4. UNATTACHED

8 Lerric branch represented by 9. UNATTACHED *(a) Hebrew.
**(b) 'Phœnician or Pub
**(a) Arabic. 2. ARABIC branch, represented by .. THE FINNO-TATARIC (Turanian, Uralo-Altaic, &c.) 1. SAMOYEDIC branch or group, represented \ (a) Yurak (a) Furnish proper or Suonic:
(b) Karclian.
(c) Tchudic
(d) Vepsic.
(c) Votick.
(f) Crewinian.
(g) Esthonian.
(a) Livonian.
(b) Lapponic.
(f) Tcheremissian.
(g) Mordvinian.
(h) Degravian. 2. FINNIC OF UGBIAN represented by) Magyar or Hungarian) Kazak Khirghiz. 3. Turkish or Tatar group, represented by. (b) Nogairic. (c) Tehuvak. (d) Turkish.

From this conspectus it appears that there are still about 60 distinct languages spoken in Europe, without in-cluding Latin, Greek, Old Slavonic, and Hebrew, which are still used in literature or ecclesiastical liturgies. Besides, as we shall presently see, all those which are spoken over extensive territories, and some even which are confined within very narrow limits, are broken up into several distinct dialects. Most of the number, however, are destined to disappear within a comparatively short period, before the encroachments of the few which are especially favoured by political circumstances and literary culture. The process is rapidly going on, and everything tends to its acceleration Some, indeed, whose doom appeared almost sealed in the end of last century, have gathered fresh life and repulsed the intrusive language by which their existence was threatened; and on others a temporary and melancholy restoration has been inflicted by the mistaken enthusiasm of a patriotic minority. English, Freuch, German, Russian, Italian, and Spanish will probably for a long time share the real dominion of Europe; Dutch and the Scandinavian tongues will maintain their ground, but they hardly give promise of expansion; Bohemian, Hungarian, and the South-Slavonic have made good their position; and Neo-Hellenic, under favouring circumstances, may get possession of the territory of its nobler ancestor

Greek and Latin may fairly claim the first place in a historic skotch, on account of the immense and varied influence they have exerted, directly or indirectly, on the popular and literary language of all the prominent peoples of Europe. The former, which is preserved in what is at once the most perfect and the most multiform of the older literatures of the world, was spoken wherever a Greek city was established in Asia, Europe, or Africa. It had several well-marked phonetic dialects:—the Eolic, represented in Europe by the Beoctian variety; the Doric, employed in Sparta and most of the other Peloponnesian states, as well as in other colonies of Sicily and Southern Italy; and the Ionic, which in the Attic dialect attained its noblest development, and became the principal literary form. A rude dialect of the Eolian type was spoken in Thessaly; and in several districts of northern Greece other varieties must have had their home, some of them probably so divergent from the more cultured dialects as to be unrecognizable by the rough and ready philology of the ancient Greeks. After the extension of the political power of the Hellenic race by the Hellenized Macedonians the Attic dialect became in a necessarily modified guise the language of at least the educated chasses over a wide foreign area. This sourh Sidaesros, or common dialect as it was called, was that in which all the Christian Scriptures were, if not originally penned, at least most potently disseminated; and some time after the establishment of the seat of the empire at Constantinople it was adopted as the official language of Eastern Europe, and developed or degenerated into what is distinguished as Byzantine Greek. Amid all the linguistic confusion of mediaval and modern times in the Balkan peninsula the old Hellenic speech wagen and modern times in the Balkan peninsula the old Hellenic speech ungentained a precarging and degraded life confusion of mediaval and modern times in the Balkan peninsula the old Hellenic speech maintained a precarious and degraded life

in the so-called Romaic of the Greek people, still recognizable to the philologist, but to the vulgar car and eye very successfully disguised. It is still spoken, not only in the modern kingdom of Greece, but in Thessaly and other parts of Turkey along the coasts of the Ægean and the Sea of Marmora, and in the Greek settlements of southern Russia. Since the declaration of national independence an attempt has been made to go back to something liker the language of Xenophon; but as yet the Neo-Hellenic is almost purely a literary form, unintelligible to the great bulk of the people in the country. At best it is only a compromise between ancient Greek and Romaic, neither conforming to the classical standard of the one nor systematically accepting the grammatical changes developed in the other. As education advances,—and it is advancing rapidly under the control of the central administration,—it will probably take root among the people, and under the vivifying influences of national life grow up into a national speech. The ancient common dialect is still used in the liturgical services of the Oriental Church. The alphabet has been employed by several communities in the Turkish empire for their Turkish dialects,—among others by the people of Mariupol.\footnote{1}

Latin was only one of a number of closely related languages domiciled in the peninsula of the Apennines, and by several of these it was affected much in the same way in which English is affected by German or French. Most of the number have left neither literature nor history behind them, but they must still be differentiating factors in the dialects of modern Italy. Oscan, which was spoken in a large part of the country south of Rome, and Umbrian, which takes its name from a district to the north, are both known to us from inscriptions,—the latter by the remarkable liturgical series called the Eugubine Tables. The Latin language kept pace with the extension of the Roman empire till it came into contact with the higher culture of Greece and the East; as an aggressive language it has no historic parallel, for though the area of English has advanced as rapidly in modern times, this advance has mainly found place where English-speaking people have outnumbered the foreign elements in the population. It continued to be the language of nearly all European literature for centuries after it had ceased to be a spoken speech; and it was the language of all learned litera-Latin was only one of a number of closely related languages nearly all European literature for centuries after it had ceased to be a spoken speech; and it was the language of all learned literature well on in the 17th century. It is still used in the liturgy of the Roman Catholic Church, and still forms the most potent linguistic element in all European education. Its alphabet is more widely employed than any other in Europe, and is at the present moment gaining ground against the "Gothie" characters of modern Germany, as it did in early ages against the Saxon characters in

Germany, as it did in early ages against the Saxon characters in England.

Of the languages which have sprung from Latin, French resembles it most in its fortunes, though not in its forms. It is the official, liferary, and educational language of the country whose name it bears, and is daily becoming more and more the popular language as well. Based as it is on the old langua d'oil of the north, it has gained the superiority over the dialects of Burgundy, Picardy, and Normandy, and the more cultured Provencal of the south, has already reduced them to the rank of mere patois, and is gradually diminishing even their local importance. On the north-west it is more slowly displacing the Breton, and in the south making inroads on the Basque. It was nearly naturalized among a large part of the inhabitants of Alsace-Lorraine, and is still spoken by upwards of 200,000 of the new citizens of the German empire. In Switzerland it is the mother tongue of about 600,000 people, being dominant in Neufchatel, Geneva, and Vaud, and sharing the ground with German in Freiburg, Valais, and Bern. In Belgium it is the principal speech of the educated classes. No European language has had such an extensive foreign history within the continent. Not only was the closely related Norman French introduced into Eugland in the 11th century, with such striking effect on the English vocawas the closely related Norman French introduced into Eugland in the 11th century, with such striking effect on the English vocabulary, but at several subsequent periods literary French has been potently at work. In the decadent period of German literature it largely supplemented the German language among the upper classes, and for a time furnished a large proportion of his vocabulary to the nominal writer of German. In Russia there was a similar French period about the beginning of the 18th century, which has left its influence to this day on the official publications of the Government. And in spite of the growing claims of German and English, French is still acquired by a greater number of foreigners than any other modern toneue.

modern tongue.

The language usually known as Italian is not so much the national language of Italy as the language of a special district. The other dialects have not sunk to the level of patois; and at the present moment it is a matter of keen debate what is to be considered the true standard for the people at large. From Venice to Palermo there is a rich variety of forms which have received more or less of literary culture; and the pretensions of Florence to be the sole and final arbitress are far from being unanimously, admitted. Whatever position be assigned to Tuscan as the language of education, it will be a long time before it attain the predominance in

the greater number of words which it has borrowed from Arabic.

Portuguese is really what the name implies, and has to contend against no alien idioms. In comparison with Spanish it has diverged further from the Latin type. It has been equally indebted to Arabic, and has also a considerable French element.

Walloon, the language spoken by the Latinized people of the Low Countries, is now a mere patois. Ladin is spoken by about 580,000 persons who occupy several considerable areas in the Alpine region, from the valley of the Rhine in the west to the neighbourhood of Aquilcia on the Adriatic in the east.² Roumanian is not only the national language of the country of that name, but is used by a considerable population in Servia, Hungary, Transylvania, Bukovina, Bessarabia, Roumelia, Thessaly, and Albania. In Roumenia it is the object of increasing literary culture; and in spite of the foreign influences to which it has been so long exposed, it does not

it is the object of increasing literary culture; and in spite of the foreign influences to which it has been so long exposed, it does not present much variety of dialect in the other districts.

Of the Teutonic languages the Gothic furnishes the oldest literary monument—the translation of the Scriptures by Ulphilas or Wulfila, who flourished in the latter part of the 4th century; but it is totally extinct, and among the living representatives of the branch the first place is due to what is popularly known as German par excellence,—that is, the modern literary or cultured form of High German. This is usually dated from Luther's translation of the Bible, which marks the transition from the "Middle" to the "New" period. It is not only the recognized speech of the various states of the German empire, but either in its cultured shape or in tributary dialects it is spoken by about 9,000,000 people in Austria-Hungary, and by nearly 2,000,000 in Switzerland. It has lost ground through the revival of Bohemian and Hungarian, but has gained on all the minor linguistic enclaves. Along the frontier regions of Russia and Poland it is partially retreating, partially advancing: Russia naturally discourages the German element in the Baltic provinces, and Germany as naturally the Polish element in Prussia. In both districts, Gernan is the language of higher education. Whatever repressive measures Russia may adopt, it can plead, not only the example of Germany, but the fact that it is only attempting to recover ground that has been lost by the Slavonic tongues. Slavonic names of places occur as far west as Hanover, though the Germans frequently disguise or destroy them. Where it meets the Italian frontier the Teutowic language is Slavonic names of places occur as far west as Hanover, though the Germans frequently disguise or destroy them. Where it meets the Italian frontier the Teutonic language is retrogressive. Botzen in the end of last century was a border town of the German area; it is now thoroughly Italianized; and even Meran, several miles up the valley of the Adige, and 60 miles from the political frontier, is rapidly losing its Teutonic character. That the movement has been in this direction for centuries is clear; but it is doubtful whether the present German enclaves of the Sette Communi and Tredici Communi were always insular, or are to be taken as proof that the Teutonic frontier formerly extended as far south as the neighbourhood of Verona and Vicenza.³

The territorial relations of the Scandinavian languages are sufficiently indicated by their names. They are nowhere aggressive, except where they come into contact with Finnish and Lapp. All of them, even the Faroese, have a certain amount of literature; but

of them, even the Faroese, have a certain amount of literature; but three only, Danish, Swedish, and Icelandic, are vigorously cultivated. Norway is mainly indebted for its books to Sweden and Denmark,

Norway is mainly indebted for its books to Sweden and Denmark, and its language is slowly passing into a patois. Danish has undergone the greatest changes from the old Norse type, and naturally from its position has been most affected by foreign influences.

Of the Low German group the Old Saxon, formerly spoken between the Rhine and the Elbe, has left several remarkable literary monaments; and two or three of its dialects, now bracketed together as Anglo-Saxon, furnished the basis of the present English language,

Italy which French possesses in France. The dialects are usually divided into three main groups:—those of Upper Italy, including Genoese, Piedmontese, Venetian, Emilian, and Lombard; those of Couttal Italy, including Tuscan, Roman, and Consican; those of Southern Italy, including Neapolitan, Calabrian, Sicilian, and Sardinian. From Italian the other peoples of Europe have borrowed many terms for artistic technicalities, but comparatively little which belongs to everyday life.

Literary Spanish or Castilian is in much the same position as literary Italian, with this difference, that its literary precedence is more definitely established. A large area is still occupied by Catalonian or Catalonian proper, in Valencia, and in Majorca; and the speech of the Galicians is much more akin to Portuguese. In Catalonia rich and poor, citizens and peasants, speak the provincial language; in Valencia and Majorca only the cultivated classes employ Castilian. On the whole, however, by its mere vocabulary has nearly as much right to be considered a member of the Latin or Italic branch. The only modern representative of the group besides English which ranks as a literary language is Dutch, which is spoken in Holland, and, under a slightly modified form known as Flemish, in a large part of Belgium. Along the coast and islands of the North Sea the current dialects, varying from district to district in an almost exceptional manner, are remnants of the old Frisian tongue, whose oldest written dialects, varying from district to district in an almost exceptional manner, are remnants of the old Frisian tongue, whose oldest written discussed by the provincial language; in Valencia, and in Majorca; and the speech of the Galicians is nuch more akin to Portuguese. In Catalonia proper, in Valencia, and in Majorca only the cultivated classes employ Castilian. On the whole, however, by its mere vocabulary has nearly as much fright to district of the Latin tenks as a literary planguage is Dutch, which is spoken in Holland, and, under a slightl

and left only a few fragmentary texts; Irish is rapidity following it, but will be preserved in a considerable literature; Welsh alone has a fairly vigorous literature at the present time.

According to Professor Zerff, there are no less than seventeen Slavonic dialects. The most important is Russian, or Great Russian, the national speech of the empire whose name it bears. At present it is spoken by about 34,390,000 of the 65,705,000 of the tetal population; and its area is rapidly being extended by the direct agency of the Government. In 1871 it was made the official language of Poland, and rendered obligatory in all the law courts of the country; and in 1876 it became practically the only permissible form in Little Russia, where all popular literature and public notices in the local language were prohibited. While it retains a rich inflexional system, Russian has enriched its vocabulary by a large foreign element, from French, English, and German; and its scientific terms are for the most part those of Western Europe. As a written language it is deeply indebted to the Church Slavonic. Closely cognate is the Little Russian, or Ruthenian, already mentioned, which is spoken by about 14,201,250 people in Russia and upwards of 3,000,000 in Austria. Its Russian area includes Volhynia, Podolia, Kieff, Kherson, Ekaterinoslaff, Kharkoff, Poltava, Tehemigoff, Minsk, Grodno, and Lublin, as well as portions of Astrakhan, the Don Cossack Country, Saratoff, and Voronezh; in Austria it is mainly confined to Calicia. Possessing as it does a rich store of popular tales and songs, and employed by several writers of great ability during the present century, it ranks much higher than the third Russian dialect—the White Russian—which is the current speech of about 3,592,000 people, for the most part in Grodno, Minsk, Mohiteff, Vilna, and Vitelsk, and is mainly distinguished by Lithuanian and Polish elements. The second place in the Slavonic group may be assigned to Polish, which in spite of political disasters is still spoken by be realized, the future of the Servo-Croatian is secured by the vigorous literary development which is encouraged both at Agram and
Belgrade. Unfortunately it is written and printed in two alphabets
—the Cyrillian being employed by the Servians and the Latin by
the Croatians. The remaining Slavonic tongues are of little practical importance except to the philologist. The Wends are being
rapidly Germanized, and are now estimated at about 187,000, princi-

¹ Seo Blau in Zeitschrift der deutsch. Morgent. Ges., 1874.

¹ M. Tubino, Rerue Scientifique, 1876, p. 204. ² For details see Ascoli's map at the end of his Archivio Glottologica

Italiano, vol. i.
² See Petermann's Mittheilungez, 1866, and Charnock in Journ. of Anthropological Institute, 1873.

two distinct varieties. The Lettic branch though decadent is interesting as linguistically the oldest of the Aryan languages in Europe. The Lithuanians werein the Middle Ages one of the most powerful peoples of the Baltic region, but fell into a secondary place by the incorporation of their country with Poland in 1386. Their language is still retained by about 150,000 or 200,000 people in Germany, and by about 1,434,750 in Russia, where those of the western part of the government of Kovno and the northern part of the government of Suwalki are known as Shomudes or Samogitians. Two dialects are recognized—the High or Southern, and the Low or Northern. The Letts still number more than 1,000,000, situated in Courland, Livonia, and Vitebsk. Old Prussian, extinct two hundred years ago, was very similar to Lithuanian. With regard to the two languages marked in the table as "unattached," almost nothing is known of Old Dacian, and the history of Albanian is but partially elucidated. The Skipitars, Arnauts, or Albanians are one of the most remarkable peoples of south-eastern Europe. They not only occupy Albania.

Old Dacian, and the history of Albanian is but partially elucidated. The Skipitars, Arnauts, or Albanians are one of the most remarkable peoples of south-eastern Europe. They not only occupy Albania proper, but also appear in considerable numbers throughout the rest of European Turkey and Greece, —forming, it is calculated, a total of 1,500,000. The colonies which settled in Italy and Sicily, though amounting to nearly 90,000, have given up their native language. Hahn, who was the first to make a thorough investigation of the subject, distinguishes two dialects —the Toskan and the Gegian, —which are as distinct as High German and Platt-Deutsch. Besides the Greek alphabet another of dubious origin is also employed.²

The Semitic languages are mere exotics in modern Europe, Hebrew, the most widely distributed, is little more than the ecclesiastical language of the Jews, who for the most part employ the common language of the country in which they reside not only in public intercourse but also in private. At the same time it is regularly taught in their schools, furnishes them with a number of familiar every-day expressions, and is not only the language of the professional literature of theologians, but appears in frequent quotations in their popular periodicals. Arabic, at one time the dominant language not only of southern Spain but of Sicily and part of Italy, is nowhere the usual speech of any European community; but it is familiar to the educated classes of Turkey. Maltese can still be recognized as of Arabic derivation, but has incorporated a vast mass of foreign words. Mosarabic has been extinct at least since the 18th century: the liturgical service in the cathedral of Toledo, which still bears the name, is performed in Latin.³

tinct at least since the 18th century: the liturgical service in the cathedral of Toledo, which still bears the name, is performed in Latin.

The most important of the Finno-Tataric languages are the Turkish, the Hungarian, and the Finnish. The first varies greatly in its vocabulary in different places and grades of society; and the official form is largely composed of Arabic words. As a popular speech in Europe it has a very limited and discontinuous area. Hungarian, on the other hand, has maintained or recovered a remarkable degree of homogeneousness, and occupies on the whole a very compact territory in spite of the intrusion of German; while its literature ranks as one of the most vigorous of the secondary literatures of Europe. Finnish proper is spoken by 1,710,274 people in the Russian empire (of whom 1,615,613 are in the duchy of Finland), and by 14,930 in Sweden and 7637 in Russia. The Tchudes, Vepses, and Votes, who amount to 48,000 in all, live in the governments of Olonetz, Vologda, Novgorod, and St Petersburg, in the neighbourhood of Lakes Ladoga and Onega. Their languages or dialects are very similar to Esthonian, which, with the exception of Hungarian, ranks as the most literary member of the group, and is spoken by upwards of 749,000 people. Livonian lingers as the speech of a few thousand seafaring folk in Courland. The Lapps contribute 17,178 to the population of Norway, 6700 to that of Sweden, and 7497 to that of Russia. Their language is divided into four dialects. The Tcheremisses, Mordwines, and Votiaks are grouped together as Finns of the Volga,—the first, to the number of about 792,000, through the governments of Samara, Saratoff, Simbirsk, Pensa, Nizhni-Novgorod, Tamboff, Kazan, Ufa, Orenburg, and Astrakhan; and the third, about 240,509 strong, occupying the western half of the government of Viatka. Another group is composed of the Permians, Siryenians, and Voguls. The two former were at one time one people, and had considerable fame in the Middle Ages for their compensation of the Permi

Soe Hahn, Albanesische Studien, Jena, 1854.

pally situated within an area of rudely elliptical form, with its two foci represented by Bautzen and Kottbus. Since 1849 their numbers have diminished by upwards of 4200. The language shows two distinct varieties.

The Lettic branch though decadent is interesting as linguistically the oldest of the Aryan languages in Europe. The Lithuanians werein the Middle Ages one of the most powerful peoples of the Baltic region, but fell into a secondary place by the incorporation of their country with Poland in 1386. Their language is still retained by about 150,000 or 200,000 people in Germany, and by about 150,000 or 200,000 people in Germany, and by about 150,000 or 200,000 people in Germany, and by about 150,000 or 200,000 the western part of the government of Suwalki are known as Shomudes or Samogitians. Two dialects are recognized—the High or Southern, and the Low or Northern. The Letts still number more than 1,000,000, situated in Courland, Livonia, and Vitebsk. Old Prussian, extinct two hundred years ago, was very similar to Lithuanian. With regard to the two languages marked in the table as "unattached," almost nothing is known of Old Dacian, and the history of Albanian is but partially elucidated. The Skipitars, Arnauts, or Albanians are one of the most remarkable appears and the Dacian, and the history of Albanian is but partially elucidated. The Skipitars, Arnauts, or Albanians are one of the most remarkable appears and the Dacian, and the history of Albanian is but partially elucidated.

Basque, which is spoken in the Pyrenean districts of France and Spain, is an agglutinative language, but cannot be classified. It is dying out more rapidly in the Spanish than in the French territory.

In 1877, as appears by the table on page 703, the European territory was distributed among 18 distinct political totalities (exclusive of the petty states of San Marino, Andorra, Monaco, and Luxembourg), viz.—the German empire, the Russian empire, the Ottoman empire, the united monarchy of Austria-Hungary, the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, the republic of France, the kingdoms of Italy, Spain, and Portugal, the kingdoms of Belgium and of the Netherlands, the kingdom of Denmark, the united monarchy of Norway and Sweden, the kingdom of Greece, the republican confederation of Switzerland, and the principalities of Montenegro, Servia, and Roumania. Several of these consist of a greater or smaller number of partially independent states connected with each other according to very different degrees of political copartnery. The German empire, as one of the most recent as well as most extensive, naturally presents an unusual number of anomalies. Founded April 16, 1871, it comprises no fewer than twenty-six states under the presidency of the kingdom of Prussia, and these states are very dissimilar in size, constitution, rank, and general importance. Four, including Prussia, are kingdoms, six are grand-duchies, five are duchies, seven are principalities, and three are free cities. The organization by which they are united consists mainly of a federal council or Bundesrath, in which the individual states are represented by the nominees of their several governments, and a Reichstag, or Imperial Diet, the members of which are elected by universal suffrage. All military power is centralized in the hands of the emperor: his consent is necessary for all important appointments in the different divisions of the army, and he can command the erection of fortresses on the soil of any of the states, and if occasion requires can declare any part in a condition of siege. The practical dominancy of Prussia is further secured by the fact that it possesses 236 of the 397 mem. bers who compose the Imperial Diet. As separate states, Prussia, Würtemberg, Saxony, and Bavaria are all constitutional monarchies, each with its parliament or Landstag, consisting of an upper and a lower house. The various grand-duchies, duchies, and principalities have their several Stände, or states, some consisting of two chambers and some of one, and presenting considerable variety in the amount of representation accorded to different elements of the community, in the rules of election, and in the length of period for which it is valid. That unusual combination of geographical names, Austria-Hungary, and its equally unusual adjective Austrian-Hungarian, which are so uncouth and bewildering to the ordinary reader, are an attempt to indi-

	German goog.	Square kilometres?	English equare miles,	Edpulation.	Population.
► GERMAN EMPIRE(A.) KINGDOMS—	9,818-420	840,620-71	209,746-88	40,107,229 (1867)	41,058,139 (1871
Prussia	0.320-200	649,339-29	124,499-56	24.039,048	24,093,006
Bavaria	1,377·761 272 288	75.86349 14.992-97	29,292 16 5,783 03	4.824.621 2.423,748	4,861,402 2,556,244
Würtemberg	354-207	19,808-60	7,530 63	1,778,298	1,818,484
4B.) Grand Duchies— Baden	273-788	******			
Hesse	139-434	15,075:00 7,077:65	5,820:92 2,964:46	1,434,970 823,138	1,4r1,428 852,843
Mecklenburg-Schwerin	211.61	12,003-77	6.13079 1,40384	500,618 282,928	557,897
Mecklenburg-Strelitz	53-203	2,919:50	1,131-12	98,770	256,183 96,982
Oldenburg	116-224	6,399-60	2,471:00	315,923	316,040
Brunswick	67-022	3,090-43	1,424-93	302,792	311,715
Saxe-Altenburg	44.829	2.468:41	953-09 610-25	180,335	167,684
Saxe-Altenburg	35.736	1,967-75	759.77	141,446 108,851	142,132 174 339
(D.) PRINCIPALITIES (FURSTENTHUMER)—	42-630	2,347:35	906 84	197,041	203,354
Schwartzburg-Rudolstadt	17-110	942-13	363-77	75,116	75,523
Schwartzburg-Sondershausen	15.657 20.618	862 11 1,135 10	332-67	67,533	67,191
Reuss, Elder Line	5.746	316-39	438-28 122-16	56,807 43,889	56,218 45,094
Schaumburg-Lippe	8.050	829-2 0 443-30	320·18 171·14	88,097 31,186	89 032
Lippe-Detmold	20.600	1,134-30	437-97	111,343	32,051 111,153
(E.) Free Cities— Lübeck	5-135	282-73	The state of		
Bremen	4.546	250-29	109·17 96·65	48,538 109,572	52,158 122,565
Hamburg	7.396	407-22	157-24	305,196	338,974
(F.) IMPERIAL TERRITORY - Aisace-Lorraine	263-548	14,511-74	5,003-21	1,597,228	7 740 470
	San San Maria San Andrews				1,549,459
II. AUSTRIAN-HUNGARIAN EMPIRE	11,333·308 5,451·781	624,044·89 300,190·90	240,954·06 115,908·68	35,904,435 (1869) 20,394,980	36,678,796 21,169,341 (187
Archduchy of Austria below the Enns	360-028	19,824-17 11,996-70	7,654.44	1,990,708	2,087,930
Duchy of Salzburg	130-136	7,165-66	4.632·13 2,766·78	736,557 153,159	741,918 153,386
Duchy of Styria	407·788 188·390	22,454·04 10,373·32	8,669·85 4,005·30	137,990	1,164,512
Duchy of Carniola	181-397	9,988-33	3,856-62	337,694 466,334	338,045 465,065
Austro-Illyrian Coastland (town and territory o Trieste, countship of Gorizia, margravate of Istria	750.021	7,988-59	3,084.52	600,525	610,899
Tyrol and Vorariberg	- 532-604	29,326.81	11,323-53	885,739	890,835
Margravate of Moravia Duchy of Silesia	943·572 403·713	51,955·78 22,229·61	20,061·00 8,583·22	5,140,544 2,017,274	5,287,244 2,056,081
Ningdom of Galicia	93.486	5,147·53 78,496·77	1,987-57	513,352	F 544,459
Duchy of Bukovina	189-800	10,451.00	30,308·91 4,035·28	5,444,689 513,404	5,827,798 537,815
(B.) Lands of the Hungarian Crown.		12,792-57	4,939-41	456,961	460,327
Kingdom of Hungary Principality of Transylvania.	5,981·527 4,094·254	323,853·99 225,441·55	125,045·34 87,046·70	15,509,455 11,530,397	15,509,455 (186
Principality of Transylvania	997-917	54,948.20	21,216.41	2,115,024	
Free City of Fiume	· 0-355 789-000	19·57 43,444·67	7·54 16,774·69	17,884 1,846,150	ļ
III. RUSSIA IN EUROPE	98,252·101	5,410,046.4	2,088,908:44		20 110 500
Russian Poland	89,156-093	4,909,193.7	1,895,520.94	65,807,767 (1858) 63,658,934 (1867)	73,113,502 65,704,459 (187
Grand Duchy of Finland	2,312:201 6,783:607	127,316·5 373,536·2	49,159 01 144,228:48	5,705,607 1,830,853	6,026,421 (187
IV. FRANCE	9,599-38		100000000000000000000000000000000000000		
		528,576-75	204,089:53	37,382,225 (1861)	36,905,788 (187
V. ITALY	5,381-53	296,322-91	114,415-09	25,023,810 (1861)	26,801,154 (187
VI. SPAIN	9,208:30	507,036-00	195,774-90	15,408,184 (1860)	16,641,980 (186
VII. PORTUGAL	1,627.698	89,625-29	34,605-99	3,693,362 (1861)	
VIII. SWITZERLAND	Control of the Contro				
		41,400.82	15,985-51	2,510,494 (1860)	2,669,147 (187
IX. BELGIUM	THE RESERVE AND ADDRESS OF THE PERSON NAMED IN COLUMN TWO	29,455.16	11,373-11	4,836,566 (1865)	5,336,634 (187
X. NETHERLANDSGrand Duchy of Luxembourg		25,461.26	13,692-73	3,870,179 (1863)	3,972,421 (187
	The second second second	2,587.45	999-25	202,313 (1862)	205,158
XI. DENMARK	694.42	38,236.78	14,763-85	1,600,551 (1860)	1,874,000 (187
XII, NORWAY AND SWEDEN.	13,830-33	761,539-45	294,012-49	5,561,216	6,156,559
Sweden Norway	8,079:85 5,751:48	444,845·71 316,693·74	171,762-00	3,859,728 (1860)	4,341,559 (187
XIII. GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND			122,280-49	1,701,478 (1865)	1,815,000 (187
England	5,719-84 2,742-68	314,951·02 151,020·08	121,607·66 58,311·38	29,321,079 (1861) 20,066,224	33,444,419 (187 24,547,309
Scotland Ireland	1,432-81	78,895-19	30,462-70	3,062,294	3,560,715
	1,530-10	84,252-11	32,531-09	5,412,377	5,336,395
XIV. EUROPEAN TURKEY	6,602-3	363,542	140,369-51	8,500,000 (apprx.)	8,500,000 (appr
XV. ROUMANIA	. 2,201.2	121,204	46,799-05	3,864,848 (1860)	5,043,000 (137
XVI, SERVIA	. 791	43,555			
XVII. MONTENEGRO			16,817-21	1,216,186 (1866)	1,377,068 (187
	80.4	4,427.	1,709-36	120,000 (est.)	190,000 (est.
CVIII. GREECE	910-28	5,123	19,353-18	1,325,341 (1863)	1.457,894 (187
XIX. ANDORRA.	. 7	385	148-82	10,000 (est.)	12,000 (est.
XX, SAN MARINO	1.12	61-8	23-81		
AXI MONACO				7,303 (1869)	7,816 (187
Train to the second sec	0.27	15	5.74	3,127 (1867)	5,741 (187
Totals	177,989-753	9,755,640-24	3,785,156-92	286,073,902	

¹ See "Das Sprachgebiet der Lausitzer Wenden vom 16 Jahrhundert bis zur Gegenwart," by Dr Andree, in Petermann's Mittheilungen,

³ See "Die Völker Russlands," in Petermann's Mittheilungen, 1877, and Wallace's Russia, 1877.

See Broca's collected papers on Ethnology