

RUSSIA

PART I.—GENERAL SURVEY OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

THE Russian empire is a very extensive territory in eastern Europe and northern Asia, with an area exceeding 8,500,000 square miles, or one-sixth of the land surface of the globe (one twenty-third of its whole superficies). It is, however, but thinly peopled on the average, including only one-fourteenth of the inhabitants of the earth. It is almost entirely confined to the cold and temperate zones. In Nova Zembla (Novaya Zemlya) and the Taimyr peninsula, it projects within the Arctic Circle as far as $77^{\circ} 2'$ and $77^{\circ} 40'$ N. lat.; while its southern extremities reach $38^{\circ} 50'$ in Armenia, about 35° on the Afghan frontier, and $42^{\circ} 30'$ on the coasts of the Pacific. To the west it advances as far as $20^{\circ} 40'$ E. long. in Lapland, $18^{\circ} 32'$ in Poland, and $29^{\circ} 42'$ on the Black Sea; and its eastern limit—East Cape in the Behring Strait—extends to 191° E. longitude.

The Arctic Ocean—comprising the White, Barents, and Kara Seas—and the northern Pacific, that is, the Seas of Behring, Okhotsk, and Japan, bound it in the north and east. The Baltic, with its two deep indentations, the Gulfs of Bothnia and Finland, limits it on the north-west; and two sinuous lines of frontier separate it respectively from Sweden and Norway on the north-west and from Prussia, Austria, and Roumania on the west. The southern frontier is still unsettled, and has never remained unaltered for so many as twenty consecutive years. Quite recently it has been pushed southwards, on both the western and the eastern shores of the Black Sea, parts of Roumania and Asia Minor having been annexed in 1878. In Asia, beyond the Caspian, the southern boundary of the empire remains vague; the advance into the Turcoman Steppes and Afghan Turkestan and on the Pamir plateau is still in progress. Bokhara and Khiva, though represented as vassal khanates, are in reality mere dependencies of Russia. An approximately settled frontier-line begins only farther east, where the Russian and the Chinese empires meet on the borders of Eastern Turkestan, Mongolia, and Manchuria. But even there, the province of Kuldja has recently been occupied by Russia, and again restored to China; while in eastern Mongolia, the great overland route from Kiakhta to Peking, *via* Urga, is in fact in the hands of Russia, and it is difficult to predict how far Russian influence may extend should circumstances lead it to seek a footing on the thinly-peopled plateaus of Central Asia.

Russia has no oceanic possessions, and has abandoned those she owned in last century; her islands are mere appendages of the mainland to which they belong. Such are the Aland archipelago, Hochland, Tütters, Dagö, and Ösel in the Baltic Sea; Nova Zembla, with Kolgueff and Vaigatch, in the Barents Sea; the Sotovetsky Islands in the White Sea; the New Siberian archipelago, and the small group of the Medvyezhi Islands off the Siberian coast; the Commander Islands off Kamchatka; the Shantar Islands and Saghalin in the Sea of Okhotsk. The Aleutian archipelago was sold to the United States in 1867, together with Alaska, and in 1874 the Kurile Islands were ceded to Japan.

A vast variety of physical features is obviously to be expected in a territory like this, which comprises on the one side the cotton and silk regions of Turkestan and Transcaucasia, and on the other the moss and lichen-clothed Arctic tundras and the Verkhoyansk Siberian pole of cold—the dry Transcaspian deserts and the regions watered by the monsoons on the coasts of the Sea of Japan. Still, if the border regions, that is, two narrow belts in the north

and south, be left out of account, a striking uniformity of physical feature prevails. High plateaus, like those of Pamir (the "Roof of the World") or of Armenia, and high mountain chains like the snow-clad summits of the Caucasus, the Alay, the Thian-Shan, the Sayan, are met with only on the outskirts of the empire.

Viewed broadly by the physical geographer, it appears as occupying the territories to the north-west of that great plateau-belt of the old continent—the backbone of Asia—which spreads with decreasing height and width from the high tableland of Tibet and Pamir to the lower plateaus of Mongolia, and thence north-eastwards through the Vitim region to the furthest extremity of Asia. It may be said to consist of the immense plains and flat lands which extend between the plateau-belt and the Arctic Ocean, including also the series of parallel chains and hilly spurs which skirt the plateau-belt on the north-west. It extends over the plateau itself, and crosses it, beyond Lake Baikal only.

This belt—the oldest geological continent of Asia—being unfit for agriculture and for the most part unsuited for permanent settlement, while the oceanic slopes of it have from the dawn of history been occupied by a dense population, has long prevented Slavonian colonization from reaching the Pacific. Russians happened to cross it in the 17th century, only in its narrowest and most northerly part, thus reaching the Pacific on the foggy and frozen coasts of the Sea of Okhotsk; and two centuries elapsed ere, after colonizing the depressions of the plateau around Lake Baikal, the Russians crossed the plateau in a more genial zone and descended to the Pacific by the Amur, rapidly spreading farther south, up the nearly uninhabited Usuri, to what is now the Gulf of Peter the Great. In the south-western higher portions of the plateau-belt the empire has only recently planted its foot on the Pamir; as we write, it is endeavouring to get command of the lower passages which give an easy access to the Afghan portion of the plateau; while already, within the present century it has established itself firmly on the plateaus of Armenia.

A broad belt of hilly tracts—in every respect alpine in character, and displaying the same variety of climate and organic life as alpine tracts usually do—skirts the plateau-belt throughout its length on the north and north-west, forming an intermediate region between the plateaus and the plains. The Caucasus, the Elburz, the Kopet-dagh, and Paropamisus, the intricate and imperfectly known network of mountains west of the Pamir, the Thian-Shan and Ala-tau mountain regions, and farther north-east the Altai, the still unnamed complex of Minusinsk mountains, the intricate mountain-chains of Sayan, with those of the Olekma, Vitim, and Aldan, all of which are ranged *en échelon*—the former from north-west to south-east, and the others from south-west to north-east—all of these belong to one immense alpine belt bordering that of the plateaus. These have long been known to Russian colonists, who, seeking to escape religious prosecutions and exactions by the state, early penetrated into and rapidly pushed their small settlements up the better valleys of these tracts, and continued to spread everywhere as long as they found no obstacles in the shape of a former population or in unfavourable climatic conditions.

As for the flat-lands which extend from the Alpine hill-foots to the shores of the Arctic Ocean, and assume the character either of dry deserts in the Aral-Caspian depression, or of low table-lands in central Russia and eastern Siberia, or of lake-regions in north-west Russia and Finland, or of marshy prairies in western Siberia, and on

tundras in the far north,—their monotonous surfaces are diversified by only a few, and these for most part low, hilly tracts. Recently emerged from the Post-Pliocene sea, or cleared of their ice-sheet coverings, they preserve the very same features over immense stretches; and the few portions that rise above the general elevation have more the character of broad and gentle swellings than of mountain-chains. Of this class are the swampy plateaus of the Kola peninsula, gently sloping southwards to the lake-regions of Finland and north-west Russia; the Valdai table-lands, where all the great rivers of Russia take their rise; the broad and gently-sloping meridional belt of the Ural Mountains; and lastly, the Taimyr, Tunguska, and Verkhoyansk ridges in Siberia, which do not reach the snow-line, notwithstanding their sub-Arctic position. As to the picturesque Bureya mountains on the Amur, the forest-clothed Sikhota-alin on the Pacific, and the volcanic chains of Kamchatka, they belong to quite another orographical world; they are the border-ridges of the terraces by which the great plateau-belt descends to the depths of the Pacific Ocean.

It is owing to these leading orographical features—divined by Carl Ritter, but only within the present day revealed by geographical research—that so many of the great rivers of the old continent are comprised within the limits of the Russian empire. Taking rise on the plateau-belt, or in its Alpine outskirts, they flow first, like the upper Rhone and Rhine, along high longitudinal valleys formerly filled up with great lakes; next they find their way through the rocky walls; and finally they enter the lowlands, where they become navigable, and, describing great curves to avoid here and there the minor plateaus and hilly tracts, they bring into water-communication with one another places thousands of miles apart. The double river-systems of the Volga and Kama, the Obi and Irtysh, the Angara and Yenisei, the Lena and Vitim on the Arctic slope, the Amur and Sungari on the Pacific slope, are instances. They were the true channels of Russian colonization.

A broad depression,—the Aral-Caspian desert—has arisen where the plateau-belt has reached its greatest height and suddenly changes its direction from a north-western into a north-eastern one; this desert is now filled only to a small extent by the salt waters of the Caspian, Aral, and Balkash inland seas; but it bears unmistakable traces of having been during Post-Pliocene times an immense inland basin. There the Volga, the Ural, the Sir Daria, and the Oxus discharge their waters without reaching the ocean, but continue to bring life to the rapidly drying Transcaspian Steppes, or connect by their river network, as the Volga does, the most remote parts of European Russia.

The above-described features of the physical geography of the empire explain the relative uniformity of this wide territory, in conjunction with the variety of physical features on its outskirts. They explain also the rapidity of the expansion of Slavonic colonization over these thinly peopled regions; and they also throw light upon the internal cohesion of the empire, which cannot fail to strike the traveller as he crosses this immense territory, and finds everywhere the same dominating race, the same features of life. In fact, in their advance from the basins of the Volkhoff and Dnieper to the foot of the Altai and Sayan Mountains, that is, along nearly a quarter of the earth's circumference, the Russian colonizers could always find the same physical conditions, the same forests and prairies as they had left at home, the same facilities for agriculture, only modified somewhat by minor topographical features. New conditions of climate and soil, and consequently new cultures and civilizations, the Russians met with, in their expansion towards the south and east, only beyond the

Caucasus, in the Aral-Caspian region, and in the basin of the Usuri on the Pacific coast. Favoured by these conditions, the Russians not only conquered northern Asia—they colonized it.

The total population of the Russian empire was stated at 102,000,000 by estimates made in 1878-82; but it is multiplying rapidly, and, as the surplus of births over deaths reaches nearly 1,250,000 every year, it must now be somewhat more than 106 millions.

Within the empire a very great diversity of nationalities is comprised, due to the amalgamation or absorption by the Slavonic race of a variety of Ural-Altaiic stems, of Turco-Tartars, Turco-Mongolians, and various Caucasian stems. Statistics as to their relative strength are still very imperfect, and their ethnical relations have not as yet been completely determined; but, considered broadly, they may be classified as follows:—

A. The Letto-Slavonians comprise (a) the Lithuanians and Letts on the lower Niemen and Dvina, and (b) the Slavonians, that is, the Poles on the Vistula and Niemen and the Russians—Great, Little, and White—whose proper abodes are in European Russia, south of a line drawn from the Gulf of Finland to the middle Volga. Spreading from this region towards the north-east, east, and south-east, they have colonized north-east Russia, the Ural region, Caucasus, Siberia, and large parts of the Kirghiz Steppe,—the leading feature of their colonization having always been penetration in compact masses among the original inhabitants. Thus, on northern Caucasus the Russians (chiefly Little Russians) already constitute a compact rural population of nearly 1,500,000, that is, about a quarter of the total population of Caucasus. In Western Siberia the Great Russians already number more than 2,300,000 agriculturists, constituting four-fifths of the entire population; in Eastern Siberia they number more than 1,000,000, that is, probably more than the original inhabitants; and the Kirghiz Steppe has also begun rapidly to be colonized within the last twenty years. It is only in the more densely peopled Turkestan, and in the recently annexed Transcaspian region, that Russian settlers continue to bear but a small proportion to the natives (who are more than 4,600,000 strong). The Slavonians altogether number more than 75,000,000, of which number 5,600,000 are Poles.

Swedes (310,000), Germans (1,240,000), Roumanians, Serbs, &c., may number altogether about 2,500,000.

B. A great variety of populations belonging to the Caucasian race, but not yet well classified, some of which are considered to be remainders of formerly larger nationalities pushed aside into the mountain tracts during their migrations, are met with on Caucasus. Such are the Georgians, Ossetes, Lesghians, who fall little short of 2,500,000, and the Armenians, about 1,000,000.

C. The Iranian branch is represented by some 130,000 Persians and Kurds in Caucasus and Transcaucasia, and by Tajiks in Turkestan, mixed with Turco-Tartar Sarts. The nomad Tsigans, or Gipsies, numbering nearly 12,000, may be mentioned under this head.

D. The Semitic branch consists of upwards of 3,000,000 Jews in Poland, in west and south-west Russia, and on Caucasus and in the towns of Central Asia, and of a few thousand Karaites Jews.

E. The Ural-Altaiic branch comprises two great subdivisions—the Finnish and the Turco-Tartarian stems, mixed to some extent with Mongolians. The former (see below) occupy, broadly speaking, a wide stretch of territory to the north of the Slavonians, from the Baltic to the Yenisei, and include the Baltic Finns, the Northern Finns, the Volga Finns, and the Ugrians. The Russians have already spread among the last two in compact masses

and, while some stems, like the Ostiaks, are rapidly disappearing, others, like the Mordvinians, Permians, &c., are losing their national character, and becoming assimilated to the Russians. The West Finns alone have fully maintained their national features, and happen to have constituted a nationality developing into a separate state.

The Turco-Tartars (nearly 10,000,000) comprise the Tartars, the Bashkirs, the Kirghizes, the Uzbeks, and the Turcomans of the Aral-Caspian region, the Yakuts on the Lena, and a variety of smaller stems in East Russia and Caucasus. They occupy another broad belt which extends from the Aral-Caspian depression to the eastern parts of the Arctic coast.

F. The Mongol-Manchurian stems of the Tunguses, and the Golds, and the Manchus proper, come next, occupying the eastern parts of the mountain-belt and the plateau itself in Siberia, the Tunguses also projecting north-westwards, so as to separate the Yakuts from their southern Turkish brethren. Small stems of the same family also pass a nomad existence in the basin of the Amur. They are rapidly diminishing in number, and can hardly be estimated at more than 50,000.

G. The Mongolian branch is represented by nearly half a million of Kalmucks on the Altai outskirts of the great plateau and around the Caspian, and by nearly 250,000 Buriats in and around the Baikal depression.

H. A variety of stems, not yet well classified, are met with on the Pacific coasts. Such are the Tchukchies, the Kamchadales, the Koryaks in the north-east, the Ghilyaks on the Amur, and the Ainos in Saghalin.

Statistics of the relative strength of different nationalities in the Russian empire, which, however, must be considered only as rough estimates, are given (in millions) in the following table (I.) :—

Table (I) showing population statistics by province and nationality. Columns include European Russia, Poland, Finland, Caucasus, Kirghiz Steppes, Turkestan, and Siberia, with a Total column. Rows list nationalities such as Russians, Poles, Lithuanians, Swedes, Germans, etc.

The area and population of the various divisions of the Russian empire are given in the following table:—

TABLE II.—Area and Population of the Russian Empire.¹

Table II showing area and population of Russian provinces. Columns include Province, Area (Square Miles), and Population. Rows list provinces like European Russia, Russia in Asia, Northern Caucasus, Transcaucasia, Caucasus, etc.

1 The figures are taken, for the areas, from Strelitzky's Superficies de l'Europe, and, for the population, from the Spornik Svedeniy o Evropeiskoi Rossii for 1882, the Investia of the Caucasus Geographical Society, the Russkii Kalendar, &c. The areas have been reduced, taking the square kilometre as equal to 0.3861167 English square mile. 2 Oblasts, or provinces. 3 Okrug, or otdely (territories) under military government, the remainder being governments (gubernii) under civil government. 4 Including Estum and Sukhum. 5 According to General Meyer, in Investia of the Russian Geogr. Society, 1885, 4. The areas for the first three districts are given according to General Meyer. The basis of Meyer proper extends to about 2100 square miles. The populations are given without the Russian military. M. Seidlitz estimates them as follows:—Akhai Tekke, 42,000; Krasnovodsk, 15,300; Manghishlak, 34,500; Merv, 160,000; Tedjeñ, 7500; total, 260,000. The total population, excluding military, is estimated by military authorities at 214,000.

Of the areas given in the table, the following (298,636 square miles) are occupied by internal waters (larger lakes and estuaries):—

European Russia.....	25,804 square miles.
Poland.....	141 "
Finland.....	18,471 "
Caucasus.....	1,628 "
Siberia.....	18,864 "
Turkestan.....	4,311 "
Kirghiz Steppes.....	14,888 "
Transcaspien region.....	455 "
Sea of Azoff, Caspian Sea, Lake Aral.....	212,874 "

The islands included in the above statement have the following areas (total 91,182 square miles):—

the White Sea.....	191 square miles.
Barents Sea.....	88,540 "
Baltic Sea (Russian).....	1,579 "
(Finnish).....	2,000 "
Black Sea.....	21 "
Sea of Azoff.....	41 "
Caspian Sea.....	551 "
Siberian Arctic Ocean.....	16,496 "
Pacific.....	31,763 "

The Russian empire falls into two great subdivisions, the European and the Asiatic, the latter of which, representing an aggregate of nearly 6,500,000 square miles, with a population of only 16 million inhabitants, may be considered as held by colonies. The European dominions comprise European Russia, Finland, which is in fact a separate nationality treated to some extent as an allied state, and Poland, whose very name has been erased from official documents, but which nevertheless continues to pursue its own development. The Asiatic dominions comprise the following great subdivisions:—CAUCASIA (*q.v.*), under a separate governor-general; the Transcaspien region, which is under the governor-general of Caucasus; the Kirghiz Steppes; TURKESTAN (*q.v.*), under separate governors-general; Western Siberia and Eastern Siberia (see SIBERIA); and the Amur region, which last comprises also the Pacific coast region and Kamchatka (see KAMCHATKA and MARITIME PROVINCE). The administrative subdivisions, with their populations, as estimated for 1882 for European Russia, Poland, and Caucasus, 1881 for Finland, and 1878–82 for the remainder (no regular census having been taken since 1858), are shown above in Table II.

The empire contains only twelve cities with a population exceeding 100,000:—St Petersburg, 929,090 (1881); Moscow, 753,469 (1884); Warsaw, 406,260 (1882); Odessa, 217,000 (1882); Riga, 169,330 (1881); Kharkoff, 159,660 (1883); Kazan, 140,730 (1883); Kishineff, 130,000; Kieff, 127,250 (1874); Lodz, 113,146, in Poland (1884); Saratoff, 112,428 (1882); Tiflis, 104,020 (1883); and Tashkend, 100,000. According to the most recent returns Vilna, Orel, Rostoff, Astrakhan, Nikolaieff, Düna, Tula, Samara, Taganrog, Kherson, Nijni-Novgorod, Berditcheff, Bobruisk, Zhitomir, Minsk, Vitebsk, Elisabetgrad, Reval, and Voronezh had from 94,000 to 50,000 inhabitants, while 31 towns more in European Russia, Finland, and Poland, and 20 in the Asiatic dominions, had from 50,000 to 20,000 inhabitants. The number of towns above 10,000 is considerable, but they are mostly mere administrative centres; many villages have greater importance.

Only 3,263,000 (or 9 per cent.) of the aggregate population of Russia inhabit towns, the number of which is 601 in the 50 Russian governments. The great number of the Russian towns are mere villages; their inhabitants depend on agriculture, and the houses are mostly built of wood, only 127,000 out of about 787,000 houses in towns being built of stone. Of the 68,600,000 who in 1882 formed the rural population of European Russia the greater part were settled in 555,278 villages, almost entirely built of wood; nearly one-seventieth of the houses are destroyed by fire yearly (164,400 out of 10,649,000 in 1882).

Russia is an absolute and strongly centralized monarchy. The primary unit of state organization is the village community, or *mir*. A number of such communities are united

into *volosts*, whose peasant inhabitants elect an elder (*volostnoy starshina*) and a peasants' tribunal (*volostnoy sud*). Placed, however, under the uncontrolled rule of a state official—the *mirovoy posrednik*—and of the police, the elder of the *volost* and his clerk have become mere organs of the local police and tax-gatherers, while the tribunal of the *volost* is at the mercy both of influential land-proprietor and of the wealthier peasants or merchants. The system of local self-government is continued in the elective district and provincial assemblies—the *zemstvo*—on the one hand and on the other in the elective justices of the peace (*mirovoy sudia*), whose periodical gatherings (*mirovoy syezd*) are courts of appeal against the decisions of the individual justices. But neither of these institutions—and least of all the *zemstvo*—is capable of acquiring the necessary independence. The *zemstvos*—one for each district, and another for the province—consist of a representative assembly (*zemskoye sobraniye*) and an executive (*zemskaya uprava*) nominated by the former. The *sobraniye* consists of three classes of delegates:—the landed proprietors (all nobles possessing more than 590 acres, and delegates from the remainder, along with delegates from the clergy in their capacity of landed proprietors); representatives of the merchants, artisans, and urban population; and representatives of the peasants, indirectly elected,—matters being usually so adjusted that this class is less numerous than the aggregate of the other two. In theory the *zemstvos* have large powers in relation to the incidence of taxation, as well as in matters affecting education, public health, roads, &c. But in reality they are for the most part compelled to limit themselves to the adjustment of the state taxation, which is so high that new taxes for education, sanitary purposes, and so on, must necessarily be very limited. Moreover, the decisions of the *zemstvos* are jealously controlled by the representative of the central Government,—the governor,—and promptly annulled whenever they manifest a different spirit from that prevailing for the time at the court. Disobedience is punished by dissolution, sometimes by administrative exile. These circumstances have helped to eliminate from the *zemstvos* the better elements which at first entered into their composition. The greater number of them are inspired now with the same red-tapeism as the ministerial chancelleries, or are refuges for proprietors in search of a salary. Still, in several provinces a good deal of most useful work has been done, especially educational, by those *zemstvos* in which the peasants are in a majority or the proprietors are inspired with a more liberal spirit; while several other *zemstvos* have recently made extensive and most valuable inquiries into the condition of agriculture, industry, &c.

Since 1870 the municipalities have had institutions like those of the *zemstvos*. All owners of houses, and tax-paying merchants, artisans, and workmen, are enrolled on lists in a descending order according to their assessed wealth. The total valuation is then divided into three equal parts, each of which elects an equal number of representatives to the *duma*. The executive is in the hands of an elective mayor and an *uprava* which consists of several members elected by the *duma*. Both are, in fact, functionaries under the governor, and the municipal institutions have no real independent life.¹

The organs of the central government in the provinces are the *uryadniks* (a kind of *gardes-champêtres*) in the villages, the *stanovoy*s and *ispravniks* (chiefs of the police) in the districts, and the governors (a kind of Napoleonic prefect) in each government—all invested, the *uryadniks*

¹ See Golovatchoff, *Ten Years of Reforms in Russia. The Finances of the Zemstvos* (official publication); Dityatin, *Municipal Self-Government in Russia*, 2 vols.; and very numerous and valuable papers in the reviews *Vestnik Evropy*, *Otdelchatsvannyya Zapiski*, *Russkaya Mysl*, &c.

included, with powers which are the more extensive as they are totally undefined. There is also in each government a special gendarmerie under the "chief of gendarmes," who usually is also the head of the "third section" of the Imperial Chancery. The name of the third section has been recently abolished, but the institution still continues. It has charge of the secret police of the state, and has most varied functions, such as the arrest of supposed political offenders, their exile to Siberia, the delivery of separation papers to spouses desiring divorce, and so on. Several governments are placed under special governors-general, whom the recent law on the "state of siege" invests with almost dictatorial powers.

The higher administration is represented by the emperor, who unites the supreme legislative, executive, and judicial powers, and is surrounded by four distinct councils—the committee of ministers, the council of the empire, the senate, and the Holy Synod. The ministers, who are considered as executing the will of the czar, and are nominated by him, are invested with very extensive powers; their circulars for the interpretation of laws have greater weight than the laws themselves. The council of the empire, which consisted in 1884 of 64 members, nominated by the emperor, besides the ministers and several members of the imperial family, is a consultative body for matters of legislation. The senate, also nominated by the emperor, has two distinct functions. Seven "departments" of it are administrative; they promulgate the laws, examine the acts of governors, adjudicate in their conflicts with *zemstvos*, and, in theory, can make remonstrances to the emperor,—in fact they merely register and promulgate laws. Two other "departments" are courts of cassation. A special department, reinforced by representatives of nobility, pronounces judgment in political cases. The Holy Synod, consisting of metropolitans and bishops who sit there in turn, has the superintendence of religious affairs.

The judicial system introduced in 1864 was conceived in a very liberal spirit, which, unfortunately, has not been maintained. Thus a "preliminary instruction," made by the "third section" in political cases, or by the police, has been subsequently introduced. The "judges of instruction," irremovable by law, have not yet been nominated, their functions being discharged by substitutes entirely dependent upon the ministry. Elective justices of the peace decide in all cases involving less than 500 roubles, or less than six months' imprisonment. Their decisions can be brought by appeal before the district gathering of the justices of the peace, and thence before the senate. All criminal cases involving severe penalties are tried by juries, whose verdicts can be set aside only by a court of cassation, but are not respected in cases having a so-called "political" aspect. Political offences are tried by tribunals composed *ad hoc*. Civil cases in which more than 500 roubles are involved are tried by courts of justice, with appeal to chambers of justice.

In 1879 in European Russia,—exclusive of six Lithuanian and White Russian governments,—42,530 persons were tried before the courts, and 59,600 before the justices of the peace, the convictions being respectively 27,397 and 35,742. The aggregate number of condemnations pronounced in 1882 was 46,018 in European Russia, that is, 5·9 condemned in each 10,000; only 4836 of them were women. On January 1, 1882, 93,108 persons were in jail; 530,307 men and 66,073 women (the latter with 30,769 children) were imprisoned during the year, while 625,280 prisoners were liberated or exiled, and on January 1, 1883, the number of prisoners in jail (excluding those of Saghalin and Caucassus) was 97,337. More than 20,000 are annually transported to Siberia.

The empire is divided for administrative purposes into governments (*guberniya*) or territories (*oblast*), of which there are 50 in European Russia and 10 in Poland. Each government, or territory, is divided into eight to fifteen districts (*uyezd*). The Asiatic dominions are divided into one lieutenantancy (*namyestnitelstvo*), that of Caucasia, and four general governments—Turkestan, Stepnoye (Kirghiz Steppes), East Siberia, and Amur. They comprise thirty-three governments and territories, besides a few districts (*okrug*, *oldyel*) in Transcaucasia and the Transcaspien region, regarded almost as separate governments. In Siberia the governors and governors-general are assisted by councils which have a consultative voice. The Baltic provinces have some peculiar institutions. Finland is a separate state, having its own

finances, army, and representative institutions, with limited rights, but its ministers of war and the exterior are those of the empire, and its institutions are not always respected by the emperor.

The emperor is not the head of the church, all decisions in theological matters having to be given by the Synod. His influence, however, is very great, as the nomination of the bishops rests with him. In 1882 there were in Russia 40,569 Orthodox churches and about 14,000 chapels, with 37,318 priests, 7009 deacons, and 45,395 singers. There were also 6752 monks and 9957 aspirants, 4945 nuns and 13,803 female aspirants. The church budget was 18,974,887 roubles in 1884. The monasteries and churches are possessed of great wealth, including 2950 square miles of land (a territory greater than that of Oldenburg), an invested capital of 22,634,000 roubles, an annual subsidy of 408,000 roubles from Government, and a very great number of inns, shops, printing establishments, burial grounds, &c., with whole towns covering an aggregate area of 10½ square miles. Their total annual revenue is estimated at 9,000,000 roubles.

Much still remains to be done for the diffusion of the first elements of a sound education throughout the empire; unhappily the endeavours of private persons in this field and of the *zemstvos* are for political reasons discouraged by the Government. There are seven universities—Dorpat, Kazan, Kharkoff, Kieff, Moscow, Odessa, and St Petersburg—to which may be added those of Warsaw and Helsingfors. In 1883 the seven Russian universities had 605 professors and 10,528 students, and there were 81 professors and 1228 students at Warsaw. The standard of teaching on the whole is high, and may be compared to that of the German universities. The students are hardworking, and generally very intelligent. Mostly sons of poor parents, they live in extreme poverty, supporting themselves chiefly by translating and by tutorial work. Severe measures have been taken in 1885 in regard to the universities. Explicit regulations for the interpretation of science have been issued, and restrictions laid upon the teaching of philosophy and natural science generally; comparative legislation has been excluded from the programmes; teaching in Russian (instead of German) has been ordered at Dorpat. The students are placed under rigorous regulations in regard to their life outside the university. About 950 students in theological academies and 2500 in higher technical schools must be added to the above.

The state of secondary education still leaves very much to be desired. There were in 1883 180 gymnasiums and progymnasiums for boys in European Russia, and 24 in the Asiatic dominions, and 27 and 10 respectively for girls; there were also 73 "real" schools in European Russia and 8 in the Asiatic dominions, and 48 normal schools in Russia and 10 in the Asiatic dominions. To these must be added the 14,800 pupils in 53 theological seminaries, and about 3000 in various secondary schools. The steady tendency of Russian society towards increasing the number of secondary schools, where instruction would be based on the study of the natural sciences, is checked by Government in favour of the classical gymnasiums. The aggregate number of schools for secondary instruction in European Russia in 1882 was 456 for boys and 384 for girls, with 107,930 male and 79,625 female scholars. Of these, 355 schools (45,303 boys and 3199 girls) give professional education.

For primary instruction there were in 1882 in European Russia proper 28,329 schools, with 1,177,504 male and 362,471 female pupils. Of the 6,231,160 roubles expended on primary schools only 747,772 roubles were contributed by Government, the remainder being supplied by the *zemstvos* (2,512,113 roubles), by municipalities, or by private persons. Sunday schools and public lectures are virtually prohibited.

A characteristic feature of the intellectual movement in Russia is its tendency to extend to women the means of receiving higher instruction. The gymnasiums for girls are both numerous and good. In addition to these, notwithstanding Government opposition, a series of higher schools, where careful instruction in natural and social sciences is given, have been opened in the chief cities under the name of "Pedagogical Courses." At St Petersburg a women's medical academy, the examinations of which were even more searching than those of the ordinary academy (especially as regards diseases of women and children), was opened, but after about one hundred women had received the degree of M.D., it has been suppressed by Government. In several university towns there are also free teaching establishments for women, supported by subscription, with programmes and examinations equal to those of the universities. In 1882 the students numbered 914 at St Petersburg, about 500 at Moscow, and 389 at Kazan.

The natural sciences are much cultivated in Russia, especially during the last twenty years. Besides the Academy of Science, the Moscow Society of Naturalists, the Mineralogical Society, the Geographical Society, with its Caucasian and Siberian branches, the archaeological societies and the scientific societies of the Baltic provinces, all of which are of old and recognized standing, there have lately sprung up a series of new societies in connexion with each university, and their serials are yearly growing in importance.

also are those of the recently founded Moscow Society of Friends of Natural Science, the Chemico-Physical Society, and various medical, educational, and other societies. The work achieved by Russian savants, especially in biology, physiology, and chemistry, and in the sciences descriptive of the vast territory of Russia, are well known to Europe.

The finances of the empire are in a most unsatisfactory condition. Although the revenue has doubled since 1856, and had reached 697,980,983 roubles (£69,798,098) in 1883, the expenditure, which was estimated at 721,337,344 roubles the same year, is always in excess of the income. The national debt is rapidly augmented both by loans and by issues of paper money so depreciated as to be worth only about 60 to 63 per cent. of its nominal value. On January 1, 1884, no less than 1,085,000,000 paper roubles were in circulation; and the national debt, the paper-money included, reached about £578,000,000, inclusive of the railway debt. The great defect of Russian finance is that its direct taxes are chiefly paid by the peasantry (91 per cent. of the whole), and the revenue is chiefly based on excise duties (direct taxes, 136,105,320 roubles; excise duties on spirits, 250,291,380; duties on tobacco and sugar, 28,569,500; import duties, 101,053,000). Of the yearly revenue no less than 436,000,000 roubles are spent in interest and sinking fund on the debt, and for war purposes.²

The zemstvos, which have an aggregate yearly income of about thirty million roubles, have also a yearly deficit of from three to five million roubles. The municipalities had in 1882 an income of only 40,076,748 roubles, there being only nine cities which had a budget of more than 500,000 roubles, and five above one million.

Army. The Russian army has been completely reorganized since the Crimean War, and compulsory military service was introduced in 1874. In 1884 the strength of the army on a peace footing was 532,764 men serving with the colours, 68,786 reserve troops, 55,599 Cossacks and irregulars, 72,626 local, depot, and instruction troops, 27,468 officers, 129,736 horses, and 1844 guns. On a war footing there were 986,000 in the active army, 563,373 in the reserve, 148,057 Cossacks and irregulars, 178,450 local, depot, and instruction troops, 41,551 officers, 366,354 horses, and 3778 guns; that is, about 1,300,000 men in field, to which number 1,000,000 untrained militia could be added in case of need. These high figures, ought, however, to be much reduced on account of the deficiencies of mobilization.

The irregular troops consist of ten *voiskos*—Don, Kubañ, Terek, Astrakhan, Orenburg, Ural, West Siberia, Semiryetchensk, Transbaikalia, and Amur. All the men of these *voiskos* between sixteen and forty-one years of age are bound to be ready for service in turn in time of peace, and to equip themselves at their own expense, train and artillery being provided by Government. In their twofold capacity as peasant settlers and a military force, these men have contributed much to the conquest of Asia.

Since 1875 compulsory military service has been introduced in Finland. The Finnish troops (nine battalions of 4833 riflemen) must be employed, as a rule, for the defence of their own country.

Navy. Notwithstanding large recent outlays, the Russian navy is by no means adapted to the exigencies of modern warfare; much stress is therefore laid on the good organization of the torpedo flotilla. The navy consists of 358 vessels, of 196,575 tons, carrying 24,500 men and 671 guns. Only 40 of these are armoured ships, the remainder being unarmoured frigates, corvettes, and cruisers, or torpedo boats (119), while a great number are mere transports and small craft.

The extensive frontier is defended by many fortresses, chiefly on the west. Poland to the west of the Vistula remains quite unprotected, fortifications being only now in course of construction in the south-west; but the Vistula is defended by the first-class fortresses of Modlin (Novogeorgievsk), Warsaw, and Ivanogorod, with Brest-Litovsk in the rear. For protecting this line in rear new fortifications are being erected. The space between Poland and the Düna is protected only by the citadel of Vilna and the marshes of the Pripet. The second line of fortresses has been erected on the Düna and Dnieper—Riga, Dinaburg, Vitebsk, Bobruisk, and Kieff. The south-western frontier is under the protection of the advanced works of Bendery and Akerman, while the Black Sea coast is defended by Kinburn and Otchakoff at the entrances of the Dnieper and the Bug, Sebastopol in the Crimea, batteries at Odessa and Nikolaieff, and a series of minor fortifications. Formidable defensive works have been erected on the Baltic at Dünamünde, Reval, Narva, Cronstadt, Wiborg, Frederikshamn, Rohtensalm, Sveaborg, Hangöudd, and in the Åland Islands. A great number of minor forts are scattered throughout Caucasia, Transcaucasia, and Turkestan; but the Pacific coast has only earth-works at Vladivostok and Nikolaievsk.

¹ Unless metallic or silver roubles are expressly mentioned, the rouble is to be taken throughout the present article as the paper rouble, the recent average value of which has been 2s. sterling. The metallic rouble (277.71 grains of pure silver) is equivalent to 88.946 pence sterling; but the paper rouble has gradually declined from 94.5 per cent. of its nominal value in 1861-65 to 60 per cent. in 1882 (see below, p. 86).

² *Sbornik Svedeniy on European Russia; Brzezi, State Debts of Russia, 1884.*

PART II.—EUROPEAN RUSSIA.—GEOGRAPHY.

The administrative boundaries of European Russia, apart from Finland and Poland, broadly coincide on the whole with the natural limits of the East-European plains, where they suddenly take, eastward of the Baltic Sea, a great extension towards the north. In the north it is bounded by the Arctic Ocean; the islands of Nova Zembla, Kolgueff, and Vaigatch also belong to it, but the Kara Sea is reckoned to Siberia. To the east it has the Asiatic dominions of the empire, Siberia and the Kirghiz Steppe, from both of which it is separated by the Ural Mountains, the Ural river, and the Caspian—the administrative boundary, however, partly extending into Asia on the Siberian slope of the Urals. To the south it has the Black Sea and Caucasia, being separated from the latter by the double valley of the two Manyches—a channel which in Post-Pliocene times connected the Sea of Azoff with the Caspian. The western boundary is purely conventional: it crosses first the peninsula of Kola from the Varanger Fjord to the northern extremity of the Gulf of Bothnia, making an arbitrary deflexion towards the west; thence it runs to the Kurische Haif in the southern Baltic, and thence to the mouth of the Danube, taking a great circular sweep to the west to embrace Poland, and separating Russia from Prussia, Austrian Galicia, and Roumania.

Of this immense frontier line less than one-half is bordered by seas—nearly all of them inland seas. For it is a special feature of Russia—a feature which has impressed a special character on its history—that she has no free outlet to the high seas except on the ice-bound shores of the Arctic Ocean. Even the White Sea is merely a ramified gulf of that ocean. Another warmer gulf of the Arctic Ocean—the Varanger Fjord—separated from Russia by the uninhabitable plateaus of the peninsula of Kola, has been abandoned to Norway. The deep indentations of the Gulf of Bothnia and Finland wash the shores of Finnish territory, and it is only at the very head of the latter gulf that the Russians happen to have taken a firm foothold by erecting their capital on the marshes at the mouth of the Neva. The Gulf of Riga and the south-eastern Baltic belong also to territory which is not inhabited by Slavonians, but by Finnish stems, and by Germans. It is only very recently, within the last hundred years, that the Russians definitively took possession of the northern shores of the Black Sea and the Sea of Azoff. The eastern coast of the Black Sea belongs properly to Transcaucasia, a great chain of mountains separating it from Russia. But even this sea is an inland one, the only outlet of which, the Bosphorus, is in foreign hands, while the Caspian is but an immense shallow lake, bordered mostly by deserts, and possessing more importance as a link between Russia and her colonies than as a channel for intercourse with other countries.

The great territory occupied by European Russia—1600 miles in length from north to south, and nearly as much from west to east—is on the whole a broad elevated plain, ranging between 500 and 900 feet above sea-level, deeply cut into by river-valleys, and bounded on all sides by broad hilly swells or mountains—the lake plateaus of Finland and the Maanselkä heights in the north-west; the Baltic coast-ridge and spurs of the Carpathians in the west, with a broad depression between the two, occupied by Poland; the Crimean and Caucasian mountains in the south; and the broad but moderately high swelling of the Ural Mountains in the east.

From a central plateau which comprises Tver, Moscow, Smolensk, and Kursk, and projects eastwards towards Samara, attaining an average height of 800 to 900 feet above the sea, the surface gently slopes in all directions to a level of from 300 to 500 feet. Then it again gently rises as it approaches the hilly tracts enclosing the great plain. This central swelling may be considered a continuation towards the east-north-east of the great line of upheavals of western Europe; the heights of Finland would then appear as continuations of the Scanian plateaus, and the northern mountains of Finland as continuations of the Kjölen, while the other great line of upheaval of the old continent, which runs north-west and south-east, would be represented in Russia by the Caucasus in the south and the Timan ridge of the Petchora basin in the north.

The hilly aspects of several parts of the central plateau are not due to foldings of the strata, which for the most part appear to be horizontal, but chiefly to the excavating action of rivers, whose valleys are deeply dug out in the plateau, especially on its borders. The round flattened summits of the Valdai plateau do not rise above 1100 feet, and they present the appearance of mountains only in consequence of the depth of the valleys—the levels of the rivers which flow towards the depression of Lake Peipus being only from 200 to 250 feet above the sea. The case is similar with the plateaus of Livonia, "Wendish Switzerland," and Kovno, which do not exceed 1000 feet at their highest points; so also with the eastern spurs of the Baltic coast-ridge between Grodno and Minsk. The same elevation is reached by a very few flat summits of the plateau about Kursk, and farther east on the Volga about Kamyshin, where the valleys are excavated in the plateau to a depth of from 800 to 900 feet, giving quite a hilly aspect to the country. It is only in the south-west, where spurs

of the Carpathians enter Volhynia, Podolia, and Bessarabia, that ridges reaching 1100 feet are met with, intersected by deep ravines.

The depressions on the borders of the central plateau thus acquire a greater importance than the small differences in its height. Such is the broad depression of the middle Volga and lower Kama, bounded on the north by the faint swelling of the Uvay, which is the watershed between the Arctic Ocean and the Volga basin. Another broad depression, from 250 to 500 feet above the sea, still filled by Lakes Peipus, Ladoga, Onega, Bielo-ozero, Latche, Vozhe, and many thousands of smaller ones, borders the central plateau on the north, and follows the same east-north-east direction. Only a few low swells penetrate into it from the north-west, about Lake Onega, and reach 900 feet, while in the north-east it is enclosed by the high Timanskiy ridge (1000 feet). A third depression of a similar character, occupied by the Pripet and the middle Dnieper, extends to the west of the central plateau of Russia, and penetrates into Poland. The immense lacustrine basin is now broken up into numberless ponds, lakes, and extensive marshes (see MINSK). It is bounded on the south by the broad plateaus spreading east of the Carpathians. South of 50° N. lat. the central plateau gently slopes towards the south, and we find there a fourth depression spreading west and east through Poltava and Kharkoff, but still reaching in its higher parts 500 to 700 feet. It is separated from the Black Sea by a gentle swelling which may be traced from Kremenez to the lower Don, and perhaps farther south-east. This low swelling includes the Donetz coal-measures and the middle granitic ridges which cause the rapids of the Dnieper. Finally a fifth immense depression, which descends below the level of the ocean, extends for more than 200 miles to the north of the Caspian, comprising the lower Volga and the Ural and Emba rivers, and establishing a link between Russia and the Aral-Caspian region. The depression is continued farther north by plains below 300 feet which join the depression of the middle Volga, and extend as far as the mouth of the Oka.

The Ural Mountains present the aspect of a broad swelling whose strata no longer exhibit the horizontality we see in Russia, and moreover are deeply cut into by rivers. It is connected in the west with broad plateaus joining those of central Russia, but its orographical relations to other upheavals must be more closely studied before they can be definitely pronounced on.

The rhomboidal peninsula of the Crimea, connected by only a narrow isthmus with the continent, is occupied by a dry plateau gently sloping north and east, and bordered in the south-east by the Yaita Mountains, the summits of which range between 4000 and 5113 feet (see CRIMEA and TAURIDA).

Owing to the orographical structure of the East-European plains, which has just been described, the river-system has attained a very high development. Taking their origin from a series of great lacustrine basins scattered over the surface of the plateaus and differing slightly in elevation, the Russian rivers describe immense curves before reaching the sea, and flow with a very gentle gradient, receiving numerous large tributaries, which collect their waters from vast areas. Thus the Volga, the Dnieper, and the Don attain respectively a length of 2110, 1330, and 1125 miles, and their basins cover 645,000, 244,600, and about 115,000 square miles respectively. Moreover the chief rivers of Russia—the Volga, the Düna, the Dnieper, and even the Lovat and the Oka—take their rise in the north-western part of the central plateau, so close to one another that they may be said to radiate from the same marshes. The sources of the Don are ramified among the tributaries of the Oka, while the upper tributaries of the Kama join those of the Düna and Petchora. In consequence of this, the rivers of Russia have been from remote antiquity the true channels of trade and migration, and have contributed much more to the elaboration of the national unity than any political institutions. Boats could be conveyed over flat and easy portages, from one river-basin to another, and these portages were subsequently transformed with a relatively small amount of labour into navigable canals, and even at the present day these canals have more importance for the traffic of the country than most railways. By their means the natural outlet was the Caspian—were brought into water-communication with the Baltic, and the Volga basin connected with the Gulf of Finland. The White Sea has also been brought into connexion with the central Volga basin, while the sister-river of the Volga—the Kama—became the main artery of communication with Siberia.

It must be observed, however, that, though ranking before the rivers of western Europe in respect of length, the rivers of Russia are far behind as regards the amount of water discharged. They freeze in winter and dry up in summer, and most of them are navigable only during the spring-floods; even the great Volga becomes so shallow during the hot season that only light boats can pass its shoals.

Russia has a very large number of lakes. The aggregate area of the largest ones is stated at 25,800 square miles.

The following is a descriptive list of the principal rivers of European Russia.

A. Arctic Ocean Basin.—(1) The Petchora (1025 miles) rises in the

northern Urals, and enters the ocean by a large estuary at the Gulf of Petchora. Its basin, thinly peopled and available only for cattle-breeding and for hunting, is quite isolated from Russia by the Timan ridge. The river is navigable for 770 miles; grain and a variety of goods conveyed from the upper Kama are floated down, while furs, fish, and other products of the sea are shipped up the river to be transported to Tcherdyn on the Kama. (2) The Kara (139 miles) enters the Kara Sea. (3) The Mezen (510 miles) enters the Bay of Mezen; it is navigable for 450 miles, and is the channel of a considerable export of timber. (4) The northern Dwina, or Dvina (950 miles), with a basin of about 150,000 square miles, is formed by the union of two great rivers, the Yug (270 miles) and the Sukhona (330 miles). The Sukhona has its origin in Lake Kubenskoye, in north-west Vologda, and flows rapidly southwards and eastwards, having a great number of rapids. It is navigable throughout its length, and, as Lake Kubenskoye communicates by the Alexander of Württemberg Canal with Lake Bietoye, it is connected with the Caspian and Baltic. The Vytych-gda (685 miles), which flows west-south-west to join the Sukhona, through a woody region, thinly peopled, is navigable for 500 miles and in its upper portion is connected by a canal with the upper Kama. The Dwina flows with a very slight gradient through a broad valley, receiving many tributaries, and reaches the White Sea at Archangel by a number of branches. Notwithstanding serious obstacles offered by shallows, corn, fish, salt, and timber are largely shipped to and from Archangel. (5) The Onega (245 miles) rises in Lake Latche in the south of Otonetz Bay, and flows into Onega Bay; it has rapids; timber is floated down in spring, and fishing and some navigation are carried on in the lower portion.

B. Baltic Basin.—(6) The Neva (46 miles) flows from Lake Ladoga into the Gulf of Finland (see ST PETERSBURG). (7) The Volkhoff (135 miles), discharging into Lake Ladoga (see LADOGA), and forming part of the Vyshnevolotsk system of canals, is an important channel for navigation; it flows from Lake Ilmen (367 square miles), which receives the Msta (250 miles), connected with the Volga, the Lovat (310 miles), and many smaller tributaries. (8) The Svir (135 miles), also discharging into Lake Ladoga, flows from Lake Onega (4925 square miles), and being part of the Mariinsk canal system, is of great importance for navigation (see VOLGA). (9) The Narova (46 miles) flows out of Lake Peipus into the Gulf of Finland at Narva; it has remarkable rapids, notwithstanding which an active navigation is carried on by means of its waters. Lake Peipus, or Tchudskoye (136 square miles), receives—(10) the Velikaya (210 miles), a channel of traffic with southern Russia from a remote antiquity, but now navigable only in its lower portion, and (11) the Embach (82 miles), navigated by steamers to Dorpat. (12) The Düna, or West Dwina (577 miles), with a basin area of about 75,000 square miles, rises in the Ostashkoff district of Tver, and falls into the sea below Riga, after having described a great curve to the south. It is shallow above the rapids of Jacobstadt, but navigation is carried on as far as Vitebsk,—corn, timber for shipbuilding, potash, flax, &c., being the principal shipments of its navigable tributaries (the Obsha, Ulla, and Kasplya); the Ulla is connected by the Berezina canals with the Dnieper. (13) The Niemen (Memel), with a course of 470 miles in Russia, rises in the north of Minsk, leaves Russia at Yurburg, and enters the Kurische Haif; rafts are floated upon it almost from its sources, and steamers ply as far as to Kovno; the export of corn and timber to Prussia, and import of fish, grocery, and manufactured ware are considerable; it is connected by the Oginski Canal with the Dnieper. The chief tributaries are the Viliya and the Shara. For (14) the Vistula, with the Bug and Narew, see POLAND.

J. Black Sea Basin.—(15) The Pruth (505 miles) rises in Austrian Bukovina, and separates Russia from Roumania; it enters (16) the Danube, which flows along the Russian frontier for 100 miles below Reni, touching it with its Kilia branch. (17) The Dniester (530 miles within Russia and about 330 miles in Austria) rises in Galicia. Light boats and rafts are floated at all points, and steamers ply on its lower portion; its estuary has important fisheries. (18) The Dnieper (1330 miles), with a basin of about 245,000 square miles, with tributaries, waters thirteen governments, of which the aggregate population numbers about 15,000,000. It also originates in the north-western parts of the central plateau, in the same marshy lakes which give rise to the Volga and Düna. It flows west, south, south-east, and south-west, and enters a bay in the north-western part of the Black Sea. In the middle navigable part of its course, from Dorogobuzh to Ekaterinoslav, it is an active channel for traffic. It receives several large tributaries—on the right, the Berezina (285 miles), connected with the Düna, and the Pripet (400 miles), both most important for navigation,—as well as several smaller tributaries on which rafts are floated; on the left the Sozh (330 miles), the Desna (590 miles), one of the most important rivers of Russia, navigated by steamers as far as Bryansk, the Suta (252 miles), the Psiof (415 miles), and the Vorskta (263 miles). Below Ekaterinoslav the Dnieper flows for 46 miles through a series of thirteen rapids. At Kherson it enters its long (40 miles) but