



T. G. MASARYK,
the First President of the Czechoslovak Republic.

THE CZECHOSLOVAK
REPUBLIC • A SURVEY OF ITS
HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY, ITS POLITI-
CAL AND CULTURAL ORGANISATION,
AND ITS ECONOMIC RESOURCES

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P R E F A C E.

This book, a completely revised edition of which we now lay before the reader, makes no claim to originality. It is only a compilation intended to serve as a concise handbook for the English reader who wishes to obtain a little more detailed and exact information about the new Central European Republic than he can find in the newspapers or monthly magazines and reviews. It has been published in the hope that in due course it may be replaced by a more adequate and original work of some English student.

Throughout the work a very large number of different publications have naturally been used, and the compilers gratefully admit their obligation to the authors. Most of the chapter on history has been taken from an article by President Masaryk (New Europe, vol. 2, 1916); the chapter on Literature was written by Mr. Paul Selver, and the chapter on Music by Mrs. Rosa Newmarch: to them the compilers wish to render their special thanks. They would gladly acknowledge their indebtedness to other sources if there were any hope that such acknowledgment could ever be complete: if incomplete it would be misleading and might cause offence. Nevertheless they desire to thank the friends who have helped them by their criticisms and suggestions. To Mr. Paul Selver, without whose invaluable help and co-operation the book would have hardly appeared, they are especially indebted.

The authors would like to call the reader's attention to the appendices where he can find the latest statistics and figures relating especially to the budget and foreign trade; numerous difficulties of a technical nature have delayed the publication of the book and some of the estimates given in the text have been superseded by correct statistics.

Of the two authors, Mr. Pokorný compiled most of the economic part, while the undersigned is responsible for the rest of the book, together with its general arrangement.

London, March 1922.

JAROSLAV ČISAŘ.

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APPENDICES.

APPENDIX A.

THE PRONUNCIATION
OF CZECH AND SLOVAK WORDS.

(In "Czech", the English spelling of *Čech*, the *cz* is pronounced like "ch" in "cherry", and the final *ch* like "ch" in the Scotch "loch" — or like the German "ch" in *Buch*.)

All the consonants are pronounced like their English equivalents with the following exceptions:

<i>c</i> (unmarked)	is pronounced like	<i>ts</i>	in	<i>its</i>
<i>j</i>	"	"	"	<i>y</i> " <i>yes</i>
<i>ch</i>	is a guttural	"	"	<i>ch</i> " Scotch "loch"
<i>č</i> (marked)	is	"	"	<i>ch</i> " <i>cherry</i>
<i>d'</i> = <i>ď</i> (marked)	"	"	"	<i>di</i> " <i>radiant</i>
<i>ň</i>	"	"	"	<i>ny</i> " <i>canyon</i>
<i>š</i>	"	"	"	<i>sh</i> " <i>she</i>
<i>t'</i> = <i>ť</i>	"	"	"	<i>t</i> " <i>tube</i>
<i>ž</i>	"	"	"	<i>z</i> " <i>azure</i> or <i>s</i> in <i>Asia</i>
<i>ř</i>	"	"	"	rolled <i>r</i> plus <i>z</i> .

Vowels are pronounced as follows:

<i>a</i>	like short	<i>a</i>	in	<i>fast</i> , or <i>hark</i> , or <i>wasp</i>
<i>e</i>	"	"	"	<i>e</i> " <i>pen</i>
<i>o</i>	"	"	"	<i>o</i> " <i>obey</i>
<i>u</i>	"	"	"	<i>oo</i> " <i>took</i>
<i>y</i>	"	"	"	<i>y</i> " <i>cyst</i>

a strike ' (accent) over the vowel indicates length:

<i>á</i>	is pronounced like	<i>a</i>	in	<i>palm</i> , <i>father</i>
<i>é</i>	"	"	"	<i>a</i> " <i>rare</i>
<i>í</i>	"	"	"	<i>ee</i> " <i>sheep</i>
<i>ý</i>	"	"	"	<i>i</i> " <i>machine</i>
<i>ů</i> or <i>ú</i>	"	"	"	<i>oo</i> " <i>doom</i> , <i>cool</i>

a hook over *e* (*ě*) softens it into *ye*; *ě* softens the preceding *d*, *t*, *n*, into *dy*, *ty*, *ny* (like *d* in *d'you* know, *t* in *not yet*, *ny* in *canyon* = Spanish *ñ*).

The primary accent (stress) in Czech words always falls on the first syllable. The suffix "-ová" (primarily equivalent to Saxon possessive 's) is added to masculine proper names to indicate female members of the family. Thus, Božena *Němcová* signified Božena of the family or house of Němec.

APPENDIX B.

THE SLAVS.

(Adapted from Prof. ŠÁRKA HRBKOVÁ.)

So many people are under the impression that the Slavic tongues are wholly alien to the other languages of Europe that a brief statement of what groups constitute the Indo-European family of languages will not be amiss. This family includes eight main branches each of which has several sub-divisions. The first or Aryan includes the *Indian* and the *Iranian* and those in turn have sub-divisions which are represented by the Sanskrit, the Zend and the old and modern Persian. The second is the *Armenian* branch. The third is the *Hellenic*, which includes all the ancient Greek dialects as well as modern Greek. The fourth is the *Albanian* branch spoken in ancient Ilyria and in modern Albania. The fifth is the *Latin* branch represented by the Latin and other dead dialects and by the modern Romance languages, as French, Italian, Spanish and Portuguese. The sixth is the *Celtic* branch with sub-divisions of the Gallic, Brittanic and Gaelic and those in their turn represented by the Cornish, Irish, Scotch-Gaelic and Manx. The seventh branch of the Indo-European family is the *Teutonic* which embraces three main groups, the Gothic, now extinct; the Norse, including the Swedish, Danish, Norwegian and the Icelandic; the West Germanic, which is represented by the German, the Saxon, Flemish, Dutch, Low Franconian, Frisian and English. The eighth branch is the *Slavonic*, sometimes called Balto-Slavic. The languages developed around the Baltic sea were the old Prussian, the Lithuanian and the Lettic.

A rough division of the *Slavs* is territorial comprising (I.) *Eastern Slavs* or *Russians*, consisting of Great Russians, White Russians and Little Russians, the last named being variously called Ukrainians, Rusins, Ruthenians and Carpatho-Russians. (II.) The *Western Slavs*, embracing the *Czechs* (Čechs), *Slovaks*, *Poles*, *Lusatian Serbs*. (III.) The *Southern Slavs* or *Jugoslavs*, including the *Slovenes*, *Serbo-Croats* and *Bulgarians*.

The best authentic division of the Slavs today according to Dr. Lubor Niederle, professor of Archaeology and Ethnology at the Czech University of Prague, is as follows:

1. The *Russian* stem (Ukrainian, Ruthene), Great Russian, White Russian and Small Russian with its three branches as to whose classification as dialects of one tongue or three separate languages is a matter on which philologists still differ.

2. The *Polish* stem, — including the Poles and possibly the Kasubs, about whom it is yet uncertain whether they form a dialect of Polish or a remnant of the former Baltic Slavs.

3. The *Sorb* (Wend) stem (living in Saxony) — formed by the remnant of the Slavs of the Elbe.

4. The *Czechoslovak* (or Bohemian and Slovak) stem; for more about which see the following two appendixes (III. and IV.).

5. The *Slovene* stem, — very nearly akin to the Serbo-Croat.

6. The *Serbo-Croat* stem, — in which political and cultural, but especially religious, conditions have produced a separation into two branches, the Serbian and the Croatian, which, however, are ethnologically and philologically identical.

7. The *Bulgarian* stem, philologically very near to the Serbo-Croat; in Macedonia it is still a matter for dispute whether the indigenous Slavs are Bulgarians or Serbians or perhaps an independent branch.

The common origin of the Indo-European languages is determined mainly by two tests which the philologists apply. These proofs of kinship are a similar structure or inflectional system and a common root system.

Practically all the common words in use in any of the languages belonging to the Indo-European family are fair illustrations of the strong relationship existing among the eight branches, and are proofs of an original or parent tongue known to nearly all of the now widely dispersed nations of Europe. For instance, the word "*mother*" in the modern languages has these forms: In the French, it is "*mère*", abbreviated from the older Italic tongue, Latin, where it was "*mater*", in the Spanish "*madre*"; in the German it is "*Mutter*"; in the Scotch the word becomes "*mither*"; in the Bohemian or Czech it is "*mateř*" or "*matka*", and in the Russian it is "*mat'*" or "*mater*".

The English verb, "*to be*", (Czech "*býti*") conjugated in the present tense is, — in English, Latin and Czech:

I am	— sum	— jsem	we are	— sumus	— jsme
thou art	— es	— jsi	you are	— estes	— jste
he is	— est	— jest	they are	— sunt	— jsou

The German is: ich bin du bist er ist
 wir sind ihr seid sie sind

The natural similarity of words in the Slavic languages is obviously even greater and more pronounced than the resemblance of words in the various Indo-European tongues.

Thus, the word "mother" in the principal Slavic tongues has three forms: Russian, *mati*; Czech, *mati*, *matka* or *mateř*; Serbian, *mati*; Polish, *matka*; Bulgarian, *Majka* or *mama*. The word for "water" is "voda" in all of the above languages except in Polish where it is "woda". The verb "to sit" is, in Russian, *sidět*; in Czech, *seděti*; Serbian, *sediti*; Polish, *siedzieć*; Bulgarian, *sędja*. One could trace this similarity of roots and suffixes in all the words common in the experience of our ancestors. The examples given are but two of hundreds or even thousands, which conclusively show that the Slavic tongues are philologically related to the other Indo-European tongues.

The etymology of the word "Slav" was not clear for some time. Some philologists connected it with the word "*sláva*" which means "glory" or "the glorious race". Others, and the numbers of such linguistic students or scholars exceed the former school, have accepted the theory of Joseph Dobrovský, the Bohemian philologist, who asserted that the term comes from "slovo" which signifies "word" or "those who know words". The term in the original Slavic is "*Slovan*" which is more closely allied in appearance and sound to the word from which it is derived. Dobrovský claimed that the earliest ancestors of the present Slavs called themselves "*Slované*" or "men who knew words or languages" in contradistinction to the Germans who did not know their words or language and hence were called "*Němci*" from "*němj*" meaning "dumb". The Slavic name for Germans, oddly enough, has remained "*Němci*" or "the dumb ones" to this day. This dubbing of a neighbour nation which is dissimilar in language and customs recalls the practice of the ancient Greeks who named all other nations who were not Greeks "barbarians".

The name "*Czech*" or "*Čech*" as it is correctly written is a word supposed originally to have designated the leader of the small band of Slavs who, in early times, emigrating from Western Russia, settled in the valley of the Vltava (Moldau) in the heart of Europe and there have remained as the sturdy vanguard of the Slav people. From the word "*Čech*" is derived the poetic name "*Čechia*" for Bohemia.

The names "*Bohemia*" and "*Bohemians*" as applied to the country and to this group of Slavs respectively, are derived from the word "*Boji*", or "*Boii*", a Celtic tribe, occupying the basin of the Vltava and the Elbe before the permanent settlement there of the Czechs. Julius Caesar in his "Commentaries on the Gallic Wars" speaks frequently of the "*Boji*" and "*Marcomanni*". The word "*Boii*" was in the Latinised form, "*Bojohemum*", applied to the country of those early Celts who had occupied the country and eventually the name "*Bojohemum*" was changed to "*Bohemia*". In later days, the Slav inhabitants became known as "*Bohemians*" to the outside races unfamiliar with the correct term "*Čech*" which to facilitate pronunciation by non-Slavs is written "*Czech*".

APPENDIX C.

CZECH AND SLOVAK.

By Dr. J. BAUDIŠ, Professor at the University of Prague.*)

Owing to some misapprehensions about the Slovak dialect, it would be well to bear in mind that the Slovak dialect used as a literary language is of recent date (nineteenth century), and that before this date the Slovaks used the Czech literary language as their literary language as well. This is enough to prove that the Slovak cannot be a different Slavonic language, but seeing that this doctrine is still believed in quarters which should be better informed, and suggested by people whose interest it is to misinform the public, I shall summarise the facts, quoting authorities who are not likely to take the Czech point of view.

The late Carl Brugmann, Professor of Comparative Philology in the University of Leipzig, speaks only of the Czech language which comprises "Czech in the stricter sense, Moravian and Slovakian" (see *Elements of the Comparative Grammar of the Indogermanic Languages*, English translation by J. Wright, London, 1888, vol. i., p. 12). J. J. Mikkola, Professor of Slavonic Philology in the University of Helsingfors and author of *Protoslavonic Grammar (Urslavische Grammatik)*, Heidelberg, 1913, speaks of Czechoslovak as *one* language (p. 3). Czambel's attempt to prove that Slovak is related to the Southern Slavonic group he simply answered by referring to Professor Pastrnek's review in the *Archiv für slavische Philologie*, vol. xxvi. This review refutes all Czambel's contentions; but as Professor Pastrnek, though a Moravian Slovak himself, happens to be Professor in the Prague University, I leave his authority aside.

The late Professor Leskien, the greatest German authority on the subject of Comparative Slavonic Grammar and Professor of Slavonic Languages in the University of Leipzig, says that the Slovaks are "to be regarded as belonging to the Czech in the wider sense of the word" (see *Grammatik der altpulgarischen Sprache*, Heidelberg, 2nd ed., 1919, p. xv.). The theory that old *Moravia* — *i. e.*, the territory between the Rivers Morava (March) and Hron (Gran), *i. e.*, the eastern part of modern Moravia and Slovakia — was at an historical period (ninth century A. D.)

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Kutná Hora.

inhabited by any other Slavs than Czechoslovaks he simply dismisses by saying (*ib.*, pp. xv.-xvi.): "It cannot be proved, either by any historical fact or by any combination of tradition, that Moravia was inhabited by any other Slavonic stem in the ninth century, and not the ancestors of those who are living there to-day. Therefore one must infer that the Moravians of that period spoke a Czechoslovak dialect."

It is clear, then, that there can be no serious philological doubts about that question, and I think that Professor Vondrák (late of the Vienna University, now of the Brno University) was fully justified in saying (*Vergleichende slavische Grammatik*, vol. i.): "Slovak represents an older stage of development, and it reminds one, in many respects, of Old Czech . . . Though many would-be philologists (*Auch-Philologen*) endeavour to represent it as an independent language, they have gained this philological conviction rather in the political arena than from grammar."

In order to demonstrate the relation between Czech and Slovak, I will give examples of Slovak texts, with Czech translations, and leave the reader to draw his own conclusions. As the first example I shall quote a few lines from the book *Slováci a ich reč* (p. 207), by Czambel, the author who maintains that Slovak is a different language:

Slov. *Vo svojej maďarskej brošúrke prizvukoval som v*
Czech. *Ve své maďarské brožurce přizvukoval jsem v*

podstatě to isté, co v tomto obširnom spise
podstatě to jisté, co v tomto obširném spise

Potrebu preskúmania ľudovej reči slovenskej a
Potřebu přezkoumání lidové řeči slovenské a

zreformovanie spisovnej reči na základoch reči
zreformování spisovné řeči na základech řeči

ľudovej. A usiloval som sa nakloniť hornouhorských
lidové. A usiloval jsem si nakloniti hornouherských

luteránov, aby do Slovenských cirkví namiesto
luteránů, aby do Slovenských cirkví na místo

češtiny uviedli takto zreformovanú slovenskú reč
češtiny uvedli takto zreformovanou slovenskou řeč.

Hurban Vajanský:

Slov. *V lesíku (Sobrané Diela, Sväzok III. 33).*
Czech. *V lesíku (Sebraná Díla, Svazek III. 33).*

Keď zaveje vetrik tichý,
 (když) zavěje větrík tichý,
rozševlí listov roj,
 rozševlí listů roj,
vtedy žiaľné moje vzdychy
 (tehdy) žalné moje vzdychy
prostá moja pieseň koj.
 prostá moje píseň koj.
Bo keď lesa šum zakypí
 (Ne)bo(ť) (když) lesa šum zakypí
dušou mojou truchlivou,
 duši mojí truchlivou,
čujem v ňom i šumy lípy
 (slyším) v něm i šumy lípy
tam nad Tvojou mohylou.
 tam nad Tvojí mohylou.

From Rimavský's *Folk-tales*:

Slov. *Boli raz dvaja bratia, jedného otca, jednej matere deti.*
 Czech. Byli (jednou) dva bratří, jednoho otce, jedné matere děti.

Ale trebars boli svoja krv, vyzeralo u nich jako
 Ale třeba byli svá krev, (vypadalo) (to) u nich jako
medzi najcudzejšími, a to všetko pre staršieho brata,
 mezi nejčizějšími, a to všecko pro staršího bratra,
lebo to bol človek lakomý a skúpý.
 nebo to byl člověk lakomý a skoupý.

The differences are partly due to the fact that the Slovak dialects have preserved an older stage of development.

(1) *E. g.,*

preskúmania = Gen. sing. Old Czech. *znameňá*.
miesto = O. Cz. *miesto*; *staršieho* = O. Cz. *staršieho*, etc.
slovenskú reč would correspond to an Old Czech *Slovenskú reč*.
listov = O. Cz. *listův*; *medzi*;

Some later changes which affected the Czech dialect did not affect the Slovak to such an extent:

cudzi, old *czyuzi*, *i. e.*, *ciuzi* for older *c'udzi*.
 (*otca*, O. Cz. *otcé*.)

Slov. *ľud*, O. Cz. *ľyud*, *ľud*, etc. The Slovak does not possess any *ř*, which is a later development of the Czech language (thirteenth century).

(2) In some cases the Slovak development has been different from the Czech:

potřeba derived from O. Cz. *potrieba*.

veje derived from O. Cz. *věje*, etc.

(3) Some differences are due to analogical influences:

ľudovej, cp. O. Cz. *dobrej*, which is an analogous form from the dat. *nom*, analog. from *tom* = Cz. *tom*.

We see that in any case the Slovak dialect has preserved some ancient phonetic features, though the Czech literary language is again more archaic in its accident. The whole question has been very properly characterised by Vatroslav von Jagić (*Kultur der Gegenwart, Die Osteuropäischen Literaturen: Die Slavischen Sprachen*, p. 30), who states that the Slovak dialects, though they are a dialectic motley ("geht es . . . dialektisch recht bunt zu"), are connected through the medium of the Moravian dialect with the language of Bohemia, and *form with it a great linguistic unit, which in normal conditions — as exist in the case of some other peoples and countries (Germany, France, Italy) — could have been quite reasonably satisfied with one literary language.*

From the historical point of view the Slovaks have been a part of ancient Moravia (the Great Moravian State), whose allies, or rather vassals, the Bohemian Princes were. When the great Moravian Empire was destroyed by the Magyar invasion, the ascendancy of Bohemia grew naturally, because Bohemia became the centre of Czechoslovak culture. The Czech Prince Boleslav probably rescued Moravia from the domination of the Magyars (985), though his success did not last very long. Boleslav's grandson had to send his son Břetislav into Moravia, which at that time was claimed by the Hungarian King Stephen, and the war was ended in 1031 by a treaty which divided the original Moravian territory. The country now known as Moravia was returned to Bohemia; but the other former Moravian lands, now Slovakia, fell to the Hungarian King. It is clear, then, that the Moravians are historically identical with the Slovaks; and as the Moravians were always regarded as Czechs, there is no reason why the Slovaks should be regarded as a different people.

APPENDIX D.

CZECHOSLOVAK AND CZECHOSLOVAKIA.

A historical comment on these terms.

By Dr. ALBERT PRAŽÁK, Professor at the University of Bratislava.*)

In the foreign press, and even in our own, I have frequently met with the view that the terms Czechoslovak and Czechoslovakia only came into existence during the war, and are closely connected with the foundation of the Czechoslovak Republik. This view is erroneous, as the terms in question have a long and honourable history. Significantly enough, it was the Slovaks with whom they originated.

From the earliest times the historical sources connect the Bohemians and the Slovaks in Hungary as a native and interdependent unit. The "Anonymi Belae regis notarius" refers to the "Habitatores Slavos et Boemos" in Nitra (XXXV, XXXVI), Verboczy, in his "Tripartitum" (1608, 1609) speaks of the indigenous Hungarian rights possessed by the "Slavi seu Bohemi, natio Slavica seu bohémica" (article XLIII, XLIV), while at Krupina the Magyars and Bohemians or the Slovaks lodged a complaint with Count Thurzo against the Germans in 1610 and 1614 (cf. Sborník N. Sl. Sp. II 2, 153). The Slovak preacher Paul Doležal referred to the inhabitants of Upper Hungary, as "Bohemo-Slavi" (Orthographia bohemoslavica 1742, 12), or as "Slavi Bohemi" (Grammatica slavica-Bohemica, 1746). Mathias Bel compiled statistics about the Hungarian population, and in defining the nationality of Upper Hungary he spoke of the "Slavi Bohoemi" (Compendium Hungariae Geographicum, Posonii, 1753). The same appellation of "Bohoemi Slavi" was used in reference to the inhabitants of Upper Hungary also by the historian Jan Tomka Szaeszky (Conspectus introductionis in notitiam regni Hungariae, Posonii, 1709).

The founder of the Pressburg learned society (societas erudita) and the editor of the Pressburg weekly paper for the propagation of science and art (1771—1773) and of the imperial royal privileged bulletin, later of the Hungarian magazine (1781—1787), Karl Theofil Windisch, studied Hungary according to the nations living there, and wrote a detailed geography of the Kingdom of Hungary (Pressburg, Lowe, 1780). Windisch

*) By kind permission of the Editor of the Prager Presse.

recognises the following nations in Hungary: Hungarians, Germans, Croats, Wends, Russians and "*Bohemian Slavs*". According to Windisch Upper Hungary is entirely in possession of the Bohemian Slavs. "Pressburg, Tyrnau, Trenchin, Neutra, Arva, Lipto, Zolyom, Turocz, Bors, Komarom, Nagy and Kiss Hont, Nograd, Saros, Abauj, Gemer, Torna" he says, are all centres of the Bohemian Slavs. Windisch even discovered the Bohemian Slavs at Pesth, Kecskemet and Esztergom, and in his statistical data he also quotes the number of these Bohemian-Slav inhabitants. Windisch also speaks of the history of the towns and the churches, he knows, for example, that the nunnery at Kaschau was founded in 1217, and that sermons were preached there in Hungarian, Bohemian and German. The only appellation used by Windisch in reference to the present-day Slovaks is that of "Bohemian Slavs", and this tallies with the older appellation of "Bohemi-Slavi", "Bohemo-slavi". Johann Samuel Klein spoke of the Bohemian and Slavonic congregations, of the Bohemian and Slavonic preachers in Hungary ("Information concerning the condition and writings of Evangelical preachers in all communities of the Kingdom of Hungary", Leipzig, 1789). Šafařík and Benedicti referred to the inhabitants of Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia and Upper Hungary as "the Czechoslavs" ("Počátky", 1818), Kollár called them "The Slaveczechs" ("Cestopis", 1841), and the Catholic Slovak Sasínek knew them as "the Czechs or the Slovaks" ("Slovensky Letopis" I 78, 1876).

Czechoslovak is therefore no new invention, but a name created by the Slovaks themselves, and employed for centuries in various combinations of the words Bohemians and Slovaks.

The same process can be found in the case of the adjective Czechoslovak. In 1715 the Jesuit Konstantij wrote a grammatical work in which he used the appellation of "*Lingua boemica seu boemo-slavica*". In 1742 Paul Doležal wrote his "*Orthographia bohemo-slavica*" and discussed the "*Lingua bohemico-slavica*" (1746). In 1829 Paul Schramko read a paper to the Kleinhont learned society at Skalnik on the oldest "Bohemian-Slavonic" Bibles, and he also issued a "*Československa Gramatyka*" at Pressburg in 1805. J. Palkovič refers only to the Bohemian-Slav language as having been spoken in Upper Hungary, and M. M. Hodža, the collaborator of Štúr, praised the Bohemian-Slovak language in Pressburg (1833), and composed a poem on it ("Plody", Pressburg 1836, "*Československá řeč*"), in which he located its original centre in the Tatra Mountains. Among the Slovak folk songs, Kollár discovered one of the Czechoslovak language ("*Zpiewanky, Reč československá*", II, 142, 1835). The Slovak poet Tablie translated English poems into "Czechoslovak" (1831). B. P. Červenák, the friend and deputy of Štúr, referred to the language of the Slovaks as the Czechoslovak language ("*Zrcadlo Slovenska*", 1844, "*českoslovenčina*"). Besides the adjective "Czechoslovak", the expression "Slo-

vako(Slavo)-Czech" was also in use. At Wittenberg there is a Hungarian library containing a manuscript of the beginning of the 18th century, entitled "Rudimenta Grammaticae Slowaciorum lingua slavo-bohemica utentium". In 1741 and 1752 Doležal spoke of the "lingua slavo-bohemica", and in 1793 Ribay mentioned the "Societas slavo-bohemica inter Slavos in Hungaria" and the "lingua Slavo-bohemica".

Such and many other instances dating from periods in which the Czechs were politically disinterested as far as the Slovaks were concerned, are eloquent proofs of the linguistic unity between Czechs and Slovaks, and demonstrate beyond a doubt that the Czechoslovak language was and is an actual fact.

Nor is Czechoslovakia an invention dating only from the autumn of 1918. The Bohemians, Moravians, Silesians and Slovaks were first of all united as an ethnic entity, not only by language, but also by the same Church. To begin with, it was the idea of a Greater Moravia derived from Cyril and Methodius. The 1,000th anniversary of these two Saints was a uniform celebration both for Moravians and Slovaks. The Catholic Bohemian patron Saints Václav, Prokop and Ludmila were equally venerated in the 15th century in the neighbourhood of Kremnice as they were in Pressburg among the youthful generation which was led by Chalúpka, Hodža and Štúr. It was in Hungary that the first Hussites made their appearance immediately after the death of Hus, and as early as 1436 the Pope sent preachers to them. At Šáriš the clergy baptised children with the name of Master Joannes Hus. Komenský blessed the brethren who were still at home "i. e. in Bohemia, Silesia, Slovakia (Slovakia)". (S. Kancional, Amsterdam 1659.) In this way the conception of the unity of the Czechoslovak territories in a religious sense throve upon the ecclesiastical area.

This conception then developed slowly in the domain of language and literature. D. S. Hořčíčka celebrated the native writers Cyril, Methodius, Hieronymus, Hus, Lupáč, Jeszenius, Nudozerinus, Jiří Turzo, Czechs and Slovaks, — as forming a uniform group (Necforum, 1678). From 1715 onwards the printing press of Johann Neubart issued a calendar for the whole area of Upper Hungary, Silesia, Moravia and Bohemia. M. Bel, the Hungarian academician and historian, was convinced that the Slovaks, Moravians and Bohemians were homogeneous in character. J. Palkovič described Hungary in the account of his native country, but at the same time he makes a deliberate reference to the towns of Prague, Brunn and Olmutz (1804). Benedikti of Kesmark acknowledged Žižka and Hus as his ancestors, and expressed the desire that the Czechs, Moravians and Slovaks might become a unity (1817). Palacký and Šafařík sent their book "Počátkové českého básnictví" to the poets of Bohemia, Moravia and Upper Hungary, to the "Czechoslavs in the

Tatra and in the Giant Mountains and those by the Vltava, the Váh, the Morava and the Hron" (1818). L. Štúr assured Dr. Svoboda on his departure from Slovakia for Moravia, that Moravia also contained Slovak land and Slovak people (1837). The students of Pressburg spoke with enthusiasm about Čechosláva (1839), and in the same year J. M. Hurban visited Bohemia, and extolled the countries containing 10 million Czechs, Moravians and Slovaks, who were homogeneous and united by nature and language. Hurban wrote to the Czechs telling them that in their writings they should bear in mind all their territories comprising the whole nation of the Czechs, Moravians, Silesians and Slovaks, that in a word, they should be "the guardian spirits of Československo" (Czechoslovakia) ("Květy" 8.-10. 1839). Hurban, that great friend and collaborator of L. Štúr, who was the founder of the Slovak literary language, thus used the expression "Czechoslovakia" for the first time in 1839, and on that occasion it was no longer a concept of linguistic, literary and historical racial unity, but it signified the idea of political unity which one day was to be achieved. This was realised by Count Zay, the diocesan inspector, and he reported to the ecclesiastical authorities at Kesmark that the Czechs and Slovaks were intending to found a Czechoslovak State (1841). It was realised also by Baron Pulszky, the persecutor of Štúr's organisation, who explained to Count Leo Thun why the Magyars were obliged to prevent the union of the racially conscious Czechs and Slovaks, and destroy their homogeneous character (Thun, "On the position of the Slovaks in Hungary" 1842). For that reason it was an act of "treachery" against Hungary, when the Slovaks wrote and read Czech, for that reason Czech books and the Czech language had to be placed under a ban in Hungary, as we discover from the memoirs of Fejerpataky, the Slovak publisher and author.

Czechoslovakia is therefore no new thing, the Slovak J. M. Hurban having coined the word, and also advocated and furthered the idea. When in 1875 the Magyars closed the "Slovenská Matica" and the three Slovak classical high schools, when the "Morgenpost" warned them against the Czechs, by indicating that the Slovaks would now not let themselves be prevented from returning to the Czechs, J. M. Hurban was the first who referred to the Czechs, Moravians, Silesians and Slovaks as a racial and linguistic unity and began to abandon the Slovak written language on behalf of the Hungarian Slovaks.

But this is another matter. At the risk of wearying the reader by an abundance of references, I merely wished to show that the expression in question developed quite organically, and that they demonstrate the Czechoslovak unity extending over long decades, and even several centuries.

APPENDIX E.
ECONOMIC ADDENDA.

1. AGRICULTURE.

(To supplement chapter III. of the Economic Survey.)

The following preliminary figures, relating to the *harvest for 1921*, have been published by the Statistical Office:

	1921	1920	1921	1920	1921	1920
	Area under cultivation in thousands of hectares		Yield per hectare in quintals		Crops in thousands of quintals	
Wheat	622	636	17·9	11·3	11,069	7,174
Rye	883	904	15·8	9·4	13,813	8,367
Barley	640	694	13·3	11·6	10,312	8,107
Oats	810	801	13·0	10·8	10,501	8,658
Maize	146	152	18·1	16·4	2,667	2,450

The general improvement is clearly indicated by the figures relating to yield per hectare.

2. CZECHOSLOVAK BUDGETS 1919—1922.

Analytical table.

Revenue:	1919	1920	1921	1922
	Completed budgets			Estimate
	(In millions of Czechoslovak crowns)			
Total revenue	3,709	10,426	17,298	18,884
Extraordinary revenue	1,096	2,476	1,375	1,593
Tax revenue	1,813	4,470	9,922	10,511
Railways	970	2,738	4,642	4,945
Posts, Telegraphs	177·8	429	770	962
States lands, forests etc.	19·8	81	210	526
State mines etc.	89·9	318	817	804
Deficit	4,906	4,851	727	928

Expenditure:

Total expenditure	8,615	15,278	18,026	19,872
Extraordinary expenditure	6,005	8,103	7,354	6,524
State debts	411	280	894	2,079
National Defence	1,740	2,242	2,478	3,108
Railways	1,218	3,452	5,197	4,660
Postal services	160	420	1,029	871
Public works	297	691	1,135	1,028

The following table shows the amount of revenue derived from taxation:

	In million crowns.			
	1919	1920	1921	1922
Real estate taxes	105·9	178·1	193·7	213·8
Personal taxes	263·0	404·4	554·0	1,037·8
Excise duties	361·3	663·9	2,079·6	2,517·9
Transport taxes	36·9	88·6	199·1	365·0
Stamp duties	126·4	127·8	211·2	380·6
Miscellaneous taxes	217·5	1,037·3	1,380·8	2,513·7
Total	1,111·0	2,500·1	4,618·4	7,028·8

The most important taxes are the following:

Land tax	61·3	130·5	138·6	151·6
House tax	3·9	6·3	6·9	11·2
„ rent tax	38·7	39·2	46·1	49·4
General profit tax	48·5	87·0	125·2	190·0
Corporation profit tax	47·9	85·3	96·4	175·9
Tax on unearned income	24·0	27·0	24·4	29·7

	In million crowns			
	1919	1920	1921	1922
Tax on brandy	33·5	150·0	255·0	490·6
„ „ beer	19·5	83·3	99·3	—
„ „ sugar	259·0	340·0	329·5	159·0
„ „ mineral oils	5·0	5·9	6·6	10·1
„ „ combustibles	10·0	32·0	54·0	17·0
„ „ wine	—	8·0	29·5	24·0
General tax on beverages	—	34·0	32·0	240·0
Meat tax	5·8	3·4	39·8	76·0
Coal tax	—	—	1,200·0	1,450·0
Water power tax	—	—	—	30·0
Tax on railway tickets	11·9	13·7	71·5	102·3
Tax on freightage	19·8	56·0	124·0	258·4

	In million crowns			
	1919	1920	1921	1922
Stamp duties	126·4	127·8	211·2	380·6
Tax on turnover	—	800·0	1,050·0	2,200·0
War tax	227·0	227·0	233·0	308·0
Monopolies	510·4	850·1	2,050·8	1,844·6
Tonacco monopoly	467·7	779·2	1,949·8	1,705·4
Customs duties	53·6	171·2	756·2	534·1

3. CZECHOSLOVAK FOREIGN TRADE 1920—1921.

(Supplementing chapter VII.)

The definite figures relating to foreign trade for 1920 and 1921 are as follows (the values for 1921 are not yet known):

	1920		1921
	In million		In million
	Czech crowns	metric quintals	metric quintals
Total imports	23,384	39·0	39·6
Total exports	27,569	69·1	96·4
Favourable balance	4,269	29·9	56·8

According to countries, the foreign trade was distributed as follows:

	1920				1921	
	Imports		Exports		Imports	Exports
	In million metric quintals	Czech crowns	In million metric quintals	Czech crowns	In million metric quintals	
Germany	20·7	5,601	30·8	3,330	18·8	35·9
Austria	3·2	3,043	23·9	9,678	3·1	33·0
U. S. A.	2·0	4,110	0·2	544	3·7	0·2
Hungary	0·8	655	3·2	2,512	2·4	13·2
France	0·2	954	1·9	2,373	0·3	1·7
Poland	1·0	399	1·7	1,425	1·4	3·5
Italy	0·5	1,002	1·7	1,300	0·8	1·4
Holland	0·6	1,316	0·6	557	0·8	0·7
Belgium	0·8	1,036	0·08	134	0·3	0·2
Great Britain	0·3	1,008	0·2	813	0·9	1·5
Rumania	0·5	308	0·3	732	0·8	0·8
Jugoslavia	0·1	340	0·6	1,081	0·6	1·3
Switzerland	0·17	760	625	0·9	0·6	0·6

The largest items were the following:

Corn, flour etc.	2·46	2,300	0·86	731	7·82	0·35
Cotton, yarn etc.	0·69	5,029	0·10	2,525	0·94	0·32

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	Imports		Exports		Imports	Exports
	In million		In million		In million	
	metric quintals	Czech crowns	metric quintals	Czech crowns	metric quintals	
Wool, yarn etc.	0·19	2,211	0·10	6,683	0·29	0·12
Sugar	0·05	11	2·48	3,405	0·02	4·47
Iron, iron goods	1·14	929	1·63	1,511	1·27	1·99
Fats	0·46	1,080	0·04	110	0·43	0·08
Coal, timber	13·19	520	51·84	1,740	11·33	76·32
Glass	0·02	49	1·40	1,898	0·01	1·32
Fruits, vegetables	1·29	681	0·89	909	1·05	0·69
Paper	0·19	225	0·76	695	0·09	0·78
Leather and leat.goods	0·02	366	0·02	642	0·03	0·05

Although the figures relating to value for 1921 are not yet known, it is evident from the statistics based upon quantity that even if substantial allowance is made for the reduction in prices, the balance will, as in 1920, be a favorable one.

APPENDIX F.

THE CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT.

The co-operative movement in Czechoslovakia is divided into a number of categories such as credit societies, consumers' societies (food supplies, etc.), agricultural, industrial, building and housing, produce, land rental (tenants) and disabled soldiers' societies.

In consequence of the advanced political conditions in Czechoslovakia, the co-operative movement is not single in character, but is split up according to the individual political parties. The strongest co-operative movement is that of the Agrarian Party, whose "Centro-Co-operative" at Prague comprises by far the largest portion of the agricultural societies and saving-banks on the Raiffeisen system. This union serves at the same time as the central exchequer for the societies which it comprises. The second in point of strength and importance is the "Central Union of Czechoslovak-Co-operative Societies" at Prague, which includes the Labour Co-operative Societies to the number of 1,117. The membership of the associations represented in this union is recruited from the ranks of the workmen, officials and employees, the majority of whom are members of the Czechoslovak Social Democratic Party. Besides this union, there is the central headquarters of the Czechoslovak National Socialist co-operative organisations. Mention should also be made of the central co-operative headquarters of the People's (Clerical) Party, which consists mainly of agricultural and credit co-operative societies, and was founded by those who seceded from the co-operative societies of the Agrarian Party. Finally, there is a union of industrial societies together with the union of savings banks which are established on the Schulze-Delitsch system. The object of the Central Unions is to supply advice to those founding co-operative societies, to further the interests of the co-operative movement, to train members and staff, as well as to audit accounts. Every society is compelled by law to have its accounts audited at least once every two years. The Unions also issue model statutes, printed matter etc.

The membership and financial strength of the agricultural societies make them the chief feature of the Czechoslovak co-operative movement. They possess property to the value of 40,118,000 crowns, as compared with 19,920,000 crowns, owned by the trade societies, 11,849,000 crowns

by the consumers' societies and 3,092,000 crowns by the building societies. In former Austria, the Czech territories accounted for 44.4 per cent of the agricultural credit co-operative societies, and 36.1 per cent of other agricultural co-operative societies, although these territories contained only 25.2 per cent of the total agricultural population.

The agricultural co-operative societies in Czechoslovakia are making rapid progress. There are credit societies (Raiffeisen), dairies, distilleries, building and consumers' societies, selling and purchasing societies, all on a co-operative basis. According to official statistics for January 1st 1918, the agricultural co-operative societies in Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia accounted for 60 per cent of the total, their number being 4,876. Of these, 3,803 were credit societies, (Raiffeisen system), and 1,073 were agricultural societies. Of the 20 Co-operative Unions, 11 comprised the agricultural societies.

The consumers' co-operative societies were among the first societies in the country established on a co-operative basis. They have made enormous strides since 1890, and towards the end of 1918 there were 287 Czech consumers' societies with a membership of 127,408, their takings amounting to 73,873,000 crowns. In addition to 3,231,000 crowns of paid up capital, they had 2,544,000 crowns of reserve funds. The property managed by them was valued at 19,695,000 crowns. In 1916 there were also 290 German co-operative societies with a membership of 151,247, their takings amounting to 53,612,000 crowns. They had 3,174,000 crowns of capital, and 2,870,000 crowns of reserve funds. The value of property managed by them was 18,547,000 crowns. There are also 17 Polish co-operative societies with a membership of 6,514, their takings amounting to 3,530,000 crowns. In 1913 the association known as "Wholesale" supplied the co-operative societies with goods sold to a value of 37,200,000 crowns; the corresponding figures for 1919 were 294 million crowns, for 1920 875 millions. In Prague, Brno, Plzeň and Mor. Ostrava there are societies with 20,000—50,000 members, being thus among the biggest in Europe. The main Social Democratic Co-operative Organisation at Prague now embraces 1117 co-operative societies, 510 of which are concerned with the distribution of food-stuffs, 172 manufacturing societies, 180 building societies, the remainder being agricultural co-operative societies. Their membership in 1920 was 574,020, and the value of the goods sold to members was 984,570,005 crowns.

In the course of the year 1919 the Czechoslovak Socialist Party (National Socialists) founded about 250 co-operative societies, supplying food-stuffs to 200,000 persons, and 56 agricultural and building societies. Their central organisation is known as the Co-operative Union. These two unions, the Social Democratic and the National Socialist, have founded co-operative joint stock banks.

As regards the financial societies on the Schulze-Delitsch system, they are steadily developing, and form at present an important part of the country's financial system. In 1917 there were in Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia 902 such societies founded by Czechs, with 308,100 members and 30,244,000 crowns of paid up capital, 79,025,000 crowns of reserve funds and 1,201,010,000 crowns of deposits. The corresponding figures for the German societies were 429 in 1917, which in 1914 had 92,508 members, 2,311,800 crowns capital, 17,600,000 crowns of reserve funds and 297,377,000 crowns of deposits.

The small manufacturers' and traders' societies are of slighter importance. In 1910 there were 251 Czech societies with 22,311 members, 6,459,000 crowns of capital, 3,170,000 crowns of reserve funds, their takings being 31,485,000 crowns. In addition there were 164 German societies with a membership of 10,365, which sold goods to a value of 20,447,000 crowns, and had 10,291,000 crowns of capital, and 1,108,000 reserve funds. The commercial societies have established a special Union at Prague-Karlin.

The building societies made good progress before the war. In 1912 they were 393 in number, with a membership of 18,252, 2,742,000 crowns of paid up capital and 32,029,000 crowns of total assets.

The following figures illustrate the strength of the movement:

	Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia		Slovakia and Carp. Ruthenia	Total for Czechoslovakia
	Jan. 1 st 1918	July 1 st 1920	1920	1920
Total	8,217	10,487	1,417	11,904
comprising:				
Credit Societies				
a) Raiffeisen system . . .	3,803	3,852	500	4,352
b) Schulze-Delitsch system	1,331	1,426	—	1,426
Agricultural Societies . . .	1,073	1,456	76	1,532
Traders' Societies	699	1,315	13	1,328
Consumers' Societies	911	1,512	803	2,315
Building Societies	354	865	—	865
Other societies	21	34	23	57
Unions	25	27	2	29

Towards the end of 1920 the Republic therefore contained 11,904 co-operative societies, of which number 6,600 were agricultural societies, forming thus 60 per cent of all societies. This is a good indication of the development of Czech agriculture. Compared with 1918 there is

an increase of 2,270 societies, or a whole quarter of the former number. As the network of the Raiffeisen credit societies was nearly complete, their growth is comparatively smaller. This applies also to the Schulze-Delitsch societies. On the other hand, there was a considerable increase in the agricultural, traders', consumers, and building societies.

According to statistics for 1918 the financial standing of the societies was as follows:

	Czech and Slovak	German
Number of societies	6,673	2,385
Membership	1,315,629	472,487
Paid up capital	131,625,000	47,270,000
Reserve funds	124,138,000	34,067,000
Deposits	2,240,546,000	802,432,000
Assets	3,357,000,000	1,221,608,000

It is certain that the Czechoslovak co-operative societies have at present over two million members and 5 milliards of assets.

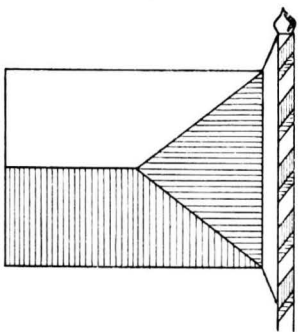
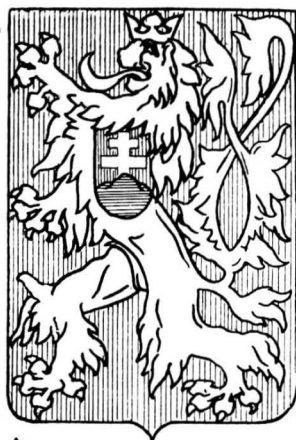
The importance of the Czechoslovak co-operative movement is strikingly illustrated by a comparison with other countries. Czechoslovakia, with 14 million inhabitants, comprises over 10,000 co-operative undertakings with 2,000,000 members. If each member (head of a family) represents 4 persons, the movement embraces over 7 million people i. e. more than half of the population of the State. France for instance, with a population three times greater than Czechoslovakia, has only 3,150 credit societies with 142,000 members, Belgium 356, Holland 582.

Great importance is attached to the Slavonic co-operative bank with a capital of 3 million crowns, which is in course of formation at Prague. This bank will organise a regular exchange of goods between Russia and Czechoslovakia, and will found an export department to deal with the exchange of Czech industrial products for Russian raw materials.

The statutes for the proposed Slavonic Co-operative Chamber of Commerce have already been adopted. A congress of Slavonic co-operatives will soon be organised at Prague. The chief question to be discussed will be that of the affiliation of the co-operatives of the Balkan Slavonic States with this Chamber of Commerce. The aims of the Slavonic Co-operative Chamber of Commerce will be both of an intellectual and economic character. Thus, it will bring together the co-operatives of the various Slavonic countries, distribute information on the public and

political life in these countries, and arrange for the common purchase of machinery, artificial manures, seeds etc. in the international market. Two Yugoslav co-operatives, as well as several Bulgarian, Ukrainian and Polish co-operatives have announced their intention of joining this Slavonic Chamber of Commerce.

APPENDIX G.
 FLAG, COATS OF ARMS AND SEAL.



Golden
 Blue
 Black
 Red
 Silver

The national flag is composed of three parts, an upper horizontal of white and a lower one of red, between which a blue wedge is inserted with its apex towards the centre.

The President's standard is white with a border of flaming tongues alternately red and blue. In the centre on the white ground the State coat of arms (great) are displayed.

The arms (small) of the Czechoslovak Republic are as follows: On a red escutcheon a silver lion: the lion bearing on its breast a small shield with the arms of Slovakia.

The arms (intermediate) of the Czechoslovak Republic are composed of two escutcheons, anterior and posterior. The anterior carries the arms of Bohemia: the posterior is divided into four quarters. On the chief dexter are the arms of Slovakia, on the chief sinister the arms of Carpathian Ruthenia: on the base dexter the arms of Moravia, on the base sinister those of Silesia.

The great Coat of Arms of the Czechoslovak Republic consists of two escutcheons, anterior and posterior. On the anterior are the arms of Bohemia. On the chief dexter quarter of the posterior escutcheon are the arms of Slovakia, of Carpathian Ruthenia, of Moravia and of Silesia. On the base dexter quarter the arms of the territories of Teschen, Opava and Ratibor. Right and left of the escutcheon stand two double-tailed lions each wearing a crown — the guardians of the escutcheon. Branches and leaves of the linden. Beneath the escutcheon a riband bearing the device: "Truth prevails."

The small seal bears the small arms: the great seal the great arms. Both carry as marginal inscription the words "The Czechoslovak Republic".
