

sake of a share in the disorderly largesses of the prince made themselves the docile tools of his will.

The form of the government was as follows:—A vestiar, or minister of finances, united the financial department with the administration of the interior; a postelnich was charged with the relations with the consuls, the pashas and the Porte; two governors, placed over each district, exercised the administrative, judicial and executive functions. Law suits were decided in appeal by the Assembly of Boyards, frequently presided over by the prince, but observing no forms of proceeding. Moreover, there was nothing to prevent each suit being continually renewed with every successive Hospodar. The expeditious mode adopted in settling all affairs, whether administrative or judicial, was fettered by no special rules or formalities; and, properly speaking, there existed neither archives, records, nor exchequer. Vexatious imposts abounded under a thousand pretexts. The total amount of the poll tax was first assessed to each district, according to its population; and afterwards the governors of each district could subdivide it in what proportion they chose among the communes.

A second direct impost, under the name of *rassours*, supplied the emoluments of the servants of the government. The inhabitants were, moreover, subjected to indirect taxes, under the designation of *rassoumats*; these were taxes on bee-hives, sheep, pigs, tobacco and vineyards. Carriage,

weights and measures and distilleries were also subject to special taxes; and besides this, as though in mockery of the groaning tax-payers, several localities were subject to certain exceptional dues, confirmed if not justified by time.

The following tables will give an idea of the financial position of the country at this disastrous period.

### REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF THE PRINCIPALITY OF MOLDAVIA,

For the Year 1827, before the entering of the Russian troops.

REVENUE.			EXPENDITURE.		
	Piastres.	Asp.		Piastres.	
Impost on villagers ..	984,386	60	Part of impost paid yearly to the rassour fund ..	25,000	
On mazils and roup-taches .....	73,741	"	Revenue of Botochani received by the princess .....	56,800	
On shops and taverns ..	112,000	"	Arrears of revenue, called gragedika, from the year 1827, discovered and paid after the entry of the Russian troops .....	40,257	27
On patents .....	51,592	"	Salaries paid by the rassour fund .....	1,079,518	81
On tavern-keepers ....	18,190	"	For the Post .....	300,739	
Roupts of the vestuary	38,036	"	Money given by command of the prince, according to orders signed by him, viz., surplus appropriated by the prince, or according to his orders	1,863,263	39
Foreigners' Patents ..	13,074	"			
	1,296,019	60			
Estimated revenue of salt mines .....	212,060	"			
Revenue of the district of Botochani, received by the princess ....	56,800	"			
Rassours .....	741,829	87			
Estimated revenue from the post establishments .....	300,739	"			
Duty on sheep, 87,905					
Do. on hives and pigs ...	87,470				
Do. on vinca..	300,000				
Customs .....	208,950				
Duty on distillery ....	73,785				
	3,365,558	27		3,365,558	27

## DUES EXACTED FROM EACH VILLAGER, UP TO 1827.

	Plast.	Asp.
Impost paid quarterly .....	12	„
Rassours .....	4	60
Tax for the maintenance of post houses.....	4	„
Gragedika and rassoumats .....	7	90
Expended for penalties called tribotés .....	3	„
Forced labour, estimated value of .....	40	„
	<u>78</u>	<u>30</u>

The collection of taxes so complicated gave rise, it may be easily believed, to a multitude of abuses; as the produce of the imposts was paid into the prince's treasury, who rendered account of it to no one. Moreover, the peasant was subject to loans in kind, to requisitions for the postal relays and for the prince's stables—and lastly, to every exaction it pleased the inferior agent to inflict.

The condition of the tax-payer, of which this enumeration, in some respects imperfect, may furnish an idea, was aggravated by the exemptions and immunities granted to several classes of inhabitants, and by privileges accumulated upon influential Boyard families. These unjust immunities rose to a total amount, sufficiently imposing to render a tabular statement of them interesting, now that such a state of things is a mere matter of history.

The classes enjoying exemption from taxes under the dynasty of the Greek Princes were numerous. It was sufficient that a member of any family was employed in one of the following branches of the public service,

to free the entire family. Each district accordingly contained an ample number of the exempt of all classes. No impost could be levied on the families of persons connected in whatever way with—

The Ispravnitzzy of the District ;	The Postal service ;
The Vestuary ;	The Frontier Guard ;
The Captainries ;	The Timber Purveyors ;
The Service of the Hetmans ;	The Charcoal Burners ;
The Mounted Police ;	The Postillions.
The Service of the Salt-Works ;	

The district of Yassy, and the administration of the city, carried the privilege of immunities still further. Beside the classes above specified, exemption was extended to :

Persons in the service of the Exchequer ;	Persons in the Public Health De- partment ;
Persons in the service of the Divan ;	Carters in the service of the Court ;
The Guards of the Pruth ;	Labourers, ditto ;
The Firemen ;	Custom-house Officers ;
The Water Carriers ;	Cabinet Makers ;
The Inspectors of Fountains ;	Masons.
The Couriers ;	

The result of this short-sighted and iniquitous distinction, granted for trifling services, was, that the hard-working classes of the people were cruelly oppressed, while in the sixteen districts the number of exempted families amounted to 7,985 ; making, if we take five



as the average number in each family, 39,925 individuals placed among the privileged class, at the expense of the labourer. Nor was this all.

Independently of these privileges, already so exorbitant, it had become customary that a Boyard should possess the right of exempting from taxes a number of individuals proportionate to the rank he held. These unhappy privileged individuals were called *socotelniks*, and were distributed in the following proportions :

VARIOUS CLASSES OF BOYARDS.	Number of Exempt due to each Class.	VARIOUS CLASSES OF BOYARDS.	Number of Exempts.
Grand Logothetes.....	80	Serdars.....	14
Tornicks.....		Stolniks.....	12
Hetmans.....		Modelnitzers.....	9
Vestiar.....		Clouteheres.....	8
Postelniks.....		Souldiers.....	6
Agas.....	40	Pilars.....	5
Spattars.....		Chatrars.....	3
Banos.....	25	Giknitzers..	4
Comisses.....	22	2nd Spattars.....	8
Caminars.....	20	3rd Vestiar.....	8
Paharniks.....	16		

*Socotelniks* were also granted to the Metropolitan, to the Bishops, and to some other persons of distinction.

Thus overwhelmed with dues and exactions, harassed on all sides, exposed at one and the same time to the oppression of the Turks, to the ravages of the plague, to the requisitions of the government, and to

the tyranny of the land-owners, the Moldavian peasant was deprived even of hope—the last consolation of the wretched. Property—that safeguard of nations—was uncertain in its tenure, and frequently changed hands, while the facility of protracting law suits perpetuated private hostilities among the citizens. The instability of the government, and the uncertainty of the future, prevented all useful and durable enterprise. The public mind remained dark and degraded, industry was stifled, trade obstructed; and thus, while all its neighbours were marching forward, this unfortunate land of Moldavia continued fixed in its misery and bondage.

At length the Treaty of Adrianople put an end to all these evils. The fundamental stipulations of this fortunate truce, the results of which were to prove of such immense importance to Moldavia, extended equally to Wallachia, and were—the election of native Hospodars, appointed for life; the evacuation of the fortresses, till then occupied by the Turks, on the left bank of the Danube; the restoration to its legitimate possessors of the land included within the circle of the aforesaid fortresses; the abolition of supplies at arbitrary prices; the prohibition against any Mahomedan establishing himself on the Moldavian territory; the institution of a quarantine on the Danube; the establishment of an armed force; and lastly, the adoption of an organic

code, based upon the principle of an independent administration of internal affairs.

This organic code, voted by the assembly of the Boyards, became the depôt in which the guarantees of Moldavian nationality were organised, and received their required extension. The ever to be revered administration of Kisseleff, the guardian genius of the principalities, soon rendered its application possible; and the governments continue in the present day to march forward according to the wise traditions he has left.

We will sketch, in a few words, the mechanism and effects of this new government.

The constitutional system which the treaties conferred on the principalities, may be summed up thus :

The administrative and judicial functions are separate. The administrative department is confided to a council composed of the logothetes, chief of the department of the interior; of the vestiar, or chief of the department of finances; and of the postelnik, or secretary of state at the head of foreign affairs.

The direction of judicial affairs is in the hands of the logothetes of the department of justice.

The hetman is chief of the army.

The office of logothetes of the interior embraces all that belongs to the administration, properly so called : the police, municipalities, measures to ensure a proper

supply of food, the superintendence of quarantines, the maintenance of roads, and the registration of civil acts, are within his province.

In the province of the vestiar are classed the collection of taxes, the management of public accounts, the public farms, and the development of commerce generally.

The postelnik corresponds with the consular agents, manages all that refers to the interests of foreign subjects, and draws up all the acts emanating from the prince or the council.

The council assemble on certain days to transact the affairs of government.

The logothetes of the department of justice superintends judicial affairs. He is the organ through which the prince communicates with the tribunals, and *vice versa*; he submits to the prince his observations on the defects of certain forms, as well as all judgments delivered in last resort, which have to be approved by the signature of the sovereign.

These fundamental arrangements have given rise to a number of important institutions, of which we shall enumerate the chief.

The districts, formerly to the number of sixteen, were reduced to thirteen by a recent and more judicious subdivision. Each district is governed by an officer, called an *ispravnik*, who receives from the members of the

council orders relative to the respective departments of each. A receiver of taxes resides in the district, representing the interests of the public treasury; and a tribunal of first resort is established. Each district is divided into several arrondissements, generally five or six; and a subordinate functionary presides over each, under the title of superintendent.

The police service of the interior is performed by a corps of gendarmes, organised since the introduction of the constitution, under the name of stougitors. They are 1,200 in number; 266 are employed in the city of Yassy, and in the service of different administrations, and 934 are distributed over the districts, under the orders of the ispravniks and the superintendents; they are maintained chiefly at the expense of the communes.

The police of the city of Yassy has been organised on a more regular footing; a commissary watches over each of the four sections of the city, and has three subordinate officers under his orders. Thanks to the revenue of the municipality, a brigade of 100 firemen has been formed, and this useful establishment has given continued proofs of courage and discipline.

Since the organisation of the stougitors, the depredations by armed robbers, an evil of which we have before spoken, have ceased to afflict the rural districts. The majority of these brigands were foreigners—generally

Albanians, Servians, and Transylvanians. The species of robbery to which the lower class of people in Moldavia are most commonly addicted, is domestic theft and cattle lifting. The statistical table of crimes and offences inserted below speaks, however, sufficiently well in favour of the public morality in Moldavia :-

COMPARATIVE TABLE OF CRIMES AND OFFENCES.

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	1837	1838
Remainder of convicted persons from preceding year .....	75	60	168	182	84	..	48
Malefactors arrested during the year .....	324	505	507	455	286	186	232
	399	565	675	637	370	186	280*
Condemned to capital punishment .	..	..	1	10	5	..	..
"    " the salt mines.....	124	112	133	56	19	..	18
"    " public works .....	76	93	101	70	..	..	57
"    " transportation .....	..	23	62	27	..	..	7
"    " imprisonment in monasteries .....	4	5	9	7	..	..	6
"    " simple imprisonment	..	..	..	6	..	..	..
Liberated on bail .....	195	164	180	227	..	..	..
Acquitted .....	..	..	..	108	..	..	106
Deceased .....	..	..	4	42	..	..	8

The chief town of each district now possesses a gaol; but the central prison is established in a large building at Yassy, in which also the criminal tribunal is held. During the time when depredations by brigands were

the most frequent, the number of prisoners never exceeded 200 ; nor, on the other hand, did it ever fall below 100. Thanks to the new system of things, the number is reduced to from 30 to 60. The allowance for the maintenance of this prison is 30,000 piastres per annum.

Another prison at the mines, and two houses of detention before trial, at Yassy, complete the prison organisation ; the whole number of penal establishments in Moldavia amounting to 17.

One of the finest institutions with which the new form of government has endowed Moldavia, is, without gainsay, that of the municipalities. Their number was at first limited to six principal towns ; but others soon demanded a similar benefit. At present, Yassy, Galatz, Fokschany, Birlatou, Botochani, Bakeou and Tirgou-Fourmosse are in the enjoyment of this institution. The municipal councils are elected yearly, by the principal inhabitants of each town. The revenues of the communes consist chiefly of an entrance duty on fermented and spirituous liquors, and tobacco. These revenues, of which we subjoin a comparative statement, afford a very efficacious support to the progressive movement and ameliorations which had become necessary to the town. The paving and lighting of the streets ; the preventive measures against fire ; the construction of several stone bridges ; are all improvements which could never have been introduced, but for the municipal revenues

## PROGRESS OF THE REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF THE MUNICIPALITIES.

	YEAR 1833.		YEAR 1834.		YEAR 1835.		YEAR 1836.		YEAR 1837.	
	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Revenue.	Expenditure.
	piastres.	piastres.	piastres.	piastres.	piastres.	piastres.	piastres.	piastres.	piastres.	piastres.
Botochani .. . . . .	53,351	48,447	56,622	39,219	65,131	46,525	80,319	42,316	120,001	47,432
Romano .. . . . .	28,172	19,689	31,554	20,587	28,428	28,424	17,463	19,827	26,406	23,384
Fokschani .. . . . .	37,147	38,521	44,967	42,186	55,624	45,999	54,224	36,595	68,927	32,739
Galatz .. . . . .	84,535	59,570	97,861	81,679	73,906	48,402	90,526	53,061	113,037	59,686
Birlatou .. . . . .	23,333	13,733	30,844	22,065	33,501	25,604	27,957	14,943	31,959	21,174
Yassy .. . . . .	202,914	241,148	206,364	235,208	306,925	374,769	353,219	284,558	456,024	424,423

It may be again mentioned here, that the piastre, the monetary unit of Moldavia, is equivalent, at the average rate of exchange, to 0 fr. 36,74 c. French. We have given at length, in the preceding chapter, the calculations on which this evaluation is based.



Moldavia being hitherto a purely agricultural country, the public welfare must necessarily depend chiefly on the abundance and good quality of the harvests. The dearth which prevailed during the period from 1831 to 1835, by demonstrating the necessity for some system of regulations with respect to the supply of food, turned the attention of the government to agricultural produce; so that, by a fortunate compensation, this visitation powerfully contributed to develop the cultivation of corn. Abundance soon succeeded, and prices fell to a tenth of their former rate; but that which will in future insure a proper supply of food to the consumers, and preserve them from the enormous prices to which corn rose in times of dearth, is the establishment of reserved stores. Each commune possesses its store of grain, to which every villager is bound to contribute, immediately after the harvest, five bushels of Indian corn, which are to remain untouched for a space of three years. At the expiration of this term, the peasant is allowed to withdraw the deposit made by him four years before; and in this manner the stores always contain a quantity equal to the deposits of three years. By such wise precautions, the public is ensured against a sudden scarcity, and against an exorbitant increase in the price of food.

We insert here a comparative view of the amount of grain sown in the principality, at two different periods

in order to show the benefits resulting from the new government. We have added some of the notions prevailing in Moldavia, as to the relative amount of produce to be obtained in agriculture.

## GRAIN SOWN.

	1832.	1833.	OBSERVATIONS.
	hectol.	hectol.	
Wheat and Rye .	137,634	313,156	This table has been formed from a statement using the Moldavian measure called <i>kilo</i> . The figures have been converted into the French decimal system, taking the Moldavian *kilo as equal to 2½ Russian tetetverts, or 5¼ hectolitres.
Barley and Oats .	90,368	145,346	
Maize .....	120,299	155,794	
Millet .....	3,869	5,885	
Buckwheat.....	4,956	19,472	
Potatoes .....	31,762	66,665	

Taking the average produce of the various qualities of soil in Moldavia, the harvests of these two years may be estimated as follows:—

## PRODUCE OF HARVESTS.

	1832.	1833.	OBSERVATIONS.
	hectol.	hectol.	
Wheat and Rye .	1,238,706	3,088,404	The following average rates of produce have been taken:—
Barley and Oats .	903,680	1,453,460	
Maize .....	4,811,960	6,231,760	Wheat and Rye. 9 for 1
Millet .....	154,760	235,400	Barley and Oats 10 — 1
Buckwheat.....	173,460	681,520	Maize ..... 40 — 1
Potatoes .....	317,620	666,650	Millet .. ..... 40 — 1
			Buckwheat .... 35 — 1
			Potatoes ..... 100 — 1

The establishment of a quarantine on the Danube, is another remarkable benefit of this new order of things. Many a time has the scourge of contagion met with a salutary check from this vigilant institution. Quarantine is fixed at Galatz; it is under the protection of the militia, and consists of a sanitary committee, composed of the inspector-general of the lazarettos of both principalities, of the chief of the department of the interior, of the hetman, and of the principal physician.

The public medical service, which is under the inspection of the board of health, comprises one head physician, four doctors, who have each a division of Yassy for their practice, another placed at the hospital of St. Spiridon, and several surgeons; besides these, there are doctors employed by government in the principal district towns, who, in their respective range of inspection, leave no part of the country unvisited.

The making and mending of the public roads is at the expense of the communes, a fixed sum being assigned for this purpose of about 75,000 piastres; this sum, it may well be conceived, is but very insufficient for the keeping up of regular roads, the soil of Moldavia being of such a nature as to require a very expensive system. The sum allotted, therefore, only suffices for the repair of the roads within a short distance of towns and villages; and even this, in the rainy season, it is in vain to attempt.

The annual sum of 125,000 piastres is granted for the paving of the town of Yassy; but this sum proving insufficient to renew the pavement, proprietors of houses situated in the streets are called upon to contribute, during seven years, in proportion to the space occupied by their houses in the street intended to be paved.

Before the introduction of this regulative system, which tends to give new life to these countries, the principal establishments of public service, deprived by the unhappy state of the times of any permanent or adequate resources, were given up to mere chance; their poverty rendered them inefficient. This regulative organisation assigned to each branch of public administration a fixed and certain revenue. These endowments are designated Benevolent Funds; they are four in number, and each is directed by three or four Boyards, selected by the prince, to whom the title of curator is given.

The meeting of the curators, presided over by the metropolitan, forms the council of Benevolent Funds.

The first is that for the schools: it has four curators, and its revenues amount to 400,000 piastres; it is directed to public instruction. I here insert a table of the comparative condition of this department.

DAY SCHOLARS AT THE SCHOOLS OF	In 1832.	In 1834.	In 1838.
Yassy . . . . .	225	515	472
Fokschani . . . . .	33	68	93
Birlatou . . . . .	60	100	66
Galatz . . . . .	44	61	85
Houche . . . . .	45	58	80
Romano . . . . .	32	121	37
Botochani . . . . .	67	62	103
	506	985	936
FOR THE TOWN OF YASSY.			
Bursers to the College . . . .	25	50	64
Boarders . . . . .	...	24	50
Institution for young girls . . .	...	70	72
Town schools . . . . .	...	...	66
	531	1,129	1,188

The second Benevolent Fund, is that for the hospital established in the monastery of Saint Spiridon. This institution has a special revenue. It is governed by three curators, and can receive 200 patients.

The Fund for almsgiving is directed by the metropolitan curator. It is endowed by the vestuary with a revenue of 72,000 piastres.

Lastly, the fund for the waterworks is applied to the repair of the aqueducts and fountains; at present it has no curator. for the repairs are done by agreement, at

the cost of 50,000 piastres, which constitute the revenue of this fund.

The assembly of curators forms, as I have said before, the central committee, whose object is to control the revenue and outlay of each of these funds, to propose measures for general improvement and economy, and to maintain the observance of the statutes which regulate the management of these funds for the public service. The head of the department of the Interior acts as the medium of communication between the central committee, whether with the prince, or the General Assembly.

The mode of taxation, and the rate of tax, have varied essentially since the introduction of the new system. All the ancient dues, loans in kind, and statute labour, were simultaneously abolished, and replaced by the single tax of 30 piastres upon every family, and by a patent duty upon every merchant and artisan, of from 60 to 240 piastres. For the proper collection of this tax, the new regulation provides that a census of the classes liable to the tax, be drawn out every seven years, and that during that period all increase or diminution in the inhabitants of a commune shall be to the advantage or charge of that commune. The first census took place during 1831, and the second occurred in 1837. The sum assessed to each commune being fixed unalterably, according to the number of its families, noted down

on the census sheet, the tax is levied by the commune itself, each family being rated according to the number of cattle possessed by them. Every commune has, in addition, a common fund, to which each family is obliged to subscribe one-tenth of the poll-tax, or three piastres per annum; by means of this contribution, the expenses of collecting the tax are defrayed, and any deficit caused by the absence or death of contributors, is made up.

The revenue and expenses of the state, mentioned further on, will occupy a special table. The accounts are conducted in the following manner: the vestiar, at the close of every month, presents to the council of administration a summary of the general state of his receipts and outlay; this is forwarded to the controller for examination, who, adding thereto his observations, when required, submits it to the council; after which, the result of this examination is handed up to the general assembly, and becomes subject to a final revision.

The rights and reciprocal duties of proprietors and of cultivators have been regulated by a law; the aim of this law was, in the first place, to fix the relations between landlords and peasants on a just foundation of reciprocity, and also to give the villager, till then bound to remain on the same glebe, the right of

transferring his dwelling from one place to another, according as his own interests demanded. This privilege of transporting his household goods to the place of his own choice, was doubtless a great benefit conferred on the Moldavians. The villager is entitled by law to a space of 10 pragins, or 360 square toises, for his house and vegetable garden; a faltosh and-a-half, or 4,320 square toises of arable land; 40 pragins, or 1,440 square toises of meadow, and 20 pragins, or 720 square toises of pasture land; each peasant receives, moreover, for each yoke of oxen employed by him 60 pragins, or 2,160 toises of meadow, and the same of pasturage, in addition to the allowances above stated\*. In return for all these advantages, and this extent of land, the peasant is required to give up to his landlord twelve days labour, and to perform carriage, for from eight to sixteen hours, or in two turns, at an interval of from one to eight hours. Each peasant gives, moreover, annually four days labour, but this time on his own land; and consequently he is himself profited by the work. Such are the principal provisions of this protecting law; and many peasants would be contented with a similar lot in countries which are held to be in

\* Supposing a Moldavian to be equal to a Russian toise, or about two metres, a peasant possessing one yoke of oxen would be entitled to an extent of land equal to 450 hectares.



a more advanced condition. By a further provision of this law, however, it frequently happens that the landlord makes additions or retrenchments in these conditions, with the consent of the farmer, and these agreements have the force of law.

Before speaking of the army and the judicial organisation, it is essential that we should give an idea of one of the fundamental institutions established by the constitution, namely, the ordinary Assembly General.

This assembly is composed of :

The metropolitan, who is the president ;

Of two bishops, the diocesans of Romano and of Houche ;

Of sixteen Boyards, chosen from the several degrees of rank, from the logothetes to the bano, inclusively. These magistrates must be natives of the country, at least thirty years of age, and domiciled in the city of Yassy : these qualifications are required of Boyards in the capital, to become electors or eligible.

There are also thirteen members from the districts, elected by the landed proprietors of each district ; these must be Boyards or sons of Boyards, at least thirty years of age, but in the districts it is not required that the electors should be more than twenty-five years of age.

The metropolitan and the two bishops are, by their own

right, members of the Assembly; the sixteen Boyards of Yassy are appointed by the electors of the capital; the sixteen Boyards from the districts, by the electors of each district. The Assembly thus constituted lasts for five years; it is convoked on the 1st of December in each year, to examine the accounts of the vestiary and of the two benevolent funds; to appoint the holders of public farms; and to participate in the enactment of such public measures as exceed the limits of an administrative ordinance. The legal duration of the session is limited to two months, but it is generally prolonged beyond this period. The prince, by a message addressed to the Assembly, proclaims the opening or close of the session.

The establishment of a disciplined army dates also from the enactment of the constitution. The army is supplied by recruits and volunteers; it is commanded by the hetman, assisted by a general staff, and consists of one regiment, half infantry and half cavalry. According to the present state of the army, this regiment is composed of a battalion and a squadron; a superior officer marches at the head; the battalion is commanded by a major, and the squadron by a captain. The army costs the state a yearly sum of 650,000 piastres, and this excludes the prince's staff, the maintenance of which absorbs 80,000 piastres. A portion of the troops are

garrisoned in Yassy, but the greater part are stationed along the sanitary *cordon* of the Danube, and at the principal points of the Moldavian frontier. A detachment is posted over the salt mines, in which the convicts work.

The administration of justice is organised on an entirely new footing. Tribunals of the first resort have been established in all the chief towns of the district; two courts of appeal and a criminal court are held at Yassy, and a commercial tribunal at Galatz; lastly, under the designation of princely divan, a supreme court pronounces judgment in final appeal. The district tribunals take cognizance of all civil, commercial and criminal affairs; their competence does not extend beyond cases involving a value of 1,500 piastres, and an appeal is open on furnishing security to the amount of 20 per cent. The competence of the appeal courts, and of the tribunal of commerce, is limited to a value of 20,000 piastres; and their judgments may be appealed from, on furnishing security. It is equally requisite to furnish security, whatever the importance of the case may be, whenever the judgment of the court of appeal confirms that of the inferior tribunal. From the princely divan, or supreme court, there is no appeal; its decrees are confirmed by the prince, who either presides in person, or is represented by a substitute.

Together with this new system of judicial administration, the constitution has prescribed forms of proceeding, of which there had previously been no notion. By these means, as rational as they are productive of expedition, it has been possible to introduce some order and lucidity into the endless accumulation of suits which, under the neglect of former governments, threatened to become eternal.

Such were the principal reforms introduced in 1832; they embrace, it will be observed, the entire system of relations between the government and its subjects; and they have proved to Moldavia the commencement of a new and prosperous era.

It was in the course of the year 1834, that the provisional government appointed by Russia was succeeded by that of a native prince. A period of two years had sufficed to General Kisseleff to make the inhabitants of the country understand and feel the happy results of the reform over which he presided; and to develope, in all their effects, the principles of law and order which have been substituted for the arbitrary power and abuses of the old government. Thus could this man, fortunate as he was wise, behold, ere his departure, the benedictions of the two principalities fall upon his labours, and the public weal firmly established and defended by the guarantees with which he had been careful

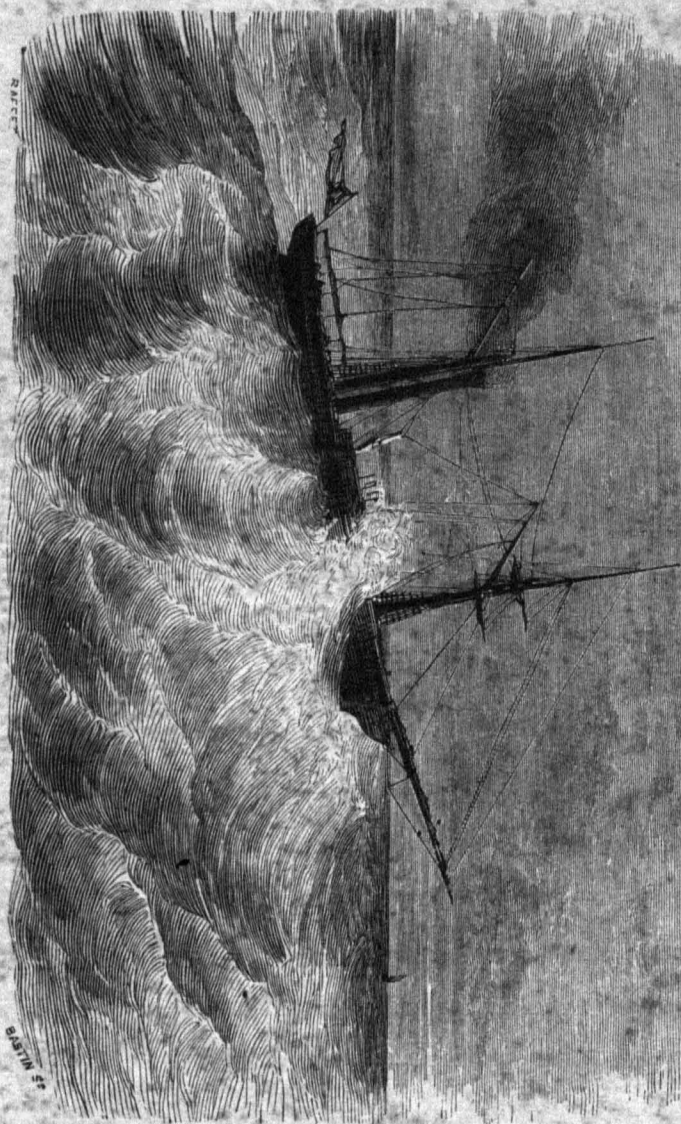
to surround it; and on finally departing, he left—noble, indeed, was the parting token—the vestiary, the public coffers, and the municipalities, in the most flourishing condition. The army, whose existence dated only three years back, by its discipline and orderly appearance, seemed to call into question the recency of its organisation; the quarantine, conducted and protected with zeal and honesty, could already claim to be ranked with the most ancient establishments of the kind. Commerce, delivered from all obstructions, had taken an extension until then unknown; and the capital, which began to be employed in various useful enterprises, imparted a sensible progressive movement to the wealth of the country. It is certainly true that several elements of prosperity which the new form of administration conferred on Moldavia did not bear their fruits till a later period; but time alone can determine the value of new institutions.

Those principles of order and prosperity which had been implanted by General Kisseleff, his successor had to put into practice by degrees, as the growing resources of the new government came to his assistance; and effectually every year a certain degree of progress is shown, in the reports of the government to the Assembly of Boyards, to have been effected.

Agriculture, the produce of which has been so abundant,

PASSAGE IN THE BLACK SEA. STEAM BOAT, "PIERRE 1<sup>er</sup>."

FIG. 2. SLAVE.





that, in spite of a most active exportation, there has frequently occurred a surplus, is beginning to give place to other branches of industry, which will give an impetus to the commerce of the interior, now threatened with stagnation.

The year 1837, signalised by an incredible degree of activity, witnessed the most extensive cultivation of land, the improvement of the breed of cattle, the introduction of merino sheep; and lastly, an essay, though as yet but a timid one, at establishing several small manufactories, such as paper-mills, potteries, &c.

The following account of the value of imports and exports, although it must be looked upon as extremely incomplete, will, however, bear witness to the progress in the industry and activity of the country.

	Exports.	Imports.
In 1832 ...	11,862,430 piast.	13,612,947 piast
1833 ...	12,262,856	18,307,732
1834 ...	12,386,104	14,515,117
1835 ...	13,271,497	11,812,518
1836 ...	18,953,772	14,217,893
1837 ...	17,353,611	10,878,021

The progressive increase in the revenue, from the farming out of the customs, and from the export duties on cattle and corn, bears a natural relation with the progress of commerce. The districts situated near Galatz principally export corn, tallow, skins; wax and wines; those adjoining the Austrian frontier trade in cattle, and

carry on several distilleries of brandy, the residue from which is used to fatten the cattle, which they export. It may be stated, without exaggeration, that from fifty to sixty thousand head of cattle are sent out of Moldavia annually. In short, the produce of this fertile soil, compared with the rate of purchase of land, may be estimated, in the present state of things, at seven or eight per cent.

We cannot conclude these statements more appropriately, than by a table of the comparative revenue and expenditure of the principality at certain given periods; and finally, of the septennial census, taken according to the law, and upon which the new resources of the country will be based.

TABLE OF COMPARATIVE REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE IN THE PRINCIPALITY OF MOLDAVIA IN 1834 AND 1839.

	BUDGET OF 1834.	BUDGET OF 1839.
	Plastres.	Plastres.
Poll-tax on villagers . . . . .		
„ „ persons without fixed domicile . . . . .		
„ „ masils, and roustaches . . . . .		
„ „ patented foreigners . . . . .	5,239,275	6,161,085
„ „ Jew tavern keepers and others . . . . .		
„ „ patented merchants, and artisans . . . . .		
„ „ Tsigans of the State . . . . .		
Farming of Salt-works . . . . .	850,000	55,000
„ „ Customs . . . . .	466,890	86,128
„ „ Export duty on cattle . . . . .	322,717	67,000
Tax on foreigners . . . . .	66,000	20,000
Contributions of monasteries, per mem. 450,000 . . . . .	...	...
„ „ metropolitan diocese and bishoprics . . . . .	60,000	80,000
Passport duty . . . . .	12,000	12,000
Duty on Tallow . . . . .	10,500	7,848
	7,941,482	6,451,128



## EXPENDITURE.

	BUDGET OF 1831.	BUDGET OF 1838.
	Plastres.	Plastres.
Tribute to the Porte . . . . .	..	740,000
Civil list of the Prince . . . . .	800,000	1,200,000
Salaries of public servants and functionaries . . . . .	1,962,663	2,132,236
Salary of agent at Constantinople . . . . .	60,000	80,000
Rent of houses . . . . .	50,000	60,000
Lighting and firing for offices . . . . .	60,000	60,000
Maintenance of strongholds in the service of public depart- ments and tribunals . . . . .	538,700	327,370
Maintenance of army . . . . .	650,000	730,000
„ „ quarantine . . . . .	100,000	120,000
„ „ postal establishments . . . . .	442,000	442,000
Postal expenses for public service . . . . .	85,000	75,000
Indemnity to socotelniks and pensions . . . . .	1,000,000	1,000,000
Repair of public roads . . . . .	25,000	75,000
Maintenance of schools . . . . .	200,000	200,000
„ „ the seminary . . . . .	60,000	60,000
Pavement of Yassy . . . . .	125,000	125,000
Maintenance of medical service . . . . .	80,000	100,000
„ „ prisoners . . . . .	30,000	30,000
„ „ fountains and water-works . . . . .	50,000	50,000
Indemnity to the Hospital of St. Spiridon . . . . .	21,000	21,000
Contribution to the alms fund . . . . .	72,000	72,000
Extraordinary expenses . . . . .	80,000	400,000
Expenses of census . . . . .	..	150,000
	6,491,368	7,949,506 (*)

(\*)—One-tenth of the salaries of public servants is also devoted to the schools which brings the amount allowed for public instruction to 400,000 plastres.

A census, taken conformably with the law at the end of the year 1837, will give us a notion of the variation of the population of Moldavia during the last six years. This calculation, however, is insufficient to give the exact amount of the population of the

principality, as it scarcely includes more than the families who are subject to the tax. It is to be remarked, that in Moldavia, as in Wallachia, an important portion of the population, under various pretexts, still enjoy an exemption from taxation, often productive of sad results. We have already mentioned to what an extent, under the preceding system, the abused extension of these immunities is opposed to the prosperity of the provinces. How much is it to be regretted, that such a wise reform should have stopped short in so good a path, and that equal taxation—the only equality possible at such a time—was not proclaimed in these beautiful provinces! Here is, however, a list of the privileged:—

Boyards ;

Public Servants of all ranks ;

The Clergy, and all employed in the service of  
Churches ;

Persons in the employ of the Boyards ;

Strangers whose sojourn is not authorised

Some other classes enjoy, besides, the privilege of conferring, in certain cases, the right of exemption. For example—all proprietors on whose estates less than two hundred families are maintained, have the right to exempt from taxes two families out of every ten ; if the property contains a greater number of inhabitants, the exemption then applies to only one-tenth of the families

The stougitors—the gendarmes of the country—cause three families to participate in the exemption. Every soldier on active duty exempts by right one family. Finally, infirm persons and invalids are excused from all contribution.

Hence it follows that the classes on whom devolves the weight of the taxes, is limited to these :

1st. Patented merchants and artisans, taxed from 60 to 240 piastres a year ;

2nd. The collateral descendants of privileged families, designated mazils, rauptaches, and rauptes of the vestuary, paying an annual tax of 30 piastres ;

3rd. The inhabitants of villages, taxed at 30 piastres a-year, besides an assessment of one-tenth, payable to the commune ;

4th. Persons without a fixed habitation contributing a poll-tax of 10 piastres ;

5th. Foreigners dwelling in the country rated annually at 15 piastres ;

6th. Jews carrying on the trade of tavern-keepers in the villages, 60 piastres ;

7th. Finally, the Tsigans of the state, paying 38 piastres a-year.

Having stated these facts, we now give the result of the general census of families liable to taxes, as taken in 1838 :

Name of the district.	Chief Towns.	Population liable to contribution.
Dorohoi . . . . .	Michaileni . . . . .	12,946
Botochani . . . . .	Botochani . . . . .	18,073
Souczava . . . . .	Falticheni . . . . .	11,082
Niamtzo . . . . .	Piatre . . . . .	15,018
Romano . . . . .	Romano . . . . .	12,933
Bakéo . . . . .	Bakéo . . . . .	23,230
Poutna . . . . .	Fokschani . . . . .	21,746
Tecoutz . . . . .	Tecoutz . . . . .	14,211
Covourlomi . . . . .	Galatz . . . . .	10,312
Toutova . . . . .	Birlatou . . . . .	13,881
Vasloui . . . . .	Vasloui . . . . .	13,768
Fattchi . . . . .	Houche . . . . .	10,628
Yassy . . . . .	Yassy . . . . .	22,633
Total of taxed families . . . . .		200,521

If we adopt the calculation in use in Moldavia,  
 which makes five the average number of  
 each family, the entire population will be  
 represented by . . . . . 1,002,605

As all data are wanting, however, by which a  
 notion could be formed as to the number of  
 individuals—of course, very considerable—  
 which the present state of the law exempts  
 from contributing to the public expenses, we  
 shall not attempt any estimate; especially as,  
 up to the present day,\*the official documents  
 have presented no numerical statement of any  
 importance, as to these privileged classes.

It may be deduced, however, from this very incomplete information, that Moldavia, since 1832, has witnessed a very considerable increase in the number of its tax-payers; at that period the census stated the number of families at 165,685—making . . .

828,425

This exhibits an increase\* of . . .

174,180

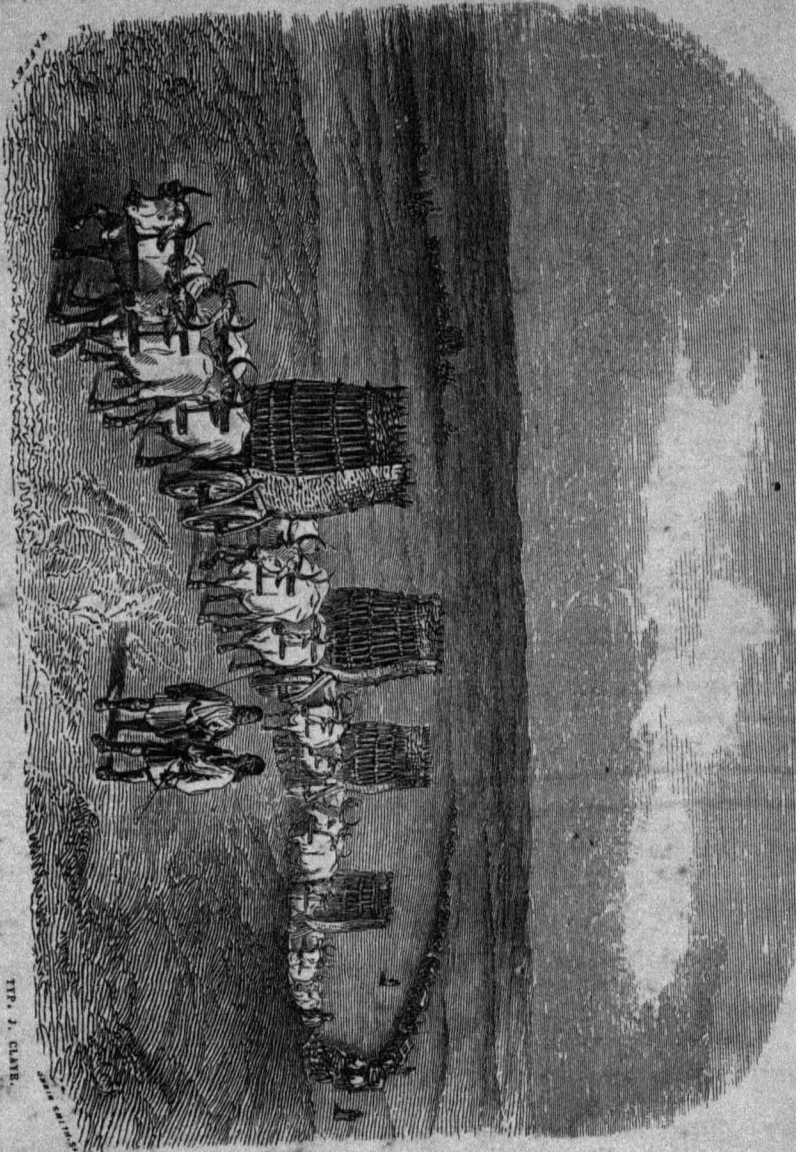
Since the establishment of civil registers, the number of births and deaths in the principalities may be ascertained. The following table shows that each year there is a notable excess in favour of the births. This surplus presents an average of 9,769 births per annum, with the exception of the year 1833, signalised by the passage of the cholera. There can be no doubt that the better condition of the people, owing to the new state of things, is the cause of this increase of population.

YEARS.	BIRTHS.			MARRIAGES.	DEATHS.		
	Boys.	Girls.	Total.		Men.	Women.	Total.
1832	12,809	11,096	23,905	11,012	7,238	6,121	13,359
1833	12,122	10,293	22,415	7,784	11,893	10,768	22,661
1834	12,725	11,530	24,255	9,038	9,045	8,270	17,315
1835	13,024	10,712	23,736	7,260	7,497	6,324	13,821
1836	13,782	11,722	25,504	7,367	6,860	6,046	12,906
1837	12,601	11,341	23,942	8,909	6,089	5,543	11,632

It does not result from any observations made by us, that the physical constitution of Moldavia presents any

remarkable difference from that of the neighbouring principality: the same chain of mountains forms the western boundary of the two countries; and if, indeed, it has been noted that the winters are more severe at Yassy than at Bukharest, this difference is explained by the respective latitudes of the two capitals. Moldavia has experienced more frequently those shocks of earthquake which occasionally visit these regions.

The Moldavians are robust, temperate, hard-working, and inured to the most opposite extremes of temperature. Their features differ from those of the Wallachian people: their countenances are less open; and the habit they have preserved, of wearing their beards and hair long, gives an almost savage expression to their physiognomy, to such a degree, that at a distance they might be taken for those primitive statues of the Sarmatians to be seen in museums of antiquity, mementos of the triumphs of Rome over the barbarian. Among the Wallachians, on the contrary, we meet with a larger development of stature, and a greater amount of beauty. As though more deeply impressed with the nomadic habits of their ancestors, the Moldavians more frequently perform long journeys on foot than their neighbours. Assembled together in large caravans, they traverse immense distances, and carry, as far as the streams to the east of Russia, the commodities with which the towns scattered over the vast plains in that direction are supplied. The



MOLDAVIAN WAGGONS.

TIP. J. CLAY.



Moldavians travel across these steppes, following the slow and measured pace of their oxen, and are sometimes an entire month without approaching a dwelling. At night the caravan halts, and its numerous cars are formed into a square, their white oxen pasturing around, under the guard of their courageous dogs. A fire is soon lighted in the middle of the square, and the drivers prepare their simple repast; after which, each disposes himself to sleep, wrapped in a coarse covering of felt. These indefatigable pedestrians are not the less excellent horsemen; and towards the north of the principality there exists a fine breed of horses, of a larger build than the Wallachian steeds, and much in request for cavalry remounts.

We can only speak here of that portion of the population in both countries seen by ourselves; but, according to the best informed and most credible travellers, it is among the mountains of both principalities that the most marked characteristics of the people are exhibited. The highlands abound in magnificent sites, the vegetation is rich, and the incidental features of the country call to mind the picturesque beauties of the Swiss Alps. Such descriptions made us regret that we had not leisure to explore these countries as far as the mountains, so well are they worthy of an attentive study; but when Moldavia is traversed, as was the case with us, in three days, and



in the midst of torrents of rain, but little inducement is offered to extend one's acquaintance with the country under so mournful an aspect.

That unruly race, the Tsigans, are found in great numbers in Moldavia, and here, as in Wallachia, they are employed as servants. They exercise, moreover, the avocations of cooks, blacksmiths and minstrels—three very opposite employments—in which they have no rivalry to fear from the inhabitants of the country. But were ever such cooks seen? Their appearance was quite enough to content us, and we made no further experience of their qualities. The religion of this people, which is entirely external, consists chiefly, as we have already stated, in the observance of the duties enjoined by the church. These duties, among which the foremost is abstinence, are entirely in accordance with the natural temperance of the Moldavians. Their ordinary food is a sort of porridge, cooked sometimes in an oven, at others in an iron kettle, and called by them *mamalinga*. To mix milk with this preparation, chiefly consisting of Indian wheat, is considered a step towards luxurious indulgence. Even the wealthiest peasants rarely touch meat; and it is only at the end of a long fast that they regale themselves in this way.

Before concluding these notes, we have only to say a word on the language of the people in the two prin

cipalities, which is, with few exceptions, the same for both. This language which, in the midst of the corruptions introduced by emigration, exhibits traces of its Latin and Slavonian origin, had neither a grammar nor any alphabet of its own until 1735, an epoch rendered so remarkable by the enlightened attempts of Prince Constantine Mavrocordato. The Wallachian tongue is that spoken by the people: the Boyards have for a long time past made use of the modern Greek, which was introduced by the Hospodars from Constantinople, and formed the language of the court. At the present day the French language is very generally studied, and it would be difficult to find a family of any distinction in which both French and Italian were not spoken. A few words, transcribed from a good vocabulary, will give a notion how much the Wallachian language has borrowed from the Latin, that great well-spring from which so many nations have drawn:

Beautiful . . . . .	Formos.	Laugh . . . . .	Ris.
Begin . . . . .	Incep.	Light . . . . .	Luminar.
Bench . . . . .	Scamm.	Ox . . . . .	Boo.
Black . . . . .	Negro.	Parent . . . . .	Parinte.
Day . . . . .	Dzio.	Table . . . . .	Massa.
Finger . . . . .	Degete.	Tears . . . . .	Lacrimæ.
Fisherman . . . . .	Pescator.	Where . . . . .	Undè.
Game . . . . .	Venat.	White . . . . .	Alb.
Glass . . . . .	Vitric.	With . . . . .	Cum.
Good . . . . .	Bounn.	Word . . . . .	Verba.

Besides these words, which we have taken at random, there are a great number presenting a complete similitude with the Italian. It must be noted, however, that these resemblances, discoverable in the written language, would be difficult to seize as the language is spoken. The vicious pronunciation of the people, their hoarse and guttural utterance—arising from their habit of living in the open air—render it difficult for any but skilled ears to identify the words.

It was in collecting and arranging these notes that we employed the tedious hours spent in the quarantine. They are the result of reading, of our own recollections, and more especially of information communicated in the kindest manner. It is not given here as even an incomplete view of all that is suggested by the subject, which would easily furnish matter for a volume; but as a simple record of our impressions during a journey, unfortunately but too short. It will be seen that our eagerness to learn everything was admirably favoured by the kindness and influential position of our hosts.

But it is time that we should now, once for all, cross the frontier, and return to Skoulain, a village which, by virtue of the treaty signed at Bukharest, May 16-28, 1802, between Russia and the Porte, became the territory of the former. This treaty, as is already known, added to the empire the long province bounded on the east

by the Dniester, and on the west by the Pruth, by which streams, running almost parallel, it is enclosed. On the newly adopted line of boundary, each nation has established a quarantine, to supervise and purify all arrivals from the right bank of the Danube. The Moldavian lazaretto is established at Galatz, not far from the mouth of the Pruth; the Prussians have placed their post of observation on the left bank of the same stream, at the point nearest Moldavia, and on a route, the communications by which, between that principality and Bessarabia, might, perhaps, with propriety, be left more untrammelled.

Heaven forbid that we should endeavour to depict in these pages the misery and weariness of that mournful captivity, which is called performing quarantine! The only consolation in such circumstances, is the consciousness of obedience to the law, that inestimable virtue, without which no society would be possible. Shut up at night in our cells, we became the prey of millions of enemies, harassing our slumbers, and by their sharp bites rendering us more sensible to the hardness of our pallets. Daylight came slowly on, as we waited with impatience the moment when, by special favour of the director of the lazaretto, we might take a bath in the river. Surrounded with keepers, and confined to a limited space, we were allowed, at a certain hour,

to indulge in this healthy exercise. The waters of the Pruth are said to possess wholesome properties, both for bathing and drinking; but we preferred using them for the former purpose rather than the latter, as we found, on tasting them, a strong brackish flavour, which rendered their use as a beverage anything but pleasant.

A watch is kept night and day over the wooden enclosure of the lazaretto; and the challenges of the sentries during the night, echo and die away mournfully in the distance, in a manner by no means calculated to enliven the meditations of the captive. The deplorable heat which we experienced in the principalities, continued to oppress us at Skoulain. The burning heat of the morning was followed every evening by a violent storm, converting the yards, and even the interiors of the houses, into muddy and melancholy pools, which the next day's sun with difficulty dried up. During one of these storms, accompanied with the incessant rumbling of thunder, we were informed that the lightning had struck a party of Cossacks, on their way to relieve guard; their long lances, had apparently served as conductors to the destructive fluid; out of five men one only was killed, the other four remaining paralyzed in parts of their limbs.

It must not be forgotten that we were on the soil of the empire, and that, even distant as is this frontier

from the capital, the kind commands which were to ensure us protection and support, had long since reached thither. Accordingly we experienced every indulgence on the part of the employés, compatible with the extreme rigour of the regulations. The permission to bathe, so much prized by us, was entirely owing to the attentions of the director, and of Dr. Ellisen, the medical officer of the lazaretto. I had also obtained, as a favour, that those of our wretched companions in quarantine—almost all Jews or Armenians—whose consent could be obtained, should sit as models to Raffet, at a suitable distance, and under the eye of the keepers. At length our captivity was drawing to a close. Early in August, an envoy from Count Woronzoff, governor-general of New-Russia, came from Odessa to meet us, and expressed the kindest intentions on the part of the Count, the sincerity of which a long correspondence did not permit us to doubt. This young man, one of the official secretaries of the governor-general of Odessa, placed himself at our disposal as a guide, for the remainder of the journey. On the 22nd of July (August 3rd), we were summoned to the receiving room of the establishment, to take the usual oath on departure. We swore, in the joy of our hearts, that we had infringed none of the sanitary regulations, and that the plague, from which we were free on entering, had not attacked us

in the interval. Our solemn asseverations were made, and sealed with a kiss on the New Testament, lying on the same table with a khoran for the Turks, and an Old Testament for the Jews.

The next day we crossed that fearful threshold, at which he who enters must leave behind him all the weakness and impatience of his nature. Four large horses, harnessed a-breast, whirled off our carriages with their joyous burthen, over the soil of Bessarabia. On leaving the village of Skoulain, the broad streets of which stamp it as Russian, we began to traverse a naked and barren region, intersected with valleys, lying between ranges of rounded hillocks, stretched in a parallel line with the Pruth. This kind of country continues for about five leagues; in the bosom of the valleys are generally found small pools, supplied by the rain-water, but as far as the eye can stretch, not a tree, not a human being, nor an habitation of any sort, can be discovered. Our postillions were the only specimens we could see of the new inhabitants of this country; how great, however, was the difference between their physiognomy and that of the Moldavians! Their high caps remind one, in form, of the top of a pilgrim's staff; and a coarse shirt, a belt, and loose pantaloons, stuffed into short boots of raw leather, complete their light and simple costume. Their type



of countenance is not so strongly marked as in the inhabitants of Moldavia, from whom they are, moreover, distinguished by whiter skins, a broad face, and light hair and beards. The drivers, as is the custom throughout the empire, are seated in front of the carriages—an arrangement which nearly cost some of us our lives. One of these men, being unskilled, and having lost all control over the eight young and spirited animals he was driving, threw up the reins in despair; the horses, finding themselves no longer held in, swept over the plain, to the great peril of the travellers, and of those who several times attempted to stop them.

After a few hours, the country assumed another aspect; there were no more monotonous plains, but a well distributed country, covered with fine trees, and surrounded by a horizon of distant mountains of the most beautiful forms. A fearful storm overtook us in the forest, where we were fortunate enough to meet with a post-house connected with the village of Bachmout. We took refuge in this wretched dwelling, from which we saw the lightning descend several times at a short distance from us, and still nearer to a number of oxen who were patiently weathering the storm. When the torrent of rain had ceased, we resumed our journey, and had soon taken leave of this picturesque country, but too quickly traversed. It was succeeded by a plain, or rather a vast pool of black

mud, stretching endlessly round us in every direction. Night fell, wrapping us in profound darkness, and still the same prospect presented itself; towards ten o'clock, an escort of Cossacks, armed with long lances, with a lantern at the end of each, told us that we were approaching Kicheneff.

To emerge from this pitchy darkness, from this sea of mud, and suddenly find ourselves in an apartment brilliantly lighted up, overwhelmed with pressing attentions and politeness, with the near prospect of a supper, formed one of those contrasts common enough in the life of a traveller, but which lose none of their charm by being frequently repeated. In the absence of the governor of Kicheneff, one of his relations and the chief of the police performed the honours of his vast and beautiful mansion. Couches were offered us, which with our quarantine reminiscences still fresh within us, felt like the finest down, and we were enabled to enjoy an interval of repose, well earned by the fatigue of the day. Our guide, the young envoy of Count Woronzoff, however, had the barbarity to rouse us from slumbers so delightful, at three in the morning, and kept us up for two hours waiting the arrival of horses. This time we set off to halt no more till we reached Odessa, that first and anxiously looked for point in our long voyage.

The same persons who had received us with so much

politeness in the evening, insisted on escorting us on horseback, or in droschkies, to a certain distance from the town. All that we saw of Kicheneff was the enormous space it covers; like Rome, it is built on a number of hills. The reason it occupies so wide a space, is the breadth of the streets, and the number of gardens surrounding the houses. There are still a great number of old and ill-constructed buildings, and primitive looking huts, but the new quarters are covered with elegant dwelling-houses, and public edifices of elaborate architecture. The brilliancy of the colours with which the monuments are painted, especially the domes and roofs, which are of a light green tint, present a singular appearance to the eye of a foreigner, and give a peculiar character to our cities, the novelty of which appeared much to strike my fellow-travellers. The public places in Kicheneff are immense; they are adorned with turf, and set round with posts; at the time of our passage, a considerable plantation of trees was going on, over a space intended for a public promenade.

A few vineyards may be seen on the hill sides in the neighbourhood of the town, but soon afterwards the country again becomes wild and uncultivated, and the more desolate from the effects of continued rain. In the low, swampy plains, we encountered numberless birds, the usual inhabitants of marshes, flights of lapwings, moor-hens, and thoughtful looking cranes, stalking over

the marshes with melancholy gravity. On entering the steppe, we were leaving behind us immeasurable spaces covered with fine large plants, all in flower. The deep mire unfortunately protected them from the assaults of Dr. Lèveillé, who, gazing on them from the back of the Wallachian carriage, was suffering the tortures of a botanical Tantalus. At last we beheld Bender. Not far from this place of strength we had passed over the desert soil where, on some unknown spot, Potemkin, one of the glories of our history, breathed his last. Having set out sick from Yassy, to proceed to Kherson, the prince was obliged to leave his carriage, for, like the Roman Emperor, he wished to die standing; and here amid these steppes died the death of a soldier, the man whose name alone was worth armies.

We did not enter Bender, a place which will long preserve the memory of Charles XII., that terrible vanquished enemy of Russia. From the post-house, we could command a view of this town, spreading out its regular lines of houses in the midst of a broad plain without a tree or garden, and hedged round by a number of wooden windmills, spreading out their six sails to the wind. The citadel, which stands apart from Bender, is of considerable extent, and encloses within its modern works the ruins of the ancient Turkish fortress; it is garrisoned by six hundred artillerymen. This place has lost a great deal of its importance since it has come to

be so far within the bounds of the territory. As a frontier town of the Turks, it was doubtless of great value to them in the midst of this open country, and near the river, which it commands.

The Dniester, as it flows before Bender, is of moderate width, but it runs between very steep banks, which render the passage of the river by a ferry, under the bastions of the fort, extremely difficult. To ascend the left bank, we required the aid of an encampment of Moldavian waggoners, established in the neighbourhood, and six pair of oxen, obtained from them, were a powerful assistance to us.

Tiraspol, with its citadel, and a large encampment of artillery beneath its walls, passed rapidly before our eyes; then came Koutcherhan, where a colony of German agriculturists is established; this is the first of eight agricultural communities which have established themselves on the soil of Bessarabia, implanting upon it, together with their methods of culture, their gentle manners and patient habits, and even the very names of the towns of their native land. Thus, towards evening, we passed through Strasburg and Mannheim, where the sound of the German language reminded us of other countries—not more fertile, certainly, but more thickly inhabited, since the growth of the population is such as to render emigration necessary. These German people appeared contented with their lot; for the land,

in these virgin steppes, repays with usury the labour bestowed upon it. Bessarabia is making rapid strides in the path of industrial production. Already rich in grain—not only beyond its own wants, but beyond any amount of importation anticipated—this province has sought in manufactures a new channel for its resources. The government fosters this tendency by special immunities: thus, the distillation and sale of brandy and spirits, which throughout all the provinces of the empire are the exclusive privilege of the government, are in Bessarabia permitted to the producer for a limited period. The manufacture of beet-root sugar has also recently arisen in this country; and such is the richness of the soil, that this root, so devouring elsewhere, is unable to exhaust its resources. Its vigour is not, however, abused; for the space is so large, that it is long before a second crop is called for from land which has already yielded produce. The fuel employed is a mixture in use throughout Southern Russia, consisting of chopped straw and cow-dung stirred up together, and dried into cakes, which in the summer time are seen covering the walls. Almost all the houses are covered with this singular coating, which is removed in the winter time.

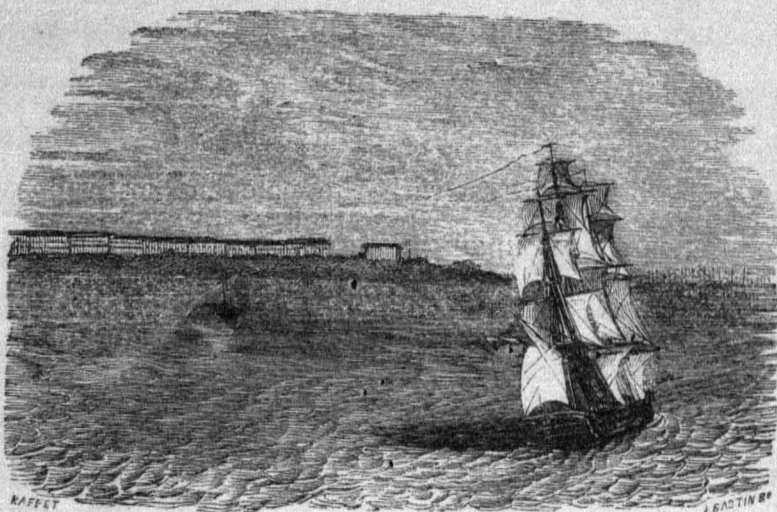
Besides the German colonies, we came across several Moldavian caravans encamped for the night, according to their accustomed stratagetic arrangements. The benighted pedestrian who should approach these nomadic establish-

ments would deserve our pity, for he would be in great danger of being devoured by the fierce dogs performing patrol round these square battalions of cars.

Night had long fallen, and interminable delays detained us at the end of each stage. Notwithstanding that two estafettes had been dispatched, nothing was prepared; there were no horses; and Jewish rapacity, never neglecting an opportunity of levying contributions on the traveller, overwhelmed us with the offer of services, which, when paid for, were never realised. Accordingly, it was not till we had spent the night in the midst of a plain, where we were several times imbedded in the mud, that we approached the capital of New Russia. Before we could perceive the town, we felt on our faces, heated with travelling, the smarting effects of the sea breeze. At last, as the first beams of the morning sun appeared, we took possession of a magnificent hotel, bearing the name of Richelieu; a name of which, from the extreme thoughtfulness of its hospitality, it is not unworthy.







## CHAPTER V.

ODESSA.—THE SOUTHERN COAST OF THE CRIMEA.



THE first aspect of Odessa is worthy the reputation of this great city; the young and flourishing capital of New Russia could not be more fitly heralded. Surrounded to a remote distance by immense steppes and endless deserts, Odessa appears before one like a land of promise, a long-desired oasis; and its walls are entered with the same feelings of joy as are experienced on reaching port at the end of a long sea voyage.

The various quarters of this vast city, still daily increasing, cover a broad plateau, whose perpendicular sides plunge into the Black Sea. From its steep eminence, Odessa commands a large bay, the dark blue waters of which contrast with the pale and arid appearance of the surrounding coast, invariably enveloped throughout the summer in whirling clouds of dust. Sheltered from the southern gales, but ill protected against the parching winds of the east, the port of Odessa is formed by three moles, which divide it into as many basins. One of these, for the reception of vessels in quarantine, is overlooked by the walls of the lazaretto and the batteries of a fort; the two others admit the ships of the Imperial navy, and trading vessels not coming from a quarantine port. The bottom of this bay offers good anchorage for ships of large burthen, but they are much exposed during gales from the east, and especially from the south-east. These terrible winds drive the impetuous waves into the bay of Odessa with a fury which nothing can withstand; a succession of these storms continually sweep across the Black Sea in the direction of its longest diagonal.

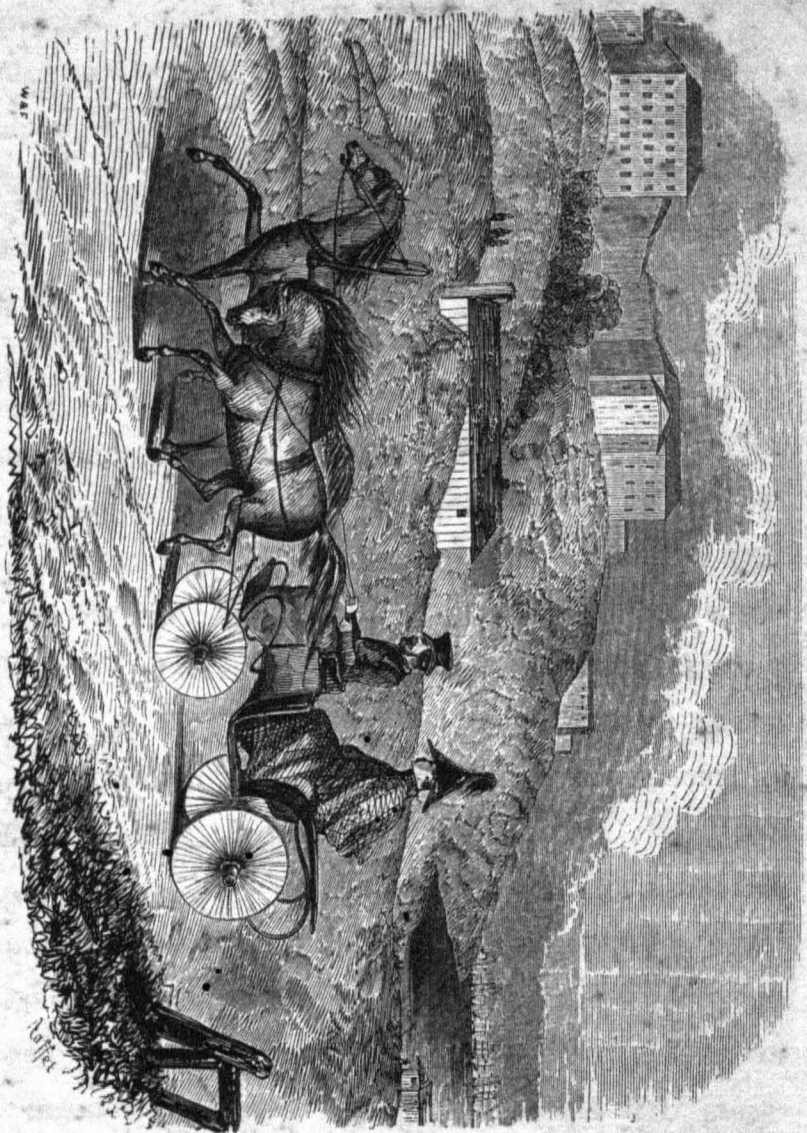
The city of Odessa is planned with regularity, as are the generality of Russian cities; it is carefully built, but the finest buildings occur in those quarters nearest the sea. All that part which faces the shore wears an appear-

mence of grandeur and opulence. The long and majestic terrace overlooking the sea, is lined with public edifices, hotels, and stately mansions, but to seize the full effect of this rich assemblage of buildings, Odessa should be entered from its port. It is as though this queen of the Black Sea had reserved all her splendours for that shore, breathing with intelligent souls, whereon the waves flowing from Asia incessantly dash their foaming heads. The cliff we have spoken of, is not less than eighty feet in height; on its summit, along its whole extent, is planted an avenue of young trees, with their branches arching together; in the centre of this promenade, and in the midst of a crescent of fine mansions, stands a bronze statue of the Duc de Richelieu, a monument of the gratitude of the city which owes so much to his creative genius. From the foot of the statue descends a gigantic flight of steps, already far advanced towards completion; when finished, it will connect, by steps one hundred feet wide, the grand terrace with the lower quay, and beneath these steps, which are to be supported by a series of open arches, gradually rising in height, the various carts and conveyances going to and from the port will freely pass.

After contemplating this magnificent spot, if you explore the rest of the city, you will find but a very few buildings, and those scattered at distant intervals, likely to remind

you of the grandeur of this favoured quarter. Broad streets, carefully paved, and planted with rows of acacia trees, traverse the length and breadth of the city, crossing each other at right angles. A theatre, a number of fine churches, spacious squares, bazaars, and a few rich-looking shops attract the attention, in the midst of a number of houses too humble in character for such splendid streets.

That portion of the road reserved for pedestrians, is broad enough to render the traffic easy at all times, even in the quarters most frequented, morning and evening, by the busy and the idle. The more crowded portion of the city is that adjoining Richelieu Street, the finest and most populous street in Odessa. In numerous shops along this street are spread out for sale the varied produce of every country in Europe, assembled thither under the fostering protection of the free port of Odessa. Showy sign-boards, with inscriptions representing every language of Europe, bear witness to that unrestricted freedom of trade which has made the fortune of this new city. The streets are filled with numerous droschkies: these kind of equipage, as useful as they are light, perform immensely long distances. At Odessa, the same customs prevail as are observed in all the southern countries of Europe; the morning is devoted to business, and the middle of the day to



DROSCHKI AT ODESSA.

THE J. CLAY.



repose. This habit, which the heat of the climate seems to dictate, gives a melancholy and deserted appearance to the city during a great part of the day; in the evening, however, outward signs of animation again break forth; the theatre is much frequented, and the cafés and clubs are crowded. There the nobles assemble, further on the merchants,—Turks, Armenians, Jews even; every class has its place of meeting, and in each of these resorts, open to quiet conversation, the long pipe of the east spreads its perfumed clouds over the assembly.

Odessa, henceforth, was become our head-quarters, our point of departure and of rendezvous, during the distant excursions we were about to make into these remarkable regions. Our arrival had been expected, and we were received with the most perfect politeness by all the persons to whom the governor-general, Count Michael Woronzoff, had been kind enough to commend us on his departure.

The governor-general, who was in haste to proceed to the Crimea, had left the city two days before our arrival, but not without leaving us, together with a most pressing invitation, all the necessary instructions for joining him immediately. We were animated with the strongest desire to visit this southern coast of the Crimea, replete, as we were told, with every species of charm; and where the noble and wealthy nobleman who governs these

countries has created, within the last few years, the most elegant villegiatura imaginable. Thanks to this wholesome impulse, the wealthy inhabitants of Odessa go every year and spend the summer under the mild sky, amidst the streams, pleasant shades, and magnificent prospects of the ancient Taurida. Odessa—exposed as it is, without the least shelter, to the sea winds—without, from the commencement of summer, a cool or a green spot—inspires one with a deep longing for the shades of the country. A hot, burning dust, driven in clouds before the wind, penetrates even into the interior of the houses. To protect themselves in some degree from this parching climate, the inhabitants retire in vain to their dwellings, surrounded with numerous plantations, in the vicinity of the city, called khoutors. The drought spares not these young artificial woods; the loamy soil beneath the trees cracks, and becomes as hard as stone; so that scarcely do the few sickly leaves by which vegetation is manifested in these steppes afford the most meagre of shades. What a charm, then, must it be, to seek a refuge beneath the cool foliage of the century-old trees of the Crimea, listening to the sound of limpid cascades, and gazing on a landscape which Italy herself would not disavow! Such was the picture which we heard repeatedly drawn; and every one appeared so truly enchanted with this beautiful Taurida,—so



general was the eagerness to repair thither,—that we too resolved no longer to delay complying with the pressing invitations of Count Woronzoff. It so happened, that we were just in time to take the steamer which was to start on the 10th, and convey to Yalta the *élite* of the society of Odessa.

In the meantime, each devoted himself to the studies and scientific researches—the objects of our voyage. My companions, faithful to their mission, investigated the nature of the soil upon which the great city was built; carefully noted the zoological varieties of the country, and gathered, in scattered spots, the few specimens of the flora of the steppes which the sun had not dried up. Raffet enriched his portfolio with all the picturesque incidents which the varied population of the city brought beneath his notice: Jews, Karaïms, Moldavians, Turks, Russians of the new and the old country, with their characteristic beards—all these striking types were transferred to the leaves of his already well-filled sketch-book. I, on my side, collected a few notes relative to the country, and in particular to this city, whose history is as yet of so early a date, that a mere glance at the past is sufficient to place before one all the phases of its development. The research is one of undoubted necessity, if we would explain the causes which have raised Odessa to such a degree of prosperity,

with a rapidity which has astonished Europe; if we would divine in what manner this new portion of the empire has been enabled to take advantage of every favourable circumstance;—if, in fine, anticipating the future, we would form an estimate of the destined position of this beautiful colony, already designated the Marseilles of the Black Sea, and offering, in fact, more than one point of resemblance with the ancient Phocian colony. To do this, became from the first the object of my especial study.

On the promontory where the fortress of Odessa and the buildings of one of the finest lazarettos in Europe now stand, might be seen, a few years before the commencement of this century, a little Turkish fort, commanding on one side the sea, on the other the desert: Hadji-Bey was the name of this fortress; and the petty structure, perched like a gull's nest on the parched, barren cliff, was governed by a pasha. At this time Potemkin was extending his conquests over all those vast regions which now bear the name of New Russia. This prince instructed Admiral Ribas to take possession of the Turkish fortress, and it was soon subjected to the conqueror's yoke. The Empress Catherine II. having shortly afterwards conceived the project of erecting fortresses upon the new frontiers of her empire, Hadji-Bey was marked out as one of the

points in this line of defensive works, between Ovidiopol, which was to guard the mouths of the Danube and Tiraspol, destined to command the course of the Dniester. In 1794 the three fortresses were erected simultaneously, and the citadel of Odessa rose over the ruins of the old Mussulman fort of Hadji-Bey. A year had scarcely expired, when already numerous settlers, attracted by the favourable position of the spot, and encouraged by the protection afforded by its ramparts, had marked out a town, or rather an encampment of merchants, upon the plateau where Odessa now stands. Admiral Ribas, the governor of the new military establishment, succeeded in inspiring these adventurous traders with sufficient confidence, to persuade them to establish themselves in this spot no longer occasionally as merchants, but as settled inhabitants. He thus became the first founder of a city which acknowledges three foreigners as the authors of its prosperity: a memorable example of the wise and hospitable views of a government powerful enough to employ profitably even the gifted exiles sent to it by Europe.

Don José de Ribas, whose name remains inseparable from those of Richelieu and Langeron, was born at Naples, whence political events, which displace so many men and things, brought him to Russia; he entered the service of the imperial fleet in 1769, and

had so distinguished himself as to deserve the rank of admiral, when he was called to fulfil the glorious mission of endowing the newly conquered empire with a capital city. In accomplishing this task, Don José employed all the resources of a character equally prudent and energetic. A year after its foundation, the new town reckoned within its regular ranges of wooden buildings a population of 2,300 men and 1,600 women,—Greek, Jewish, and Bulgarian speculators,—under the protective superintendence of a Russian general, staff and garrison. It was at this time that the town demanded a name of its noble sovereign. The Empress, whose taste for history and serious studies are well known, deemed the point of sufficient importance to be submitted to the Academy of St. Petersburg; for her genius foresaw that here was the promise of no common-place provincial town, destined to vegetate on some remote shore, but a rich commercial emporium, towards which the ships of the Mediterranean would soon learn to turn their prows. Thus was Odessa named. It was found in the history of the ancient colonies of Græce, that not far from these latitudes there had existed a city called Odysossa, or Odyssos, and the new colony inherited this ancient name, recovered from the poetical record of the ancient Greek bard.

In the year 1796, Odessa assumed the attitude of

a city, well aware of its power and dignity. Its first care was the establishment of order; after order, would succeed trade. Accordingly, as soon as it had organised a police, it erected an exchange; and trade soon became the moving spring and bond of union among this people, composed of elements so various. In that year eighty-six ships had already cast their anchors beneath the walls of Odessa, and Ribas was urging with vigour the completion of works indispensable to a maritime port for the reception of mercantile shipping.

At this conjuncture, the empire lost its sovereign, the immortal Catherine, whom one of the greatest geniuses of the eighteenth century had dignified by the title of "great man." The Emperor Paul took the reins of the state; but under the new Prince, Odessa fell into neglect, and its development was for some time checked. Ribas was re-called to St. Petersburg, Rear-Admiral Poustochkin being appointed in his place; and to all appearance the views of the Emperor were not like those of his august mother, favourable to the new settlements on the Black Sea. However this might be, Odessa endured, though not without difficulty, the consequences of the neglect into which it had fallen. At the end of 1797 its population amounted already to 5,000 souls, distributed among 400 houses.

Among this population, so exclusively devoted to

commerce and exchange, no attempt had yet been made at production. Not a manufactory had been established—or rather, we mistake—one single manufactory did exist; and it is a curious fact, that in the infancy of a city which has become prosperous in maturity, this manufactory supplied what in those days was an indispensable commodity: powder—hair powder.

The eighteenth century was now drawing to its close, amidst threatening tempests, and even Odessa, scarcely beginning its career, and with every right to fancy itself safe from the effects of the storm, felt the commotion which agitated Europe. The new city had not yet found favour in the eyes of the sovereign, and its inhabitants resigned themselves to their lot, hoping for better times in the future. It is curious to follow, as they are traced in a work on this early period of its history, by M. Skalkofsky, a distinguished writer of this country, the numerous respectful, but persevering attempts of the inhabitants to obtain the privileges and liberties, the objects of their dearest wishes. They were never weary of laying their humble and unceasing petitions at the foot of the throne; praying, at one and the same time, for a grant of armorial bearings to their city, for immunities such as Reval and Riga enjoyed, and for the freedom of her port. Of all these favours, solicited with so much eagerness, they obtained only the armorial bearings.

These were inaugurated with the most pompous ceremonies, and amidst every mark of the most lively gratitude. Soon after, the supplications of the city commenced afresh.

The people of Odessa, like a true people of traders, thought to seduce even sovereign majesty by a present, and apparently in those days a rare one. An envoy was dispatched to St. Petersburg, carrying with him, as a homage from his faithful subjects of Odessa, three thousand of the finest oranges that could be found. The present was received, the Emperor graciously expressing his acknowledgments, and immediately the importunate demands for monopoly and freedom were again urged. Odessa received them back, torn up, with no other answer than that such a request was absurd.

A day at last came when the persevering efforts of this rising people were crowned with success. Prince Gagarin, President of the College of Trade, as the minister of that department was called, interceded with the Emperor Paul in favour of his subjects of New Russia. The works in the port of Odessa were resumed, the necessary establishments completed, and the lazaretto founded on the same spot which it now occupies. As it had befallen the colonists more than once to suffer from a scarcity of grain, all exportation was suspended; the establishment of reserved stores became the object of



particular solicitude, and under this salutary system, so strongly called for in this case, prosperity again resumed its progressive march. This took place in the first year of the century, and with each succeeding year, the rise of the city became more rapid and more certain. The Emperor Alexander, on ascending the throne, had manifested an interest in the remote provinces of the south, and had admitted them to a community of laws with the rest of the empire. This was another pledge of the future definitive incorporation of these countries, and the new order of things was soon attended with fruitful results. Odessa beheld the arrival of a reinforcement of Bulgarian settlers, attracted by the privileges with which, from day to day, the new city was being endowed; and soon after, it was effectively exempted from all taxes for twenty-five years; freed from the burthen of finding quarters for the military, by the construction of several barracks, and presented with a grant from the crown of the entire territory, which it possesses at the present day; one-tenth of the customs' revenue was appropriated to the construction of works connected with the port, and other additional benefits favoured the development of trade, and of the population. Henceforward, its progress was rapid; the transactions of trade in 1803 involved millions of roubles; continual additions were made to the city, which was spreading out into the granted territory, and it was