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Review: Problems of Eastern Europe

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I am not familiar with Persia ; but in the hinterland of Asia Minor I was greatly impressed with opportunities for the profitable employment of light railways. There are many routes to choose from along which a light railway should secure a remunerative traffic from the start, especially those traversing large valleys which are fertile and productive, bordered by mountains abundant in emery, manganese, chrome iron, antimony, copper, and silver-lead ores. Along these most promising routes for light railways there are now only trails or very rough roads ; the present produce, chiefly emery, dried fruit, hemp, grain, liquorice, wool, and hides, is carried by camels and an occasional buffalo-cart.

In some places the mountain slopes are covered with good timber, including pine and walnut, which owing to lack of transport had up to just before the war remained unexploited.

At the base of the mountains, especially in the valley of the Gediz river north-east of Sahlhi, are mineral springs both hot and cold, many still with marble baths constructed by the Greeks. In one place about 8 miles south-east of the village of Simav and 35 miles north-west of Ushak I found a group of boiling geysers of highly sulphurous water, picturesquely situated in a pretty valley, where a large number of women were taking the baths, and I was informed that many came great distances each year for this purpose. Thus in addition to ordinary freight traffic some passenger traffic can be anticipated, especially in the summer season.

The following are amongst the most promising of the light railway routes of which I have made a reconnaissance, all of which should yield a remunerative traffic from the start.

1. From Odemish to Baliamboli, 20 km. Traffic : Antimony ore, agricultural produce, and walnut.

2. Aidin to China, 50 km. ; possible extension to Mughla, 50 km., and Marmarice, 50 km. Traffic : Emery and copper ore, agricultural produce, liquorice root, wool, hides, merchandise, and passengers.

3. Sahlhi to Borli, 50 km. Traffic : Agricultural produce, liquorice root, merchandise, tan bark, minerals, and passengers.

4. Balikesri to Simav, 150 km. ; possible extension to Ushak, 80 km., and Chivril, 70 km. Traffic : Agricultural produce, wool, hides, merchandise, minerals, timber, and passengers.

PROBLEMS OF EASTERN EUROPE

The New Eastern Europe.— **Ralph Butler.** London : Longmans, Green & Co. 1919. 10s. 6d. *net.*

ALMOST all the books dealing with the geography of man and relating to the pre-war empires of Germany, Austria-Hungary and Russia will now have to be re-written, not merely on account of the political bias that they manifested, but also because so many important facts were purposely

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overlooked. This is essentially true of books dealing with that region of Eastern Europe which, until recently, formed part of the Russian Empire, where the Imperial censorship was the most drastic. If any books have thrown light on such subjects as the Baltic provinces, Lithuania, Ukraine, or even Finland and Poland, it has usually been not the scholarly works, which of all have been the most influenced by political "points of view," but books of travel written by unprejudiced observers. Mr. Butler's book on the 'New Eastern Europe' stands nearer to the second type of literature than to the first. It reads like a well-written correspondence to a daily paper rather than a series of articles collected from the monthly reviews in which they have appeared. They were apparently written in the second part of the war, when the demand for facts was most acute in the English press, and they give one chapter to each of the western border countries of the Russian Empire, and three chapters to Poland.

The chapter on Finland reads almost the best owing to the impartiality of the observer and to the ingenious way of generalizing by which he has made clear to the British public facts which taken separately would be unintelligible. But he makes the mistake common to all writers on that country; that is, he uses the linguistic term "Finn" when dealing with the Finns of Finland. Possibly the term "Finlander" has an uncouth sound to the British ear, but then some other term may be invented to distinguish the people using the Finnish language and inhabiting Finland from the Finnish-speaking people who inhabit Great Russia and Western Siberia, and who are not conscious of any kinship with Finland. Knowing that the Finns were the aborigines of what is now called the most real Russia, and that, though they were to a great extent swamped by their Slavonic invaders, they still preserve in many places their separate language and culture, it is impossible to adhere to Mr. Butler's remark that "Russia will be the healthier for the excision of this non-Slavonic element" (p. 20). No national movements can undo the blending of Finnish and Great Russian blood, for which the heart of Great Russia, the upper Volga, is the centre; but one has to agree with Mr. Butler's principle that Russia will be healthier if she has no more Finlanders, whether of Finnish or Swedish tongue, within her borders. In his account of the historical development of Finnish independence, the author refrains from predicting the future of the country, unless we take as such his remark that Finland "... has no mission to the world; the only mission of which she is conscious is to herself" (p. 20). Seeing that all the troubles arising from the present boundary-making in Europe are based on the abnormal development of various peoples' mission to the world, it is just as well that there are people who, it is hoped, will not quarrel with their neighbours on account of their consciousness of a "higher call."

The chapter on the New Balticum is better in its historical part than in the representation of the actual problem of to-day, and it calls for some further amplification, as, for instance, is found in the article on the Eastern Baltic by a Harvard University Professor in the *New Europe* of 7 August 1919. The historical analysis of the various peoples who lived along the Eastern Baltic before the Germans colonized it, and the Poles, and finally the Russians, conquered it, can only be of political use in so far as it helps to make clear what is the present predominant nationality which may be able to deal with the existing problem. Will the Balts, Letts, and Esths, and perhaps even the Lithuanians, be content to sink their nationality in some union under a generic name such as that of Jugo-Slav, invented for the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes? The difficulty is that no prediction for the future can be based on

the past because, with the exception of the Lithuanians, none of them have a history as have the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.

Again, the chapter on the new Lithuania, just as that on the Ukrainian (Ukrainian?) Movement, lacks the historical introduction necessary to enable even a well-educated Englishman to understand the problem of to-day. All that the author has to tell about the Lithuanians before the Russificatory period beginning in 1864 is that their language is the oldest in the European tongue. This truth is most interesting from an archaeological point of view, but it has no more bearing on the existing problems than have the linguistic curiosities of Albanians and Basques. What does play a *rôle*, however, in the national consciousness of the Lithuanians is their history in the pagan period of the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth centuries, when Lithuania formed an empire including White Russia, and a great part of what is to-day called the Ukraine. True, the language and institutions adopted in this empire were nearer to the White Russian and Ukrainian than to the Lithuanian, but the military power rested with the Lithuanian princes. The next important period in the history of Lithuania begins after her union with Poland in 1386, and finally in 1569, when she entered as an equal state while White Russia and part of the Ukraine were subjugated to Poland. In the second, or Christian period, of her history, as in the first, the language and institutions were foreign, namely Polish. The modern national movement in Lithuania does not cover the territory of her historical conquests, but is limited to the few provinces where the Lithuanian language is predominantly spoken, *i.e.* in the provinces of Kovno, the greater part of Suwalki, Grodno, and Vilno, and parts of East Prussia. The rising of the Lithuanian "intelligentsia" which gave an impulse to the national consciousness of the Lithuanian peasants, is even more recent than that of the "intelligentsia" of the Ukraine, and the difficulty of standardizing the language and of using it for more than colloquial purposes is also immense. But the homogeneity of the Lithuanian race and their historical past make of them a nation of a better defined individuality than either the Ukrainians or any of the Baltic peoples possess. This point Mr. Butler scarcely touches upon, devoting most of the chapter to the relations between the Lithuanians and the Russians and the Poles.

In his dealing with the Ukrainian movement, he quite rightly lays stress on the land question, which possibly promoted the recent agitation among the Ukrainian peasants just as the Austro-Russian rivalry and occasional interference on the part of the Poles promoted the agitation of the Ukrainian "intelligentsia." But how can the Ukrainian movement, whether that manifested by the peasants or by the "intelligentsia," be understood without referring back to the time of original Cossackdom and following its evolution from Ataman Sirko, the ideal organizer of the men's clubs, modelled on Western ideas, among the Slavo-Turkic people, till the re-organization of the Cossacks under Catherine the Great as a weapon of her autocratic rule? The history of the Cossack ought to be studied by every one who wishes to follow the Ukrainian question of the moment, even though it is now mainly an economic question, since no Mazeppa or Chmielnicki has arisen to unite in the Ukraine the nationalism of the peasant with that of the "intelligentsia."

The three chapters on Poland were of particular interest at the times when they appeared in 1917, 1918, and 1919; though so much has been written recently on the same subject of a very thorough character, that their chief value lies in giving the atmosphere surrounding the Polish question at these three particular dates. The chapter on Poland in 1917 is perhaps the most informa-

tive, while that of 1918 seems to be the weakest, both in spirit and in matter. It would have been of great advantage to the book if the last part of this chapter was altogether omitted where the author deplores that the Poles did not introduce compulsory military service, when it is now well known that the refusal of General Pilsudski to give a Polish army to the Germans, however sad in its immediate results for Poland, won in the long run her independence, and saved many unnecessary complications in Eastern Europe. Mr. Butler looked upon the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk more seriously than could have been expected from a careful observer of his standard, but even that which is probably the most disputable part of the book will prove valuable material for a future historian dealing with the time immediately preceding the Allies' victory. The chapter on Poland 1919 is the least important of all in the book, being merely a discussion of party and leaders' differences as they appeared outside the country, and overlooking the very striking events inside Poland which accompanied her re-birth. One feels that Mr. Butler's most valuable contributions are those written under the first impression, and that he loses his power of generalization when dealing with events at a distance of time and place.

In spite of all shortcomings, the majority of which are due to the fact that his work lacks the plan of a book, the 'New Eastern Europe' stands unique among many contributions that have appeared on the subject and which bear a more scholarly stamp, and one can only wish that Mr. Butler may not cease travelling and writing on what he sees, thus providing material to the advantage of geographer and historian.

M. A. CZAPLIKA.

REVIEWS

EUROPE

Wanderings in Italy.— Gabriel Faure. London: Heinemann, 1909. 7s. 6d. *net.*

Byways in Southern Tuscany.— Katharine Hooker. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 1919. 18s. *net.*

M. FAURE'S book is the harvest of many happy autumn holidays in Italy, during which, we gather, he always managed to get a glimpse of at least one of the lakes, since to him they are dearer than anything else the country has to offer in the way of scenery. M. Faure is a man of letters, well versed in the literature of Italy and perfectly at home with the writings of the many Frenchmen who have travelled there before him. Italy is to him a beautiful land, though largely a land of memories, and above all the home of the great artists and architects, whose work inspires so many pages of his book. Of modern Italy and the modern Italians he has nothing to tell us. He was privileged to visit Aquileia and the portions of the old Venetian territory recovered before Caporetto, but even here he is concerned only with the museums and with memories of the past. Within these limits he has certainly given us a charming guide-book to the many parts of North Italy with which he is familiar. In Piedmont-Lombardy he keeps principally to the lake district; then he traverses the entire length of the Via Aemilia, from Piacenza to Rimini and visits Perugia and Assisi. But he has most to tell as of the Veneto, where he explores the canalized Brenta and visits Este and Arquà, Aquileia and Udine as well as Trent, Trieste and the Dolomites.

Miss Hooker's book, with its numerous photos and illustrations, is a description of the portion of Tuscany lying to the south of Siena. The region is not particularly well known, and she systematically explores the