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The Balkan States

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A Hygienic and Medical Guide to the Traveller in Central Africa, and a second edition was published last year. It was compiled by a committee of twelve, and edited by two doctors and a veterinary surgeon. I wish a similar work existed in English. Considering the importance of the subject, I may perhaps be permitted to throw out the suggestion that the British Association should instigate the translation of this work, or, perhaps better still, appoint a small committee to compile a similar work, which would no doubt prove of the utmost value to future African travellers and possible colonists.

THE BALKAN STATES.

BY ARTHUR SILVA WHITE,

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IN South-Eastern Europe we have a striking example of how the growth of nationalities may be largely controlled by physical conditions. The history of nations, of their advance in social and political life, of their natural development and expansion, is at the present day being repeated on a small scale in this remote corner of Europe—at once the oldest and the newest in the Continent.

Two centuries ago, the most terrible of all the Turanian invaders, the Osmanli Turks, then at the height of their power, stood before the walls of Vienna—the gates of the West—but, in this present year of grace, they have practically been crowded out of Christian Europe, and their rôle on the Continent is now restricted to that of a Political Bogey, which, by permission of its unchristian jealousies, is still permitted to worry its flanks. Still earlier arrivals in the Eastern Peninsula than the Turks were some of the present peoples who occupy the land, and over whom successive conquests have swept with scarce any more apparent effect than rooting them deeper in the spot where they first settled. True, a few assimilations and displacements have taken place, but, essentially, the peoples are unchanged except by the weathering influences of Time. Yet, although offering such a bold front to alien invaders, they have never recognised the power of unity; they have ever been divided among themselves, in spite of their common affinities of race and language. But that the present disunion of the Slav States in the Balkans has been largely imposed upon them by their geographical position, their past history—to which we will refer later on—affords many striking evidences. At least, we may be certain that if the Peninsula, instead of being the highly mountainous and diversified district it is, had been a plateau, a very different distribution of races would have obtained at the present day. The actual disposition of the States, whilst largely governed by their physical boundaries, clearly indicates, too, the direction of their natural expansion, which follows the line

of the least resistance. Turning from the political to the social problems which are being solved by the Balkan States, we are no less struck by the important factor represented by their physical environment. Greece dominated the whole Peninsula, but failed to Hellenise it; the Eastern Empire of Rome existed after the Western had fallen, but the Peninsula was not Latinised; and, finally, Mohammedanism has only thrown back for so many centuries the civilisation which at one time equalled that of the Western nations. The Slav States, therefore, besides their elemental advantages of individuality and strength, must owe something to their geographical position; and it will be our endeavour to indicate—however imperfectly, in the limits of a short paper—some of the geographical and ethnical conditions that have determined their present position in the Peninsula. It would, indeed, be impossible to deal with such a complex and inexhaustible subject except in the most superficial and perfunctory manner, the chief merits of which, we hope, may be its suggestiveness.

*Physical Aspect of the Peninsula.*¹—Of the three peninsulas of Southern Europe, perhaps the Balkan Peninsula enjoys the most favourable geographical position and the greatest natural advantages. It is much more varied in shape than that of Spain, and, in richness of contour, even surpasses the Italian Peninsula; its shores, washed by four seas, are indented with gulfs and ports, fringed with minor peninsulas, and embroidered—so to speak—with numerous islands. Several of its valleys and plains compare favourably, in point of fertility, with those of the Guadalquivir and of Lombardy; two zones of vegetation meet and unite the flora of their climates in pleasing landscapes. The picturesque mountains of the Peninsula, so little traversed, are as imposing as those in Italy or Spain, and are mostly covered with dense forests; but, from the nearly total absence of paths, they are less accessible than the Italian Apennines, or even the *sierras* of Spain, although their mean altitude is less and their escarpments broken by a great number of passes; the plateaux which impinge upon them being also much narrower and more eroded into valleys than the high Castilian plains. Lastly, whilst Italy and Spain are imprisoned on the north by mountain barriers difficult to cross, the Peninsula of South-East Europe is joined to the continental mass by a gradual slope, which at no part is barred by natural frontiers. The ranges of the Austrian Alps continue uninterruptedly into Bosnia; and the Carpathians cross the Danube (at the famous obstruction of the Iron Gates) and unite with the Balkan systems. East of the Iron Gates stretches the great plain of the Lower Danube. This great waterway, and its tributary, the Save, form the natural northern boundary of the Peninsula; coming from the heart of Europe, and flowing through the capital cities of the Empire-Monarchy, it finally empties its anything but

¹Based chiefly on *Nouvelle Géographie Universelle: l'Europe Méridionale*, par Elisée Reclus. *Vide* Orographical Map, published with this Number of the *Magazine*.

“blue” waters into the Black Sea, through the three mouths in the swampy Dobruja district.

An almost unique advantage to the Thracian peninsula is presented by its close proximity to the parallel shores of two continents. Europe and Asia meet on the shores of an inland sea which, connecting the Black Sea on the north and the Ægean Sea on the south, separates the two continents by the narrow straits of the Dardanelles and Bosphorus—the continents and the seas thus crossing at right angles to each other. The Dardanelles and Bosphorus thus offer as easy a passage for the peoples of one continent to the other as for the fleets of merchant ships from the Mediterranean to the Black Sea.

The *massifs* and mountain-chains of the Peninsula in no place form a regular system: there is no central range with branches ramifying alternately left and right, and gradually subsiding into the plains. On the contrary, the centre of the Peninsula is far from being the most elevated, and the highest summits are grouped in the most irregular manner in the different parts of the country. The bearings of the mountain crests vary in no less a degree; they lie at all points of the compass. One may say in general terms that the mountain-chains in the west have a parallel trend to the shores of the Adriatic and Ionian Seas, whilst in the east the ranges lie perpendicular to the Black Sea and Archipelago. By its physical relief and general slope, the country may thus be said to turn its back upon Europe: its highest summits, its largest plateaux, and most inaccessible forests, are found in the west and north-west, as if withdrawing from the shores of the Adriatic and the Hungarian plains; and, similarly, all its waters, flowing north, east, and south, finally empty into the Black Sea or into the Ægean, washing the shores facing Asia. But, in this intricate network of mountains, a few more or less distinct ranges may be made out, and, as illustrating the map accompanying this paper, these may be distinguished in a few words. Their nucleus appears to be to the east of the great basin of Sofia, in the Etropol Balkans. From thence to Cape Emineh, on the Black Sea, the Balkans proper form the boundary between Bulgaria and Eastern Rumelia, having a gentle northern slope to the Danube and high escarpments on their southern base. This portion of the Balkans corresponds, in its narrowest sense, to the ancient name of Hæmus—the Turkish name of Balkan, meaning a high range, being applied somewhat ambiguously; and it contains, moreover, the most important mountain passes. In the Turkish sense of the word, the Balkans straggle in an irregular curve right across the Peninsula; but, strictly speaking, the mountain masses which divide the basins of the Danube and Adriatic cannot be called a range. The main chain of the Balkans is accompanied, in various places, by parallel ridges, many of which have distinctive names, and throw off spurs in all directions. Of these may be mentioned the Little Balkans, fringing the Black Sea in the east, and the small though well-defined chain of the Rhodope (Despoto-Dagh), which, with a mean elevation

of 5500 feet, forms the water-parting between the Maritza valley on the north and the Ægean on the south. Muss-alla (9500 feet), in the northern extremity of this range, is the culminating point of the whole of the northern portion of the Peninsula. The Dinaric Alps will be referred to in another part of this paper. The mountain-range loosely called the Pindus runs south from the sources of the Vardar in the Shar-Dagh. Enclosing the plain of Thessaly are several short and lofty ranges, of which the Pindus, of ancient celebrity, is the best defined. On the north-east of this plain the highest peak in the whole Peninsula is found—Mount Olympus, 9750 feet, the gathering-place of the gods, which may be seen over nearly the whole of Greece. In the south, again, are isolated mountains and the Peloponnesian highlands, containing elevations of over 6000 feet. Peaks of from 5000 to 9000 feet are also found in every part of Bosnia, Herzegovina, Servia, Thrace, Macedonia, and Albania, in Northern Greece and the Morea.

The Peninsula of South-Eastern Europe contrasts with the Iberian and Italian by being separated from the continental mass, not by mountains, but by rivers—the Danube and its tributary the Save—on the other side of which commence the plains of Central Europe. North of the Balkans, on both sides of the Danube, are the extensive lowlands of Bulgaria and Wallachia, and the plains of the Dobruja and the Bulgarian sea-board. The other plains of importance in the Peninsula are in the fertile Maritza valley, sweeping down to the Sea of Marmora, and the great plain of Macedonia, west of the Rhodope Mountains.

The first place in the hydrographic systems of the Peninsula must, of course, be given to the Danube, which drains not only its whole northern portion, but also the extensive plains of Rumania. The present delta of the Danube, which is of no great geological age, is very slow in its accretions. The Sea of Marmora receives only a few mountain torrents, but the drainage-area of the Ægean, or Archipelago, comprises the most important river-system of Turkey. From the close proximity of the Illyrian Alps to the western shores of the Peninsula, the rivers which flow into the sea, though very rapid, are of no great length. Lake Scutari and Lake Ochrida—the latter 2300 feet above sea-level—are the only ones of any size in the Peninsula, which, considering its highly mountainous character, is somewhat remarkable. The chief rivers are found in the Bulgarian region of the Hæmus and of the Rhodope; Bosnia has only a few inconsiderable streams flowing towards the Save; Albania some mountain torrents; and the only watercourses of Turkey one can compare with the rivers of Western Europe—the Maritza, the Kara Su, the Vardar, the Indje—flow from the southern slopes of the Balkans and the crystalline *massifs* of the Rhodope system.

Distribution of the Populations.—We shall refer so often to this subject at more convenient places, that only a few general terms may be employed here.

The extreme disorder of the mountain-chains and *massifs* has had its natural resultant in an analogous disorder in the distribution of the peoples inhabiting the Peninsula. Whether they came from Asia Minor by the straits, or from the Scythian plains by the Danube valley, the various groups of immigrants, savage hordes, or peaceful colonists, soon found themselves scattered in the closed valleys or in the gateless amphitheatres, where they were destined to play their part. The various populations, embarrassed by the difficulties presented in this labyrinth of hills and mountains, and as if thrown together at hazard—like so many bees from different hives—in nearly every case entered into conflict. Some, more valiant in war or more industrious in peace, and perhaps predominating in numbers, have increased their territory little by little at the expense of their neighbours; others, on the contrary, vanquished in the struggle for existence, have lost all cohesion and become scattered in innumerable fractions which mutually ignore one another. The Hungarian peoples—to take an example nearer home—so various in race and language, are relatively homogeneous in comparison with the peoples in the Peninsula; yet, in certain districts, communities of eight or ten different stocks live side by side within a radius of only a few miles.

Nevertheless, a general settlement cannot fail to arise out of this chaos: the pacific relations of commerce are more and more and everywhere bringing about an assimilation between the races. Putting aside the political and geographical boundaries—the comparative weakness of which has only lately been illustrated by the union of the two Bulgarias—the present territory of the Peninsula may be divided, according to Reclus, into four ethnological zones. Crete and the islands of the Archipelago, the sea-board of the *Ægean*, the eastern slope of the Pindus and of Olympus, are peopled by Greeks; the space comprised between the Adriatic and the Pindus is the country of the Albanians (Skipetar, the oldest inhabitants of the Peninsula); on the north-west, the region of the Illyrian Alps is occupied by Slavs, known under the different names of Serbs, Croats, Bosnians, Herzegovinans, and Chernagorans (Montenegrins); lastly, the two slopes of the Balkans, the Despoto-Dagh (Rhodope) and the plains of Eastern Turkey, belong to the Bulgarians—a Slavonised Turanian people now practically Slavs. As regards the Turks, the conquerors and the masters of the country, they are scattered here and there in more or less considerable groups, chiefly round the capitals and strongholds; but the only extensive tract of country of which they are, ethnologically speaking, the possessors, is the north-eastern angle of the Peninsula, between the Balkans, the Danube, and the Black Sea.

Historical Geography.—The geographical and ethnological conditions that have determined the history of the Peninsula are so strongly marked, that in order to estimate the forces silently at work there, at the present day, and not usually taken into account by the diplomatist, it is necessary to inquire into the past before venturing to predict the future.

Whether the heterogeneous elements in South-Eastern Europe will ever combine to form a great Slavonic Power, or whether the alien Ottoman Turk can for any length of time be bolstered up by interested nations as a "buffer" against Russian or Slav expansion, is beyond our purpose to inquire. It is more than problematical, apart from the obstacles of national jealousies, whether it were possible for the Aryan and non-Aryan races in the Balkan Peninsula readily to assimilate. In some cases—*e.g.* Bulgaria—we see Turanian conquerors losing their racial characteristics and assimilating with their subjects—the conquered: thus Bulgaria is, for all ethnological purposes, at the present day a Slav State. On the other hand, we find the Ottoman Turk, by reason of his Mohammedanism, assimilating other renegade races: an alien in Christian Europe, he can only exist by the courtesy or the degeneracy of his neighbours. The Magyars—another Turanian race—have a cleaner history. Not only have they penetrated into the heart of the Continent, but, whilst retaining their Turanian language and racial characteristics, they have so firmly planted themselves there that they are now united with an Aryan people, and form an integral portion of the great Empire-Monarchy; but this result must be ascribed to the adoption by the Magyar of the Christian religion, and not to his innate sense of the blessings of so-called Western civilisation.

The map of the Peninsula, from its earliest aspect in Homeric times to that shown this month in our Magazine, has undergone such changes that a rapid survey of them is like looking through a kaleidoscope; to the descendant of the Caliph it might, haply, resemble more closely a dissolving view. But whether we view it as the Greek Peninsula, as the Byzantine Peninsula, or, in its newest phase, as the Balkan or Illyrian Peninsula, we are struck with the never-ceasing struggle of nationalities that has made this part of Europe the most unsettled as well as the least homogeneous in the pages of history.

European history begins in Greece, and Hellenic influences extended northwards in an ever-lessening degree to the foot of the Balkans; but the valley of the Danube lay outside their sphere. It was natural that, from her proximity to the East, Hellas should have been the cradle of European civilisation, the mother of European ideas, and the foster-parent of the arts and sciences. Italy, from her central geographical position, gained the ascendancy over the other Mediterranean Powers—as did Carthage—and Rome, in the heart of Italy, was favoured by its unique advantages of position. The national character, by virtue of which Greece and Rome rose to power, was no doubt equally indebted to the favourable influences of its physical environment.

No other division of the world shows such a homogeneous ethnology as does Europe. It is essentially an Aryan continent: everything non-Aryan is clearly exceptional. The Greeks and the Italians first distinguished themselves among Aryan immigrants, though they may not have been the first of them. The Teutonic races came with the next

wave from the East, and, after them, the Slavs. Of the Turanian invasions, the Huns and Avars have left no distinct trace, the Magyars and Bulgarians have found a permanent home, and—latest of all—the Ottoman Turks have been afforded a lasting settlement. All these waves of immigration passed within the sphere of Hellenic influence, and have themselves, by assimilation or displacement—to use Dr. Freeman's expressions—affected, in their passage, the history of the Balkan Peninsula. Nearly all the lands of the Eastern Peninsula were inhabited, therefore, by a family of races of which the Greeks were only the most eminent. Their relationship must not be denied because the Greeks called them barbarians; at least, they were of a common Aryan stock. Greek was the "polite" language of the whole Peninsula, and, roughly speaking, held its own against the Latin-speaking lands to the west. Illyria, on the eastern shores of the Adriatic, was the border-land between the Greek and Latin parts of the Roman Empire, and offered a convenient spot for the establishment of a Roman province. The pretext for meddling with the affairs of Greece—for pretexts were as easy to find then as now—was duly seized; and in course of time the Greek cities on the Euxine were absorbed in the Roman Empire, and *Greek* and *Roman* became synonymous terms. Greek speech and civilisation, however, survived, and still hold their ground except where displaced by Slavonic and Turkish conquests.

All the nations of the Eastern Peninsula, whether older than the Roman conquest or settlers of later times, are there still as distinct nations. The oldest inhabitants of the Peninsula—the Illyrians—have their representatives in the modern Albanians, or, as they call themselves, *Skipetar*; the Greeks are there, and have kept their language; the Vlachs, who adopted the Roman tongue, are the Rumans or Rumanians of to-day. As regards the invading races, the Goths, the Huns, and the Avars have left no enduring influence. Of the Turanian settlers, the Bulgars have become a Slavonic people. Both they and the Magyars, who have settled further west, immigrated by way of the lands north of the Euxine. Finally, of the non-Aryan invaders who came by way of Asia Minor or the Mediterranean, the Semitic Saracens were mere pirates, and made no final settlement, but the Ottoman Turks, who first gained a footing in 1355, conquered nearly the whole of the Peninsula before the close of the same century, reduced Greece to subjection between 1455 and 1473, and have remained masters to the present century. Since the seventeenth century, however, their power for evil has been growing beautifully less, until, at the present day, it is chiefly limited to an area equal to about two-thirds the size of Great Britain. That their hold upon this remnant of their greatness is of the slightest description, the events of the last decade have evidenced. The struggles of the nationalities in South-Eastern Europe for independence and self-government are as fierce now as in the good old days. Greece, with the aid of the Great Powers, obtained her independence in 1830, as also did Serbia at the beginning of the present century. Wallachia and Moldavia (now united in the kingdom of Rumania) were made

tributary Principalities by the Peace of Paris, 1856. Rumania and Servia obtained their complete independence by the Berlin Treaty of 1878, the former receiving the Dobruja in exchange for a portion of Bessarabia, which was restored to Russia, the latter having its area enlarged. The same Treaty handed over to Austria-Hungary the administration of Bosnia and Herzegovina; and the brave little province of Montenegro, where a Servian tribe had maintained its independence against the Turks since 1839, the principality of Bulgaria and the self-governing province of Eastern Rumelia (since absorbed in the "Greater Bulgaria") were established.

Political Divisions.—The following table gives the area and population of the different parts of the Balkan Peninsula, which we have compiled from the latest official returns. The figures differ somewhat from our English authorities, but may be taken as being at least approximately correct. Owing to the difficulty of obtaining reliable and recent statistics of these countries, our ordinary books of reference cannot be depended on:—

Political Divisions.	Area in Eng. sq. miles.	Population.	Date of last Census.
Immediate Possessions of Turkey in Europe,	63,875	4,500,000	—
Bulgaria (Tributary Principality),	24,699	2,007,919	1881
Eastern Rumelia (Autonomous Province),	13,861	976,100	1885
Bosnia, } (in the occupation of Herzegovina, } Austria-Hungary), Novi-Bazar, }	23,577	1,336,091 168,000	1885 1879 (estimated)
Totals, Turkey in Europe,	126,012	8,988,110	
Servia (Kingdom)	18,757	1,902,419	1884
Montenegro (Principality) . . .	3,486	250,000	1879 (estimated)
Totals, Balkan Peninsula, . .	148,255	11,140,529	

By a treaty executed June 14, 1881—under pressure of the Great Powers—Turkey ceded to Greece 5160 square miles of territory contiguous to the Greek frontier, having a population of about 390,000, of whom nearly all were Greeks.

The only nominally independent States of the Peninsula are, therefore, the kingdom of Servia, and the little principality of Montenegro, for we

may leave out of account the kingdom of Rumania, which, although closely connected with the Peninsula in so many ways, geographically forms no part of it, but belongs altogether to Central Europe. For the same reason, Greece proper—a Peninsula within a Peninsula—may be passed over with only incidental references.

Having thus taken a general view of the Peninsula, we will endeavour, in as few words as possible, to examine each State separately, grouping them in the most natural order that suggests itself.

BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA.

In accordance with the provisions of the Berlin Treaty of 1878, this portion of Turkey was handed over to the administration of Austria-Hungary, who already possessed the adjoining province of Dalmatia—a long slip of coast, divided from Bosnia and Herzegovina by the Dinaric Alps. Although not formally incorporated by treaty, these provinces, together with the Sanjak of Novi-Bazar—between Montenegro and Serbia—form an integral portion of the Empire-Monarchy, and now enjoy the advantages of a settled government.

Their physical features are in striking contrast. Bosnia—the most beautiful of the Balkan Provinces—reminds one of Styria or the Tyrol, in its rugged mountainous character, its dense, almost virgin, forests, and in the picturesqueness of its valleys. The mountains follow a N.E.-S.W. trend, parallel to the Dinaric Alps; and, except in the valley of the Save, there are no large plains. The Dinaric Alps form the water-parting between the Mediterranean and Danube basins, and four rivers—the Unna, the Verbas, the Bosna (from which the province takes its name) and the Drina—flow northwards to their confluence with the Save. The Herzegovina, on the other hand, is a wild district, overstrewn with cyclopean rocks, and watered chiefly by the streams which form, in winter, in the higher lands, and, save in a few depressions, eventually lose themselves underground.

The superficial area, in square miles, of Bosnia is about 16,000; of Herzegovina, 4000; and of Novi-Bazar, 3000. According to the census of 1885, the population of the two former was 1,336,091, composed as follows:—Mohammedans, 492,710; Greek-Orthodox, 571,250; Roman Catholics (with three bishoprics), 265,788; Jews, 5805; the remainder belonging to different faiths. The Mohammedans show an increase since 1879 of 44,000. The Greek-Orthodox, as will be seen by referring to the statistics given above, are greatly in excess of the Roman Catholics; whilst of the 22,000 inhabitants of the capital 70 per cent. are Mussulmans. Novi-Bazar has a population (estimated, 1879) of 168,000.

Prior to the Austrian administration, and the introduction thereby of a settled government, these provinces were a *terra incognita*, but the official *Ortschafts- und Bevölkerungs-Statistik von Bosnien und der Herzegovina* has rescued it from the shades of barbarism.

It is in Bosnia—the centre of pure Mohammedanism—one can best study the simple lives of the strange medley of races—Turks, Albanians, Slavs, Caucasians, and Arabs, to mention a few of them—and estimate the difficulties of assimilation between Eastern and Western elements. For four hundred years, the river Save has been the natural boundary between East and West; at the present day they meet there in more sharply defined contrast than, perhaps, anywhere else in South-Eastern Europe: racial distinctions are marked enough in Hungary and the Croatian and Slavonian frontier districts, but we cross into an Oriental world when we make the passage of the broad and melancholy Save. The same political and social problems that have confronted—still confront—Great Britain in India, Russia in Central Asia, France in Tunis and Algiers, here require a solution: Mussulman and Christian must either assimilate, or the weaker go to the wall. The Agrarian question, too—as *M. de Laveleye* points out in his last work, *La Péninsule des Balkans*—bears a close analogy to that which now threatens the peace of Ireland.

Unlike Slavonia and Hungary, Bosnia offers no advantages for the growth of cereals, but, as in Switzerland and the Tyrol, flocks and herds may be reared with profit. The commerce of Bosnia is almost exclusively in the hands of the Jews, the majority of whom reside in Serejevo, or Bosna-Serai, the capital. The most enterprising are those who have immigrated from Austria and Hungary, where—in the latter at least—their growing power is too keenly felt. In Bosnia, the Jews are of Spanish origin, and, whilst outwardly conforming to the Mussulman mode of life, closely observe the ordinances of their own religion. The simplicity of their lives—even of the wealthiest Jews—is a single but sufficient indication not only of their national spirit, but of the position they take in the country: they fear to arouse the cupidity of their neighbours. The Jew of the Middle Ages, his beliefs, his ideas, his customs, are unchanged to-day on Mussulman soil.

With the exception of the Jews, Tsigans (Gipsies), and some Osmanli—functionaries, soldiers, and merchants—who live in the larger towns of Bosnia, all the inhabitants of the Illyrian Alps are Slavs, and in Herzegovina their characteristics are most strongly marked. The Bosnians themselves, though united by race, are divided by religion,—Mussulman against Christian, Greek-Orthodox against Roman Catholic. Hence, in spite of every natural advantage, they have, unlike their Servian brethren, been unable to emancipate themselves from the Turkish yoke. Their country may be compared to a citadel, so strongly has Nature fortified it against attack from the south; but, with disaffection in their own camp, every struggle for independence has proved abortive. The Mussulmans are no less Slav than the Christians; like them, too, they speak Servian, though a great number of Turkish words have crept into their idiom. Although they form scarcely a third of the population, they possess more than their share of landed property, and in their stronghold

of Seraïevo, they form a State within a State, more inimical to the Christian than is even the Sublime Porte. But of whatever sect or religion, the Bosnians and Herzegovinans possess the same native qualities as the Serbs: they are frank and hospitable, intellectual and industrious, and, whilst possessing the domestic virtues, are fearless in battle. In spite, however, of these good qualities, their customs are not free from certain ignorant superstitions and fanaticism: incessant wars,—tyranny on the one side, servitude on the other,—have degraded them; while the trackless forests and the impassable mountains have formed a barrier against civilisation.

Since these provinces have been rescued from Turkish misrule, the advance in the development of the country and of national education has been considerable. Whether the Empire-Monarchy will ever realise her dream of Oriental expansion, by “going to Salonika,” or whether Serbia will fulfil her national destiny, by absorbing the Slavonian States on the Dalmatian sea-board, will be a question—as *M. de Laveleye* says—that will find an answer (over and above the other obstacles to a Slav federation) in the heart of Austria-Hungary, where the contest is no longer between German and Magyar, but between German and Chekh, Magyar and Croat. The Slavonic movement in Southern Hungary—which found expression in the *Omladina* alliance—is still very real; and, it may be, another *Deák* may arise to plead *Gleichberechtigung*: equal rights for all nationalities, autonomy for each country. Meanwhile, the “patriots” of Agram (Croatia) and Belgrad (Serbia) look into the distant future, and sigh for a Serbo-Croatian State that will unite all the populations speaking the same language—Croats, Serbs, Slovaks, Dalmatians, and Montenegrins.

MONTENEGRO.

This little Principality is deserving of notice, if only from the fact of its independence, surrounded as it is by powerful neighbours: north and east by Herzegovina and Novi-Bazar, and—with the exception of a small slip of coast-line, obtained by the Berlin Treaty, extending between Antivari and Dulcigno—west by Dalmatia, and south by the Turkish province of Albania. The Montenegrins belong to the Servian branch of the Slav race, and are divided into forty tribes. They speak a remarkably pure dialect of Servian. Nominally a limited monarchy, the form of government is still patriarchal, though the legislation of the Church—formerly the State—is now confined to ecclesiastical matters. With the exception of some 4000 Roman Catholics and 7000 Mussulmans, of Albanian or Slav origin, the Montenegrins adhere to the Greek Church.

The Berlin Treaty of 1878 recognised the independence of Montenegro; it also gave her a sea-board, the free navigation of the Turkish river Boyana, the northern shores of Lake Scutari, and the possession of two fortresses and of some territory. The total population in 1879, accord-

ing to official documents (but probably over-estimated), was 250,000—Cettinje (pronounced *Tsettinye*), the capital, having 2000, Podgoritza (a fortress) 4000, and Dulcigno 3000. Cettinje itself is only a village, and the other settlements over the country consist chiefly of mud huts.

The Italian name of Montenegro (Black Mountain) generally obtains among Western nations, and corresponds with the *Kara-Dagh* of the Turkish and the *Cherna Gora* of the natives. It happily expresses the bleak, forbidding character of this district, which is like “a sea of immense waves turned into stone,” the black aspect having at one time been enhanced by dark forests of pine, oak, and beech trees. Still, round the Lake of Scutari are some charming spots; and the valleys, few in number, contain fruitful soil. The country is cut up into a succession of elevated naked ridges, which, in the east, culminate in the highest peak of the Dinaric Alps—Kutsh Kom, 9575 feet above sea-level. Agriculture is the chief occupation of the people, but live stock of all kinds are reared.

The Montenegrins, although closely related to the Servians of the Danubian districts, possess a distinct individuality as mountaineers: expelled by the circumstances of their position from the limited soil of the valleys into their mountain fastnesses, they have always led a wild, independent life. Nor is it to be wondered at that brigandage of all sorts ranked as an honourable profession among them, when, driven by famine, they have been forced to make armed raids into the outlying districts to gather the harvests of the earth—even under the Turkish guns. “When I was a robber,” is as familiar an expression in Montenegro as is that of “When I was a boy” in this country. Robbery was to them an economic necessity, unless—as many of them did—they chose to give up their independence and submit to Turkish rule, or emigrate to foreign parts. Under these harsh circumstances has the Montenegrin become the brave and lawless warrior he is to-day, hot-headed and violent, and ever ready to resort to the arms which he habitually carries about him, no matter what his occupation may be. Their law was “an eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth”: hence, hereditary and family feuds were maintained from generation to generation; but now, on account of the stringent measures of the Government, they rarely result in bloodshed.

SERVIA.

Servia obtained her complete independence of Turkey (after centuries of stubborn resistance) by Article XXXIV. of the Berlin Treaty of 1878; and she is now one of the most promising of the Balkan States. In her capital, Belgrad, she holds the key to Hungary, which, from 1521 to 1791, was alternately in the possession of Turkey and Austria; by her northern boundary, the rivers Save and Danube, she has a fine waterway as an outlet of her trade to the Black Sea; and the country, though half covered by mountains and forests, has a residue of fine cultivable land, where wheat and maize yield excellent crops. In spite of these natural

advantages, the country is still in a backward state, and the roads—more especially the fine Roman highway which led from Constantinople, through the heart of the country, to Belgrad—are in disrepair. Servia is known to possess mineral wealth, too, but it has not been developed. There are practically no industries: the country being essentially an agricultural one, and the land being in the possession of a stiff-necked peasantry, the stimulus to the creation of an export trade is wanting, though the Government are doing their best to encourage it.

Ramifications of the Carpathians, Balkans, and Dinaric Alps, attaining altitudes varying between 2000 and 3000 feet, and afforested with fine trees, chiefly oak, occupy half of the area of the kingdom. Though there is a gradual slope to the Danube, the rivers in the interior are not fairly navigable; and the means of communication, prior to the comparatively recent introduction of railways and telegraphs, were of the simplest description. About 1,400,000 acres of land are under cultivation, and as many again are meadow-land. The farms vary in size from 10 to 30 acres, and, altogether, some 1,750,000 persons are engaged in agriculture.

The population of Servia—almost entirely Slav—is under two millions. There are some 5000 Roman Catholics, chiefly subjects of Austria-Hungary, 500 Protestants, and 4000 Jews. Religious toleration is not practised; the established Church is the Greek-Orthodox, but it is independent of the Patriarch at Constantinople. There is a Gipsy population of about 27,000 engaged in the cultivation of the land. The Ottoman subjects, who inhabited the territory acquired from Turkey (4000 square miles) by the Berlin Treaty, are rapidly diminishing in numbers, though in 1884 there were still 10,000. Of the three chief towns, Belgrad, the capital, had a population, in 1884, of 35,470; Nish (Nissa), 16,180; Leskovatz, 10,800.

The annual increase in the population is more rapid than in our own country, for Servia has the highest percentage of marriages in Europe. The country has been described as the only genuine Arcadia: the home of democracy, and of “a smiling and contented peasantry.” This self-satisfaction on the part of the peasant has been ascribed to the fact that he is the possessor of the soil, having, in his long wars of independence, packed off the ineffable Turk “bag and baggage”—or, rather, without these impedimenta. The land is now in the possession of the peasantry, whose democratic instincts will not brook any interference with their “divine right” on the part of an unpopular ruler. That, in common with the Bulgarians, they should forget their gratitude to the White Tsar, who gave them their liberty, and seek to retain this precious gift to themselves, is only in accordance with their national traditions. Brave as is the Serb, he might well think twice before “leaning” on his Imperial Protector “as a brother,” or taking any uncalled-for liberty of this sort. The national arms of Servia is an expression of the popular voice: a white cross on a red ground, with the four initial letters, in gold,

of the motto:—*Çama Çloga Çpasiva Çerbi*—"Concord alone can save the Serbs."

The Serb is honourably distinguished among Eastern people for his nobility of character, his highly poetic temperament, his native dignity, and incontestable bravery. "We have no nobles," they say of themselves; "we are all noble." The men have a distinctly military bearing, and their well-knit and powerful frames enable them to carry their heads proudly; the women are equally distinguished for their appearance, and for the taste they display in their picturesque semi-oriental costumes. Yet, in spite of their high order of intellect, their customs still bear evidence of an unformed national character, though in their family life and relationship—upon the perfection of which the greatness of a nation so much depends—and in their friendships, they display a native virtue that leaves little to be desired. They are born freemen, and in their institutions show an intelligent application of the freedom they have so dearly won for themselves. The Serb is so proud, and so contented with his primitive methods of cultivating the soil, that he gets his servants from the Empire-Monarchy, and calls in his friends (who reciprocate, as in the Canadian North-West) to assist him in gathering the harvests of the earth. As for the inhabitants of Old Servia, the Arnaut struts about with a whole arsenal of weapons about him, and is almost as enterprising as he is unscrupulous and vain. They are the descendants of the wild Arnauts who, after the battle of Kossovo, embraced the Mussulman faith, in order to obtain the land and privileges accorded to all those who took the turban.

BULGARIA, INCLUDING EASTERN RUMELIA AND MACEDONIA.

The Tributary States of Bulgaria and Eastern Rumelia are now united under a personal union. On September 17, 1885, the Government of Eastern Rumelia was overthrown by a bloodless revolution; the union with Bulgaria was proclaimed, and, after some wrangling, the Prince of Bulgaria was named Governor-General of Eastern Rumelia, agreeable to the stipulations of Art. XVII.¹ of the Berlin Treaty. Something approximating to the Great Bulgaria of the San Stephano Treaty has thus been obtained by the popular voice; and it is important to notice how even geographical conditions—for the two provinces are divided by the Balkan range—and the solemn will of Europe, have had to succumb to the principle of national development. Since their arrival in the Peninsula in the seventh century, the Bulgarians have always formed an ethnographical unity—a nation; yet the European Plenipotentiaries, by the Treaty of Berlin 1878, tried the dangerous experiment of apportioning this nationality into three living parts:—(1) Bulgaria—a nearly independent principality; (2) Rumelia—half enslaved, half free; and (3) Macedonia—a Christian province, whose autonomy was refused, aban-

¹ "The Governor-General of Eastern Rumelia shall be named by the Sublime Porte, with the consent of the Powers, for the term of five years."

doned to the yoke of a Mussulman Power, under which it had so long suffered. In these three provinces, there are no less than five millions of Bulgarians. The result, which might surely have been foreseen, has precipitated the events which now threaten the peace of South-East Europe. At the present moment we see the union of the two Bulgarias unanimously proclaimed, and ratified by the late elections, whilst Macedonia is in a state of anarchy—ground down by the extortions of Ottoman rule, its Christian inhabitants the victims of the Turkish Beys; overrun and terrorised by the Arnaut brigands; and sacrificed to the ambitious designs of Greece, who seeks to re-establish her pristine empire.

The history of Bulgaria is an interesting one. The Bulgars first crossed the Danube, coming from the banks of the Volga, in the fifth century, and occupied the Eastern portion of the Peninsula. The process of assimilation with their Slav subjects has already been referred to; they soon grew into a great Slav Power. Under their Tsar Krum, the "Kingdom of Bulgaria"—the capital of which was Preslav—received tribute from Byzantium, occupied Adrianople, and signed a treaty of alliance with Charlemagne. During the ninth and tenth centuries, the Bulgarians were victorious in their wars against the Magyars in the north, and the Greeks in the south, and had reached the height of their power. Their Tsar Simeon rejoiced in the title of "Autocrat of all the Bulgarians and of the Greeks:" *Imperator Bulgarorum et Blacorum*. They dominated the whole Peninsula; and it is interesting to note, in reference to the Bulgarian ascendancy, that already in 976, their Tsar Shishman, whose power ranged over the whole Peninsula, conceived the idea of a State founded on the unity of race, and caused himself to be styled "Emperor of the Slavs." The rivalry between Bulgaria and Byzantium continued, with varying successes, until the arrival of the Osmanli Turks. In 1356, Bulgaria and her ally, Servia, pressed to the walls of Constantinople, and only failed in the establishment of a great Slav State by reason of the defectiveness of their administrative organisation. The Servians succumbed at the decisive battle of Kossovo in 1389, and Tirnova, the Bulgarian capital, was taken four years after by the son of Bajazet. From that time the Ottoman power commenced to dominate. Bulgaria, under the influence of Byzantium and of Christianity, had attained, in the Middle Ages, a degree of civilisation equal to that of Western nations, but the invasions, first of the Tartars, and subsequently of the Osmanli, entirely destroyed it.

The Principality still holds an unique position in the Peninsula. A fine waterway as her northern boundary and an outlet to the sea; a seaboard; a purely agricultural country, capable of great development and of maintaining five times the present population; free institutions, and about the most liberal Constitution in Europe; a peasantry possessing the solid qualities and persevering industry of Northern races: with these elements for her economic development, her right to a national existence cannot be disputed. The country is very fertile, and has the advantages of a mild

climate, wooded mountains, a fine system of waterways, and cultivable plains. The land is chiefly in the possession of the peasantry, who have a natural aptitude for agricultural pursuits. The manufacturing industries of Bulgaria proper hold only a secondary position, for the rural populations—having no large centres to supply, but only their own simple wants—are self-supporting. That this is an element of weakness—looking to their ultimate development—cannot be denied; but their history as a modern nation is still young, and the country is rapidly breaking down the barriers imposed upon her by her geographical isolation. Eastern Rumelia is in many respects in advance of the sister country beyond the Balkans: it has much longer been open to European influences, connected as it is with Constantinople and the south by the valley of the Maritza. A distinction must therefore be drawn between the Bulgarians of the Principality and their Slav compatriots in Eastern Rumelia; the latter, having been in contact with the Greeks, and always having kept up relations with Constantinople, are more advanced in their political life, and have come more in contact with European customs. That the Principality is itself coming under this influence is shown by the rapid strides it has made in perfecting its political and social systems; and that this progress is not confined to the towns only, but spreads over the whole country, may be inferred from the rapid breaking-up of the *Zadrugas*, or groups of families, living on a common property with community of goods, and under patriarchal discipline.

The census taken in 1881 showed a population of 2,007,919, of whom 70 per cent. were Greek-Orthodox, 28·79 per cent. Mohammedan, and 0·72 per cent. professed the Jewish faith. Grouped according to language, 67 per cent. were Bulgarians, 26·26 per cent. Turks, 2·44 per cent. Wallachians, 1·87 Tsigans, and the remainder chiefly Greeks, Jews, and Tartars.

The present capital of the Principality is Sofia, with a population of over 20,000. A more disadvantageous spot, considering the imperfect means of communications, could scarcely have been chosen for a capital. Tirnova, the ancient capital, would have been much more suitable, or—now that the East Rumelian province has been united—Philippopolis. Sofia is situated on a plain, sadder far than the Roman Campagna, and chiefly inhabited by the ancient but prosaic tribe called the *Chops*. It is almost destitute of shelter, and far from healthy. In this respect it resembles Pesth, which, from its unsheltered position, is baked in the summer and frozen solid in the winter—the extremes of temperature in both places being very considerable and subject to great fluctuations. Bulgaria had her capital fixed for her when she obtained her emancipation through Russia, and the only reasonable supposition for Sofia having been chosen is, that it possesses certain strategic advantages from its position in the great highway leading from Constantinople to Belgrad, and is situated at a convenient centre for administering the affairs of Bulgaria, Rumelia, and Macedonia, for the latter of whom autonomy was unhappily refused.

The other principal towns are Varna, with a population of over 24,000 ; Shumla, 23,000 ; Rustchuk, 26,000 ; Widin, 13,000 ; and Razgrad, Sistova, Tirnova, and Plevna, with over 11,000. The population in the towns has, however, greatly diminished since the Russo-Turkish war, owing to the emigration of the Mussulmans (chiefly to Asia Minor), in order to avoid military service ; and the same may be said of Eastern Rumelia and others of the newly-emancipated States ; but there is evidence to show that every privilege was accorded them to observe the rites of their religion, and the Mussulman soldiers were always allowed to mess together. It is stated by *M. de Laveleye*, in his *Péninsule des Balkans*, that over 200,000 Mussulmans have thus emigrated from Bulgaria alone ; and this cannot be greatly over-estimated, as *Dr. Kiepert's* ethnical map shows a very dense Mohammedan population on the Bulgarian sea-board. Further westwards, the emigration has been more pronounced. For example, Widin, which before the war had 30,000 inhabitants, now has only 14,000. Their departure does not seem to have been greatly regretted, for their lands have been sold at nominal prices to the native peasantry, and the commercial traffic has nearly doubled in value. Both in Bulgaria and Servia commercial relations are chiefly with Austria, but England and Rumania have an important share.

The Bulgarians are, in general, of smaller stature than their neighbours, the Servians ; but they are powerfully built, and carry a firm head on their shoulders. Many travellers have discovered in them a striking resemblance to the solid Breton peasant ; indeed, they possess in a remarkable degree the rugged dignity and plain common-sense of a free and independent people. Without having the vivacity of the Rumanian, or the *esprit* of the Servian, the Bulgarian has no less a share of intelligence. In the southern districts, where the chains of slavery have hung heavily on him, he wears a sad and disconsolate mien ; but in the northern plains and in the villages shut in by mountains, where he leads a freer life, he is light-hearted and fond of pleasure. On the north-western slope of the Balkans and in the fertile valley of the Timok (where the late fratricidal outbreak occurred) the Bulgarian character more closely approximates to the Servian ; and here it attains its highest type. Considered together, the Bulgarians of the plains are a peace-loving, industrious people. Unlike the Servians, they have no warlike pride, and have long ceased to celebrate the great victories and deeds of their ferocious ancestors. The typical Bulgarian is a peaceful peasant, laborious and sensible, a good husband and a good father, loving the comforts of home, and practising all the domestic virtues.

The cultivators of the land are nearly everywhere the possessors of the soil. There are no class prejudices (as yet, but progress will alter all that), and no aristocracy or large landed-proprietorships. The Bulgarian peasant contrasts with the Servian in this respect, that his qualities, though less showy, are more useful : he has greater common-sense, and is more persevering and industrious. The Servian resembles the Pole, the

Bulgarian the Chekh or Saxon ; the former may contribute more to intellectual, the latter to economic, progress.

Bulgaria possesses one of the freest and most democratic constitutions in Europe, which, like that of Eastern Rumelia, seems to be modelled on the lines of the Belgian Constitution, except that there is no Second Chamber, and election is by universal suffrage.

Eastern Rumelia obtained administrative autonomy by the Treaty of Berlin, 1878. It was the district that suffered most during the last war, and, it will be remembered, a Russian Corps of Occupation held the province until May 1879, or until nine months after the ratification of the Treaty. The census of last year gives the total population of the province at over 976,000, scattered over an area of 13,800 English square miles, and composed of the following :—Christian Bulgarians, 682,757 ; Turks and Moslem Bulgarians, 200,499 ; Greeks, 53,045 ; Gipsies, 27,201 ; Jews, 6993 ; Armenians, 1867 ; Foreigners, 3738. These figures show the preponderating numbers of the Bulgarians, and it was natural that in the last Provincial Assembly they should have had a large majority. Of the 36 deputies, 29 were Bulgarians, 2 Turks, and 2 Greeks. Of the deputies nominated by the Governor (who, by the way, must be a Christian), 7 were Bulgarian Orthodox, 1 Turk, and 1 Greek.

Philippopolis, the capital, is beautifully situated in the fertile Maritza valley, and has in no wise an Oriental aspect. By the latest returns it had 33,442 inhabitants—viz., 16,752 Bulgarians ; 7144 Turks ; 5497 Greeks ; 2168 Jews ; 806 Armenians ; 112 Gipsies, and 963 Foreigners.

In the first two years of the autonomy, the nationalities, as might have been expected, were in constant conflict, but the Bulgarians had no difficulty in obtaining the upper hand. Two political parties were formed—the Liberals, Government or Moderate, and the Nationalists or Unionists, who supported a more decided policy ; but both parties equally desired the union of the two Bulgarias. It was the Unionists who, in the summer of 1884, organised the petition for incorporation with the Principality.

The physical aspects of the country are very varied—the surface in the west being broken up by the offshoots of the Albanian ranges, and in the north and north-east by the Balkans and their spurs. According to the latest statistical returns, 1,663,000 acres of land are under tillage. The principal exports are cereals, and the imports live stock ; but there are considerable woollen manufactures, and the growth of the vine and tobacco receive considerable attention.

Macedonia presents in a nutshell the difficulties arising out of the strife of nationalities. Bulgaria claims the territory by reason of her long historical and ethnical connections—the purest Bulgarian being still spoken on the Rhodope uplands, where are preserved the treasures of her ancient folk-songs. Greece, who would sacrifice everything to realise her “great idea” of re-establishing her former Empire, asserts a majority in the population. Serbia, on the other hand, covets the

northern part, which formed the ancient centre of Dushan's Empire, and the southern part, because it leads to the Mediterranean. Austria-Hungary wants Salonika; and, meantime, the province is still under the Turkish yoke, and is very slowly being depopulated of its Christian inhabitants. If we turn to statistics we could not—any more than could the Berlin Plenipotentiaries—decide which was the predominant race in this unhappy province. Greece claims a large majority; so does Rumelia; Turkey does not count the people. It would thus be seen that figures can be made to prove anything. If, however, we turn to disinterested authorities, we may be enabled to ascertain the approximate truth. According to Reclus, Kiepert, and other well-informed writers, we find the Bulgarians greatly in the majority,—nowhere have they become Hellenised.

The province is at the present day in a state of anarchy. Exposed to the persecutions of the Greeks on the one hand, the extortions and cruelties of the Turks on the other, it is now under club-law, and infested by the bands of Arnaut brigands who everywhere carry death and desolation in their path.

Although Macedonia forms part of the Ottoman Empire, we have grouped it with Bulgaria, not only because it once was incorporated in the Bulgarian dominions, but because, at the present day, it is still Bulgarian in race and language.

Albania, too, although an integral portion of Turkey, is practically independent of Ottoman rule; in fact, the Albanians have always been an independent people. They are of unknown origin, and the oldest inhabitants, it is said, of the Peninsula. Before the barbarian inroads, they possessed the whole of the western portions as far as the Danube, but were ultimately forced back into their mountain fastnesses, where they have since maintained their proud independence, assimilating slightly with the Serbs, Bulgars, and Rumans, but, except in a few places in the south, refusing to be Hellenised. The area of Albania is estimated at nearly 19,000 square miles, and includes the ancient Epirus, part of Macedonia, and Illyria. It is a highly mountainous district, being traversed in the interior by a ramification of the Dinaric Alps, joining the Pindus range in the south, from which numerous spurs are thrown out east and west; and it has always been distinguished for the rude valour of its inhabitants. Owing to its remote situation, the Greeks never (except, perhaps, under Pyrrhus) conquered the country; and, on the fall of the Roman Empire, the Albanians rose to power, and held their own against the Turks and the Bulgarians, who dominated over all the surrounding districts. In 1478 the Turks succeeded in conquering them, and have held them nominally subject ever since, though their allegiance has been of the slightest. The inhabitants of Albania exceed 1,200,000—a considerable portion of whom are Turks and Greeks, but the basis of the population consists of the original race.

Of Turkey in Europe, therefore, very little is left. The Turks have never formed a majority of the population, nor do they now in those districts still under their misrule. The other races are increasing, or at least holding their own, but the Turks are everywhere giving way, and their dominion is retreating before the rapid march of civilisation.

In the Christian populations of the Balkan States, their free institutions and liberal governments, we see the elementary principles which founded the United States of America. History points out the effects of war (if other means fail) in consolidating a loosely-formed society; and the federation of tribes, or races, or nationalities, is the natural resultant of this scourge. Greece and Switzerland may be cited as examples of the same law acting on a higher civilisation than obtains in the Balkan States, but which, if applied to them, would promise the federation of the Slav States with a constitution like that of Switzerland.

NOTES ON THE SEABOARD OF ABERDEENSHIRE.

BY WILLIAM FERGUSON, OF KINMUNDY.

III.—*Conclusion.*

AT the northern extremity of the wide sweep of sandy shore known as the Ward of Cruden, described in the last paper, the Water of Cruden joins the sea, and beyond it we have a continuation of the high lands again. On the north bank of the embouchure of the stream is the rising fishing village of Port Erroll. Within the last few years the Earl of Erroll has here constructed a commodious harbour, which is yearly attracting an increasing number of boats for the herring fishing. It is also a coastguard and a lifeboat station.

On the first prominent granite headland to the north of the Port, stands the modern Slains Castle, the seat of the Earls of Erroll. Of this mansion the *View of the Diocese of Aberdeen* says:—"BOWNESS, now SLAINS, a fair, and very large court. The old castle here, and a part of the court, was built under King James VI., by Francis, Earl of Erroll, on the king's demolishing the original Castle of Slains (see *Scottish Geographical Magazine*, vol. ii. p. 406), because of that earl's being in arms against Argyll at Glenlivet; and the rest has been continued by his successors, till Charles, the last earl, added the front, A.D. MDCCVII." Great additions were made by Earl Gilbert, previous to the time of Earl Charles—indeed to such an extent that he has sometimes been regarded as the founder of the castle. The present structure, for the most part, dates from 1836, in which and following years the castle was mostly rebuilt. The lower part of the south-east tower belongs to the original structure, as also a piazza formerly running round the inner square. There is a Latin inscription on a stone indicating that the foundation of this piazza was

THE BALKAN STATES



