latter most excel, the more so as in the case of neither of these two nationalities have form and technique been transmitted traditionally or been evolved on independent historical lines.

In contrast with Slovenians and Croatians, the distinctive feature of the productions of Servian and Bulgarian artists seems to reside in their contents rather than in the form. As representatives of free nations, they are not under the necessity of fighting for the right of existence, and in matters of art they have done as they did in other branches of their national activity: they borrowed from other nations such forms as did not exist at home, and gave them a national content. Owing to this circumstance, we find both in Servians and Bulgarians a lack of equilibrium and unity between the form and the subjects treated.

As regards form, of the four nationalities the Croatians

have undoubtedly attained to the highest degree of perfection. The works of nearly all of their artists were distinguished by the masterly combination of line, light, colour, perspective, and composition. What differentiated the work of the various artists was that some of them seemed to place form above content; others strove to realise a perfect equilibrium between the two elements; while yet others appeared to sacrifice form in order to lay greater stress on the subject. But although among the last two categories of Croatian artists there are some who can be classed under the Impressionist, or even the Neo-impressionist School, it is not the Croatians but the Slovenians who appear as negators of the old forms of Western art. Nearly all the best Slovenian artists are Neo-impressionists who have broken all connection with historical and imaginative painting, and limit the choice of their subjects to nature and human figures, as they appear in *plein air*.

The Servians, on the other hand, form an antithesis both as regards form and subjects. All their artists appear as imitators of classical or modern masters—such as Murillo, Rembrandt and others. They borrow their subjects almost exclusively from Servian history, and appeal, not to Servian nature or national life, which are almost entirely neglected by them, but to the patriotic feelings of the Servians. The golden period of the ancient Servian kingdom, its fall under the Turks, the sufferings of the Servian nation under the Turkish yoke, the struggles for liberty, and their recent political history—all these events have been used to the full by Servian artists. Chauvinists in all things, they appear the same in the province of art.

Bulgarian art has no point of contact with Croatian art. Its resemblance to Slovenian art consists in the democratic tendency, common to them both, to borrow their subjects from local scenery and local types. In technique, however,

the difference between them is as wide as between Bulgarians and Croats. Compared with Servian art, the Bulgarian differs most widely from the latter in the character of its subjects. The prominence given by Servian artists to patriotic subjects is entirely absent from the works of Bulgarians. As regards form, it must be owned that the Servians are superior to Bulgarians, as they are also in their comparative freedom from traditional styles. In first-rate artists the Servians stand higher than the Bulgarians, who have not as yet produced talent equal to Marko Murat and PaJa Jovanovitch. In one respect, however, Bulgarian art is superior not only to Servian but also Croatian and Slovenian art—viz. portraiture.

If we exclude historical painting, which, since the early and specialised attempts of Nicolas Pavlovitch, has been almost entirely neglected in Bulgaria, Bulgarian artists have tried their hand at almost every form of art. Ethnographical pictures, national scenes, pictures of military subjects, landscapes, interiors, flower pieces, animals, portraits, icons, allegories, mythical subjects, ruins, architecture—all these are fully represented in the art gallery of the National Museum, and have figured in nearly all the art exhibitions. The first place among these varieties is held by landscapes, *genre*, and portraits, whether in oil, water-colour, or pastel. The weak point of Bulgarian artists is undoubtedly undraped figures, especially undraped feminine figures, the only exception being Stephan Ivanoff, who however abandoned this class of work to become the best icon-painter in Bulgaria.

Bulgarian art may be called national only as regards its contents, but neither in form nor technique. As we have already said, the subjects are taken from Bulgarian scenery or from peasant and town life. The sense of human form is gradually developing, with the exception of the feminine body, which remains proscribed by public taste. This last



VARIOUS MAPS IN RELIEF AND PRINCES' PALACE, SOFIA.

1

circumstance accounts, to a great extent, for the low level of sculpture in Bulgaria. Decorative art is making rapid strides, owing to the great amount of building going on during recent years. Artistic form and technique are in a transitional phase, all the younger artists waging war against the traditional and conventional styles and the foreign influences that have hitherto hindered the free development of art in Bulgaria, and striving to evolve forms more in conformity with the contents of Bulgarian art.

V

SOCIETIES, SCHOOLS OF PAINTING, ARTISTS

THE artists of Bulgaria, foreign settlers included, are grouped into two societies: the Society of Bulgarian Artists, and the Society of Modern Art. These two societies live in perpetual strife with one another, each denying the right of existence to its rival, and extolling its own merits at the expense of its opponent. The truth, however, is that both of them have rendered appreciable services to art in Bulgaria.

The Society of Bulgarian Artists, which was originally known as the Society for the Encouragement of Fine Art in Bulgaria, comprised, before the foundation of the Society of Modern Art, not only all the artists in Bulgaria, but also a considerable proportion of the drawing-masters. With the pecuniary and moral support of the Government, it organised between 1894 and 1899 four exhibitions of the productions of the Bulgarian artists. Then followed seven years of inactivity, broken in 1906 by another exhibition to celebrate the tenth anniversary of the School of Painting in Sofia. The merits of this society consist not only in organising these exhibitions, interceding with the Government, and obtaining orders for pictures or icons destined for various churches or other

State institutions, but also, and mainly, in the initiative taken by it, on the suggestion of the Bulgarian Prince, which led to the founding of the first State School of Painting.

In 1887 the Prince, in a conversation with the artist Ivan Angeloff, who had organised in the Prince's honour an exhibition of his works, expressed readiness to take under his patronage a School of Arts, provided the idea of opening such a school found acceptance with the Government and the nation. Angeloff communicated this to the well-known Bulgarian writer, politician and artist, Constantin Velitchkoff, who at that time was living in Rome as a political exile. In 1894 Velitchkoff returned to Bulgaria, and shortly afterwards became Minister of Public Instruction and honorary president of the Society for the Encouragement of Fine Art in Bulgaria. The president of the Society, Dr. Schishmanoff, together with two of its members, Ivan Markvitchka and Anton Mitoff, had meanwhile been studying the practical side of the question of opening a school of painting, and solicited the co-operation of the new minister. In 1895 the National Assembly passed a law creating a State school of painting in Sofia, which was opened in October 1896. The object of the school was to prepare (a) students of plastic and fine arts; (b) teachers of painting, drawing, calligraphy, and manual work in the gymnastic and special schools; (c) artists for the various art industries (icon-painting, wood-carving, decorative art, ceramics, weaving, goldsmith's work, etc.). In accordance with this object, the following subjects were taught during the year 1905-6: drawing from plaster models (class of Klissoureff), drawing from nature (class of Ivan Angeloff), painting (class of Ivan Markvitchka), sculpture (class of Yetcho Spiridonoff), decorative arts (class of Boris Mihailoff), wood-carving (class of Ivan Travnitzki), weaving and lace-making (class of Tereza Holekova), ceramics (class of Stephan Dimitroff), lithography (class of Joseph Silaba), history of

art, perspective, anatomy, architecture, etc. During that same year the State School of Painting had 126 students, of whom 100 were men and 26 women.

The School of Painting is the connecting link between the two Art Societies in Bulgaria, the leading members of the older Society of Bulgarian Artists being professors in the school, while the founders and members of the new Society of Modern Art are mainly old students.

The latter, together with other young artists who had graduated at the various academies abroad, formed the Society of Modern Art as a counterpoise to the Society of Bulgarian Artists, with which they were discontented owing to its inactivity and tutelage, as well as for its monopoly of all the State and Church orders. These were, however, not the only considerations which contributed to the starting of the new society. The avowed object of the Society of Modern Art, which originally existed only as a group of friends, was and remains as follows: (1) to bring together the various artists (architects, painters, sculptors, decorative artists), art critics and, in general, lovers of art, for the purpose of their mutual improvement and help; (2) to familiarise the public with modern art; (3) to study the origins of Bulgarian art, and to adapt what remains of it to modern conditions; (4) to ameliorate the material conditions of artistic work in Bulgaria. The society, which counts at present some scores of active members, was founded in 1907 by three architects, a decorative artist, an art critic, three painters, and a wood-carver. The persons who ushered it into life, as will be seen, belonged to various branches of art, and had been brought together in the natural course of their several professions. They held in common certain principles, the most important of which was that the time had come to react against the conventional styles in which Bulgarian art had been stereotyped, and to stimulate artistic life in

Bulgaria by acquainting it with the most recent artistic movements abroad. Innovators though they were in some respects, they did not lose sight of the local and national conditions in which Bulgarian art was placed, and, while holding an open mind to the lessons inculcated by the more advanced art of Western Europe, they were determined to retain and encourage what was typically national in Bulgarian art. All these ends which the Society of Modern Art set before itself had nothing new in themselves, but they were for the first time taken in earnest, and propagated by means of art exhibitions, which finished by awakening public interest in art. This was the more desirable as the rival Society of Bulgarian Artists had entirely neglected this side of the question, engrossed as its members were in executing hurriedly, and not very carefully, the various public orders with which they had been commissioned.

Among the members of the older society the first place must be assigned to Ivan Markvitchka, Anton Mitoff, and Ivan Angeloff.

Ivan Markvitchka, who is by nationality a Tzech, came to Bulgaria as early as 1882, or shortly after the liberation of the Principality. In the course of his now already long career in his adopted country he has rendered signal service to Bulgarian art. Markvitchka was the first to organise the teaching of drawing and painting as obligatory subjects in the programme of the Bulgarian secondary schools, and to him mainly was entrusted the choice of the foreign teachers of drawing. He was among the most prominent organisers of the art section at the National Exhibition held in 1892, as well as of the art gallery attached to the National Museum in Sofia, not to mention the part played by him in the founding of the first art society in Bulgaria and in the opening of the School of Painting. In addition to all this, he has been one of the most prolific contributors to the different art ex-

hibitions, and the busiest artist with State and private orders. Having begun as a mere teacher of drawing, Markvitchka has succeeded, by dint of labour and by untiring perseverance, in becoming President of the Society of Bulgarian Artists, Director of the State School of Painting, member of the Archæological Commission of the Ministry of Public Instruction, etc. Owing to the peculiar conditions in which art in Bulgaria was placed during the earlier years, Markvitchka has, in the course of his career, cultivated in turn nearly every variety of art. There is hardly any form of painting at which he has not tried his hand. He has laid under contribution every subject offered by Bulgarian scenery, Bulgarian life, or the revolutionary period (pre-liberation period and the recent Macedonian revolution). His pictures are to be found everywhere: in the royal palaces, in private houses, in the National Museum, in various churches and public offices. Educated at the Academy of Prague, he acquired his real artistic training in Bulgaria by means of incessant work and by running through the whole scale of subjects: altars, graphical sketches of Bulgarian peasants, scenes of peasant life, illustrations of novels, decorative painting, portraiture, icons for Orthodox churches, etc. The feeling which he puts into his pictures varies from the sentimentalism of moonlit nights to tragedy, as reflected in his Macedonian pictures. It must, however, be admitted that the talent of Markvitchka, unquestionable though it be, is not quite so many-sided as his repertory, neither has it always been equal to the problems with which he had to deal. In his *genre* pictures the ethnographical element is always at the expense of the contents. His icons never seem to render the typically Bulgarian religious feeling; his landscapes abound in artificial effects, his tragic pictures in rather sickly sentimentalism. Even his portraits, wherein he excels, seem to suffer from a certain unnatural elevation in the expression of the face,

which has nothing in common with the real person. Absorbed as Markvitchka has been in incessant and exhaustive work during the best part of the last quarter of a century, he has not had sufficient opportunity to thoroughly perfect his technique in order to cope more successfully with the difficulties of the variety of subjects which the special conditions of artistic life in Bulgaria have hitherto forced upon him.

But, however well founded these criticisms are, whatever the opposition which the work of Markvitchka provokes among the foreign artists and art critics, it is recognised on all hands that the services which he has rendered to art in Bulgaria are surpassed by few, if any, other artists.

Not less active than Markvitchka, though hardly so many-sided, is his companion and friend *Anton Mitoff*, a graduate of the Academy of Fine Arts in Florence. He has been associated with Markvitchka in nearly all the artistic undertakings, old and new—art societies, foundation of the School of Painting, organisation of the Museum, exhibitions, execution of State and private orders. He paints national types, landscapes, town and village subjects, portraits, and icons. In his case also the ethnographical element holds the first place. He revels in details, closely imitates modern Russian and ancient Italian masters in his icons, and may be said to be the chief representative of a conventional impressionism which depends for its effects on an artificial contrast between light and shade. Although a born fighter, and the most militant member of the old society, he does not display in his pictures any tendency to cope with difficulties, but prefers easy subjects which do not tax the artist's inventiveness and require no originality in their treatment.

The best artist of the Society of Bulgarian Artists is *Ivan Angeloff*, who has studied in Munich and in Rome. He was the first Bulgarian artist to make use of the peasant, especially in his field-work. In contrast with Markvitchka,

Mitoff, and scores of others, Angeloff gives a secondary place to the ethnographical element, and is always preoccupied with rendering the artistic side of his subject. His pictures of this kind bear unmistakable signs of the influence of the French master Millet. In his pictures of town life he imitates the Italian conventional artists, while at one time he was under the influence of Segantini. Angeloff's principal merit is that he understands the spirit of Bulgarian peasant life, and succeeds in imparting it to his pictures, which are psychological as well as artistic productions. Angeloff is an impressionist in his methods, but has a distinctly personal technique. What his pictures seem to suffer from is lack of air and movement. Neither is he always successful in individualising faces, or in bringing them into unison with their surroundings.

Of the remaining artists of the old school, the majority belong to the conventional type (for example, Petko Klissoureff) or are imitators of foreign masters (for instance, Boris Mihailoff). The name of *Otto Horeisha* (Terek) deserves a mention apart. One of the first among the foreign artists to settle in Bulgaria, he may be said to be the best Bulgarian painter of quiet, melancholy scenery, the battlefields of the last Russo-Turkish war having furnished him with subjects for some of his best compositions—"Russian Cemetery at the Peak of St. Nicolas," "On Shipka, Twenty-five Years After." The execution of these otherwise excellent subjects suffers from a certain conventionality in the treatment.

However great may have been the antagonism between the two art societies at first, it was not permanent, at least in the case of some members of the younger society, who, either owing to disagreements with their associates or to friendly relations with the old artists, ended by returning to the latter group. The most prominent of these seceders are *Christo Berberoff* and *Stephan Ivanoff*.

Berberoff, who graduated at the Academy of Turin, is under the influence of Segantini. He is principally a landscape painter, and prefers mountain scenery. His pictures are elevated in tone, the cloud and air effects are cleverly rendered, and the technique is always impressive.

Stephan Ivanoff, a graduate of the Sofia School of Painting, is one of the best Bulgarian impressionists, and undoubtedly the best icon-painter. Undraped figures, especially feminine figures, play an important part in his works. In this respect he stands almost alone among Bulgarian artists.

The younger of the two societies, that of Modern Art, counts more members than the Society of Bulgarian Artists. Thus in 1906, at the time of the second Southern Slav Art Exhibition, it had thirty-seven exhibitors, as against twenty-three exhibitors of the older society, which had at the same time organised an exhibition to celebrate the tenth anniversary of the founding of the Sofia School of Painting.

The members of the Society of Modern Art are, with one or two exceptions, young men educated abroad, principally in Germany, or in the Sofia School of Painting. Those of them who had studied abroad came back dominated by all kinds of foreign influences, which, however, only proved of short duration. The graduates of the Sofia School of Painting, on the contrary, began their career as imitators of the conventional styles acquired from their teachers. But here also the influence did not last very long. The trait common to them all is their love of nature as she is, and not as she appears through the prism of traditional mannerisms.

The best as well as the oldest artist belonging to this class, although not a member of the Society of Modern Art, is *Jaroslav Veshin*, who, like *Markvitchka*, is by nationality a Tzech. Veshin was educated in Prague and Munich, where he had made a name before he came to Bulgaria, first as teacher in a gymnasium, and afterwards as professor in the



PICTURE AND CERAMIC PRODUCTIONS, SCHOOL OF ART, SOFIA.



School of Painting. Owing to misunderstandings with his colleagues, he left the school to become the official artist of the Court and War Office. He is beyond doubt the leading artist of Bulgaria, his productions figuring in some of the best European picture galleries, while his pupils are among the most promising of the young artists. His favourite subjects seem to be Bulgarian scenery, especially winter landscapes, old Turkish quarters, gypsies, and hunting-scenes. As regards artistic form and technique he has no equal in Bulgaria. His superiority in this respect is manifest even in his official pictures (parades, manoeuvres), in which the artistic element is at the expense of the showy side. In his *genre* pictures, especially in his types of peasants, gypsies, and Turks, he introduces a sense of humour quite personal to himself. With his well-established style Veshin has exercised a profound influence on all his pupils, especially on the most gifted among them, *Mihoff*, who is the best landscape painter of the Bulgarian Impressionist School. Mihoff treats every side of his subjects with equal interest and seriousness; he renders Nature in all her most essential features, and works in bright, fresh colours. Both in harmony and in composition the pictures of Mihoff are real works of art.

Another pupil of Veshin, and a member of the Society of Modern Art, is *Nicola Petroff*, one of the best Bulgarian water-colour painters. He has studied nature very closely, and generally succeeds in rendering the essential parts of his subject by simple yet suggestive means. His pictures are of village streets, clusters of trees, huts reflected in water, the banks of the Danube in the neighbourhood of Widdin, some village fountain with a girl drawing water, country lanes—all distinguished by the same delicate and sure touch.

While Mihoff and Petroff are nearly always successful in adapting their methods to the subjects treated, *Peter*

Morozoff, another graduate of the Sofia School of Painting (pupil of Markvitchka), stands as an example of the difficulties which often beset an artist in his endeavours to materialise his conceptions. In his earlier productions, which were exhibited in 1905, Morozoff appears as a symbolist to whom nature and her various manifestations are but a reflection of the artist's moods and aspirations. His most daring attempt in this line is the picture "The Nymphs' Hiding-place," in which, as also in some of his other compositions, Morozoff betrays the temperament of a poet rather than that of a plastic artist. The difficulties inherent to the form of art which first attracted Morozoff were, in his case, further enhanced by a conventional and not always sure technique. The moderate success which attended these early efforts soon decided Morozoff to abandon his symbolical conceptions of nature and to return to ordinary natural scenery—a revolution the more to be approved as many of his pictures betrayed an insufficient acquaintance with natural forms. In his recent landscapes nature, in the various seasons of the year, autumn by preference, appears pervaded by a symbolical meaning which gives her a character of unity. It must, however, be admitted that Morozoff does not always succeed in catching the essential elements of the scenery, neither is he free from a weakness for cheap effects. But if this detracts from the artistic merit of his pictures, it has proved an easy way of winning public approval and securing a profitable market for them. A stay of some months in Paris seems to have opened to Morozoff new vistas, and he has now taken to portraiture with the same enthusiasm which distinguished his former undertakings.

Among the remaining landscape painters—graduates of the Sofia School of Painting—*Marin Georgieff* is a pupil of Markvitchka, whose conventional style he seems to have contracted. He has met with considerable success in his

pictures of church ruins, ancient fortifications, interiors of old underground churches, and his copies of ancient Bulgarian frescoes. *Christo Kabaktchieff*, who has never been outside Bulgaria, belongs to the school of neo-impressionists, and sees nothing but colour in nature.

Of the landscape-painters who have studied abroad, *Harampy Kieff* paints chiefly grand scenery, and *Kazandjief* fields and peasants. The youngest member of this class is *Alexander Montajoff*, who is also the most promising. Montajoff rarely indulges in bright and cheerful subjects, his pictures in most cases proceeding from a melancholy inspiration. In his work he has been influenced in turn by Böcklin, Graf von Kalkreuth, Max Liebermann, and Segantini. These foreign influences, however, do not in the least detract from the merits of his landscapes. They were of passing character, and with his return to Bulgaria his artistic individuality has shaken them off, so that in his pictures which figured at the second Southern Slav Art Exhibition he appears as an independent artist, both as regards subject and technique.

Mme Anna Josephoff (*née* Hähn) has won for herself a name as the best painter of flowers, while *Mme Hadji-Mitcheff* (*née* Brown) is the only painter of miniatures in Bulgaria. This lady possesses a keen sense of line and delicate colouring, and a sure touch in rendering the details of hair and dress. Another woman artist, *Mme Naoumoff*, (*née* Ostroveka), is well known as portraitist, especially in pastel.

There are few Bulgarian artists who at one time or another have not tried their hand at portraiture. Among the older artists, Ivan Markvitchka obtained considerable success in this department, but the best Bulgarian portraitist is unquestionably *Nicolas Mihailoff*. He has studied in Sofia, Munich, Paris, and London, and, before taking to portraiture,

spent a considerable time in copying old and modern masters. He also made an attempt at large compositions, taking his subjects from Bulgarian folklore. These pictures, which were not devoid of merit, especially in their colouring, were the result of the influence exerted on the young artist by such masters as Böcklin, Franz Stuck, and Ludwig von Hoffmann. The scenery and figures, and their general inspiration, had nothing Bulgarian about them. The influence of these Servian artists on Mihailoff may be easily traced, even in some of his later productions of the same kind. He appears much more personal and independent in his portraits, although here also the influence of Rubens, Lenbach, Stuck, Hubermann, and F. A. von Kaulbach was for a time manifest. As a portraitist Mihailoff has a distinct talent for catching the most characteristic side of a face and concentrating the expression in the eyes, as well as rendering everything that is typical of the subject. Much of the work of this talented artist, however, suffers in consequence of over-production, often at the expense of the execution. Among the best portraits of Mihailoff are those of his wife.

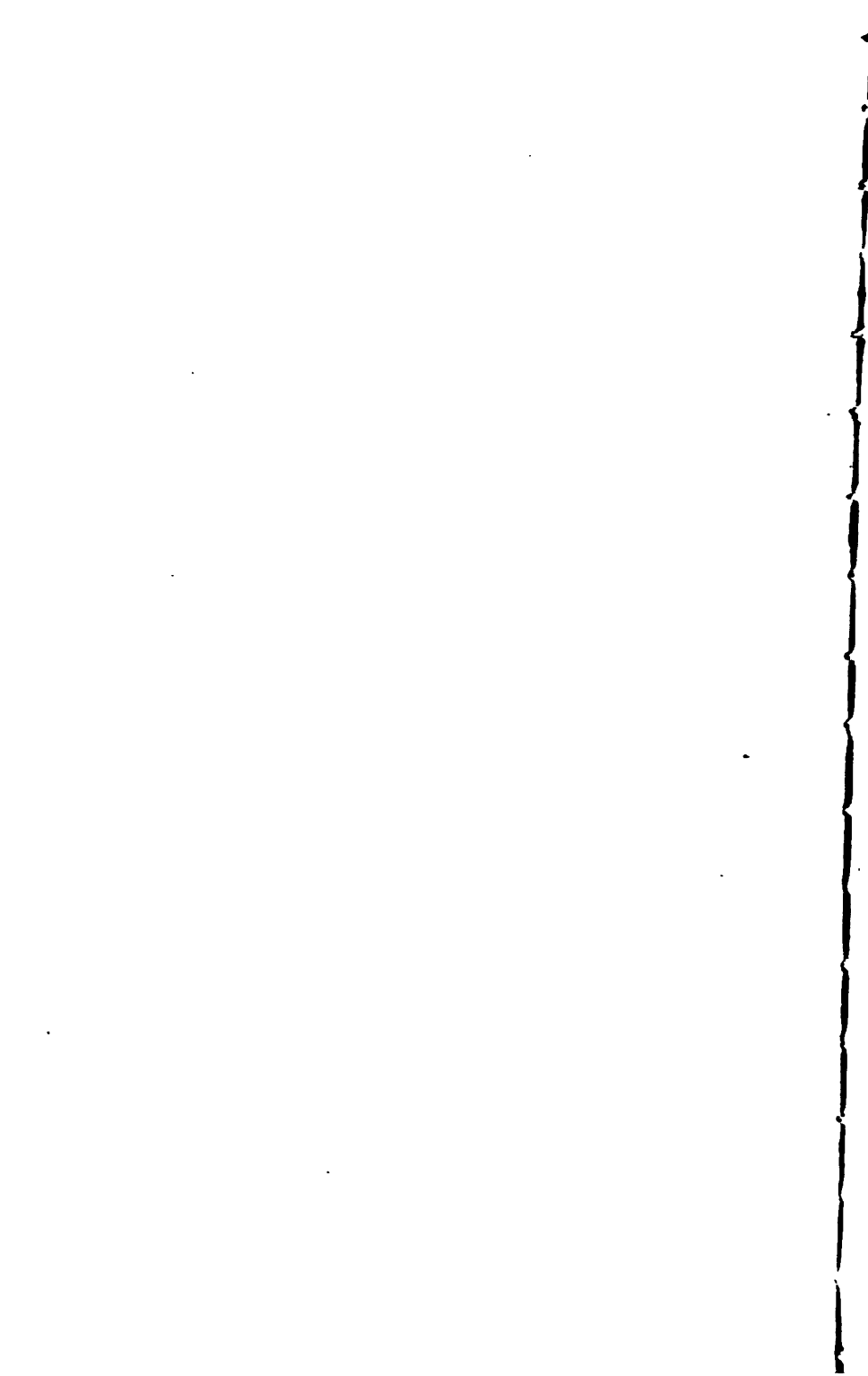
Unique of his kind as portraitist and caricaturist is *Alexander Bojinoff*, one of the most popular and most imitated artists, not only in Bulgaria but also among the other Southern Slav nations. Bojinoff has met with considerable success as poet, as feuilletonist, as symbolical painter, in landscape and in portraiture; but the general public associates him mainly, if not exclusively, with caricature, in which line he excels equally in inspiration and in execution. Bojinoff himself, however, conscious of this rather one-sided reputation, values highest his symbolical pictures and his landscapes. In his caricatures of public men, politicians, poets, writers, etc., Bojinoff is distinguished by rendering not only what is typical in the face, but also the mental or moral peculiarities and habits of the subject caricatured. The symbolical

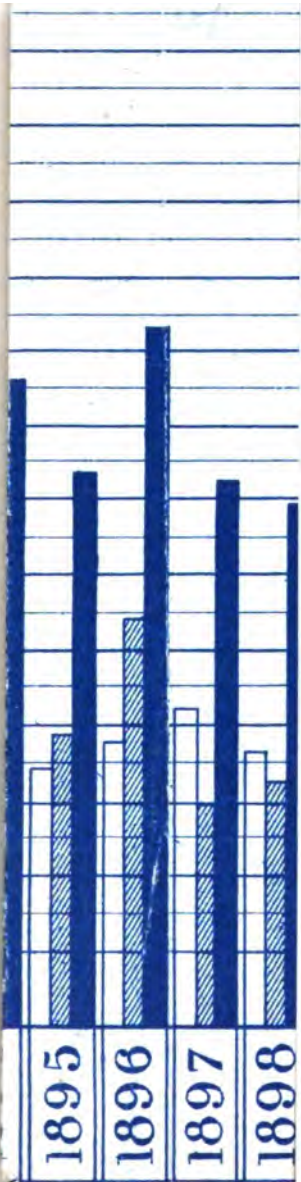
pictures of Bojinoff are characterised by their spiritual conception. He seldom works in oils, preferring pastel, water-colour, and pen. This comparative neglect of oils is sufficiently accounted for by lack of time and other distractions with which a regular contributor to the daily press is beset. Bojinoff studied for a while at the School of Painting in Sofia. He has spent a considerable time in Munich, but never studied in the Academy there. All that he has been able to do as artist he owes to his hard work and perseverance.

The same may be also said of the best Bulgarian decorative artist, *Haralamby Tatcheff*, who graduated at the School of Painting in Sofia, where, however, he could not find a teacher worthy of his talent. He owes everything to private work and the study of the Western masters, and of nature. He is well acquainted with ancient Bulgarian and modern Bulgarian ornamentation, of which he has made free use in his work. Tatcheff is the first Bulgarian artist who has systematically worked on book-covers, vignettes, and glass-painting.

Sculpture in Bulgaria, owing to the somewhat puritanical attitude of Bulgarian public opinion towards undraped figures, remains in a very backward state. Of the two sculptors who, as students, gave considerable promise, *Marin Vassileff* has never been able to raise himself above the conventional style, while *Yetcho Spiridonoff*, with his unquestionable talent, has thus far produced very little.







1895

1896

1897

1898

R



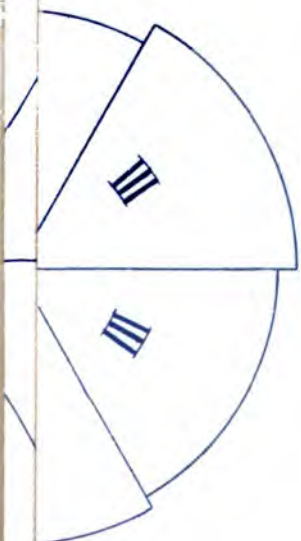


*Foreign trade of Bulgaria
with other countries*

led into
show the
millions
M.



UNDETERMINED

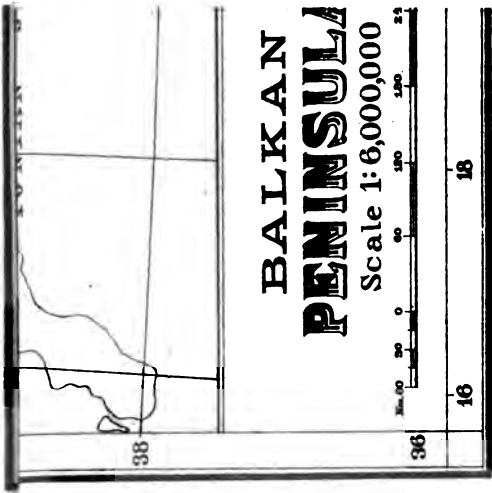


DANY

11
12
13
14

15
16
17
18





**BALKAN
PENINSULA**

Scale 1:6,000,000



38

36

16

18



L

