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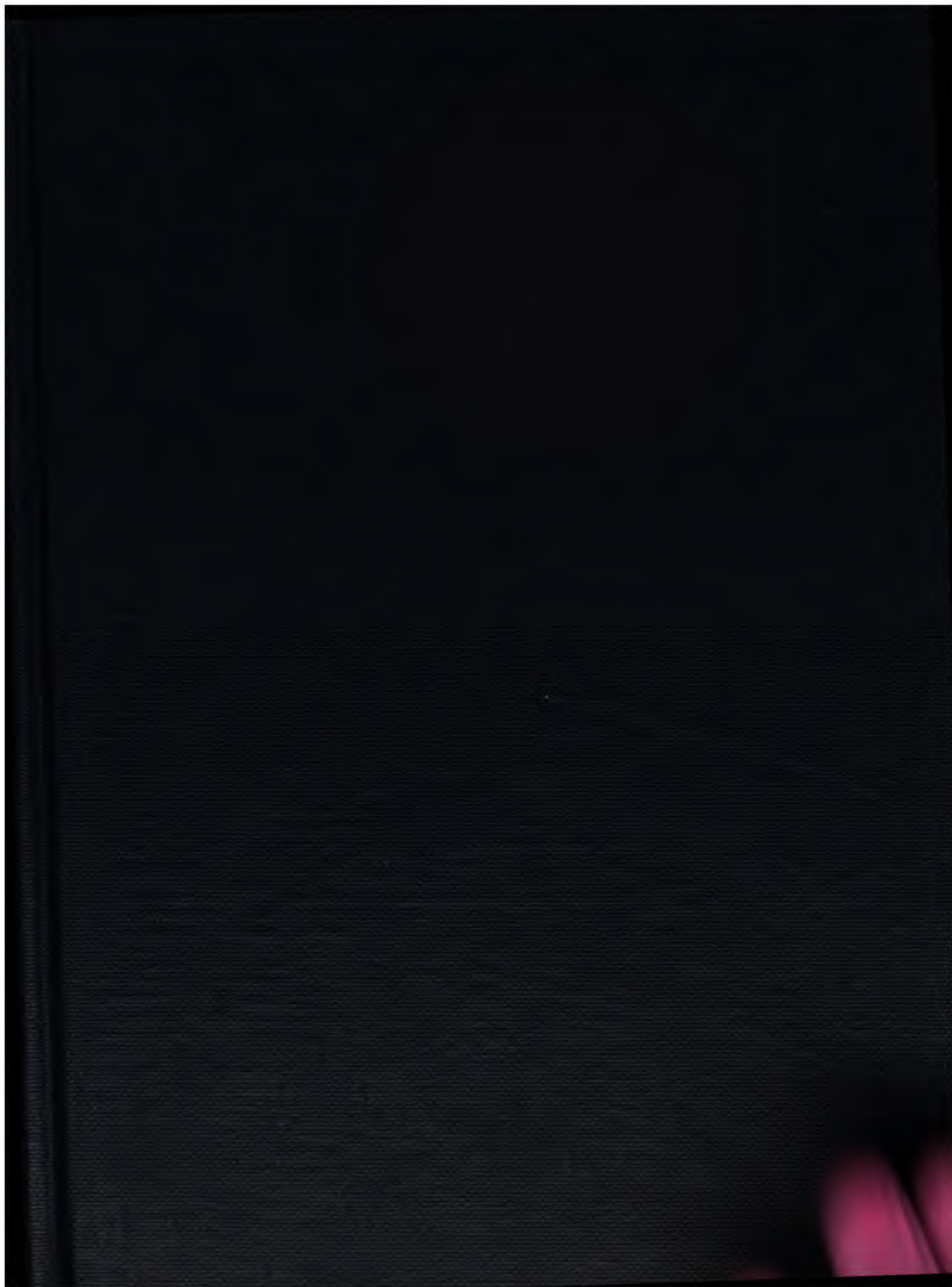
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CYPRUS.

COMPILED IN THE INTELLIGENCE BRANCH, QUARTER-
MASTER-GENERAL'S DEPARTMENT,
HORSE GUARDS.

BY

CAPTAIN A. R. SAVILE,

18th, The Royal Irish Regiment.



LONDON:

Printed under the Superintendence of Her Majesty's Stationary Office,

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W. CLOWES & SONS, 13, Charing Cross; HARRISON & SONS, 59, Pall Mall;
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PREFACE.

THE subject of the first chapter of this book, viz., the History of Cyprus, is one upon which many volumes might be written, for few countries have a longer or more varied history; it has therefore been impossible to give more than a mere sketch of the numerous dynasties which have succeeded one another in the island, and to relate the most important historical events. Stress has been laid upon the incidents which occurred at the end of the twelfth century leading to the conquest of Cyprus by Richard Cœur de Lion, its sale to the Templars, and subsequent transfer to the Lusignan family, for this period in the history of the island is of special interest to English readers. The process by which Cyprus was annexed three hundred years later by the Venetian Republic is explained in detail, and the events of the invasion by the Turks, and their subjugation of the island in 1570-71 are also related. Information concerning the ancient history has been chiefly gathered from the works of Rawlinson, Smith, Di Cesnola, and Knight. M. De Mas Latrie's "*Histoire de L'Ile de Chypre*," is a most valuable work; it contains minute information concerning the events of the Lusignan dynasty, and touches also upon the Venetian rule; this history has been of great assistance to the compiler of this book. The particulars of the conquest of Cyprus by the Turks are contained in the *Histories of the Ottoman Empire*, by Knolles and Von Hammer; both these authors enter into the subject in full detail. Additional historical information has been derived from various sources; a complete list of the authors and their works from which extracts have been taken, will be found at the end of this book.

The four descriptive chapters, II to V, are compiled from the writings of travellers in Cyprus, and from all other available sources; the island is now daily becoming better known, and when it has been completely and accurately surveyed and examined, it is not unlikely that errors will be found in both the reports and the

PREFACE.

maps now in existence; in order that such discrepancies may be corrected and new matter added, some copies of this portion of the book are interleaved.

The observations upon the climate of Cyprus, a subject of the deepest interest and importance, are supplemented by very valuable information and statistics which have been kindly supplied by the Secretary of the Scottish Meteorological Society, A. Buchan, Esq., whose remarks, contained in Chapter VI, with regard to the atmospheric conditions affecting the healthiness of the island, are highly important.

The geological description is chiefly derived from the works of Albert Gaudry, Dr. Unger, and Dr. Kotschy, but the thanks of the compiler are also due to Professor Rupert Jones, who kindly gave most valuable assistance in clearing up ambiguous points, and reconciling apparently conflicting statements in the works of the above authors.

The chapters upon Natural History, Agriculture, Trade, and Revenue, have been compiled not only from the writings of travellers, but, in a very great measure, from the Reports annually furnished by Her Majesty's Consuls. The General and Statistic Report of Vice-Consul White, dated March 1863, is a most valuable paper, and has been largely used in this compilation. The consular reports indicate in the clearest possible manner the various causes which, under the Turkish administration, have year by year influenced the harvests, trade, revenue, and the general prosperity of the island; the information given on these subjects cannot but be of value to all who are interested or concerned in the future welfare of Cyprus.

A. R. S.

ADAIR HOUSE, PALL MALL,
31st August, 1878.

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CHAPTER I.

HISTORY OF CYPRUS.

THERE is perhaps no place which has been called by so many different names as Cyprus; in ancient times we find it called Cerastis in allusion to its numerous promontories; Sphecia, from its ancient inhabitants, the Spheces; Collinia, from its many hills; Ærosa, from its mines of copper; Macaria, from its excellent situation and rich products, and various other more or less poetic appellations. Various names of the Island.

Through its Greek population the island received the name of *Kypros*, a title which is believed to be derived from the Hebrew *Kopher* (Henna—*Lawsonia alba*), a plant found there in great abundance, and from which various highly prized oils and salves were produced.

This origin of the present name of the island is generally accepted, though some authorities have endeavoured to trace the word to the Roman *cyprum*, or *cuprum*, copper; to the Greek *cryptos*, hidden; and it has even been suggested that the island was called Cyprus from the cypress-tree; but this opinion is not supported by anything beyond the similarity in the names.

The earliest notice we have of the inhabitants of Cyprus is derived from Josephus, who clearly identifies the island with the Chittim of the Old Testament, the place in which the descendants of Kittim, son of Javan, son of Japhet, settled and founded the ancient Citium. This race appears to have held the island, or a portion of it, down to the time of Solomon. Bryant intimates that the Cuthites were also amongst the first settlers in Cyprus. Early settlers.

In these early ages the Phœnicians, belonging to the rising kingdom of Tyre, were the great traders of the Mediterranean, and from Eratosthenes we learn that about the year B.C. 1045, this people established settlements in Cyprus. The history of the island at this period is, however, so involved in an accumulation of legends which have gathered round and obscured the original facts, that no precise information regarding the colonization by the Phœnicians can be procured. It appears that the early settlers maintained from the first a connection with the mother country, and in the time of Hiram, King of Tyre, about B.C. 1,000, we find them revolting against the tribute levied by that sovereign. This revolt was suppressed, and it appears that for a long subsequent period the island continued to be tributary to Tyre. Colonization by the Phœnicians.

Equally uncertain is the history of the Greek colonies which are found to have been formed after those of the Phœnicians, and Greek colonies.

Religion. but little is accurately known of the relations between the two races, but it seems probable that the Greeks gradually established a political supremacy, whilst the Phœnicians continued to form an important part of the population, and exercised considerable influence over the manners and customs, arts, and religious rites of the inhabitants in general, and, in fact, although the languages of the two races remained distinct, it would seem that their religions became by degrees entirely amalgamated. The Phœnicians had introduced the worship of the goddess Ashtaroth, whose temple at Paphos was founded, according to tradition, in imitation of a temple of the Tyrian goddess Astarte at Ascalon; this worship was universally accepted by the Greeks in the island, and the goddess was identified by them with their own Aphrodite.

Towns. The Phœnicians settled chiefly on the south coast at the most convenient points for trade, and their chief towns were Paphos, Amathus, and Citium. Salamis was the most important of the Greek towns; Soli and Kythraa were founded by the Athenians; Lapethus, Cerinea, Nea Paphos, and Golgoi are also said to have all owed their origin to Greek colonists.

Kingdoms. As regards the early monarchical institutions of Cyprus, it is known that both Aristotle and Theophrastus wrote on that subject, but these special writings have been lost, and only a very few facts remain. According to Strabo, the island was divided into ten petty kingdoms, which were sometimes at war with, and sometimes allied to, the neighbouring powers of Greece and Asia Minor. The kingdoms were Salamis, Soli, Chytri, Curium, Lapethus, Cerinea, Nea Paphos, Marium, Citium, and Amathus; the two latter alone appear to have been under Phœnician rule.

The first of the kings mentioned in history is Cinyras, of whose reign various events are related by Homer, but these are much mixed up with legends.

It would appear that the kings of Salamis were generally the most powerful, and at times even the whole island was subdued by them.

In these ancient days a great portion of the commerce between the east and the west centred in Cyprus; the island then possessed good seaports with convenient harbours, forests of trees suitable for ship-building, mines which were productive of great wealth, and an extremely fertile soil; consequently riches poured in, and the inhabitants became notorious for luxury and pleasure.

Ancient history.

To follow the history of Cyprus during these times would be a difficult task, for there are but few positive facts to guide us, and for a long period little can be related but a series of unconnected events. At one time the island was conquered by Thothis III, and became subject to Egypt: afterwards most of its cities were destroyed by Belus, King of Troy; in B.C. 707 we read that seven of the Cypriot monarchs sent presents, or tribute, to Sargon, King of Assyria, thus implying subjection. This tribute is said to have consisted of gold, silver, vases, logs of ebony, and various manufactures of the island. The envoys received, and carried back, an evident token of subjection in an effigy of Sargon, which was set up at Idalium, where it was discovered, and is now in the Berlin

Museum. This setting up of the image of a king was then always a sign that he had conquered the country, nevertheless, in B.C. 685, it is believed that the kings assisted the Cilicians in their struggle against Sennacherib, fearing lest the occupation of Cilicia by the Assyrians might endanger their own island.

Again, we read that about B.C. 675, the King of Cyprus furnished Esathaddon, King of Assyria, with materials—great beams of wood, statues, and various works in metal—for the construction of his palace at Nineveh.

In B.C. 594, Apries, or Uaphris, King of Egypt (the Pharaoh Hophra of Scripture) defeated several Cypriote monarchs near Citium, and returned to his country laden with spoil.

In B.C. 559, Cyrus subdued the island, but left the kings in their respective dominions, on condition that they should pay tribute to him. A few years later, however (about B.C. 550), it appears that Amasis, King of Egypt, again brought the island under the Egyptian rule, but during the reign of Psammeticus, his son and successor, this yoke was thrown off, and in B.C. 525 the island surrendered to Persia, joining heartily with King Cambyses in the war against Egypt, and becoming thenceforth a tributary province of the Persian Empire.

Surrender to Persia.

When Darius became King of Persia, and founded the satrapies, Cyprus was included with Phœnicia and Palestine in the fifth province. Peace was, however, never thoroughly established; in the time of Aristagoras of Miletus, a rebellion broke out, which took the Persians a year to suppress; again, during the Ionian revolt, B.C. 499–500, the whole island, except Amathus, rose in arms, and led by Onesilus, brother of Gorgus, King of Salamis, besieged Amathus; after several attacks, in one of which both Onesilus, and Aristocyprus, King of Soli, were slain, this rebellion was crushed.

Frequent wars and insurrections.

In B.C. 477, the Athenians and Lacedæmonians under Pausanias conquered part of Cyprus, and some years later Cimon arrived with a large fleet to capture the remainder of the island, but he died whilst besieging Citium, and all the conquests were then abandoned.

During the subsequent wars of the fifth century before our era, Cyprus was frequently the scene of hostilities between the Persians and Greeks; attempts to secure a lasting peace were frequently made but always failed, until at last the peace of Antalcidas was concluded in B.C. 387, and Cyprus was thereby formally relinquished to Persia; the actual possession of the island was, however, not easily to be obtained; Evagoras, King of Salamis, had for some time been in a state of revolt; he was assisted by the Athenians, by Achoris, independent King of Egypt, and by Hecatomnus, vassal King of Caria; notwithstanding the peace, Evagoras continued hostilities, and at last Artaxerxes, wishing to crush this troublesome rebellion, sent no less than 300 vessels, bearing a large army under command of Tiribazas, to Cyprus. Evagoras ventured to attack this fleet, but was utterly defeated, and his tribes were dispersed. A struggle was still continued in order to obtain good terms of peace, and it was not until about B.C. 379 that Evagoras was finally subdued. He was, strange to say, even then allowed to

Peace of Antalcidas.

retain his kingdom with the single obligation of paying an annual tribute to King Artaxerxes of Persia.

The Cypriote
Kings declare
in favour of
Alexander the
Great.

About B.C. 350, the Cypriote kings revolted against the rule of the cruel and sanguinary Ochus, King of Persia, and nine of the kings assumed independent sovereignties, each in his own principal town; this rebellion was crushed by Idricus, Prince of Caria. Cyprus then remained quietly subject to Persia for a few years, but after the battle of Issus, B.C. 333, Alexander the Great advanced into Phoenicia and besieged Tyre; the Cypriote Kings then declared in his favour, and sent a fleet of 120 vessels to join the Macedonian fleet off that city.

On the partition of Alexander's dominions at his death, B.C. 323, Cyprus fell to the share of Antigonus, but the importance and wealth of the island made its possession an object of contention amongst all Alexander's successors, so whilst Antigonus was at war with Cassander, Ptolemy, the son of Lagus, made a descent upon the island, and, in B.C. 305, forced the kings to submit to him. In B.C. 306, Demetrius Poliorcetes, son of Antigonus, made an attempt to recover the island; he besieged Salamis both by sea and land, shutting up Ptolemy's brother, Menelaus, in the city. Ptolemy hastened to the relief with a large fleet, and a sea-fight, one of the most memorable of ancient history, ensued, in which Demetrius achieved a complete victory, and the whole island subsequently fell into his hands.

Establishment
of the Ptole-
maic dynasty.

About ten years later, B.C. 295, Ptolemy retook Cyprus, and after this capture the island remained for nearly two and a half centuries under the sceptre of the Ptolemies, who appear to have made it a store-house for their wealth, jewels, and plate. During this period Cyprus became one of the most valuable possessions of the Egyptian monarchs; the timber of Olympus was largely used for the construction of ships, and the metallic and vegetable products also contributed greatly to the revenue. It is said that the island was now divided into four districts, viz., Paphos on the west, Amathus on the south, Lapethus on the north, and Salamis on the east.

Ptolemy Philadelphus founded the several cities in Cyprus which formerly bore the name of his wife, Arsinoë. Under the Lagid dynasty the government was under a viceroy who was chosen from amongst the highest nobles of the Alexandrian court, and to whom full powers were given. About the middle of the second century before our era, dissensions arose between the brothers Ptolemy Philometor and Euergetes, and during their quarrel for the possession of Cyprus, Demetrius Soter, King of Syria, endeavoured, but unsuccessfully, to make himself master of the island.

Ptolemy Lathyrus was King of Egypt when, through the intrigues of Cleopatra, Alexander succeeded to that throne; Lathyrus then retired to Cyprus, and held the island as an independent kingdom for 18 years, B.C. 107-89, during which time Cleopatra and Alexander reigned in Egypt. We read that at this period an army of 30,000 men was raised in Cyprus to oppose Alexander Jannæus, King of Palestine, and the fact that so large

an army could be raised for foreign service shows that the population was then very large. When Lathyrus was recalled by the Alexandrians to Egypt, his younger brother Ptolemy Alexander, in the hope of becoming master of the island, invaded it, but was defeated by Chareas, and killed in the battle.

While Ptolemy Auletes occupied the throne of Egypt, his brother, another Ptolemy, was King of Cyprus; during his reign Publius Clodius Pulcher, a Roman of high family, was taken prisoner by Cilician pirates in the waters of Cyprus, and it is said that an insufficient ransom was offered by Ptolemy, whose character for avarice was well known. Clodius was afterwards chosen Tribune, and being anxious to revenge himself upon the King of Cyprus, obtained a decree from the Roman Senate to dispossess Ptolemy, and to constitute his kingdom a province of Rome, the claim being pretended to be founded upon a will of Alexander, late King of Egypt, who made the Roman people his heirs.

Unjust decree
of the Roman
Senate.

Marcus Cato was commanded to put this decree in force, and despite his objection to such an unwarrantable act of aggression and spoliation, he was compelled to obey. He sent his secretary, Candidius, to Cyprus to deliver the decree, to which Ptolemy submitted, and soon afterwards committed suicide (B.C. 58). Cato took possession of the island, also the immense treasures in the palace at Salamis, which amounted to 7,000 talents, and sent the money to Rome. Thus ended the Ptolemaic dynasty in Cyprus.

From this time the island became a Roman province, and was annexed to Cilicia under one pro-consul, but it had a quæstor of its own, and separate courts for the administration of justice. In B.C. 47, Cæsar gave the island to Arsinoë and Ptolemy, the sister and brother of Cleopatra, and Strabo tells us that Antony afterwards gave it to Cleopatra, but after the battle of Actium and the death of the Triumvir, Augustus Cæsar revoked the gift, and at the division of the provinces between the empire and the senate in B.C. 27, it was constituted an imperial province; five years later, however, it was given up by Augustus to the senate, and was from that time governed by prætors, with the title of Pro-consul.

Cyprus be-
comes a
Roman Pro-
vince.

In A.D. 45, the island was visited by Paul and Barnabas, and the pro-consul Sergius Paulus was converted. Cyprus was therefore the first country governed by a Christian ruler.

Christianity
introduced.

The next remarkable event in the history of the island was an insurrection in A.D. 115, on the part of the Jews, who formed a very considerable portion of the population; led by Arteminitus, they massacred a vast number of Greeks, and it is said that before the suppression of the revolt by Lucius two years later, no less than a quarter of a million of the inhabitants were slain. By a decree of the Senate, the Jews were then expelled from the island, and for several centuries subsequently it is stated that any Jew found in Cyprus was instantly executed.

Insurrection
of the Jews.

Christianity now rapidly increased in the island, 13 bishoprics were established, and under Constantine this province became one of the richest in the Roman Empire.

Progress of
Christianity.

A futile attempt of the camel-driver Calocerus to make himself King of Cyprus in A.D. 334, was frustrated by Dalmatius, who captured the ambitious aspirant, and had him executed at Tarsus.

Cyprus becomes part of the Byzantine Empire.

In A.D. 365, at the division of the Roman Empire, Cyprus, with the adjacent countries, naturally passed under the Eastern or Byzantine emperors; it remained in their possession for about 300 years, and despite several attempts of the Arabs to conquer it, enjoyed comparative tranquillity. During this period the island was governed by a "Consularis" and the capital was transferred from Paphos to Salamis.

Arab invasion.

In A.D. 648, the island was invaded by the Arabs under Moavyah, a general of the Caliph Othman, who destroyed Salamis, and gained temporary possession of the island, but two years later it was recovered by the Greek Emperor.

Conquest by the Saracens.

Again, about the year A.D. 802, during the reign of the Caliph Haroun-el-Rashid, Cyprus was conquered by the Saracens, and was this time held by them for about 160 years; for not until A.D. 964, through the conquests of Nicephorus II, was it regained by the Byzantine Empire.

Regained by the Byzantine Empire.

For some time afterwards the history of the island is without particular interest, but we find that its governors occasionally took advantage of the oft-recurring weakness or necessities of the empire to endeavour to make themselves independent, but these revolts were never successful, until in A.D. 1184, Isaac Comnenus, then Governor or "Duke" of Cyprus, a nephew of the reigning Greek Emperor Andronicus Comnenus, entirely threw off the yoke, established himself as an independent sovereign, with the title of Emperor, and ruled the island with a severe and despotic authority.

Richard I. of England visits Cyprus.

Shortly afterwards a new page opened in the history of Cyprus, and as it is one in which England took part, the events of this period are related with more detail than hitherto. In the year 1191, we find King Richard I. of England on his journey from Messina to St. Jean d'Acre, where he had appointed to meet King Philip of France, and to co-operate with him in the third crusade. On the fourth day of the voyage, a violent storm came on from the south, which dispersed the fleet, and the King reached Rhodes with difficulty. Three of his largest ships were driven upon the south coast of Cyprus, and the crews and soldiers were robbed, maltreated, and thrown into prison at Limasol. The ship which contained King Richard's sister, Queen Dowager of Sicily, and his *fiancée*, Berengaria, daughter of the King of Navarre, was driven by the storm towards Limasol, and gained the roads, but was refused entrance to the port, and had to anchor in the open roadstead.

Treachery of Isaac Comnenus.

Isaac Comnenus arrived that day at Limasol, and tried to entice the royal ladies to come on shore; but they, suspecting treachery and violence, refused the invitation, which was vehemently repeated, and again declined; preparations were made to seize the ship, which was consequently obliged to set sail, and shortly fell in with King Richard and the remainder of the fleet.

The Anglo-Norman army invades Cyprus.

Provoked by Isaac's conduct, and refusal to give up the prisoners, or to water the fleet, Richard determined to disembark a portion of his force at Limasol and take vengeance. He

found the way &
the wrong way
to a place where
he had been
imprisoned
informed
and
1983. He
had
been
young
before
the war
and
he
was
a
man
of
many
years.

Capture of
the fortresses.

the strong castles in the north of the island, which would otherwise form places of refuge for the few Greeks who had not surrendered. Richard, being detained by illness at Nicosia, intrusted this task to Guy de Lusignan, who was a prominent figure in all the operations of the conquest of Cyprus. The castle of Cerinea was the first attacked, it soon capitulated, and Isaac's wife, daughter, and treasures fell into the hands of the English. Lusignan then marched against Fort St. Hilarion, which, after a brave resistance, was also forced to capitulate. Shortly afterwards the castles of Buffavento and Kantara opened their gates to Richard himself, and the subjugation of the island was then complete.

King Richard
leaves Cyprus.

Richard was now able to turn his thoughts to his neglected crusade; he returned to Limasol and sent Isaac's daughter, with his own wife and sister, on before him to St. Jean d'Acre. On the 5th June, 1191, Richard himself sailed from Cyprus, leaving the island in charge of Richard de Canville and Robert de Turnham, with injunctions to keep the army in Syria well provided with provisions.

Isaac was placed in silver fetters and taken with King Richard to Syria, where he was handed over to the Hospitallers, since Knights of Rhodes, for safe custody, and was by them confined in the castle of Margat near Tripoli, where he died shortly afterwards.

Several insurrections subsequently occurred in Cyprus, but were all suppressed by the decision and prompt action of Robert de Turnham.

Sale of
Cyprus to the
Templars.

The Templars now entered into negotiations with King Richard for the purchase of Cyprus, and they eventually obtained it from him for the sum of 100,000 Saracenic golden besants, it was further arranged that 40,000 besants should be paid at once, and the remainder as soon as it could be derived from the revenues of the island.*

Guy de Lu-
signan pur-
chases Cyprus.

The Templars ruled Cyprus for a time with a heavy hand, and their government became highly unpopular amongst the inhabitants, who continued in a perpetual state of revolt, causing so much annoyance and trouble to their masters, that in May 1192, the Templars, finding that the popular feeling was entirely beyond their control, were compelled to entreat King Richard to take back the island, and they begged that the price which they had paid for it might be returned to them. Richard expressed his willingness to take over the island, but refused to return the 40,000 besants. King Guy de Lusignan now came forward, and, having arranged with the Templars that in the event of his being made King of Cyprus, he would refund to them what they had paid, went to Richard, and asked him for the island as compensation for the loss of the crown of Jerusalem, engaging also to pay the same sum that the Templars had agreed to. This offer was accepted and Guy intrusted to his chancellor, Pierre d'Engoulesme, Bishop of

* To estimate the relative value of this payment, the golden besant may be taken as equivalent to about 9 fr. 50 cent., so the sum was about 950,000 francs, which in the present day would be worth about eight times as much, so that the price may be considered to be about £804,000 sterling. See "L'Histoire de L'Ile de Chypre," by M. L. De Mas Latrie, vol. ii, page 7 (note).

Tripoli, the task of raising the money. The sum of 60,000 besants was collected by means of loans from the citizens of Tripoli, and from the Genoese, and was paid by Guy to Richard, who asked for the remaining 40,000 besants, but Guy then pleaded poverty, and it is stated that the English King did not urge this claim further.*

Guy de Lusignan at once took possession of the island (May, 1192) but it appears, according to De Mas Latrie, that he never actually assumed the title of King of Cyprus. His reign was but short, lasting only one year and eleven months, but from all accounts he governed wisely and restored order and tranquillity in the island. One of his first measures was the introduction of a feudal system, and he endowed with portions of land, according to rank, about 300 knights and 200 esquires, who formed the nucleus of the nobility and privileged bodies in Cyprus.

The Lusignan
dynasty.

Guy was succeeded by his son Amaury de Lusignan. The following table gives the names, titles, and the duration of the reign of the Lusignan Kings of Cyprus.

* Some English historians have stated that King Richard gave Cyprus to Guy de Lusignan without payment, but De Mas Latrie considers this a mistake, and supports his account of the sale by documentary evidence. See "L'Histoire de L'Ile de Chypre," vol. i, page 37 (note), vol. ii, page 21, and vol. iii, page 594.

THE LUSIGNAN DYNASTY.

No.	NAME.	TITLE.	DATE.
1	Guy de Lusignan..	Ex-King of Jerusalem. First Latin Lord of Cyprus *	May, 1172 to April, 1194.
2	Amaury de Lusignan	King of Cyprus and King of Jerusalem †	April, 1194 to April, 1205.
3	Hugh I. de Lusignan	King of Cyprus ‡	April, 1205 to February, 1218.
4	Henri I. de Lusignan	King of Cyprus. Lord of the Kingdom of Jerusalem §	March, 1218 to January, 1253.
5	Hugh II. de Lusignan	"	January, 1253 to December, 1267.
6	Hugh III. d'Antioche-Lusignan	"	December, 1267 to March, 1284.
7	Jean I. de Lusignan	King of Cyprus and King of Jerusalem	March, 1284 to May, 1285.
8	Henri II. de Lusignan	King of Jerusalem and of Cyprus	May, 1285 to March, 1324.
9	Hugh IV. de Lusignan	"	March, 1324 to November, 1358.
10	Pierre I. de Lusignan	"	November, 1358 to January, 1369.
11	Pierre II. de Lusignan	"	January, 1369 to October, 1382.
12	Jacques I. de Lusignan	"	October, 1382 to September, 1398.
13	Janus de Lusignan	King of Jerusalem, of Cyprus, and of Armenia ¶	September, 1398 to June, 1432.
14	Jean II. de Lusignan	"	June, 1432 to July, 1458.
15	Jacques II. de Lusignan and Louis de Savoie	King and Queen of Jerusalem, Cyprus, and Armenia	July, 1458 to September, 1460.
16	Charlotte de Lusignan..	King and Queen of Jerusalem, Cyprus, and Armenia	September, 1460 to July, 1473.
17	Catherine Cornaro and Jacques III. de Lusignan **	King and Queen of Jerusalem, Cyprus, and Armenia	July, 1473 to February, 1489.

* Guy de Lusignan only took the title of Lord of Cyprus, but having been King of Jerusalem, was called King Guy.

† Amaury de Lusignan took the title of King of Jerusalem in 1197.

‡ From 1205 to 1210, the kingdom of Jerusalem was governed by the princes of the house of Ibelin; afterwards Jean de Brienne, on his marriage with Marie de Montferat, took the title of King of Jerusalem, and in 1236 it was assumed by the Emperor Frederic II.

§ On the death of Frederic II, the court of Rome confirmed the right of his son Conrad II. to the throne of Syria, and gave the title of Lord of the Kingdom of Jerusalem to the King of Cyprus.

|| In April 1268, the title of King of Jerusalem was conferred upon Hugh III. by the high court of St. Jean d'Acre.

¶ Jacques I. assumed the title of King of Armenia as soon as the death of King Leon VI. on 20th November, 1398, became known. The title appears in acts of 1395, showing that writers who state that Janus was the first King of Cyprus and Armenia are mistaken, for Janus only came to the throne in 1398.

** Jacques III. was born 27th August, 1473, and died at Famagusta, 28th August 1474, after which date his mother Catherine Cornaro, widow of Jacques II., reigned alone until 1489, when Cyprus was annexed by the Venetian republic.

There is but little of historical importance to relate concerning the three centuries during which Cyprus was ruled by the Lusignan dynasty: internal tranquillity, a state of affairs which had hitherto been almost unknown in the island, prevailed throughout nearly the whole period, with the two exceptions mentioned below, and consequently the kingdom was generally in a flourishing condition; at the same time some distinction was gained against the Arabs and Turks. In 1372, an untoward incident occurred; Pierre II was then King of Cyprus, and whilst he was entertaining several Genoese and Venetian grandees on a festival day, a quarrel with regard to precedence arose, and was decided by the King against the former. It is said that the Genoese then plotted against the King's life, and that their intentions being discovered, it was ordered that all the Genoese subjects in the kingdom should be put to death. This monstrous command was only too faithfully obeyed, and the Republic of Genoa, in order to avenge the murder of her citizens, despatched at once a considerable fleet to Cyprus under the command of Admiral Pietro Fregoso, who, after several engagements, took Famagusta in 1378, and carried off Jacopo Lusignan, the King's uncle, and Lieutenant-Governor of the island. The Genoese continued to hold and garrison Famagusta, strongly fortifying the city in order to ensure their grasp on the island, and they exercised supremacy there for no less than ninety years, when King Jacques II., with the aid of the Egyptians, retook the place.

Cyprus under
the Lusig-
nans.

Capture of
Famagusta
by the
Genoese.

In 1425, Cyprus was invaded by an Egyptian force which first took Larnaca, then Limasol, and subsequently ravaged almost the whole island. King Janus was carried off a prisoner to the Sultan at Cairo, but after paying a ransom, and promising that Cyprus should send an annual tribute to Egypt, he was liberated, and allowed to return to his kingdom as the lieutenant of the Sultan.*

Cyprus be-
comes tribu-
tary to Egypt.

King Janus died in 1432; he was succeeded by his son Jean II., who married Helena Paleologos, niece of the Emperor of Constantinople, and their daughter, Carlotta, was now the only legitimate descendant of the Lusignans. King Jean, however, left a natural son, named Jacques, who was Archbishop of Cyprus. Carlotta, on the death of her father in 1458, became Queen of Cyprus; she had married, first, one of the sons of the King of Portugal, and secondly, Louis de Savoie, who, with her, governed Cyprus under the titles of King and Queen of Jerusalem, Cyprus, and Armenia. Their reign was, however, but short, for in September 1460, Jacques, "Le Batard," who was a man of great ability, and highly popular with the Cypriotes, headed a revolt against their authority, seized Nicosia, the capital, and then with the assistance of the Sultan of Egypt, forced the King and Queen to fly from the island; he was immediately proclaimed King, with the title of Jacques II., and before dismissing the Egyptian troops, he captured Famagusta from the Genoese. This exploit greatly increased his popularity amongst

Usurpation of
the throne by
Jacques Le
Batard.

* An interesting account of this Egyptian invasion is to be found in a document contained in De Mas Latrie's History of Cyprus, vol. ii, page 506-514; it was written by Khalil Bhaheer, the Sultan's vizier.

the natives, to whom the presence of foreign troops holding one of their chief cities had been very galling.

Thus Queen Charlotte was the last legitimate successor of the Lusignan Kings; she became a widow in 1482, and abdicated in favour of her nephew Charles I, Duke of Savoy, on the 25th February, 1485*; she died at Rome on the 16th July, 1487.†

Alliance with
Venice, and
marriage of
King Jacques.

King Jacques II, in order to strengthen his position, allied himself with the Venetian Republic, and, in 1472, married Catherine Cornaro, a daughter of one of the noblest Venetian houses. This union was fated to last but a very short time, for in July 1473 King Jacques died, leaving Catherine to direct the kingdom in the interest of their unborn heir. Two months later Catherine gave birth to a son, who received his father's name, and was crowned King Jacques III., but in August, 1474, this infant king died, and Catherine then reigned alone for about fifteen years.

The Cornaro
family.

To show clearly how Cyprus now passed from the Lusignan dynasty under the rule of the Venetian Republic, it is necessary to give a short history of the Cornaro‡ family.

This family (now extinct) was among the oldest of the Venetian nobility; established at first at Padua, it gradually acquired both riches and influence, and, since the fourteenth century, had constantly several of its members in the senate, and holding various high offices. Of the numerous branches which sprang from the original stock, two are famous in history: the first of these were the owners of Piskopi in Cyprus, and were generally called Cornaro Piscopia; this family lived in Venice in the palace Saint Luc (now the property of the Campagna Peccana family), here Frederic Cornaro received King Pierre II of Cyprus, when he visited Venice in 1365 and 1368, and, as a Cypriote landowner, he advanced 60,000 ducats to the King for war expenses; this branch became extinct at the end of the sixteenth, or the commencement of the seventeenth century. The second branch, the Cornaro *della ca§ grande* or *della regina* (also sometimes called Cornaro de Saint Cassien), is that from which Catherine Cornaro, Queen of Cyprus, is descended. This family had two palaces in Venice, the Saint Paul, now called Mocenigo-Corner, and the Saint Cassien. Queen Catherine after her abdication of the crown of Cyprus and subsequent return to Venice, always lived in the latter palace, which, rebuilt in the sixteenth century by Sansovino, has retained the name of Palazzo della ca grande.

According to the tables drawn up by Capellari, and now kept at Venice, the following is the genealogical tree of Queen Catherine of Cyprus.

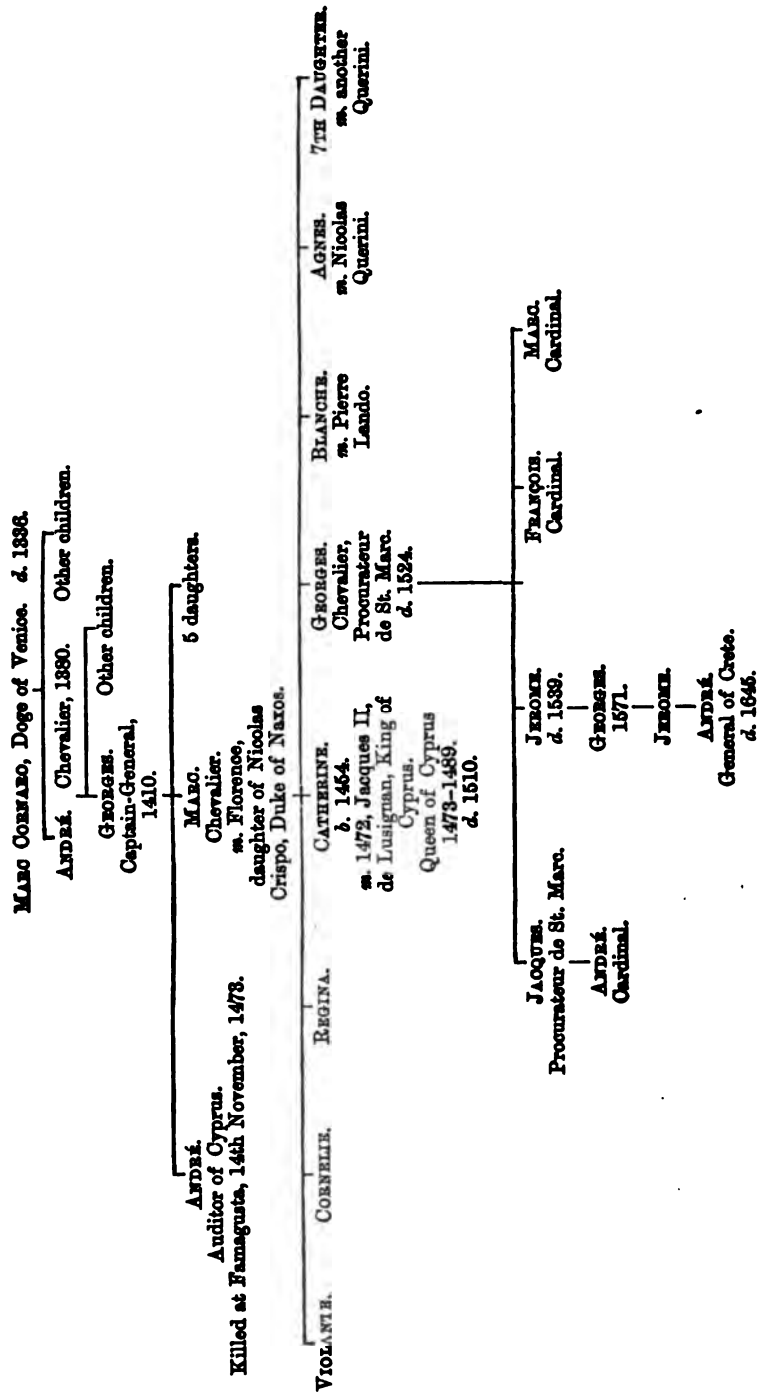
* M. De Mas Latrie in his *Histoire de L'Ile de Chypre*, vol. iii. page 557-589, publishes a series of documents showing the continuance of the pretensions of the Princes of Savoy to the crown of Cyprus, after the island had been taken by the Turks, and the recognition of their rights by the European powers.

† Several persons claim to be the descendants of the Lusignan family; amongst them are two brothers, the elder, Guy de Lusignan, bears the titles of Prince Royal of Cyprus, Jerusalem, and Armenia, and now lives in Paris; the younger, Korene Nar-Bey Lusignan, is Archbishop of Beshiktash-Constantinople: their uncle, Louis de Lusignan, lives at St. Petersburg.

‡ Cornaro is the Italian form, but the popular and truly Venetian name is *Corner*.

§ The Venetian word *ca* is merely an abbreviation of the Tuscan *casa*.

FAMILY OF CORNARO DELLA CA GRANDE, OR DELLA REGINA.



The last descendant of the family of Queen Catherine of Cyprus, and the last direct representative of the Cornaro house, was M. Catherino Corner, who died at the beginning of this century. He bequeathed the splendid Saint Cassien Palace to Pope Pius VII, who united it to the pontifical property. Gregory VII gave it to the Abbés Cavagnis, who afterwards ceded it to the Venetian municipality, and it is now the "Mont de Piété" of Venice.

The Venetian Republic gradually acquires supremacy in Cyprus.

As soon as the fact of King Jacques II's death was known in Venice, the Senate of that city began to interest itself in the affairs of Cyprus, and on the 22nd August, 1473, Captain General Pierre Mocenigo was ordered to take the fleet of the Republic at once to Cyprus "in order to watch over the security of the Queen and the country;" and on the 2nd September, the Senate wrote to the Queen assuring her of the goodwill of Venice, promising protection in all eventualities, and informing her that Mocenigo had been ordered to leave at least five galleys in the port of Famagusta at her disposal. It appears that eight galleys were left, and the crews maintained at the expense of the republic, but on the 7th November, the Queen was asked to provide them with bread. On the 14th November, 1473, André Cornaro, Auditor of Cyprus, and uncle of the Queen, was murdered at Famagusta, and then Mocenigo received fresh orders from Venice, dated 20th December, 1473, to watch over all the affairs of Cyprus, to maintain the Queen and her infant son in possession of the throne, to prevent the establishment of any foreign power in the island, and to occupy all the strong places. On the 6th January, 1474, all the Venetian cavalry and infantry in Cyprus were placed under the command of the proveditor Jacques Marcello, and by degrees, having occupied with their troops all the fortresses, having exiled all their chief opponents, and calmed the popular feeling, the Venetian Republic acquired complete ascendancy in the island.

On the 28th March, 1474, the Senate decided that forthwith two Venetian counsellors and one proveditor should reside in Cyprus, to assist the Queen in the government and to command the forces of the Republic. François Minio and Louis Gabriel, were the counsellors, and Jean Soranzo, the proveditor first elected; minute instructions were given to them regarding the management of the revenue, the general government of the country, and the armament of the fortresses.

From August, 1474, when the infant King Jacques III died, the island though nominally ruled by Queen Catherine, was, for all practical purposes, entirely under Venetian authority, and no order of any importance could be enacted by the Queen, until it had received the approbation of the republic or the counsellors. Matters continued so until 1488, when, in consequence of the war with the Turks, the Republic of Venice determined to take full possession of Cyprus, the Senate considering the island valuable not only as regards commerce, but as a good naval and military station, and further, as the most favourable position from which to threaten and annoy the southern Ottoman provinces, and to maintain friendly relations with the Persians, whose co-operation was of great importance. Accordingly Georges Cornaro, brother of the

Queen, was sent by the Senate to Cyprus to beg Catherine to resign the crown and leave the island. He was authorized to point out that if she would not consent to this step, the Senate would be obliged to resort to measures of compulsion; the mission appears, however, to have been executed with considerable tact, and was completely successful, for in a very short time the Queen signified her assent to the proposal. Navagiero relates that the formal abdication, and the erection of the banner of Saint Maro, took place at Famagusta on the 26th February, 1489, in the presence of François de Priuli, Captain-General of the Venetian fleet, and that the Queen soon afterwards left the island for Venice.

Abdication of
Queen Ca-
therine in
favour of
Venice.

The new government of Cyprus was at once instituted; the administration consisted of a Lieutenant, with the title of Viceroy of Cyprus, assisted by two counsellors (who with the Lieutenant formed the Privy Council), and a Captain, who was called Captain of Cyprus, or Captain of the Kingdom, and who added to his other duties, the function of Proveditor.

Cyprus under
Venetian rule.

To these officials the entire direction of the government, of justice, of finance, and of the army was intrusted, save only the legislative authority and right of appeal, which was reserved to the metropolitan. The Lieutenant was never kept in office more than two years, and between 1489 and 1571, when the Turks obtained possession of the island, no less than 46 Venetian nobles held the post. The first Lieutenant was François Barbarigo, appointed in 1489, and the last, Sebastian Venier, appointed in 1569, who was to have been succeeded by Daniel Barbarigo, Duke of Candia, but before the latter left Venice to assume the vice-royalty, the news of the loss of the island was received by the Senate at Venice.

During the Venetian rule the island was divided into eleven districts, some governed by captains, others by "civitains;" the towns of Nicosia and Famagusta were placed under Cypriote Viscounts (Sheriffs) as in the time of the Lusignans. The districts were—Baffo, Avdimu, Limasol, Mazoto, Saline, Viscontado, Messaria, Carpasso, Cerinea, Pentagia, and Khrysokho.

A detailed report, compiled at the end of the fifteenth century, and containing statistical information concerning the population, the number of villages, the amount of the harvests, the products of the island, the incomes of the chief landowners, the possessions of the clergy, and the public lands in Cyprus at this date, is contained in M. De Mas Latrie's "*Histoire de L'Ile de Chypre*," vol. iii, page 493.

There is but little of importance or of general interest to relate concerning the period during which the Venetians ruled over Cyprus; the Lieutenants succeeded one another far too quickly to organise and establish alterations and improvements, or indeed to acquire even a sufficient knowledge of the necessities of the country, and an interest in its welfare. Once only, however, did the Greek population rebel; in 1546, an attempt was made to recall remembrances of ancient Greece, and the inhabitants combined to effect a change of masters; the Venetian government acted promptly, and soon stifled the insurrectionary feeling, the leader, Jacques Le Cretois, called the Didascalos, paid with his life for his ambitious project.

During the Venetian occupation the island was visited by several calamities. In 1492 and 1542, immense destruction was caused by violent earthquakes. In 1544, the locusts were so numerous that all the crops were destroyed, and for two years the inhabitants had to be fed by provisions imported from other countries. In 1574 the rainfall was so great that the Messaria plain became a lake, and no crops whatever could be grown. More than once pirates entered the ports, and ravaged the adjoining towns with impunity.

The tenure of Cyprus by the Venetians may be described as simply a military occupation, and as no measures for its proper maintenance were taken, the prosperity of the island visibly declined throughout the whole period; trade languished, manufactures almost ceased, landowners abandoned their property, schools closed, the population emigrated, cultivation was neglected, the streams were allowed to overflow and form infectious marshes, and the national wealth rapidly diminished.*

Cyprus
threatened by
Turkey.

But the greatest calamities that threatened Cyprus were the increasing power of the Turks, and the advance that they were making both in Asia and Africa, so we now pass on the time at which they invaded and obtained possession of the island.

It appears that after the subjugation of Egypt by the Sultan Selim I in 1517, the tribute which, since 1425, had been regularly paid by Cyprus to the King of Egypt, was then annually sent to the Sultan of Turkey instead, and with this arrangement the old chroniclers say that "they (the Turks) held themselves well contented." Solyman the Great, was, however, succeeded on the 25th September, 1566, by the ignoble and degenerate Selim II, to whom his own national historians give the epithet of "the fool," and in 1570, the self-willed cupidity and violence of this prince, involved the Porte in a war with Venice for the acquisition of Cyprus, the possession of which island Selim had coveted, whilst he was governor of Kutahia in his father's lifetime.†

At this time a treaty of peace existed between the Porte and Venice, but Selim, endeavouring to satisfy his conscience with regard to the proposed act of aggression, obtained from his Mufti, Ebousououd, a fetva authorising him to attack Cyprus, in open violation of the treaty.

The island had, as we have seen, been at one time under Mahometan rulers, and the Turkish authorities now proclaimed, and acted upon the principle, that the sovereign of Islam may at any time break a treaty for the sake of reconquering from the mis-believers, a country which has formerly belonged to the territory of Islam.‡ The Grand Vizier, Sokolli, earnestly, but vainly opposed the war against Venice, his influence being counteracted by the suggestions of Lala Moustapha, who encouraged Selim in his project.

* See De Mas Latrie's "Histoire de L'Ile de Chypre," vol. iii, page 823. Other authors use by no means such forcible language to describe the faults of the Venetian administration, and in some respects they are even able to award praise.

† It is said that Selim found the attractions of Cyprus wine irresistible, and a Jew called Joseph Nassy, who was his favourite, first gave him the idea that he should make himself master of the island.

‡ Von Hammer's "History of the Ottoman Empire" (German 2nd edition), vol. ii, page 402, and Sir E. Creasy. "History of the Ottoman Turks," page 217.

Hostilities were commenced in February 1570, when an army was sent into Epirus, and to the frontiers of Dalmatia to overrun Venetian territory, and to attract the attention of the Republic away from Cyprus; and further, in the middle of April, a fleet of 80 galleys and 30 galliots, under Piali Pasha, was sent to sea to prevent aid being despatched from Venice to Cyprus, and to secure the uninterrupted of the invasion of the Island. Lala Moustapha was given command of the expedition against Cyprus, and on the 26th May, 1570, he, accompanied by Haly Pasha, sailed from Constantinople; at Rhodes he was joined by Piali Pasha, and the combined fleets amounted to 200 galleys, with numerous galliots, horse transports, &c.,

Commencement of hostilities.

On the 1st July, this fleet cast anchor in the roadstead of Limasol, and the disembarkation of the troops was, owing to the negligence and incapacity of Nicholas Dandalo, who commanded the Venetian force on the spot, effected without opposition or loss; the fort of Leftari, near Limasol, also surrendered at the first summons. The Turkish army now entrenched itself, and a council of war was held to determine whether Famagusta or Nicosia should be the next object of attack. The great heat, and the unhealthy situation of the former town at this time of year, caused the decision to be in favour of an advance against Nicosia, which was the capital of the island, and centrally situated.

Invasion of Cyprus by the Turks and capture of Limasol.

Nicosia was then strongly fortified; the old defences had been only recently demolished by the Venetians; new and strong walls, having a circuit of three miles, had just been constructed, and the place converted into a regular fortress with eleven bastions and three gates; the walls were defended by 250 pieces of artillery.*

The garrison appears to have consisted of from 8,000 to 10,000 men; of which number, 3,000 were Venetians, 2,500 native militia, 1,500 Italians, 1,000 nobles of Nicosia, together with Albanians and others.†

On the 22nd July, Lala Moustapha reached the neighbourhood of Nicosia, and encamped his army within one and a half miles of the walls. It is reported that he had with him 2,500 cavalry, and 50,000 infantry, with which force he commenced a regular siege of the fortress, the troops constructing trenches and batteries with the greatest activity. The operations of this siege, which lasted seven weeks, are well described by Knolles in his "General History of the Turks," page 848. At the beginning of September, the investing army received a reinforcement of 20,000 sailors and marines, sent by Piali Pasha from the Turkish fleet, and on the 9th of that month an assault was ordered, the attack being chiefly directed upon the Podocataro, Costanza and Tripoli bastions.

Siege of Nicosia.

The struggle was long and sanguinary, but in the end the superior numbers of the besiegers prevailed, and the gallant defenders were forced back from the walls; the Turks then entered the city, and for eight days murder and pillage reigned supreme. It is said that 14,866 of the garrison and inhabitants

Capture of Nicosia.

* The fortifications of Nicosia are further described in Chapter III.

† See Von Hammer, French edition, vol. vi, page 408.

perished on the 9th September, and that altogether 20,000 were killed, and 2,000 youths and girls taken away as slaves.

Siege of
Famagusta.

Operation de-
ferred until
the following
year.

Lala Moustapha, leaving a garrison under Mousaffer Pacha in Nicosia, marched immediately with the rest of his army to Famagusta, arriving before the walls of that town on the 18th September, 1570; he at once constructed a redoubt from which an artillery fire was kept up against both the town and the port. The defenders, commanded by Marc Antonio Bragadino, made several brave sorties, and showed the Turks by their energetic defence that a speedy capitulation need not be expected. Lala Moustapha therefore shortly withdrew the greater part of his troops from the siege works, and retired for the winter into quarters in the villages round Famagusta, which town he, however, still endeavoured to invest in order to prevent the arrival of reinforcements or supplies.

Siege and cap-
ture of Fama-
gusta.

On the 23rd January, 1571, the Venetian fleet under Marc Antonius Quirini, succeeded in eluding the vigilance of the Turks, and brought into Famagusta 1,600 men, and a quantity of provisions and warlike stores.

When the winter was over, Lala Moustapha advanced his forces nearer to Famagusta; on the 16th April he reviewed his whole army, and then at once resumed his siege works with surprising activity.

Bragadino, on his side, organized a strong defence, and his brave personal example inspired the whole garrison with a firm determination to hold their fortress to the very last extremity. The frequent assaults delivered by the Turks are well described in Knolles' work, page 863; the siege continued through the months of May, June, and July, the garrison fighting desperately against the overwhelming strength of the besiegers.*

At last provisions became scarce, and on August 1st, negotiations were entered into, and a capitulation was signed under the following conditions, viz.; that the garrison should march out with their arms, five guns, and the horses of the commanders, and should be conveyed to Candia in the ships, and at the expense of the Turks; that the inhabitants should be free to quit the town and take their property, and that those who preferred to remain should be unmolested, both as regards their persons and their goods.

Torture and
murder of
Bragadino.

Accordingly, after a lapse of three days, Famagusta was evacuated, and on the 5th August, Bragadino presented himself in the Turkish camp accompanied by his chief commanders, Baglioni, Quirini and others, with an escort of 40 men. Lala Moustapha in the course of the discussion which ensued, made some complaints concerning the details of the capitulation, and becoming angry at the answers which he received, ended by making prisoners of the whole party. Baglioni, Quirini, and the other officers were at once put to death, but Bragadino, the hero of the defence of Famagusta, was reserved for gross indignities, with long and infamous tortures, under which he expired ten days later, having been at last flayed alive.

* Foglietta, and Contarini, give details concerning the assaults of the 21st and 20th of June, and of the 9th, 14th, 20th and 30th July.

The completion of the subjugation of the island was carried on by the Turks with frightful cruelty, although after the fall of Famagusta no further opposition was here offered on the part of the Venetians. A maritime league against the Turks was now formed by Pope Pius V, and joined by the Spaniards, Venetians, and Knights of Malta, by whom hostilities were continued in various places for some time; the battle of Lepanto was fought and gained by the confederate fleets, but at last Venice was compelled to sue for peace, and on the 7th March, 1573, a treaty was signed; it was then agreed that not only should the Sultan retain Cyprus, but that the Venetians should refund to the Porte the expenses of the conquest of the island, which were rated at 300,000 ducats. Venice now, of course, was no longer required to pay to Turkey the yearly tribute of 8,000 ducats for Cyprus.

Cyprus falls
under Turkish
rule.

Thus the island passed under Turkish rule.

The neglected state of Cyprus prior to the advent of the Turks has been already alluded to, but the ill-fated island was now doomed to fall into a far worse condition, and the mismanagement of a Turkish administration was soon demonstrated by a rapid decrease in the revenue. Proof of this is contained in an interesting document by Bernard Sangrado, contained in De Mas Latrie's *Histoire de L'Île de Chypre*, vol. iii, page 560, which compares the annual revenue and expenditure under the Venetians, with their amounts in the years 1575-85, during which period the Turks were in possession, and it shows a marked falling off under the new rule.

Government
of Cyprus by
the Turks.

There are scarcely any historical incidents of importance or interest to relate concerning Cyprus, during the three centuries that it has remained in the hands of the Turks, and almost the sole noticeable fact regarding the island is the ruin which has resulted from both neglect and oppressive despotism. We find that since the days of the Lusignans, not only has the population dwindled to less than half its former number, but that the baneful and paralysing influence of the Porte has extended over agriculture, commerce, and arts.

Districts which were once fertile and productive, are now either marked by traces of sterility, or, for want of culture, are overgrown with thorny plants, and other useless or noxious weeds. It need scarcely be said that the mineral wealth which, from all accounts, the island contains, has been allowed to lie unworked and unexplored. The forests, which in ancient days were famed throughout the world, have been not only uncared for, but even recklessly and wantonly cut down and destroyed, the result of which has been an evident deterioration of climate and increased frequency of droughts, causing both sanitary and agricultural mischief. With the decrease of the products of the island, trade also naturally declined; one instance only need here be given in support of this assertion; under the Venetian rule, (according to Mariti), as much as 6,600,000 lbs. of cotton were annually exported, but now the amount has dwindled down to about 500,000 lbs. and perhaps not more than a twentieth part of the cotton which the island is capable of producing is at present grown. Industry and manufactures are inconsiderable, and public works are entirely neglected.

Insurrection
of 1764.

The oppressive taxes and the arbitrary system of government caused an insurrection in 1764, which assumed serious dimensions, and the civil war which ensued lasted for two years.

Temporary
occupation of
Cyprus by
Egypt.

In July 1832, after the capture of Acre by Ibrahim Pacha, Cyprus was militarily occupied by Egypt, and was held by Mehemet Ali for about eight years; but this temporary cession was cancelled by a firman at the end of 1838, and in 1840 the island was returned to the Porte.

Turkish ad-
ministration.

It has been reported that since this period a more just and equitable system of government has been pursued, although there has still been room for much improvement; since 1840 the population has about doubled itself.

Until 1870, Cyprus was included in the "Vilayet of the Islands of the White Sea," but it was then formed into an independent Mutessariflik.

A firman concerning reforms was read in Cyprus after the accession of the Sultan Murad, but it is reported to have remained practically a dead letter, and to have in no way attracted the confidence or the enthusiasm of the people. The annoyances experienced by villagers at the hands of the zaptiehs with regard to the collection of taxes did not cease, and but little protection from over-exaction was secured to the inhabitants of the rural districts. A succession of bad harvests has lately caused an increase in the expenses of the island, for the government, on several occasions, has been obliged to supply food to a large number of poor people to keep them from starvation.

Transfer of
Cyprus to
Great
Britain.

The last, and most important, event in the History of Cyprus is the transfer of the island to England by a conditional Convention entered into by Great Britain and Turkey on the 4th June, 1878, the terms of which are as follow :—

"Convention of Defensive Alliance between Great Britain and Turkey, signed June 4, 1878.

"Her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Empress of India, and his Imperial Majesty the Sultan, being mutually animated with the sincere desire of extending and strengthening the relations of friendship happily existing between their two empires, have resolved upon the conclusion of a Convention of defensive alliance, with the object of securing for the future the territories in Asia of his Imperial Majesty the Sultan.

"Their Majesties have accordingly chosen and named as their Plenipotentiaries, that is to say :—

"Her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Empress of India, the Right Honourable Austen Henry Layard, her Majesty's Ambassador Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary at the Sublime Porte ;

"And His Imperial Majesty the Sultan, his Excellency Safvet Paasha, Minister for Foreign Affairs of his Imperial Majesty ;

"Who, after having exchanged their full powers, found in due and good form, have agreed upon the following articles :—

Article I.

"If Batoum, Ardahan, Kara, or any of them, shall be retained by Russia, and if any attempt shall be made at any future time by Russia to take possession of any further territories of his Imperial Majesty the Sultan in Asia,

as fixed by the definitive treaty of peace, England engages to join his Imperial Majesty the Sultan in defending them by force of Arms.

"In return his Imperial Majesty the Sultan promises to England to introduce necessary reforms, to be agreed upon later between the two Powers, into the Government, and for the protection, of the Christian and other subjects of the Porte in those territories, and in order to enable England to make necessary provision for executing her engagement his Imperial Majesty the Sultan further consents to assign the island of Cyprus to be occupied and administered by England.

Article II.

"The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications thereof shall be exchanged, within the space of one month, or sooner if possible.

"In witness whereof the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seal of their arms.

"Done at Constantinople, the fourth day of June, in the year one thousand eight hundred and seventy-eight.

(L.S.)
(L.S.)

"A. H. LAYARD.
"SAFFET."

This conditional convention having been entered into in the view of the possible retention by Russia of a portion of the Asiatic territories of the Porte, and as, by the articles of the Berlin Congress, the condition upon which it was founded became fulfilled,* a firman was at once issued by the Porte authorizing the transfer of Cyprus to England, and measures were at once taken to occupy the island, and to administer the government on behalf of Her Majesty, Queen Victoria.

Occupation
by British
troops.

The following correspondence respecting the convention has since taken place, and is inserted, as it explains several points in the first document.

"No. 1.

"*Mr. Layard to the Marquis of Salisbury.*—(Received May 29).
"(Telegraphic.)

"Constantinople, May 29, 1878.

"Grand Vizier begs you to consent to an Annex providing that a Mussulman religious tribunal may be maintained in Cyprus, which will exclusively take cognizance of religious matters (this will create a very good impression upon Mussulman population there and elsewhere); and that surplus of revenue over expenditure should be paid in the form which the Porte will submit to me."

"No. 2.

"*Mr. Layard to the Marquis of Salisbury.*—(Received May 30).
"(Telegraphic.)

"Constantinople, May 30, 1878.

The Annex proposed includes three points—viz., the Mussulman tribunal referred to in my telegram of yesterday; that average be taken of the mass of

* Article 58 of the Treaty of Berlin, signed on the 13th July, 1878, is as follows:—
"The Sublime Porte cedes to the Russian Empire in Asia, the territories of Ardahan, Kars, and Batoum, together with the latter port, as well as all the territories comprised between the ancient Russo-Turkish frontier and the following line"—(The new frontier is then described).

revenue over expenditure during last five years to be paid by England to the Porte, but that, as the annual revenue of the island is increasing yearly, any excess over the average should be paid to the Porte; and that if Russia gives up Kars and her conquests in Armenia, Cyprus will be evacuated. I am already authorized to accede to last condition. I shall be glad to receive your Lordship's instructions as to the other points."

"No. 3.

"*The Marquis of Salisbury to Mr. Layard.*
"(Telegraphic.)

"Foreign Office, May 30, 1878.

"As England will probably spend the growing surplus in the improvement of the island, Her Majesty's Government cannot assent to second condition as it stands, but they have no objection to pay the average of the last five years' revenue."

"No. 4.

"*The Marquis of Salisbury to Mr. Layard.*
"(Telegraphic.)

"Foreign Office, May 30, 1878.

"You are authorized to consent to a Mussulman tribunal for the exclusive cognizance of Mussulman religious matters, but you should not bind Her Majesty's Government as to judicial institutions for persons not Mussulmans."

"No. 5.

"*Sir A. H. Layard to the Marquis of Salisbury.*—(Received June .)

"Therapia, June 7, 1878.

"My Lord,—I have the honour to enclose a draught of the conditions which the Grand Vizier requests may be inserted in the Annex to the Convention signed by Safvet Pasha and myself on the 4th inst. I have already acquainted your Lordship with the substance of these conditions by the telegraph, and am now waiting for your Lordship's instructions to agree to them.

"I have, &c.,

"A. H. LAYARD."

"Enclosure in No. 5.

"Annex.

"It is understood between the two high contracting parties that England agrees to the following conditions relating to her occupation and administration of the Island of Cyprus:—

"I. That a Mussulman religious tribunal (Méhkêmei Shéri) shall continue to exist in the island, which will take exclusive cognizance of religious matters, and of no others, concerning the Mussulman population of the island.

"II. That a Mussulman resident in the island shall be named by the Board of Pious Foundations in Turkey (Evkaf) to superintend, in conjunction with a delegate to be appointed by the British Authorities, the administration of

the property, funds, and lands belonging to mosques, cemeteries, Mussulman schools, and other religious establishments existing in Cyprus.

"III. That England will pay to the Porte whatever is the present excess of revenue over expenditure in the island; this excess to be calculated upon and determined by the average of the last five years, stated to be 22,938 purses, to be duly verified hereafter, and to the exclusion of the produce of State and Crown lands let or sold during that period.

"IV. That the Sublime Porte may freely sell and lease lands and other property in Cyprus belonging to the Ottoman Crown and State (Arazii Miriyé v6 Emlaki Houmayoun) the produce of which does not form part of the revenue of the island referred to in Article III.

"V. That the English Government, through their competent authorities, may purchase compulsorily, at a fair price, land required for public improvements, or for other public purposes, and land which is not cultivated.

"VI. That if Russia restores to Turkey Kars and the other conquests made by her in Armenia during the last war, the island of Cyprus will be evacuated by England, and the Convention of the 4th of June, 1878, will be at an end."

"No. 6.

"The Marquis of Salisbury to Sir A. H. Layard."*

"Berlin, June 17, 1878.

"Sir,—I have under my consideration the proposed Annex to the Convention enclosed in your despatch of the 7th inst., and I authorize your signing it with the following modifications:—Articles 3 and 4 must be so worded as to prevent the Porte from claiming as average revenue under the 3rd clause the yield of land which it has let or sold under the 4th.

"I prefer to omit Clause 5, as when published it may tend to frighten away capitalists who will not understand it. Surely, in the present condition of the Porte's finances, it is quite superfluous.

"Your Excellency should add a clause to this effect:—'The English Government may purchase compulsorily, at a fair price, land wanted for a public improvement, or land which is uncultivated.'

"I am, &c.,

"SALISBURY."

"No. 7.

*"Sir A. H. Layard to the Marquis of Salisbury.—(Received June 23).
"(Telegraphic.)"*

"Therapia, June 22, 1878.

"The Grand Vizier still wishes for a written engagement that if the Island of Cyprus is at any future time evacuated, England will not claim from Turkey compensation for public works and improvements."

"No. 8.

"The Marquis of Salisbury to Sir A. H. Layard."*

"Berlin, June 23, 1878.

"Sir,—The question of compensation for improvements and public works involves so many difficulties that I should not like to authorize you to sign an

* Substance telegraphed.

agreement without having the language carefully considered under legal advice. I do not object to the principle that the English Treasury shall not, on retrocession, ask from the Treasury at Constantinople compensation for money spent on improvements; but there are two classes of reservation which must be made, and could not be stated with precision by telegraph—i.e., where the improvements were in any shape yielding an annual revenue Her Majesty's Government should ask equivalent of revenue on retrocession; where private capitalists had advanced money, they must be compensated if they were interfered with. You may assure the Grand Vizier that Her Majesty's Government will make an agreement subsequently with him in that general sense, but its details must be carefully considered.

"I am, &c.,

"SALISBURY."

"No. 9.

"Sir A. H. Layard to the Marquis of Salisbury.—(Received June 24).

"(Telegraphic.)

"Therapia, June 24, 1878.

"Any agreement that you may propose with regard to claims for compensation for improvements in Cyprus will be willingly accepted if a draft is sent to me."

"No. 10.

"Sir A. H. Layard to the Marquis of Salisbury.—(Received June 26).

"(Telegraphic.)

"Therapia, June 25, 1878

"Safvet Pasha wishes, before signing Annex, to ascertain amount of excess of expenditure over revenue during last five years, and to insert it in the Annex. Orders have been given that the Firman for the surrender of Cyprus shall be prepared."

"No. 11.

"Mr. Secretary Cross to Sir A. H. Layard.

"(Telegraphic.)

"Foreign Office, July 13, 1878.

"You should tell the Grand Vizier that the wording of Article of the Annex as to money expended on improvements requires careful consideration, and probably some information as to the details, and that it is desirable to defer transmission of the article for a few days until the Cabinet can confer with Lord Salisbury on his return from Berlin."

Objects to be
attained by
the occupation
of Cyprus.

The reasons which caused her Majesty's Government to enter into this Convention of Defensive Alliance with the Porte are clearly set forth in a despatch from Lord Salisbury to Sir A. Layard, dated 30th May, 1878, which was laid before Parliament with the Convention itself, on the 8th July.

In this despatch Lord Salisbury says:—

"It is sufficiently manifest that, in respect to Batoum and the fortresses north of the Araxes, the Government of Russia is not prepared to recede from the stipulations to which the Porte has been led by the events of the war to consent. Her Majesty's Government have consequently been forced to consider the effect which these agreements, if they are neither annulled nor counteracted, will have upon the future of the Asiatic provinces of the Ottoman Empire and upon the interests of England, which are closely affected by the condition of those provinces.

"It is impossible that Her Majesty's Government can look upon these changes with indifference. . . . Even if it be certain that Batoum and Ardahan and Kars will not become the base from which emissaries of intrigue will issue forth, to be in due time followed by invading armies, the mere retention of them by Russia will exercise a powerful influence in disintegrating the Asiatic dominion of the Porte. As a monument of feeble defence on the one side, and successful aggression on the other they will be regarded by the Asiatic population as foreboding the course of political history in the immediate future, and will stimulate, by the combined action of hope and fear, devotion to the Power which is in the ascendant, and desertion of the Power which is thought to be falling into decay.

"It is impossible for Her Majesty's Government to accept, without making an effort to avert it, the effect which such a state of feeling would produce upon regions whose political condition deeply concerns the Oriental interests of Great Britain. . . . The only provision which can furnish a substantial security for the stability of Ottoman rule in Asiatic Turkey, and which would be as essential after the re-conquest of the Russian annexations as it is now, is an engagement on the part of a Power strong enough to fulfil it, that any further encroachments by Russia upon Turkish territory in Asia will be prevented by force of Arms. Such an undertaking, if given fully and unreservedly, will prevent the occurrence of the contingency which would bring it into operation, and will, at the same time, give to the populations of the Asiatic provinces the requisite confidence that Turkish rule in Asia is not destined to a speedy fall.

"There are, however, two conditions which it would be necessary for the Porte to subscribe before England could give such assurance.

"Her Majesty's Government intimated to the Porte, on the occasion of the Conference at Constantinople, that they were not prepared to sanction misgovernment and oppression, and it will be requisite, before they can enter into any agreement for the defence of the Asiatic territories of the Porte in certain eventualities, that they should be formally assured of the intention of the Porte to introduce the necessary reforms into the government of the Christian and other subjects of the Porte in these regions. It is not desirable to require more than an engagement in general terms, for the specific measures to be taken could only be defined after a more careful inquiry and deliberation than could be secured at the present juncture.

"It is not impossible that a careful selection and a faithful support of the individual officers to whom power is to be entrusted in those countries would be a more important element in the improvement of the condition of the people than even legislative changes, but the assurance required to give England a right to insist on satisfactory arrangements for these purposes will be an indispensable part of any agreement to which Her Majesty's Government could consent. It will further be necessary, in order to enable Her Majesty's Government efficiently to execute the engagements now proposed, that they should occupy a position near the coast of Asia Minor, and Syria. The proximity of British officers, and if necessary British troops, will be the best security that all the objects of this agreement shall be attained. The Island of Cyprus appears to them to be in all respects the most available for this object. Her Majesty's Government do not wish to ask the Sultan to alienate territory from his sovereignty, or to diminish the receipts which now pass into his treasury. They will, therefore, propose that while the administration and occupation of the island shall be assigned to Her Majesty, the territory shall still continue to be part of the Ottoman Empire, and that the excess of the revenue over the expenditure, whatever it at present may be, shall be paid over annually by the British Government to the treasury of the Sultan."

The policy of the Government with regard to the occupation of Cyprus, was further explained by the Earl of Beaconsfield in the House of Lords on Thursday, July 18th. After adverting to the secession of territory claimed by Russia in the Treaty of San Stefano, the Premier said: "It seemed to us that the time had come when we ought to consider whether certain efforts should not be made to put an end to these perpetually occurring wars between the Porte and Russia, ending, it may be, sometimes, apparently in comparatively insignificant results, but always terminating with one fatal result—namely, shaking to the centre the influence and the *prestige* of the Porte in Asia, and diminishing the means of profitably and advantageously governing that country the time had come when we ought to consider whether we could not do something which would improve the general condition of the dominions of the Sultan in Asia, and instead of these most favoured portions of the globe every year being in a more forlorn and disadvantageous position, whether it would not be possible to take some step which would secure at least tranquillity and order; and, when tranquillity and order were secured, whether some opportunity might not be given to Europe to develop the resources of a country which nature has made so rich and teeming Now this was the origin of that Convention at Constantinople which is on your Lordships' table, and in that Convention our object was not merely a military, or chiefly a military object. Our object was to place this country certainly in a position in which its advice, and in which its conduct might, at least, have the advantage of being connected with the military power, and with that force which it is necessary to possess often when any great transactions are upon the carpet Our object in entering into that engagement with Turkey was, as I said before, to produce tranquillity and order. We have, therefore, entered into an alliance—a defensive alliance—with Turkey, to guard her against any further attack from Russia. . . . In taking Cyprus, the movement is not Mediterranean; it is English. We have taken a step there which we think necessary for the maintenance of our Empire, and for its preservation in peace. If that be our first consideration, our next is the development of the country. . . . I only hope that the House will not misunderstand—and I think the country will not misunderstand—our motives in occupying Cyprus, and in encouraging those intimate relations with the Government and the population of Turkey. They are not movements of war: they are operations of peace and of civilisation."

Details of the
occupation.

The events of the British occupation have since followed one another in rapid succession; they may be briefly summed up as under:—

July 11th.—Mr. W. Baring, second secretary of H.M.'s Embassy at the Porte, arrived at Cyprus bearing the Sultan's firman, and took official possession of the island on behalf of Great Britain. At the same time, the cession was proclaimed by Samih Pasha, the representative of the Sultan.

July 12th—Lieutenant-General Sir Garnet Wolseley, G.C.M.G., K.C.B., gazetted to be the Administrator of the Island of Cyprus, under the style of H.M.'s High Commissioner and Commander-in-Chief. (Published in the Gazette of Tuesday, July 16th.)

The ceremonial of the surrender of Cyprus to Great Britain, was completed at Nicosia, the capital, by Admiral Lord John Hay, Acting Governor.

July 13th—Sir Garnet Wolseley, and Staff, left London for Cyprus.

July 17th—Sir Garnet Wolseley, and Staff, reached Malta on their way to Cyprus. Four hundred Indian troops from Malta disembarked at Larnaca, in Cyprus.

July 18th—Sir Garnet Wolseley, and the greater part of the British and Indian troops intended to form the Cyprus garrison, sailed from Malta.

July 22nd—Sir Garnet Wolseley landed at Larnaca, took the oaths of allegiance and of office, and assumed the government.

The British Garrison in Cyprus was composed as follows :

High Commissioner and Commander in Chief	Lieutenant-General Sir G. J. Wolseley, G.C.M.G., K.C.B.	Staff.*
Chief of the Staff Brevet Colonel G. R. Greaves, C.B. half-pay late 70th F.	
Assistant Military Secretary	Brevet Lieut.-Colonel B. C. Russell, C.B. 13th Hussars.	
Aides de Camp { Captain H. M'Calmont, 7th Hussars. Captain E. F. Lord Gifford 57th Regiment	
Brigadier General Major General W. Payn, C.B.	
Aide de Camp Lieut. G. Bourke, R.A.	
Brigade Major Captain H. J. T. Hildyard, 71st High. L.I.	
Assistant Adjutant and Quarter Master General	{ Brevet Lieut.-Colonel H. Brackenbury, R.A. Brevet Colonel Hon. J. C. Dormer h.p. late 13th L.I.	
Deputy Assistant Adjutant and Quarter Master Generals	{ Brevet Major Hon. H. J. L. Wood, 12th Lancers Captain R. C. Hare, 22nd Regiment.	
Specially employed { Brevet Colonel R. Biddulph, C.B. R.A. Captain J. F. Maurice, R.A. Captain J. T. Bury, R.A. Lieut. W. H. Holbech, 60th Rifles. Captain L. L. Swaine, R. Brigade.	
District Commissary General Deputy Commissary General A. W. Downes, C.B.	
Commissary (Ordnance) Commissary T. Sparkes.	
	31st Company, Royal Engineers.	British Troops.
	F Battery 2nd Brigade, Royal Artillery.	
	42nd Royal Highlanders.	Indian troops.
	71st Highland Light Infantry.	
	101st Royal Bengal Fusiliers.	
	Detachments of the Army Service and Army Hospital Corps.	
	2 Companies Bombay Sappers and Miners.	
	2 Companies Madras Sappers and Miners.	
	1st Bombay Lancers.	
	9th Bombay Native Infantry.	
	26th Bombay " "	
	13th Bengal " "	

* From the Army List of August, 1878.

31st Bengal Native Infantry.
2nd Goorhka Regiment.
25th Madras Native Infantry.

SUMMARY OF THE DATES OF THE CHIEF EVENTS IN THE HISTORY
OF CYPRUS

No exact dates with regard to the early colonization of Cyprus can be ascertained: Eratosthenes gives B.C. 1045, as the approximate date of the first Phœnician settlements, but the island was inhabited many centuries before this period.

- B.C. 1000. Revolt against the sovereignty of Hiram, King of Tyre.
 - " 707. Tribute paid to Sargon, King of Assyria, by the Cypriote Kings.
 - " 594. Invasion by Apries, King of Egypt.
 - " 550. Cyprus brought under Egyptian rule by King Amasia.
 - " 525. The Cypriote Kings tender allegiance to Cambyzes, King of Persia.
 - " 477. Conquest of part of Cyprus by the Greeks under Pausanias.
 - " 387. Peace of Antalcidas. Cyprus became a Persian possession.
 - " 333. The Cypriote Kings declared in favour of Alexander the Great.
 - " 323. On the death of Alexander, Cyprus was allotted to Antigonus.
 - " 295. Commencement of the Ptolemaic dynasty in Cyprus.
 - " 58. Cyprus annexed by the Roman Empire.
 - A.D. 45. Visit of Paul and Barnabas, and conversion of Sergius Paulus.
 - " 115. Insurrection by the Jews, and massacre of Greek population.
 - " 365. Cyprus became part of the Eastern, or Byzantine, Empire.
 - " 648. Invasion by the Arabs, and destruction of Salamis.
 - " 802. Cyprus conquered by the Saracens in the reign of Haroun-el-Rashid.
 - " 964. Cyprus regained by the Byzantine Empire.
 - " 1191. Conquest of Cyprus by Richard I of England, and sale to the Templars.
 - " 1192. Commencement of the Lusignan dynasty.
 - " 1393. Famagusta taken by the Genoese, and held by them for 90 years.
 - " 1425. Invasion of Cyprus by the Egyptians, after which the island became tributary to Egypt.
 - " 1489. The Venetian Republic annexed Cyprus.
 - " 1546. Serious rebellion in the island.
 - " 1570. Invasion by the Turks, and capture of Nicosia.
 - " 1571. Famagusta besieged, and taken by the Turks.
 - " 1573. Cyprus ceded by treaty to the Porte by the Venetian Republic.
 - " 1764. Insurrection and civil war in Cyprus.
 - " 1832. Temporary occupation by Egypt.
 - " 1840. Cyprus given back to the Porte by Egypt.
 - " 1878. Occupation of Cyprus by Great Britain.
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CHAPTER II.

GEOGRAPHY AND TOPOGRAPHY.

THE Island of Cyprus is situated in the north-east part of the eastern basin of the Mediterranean, with Asia Minor to the north of it and Syria to the east, between latitude $34^{\circ} 30'$ to $35^{\circ} 41' N.$, and longitude $32^{\circ} 15'$ to $34^{\circ} 35' 30'' E.$ Situation.

The distance from Cape St. Andrea, the north-east extremity of the island, to the nearest point of the Coast of Syria in the neighbourhood of Latakiah, is about 60 miles; Cape Kormakiti on the northern shore is about 41 miles from Cape Anamour in Cilicia. Larnaca, on the southern shore, the chief port of the island, is 258 miles from Port Said, and 1,117 miles from the harbour of Valetta in Malta.*

The estimates of the area of Cyprus differ considerably, in consequence, no doubt, of the imperfect manner in which the island has been surveyed. Keith Johnston's estimate is 3,678 square miles, Drs. Unger and Kotschy state it to be 3,788 square miles, other writers believe it to be 4,200 or 4,500 square miles, but these last measurements appear to be considerably above the mark. Cyprus is larger than either Corsica or Crete, the areas of which islands are 3,377 and 3,327 square miles respectively, and the only Mediterranean islands which surpass it in extent are Sardinia and Sicily. The greatest length of Cyprus from west-south-west to east-north-east, between Cape Drepano and Cape St. Andrea, is 140 miles, and the greatest breadth from north to south, between Cape Kormakiti and Cape Gata, is 59 miles. Extent and shape.

The greater part of the island is in shape somewhat of an irregular parallelogram, about 100 miles long from west to east, and from 59 to $33\frac{1}{2}$ miles in breadth; the remainder consists of a peninsula about 40 miles long and from ten to three miles broad, projecting in an east-north-east direction, and terminating at Cape St. Andrea. The ancients compared the shape of the island to that of an outspread deer's skin or fleece, of which the tail was the long peninsula above mentioned; a glance at the map will show that the fancied resemblance was not inappropriate.

On the north coast are Cape Kormakiti (the north-west extremity), Cape Plakoti, and Cape St. Andrea (the north-east Capes.†

* These measurements are given in English miles of 69.1 to the degree, and are taken from Kiepert's Map of the Ottoman Empire. From Larnaca to Valetta is 970 nautical miles.

† The Capes, gulfs, bays, roadsteads and harbours are described in the Coast Report at Chapter V, here they are only named.

extremity). On the west coast, Cape Kakkino, Pozzo Point, Cape Armatia, or St. Epiphanio, the ancient Acamas (the most western point), Cape Drepano, and Cape Baffo, or Papfo. On the south coast; Cape Bianco, Cape Zepigari, Cape Gata (the southern point of the island), Carrubiere Point, Cape Kiti, and Cape Pila. On the east coast, Cape Greco (the south-east extremity of the island), Cape Eliza, Pyriia Point, and Cape Peda, or Monastery Point. In allusion to these numerous capes the island was at one time called by the ancients, Cerastis, or horn island.

Gulfs and bays.

Famagusta Bay, or the Bay of Salamis, on the east; Larnaca Bay, Akrotiri (Limasol) Bay, and the Gulf of Piskopi on the south; the Gulfs of Khrysokho, and Morpho, or Pentagia, in the north-west part of the island.

Roadsteads and harbours.

The Roadsteads are at Famagusta, Larnaca, and Limasol. Formerly there were harbours at Salamis, Famagusta, Baffo, and Cerinea, but the piers are now in a ruined state, and the interiors choked with sand and mud. (See Chapter V.)

Towns and large villages.*

In the interior, Nicosia (the capital), Kythrea, Vatili, Athienou, Dali, Lithrodonda, Kilani (Gilan), Omodos, Lefka.

On or close to the coast:—

South—Larnaca, Limasol, Kolossi, Piskopi, Avdimu, Pysouri, Kuklia.

West—Baffo, Ktima, Poli tou Khrysokho, Soli, Morpho.

North—Cerinea, Lapethus, Acanthou, Kantara, Karpas (Rhizo Karpaso).

East—Famagusta, Varoschia, Salamis (in ruins).

Mountains.

The mountains of Cyprus are the chief topographical feature of the country. They consist of two main systems, which are separate and distinct. The northern range, called the Karpas Mountains, and, towards their western extremity, the Cerinea Mountains, forms a continuous chain bordering the northern shore from Cape St. Andrea to Cape Kormakiti, a distance of about 100 miles. The summit of this range consists throughout of a narrow, but rocky and rugged, ridge, which is generally within about three miles of the coast. At the foot of the northern slope, which is very abrupt, there is a narrow and fertile plain, which is well watered and has a productive soil. On the south side the country falls to the large plain of Messaria, which occupies the centre of the island.

Throughout the eastern portion of the range, the elevations do not exceed 2,000 feet, but in the centre and west are higher summits: viz., Kantara, 2,020 feet above the sea; Pentadaktylon, 2,480 feet; Buffavento, 3,240 feet; Mount Elias, 2,810 feet; and St. Hilarion, 3,340 feet.†

On the summits of Kantara, Buffavento and St. Hilarion are ruined castles, and there are several monasteries, some of which are also in ruins.

The streams flowing from this chain of mountains are merely brooks and mountain torrents, and are short and unimportant.

The second range of mountains is the most extensive as well

* Nearly all these towns and villages are fully described in Chapters III and IV.

† These are the heights given on the Admiralty Chart, No. 2074; the figures of other authorities are but very slightly different.

as the most lofty; it occupies the whole of the western and south-western portions of the island, and trending thence along the south coast, terminates in the isolated peak called Monte S. Croce, or Stavrovouni (Oros Stavro), about 12 miles west of Larnaca. The highest summit of this range, which is also the most elevated point in Cyprus, is now known as Mount Troodos, 6,590 feet; this summit is said to be the ancient Olympus, though it is also asserted that the mountain designated by Strabo under that name is evidently Stavrovouni (2,300 feet). Other lofty summits in this chain are Mount Adelphe, 5,383 feet, and Mount Makhera, 4,730 feet*. This range throws off on all sides subordinate ranges, or spurs, of considerable altitude, one of these extends to Cape Arnauti, and fills up the north-western extremity of the island. Other spurs, called the Kikko mountains, of which the highest summit is 3,863 feet above sea level, branch off northwards, from the western part of the range, towards Pomo Point, and numerous ramifications extend from Mount Troodos and Mount Makhera towards the southern coast.

Lastly, from Stavrovouni a succession of low hills run eastward towards Cape Greco.

The northern slopes of the Olympus range are somewhat bold and rugged, but the southern side is still more so, presenting a deeply serrated outline, with partially wooded slopes; the trees found here are chiefly pines of several varieties, oaks, cypresses, &c. The valleys are very deep, and have steep sides which are generally covered with a luxuriant growth of arbutus, olives, myrtles, carobs, junipers, oleanders, and other shrubs.

The rivers of Cyprus are nearly all mere mountain torrents, with rough and stony beds which are generally dry in summer. None of the rivers are navigable. After the spring and winter rains, the water rushes with violence down the slopes of the mountains, fills up, and then breaks out from, the narrow water-courses, overflowing the surrounding country, and depositing upon it a rich alluvial earth, which enriches the soil, and to which much of its fertility is due. This tendency of the streams to overflow their banks at certain seasons, has, however, an evil effect in the production of large marshes, which breed miasma and cause fevers; to drain these marshes and bank up the channels of the rivers, are, perhaps, amongst the engineering works most urgently needed in Cyprus. The variable condition of the water in the rivers at different times of the year is probably the reason why no fish are to be found in them. The chief rivers of Cyprus which have received names are mentioned below; the list may perhaps appear long for an island of this size, but it must be borne in mind that only the two first-named—the Pedia and the Idalia—are of any real importance at present, the others being almost without exception mountain torrents which cannot be relied upon to have water in their channels except immediately after rain.

The largest river in the island is the Pedia; it rises amongst

* These are the heights of the Admiralty Chart. Von Löhner's measurement of Mount Troodos is 6190 feet, and Unger makes all the heights slightly different from those given above.

the northern slopes of Mount Makhera, and flows at first in a northerly direction past Tamassus to Ano Deftera, where it turns north-east, and forms a loop round the northern side of the capital, Nicosia; it then turns eastward and flows through the plain of Messaria, falling into the sea near the ruins of the ancient Salamis, about four miles north of Famagusta. Its total length is about 65 miles; throughout its middle and lower course in the plain it is largely employed for irrigating the adjacent grain fields; the channel is very narrow, and after heavy rain the water overflows the banks, inundating the surrounding country, and near the mouth extensive marshes have been thus formed.

The river Idalia (or Yalias), also has its source on the northern side of Mount Makhera; it flows north-east through Lithrodonda and past Dali (the ancient Idalium), and here fertilizes a large district. After a course of about 38 miles it falls into the River Pedias in the Messaria plain to the north of the village of Vatili, and about 13 miles west of Salamis.

The Plaho is another small tributary of the Pedias which flows from the north side, and joins it about five miles from the mouth.

The springs at Kythrea to the north-east of Nicosia supply a large amount of water, and, after the several streams unite, they form a river which, though short, is of the highest importance as a fertilizing agent, and is also used to work several mills. It flows due south, and falls into the Pedias about two and a half miles below the ancient Chytri.

The rivers which enter the sea on the south coast of the island are the following:—

The Tretus (or Tetios) river, rises near the Thekla monastery, about five miles south of Dali, and flows southward; near its mouth it waters a level tract of country to the west of Cape Kiti, and falls into the sea on the south coast of the island after a course of about 16 miles. A river, which in some maps is called the Deresi, rises in a valley to the north-east of Monte S. Croce, and flowing southward nearly parallel to the Tretus, enters the sea about one and a-half miles west of that river. It is probably not more than a mountain torrent.

The Pentaskhino river rises on the south side of Monte S. Croce, and after receiving the waters of several rivulets falls into the sea close to Dolos Point.

The Maroni river rises in the high ground north of Lefkara, passes on the east side of that place, and then flows southwards to Maroni, falling into the sea a few miles east of Cape Carubier.

The Vasilipotamus rises among the southern slopes of Mount Makhera, and flows south towards Cape Carrubiere. The St. Helenas stream rises in the high ground above Ora, and flows southward.

The Moni river also rises near Ora, and takes a southerly course past the village of Moni on the Larnaca-Limasol road, reaching the shore slightly to the eastward of the site of the ancient Amathus. The Garili river is amongst the most important in the island; it takes its source in a valley on the south side of Mount Adelphé, and flows due south to Limasol. It formed the boundary between the Piskopi and Limasol districts. Its length is about 20 miles.

The Piscopi river is made up of several streams which rise on the southern side of Mount Troodos above Kilani (the Lycos, the Kouri, and others), these unite near Trakoni; the river crosses the Limasol-Baffo road at Piskopi, and enters the sea to the west of Cape Zephgari.

The Khapotamus flows southwards from near Plataniskia. The Diarisos, or Hieropotamus, rises in the mountainous region to the west of Mount Troodos, passes near Omodos, and enters the sea close to Kuklia and Palæ Paphos. This is one of the principal rivers of the island.

The River Ezusa, the ancient Bogarus, rises slightly to the west of the Diarisos; it flows in a south-westerly direction, and enters the sea nearly opposite the Mulia rocks, to the south of Baffo.

None but very small and unimportant torrents flow into the sea on the west coast between Baffo and Cape Arnauti.

On the north-west side of the island we find several streams:—

The Aspno Brema torrent flows from near Khrysoroghiatissa into the Gulf of Khrysokho, near the town of that name.

The Xerophano river rises in a valley amongst the north-western spurs of the Troodos range, near the Kikko monastery, and flows northwards, entering the sea close to Cape Limniti.

The Klaros river rises on the north side of Mount Troodos, and flows northwards, past Evrikou, into the Bay of Morpho.

The Morpho river flows westwards through the plain of Morpho, where it is largely utilized for irrigation, and falls into the Bay of the same name. Along the north coast, from Cape Kormakiti to Cape St. Andrea, a large number of mountain torrents rush down, after rainy weather, from the mountains which border the shore, but none of them are of importance, or can even be depended upon to contain any water in their channels except during winter.

The chief springs are at Kythraa, Hierokipos, Arpera, Karava and Lapethus. The three first-named are especially worthy of notice on account of their volume of water. Springs.

Kythraa is about nine miles north-east of Nicosia, and near the foot of the southern slope of the mountains which here border the coast. The water issues from a limestone breccia in five large streams and several smaller ones; these soon unite, forming a small river which is a fertilizing agent for the whole district, and has caused settlements to be established in this neighbourhood from the earliest ages. The water is of good quality, and is always cold in summer. The stream is sufficiently strong to work about a dozen mills; the water was at one time conveyed by a large aqueduct to the then populous city of Salamis, 25 miles distant, but now all that remains from irrigation runs into the Pedia near Chytri. Hierokipos is a small village about three miles east of Baffo, and is supposed to have been the site of the garden of Venus; here a large spring gushes out from the rock, supplying abundance of excellent water, which is of the highest value in the cultivation of the gardens in the vicinity. Arpera is a small village about seven miles south-west of Larnaca; the water of the spring at this spot has, for hundreds of years, been brought by means of an aqueduct to Larnaca, but this supply alone is

not sufficient to meet the requirements of both quarters of the town.

Lakes.

We find no mention by travellers of the existence of any fresh-water lakes in the mountain regions, and there are but two in the plains, viz., Lakes Paralimni and Vatili. The first of these is situated about three and a-half miles south of Famagusta; it is four miles long from east to west, and about one mile broad.

Lake Vatili, in the Messaria Plain, is shown on the geologically coloured map in Drs. Unger and Kotschy's work on Cyprus, to the north of the village of Vatili, and not far from the junction of the rivers Pedias and Idalia. No other map indicates its existence. Both these lakes dry up very considerably in summer, and the authors mentioned above, say that Gaudry's assertion that fish are to be found in them is no longer correct. When General di Cesnola passed Lake Paralimni he noticed that it was dry, and he mentions that in the time of the Venetians, rice was cultivated in the neighbourhood, which shows that plenty of water for irrigation must then have been available. There are two small lakes close to the sea between Famagusta and the ruins of Salamis, but the water of these is brackish. In addition to the above there are the large salt lakes near both Larnaka and Limasol; these lakes, and the manner in which the salt is produced and gathered, are described in Chapter IX.

Plains.

The largest and most important plain in the island is that called the Messaria; it is a broad tract of treeless land, extending entirely across the island from the Bay of Famagusta to Morpho Bay, a distance of about 60 miles, and with a breadth varying from 10 to 20 miles. The plain is broken here and there by curious table-shaped heights composed of layers of conglomerate and sand; they occur chiefly in that part of the plain lying to the south-east of Nicosia; they are sometimes rectangular and sometimes round in shape, the intervals between them appear to have been caused by the action of water, and the hills themselves are of the pliocene or quaternary age; the ground where they occur is not cultivated.

The Messaria is watered by the Pedias, the Idalia, and the Morpho rivers, and their tributaries; these streams, though as a rule dry in summer, in winter and spring overflow their banks, and deposit over the surface of the ground a rich alluvial soil which acts as a manure, and adds greatly to the fertility of the adjoining fields.

In this plain is situated a large proportion of the cultivated area of the island, nearly the whole of the northern part is tilled annually, and produces good grain crops. It is said that the ordinary arable land averages £3 to £3 10s. per acre, but cotton-producing ground generally fetches £10 per acre. The best lands are reported to yield 30 bushels of wheat per acre, and in a good year as much as 40 bushels of barley are produced per acre. Still the plain is not now cultivated to anything like the extent that it formerly was; Von Löher tells us that two centuries ago the whole of it was one huge highly cultivated field, filled with corn, vines, fruit, and vegetables, but that every year it becomes more unfit for cultivation, stones and marshes usurping much of what was formerly fertile and productive land.

Another level tract of country borders the shore of the west side of the Bay of Larnaca; much of the land here is waste, and covered with heath, weeds, prickly shrubs and thistles: a third plain borders part of the road between Famagusta and Larnaca to the north of the village of Ormidia. It is said that the famous forest of Idalium once extended over this part of the island, but it is now described as a dreary, treeless, and uninhabited plain. Lastly, there is a very narrow strip of nearly level and partially cultivated ground, bordering the northern shore at the foot of the Cerinea mountains.

CHAPTER III.*

TOWNS, VILLAGES, AND ANTIQUITIES.

NICOSIA.

Situation and
description of
the town.

NICOSIA, called also Lefcosia, has since the time of the Lusignans been the capital of Cyprus, the seat of the government, and the residence of the Governor. The population is now estimated at about 16,000, and a greater proportion of the inhabitants are Mussulmans than in any other town in Cyprus. Nicosia is situated in the flat, fertile, and treeless plain called the Messaria, and at a distance of about 12 miles from the north coast of the island. As Nicosia is approached from Larnaca, the town comes into view from a small ridge about two miles distant, and from here it has a picturesque and even imposing appearance; inside the circle of fortifications are seen domes, minarets, spires, flat roofed houses with gaily painted balconies, alternating with palm, orange, and lemon trees; the interior does not, however, fulfil the expectations raised by this first view, for the town is irregularly built, and intersected by narrow and tortuous stone-paved lanes, which are bounded by high garden walls.

Houses.

There are now but very few good or commodious houses in Nicosia, as those built by the Lusignan nobles are crumbling away in decay. Nearly all are built of mud-coloured sun-dried bricks; some few have the lower story composed of stone hewn by the Venetians during their occupation, but the great proportion are simply one-storied rectangular buildings with small courtyards. The bazaars afford almost the only variety of scene in the town; they are either under arches, or are covered overhead with trellised vines or stretched awning of canvas. The articles offered for sale are vegetables and fruits, unbleached cotton goods from Manchester, which have been printed on the spot in flaring colours, tin ware, pack saddles, rugs, silks of native manufacture, petroleum, &c. No house furniture can be obtained, and the local tradesmen are unenterprising and apathetic. The largest bazaar has been built since 1856, the old one having been destroyed by fire in that year.

Cathedral and
churches.

The Cathedral of St. Sophia is a fine edifice built in the Gothic style; it was formerly richly decorated, but of the ornamentation

* This Chapter is chiefly confined to a topographical description of the principal places in Cyprus, and a statement of such fortifications as they may possess; separate chapters are devoted to the consideration of their industries, trade, agricultural products, and capabilities for the formation of harbours.

only the carved stonework now remains. The pillared interior is approached from the portico by three arched portals. The Turks have daubed the walls with whitewash streaked with red, yellow, and green, and the beauty of the architecture is now all that is worth seeing. The Gothic towers have been destroyed, and only their mere bases still stand; with the hewn stone thus obtained two unusually high Moslem minarets have been erected by the side of the bell tower. Another beautiful ancient Christian church, that of St. Nicholas, stands close to the Cathedral, and is now used by the Turks as a granary. It has three noble entrance gates, and all the niches are decorated with a fine stone tracery. The Archbishop's Chapel is an interesting building, the walls of which are covered with ancient pictures.

There is also a small church used as a place of worship by the Armenians, who number about 150 in Nicosia.

Nicosia is literally without drainage, and the ground is sodden with the sewage of centuries. There is no fall of ground, so that the rains, when they come, wash nothing away. All sewage which does not remain on the surface stands in cesspools, which are generally close to wells. Hence, in the hot months the place is described as a fecund fever bed, and until sanitary measures have been put into execution, Nicosia can scarcely be considered as habitable by Europeans. Want of drainage.

The water supply of the town is abundant, and when it first comes into the place is cool, clear, and of excellent quality. An aqueduct which is supplied from the adjacent hills by a communication supported on arches, encircles the town following the line of the fortifications; at frequent intervals, subsidiary conduits lead from it to the fountains in the lower area within; along these conduits pure water constantly flows, and it is better to take water directly from them, than to use the well water. The overflow of the fountains runs along shallow open ditches in the centre of the streets, and from these ditches small drains are cut into the gardens that abound all over the town; thus these are well irrigated and are very productive, the fruit trees being especially fine. It may perhaps be found necessary in future to convey the aqueduct water all over the town in pipes, in order to insure a good supply for drinking in all parts. Water supply.

Nicosia was first fortified in the time of Constantine the Great, and has always been considered a strong place, but in 1570, when the Turkish invasion was imminent, the old defences were destroyed by the Venetians, the works were entirely remodelled and the town was converted into a regular fortress surrounded by walls of three miles circuit, pierced by three gates called Paphos, Cerinea, and Famagusta, and flanked at regular intervals by eleven bastions which were named Podocataro, Costanza, Davila, Tripoli, Roccas, Mula, Quirino, Barbaro, Loredano, Abra, and Caraffa. The former circuit of the fortifications was no less than nine miles, and by this great reduction of the length of parapet to be defended, the strength of the place was materially increased, but, in order to effect the alteration, a large area of the suburbs, together with many churches and a large monastery had to be levelled. The walls were originally Fortifications.

high and massive, and when made must have been very strong; they are now in a dilapidated condition, and by no means as perfect as those of Famagusta. The rampart consists of two retaining walls of stone with earth rammed in between them, in places they are 30 or 40 feet high; the top is level and is used as a walk and ride. The ditch, if ever there was one, is now wholly obliterated, and as the town is commanded by high ground within range on three sides, it could not in its present state be held against the fire of modern artillery. The ramparts are armed with about 50 guns, most of which are of old and curious patterns, and quite obsolete; some are Venetian bronze cannon, and both guns and carriages are quite worn out and unserviceable, with the exception of a few English naval guns made in the reign of George III, from which it is possible to fire salutes. The fortress of Nicosia, defended by the Venetians, withstood for 45 days a vigorous siege on the part of the Turks, it was at last taken by storm on the 9th September, 1570, and from that day commenced the rapid decline and decay of the city, which was so celebrated in the time of the Lusignans.

FAMAGUSTA.

Ancient history.

Famagusta (called by the Turks, Maoussa) occupies the site of the ancient Ammochostos, one of the royal cities which paid tribute to Assyria, and it is also said that Ptolemy Philadelphus founded here one of the four cities named by him after his sister Arsinoë. After the battle of Actium, Augustus called it Fama Agusti, from which the present name is derived. The town, which had been built 800 years ago by the Christians out of the ruins of Salamis, was destroyed by the Turks in 1571, after the terrible siege during which the Venetian soldiers so long and heroically defended their position.

Situation.

Famagusta is situated on the east coast of the island, in the bay of the same name, and about $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles south of the ancient city and port of Salamis.

Description.

This once considerable and important city is now described as consisting simply of a mass of ruins, and the streets are said to be at present only lanes almost choked up by the fallen ruins of the adjacent buildings. Under the Lusignans and the Venetians, Famagusta was a populous city, counting its beautiful churches by hundreds, and its palatial mansions by thousands. Now the place is almost uninhabited, except by a company of Turkish soldiers, and the native population is not above 500, all of whom are Mussulmans. Of the 300 churches which are said to have existed, two only now remain; the beautiful Latin Cathedral of St. Nicolas is now used as the Turkish mosque of Famagusta; it is a very large and fine structure in the Gothic style, and although it is much ruined, the rose windows bricked up, the frescoes covered with plaster, and the altar-piece dismantled, its splendid proportions still remain in their original grandeur. The other church is used as a granary and stable by the Turks. On the still existing walls of many of the fine mediæval churches, frescoes remain plainly visible in the interiors. The hewn stones with which the houses are built

are lying about in all directions; the few inhabited houses are of stone, small, rectangular, and flat-roofed. There is a barrack in which the garrison is quartered, also a hospital, and on the north side of the town are bomb-proof magazines and cannon-foundries. It is considered that the town might be rebuilt with the stone which it contains, and from the ruins of Salamis.

The place is now very unhealthy, owing to the marshes in the neighbourhood and the defective drainage, and fevers are very prevalent. Consul Lang says that when he was in Cyprus, estimates were made for cleansing the town, and draining the marshes and stagnant pools in the covered pits which were made by the Turks in 1571; also for introducing good fresh water into the town through iron pipes: but, owing to the impecuniosity of the Government, and the instability of the Governors, the plans were never put into execution. It has been stated by competent authorities that with a moderate expenditure, Famagusta might again become what it was in the time of the Venetians—an agreeable, healthy town, capable of containing 30,000 inhabitants.

Present un-
healthiness of
the town.

The vicinity of Famagusta is fertile and in part cultivated; fruit, vegetables, grain, cotton, and madders, are grown in the neighbourhood; but the present population is not nearly sufficient to make the most of the advantages afforded by nature.

Close outside the city, and to the southward, is the small town of Varoschia, divided into Upper and Lower Varoschia, the population of which is over 2,000; the inhabitants are chiefly Christians, who are not permitted to reside within the walls of Famagusta, of which place Varoschia may be considered a suburb. This little town was founded by the Christian population expelled from Famagusta at the time of its capture by the Ottoman army; it is very thriving, and as neither accommodation or provisions can be obtained in Famagusta itself, travellers always come to Varoschia for lodging. Some of the houses are built of stone, and are as good as any in Larnaca or Nicosia; the town has also a fine Greek church, with a new belfry, which is a fair specimen of the local modern architecture; there is a good bazaar, and several manufactures of pottery. Fruitful groves of orange and lemon trees abound; there are also extensive gardens generally studded with mulberry trees, which are planted for the cultivation of the silk-worm, and the general appearance of Varoschia presents a marked contrast to the gloomy quarters of Famagusta occupied by the Turks.

Suburb of
Varoschia.

Famagusta is strongly fortified; the walls which surround the city are nearly in the form of a parallelogram, and measure about 4,000 yards in perimeter. They are built of stone with great solidity and strength, their thickness is 17 feet, and they are provided with extensive bomb-proof magazines, storehouses, and foundries. Although now dismantled, the ramparts are still in a very fair state of preservation, and it is believed that they could easily be adapted to modern requirements, pending the construction of such other works of a more important character as might be deemed necessary at any future date, should Famagusta become the port of Cyprus. Beneath the ramparts on the land side is a ditch

Fortifications
of Famagusta.

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cut into the rock ; it measures about 80 feet in width and 25 feet in depth ; at one time the sea was admitted into it, but it is now dry. The only gate on this side is at the south-west corner, the road leading to Varoschia passes through it, and it is provided with a drawbridge and portcullis. The only other gate is on the side of the port, and is called the water-gate ; a deep and winding archway with a portcullis, here leads under the rampart of a circular bastion to a rude pier of loose stones. There is a citadel on the sea-side, which is isolated from the remainder of the works by a ditch of stagnant water. The armament of the fortifications is in a very neglected state ; on the open space above the water-gate are four bronze Turkish guns of very old patterns, and mounted on rotten carriages ; these are just in a sufficient state of preservation to fire salutes, but could scarcely be used for anything else. Several of the large Venetian bronze guns, bearing the date 1569, lie dismounted close inside the ramparts. Some of the worst criminals of the Turkish Empire have until now been confined in the fortress of Famagusta.

Although this description shows that Famagusta is at present in the last state of ruin and decay, still the natural advantages of the place, particularly as regards facilities for the construction of a harbour, are so great that in all probability the town will occupy an important place in the future history of Cyprus. The existing remains of the ancient port are fully described in the chapter upon the Coast at page 65.

LARNACA.

- Situation.** Larnaca, at present the chief commercial town of Cyprus, is situated on the south-east coast of the island in a bay of the same name, contained between Capes Pila and Kiti.
- Name.** According to General, di Cesnola, the town takes its name from the ancient tombs over which it is partly built ; it has been supposed by some that the word Larnaca, signifying in Greek a box or chest, and sometimes a funeral urn or tomb, contained an allusion to unhealthiness in the place, but this hardly appears to be the case. The ancient Citium once occupied the site on which Larnaca now stands, and traces of Byzantine architecture are also to be found in the neighbourhood.
- Description of the town.** Larnaca is comparatively a modern town, having sprung into existence since the conquest of the island by the Turks, but, like some of the ancient cities of Cyprus, it consists of two separate districts a short distance apart. The portion which borders the sea-shore is called the Marina (travellers at the beginning of this century always called it Salines), while Larnaca proper is to the north, and about three-quarters of a mile inland. Some 40 or 50 years ago the Marina consisted only of a few scattered houses and stores, and all the Foreign Consuls and chief residents lived at the inland part of the town ; but, since the pirates of the Greek Archipelago who used to infest these shores, have, thanks especially to the efforts of England, been exterminated, the Marina has become the more important district of the two, and is a comparatively thriving and busy place. At present a line of dwelling-houses, bazaars, and

cafés extends for about a mile along the shore, and the strand is a thoroughfare from end to end of the sea front, which is chiefly shingle; the existing stone jetties are almost entirely ruined and useless, so that new ones constructed of wood had to be provided for the disembarkation of our troops; the massive stone work of the Lusignans is nearly everywhere crumbling down into the water. The Foreign Consuls now, with only one or two exceptions, live on the Marina, in a row of buildings close to the sea; several mosques and churches are close by; the Konak, or government building, is a large irregular house on the western edge of the Marina, close to the little fort, and there is a telegraph office communicating with Beyrout; it is said that of late years the Marina has increased in the same ratio as Larnaca proper has become depopulated. The external appearance of the houses is rather humble, they are generally built of mud bricks dried in the sun, and, as a rule, have only one story above the ground floor: this is said to be a precaution against the earthquakes which are severely felt here; still there are some houses of several stories, and the interiors of many are both spacious and comfortable, many of the apartments are paved with a kind of marble, and have long corridors, roomy staircases, and high ceilings, all of which are very necessary in such a climate. All the better class of houses stand within a courtyard and garden, and are provided with large verandahs standing upon light pillars. The roofs, which are supported by short beams of red pine, generally consist of bamboo matting plastered over with a thick layer of mud; the cementing is effected by the use of talc. Between the Marina and the upper town, is a large establishment belonging to the Sisters of Charity, containing a chapel, school, and dispensary. In Larnaca, there is a fine old Latin church, called St. Lazarus, which is surrounded by rows of pillars with pointed arches between them. The main part of the church is built in the form of a cross, with a dome in the centre, and is evidently of great antiquity; it comprises three long and large vaults surrounded by cupolas. A Greek bishop resides at Larnaca and the population is now more Greek than Turkish; in 1863 the inhabitants were reported to be 10,000 in number, the present population is probably greater. The country surrounding Larnaca, is arid, uninteresting, and generally without verdure, the soil is white and calcareous.

It has been generally reported that the climate of Larnaca is unhealthy in the summer months, and that intermittent fevers are very prevalent at that season; this insalubrity may however be easily accounted for by the existence of large marshes and salt lagoons in the immediate vicinity, as well as by the dirty and unwholesome state in which the town has been kept, and there is little doubt that the causes of disease are local, and can be easily removed. Consul Lang says that during his residence in Larnaca, he was able, by means of public subscriptions, to bring under cultivation the worst of the two marshes near the town, and to introduce by iron pipes a good supply of water into the houses: the effect upon the general health of the place was most beneficial, and it is considered that more extensive works of a similar kind, combined with due attention to the cleansing of the town, will remove all existing causes of unhealthiness.

Local
climate.

- Water supply.** Larnaca is well supplied with water; it is conveyed into the town by aqueducts, and is of good quality, and sufficient in quantity. Should the town increase, and a further supply become necessary, it is worthy of notice that this is one of the places where Gaudry suggests that water might be found by artesian borings of sufficient depth to reach the miocene beds of white marl.*
- Monte S. Croce.** About 12 miles west of Larnaca is Monte S. Croce. 2,300 feet above the sea; here there is a Greek convent which is much resorted to in summer as a sanatorium, for the heat in the town is frequently very great, though abated to a certain extent by the sea and land breezes, which generally blow at regular intervals.
- Building materials.** Building materials of various descriptions can be obtained in the neighbourhood of Larnaca, and it is said that there is no difficulty in transporting them to the places where they are required: this subject is dealt with in Chapter IX.
- The fort of Larnaca.** The only defence possessed by Larnaca at present, is a small and insignificant fort, built in 1625; it is situated at the extreme west end of the Marina, on the right of the custom-house quay, and close to the water's edge. It is square, roomy, and has strong walls of white masonry, it is well supplied with water, but is perfectly useless for defence, having no earthen protection, and could consequently be quickly demolished by the fire of heavy naval guns. Its armament consists of eleven long 16-pounders, green with verdigris, and caked with rust; also four field pieces used for firing salutes. Many of the gun carriages are broken, and all are cumbersome and rotten. Two of the guns are of English manufacture, and bear the initials G.R. Some of the larger guns are mounted to fire through embrasures, and others are *en barbette* on the top of the fort, which is reached by a broad zig-zag slope. The only use of this fort to us, is as a barrack, there being excellent accommodation for about 80 men, with officers' quarters.
- Roadstead.** The roadstead of Larnaca is described in the chapter upon the Coast, page 67, and full particulars concerning the commerce are given in Chapter XIII.

LIMASOL.

- Situation.** Limasol is situated on the south coast, in Akrotiri Bay, which is enclosed between Capes Carrubiere and Gata, and is about 42 miles west of Larnaca.
- Population and inhabitants.** The town contains a population of about 6,000 persons, of whom about one-third, and these the poorest class, are Turks; among the Greek population there are several wealthy merchants, who trade in grain, and the wine of the country.
- Description.** Limasol is generally considered the best situated town in Cyprus, it is more European in its appearance than any other place in the island, and all travellers describe it as comparatively neat, clean, and wholesome, with tolerably well built houses of clay and stone. Limasol has but one street; it is a long line of shops and cafés which run parallel to the beach, and behind it are most of

* "Géologie de L'Ile de Chypre," by Albert Gaudry (1859) page 175. Page 16 of Captain Maurice's translation of this work.

the best dwelling-houses, all standing in gardens. The bazaar is small, and generally closely packed with merchandize; there is a brisk trade in wine, locust-beans, and grain; nearly all the countries which trade with Cyprus have a vice-consul at Limasol.

A great portion of the inhabitants are poor, and their habitations are humble, but still they are not such hovels as are seen in the other towns. There are several Greek churches and a konak, the government building in which the court of justice is held, the prisoners confined, and all local affairs regulated. The gardens in, and near, the town are very productive, and the fruits are especially fine.

Much of the water in the town is brackish, but four miles off is a stream from which good and pure water can be obtained; the better class of the inhabitants generally send there for their supply, which is carried in earthenware jars by donkeys. The river Garili flows into the sea close to the western extremity of the town, but cannot always be depended upon to contain water. Water supply.

The plain in which Limasol stands is fertile, and might easily be made very productive; it is thickly studded with locust-bean, or carob trees, which also cover the lower part of the hills surrounding the plain at some little distance inland. The vineyards, for which this part of the island is famous, are situated on the southern slopes of Olympus to the north-west of the town. The climate is considered better than that of Larnaca, and it is very probable that Limasol, under British rule, will thrive and increase, and may eventually be one of the most agreeable and best frequented resorts in the island. Surrounding country.

The anchorage in the roadstead off Limasol is described in Chapter V. Anchorage.

The only fortification is an old Venetian fort, which is a small but massive square structure, with deep subterranean dungeons, and in the centre a deep well, which always contains pure and cold water. Its sole armament up to the present time was four old guns, honeycombed with rust. Defences.

BAFFO.

Baffo is situated at the south-western extremity of the island on the site of the ancient Nea Paphos, which, under the Romans was the chief town of the western division of the island; but of late years Baffo has been almost abandoned, and has lately been reported to be a ruined town containing not more than 100 inhabitants; scarcely any vestiges of its former importance remain, and the only relic of even the Venetian period is the church of St. George. This locality is famous in ancient history as the favourite residence of Aphrodite or Venus; here was her most celebrated temple, and on a hill near Baffo is a ruin which the inhabitants call the tomb of Venus. During the reign of the Emperor Augustus, the town was destroyed by an earthquake, and was afterwards rebuilt. In Paphos, St. Paul converted Sergius Paulus the Roman deputy, and here Elymas the sorcerer, was struck blind. Situation.
Description.

for endeavouring to frustrate St. Paul's attempts to christianize the people.

The small and unsafe port is fully described in Chapter V.

Surrounding country.

The ground round, and above, Baffo, slopes gently down to the sea; it is picturesque, and is extremely fertile; mulberry trees abound, and the silk produced in the neighbourhood is the finest in the island. Olive trees here attain great perfection, a good deal of tobacco has also been grown, and is considered to be of excellent quality; a little care and attention bestowed upon the land in this neighbourhood would doubtless be very remunerative.

Ktima.

About one mile north is the large village of Ktima, which forms the Greek quarter; it contains about 1,500 inhabitants and has quite eclipsed Baffo itself as a place of residence. The houses are small, they are built of rough unhewn stone, and each one is provided with a garden. Löher describes this place as "a little town standing upon raised stone dykes."

Climate.

The climate of the environs of Baffo is generally stated to be somewhat unhealthy, for in addition to the ordinary mild fevers which are common at certain seasons, other fevers of a more pernicious kind not unfrequently prevail.

Defences.

The port is commanded by a small and insignificant castle, which was built by the Turks, but has been allowed to fall into a state of ruin.

CERINEA.

Situation.

Cerinea, or Kerynia, is a small town situated on the north coast of the island, about 14 miles by road from Nicosia, and at the foot of the steep slopes of the mountains which here border the shore, and stands in the midst of a beautiful and productive country.

Description.

Cerinea is but a small place, and its population is said not to exceed 800 persons; it has been described as a cluster of old, tall, and massive houses built almost touching the sea, with a fortress, a ruined palace, a mosque, and the mere fragments of a mole and lighthouse. There are however, indications that it was once a large and fine town, the outskirts abound with ancient tombs, and wherever excavations have been made valuable antiquities have been discovered; its origin has been traced to the Dorian colonists under Praxander and Cepheus, and it was the capital of one of the nine petty kingdoms into which the island was once divided.

History.

In 1765, we find that the inhabitants of Cerinea under the leadership of Halil Aga, took a very prominent share in the revolt against the poll-tax of 14 piastres which was levied by the governor, Hafiz Mahommed Effendi.

Harbour.

The harbour is described in Chapter V; it is small, and unsafe during north winds, but is the usual port for vessels trading between Cyprus and the opposite coast of Caramania.

Fortifications.

At one time a strong wall surrounded the town, but the greater part of this has now fallen down, and has partially filled the harbour with its ruins; on the east side stands the castle of Cerinea, a fortress erected, it is said, by the Venetians; it is well built, square in shape, and flanked at each corner by a circular tower.

It is constructed of excellent stone, and in the old days must have been a place of great strength, with quarters for a very large garrison. On the north and east sides it is washed by the sea, and is defended on the south and west sides by a deep ditch; there is a gate on the west side.

Besides cellars, which were probably used as dungeons, there are two tiers of lofty casemated chambers and a flat roof upon which the guns were also worked; each story of casemates has embrasures, so there were three tiers of fire.

The armament is a strange assortment of old guns; there is one long bronze piece, the exterior of which is sixteen-sided; there are old mortars for throwing large stone balls, as well as bronze pieces of the time of the Lusignans, and others which belonged to the Venetians.

General di Cesnola remarks that Cerinea is "almost exclusively inhabited by Mussulmans, who, with the garrison, enjoy a very bad reputation—second only to that of their co-religionists at New Paphos."

Character of
the inhabi-
tants.

MORPHO.

General di Cesnola describes Morpho as a town containing from 550 to 600 houses. It is situated at the western extremity of the Messaria Plain, and near the shore of Morpho Bay. The inhabitants are mostly Christians; there is a large Greek convent close outside the town with a school for 200 boys. Several streams flowing from the eastward supply Morpho with water, and are used for the irrigation of the surrounding fields; much grain is grown in the neighbourhood, and the district is considered one of the most productive in the island; madder roots have been cultivated, and until they were superseded by the Alizarine dye, were found to be very remunerative. The shore of the bay is low and sandy, and is suitable for disembarkation from boats, but, with winds from west to north, there is always a heavy sea rolling in.

Description.

KUKLIA.

The village of Kuklia stands upon the site of the ancient Palæ Paphos, and is situated about nine miles south east of Baffo on the road leading to Limasol. Under the Venetians there was a considerable town here, but scarcely anything now remains except a heap of ruined houses, and the pillars and foundations of ancient churches. There are only about 30 small stone houses standing, these are inhabited partly by Turks and partly by Greeks, all of whom are of a very poor class.

Description.

Löher describes the place and its vicinity as a "scene of desolation." The surrounding heights have flowering shrubs here and there, interspersed with palms and other trees, but cultivation appears to be neglected.

DALI.

Description.

Dali is a small village standing on the site of the ancient Idalium, on the southern edge of the Messaria plain, and about ten miles south of Nicosia. The river Idalia passes along the northern side of the village, and is a fertilizing agent for the whole neighbourhood. There was formerly a large temple of Venus here, it is now a mere heap of ruins. General di Cesnola made this place his summer residence for several years, and praises it very highly. At one time the great forest of Idalium covered this spot, and the country eastward, but now trees are only to be seen close to running water or wells, and in the immediate vicinity of the villages.

EVRIKOU.

The village of Evrikou deserves mention, not on account of its size, but because of its excellent position. It stands in a beautiful valley, 1,700 feet above the sea, amongst fruitful and luxuriant pastures, about mid-way between Mount Troodos and the Gulf of Pentagia or Morpho. The population is about 700, and the inhabitants are a very fine race, supposed to be purely descended from the ancient Greek colonists. The surrounding country is extremely picturesque, and is well wooded with plane, oak, elm, poplar, ash, alder, and other trees. The village is said to be one of the pleasantest places in the island, and is well suited for a summer residence. The valley is well watered and cultivated; it could support ten times the number of its present inhabitants. Mulberry trees and vines are cultivated, and cotton, wine, and silk are sent from here to the markets. Unger, Kotschy, and Von Löher are all loud in their praises of this spot.

The foregoing are the towns and villages of Cyprus, which on account of their trade, situation, population, defences, or association with ancient history, are the most important places in the island; but besides these there are a great number of villages, some of which are populous, and form the chief towns of districts. According to Vice-Consul White's report of 1863, the total number of towns and villages in the island was then 605, of which 118 were inhabited solely by Mussulmans, 248 by Christians only, and 239 had a mixed population.

The following are some of the principal villages which have not yet been mentioned: many of these are described in the next chapter, which deals with the principal inland communications of the island.

Lefca, a village near the southern corner of Morpho Bay.

Poli tou Khrysokho, a village near the western extremity of the island, and on the gulf of the same name.

Lapethus, on the north coast, nine miles west of Cerinea.

Kythraea, famous for its spring, nine miles north-east of Nicosia.

Athienou, on the road between Larnaca and Nicosia, and about

12 miles from each; a village occupied chiefly by muleteers, who keep mules for hire.

Episkopi, on the Limasol—Baffo road, about eight miles west of Limasol.

Tamassus, a village on the upper course of the Pedias river, and once famous for the mining operations carried on in the vicinity.

There are numerous others of about the same size, amongst which may be mentioned Lithrodonda, Kilani, Lefkara, Vatali, Tricomo, Aradippo, Avdimu, &c.

ANTIQUITIES.

It would be beyond the scope of this work to enter into any archæological details concerning the antiquities of Cyprus; these remarks are therefore confined to a brief enumeration of the discoveries, and a notice of the light which they throw upon the ancient history of the island; those who are interested in this subject will find in General di Cesnola's recently published book, "Cyprus: its Cities, Tombs, and Temples," a complete and well narrated record of the explorations made by him in the island, and which have been described as adding a new and very important chapter to the history of Art and Archæology.

There is but very little to be seen above ground of the remains of antiquity in Cyprus; the ancient royal cities afford the most interesting fields for the explorer, but as these are now buried, their treasures can only be reached by excavation. Idalium, Golgos, Curium, and Amathus, have yielded interesting and valuable relics, but it is not certain whether these sites have been entirely worked out. The explorations at Paphos have, so far, been comparatively unproductive; the great temple, rebuilt by Vespasian in the archaic form, is now only a mass of shapeless ruins, owing perhaps to the effect of successive earthquakes. At Citium, the harbour and the walls of the ancient city may still be traced to the southward of the modern town of Larnaca, and excavations have here been rewarded with some objects of great interest, especially the Assyrian stele, bearing the figure and annals of Sargon, now in the Berlin Museum; also some terra-cottas of the Macedonian period. Salamis has been less productive, as probably the remains of the ancient city were used for building purposes by the mediæval rulers of the island.

Ancient cities.

The antiquities to be found in the island have been classified as follows:—

Classification of antiquities.

1. Inscriptions.—Egyptian, Assyrian, Cypriote, Phœnician, Greek, and Roman.
2. Statues, and figures in stone.
3. Terra-cottas.—Archaic, Greek, and false Archaic.
4. Objects in metal.—Ornaments and bowls.
5. Coins.—Cypriote, Phœnician, Greek, Roman, Byzantine, and Kingdom of Cyprus.
6. Glass.

- Inscriptions.** An appendix to General di Cesnola's work, describes fully the Greek inscriptions discovered at Palæ Paphos, Kythraea, Curium, and other places, also the Cypriote inscriptions obtained chiefly in Golgos, and the Phœnician which were found at Citium. All remains in the Cypriote character are of the highest value to the archæologist.
- Statues.** As regards the statues discovered in Cyprus, there are no traces of very high art; the character of Oriental taste was too firmly fixed for Hellenic art, late in arrival, and never wholly welcome to the national instincts, to plant itself securely in the island. It is, moreover, evident that art was affected by the abundance of the soft limestone of Cyprus, which lent itself with fatal facility to the production of inferior work; thus Cypriote statues are but little superior to the lower class of terra-cottas in force of execution and attention to detail. Their general characteristics are shown by the good typical series of statues and statuettes from the famous city of Idalium, discovered by Mr. Lang, and arranged in the British Museum at the entrance of the great Egyptian gallery on the ground floor.
- Terra-cottas.** Among the archaic vases and terra-cottas in the upper gallery will be found good typical examples of Cypriote work. An interesting article on the Pottery of Cyprus, by Mr. A. S. Murray, forms an Appendix to General di Cesnola's book.
- Works in metal.** The metal objects found at Curium are of beautiful workmanship; they consist of solid gold armlets, necklaces, bracelets, signet rings, earrings; pateræ of gold and silver; goblets, bowls, and dishes of silver and silver-gilt; tripods and candelabra of bronze, copper, and iron. The drawings of these in General di Cesnola's book are exceedingly good.
- Coins.** Coins are found in abundance throughout Cyprus. The most valuable are those bearing Cypriote inscriptions, ranging probably from the sixth century, B.C. to the middle of the fourth. The Phœnician coinages of the Kings of Citium and Idalium, dating in the fifth and fourth centuries B.C., deserve the next place. Both these illustrate the religion and history of the island. A few fine Greek coins of Paphos and Salamis have come to light, but they were evidently scantily issued. Under the Ptolemies, the mint of Cyprus struck a large quantity of money, and as the greater part of the silver coins are dated, the class is of unusual interest. The Roman coins of Paphos, with the representation of the great temple of Aphrodite, are not uncommon. Of subsequent currencies, the most interesting is that of the Lusignan Kings of Cyprus, a complete representative series of which is very hard to obtain.
- Glass.** Glass vases are found in great numbers and varieties in the tombs at Dali, where the whole vicinity is one vast cemetery; also in the tombs at Amathus, beautiful iridescent glass objects have been found.
- Architecture.** As regards architecture; the mediæval remains, particularly those of the Lusignan dynasty at Nicosia, and of the Genoese at Famagusta, merit careful study; the architecture of many of the convents also deserves examination.
- Value of the discoveries in Cyprus.** The value of these discoveries is explained by Mr. R. Stuart

Poole in an article in the *Contemporary Review* of January, 1878. It appears that until the late discoveries in Cyprus, followed by those in the Troad and at Mycenæ, no works could be assigned to Homer's age, or to the age before him. Homer may be dated in the ninth century before our era, and until quite lately there has scarcely been known any Greek or Græco-Asiatic work of art, of which it could be said that it was older than about B.C. 800, for that is the period to which the objects found in the Hellenic sites can be carried back in an unbroken series. Now, however, we have a mass of works of an undoubtedly earlier period, and it is believed that they range from the Trojan age, perhaps B.C. 1200, to the close of the Greek dominion, in a series of monumental records unrivalled for continuous succession anywhere in the world save in Egypt; it is also evident that they are in origin and characteristics Phœnician, bearing the impress of the art of the nations which in turn ruled the Eastern Mediterranean, Greek art alone being but faintly represented.

Much still remains to be done in the way of antiquarian research in Cyprus; the ancient cities of Aphrodisium, Soli, Arsinœ and others, are as yet almost untouched, but now that the Turkish jealousy of archæological exploration is removed, these sites will doubtless be carefully investigated, and more light thrown upon the present obscure subject of the early history of Cyprus.

CHAPTER IV.

COMMUNICATIONS: INLAND, MARITIME, AND TELEGRAPHIC.

Inland communications.

THE means of internal communication in Cyprus are, as is generally the case throughout the Turkish dominions, very defective.

The only road which is really fit for carriages is that connecting Nicosia with Larnaca, but even this, as will afterwards be shown, is at present anything but a good road according to English ideas. The want of a good means of communication between these towns has long been apparent, and is indeed almost a necessity for the conduct of the business of the island, but the apathy and dilatoriness of the Turkish officials has long delayed and prevented its construction. Consul Sandwith in a report of 1867, says that an abortive attempt to construct this road was made three or four years previously, but instead of devoting any of the usual revenue of the island to the purpose, a tax was imposed on that part of the country which was to have benefited by the undertaking, and its labouring population was compelled to work on the road gratuitously. After £3,000 had been expended in the payment of salaries to an engineer and his staff, and in preliminary expenses, the work stopped, the only result being the cutting of a ditch for five miles on either side of the intended road. The next Governor recommended the abandonment of the scheme, but at the beginning of 1867, Consul Sandwith found that the inhabitants of the district were still paying the road tax, and as much as £130 had been taken from one village, where the population, being very poor, had offered to work without remuneration in lieu of paying the tax, but were told that money, and not labour, was required.

At some period, however, during the last ten years, this road has been made passable for carriages, and has been daily used by a diligence, or omnibus, which runs between Nicosia and Larnaca, but it is very evident from the accounts of it which have lately reached us, that a good deal of labour must still be expended upon it, before it becomes a convenient communication. The remaining roads of the island, even those radiating from Nicosia to the chief places on the coast such as Famagusta, Cerinea, Limasol, and Baffo, as well as the road along the southern shore from Famagusta, through Larnaca and Limasol, to Baffo, are said to be nothing more than fair mule and camel tracks, which are, however, used in places with more or less difficulty by the native carts carrying agricultural produce. Most of these roads might, it is stated, be con-

verted into carriage roads without any very great outlay; moreover, the level character of a great portion of the interior of the island offers facilities for the construction of good roads, and there can be no doubt that the immediate attention of the present government will be directed to the subject of the improvement of existing communications, and the construction of new ones where required. In the more mountainous parts of the island, only rough and difficult bridle paths are at present to be found. Bridges are very generally wanting, and are much needed, for in winter, when the numerous torrents which cross the roads are swollen by rain, dangerous accidents are of frequent occurrence, as travellers who are ignorant of the depth and of the force of the current, are compelled to wade across the stream.

The annual consular reports invariably contain allusions to the neglect on the part of the Turkish Government of public works, and especially the construction and repair of roads and bridges.

Vizierial orders to provincial governors on the subject, have indeed not been wanting, but as no funds are provided or set apart for the purpose, the urgent orders practically go no further than their record. Consul Riddell, writing in April 1876, says that "the pressure for money to help Imperial necessities at the capital is so great, that it is useless to expect any expenditure on the much needed public works in Cyprus;" and Consul Watkins in his report dated March 1878, notices that nothing whatever had been done during the past year, and even the existing carriage road between Larnaca and Nicosia was greatly neglected.

The following descriptions of the principal inland communications of the island have been extracted from the accounts of travellers who have passed over them at various times, they may serve to give some idea of their present state; further details are not at hand:—

Places on the Road.	Distances in miles.		DESCRIPTION OF THE ROAD.
	Intermediate.	Total.	
			1. LARNACA TO NICOSIA.
Larnaca ..	—	—	The road, on leaving the Marina of Larnaca, takes a northerly direction to Larnaca proper, which is about three-quarters of a mile distant, and winds through the narrow streets of that town, from which it emerges upon an extensive plain of dry, but apparently fair soil of a white marly description. For about three miles there are indications of cultivation; at first cotton fields are not infrequent, and portions of land here bear grain crops; vineyards, too, occasionally appear, but the vines in this neighbourhood are generally dwarf and stunted, and the grapes very small. The general direction of the road is north-west, it is very rough and stony, full of deep ruts, and entirely out of repair. The Greek village of

Places on the Road.	Distances in miles.		DESCRIPTION OF THE ROAD.
	Intermediate.	Total.	
LARNACA TO NICOSIA—continued.			
Aradippo ..	3	3	Aradippo, which consists of about twenty-five houses and a church, lies a short distance to the left of the road, and is surrounded by a few small gardens. Nicosia can be reached by a road through Aradippo and Dali, but the distance is rather longer than by the main road through Athienou. Cultivation now almost entirely ceases, and the country is generally dry and arid, but wherever there is even a trickle of water all becomes verdant; at intervals small huts are passed, and these, being built close to water, stand in fertile gardens forming oases in the miniature desert. For about six miles the road ascends, but not steeply, and passes through a hilly limestone country; then a narrow plateau is crossed, from which an extensive view over the Messaria plain is obtained, and the road descends the northern slope of the hills. The country is here much broken, and the ravines of the winter torrents are covered with shrubs. There are two roads between Aradippo and Athienou, the westerly one of the two is the best. The uncultivated ground is thickly covered with wild thyme, bushes of a fuzzy nature, and thistles.
Athienou ..	10½	13½	The village of Athienou consists of a group of mud houses and a neat Greek church. There is not much to attract the eye, but it is considered in Cyprus a thriving village, and is chiefly inhabited by muleteers, who keep good mules for hire. The village stands in a gentle depression, and round it are cornfields, some large and rich gardens of olives and mulberries, and a few vineyards. The water supply is plentiful, and some of the undulating ground in the vicinity is under tillage. The road continues through a partially cultivated country, and the plain is varied here and there by low table-shaped hills of sand and conglomerate. No trees are to be seen except the olives and other fruit trees which generally grow close to the villages or detached houses.
Piroi ..	3½	17	Piroi is a small and unimportant village close to the road. Here the river Idalia is crossed by a stone bridge which was built by the Venetians. A mule track from Larnaca, which is said to be shorter than the main road, joins it at the bridge, having hitherto taken a direction slightly more to the eastward. The road continues through a flat and uninteresting country and passes Aglangia and other insignificant villages; a low ridge of hills is crossed from which a good view of Nicosia, about two miles distant, is obtained. The northern part of the Messaria plain is well cultivated, and produces the best grain crops in the island. The town of Nicosia is described in the preceding chapter.
Nicosia ..	3	25	The whole road, though passable by carriages, is said to be in a very bad condition.

Places on the Road.	Distances in miles.		DESCRIPTION OF THE ROAD.
	Intermediate.	Total.	
2. FAMAGUSTA TO LARNACA.			
<i>Famagusta</i> ..	—	—	The road leaves Famagusta by the gate at the south-western angle of the fortifications, and takes a southerly direction to the town of Varoschia. Both Famagusta and Varoschia are described in the preceding chapter. The road then turns south-west, and passes through a flat and dreary country, which is entirely without trees, and very scantily inhabited. The western end of Lake Paralimni, which in summer is dry, is skirted, and the small village of Sotira also lies on the left-hand side of the road, which continues through a dry and arid plain, over which it is said at one time the forest of Idalium extended.
<i>Ormidia</i> ..	12	12	The village of Ormidia is pleasantly situated at the eastern extremity of the Bay of Larnaca; it consists of a number of scattered huts built along a range of heights overlooking the water. General di Osmola made this place his summer residence for several years, and praises it very highly; the chief attractions are stated to be, a never failing cool breeze at night, good water, and large shady gardens. The road turns west after passing Ormidia, and skirts the shore of the bay for some miles passing Mavrosphilos and Ridgelia; the sea is bordered by low rocks which time and weather have formed into stalactitic shapes. At a ruined and dismantled fort called Yeni Kale, the coast line trends round to the southward, and the road follows the course of the bay, turning a little inland in order to avoid a piece of marshy ground where some streams run down to the sea. A great part of the country in this neighbourhood is uncultivated and covered with heath, weeds, thistles, and thorny shrubs.
<i>Larnaca</i> ..	16	27	Larnaca is described in the preceding chapter. This road could be made passable by carriages without any great labour, as most of the country traversed is quite flat.
3. NICOSIA TO CERINEA.			
<i>Nicosia</i> ..	—	—	The road passes through the fortifications by the Cerinea gate, and takes a general northerly direction through a plain, the greater part of which is in the spring sown with grain, and yields good crops. In summer it is, however, entirely burnt up, and only thistles and thorny weeds are to be seen amongst stubble.
<i>River Pedias</i>	1½	1½	The road crosses the River Pedias about one and a half miles from the walls of Nicosia; this stream is very variable in its condition; after the rains it is so full of water that it overflows its banks, inundates the adjoining flat country, and spreads a rich alluvium over the fields, but in summer it is often either dry, or has only a mere trickle of water in its bed. For about two and a half miles more, the road continues

Places on the Road.	Distances in miles.		DESCRIPTION OF THE ROAD.
	Intermediate.	Total.	
			NICOSSIA TO CERINEA—continued.
<i>Dikomo</i> ..	7	8½	through a plain of the same nature as above described, then it commences gradually to rise, and enters a broken and rugged country, covered with low rocky hills of a brown colour; these are divided by steep gullies, which, in the rainy season become torrents. The road is nothing more than a mere bridle-path winding amongst the out-cropping ridges of rock. This description of country continues for about four miles, and then the road dips into a narrow valley, where the green herbage indicates the presence of water, flocks of sheep and goats are to be found here, but not much of the land is cultivated, and it is very thinly populated.
<i>Summit of Pass</i> ..	2½	11	On the northern side of this valley, and near the foot of the steep slope of the chain of mountains bordering the coast, is the small village of Dikomo, pleasantly situated amongst groves of trees, and fertile fields irrigated by the springs of the valley. The road soon commences to ascend somewhat steeply to the summit of a low spur which projects from the main range, and along the ridge of which it continues for a short distance, leading straight to a gorge which intersects the mountains. The surface of the ground is chiefly rock, but in the interstices and wherever there is soil, there is a thick growth of myrtle and evergreen shrubs, and a carpet of wild thyme, and other sweet-scented flowers; in the hollows are some young pines and olive trees. In the gorge the road improves, it is narrow but well defined, and has been built across the depressions; the surface is somewhat rough and stony, but no very great labour would be required to convert it into a practicable road for strong vehicles. The road is not quite straight, so the distance measured on the map is only approximate.
<i>Cerinea</i> ..	4	15	The road ascends gradually to the summit of the Pass, whence a good view is obtained over the sea to the north of the island, and the mountains of Caramania are seen on the horizon. The gorge is bounded by bare grey rocks. As the descent commences the gorge begins to open out, and soon Cerinea may be seen far below on the shore. The northern slope of the mountains is very steep, and there is no regular road down the side until near the bottom, where a narrow belt of smooth ground slopes gently down to the water's edge. Locust-bean trees and olives abound, much of the land is cultivated, and villages and detached houses are scattered here and there. This appears to be a favoured part of the island as regards both climate and fertility. Cerinea is described in the preceding chapter.

Places on the Road.	Distances in miles.		DESCRIPTION OF THE ROAD.
	Intermediate.	Total.	
4. NICOSIA TO FAMAGUSTA.			
Nicosia ..	—	—	The city of Nicosia has been described in the preceding chapter. This road passes through the fortifications by the Famagusta gate, and takes a south-easterly direction through the Messaria plain which is here very generally cultivated and under tillage; the crops are chiefly wheat and barley. Seiff says that he noticed large flocks of sheep in several parts of the plain. The village of Aglangia is seen off the road to the right-hand side; shortly a small group of houses called Paliokora is passed, and numerous sheep-folds are in this neighbourhood. Rei Kiu, an unimportant hamlet is passed, and a village called Timpu, or Tymbo, lies off the road to the right. The plain is bordered on the south by a series of low bare hills.
River Idalia	8½	8½	As the River Idalia is approached, the road passes through fertile gardens and plantations of trees irrigated by the river, the water supply of which is, however, very uncertain.
Ornithi ..	1	9½	Soon after crossing the river the road passes through the Turkish village of Ornithi, and a mile further the small village of Aphandia is reached. Both of these are quite unimportant, the latter consists merely of a cluster of miserable clay huts. The country is here a bare plain, traces of cultivation are rarely seen, and there are no trees whatever.
Aphandia ..	1	10½	
Aschia ..	3	13½	Aschia is a large Greek village, after passing which the road turns slightly more towards the east, and a village called Stronghilé is shortly seen about one mile to the left of the road. The country adjoining the road here becomes more cultivated.
Vatili ..	3	16½	Vatili is described by Seiff as a pleasant village, of which the houses are unusually clean, and which possesses a church with a fine tower. About six miles further on the village of Contea is seen a short distance off the road on the right, it consists chiefly of detached houses surrounded by gardens and trees.
Kuklia ..	7½	24	Kuklia is a small village, where the only thing worthy of notice is the beautiful country place of Signor Mantrovani; here the carefully planted gardens and orchards show what may in this place and climate be achieved by a thorough knowledge of the art of cultivation.
			After Kuklia the road passes amongst a series of sandy hillocks, which are entirely without vegetation, until it reaches the poor village of Kalopeida, situated in a small valley. In this vicinity Seiff noticed the locust traps, composed of screens and ditches, invented by M. Mattei, and which are described in Chapter VII.
Kalopeida ..	2½	26½	From Kalopeida the road traverses a low and marshy country, until the rising ground in the vicinity of Ascheritu is reached. Then again the road passes over a large expanse of low marshy ground. Varoschia is a suburb of Famagusta, and both these places are described in the last Chapter.
Ascheritu ..	4	30½	
Varoschia ..	5½	36	

Places on the Road.	Distances in miles.		DESCRIPTION OF THE ROAD.
	Intermediate.	Total.	
<i>Famagusta</i> ..	1	86½	<p>NICOSIA TO FAMAGUSTA—continued.</p> <p>Before entering Famagusta several large potteries and extensive gardens are passed.</p> <p>The road enters the town by a gate at the south-west corner of the fortifications crossing the ditch by means of a drawbridge.</p> <p>There appears to be no difficulty in transforming this route into a good carriage road, as it traverses almost level ground through the whole distance; hitherto it has been but little used, as the traffic between Nicosia and Famagusta is very small compared to that between Nicosia and Larnaca.</p>
<i>Larnaca</i> ..	—	—	<p>5. LARNACA TO LIMASOL.</p> <p>This road, on leaving Larnaca, takes for a short distance a direction nearly west; it skirts the northern extremity of the salt lakes, and then turns south-west; the cultivation is very partial, and between the plots of tilled ground, occur large wastes of heath, thistles and thorny bushes.</p>
<i>Arpera</i> ..	7½	7½	<p>The springs of Arpera, and the aqueduct leading thence to Larnaca, have already been mentioned. The village is small and unimportant; there is a mill driven by the water. At short intervals the road now crosses mountain torrents rising in the slopes of Monte S. Croce, along the stony beds of which a considerable volume of water flows during the rainy season, but in summer they are generally dry. The names of the largest of these streams are the Tetios, the Dereai and the Pentaakhino. Near the left bank of the latter stream, and about one-and-a-half miles from the shore is the village of Mazoto, which is better built than the majority of the villages along this coast; the inhabitants are entirely Greeks; part of the country in this neighbourhood is cultivated. The road now turns more to the westward, and is parallel to the shore, and generally at a distance of about a mile from it; on the slopes of the mountains to the north are large quantities of carob and olive trees, many of which are wild, and require grafting.</p>
<i>Mazoto</i> ..	5	12½	
<i>Maroni</i> ..	9	21½	<p>Maroni stands on the left bank of the stream of the same name which flows from Mount Makhera; it is an unimportant village.</p> <p>The road is not passable by carriages, and there is often difficulty in crossing the streams and ravines on horseback, as there are scarcely any bridges. A great deal of the land between Maroni and Amathus is waste, the villages of Pentakomo, Moni, and others equally insignificant are passed. The spurs from Mount Makhera here extend nearly to the shore.</p>
<i>Moni</i> ..	10	31½	
<i>Amathus</i> ..	5	36½	<p>At Amathus are the ruins of an ancient town, which bears evident traces of having originally been a Phœnician settlement; Tacitus and other authors speak of Amathus as the oldest city in Cyprus. General di</p>

Places on the Road.	Distances in miles.		DESCRIPTION OF THE ROAD.
	Intermediate.	Total.	
			LARNACA TO LIMASOL—continued.
<i>Limasol</i> ..	6½	43	<p>Cesnola in Chapter X of his work on Cyprus, gives a sketch of the ancient history of this place, and an account of the antiquities which have been discovered there. The road now follows the northern curve of Akrotiri (Limasol) Bay, where the shore is low and sandy. As Limasol is approached, the land becomes highly cultivated, and yields excellent crops; this locality is considered one of the best agricultural districts in the island.</p> <p>The town of Limasol has been described in the preceding chapter.</p> <p>To make the road between Larnaca and Limasol good and passable by carriages, would be a more difficult task than many of the other roads, and some engineering skill would be required, for the numerous torrents must be bridged, and the beds of the streams better defined, as in wet weather they now overflow, and cause much damage.</p>
			6. LIMASOL TO BAFFO.
<i>Limasol</i> ..	—	—	On leaving Limasol, this road crosses the River Garili, and takes a westerly direction through a cultivated country with high ground on the right. High up on the mountains are the vineyards for which this district is celebrated, below these are large groves of olives, carobs, &c., on the level ground are fields which bear good crops of grain and cotton, and to the southward is the large salt lake of Limasol, on the Akrotiri Peninsula.
<i>Kolossi</i> ..	6½	6½	Kolossi is a village surrounded by gardens and plentifully supplied with water. At this spot is a large square tower, said to have been built by the Templars, the summit of which commands a fine view; there is also a large aqueduct of the same period which is still used; both these constructions are of a limestone resembling marble. In this neighbourhood the best Commandaria wine is produced, and large shipments of it are annually made from Limasol to Trieste and Venice.
<i>Episcopi</i> ..	1½	8	Episcopi is a pleasantly situated village standing on the Episcopi, or Lycos, River, and very abundantly supplied with water. The houses are surrounded with fruitful gardens, and there are fields of grain and cotton in the vicinity. The inhabitants have, however, very small holdings, and are as a rule miserably poor. In former days Episcopi was a rich city, and contained in the Venetian times large manufactories; of its ancient greatness now remain the ruins of an aqueduct, immense storehouses or vaults, and several ruined Greek churches. The spurs from Mount Troodos here extend nearly down to the shore and the road follows the coast line, traversing a very beautiful country; the

Places on the Road.	Distances in miles.		DESCRIPTION OF THE ROAD.
	Intermediate.	Total.	
			LIMASOL TO BAYFO—continued.
<i>Aydimu</i> ..	9	17	ground in spring is covered with flowers and aromatic herbs, and the ravines are filled with a luxuriant growth of cypresses, wild olives, and flowering shrubs. The Turkish village of Aydimu, founded by Ptolemy Philadelphus in honour of his sister Arsinoë, lies a little off the road to the right; it is now unimportant.
<i>Pysouri</i> ..	5	22	Pysouri is a small village through which the road passes; it stands on the summit of a lofty hill and commands a fine view over the surrounding country. Thence the road continues through country of the same character to Kuklia, situated on the site of the ancient Palæ Paphos; it is a poor village with no interest beyond its ruins; mention has been made of this place in the last chapter. The road, still following the coast, now turns towards the north-west, and passes through a somewhat hilly country, intersected by numerous ravines and gullies, which in winter contain water running from the slopes of the Olympus range down to the sea.
<i>Kuklia</i> ..	9½	31½	
<i>Heirokeipos</i> ..	8	39½	Heirokeipos is only important on account of its springs, which have been mentioned in Chapter II., but is interesting on account of the tradition that in this place was the favourite garden of Venus, and the basin of water close by it is known as the Bath of Aphrodite. The country is here very picturesque, the ground generally slopes gently towards the sea, but appears in places to have been cut into large plateaux or terraces, which are surrounded by thick groves of olive trees many centuries old; carob trees also flourish here.
<i>Ktima</i> ..	1½	41	
<i>Baffu</i> ..	1½	42½	Baffu, with the adjacent village of Ktima, which has the larger population of the two, has been described in the last chapter. Some trouble and labour will be required to make this road suitable for carriages, and several bridges will have to be constructed.

There are but few other roads in Cyprus connecting places of importance besides those already described, but one upon which there is a certain amount of traffic is that from Larnaca, through Dali, to Nicosia; it is rather longer than the main road through Athienou; the distances on it are the following:—

Larnaca to Aradippo	3 miles.
Aradippo to Dali	15 "
Dali to Nicosia	10 "
Total			28 "

This road ascends to Lymbia, about four miles south-east of Dali, and then traverses the southern part of the Messaria plain. Dali is pleasantly situated on the River Idalia, a tributary of the Pédias, and is a good summer resort.

Another road, which is, however, but little used, is that from Nicosia, through Morpho to Poli tou Khrysokho.

Nicosia to Heirolakko	10½ miles
Heirolakko to Morpho	12½ "
Morpho to Soli	14 "
Soli to Poli tou Khrysokho	30 "

Total 67 "

This road, throughout the distance to Morpho, passes through the Messaria plain in a westerly direction; it then turns southwest to Soli, from which place it follows the curve of the coast to Poli tou Khrysokho; the portion of the route between the two last-named places is but a very rough bridle path, and is much cut up by neglected watercourses.

There is a road between Nicosia and Mount Olympus, passing through Trimithia, Peristerona, Evrikou, Galata, Podromo, and Trooditissa; at the latter place is a monastery where travellers can obtain lodging. From the monastery a difficult bridle path leads down the southern slopes of the mountains to Limasol, passing through Omodos and Potamia.

The means of direct communication between Cyprus and Western Europe have hitherto been but few, and these somewhat slow and inconvenient. Maritime communications.

Of possible routes from London to Larnaca, those most used have been, as far as Port Said or Alexandria, identical with the routes leading to India. Thus, if it was desired to perform the whole journey by sea, the Peninsular and Oriental Steamers from Southampton, as well as the Liverpool and London Steamers bound for Bombay, were available as far as Port Said or Alexandria; or again, the journey could be made overland to one of the Mediterranean ports, such as Genoa, Marseilles, Venice, Trieste, or Brindisi, and thence by sea to Port Said or Alexandria. Between Port Said and Beyrout, the steamers of the French *Messageries Maritimes*, and the Austrian Lloyd's Line ply on fixed dates, but lately the only steamers touching regularly at Cyprus have been those of the latter Company. These leave Rhodes and Beyrout fortnightly on Sunday and reach Larnaca on Tuesday. There has also been a boat every other Wednesday, which leaves Larnaca for Messina, Scanderoon, Latakiah, and Beyrout, and returns from Beyrout by the same route on the following Thursday.

There will now doubtless be additional means of communication; the Postmaster-General has made arrangements with Bell's Asia Minor Company, for the conveyance of a mail to and from Cyprus weekly, in connection, at Alexandria, with the overland India mails *viâ* Brindisi, the mail being made up in London every Friday evening. By the same route, mails will be brought to London weekly with the overland India mails *viâ* Brindisi.

The *Messageries Maritimes de France* announce a steamer to Larnaca from Marseilles, *viâ* Alexandria, leaving every alternate Thursday at noon, commencing August 1st, and before long we shall probably hear that some of the other companies whose steamers ply among the Turkish islands, such as the Russian *Compagnie de Commerce et de Navigation*, the Italian *Trinacria*, and *Rubattino*, Companies, the Turkish *Mahsussi*, and the Egyptian

Khedive Company, will, as the traffic and commerce develope, make arrangements for their vessels to call at the Cyprus ports on fixed days, but as yet there has scarcely been time for any such arrangements to be made. It is, however, reported that the Italian Minister of Public Works is already arranging with the *Rubattino* Company, the preliminaries of a convention for prolonging the course of the steamers bound for Alexandria, as far as Larnaca, touching at Port Said, Jaffa, and Beyrout. The voyages will probably be undertaken gratuitously by the company until December. In Liverpool, the establishment of a direct line of steamers between that port and Cyprus has already been proposed, and this is a fair proof of the energy with which the steam trade of England, and especially of Liverpool, is carried on in the Mediterranean. The cost of the journey from London, overland to Trieste, and thence by Port Said and Beyrout to Larnaca, is stated to be £29. 7s. 0d. first class, and £20. 13s. 5d. second class.

Telegraphic
communica-
tions.

In 1871, a submarine cable was laid down from Latakiah, in Syria, to Cape St. Andrea, the north-eastern extremity of Cyprus, and from there the telegraph wires were carried overland to Nicosia. Strong representations were then made by the commercial community of Larnaca, showing, and urging, the great commercial need of the extension of the telegraph from Nicosia to Larnaca; a work of but trifling cost, and which would soon be repaid by the more frequent use of the wires. For some time, however, nothing but promises could be extracted from Turkish authorities, but by 1873 the poles were set up, and in the next year the communication was completed, and is of great advantage to the town of Larnaca. Possibly a direct cable will now be laid between Cyprus and Alexandria, as a means of promoting commercial enterprise, and also to place the island in closer connection with Great Britain.

CHAPTER V.

DESCRIPTION OF THE COAST,* ANCHORAGES, ROADSTEADS, PORTS,
AND HARBOURS OF CYPRUS.

THE Bay of Famagusta is about 25 miles wide from Cape Elæa at the north extremity, to Cape Greco at the south; it enters the land about nine miles. The bay is very deep, the Admiralty Chart shows soundings of 200 fathoms over the whole of the outer part. The holding ground is described as bad,† and the anchorage is open to east and south-east winds. Large vessels anchor about 1,700 yards off the town of Famagusta in about 17 fathoms, stiff mud; inside 12 fathoms the bottom is rock and sand. Small vessels can obtain good anchorage, in three or four fathoms, close to the town, inside of a reef that runs parallel to the shore. This inner harbour was once deep and spacious, but is now choked with sand and mud, and the entrance is narrowed by stones fallen from a ruined lighthouse. About four and a-half miles to the northward of Famagusta is the ancient port of Salamis, now only a shallow basin; in the roadstead abreast of it is good anchorage in 10 to 16 fathoms with mud bottom.

Although this account of Famagusta Harbour shows it to be certainly at present in a bad condition, and quite unfit for use by war vessels, it is equally apparent, according to all reports, that should it be cleared out, its safety as a port would be beyond all doubt, for it is encircled by a tongue of land, with a series of rocks in continuation of it; and at a distance of 500 yards from the ramparts, and, parallel to the coast, runs a line of rock ledges, which gradually dip into the sea towards the north, commencing at a height of 13 feet above the water line, and falling to 18 feet below it. These rocks are of schist, the same formation as are the three small islands which close in the port to the east. These islands, if joined by a causeway, the construction of which would not be a difficult matter, would form the southern boundary of the harbour. The northern side is protected by a jetty which runs out to a length of 170 yards at right angles to the shore, leaving an entrance to the harbour, about 35 yards in width. It is stated that this jetty requires but little repair, except at a breach made by

* The Coast is described commencing at Famagusta on the eastern shore, then along the south coast in a westerly direction, up the western side, along the north coast from west to east, and so round the island.

† Laurie's "Mediterranean Directory," page 162.

the sea about the centre of it; it is through this gap that the sand and mud which now encumber and choke the harbour have penetrated.

The original dimensions of the harbour were from 70 to 75 acres; of this extent, seven acres have still a depth of about 12 feet of water, the remainder has in places a depth of from three to seven feet, but is also partly dry. The original depth is believed to have been about 30 feet with a good bottom of sand and mud.

The roadstead lies mainly to the north of the harbour, and is now about 130 acres in extent for vessels drawing from 18 to 20 feet of water.

To make the harbour fit for the reception of large vessels, it is manifest that several considerable works must be undertaken. The whole of the interior would have to be dredged out so as to give a uniform depth of not less than about 24 feet, the breach in the jetty would have to be repaired, and a connection made between the islands. Building materials are said to exist in abundance on the spot, so the latter operations would probably not be attended with any very great expense.

To enlarge the area of the harbour, the line of rocks on the east side could be prolonged by the construction of a jetty in less than nine feet of water, and this would give an additional space of about 77 acres, and if the jetty were again prolonged into 24 feet of water, an area of from 250 to 300 acres would be sheltered. Other attendant expenses would be the necessary repairs to the aqueduct so as to bring fresh water to the harbour, and the clearing of the approaches leading to it. It is stated that no rocks have been discovered near the bottom of the harbour, and that nothing but sand and mud would have to be removed.

With these alterations and improvements, it is not improbable that Famagusta would in time become a port of the highest value, and this more especially if the Euphrates Valley railway scheme is carried out, for it would form a safe, convenient and well-situated harbour, capable of affording shelter and protection to a large number of vessels.

Famagusta has apparently greater natural advantages for the formation of a good port, than any other place on the shores of Cyprus, and the matter is really only a question of expense.

Vice-Consul White in a Report of 1863, says: "It cannot be doubted that should Cyprus ever fall into the hands of any European power, Famagusta would once more become a place of great importance. Its great strength and sheltered harbour would not fail to be turned to good account." The occupation of the island by England may possibly cause a speedy realization of this prediction.

From Famagusta to Cape Greco, the south-eastern point of Cyprus, is about 14 miles; this cape may be recognised by the abrupt table cliff, 400 feet high, one mile to the westward of it, which appears like an old fortress; the cape itself is low and tapering, and when seen from the south-west has a marked brown and barren appearance. There is deep water close off the point, and a current sets round it to the westward at the rate of from a half to

The coast
from Fama-
gusta to
Larnaca.

three-quarters of a knot per hour. About four and five miles northward of Cape Greco, nearly one mile from the shore, and one mile apart, are two rocks with three fathoms over them. Vessels running for the anchorage off Famagusta must be careful not to bring Cape Greco to the eastward of south three-quarters east until past these dangers.

The coast trends west from Cape Greco for 14 miles to Cape Pila, the shore is rocky, but has one or two coves where a landing from boats can be effected. Cape Pila is tolerably high and bold; it is easily recognized by a ruined tower on it.

After Cape Pila the coast forms a large curve to the southward, and encloses the Bay of Larnaca, on the west side of which is the town of the same name. Here there is no harbour, but the anchorage in the bay, though open to winds from south-west by south to east, is safe even during the winter season (when south-east gales prevail) for vessels with good anchors and cables, but the short sea, and heavy swell that runs into the bay at these times, renders the anchorage very uncomfortable, and, except in cases of necessity, it is not to be recommended at that season. That part of the town of Larnaca which extends along the beach is called the Marina, the rest of the town is about three-quarters of a mile inland. Vessels usually anchor off the northern part of the Marina in from 12 to 18 fathoms, here the bottom is soft mud and good holding; inside 10 fathoms the bottom is in some parts hard and bad holding ground. With strong south-east winds, the sea often breaks in five or six fathoms of water, and a heavy surf on the beach renders landing in such a case both difficult and dangerous. The Larnaca Bay anchorage is however very safe in the spring and summer months, when north-west winds as a rule prevail. The mouth of the Bay is 17 miles wide from Cape Pila to Cape Kiti, and it enters the land about seven miles.

The shore varies considerably in different parts: from Cape Pila westward for nine miles, it is rocky with a few outlying rocks close off it; then for six miles from a ruined fort called Yeni Kale to Larnaca, it is a sandy beach backed by a slight elevation on which are several villages; from Larnaca southward for seven miles to Cape Kiti is a stony and shingly beach, at the back of which is an extensive plain, with a series of large salt lagoons lying parallel and close to the shore.

From a mast on a white house situated 165 yards northward of the Lazaretto is exhibited, at an elevation of 46 feet, a fixed red light, visible four miles in clear weather.

Cape Kiti, the southern extremity of Larnaca Bay, is low and flat, but is easily distinguished by a square tower 73 feet above the sea, built on a slight elevation one mile to the northward of it.

In 1864 a fixed white light was established 90 yards from the extremity of Cape Kiti on a mast on a white house; it is elevated 92 feet, and is visible eight miles in clear weather.

All the coast hereabouts is skirted by shoal water, and vessels coming from the southward should not approach Cape Kiti within one and a quarter miles, there being only five fathoms at that dis-

Larnaca.

Larnaca
Light.The coast
from Larnaca
to Limasol.

Kiti Light.

tance. From Cape Kiti the coast trends south-west for 28 miles to Amathus (now in ruins), it has a slight convexity to the southward, the apex of which, Carrubiere Point, is close to the mouth of the Vasili river; along this shore there are outlying rocks. At about eight miles inland, is situated the high ground of Monte S. Croce or Oros Stavro (2,300 feet), and further to the west is Monte Makhera (4,730 feet).

Limasol.

After Amathus, the coast curves round to the southward for six miles to Limasol, and the shore is a low and sandy beach enclosing Akroteri Bay, on the west side of which is the town of Limasol. This shore appears to be suitable for the disembarkation of troops of all arms, as it was selected for this purpose by Richard Cœur de Lion in 1191, and again by the Turks when they invaded Cyprus in 1570. There is no harbour at Limasol, but there is an anchorage off the town in from seven to twelve fathoms with good holding ground. This roadstead is, according to the "Mediterranean Pilot" considered preferable to that off Larnaca; it is quite sheltered from the prevailing westerly winds, but is directly open to the east and south-east.

The coast
from Limasol
to Baffo.

From Limasol, the low sandy beach continues for six miles due south to Cape Gata, which is the eastern extremity of Akroteri Peninsula, a projection extending about five miles from the general run of the coast. Cape Gata is the most southern point of Cyprus. The peninsula is six miles wide, and attains a height of 188 feet close to the sea midway between Cape Gata and its western extremity, Cape Zephgari.

Gata Light.

On Cape Gata, at a height of 190 feet, is a fixed white light, varied by a flash every two minutes, visible in clear weather 15 miles.

Off Akroteri Peninsula there is foul ground for a mile out, and a wide berth should be given. West of Cape Zephgari the coast recedes about six miles, and then, curving round westward to Cape Bianco, forms Episcopi Bay, the shore of which is, between Cape Zephgari and Episcopi village, a low sandy beach, and, beyond the village, a series of small sandy bays backed by high cliffs. This bay is fully exposed to the prevalent westerly winds, and the swell which is continually rolling in, renders the anchorage both unsafe and uncomfortable. From Cape Bianco to Paphos Point (Cape Baffo), a distance of about 20 miles, the coast trends nearly north-west; for the first five miles the shore is high and rugged, with rocks and sunken ledges extending out about a quarter of a mile, this is succeeded by a low, sandy, and stony beach, and the inland country is here somewhat marshy and unhealthy. The Moulia Rocks, two and a half miles south-east three-quarters south of Baffo (the ancient Nea Paphos), extend one and a-half mile off shore, leaving a channel of 12 feet inside them. There is a summer anchorage to the south-east of this reef.

Baffo.

At Baffo there was a small harbour formed by two moles, which have now broken away in several places, exposing the port and rendering it very unsafe; it is, moreover, nearly choked with sand, and there are only four to eight feet of water at the entrance, and 10 to 12 feet in a small space inside, so that it can only be used by

vessels of very small burden and light draught. The place is notoriously unsafe during south and south-east gales.

From Baffo the coast trends nearly north for 27 miles to Cape Arnauti (Acamas), the north-west extremity of the island. Throughout this distance the shore presents a forbidding aspect, as there are reefs and ledges of rock projecting out along the greater part of it, and on these a heavy sea is generally breaking; the coast itself consists of a succession of small sandy bays and cliffy bights; the shoal ground extends generally from one-third to three-quarters of a mile from the land.

The coast
from Baffo to
Khrysokho
Bay.

Cape Arnauti is a low and sharp headland, of which the western side is nearly perpendicular, but the eastern part is thickly wooded, and slopes gradually down to the beach of Khrysokho Bay in which there is summer anchorage and good holding ground. The "Mediterranean Pilot" states that this bay is much used by local coasting vessels which come for corn and firewood. At the head of the bay near Poli (Khysokho) village is a small jetty, and the shore is here a low and sandy beach nine miles in length.

Khrysokho
Bay.

The width of the Bay from Cape Arnauti to Pomo Point, its eastern extremity, is about $16\frac{1}{2}$ miles, and it enters the land about six miles. The end of Pomo Point is low and sandy, but in other parts the shore is rugged and skirted by rocks; off the point there is shoal water for one mile in a north-westerly direction.

The coast now trends east, but after 16 miles of rocky shore it curves to the northward for 20 miles to Cape Kormakiti, and encloses Morpho Bay, on the eastern side of which there is a low pebbly and sandy beach; off this is deep water and a good bottom; still this anchorage is generally considered unsafe, being entirely exposed to westerly winds, which drive in a heavy sea, and often render a landing from boats quite impossible. Morpho Bay is 21 miles across from Cape Kormakiti to Cape Kokkino, and enters the land about 10 miles.

Morpho Bay.

About 23 miles east of Cape Kormakiti is the town of Cerinea, or Kyrenia, which has a small port, into which it was reported in 1855 that vessels of 120 tons could enter. It is considered that if provided with a mole, Cerina would become a favourite port for vessels bound from the Archipelago. The roadstead is large, but the holding ground is not very good, and northerly winds raise a heavy sea; this anchorage is now only used by small vessels trading between Cyprus and the opposite coast of Carmania, as the port is not protected from the north.

Cerinea.

The 75 miles of the north coast from Cerinea to Cape St. Andrea require but brief notice. The shore is almost straight, is without ports or shelter, and is very scantily inhabited. The Karpas mountains border the sea and slope steeply down to it. Off Cape St. Andrea are several small rocks and islets surrounded by deep water. From Cape St. Andrea the coast trends south-west for about 37 miles to Cape Elæa, before mentioned as the northern point of Famagusta Bay; the shore throughout this distance is nearly straight, and has no shelter.

The north
coast.

Cape St.
Andrea to
Famagusta.

From the foregoing description of the coast of Cyprus it appears that there are three open roadsteads, viz.: Famagusta, Larnaca, and

Remarks.

Limasol, the first of which is undoubtedly capable of being converted, with a certain outlay, into a safe and commodious harbour, but equal facilities do not appear to exist at the other two places, though perhaps something may be done to provide shelter. There are also insecure harbours now existing at Baffo and Cerinea, which in a very small way are used for trading purposes by light coasting vessels; but, to render them safe, the existing moles must be repaired, and at Cerinea a new one constructed; a certain amount of dredging work would also have to be undertaken to enable them to admit the ordinary class of trading vessel.

In all the roadsteads of the southern shore ships have good holding ground, and, with proper care, may ride out any storm without danger. The only disadvantage of these anchorages is the shallowness of the water in-shore, which causes a dangerous surf to break in stormy weather. The native coasting craft often have not sufficient cable to anchor outside the surf, and consequently numbers are driven ashore every year, but Consul Lang says that during the nine years of his residence in Cyprus, no casualty ever occurred to a European vessel at anchor, nor can he remember that any such vessel was ever obliged to go out to sea for safety. On the whole it appears that ironclads or any sea-worthy vessels with good anchors and cables may lie off Larnaca, Famagusta, and Limasol during the worst of the winter months, viz. January and February, but it may frequently happen that ships in the roadsteads are unable to hold any communication with the shore for several days.

On the north coast the sea room is more restricted, and it does not appear that the ports on this side can ever be turned to much use, though small coasting vessels may perhaps find shelter at Cerinea and Morpho in certain winds.

CHAPTER VI.

THE CLIMATE OF CYPRUS.

To obtain an accurate knowledge of the climate of our new possession, is naturally a matter of the highest importance, in order that the proper sanitary measures may be adopted to ensure the health of the British garrison and the inhabitants generally. The first reports which were circulated when the occupation of the island by England was announced, although conflicting, were, on the whole, unfavourable; but later and more reliable information tends to show that whilst certain fevers are very prevalent during the hot months, they are generally of a mild type, and that the acknowledged unhealthiness of certain towns and districts is not really attributable to the climate, but rather to local insanitary conditions, all of which are capable of removal, and indeed there is little doubt that many of the sinister reports concerning the general unhealthiness of the island are much exaggerated. The health statistics of the troops during the first few months of the occupation cannot be accepted as a fair criterion of what may be expected in future summers, for the present conditions of service are peculiarly trying, in consequence of the amount of extra work and exposure involved in the disembarkation, the first occupation of the island, and the want of suitable accommodation; but even under these exceptional circumstances the cases of illness are nearly all recognized as ephemeral fever, due to exposure to solar heat, and, as the name implies, of but short duration.

To arrive at a correct conclusion regarding the climate of Cyprus, not only must the atmospheric conditions which affect health be considered, but also the numerous and various causes of unhealthiness which inevitably result from the existence of marshes, scarcity of water, imperfect drainage, and the absence of trees.

On the first subject, the climatological aspect of Cyprus, some valuable information has been kindly supplied by Alexander Buchan, Esq., Secretary of the Scottish Meteorological Society, who writes as follows:—

“Between the years 1863 and 1867, the Scottish Meteorological Society established various Climatological Stations in different parts of Europe, with the view of collecting trustworthy information concerning the climates of places which might be recognized as Sanatoria. Four such stations were established, viz., at Jerusalem,

Beyrout and Damascus in Syria, and at Larnaca in Cyprus, mainly through the instrumentality of the late Dr. Keith Johnston, at that time the Society's Honorary Secretary, whilst on an eastern tour in the spring of 1863. Admiral Fitzroy most cordially co-operated with the Council in this matter, and secured sets of the best instruments for the observers from the Board of Trade. The observer at Larnaca was Thomas B. Sandwith, Esq., H.M.'s Vice-Consul for Cyprus, who was supplied by the Board of Trade, through this Society with a barometer, six common thermometers, one maximum, and one minimum thermometer, and a rain gauge. The observations commenced in October 1866, and were continued with a few interruptions for about four years, or till about the time Mr. Sandwith left Larnaca. The results were published from time to time in the Society's Journal.

"The following tables give a condensed *résumé* of these four years' observations, particularly as regards their climatological aspects, and it is believed that no other meteorological data exist which can throw a better light on the climate of Cyprus."

Temperature.

"The mean annual temperature is $66^{\circ}6$. The coldest month is February, with a mean temperature of $52^{\circ}8$, which is all but identical with the temperature of London during May; and the hottest month is August, with a mean temperature of $81^{\circ}5$, being closely approximate to the summer temperature of Algiers, Alexandria, Athens, and Constantinople.

"The mean temperature for the six months from November to April varies between $52^{\circ}8$ and $60^{\circ}9$; and since between these mean temperatures, deaths from diseases of the respiratory organs, and from bowel complaints are either at a minimum or are comparatively small, it may safely be stated that, so far as atmospheric temperature is concerned, the climate of Cyprus is exceptionally good during these six months. Indeed it is highly probable that several situations round the coasts of Cyprus will be found with winter climates so good, and for a large class of invalids so safe, that they will take rank above the best Sanatoria of the Mediterranean. It will be observed that the lowest recorded temperature during these four years was $36^{\circ}1$ which occurred in February 1870; and an examination of the observations themselves makes it clear that the temperature rarely falls below $40^{\circ}0$. This is an invaluable feature in the climate of any Sanatorium, when the evil effects on the weak of the occasional occurrence of low temperatures and the discomfort and positive injuriousness to the health arising from all temperatures between the maximum density of fresh water ($39^{\circ}2$) and its freezing point ($32^{\circ}0$), are taken into consideration.

"On the other hand, the temperature of the six months from May to October is very high, being from $68^{\circ}1$ to $81^{\circ}5$. This high summer temperature Cyprus has in common with the coasts of Algeria, the south of Italy, Greece, and Asia Minor, in all which regions a still higher temperature prevails on advancing from the coast inland. At Bagdad, for example, the mean summer temperature rises to $95^{\circ}0$. The prolongation of the summer heat into September, and on frequent occasions into October, is a striking feature of the climates of Syria and adjoining regions.

"If we except June 1869, the highest recorded temperature was $96^{\circ}0$ in August 1869, a temperature of $94^{\circ}3$ having also been noted in July of the same year—temperatures which are of frequent occurrence on the Continent, and even in London, as high temperatures have occurred. A period of extraordinarily high temperature occurred in the East from the 21st to the 25th of June, 1869. The means at Alethriko for these five days were at—

4 A.M.	$89^{\circ}9$	} Mean temp : = $95^{\circ}5$.
9 "	$100^{\circ}0$	
3 P.M.	$103^{\circ}1$	
9 "	$89^{\circ}1$	

This mean temperature of $95^{\circ}5$ is about the summer temperature of the Punjab. The maximum heat was 105° on the 24th, and on the same day the temperature rose to $100^{\circ}0$ at Larnaka on the coast, $92^{\circ}5$ at Beyrout, and $103^{\circ}5$ at Jerusalem, at a height of

2,500 feet above the sea. These five days were characterised by the observers as one of unprecedented heat and drought over the regions bordering the Levant.

"The differences between the highest and the lowest observed temperatures of the months for the four years which are about $30^{\circ}0$, show that the climate of Cyprus has a character decidedly insular and therefore very equable, and this insular character is still further shown in the fact that the period of greatest annual cold is delayed to February, and the greatest heat to August."

"The mean annual rainfall is 12·80 inches, nearly the whole of which falls during the cool season from November to April. Since the rain which falls in May and September is trifling in amount and of rare occurrence, it may be considered that there are practically five rainless months in the year in Cyprus. The whole of the regions about the Levant are equally characterised by rainless summers, the only exceptions being the higher mountainous regions where thunderstorms and heavy thunder showers are of occasional occurrence. It will be seen from the monthly extremes, that the rainfall varies greatly from year to year. In the cool months of 1867-68, there fell 15·98 inches of rain, whereas in the corresponding months of 1869-70, there fell only 6·65 inches. Very heavy falls occur: thus on November 27th, 1866, there fell in three hours and a-half, 4·07 inches of rain, and among the heavy thunder-showers may be noted 0·50 inch at Larnaka in one hour from 3 to 4 P.M. of June 30th, 1869. This heavy, short continued shower, as well as the high temperatures of the week preceding, were exceptional weather phenomena at Larnaka."

Rainfall.

"The state of the barometer and the winds connect the meteorology of Cyprus with that of Central Asia where atmospheric pressure is very high in winter and very low in summer. In summer, the prevailing westerly winds of the Levant, with the cloudless rainless skies accompanying them, are only part of the extensive atmospheric current which sets in at this season towards the region of low atmospheric pressure in Asia, and the breadth swept by this atmospheric current before reaching Cyprus, doubtless mitigates in some degree the heat of summer."

Barometer and Winds.

"The winter climate of Cyprus extending from November to April is exceptionally good for two reasons. Its mean temperature ranges from $52^{\circ}8$ to $60^{\circ}9$, being the limits of temperature between which deaths from diseases of the respiratory organs, and from bowel complaints are either at the minimum or comparatively small. Secondly, the lowest temperature noted during four years was $36^{\circ}1$, and as the temperature seldom falls below $40^{\circ}0$; it follows that the winter climate of Cyprus is singularly free from the discomfort and positive injuriousness to the health inseparable from temperatures ranging from $40^{\circ}0$ to $32^{\circ}0$ and lower. Since, owing to their exposure to the cold dry winds of the mistral, and to other causes, the winter climates of North Italy, South France, Spain, and Algiers are characterised by the occasional occurrence of lower temperatures, and by a more fluctuating temperature than that of

General conclusions of the Scottish Meteorological Society.

THE CLIMATE OF CYPRUS.

Cyprus; it follows that Cyprus presents attractions for the establishment of winter Sanataria superior to those afforded by Italy, France, Spain, or Algiers. It is to be noted also that at this season the rainfall is moderate, being not much different in amount from that of London, but it falls much seldomer; three days out of every four being without any rain at all.

"The summers are, in common with those of the coasts of Algeria, South Italy, South Greece, and South Asia Minor very hot and rainless, and must therefore be exposed to an increased unhealthiness and mortality from bowel complaints and other diseases incident to climates where the mean temperature reaches $81^{\circ}5$. But Cyprus presents in its varied surface, which rises to heights of several thousand feet above the sea, culminating in Mount Olympus, 6,590 feet high, admirable facilities for the establishment of summer Sanataria among its mountains, just as has been done in India among the Himalaya Mountains and Neilgherry Hills. Though we have no definite information regarding the summer climates of the highlands of Cyprus there can be no doubt, reasoning from the meteorology of the region of the Caucasus, and from remarks scattered through Mr. Sandwith's Meteorological Journals, that in addition to a lower temperature due simply to the greater height, showers of rain, with and without thunder, are not of unfrequent occurrence among the mountains of Cyprus in summer.

"It must be clearly understood that in the above remarks, reference has been made only to atmospheric conditions as determining the healthiness or unhealthiness of the climate. There are, it is scarcely necessary to say, other conditions affecting the health of a country than merely its atmospheric conditions. These, in a country like Cyprus, are chiefly those malarious and noxious elements which find their way into the atmosphere from lands once cultivated, but now allowed to lie uncultivated, and from lands where the drainage is more or less defective. It follows therefore that much may be done in mitigation of the effects of the summer heat by the establishment of Sanataria among the mountains and by carrying through agricultural improvements and engineering works which would at the same time contribute to the material prosperity of the island."

It will be observed that the above valuable report of the Scottish Meteorological Society refers entirely to the south coast of Cyprus, in the neighbourhood of Larnaca; and we have at hand no such detailed and accurate information regarding the climate of the interior, and of the north coast of the island; but, according to all accounts, the temperature at each season varies very considerably in different parts of the island, being affected by the features of the physical geography. Thus, in the central plains, the heat in summer is stated to be excessive, the winters here are mild, and snow is of rare occurrence. At Nicosia, though the summer nights are believed to be cooler than at Larnaca, the summer generally is hotter, and the winter colder, than at the latter place. At Famagusta the heat is reported to be still greater, owing to the sandy soil which prevails there.

On the northern shore, the summers are far more temperate, in consequence of the winds blowing from the snow-covered mountains of Asia Minor; for the same reason the winters are here often piercingly cold, particularly on the mountains, which are generally covered with snow for several months. The snow also lies during the cold weather upon the southern, or Olympus, range. The country bordering the south and east coasts, consisting of a white chalk marl (which in summer produces a great glare), is sheltered by mountains from north and north-west winds, but is exposed to the full blast of hot winds from the Syrian, Arabian, and Lybian deserts, consequently this part of the island has a very high temperature. The table giving the percentage of wind direction, shows that during the summer months, the winds blow chiefly from the south, south-east, and south-west; these winds are unhealthy and scorching, and have an injurious effect upon vegetation. During the summer the "*imbatto*" or sea-breeze is, fortunately, tolerably regular, and to a certain extent, mitigates the heat; it generally commences at about 8 A.M. and lasts until 3 or 6 P.M., then there is an interval of calm till the land-breeze makes at about one or two o'clock in the morning, and continues until about sunrise. The *imbatto* is mostly felt on the north-west part of the island, and the land-breeze on the south-west. About the middle of September these breezes usually cease, and the heat is then very trying.

Another climatorial source of unhealthiness is the cessation of rainfall during the summer; this is distinctly indicated in the foregoing table, which shows that during June, July and August, there is as a rule absolutely no rain whatever, and that this rainless period sometimes extends over both May and September. This want of rain must, however, not be confounded with the droughts which occasionally occur during the winter season, and which, as is afterwards explained, may be traced to an entirely distinct cause, quite apart from the climate.*

We now pass on to the consideration of the various local insani-
tary conditions, all of which may be removed by active and
systematic hygienic measures.

First then, the malaria, which is the cause of unhealthiness in certain districts and towns, notably in and round Larnaca and Famagusta, may with certainty be traced to the existence of marshes, lagoons, and stagnant waters in the vicinity. From these spots a white fog or vapour ascends in the hottest weather, spreads over the whole of the adjacent country, and gives rise to ague and various intermittent fevers. This is, however, a danger which can be easily avoided, for both the dangerous times and places are well known, and the remedy, viz.: the drainage of the marshes, is obvious, and would apparently be no very great engineering feat. Consul Lang says "that even a partial drainage of the marshes near Larnaca in his time, had a visibly beneficial effect upon the health of the town."

Malaria re-
sulting from
the existence
of marshes,
&c.

Again, there can be little doubt that the reckless and wasteful

Droughts
arising from

* The nature of the soil in Cyprus makes a large rainfall unnecessary; the average of about thirteen inches is quite sufficient to produce a fair grain crop.

scarcity of
trees.

destruction of the forests which, according to report, once nearly covered Cyprus, has exercised a pernicious influence upon the climate, and has wrought much sanitary mischief, inasmuch as it is the chief cause of the droughts from which the country suffers so severely about every fifth year. It is a recognized fact, especially in sub-tropical regions, that where the mountains are clothed with wood, rains fall frequently and moderately, the air is kept cool and the land is fertilized. But, when the forests are cut down, there are long intervals of drought followed by torrents of rain, which wash the vegetable mould off the slopes into the plains, leaving on the one hand bare rocks, and on the other, miasma-breeding marshes. That the summer months should be rainless, is, as Mr. Buchan has remarked, a characteristic of the regions surrounding Cyprus, but the occasional lack of rain during the winter months may perhaps be attributable to the present treeless condition of so great a part of the island. This subject is further entered into in Chapter VII.

Severe
drought in the
winter of
1869.

A notable instance of drought occurred in the winter of 1869-70, when the rainfall was as follows :—

September, 1869	0.48 inches
October, "	0.27 "
November, "	0.53 "
December, "	0.18 "
January, 1870	2.44 "
February, "	0.24 "
Total	4.14 "

Of this total quantity, no less than 2.18 inches fell on the thirteen days from the 15th to 28th January, leaving a little less than two inches for the rest of the six months. During the period of drought north winds were very prevalent.

Results of
drought.

Such droughts as these not only occasion sickness amongst the inhabitants, but have also the most disastrous effects upon both live stock and agriculture. It may be useful to instance some of the results. Consul Lang reported in 1871, that, in consequence of the drought, the whole of the grain crops of the previous year had been a total failure, and that instead of exporting, as is usually the case, a surplus produce of grain, the island was under the necessity of importing largely for the food of the inhabitants. The year 1870 will long be remembered in Cyprus as one of severe distress. Forage was so scarce,* that as early as July, 1870, one-third of the bullocks in the island had died of starvation, or had been sold for shipment to Egypt; and at the close of the year it was estimated that only one-third of the live stock of 1869 remained available for agricultural purposes. Bullocks were sold as low as 10s. per head, and sheep at 1s. 8d. Thus the agricultural interest of the island received a severe blow, and one which it will require a long time to repair.

Consul Riddell, writing in April, 1874, remarks another con-

* In 1868 and 1869, large supplies had been sent out of the island by Government for the requirements of the army and a needy population in Crete, consequently the place was in exceptionally disadvantageous circumstances to meet this unparalleled drought.

sequence of drought, which was noticed in that year. He says: "the pasturage having been early dried up by the drought, the flocks were reduced to a very poor condition, and the rapid growth of new grass which succeeded the first rains, produced great mortality among the sheep by the sudden change."

That the planting of trees, and the careful preservation of such woods as still remain, would soon work wonders in the way of sanitary improvement, is the opinion of many medical and scientific men; several competent authorities have suggested the planting of the *Eucalyptus globulus*, which has been attended with great success in Algeria and other places. Some of the peculiar properties of this tree are described by Mr. P. Hinckes Bird, F.R.C.S., F.I.S., from whom the following remarks are quoted:—

"I would suggest the advantage that might accrue from freely planting the *eucalyptus globulus*, or Australian blue gum tree, as has been done in marshy districts at the Cape of Good Hope, in Cuba, France, Italy, and Algeria. Its growth is remarkably rapid, and some interesting instances are given of its salutary action—in Algeria by Consul Playfair—in improving unhealthy districts and in dissipating the miasmatic influences which created such havoc among the colonists in the first years after the conquest. It is stated that a locality so unhealthy existed between Nice and Monaco that the Paris, Lyons, and Mediterranean Railway Company were obliged to change every two or three months a watchman at a crossing there; but after plantations of the *eucalyptus* were formed, the same watchman has resided there with his family without experiencing the least inconvenience. Other instances of its beneficial action might be cited.

Besides giving out antiseptic camphorous emanations, and thus increasing the quantity of ozone in the air, it absorbs large quantities of water by its roots, facilitating the drainage of a marshy district.

It is said to be also so effectual a remedy against the lively, horn-blowing, blood-sucking mosquito, that a single pot plant of *eucalyptus* sufficed to keep a chamber free from these pests."

It has been stated that, apart from droughts, there is a scarcity of water in Cyprus, but since our acquaintance with the island has become more extensive, it does not appear that this statement is entirely supported by facts. It would perhaps be more accurate to assert that hitherto there has been shameful waste and loss of water which would have been of the highest value both from a sanitary and an agricultural point of view, and that this waste has, even in ordinary seasons, frequently led to the supply becoming for a time limited; but with a watershed like the Olympus range traversing the island from West to East, and with the several abundant springs which have already been enumerated, it is difficult to believe that with proper precautions, water could be really scarce; and, indeed all reports, whether from Larnaca, Nicosia, or Limasol, which have been received since the arrival of the British troops, agree in the statement that water is plentiful, and of good quality;* it is also said that in many parts of the island, water is found in abundance at a depth of 18 feet.† The neglect of the river beds has been already noticed; not only is the water allowed to break through the banks and run to waste, but the local farmers often

Water supply.

* For instance, we hear that the covered aqueduct at the camp near Larnaca, gives 4,000 gallons an hour.

† See also the Chapter upon the Geology of Cyprus, page 114.

contrive to conduct the water on to their lands, and this operation being generally effected in a most unskilful manner, the full benefit of the stream is not obtained, and great loss of water results. Tanks, to be filled by rain-water during the winter, might with advantage be constructed in several localities, and the whole regulation of the water supply is a very important matter, and one to which engineering talent might be applied with very great benefit to the island.

**Defective
drainage.**

The defective drainage of the towns has hitherto naturally been one of the principal causes of unhealthiness, and of diseases which are often wrongly attributed to the climate. That the chief towns will now be thoroughly cleansed, and a systematic set of sanitary measures adopted, is a matter of course; these precautions together with a more rigorous and effective quarantine than has hitherto existed, may be expected to work a vast improvement in the health of the inhabitants. The present state of Nicosia, the capital, may be mentioned as a proof of the want of drainage; it is stated the ground on which the city stands is sodden with the sewage of centuries; there is no fall of ground, so that the rain can wash nothing away, and there is not a drain in the whole place. All the sewage that does not remain on the service, percolates into cesspools, which are never emptied, and which are almost invariably in close proximity to wells. No offal, refuse, garbage, or manure is ever removed, the most that is done is to throw it up in heaps, which are left to reek in the hot sun, and spread disease over the neighbourhood. Perhaps all the towns are not quite so bad as this; the accounts of Limasol, for instance, are of an infinitely more cheering nature, but evidently there is still much work to be done before they can be thoroughly cleansed and purified.

Conclusion.

It appears, on the whole, that the climate of Cyprus is not really so bad as has been asserted by many people who have based their opinion either upon a short visit to the island during the worst season of the year, or upon mere hearsay. Numerous residents of long standing are unanimous in saying that the inhabitants enjoy good, and even robust, health, that they are subject to but few ailments, and generally live to a great age. The fevers which are prevalent in July and August, are but seldom of a malignant or dangerous type, and by proper care and attention to diet they may be avoided. It is found that the fevers usually attack those who indulge in an over-abundant diet of cucumbers, melons, and fruits, but comparatively seldom affect those who can afford better nourishment. Inflammations, agues, and fevers also frequently arise from imprudent exposure to either sun or wind, and from sleeping at night in the open air, or near the marshes, and this risk ought to be carefully guarded against. Ophthalmia is said to be common; it may, however, be attributed not only to the glare from the white soil, but also in a great degree to want of cleanliness on the part of the natives. Sunstroke must be guarded against; the inhabitants take great precautions, enveloping their heads in large turbans and shawls.

On the other hand, epidemics are of rare occurrence in the island; Captain Farrant, R.N. has written upon this subject, and

mentions the fact of cholera raging on the adjacent coast of Syria, whilst Cyprus was quite free from it. Consumption is said to be unknown, and pulmonary complaints are uncommon. A proof of the comparative healthiness of the climate is found in the fact that the diseases which prevail in Cyprus, both as to frequency and character, do not relatively reach three-fifths of the amount of disease in Europe generally. In spite of the sinister reports that have been circulated, it is quite certain that Cyprus is not unhealthy in the sense that particular places, such as the West Coast of Africa are so, and the climate is in fact not dangerous to the constitution of Northern Europeans. Comparing Cyprus with Malta, the former has in hygienic aspects many manifest advantages;—it is larger; the population, compared to the area, is smaller; the island as a whole is incomparably more fertile, and there are many elevated sites suitable for habitation: consequently it is not improbable that when Cyprus has its sanitary laws, it may be made, at all events, as free from fever as Malta, where, when we first took possession, and for years afterwards, particularly bad forms of aguish fever were exceeding prevalent.

CHAPTER VII.

NATURAL HISTORY.

DOMESTIC ANIMALS.

THE beasts of burden in ordinary use in Cyprus are the camel, the mule and the ass.

Horses.

Until lately, horses do not appear to have been much used, and indeed, they were rarely to be seen except in towns, and there only of inferior breeds; yet, in reports dated 1845, we read that the horses of Cyprus, though small, are hardy, and might be useful for light cavalry. Consul Riddell, writing at the beginning of 1876, remarks that the old and cumbrous bullock cart is being rapidly supplanted by the more general and increasing use of carts constructed upon European models, many of which are drawn by horses instead of bullocks. The importation of horses, may, to a certain extent, be looked upon as a natural consequence of the British occupation.

Camels.

Camels are very generally used for transporting the produce of the cultivated districts to the markets and to Larnaca and Limasol, from which places nearly the whole exports are sent out of the island. The camels are less expensive than good horses, and can carry a heavier weight; their pace is comparatively slow, but hitherto time has been of no object in Cyprus, and the slow movements of camels and mules are in perfect harmony with the indolent character of the Cypriotes.

Mules and asses.

The mules and asses of the country are of good quality, and are very generally used for riding; some of the former have an excellent and easy amble, which does not fatigue the traveller, and is a faster pace than the trot. The mules of Cyprus are much esteemed throughout the Levant, and Consul White, writing in 1864, says that a considerable number of mules are annually exported to Rhodes, and that asses are also exported to Syria. During the Abyssinian War, Consul Lang purchased in Cyprus over two thousand mules for the British government in the course of a month, at a cost of about £20 each, they were officially reported to be the best of all that were obtained, they went up the country to Magdala, and returned to the coast in good condition for sale. As the roads in the island are not fit for driving, all travelling has to be accomplished by riding. On this subject General

di Cesnola remarks "I found it in the end more profitable and less expensive to purchase than to hire animals, and in this way I became the possessor of several fine well-broken mules and two strong donkeys, as high almost as horses, of a breed peculiar to Cyprus. These donkeys are glossy and sleek, with large eyes, and will trot as fast as a mule; they are besides very intelligent."

The inhabitants of the village of Athienou, which is in a central position between Larnaca and Nicosia, are mostly muleteers by occupation, and own tolerably good saddle mules, which can be hired to visit any part of the island. The muleteers, as a class, are described to be excellent and trustworthy, even under the temptation of conveying large sums of money from one town to another. General di Cesnola mentions that during his residence in Cyprus, he never heard of a professional muleteer proving unworthy of the trust confided in him, and this statement is fully confirmed by Consul Lang. Travellers usually select their mule, and bargain with the owner of it for a lump sum for the entire journey, or else at the rate of so much a day. The latter mode is generally found preferable, for should the mule turn out badly, the traveller would be at liberty to change it on the road if he could meet with a better one; still, the natives, for the sake of economy, generally make a bargain for the journey. The saddle is of rough native manufacture, and is called "stratouri;" across it are hung, in such a manner as not to incommode the rider, two large canvas bags for carrying his effects, upon these several coloured blankets or quilts for bedding are piled, the stirrups are tied on to this mass by ropes, and the rider has then to be assisted to ascend to the top.

The load often appears enormous for the size of the animal, but the Cyprus donkeys are as a rule very strong, and can resist the fatigues of a long journey better than the mules.

Oxen are employed exclusively for agricultural purposes, they are of a small kind, and usually in anything but good condition. Their number is small, for there is no grass pasture land. Beef is consequently not always to be obtained, and its quality is often far from good; the natives scarcely ever eat it. Oxen.

Cows are never kept for dairy purposes, and the milk is not drunk; the Cypriotes appear to have an aversion against it as well as the flesh. Oxen usually fetch from £3 to £7 10s. according to their quality.

The flocks of sheep and goats form a considerable portion of the wealth of the island. In 1862, the numbers, exclusive of lambs and kids less than one year old, were about 400,000, but Consul Watkins reports that in 1877, the number of sheep alone was estimated to be 750,000. These flocks browse upon the herbs of the uncultivated districts. Sheep and goats.

The sheep are of two kinds, the small, and the fat-tailed. A large quantity of both sheep and goat hides are tanned in the island, and in 1862 it was reported that about 2,000 or 3,000 hides were annually sent to Europe, chiefly to Trieste. The annual export of lambskins was then about 16,000, these also were chiefly sent to Trieste, and about 5,000 kids' skins were annually sent to Mar-

seilles. Consul Watkins, writing in March 1878, describes the present trade in skins as follows:—"The trade in skins is somewhat brisk, though limited. Cyprus exports a certain number over and above its producing capacity, as some are brought from Egypt and other places to be prepared and tanned here. The prices were as follows: for lambskins, 1s. 3d. each; for sheep, 8d. each; kids, 7d. each; goats, 1s. 3d. each; and for bullocks' hides, 1s. 3d. per oke."*

A considerable quantity of wool, unwashed and in the grease, is annually exported from Cyprus; Consul White, writing in 1864, says that about 3,400 cwt. are sent annually to Marseilles and Trieste. Some later consular reports are quoted below to show the present value of this article of export.

Consul Riddell's Report for 1872:—

"The quantity raised in this island appears to vary very little year by year and may be averaged at about 450,000 lbs.; the quality is somewhat coarse and wiry, but the staple is strong and of good length. All the wools of Cyprus are exported in the grease, and no attention whatever is given to improve their quality by improved breeding in the flocks. The pasturage is often scant and generally precarious during the summer and autumn, there being nothing beyond the rough and scanty produce of the uncultivated hill and table lands, so that whenever the rainfall is insufficient the food is scanty, and many of the flocks of both sheep and goats perish from disease generated by insufficient nourishment. Goats are able to subsist better than sheep during periods of drought. The entire number of both in the island is computed at about 800,000, in the proportion of one-third sheep and two-thirds goats."

Consul Riddell's Report for 1873:—

"The production and export of sheep's wool in 1873, having been of all kinds, 478,860 lbs., rather exceeds the average yield. This quantity, however, comprises 43,040 lbs. of old wool, i.e. wool which has been used for various domestic purposes, and which the poverty of the owners has obliged them to sell in order to procure the means of existence. Deducting this from the whole quantity exported, leaves 435,820 lbs. as the yield of 1873."

Consul Riddell's Report for 1874:—

"The growth of sheep's wool will probably turn out about an average in quantity, and of superior quality. The pasturage has been very abundant everywhere, and the flocks have been maintained in fine condition. The only drawback has been the prevalence of small-pox among the flocks in various parts of the island, but the mortality is not reckoned to have exceeded 12 to 15 per cent.

Consul Watkins' Report for 1877:—

"The quantity of the wool produced last year was about 330,000 lbs. The mildness of the latter part of the winter, and the abundance of pasturage greatly contributed to the growth of this article. The number of sheep is put down at 750,000."

The mutton of Cyprus is described by Consul White as not being very good, having a strong rank taste with a coarse fibre, but this is not the universal opinion. Goats' flesh is said to be much eaten, and when fat and young is superior to the mutton. A considerable quantity of cheese is made from the milk of the sheep and goats, the kinds called "hellumi," and also that made in

* One oke is equal to 2½ English lbs.

the village of Acanthou, are much esteemed, and are frequently exported to Syria. Cesnola mentions that the priest of Acanthou assured him that the number of small cheeses, weighing not over $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. a-piece, which are made, averages 2,000,000 a year.

It has been remarked by competent authorities (Consul Sandwith and others) that a most lucrative trade in the export of live stock generally to Egypt and Syria, might be carried on greatly to the advantage of those countries, and to the breeders in Cyprus, did not the government put absurd restrictions on the trade in order to raise the prices. The consequence of so narrow-minded a policy is that the flocks increase so rapidly that sheep and goats sell for 10s. or 12s. a-head, while in Egypt they can sometimes command three times that price.

At Beyrout, in winter, mutton sometimes goes up to 8d. a pound, whilst in Cyprus, at a distance of only twelve hours by steam, it sells at 3d. a pound; and yet exportation is as strictly prohibited as if the two countries were in a state of war with one another.

Pigs are very generally reared by the Christian population, and abundance of pork of good quality may be easily procured; it is eaten by the upper classes only in winter, being rightly considered unwholesome during the hot weather, but the peasantry salt it, and in that state it is largely consumed by them at all seasons. Pigs.

Poultry is very plentiful. Turkeys are abundant, and can be bought at moderate prices, but, owing to the scarcity of water, ducks and geese are somewhat rare. Poultry.

WILD ANIMALS.

It is stated that formerly wild animals abounded in Cyprus, but of the larger species, such as deer and roebucks, none are at present to be found. The fox is the only carnivorous animal now in the island. Some species have become extinct.

Game is very abundant. The mutton or wild sheep, and wild boars are found on Mount Troodos, and in the wild and uninhabited regions at the eastern and western extremities of the island, in the vicinity of Capes St. Andrea and Arnauti, and also in the Maratassa valley. Many of the sheep and goats on the slopes of Olympus, though the descendants of domesticated animals, are now quite wild, and it is said that in the Acamas and Karpas districts, horses, asses, and oxen rove at large in a wild state. Hares are plentiful, and as they subsist upon the sweet herbs which abound, their flesh is of excellent quality. The plains are frequented by flocks of bustards, partridges, francolins and quails. The francolins, in size and shape, resemble our red-legged partridges, but their plumage is much darker, and their flesh more white and delicate, approaching in flavour that of the pheasant. Game.

Of birds of passage, woodcock, snipe, and wild duck are very plentiful during the winter, frequenting the island from end to end. Beccaficos are abundant in October; the Cypriotes preserve them partially boiled in Commanderia wine, for winter eating.

The country about Kuklia, Pysouri, Baffo, and the Maratassa valley are the parts of the island where game most abounds.

Hitherto neither game or fish have been preserved in any way, and both shooting and fishing are allowed anywhere, so long as the crops are not injured. Gunpowder is, however, a government monopoly, and peasants cannot obtain it without a declaration signed before the Cadi, and other expensive formalities. Then again, the Greeks never carry guns, for a Mussulman law, strictly enforced by the local authorities, prevents Christians from bearing any other firearms but pistols, which may be worn at the girdle while travelling or after dark, as a protection against robbers. Travellers and tourists have, however, never been considered as Christians so far as this decree went. Under the new government, the establishment of a close season for game may naturally be expected.

Birds of prey.

Of birds of prey, eagles, vultures, buzzards, falcons, and hawks are very common.

Reptiles and insects.

Of reptiles and noxious insects there are asps, other snakes which are said not to be venomous, scorpions, tarantulas, and locusts. Some travellers have related startling stories regarding the dangers to be encountered from the reptiles. Gaudry mentions that he saw an ass stung by an asp, and it died in a few hours; he also says that deaths among the natives are frequent from asp bites; that asps are generally found in the standing corn, and that reapers attach little bells to their sickles to frighten the snakes away. That venomous reptiles do exist in the island can scarcely be doubted, but most of the reports as to their number and deadliness are circulated by writers who have paid a flying visit to the island, and have lent a credulous ear to the stories of timid natives, or who have really no personal knowledge whatever of the country; whilst residents who have travelled on foot and on horseback throughout Cyprus, state positively that they have never been bitten.* The peasantry have a great dread of asps, and indeed of all snakes, as they consider them unlucky, and it is an almost universal practice to wear high boots as a protection; still many of their tales which have been both believed and repeated are much exaggerated. General di Cesnola mentions that the site of the ancient Curium is a favourite resort of asps, and he says that once when excavating at Mulasha, a *kusi*, or asp, was encountered, and the sight of it was sufficient to deter the diggers from further exploration at that spot.

A large species of snake is said to be common in the north-western part of the island, but it is harmless; the asps are described to be of middling length, great thickness, of a blackish hue and with a blunt tail. Sonnini describes a large spider, which he calls the galcode of the Levant, as existing in Cyprus, and says

* Dr. Clarke spent ten days in Cyprus, and gives a most melancholy account both of the climate, and of the dangers of venomous reptiles; his work has been much quoted by pessimists, but Consul Lang, who resided nine years in the island, and travelled all over it, says that he could only find specimens of asps and tarantulas after considerable search, and that he never heard of the pernicious fevers reported by Dr. Clarke, though they might possibly have existed before his arrival.

that its bite is very dangerous. Dr. Clarke states that tarantulas having black bodies covered with hair, and bright yellow eyes are not uncommon.

By far the worst enemy amongst the animal creation, that Cyprus has to contend with, and the most injurious to agricultural prosperity, is the locust. Writers of the fifteenth century mention the fearful depredations of this insect at that period. It is by some imagined that it was first blown across the sea from the coasts of Caramania or Syria, and by others that it may have been introduced by ships bringing cargoes of grain, but afterwards the eggs were deposited in the island and the locusts remained from year to year. Although, owing to active measures of destruction, this plague has at present almost disappeared, it may be both useful and interesting to notice how only a few years ago, the island was invaded by these pests. It appears that the insect is so wonderfully prolific, that unless continual and active measures are taken to extirpate it, it increases in the course of a few years in such quantities as to swarm in myriads over the whole country, but, on the other hand it is evident that with care and perseverance its almost complete destruction may be ensured. The measures adopted by Osman Pasha in 1855-56, were very successful, and consequently the island enjoyed a few years of comparative freedom from this scourge, but the precautionary measures were subsequently neglected, and the locusts gradually increased in numbers till in 1861, the spring crops suffered fearfully from their ravages. In 1862, Zia Pasha, who was then governor of Cyprus, took the matter up actively, and, through his representations, the government was induced to grant a sum of 2,500 Turkish lire (equivalent to about £2,270) for carrying out various plans proposed for the destruction of the insect. At the same time a tax of 20 okes of locusts' eggs per head was imposed upon the inhabitants. It was calculated that by this tax at least a million of okes of eggs would be collected, and as each oke was found to contain on an average 1,800 eggs, from each of which 30 locusts are produced, the number of insects thus destroyed in the egg would be enormous.

The numbers were, however, so great that it required some years to work a change, and in 1864 we read that the locusts were still very numerous, but Consul Sandwith in his report for the year 1869 was able to state that, owing to the energetic measures adopted, the locusts had nearly disappeared, and Consul Lang, writing in 1871, said that these measures were still being carried on with fair success, and that the agricultural interest of the island had then a better prospect than for a long time previously. Since that time we hear that, thanks to recent intelligent efforts, the destruction of the insect has been accomplished, and that it now only remains to watch and guard carefully against its return. It is worthy of notice that the presence of locusts in the island, was always a standing obstacle to the proper cultivation of cotton (which might be a great source of wealth) by the delay which it necessitated in the planting of the seed, for this could not be done until the passage of the locusts across the land was over; consequently

the plants did not ripen until late in the year, and at times the bolls did not open at all, from want of sufficient heat in the autumnal season. It is stated that now the cotton may be sown early in May, and so there is full time for the plant to come to maturity before the end of the summer.

Drs. Unger and Kotschy devote the whole of Chapter VIII, of their joint work upon Cyprus to an account of the ravages of locusts in the island; the German authors, Seiff and Von Löher also describe their depredations.

It appears that the young locusts are hatched about the end of March, and a fortnight later they commence hopping and creeping westward, destroying every leaf as they pass it; by the end of April their wings are fully developed, and the work of devastation commences, fields of corn are devoured to the very roots, and fruitful gardens entirely laid waste. In August, the eggs are deposited, and shortly afterwards the insects die. The spots where the eggs are laid can easily be detected by a shiny viscous matter, with which the locusts soften and cover the earth in which they are placed. Every female lays two or three eggs, and each of these produces on an average about 30 locusts, the egg being in fact an agglomeration of small eggs bound close together in a small oblong mass. A simple and very effective method of destroying locusts, was hit upon by a large land owner, M. Mattei. He observed that the insects could not ascend smooth surfaces, and that even when fully winged they were compelled to seek the earth at short intervals, and continue their progress by creeping and hopping; so he caused several rows of ditches about 2½ feet deep to be dug at right angles to the line of flight, and on the further side of these, screens of linen, oilcloth, &c., were erected. The locusts on trying to scale the screens generally fell back in masses into the ditches, where they were either covered with earth, or shovelled out, thrown into sacks, and buried in other spots. Those that surmounted the first screen, were generally stopped by the second, and in no case cleared the third. This plan was the means of destruction of enormous quantities of locusts, and it was adopted all over the island; both Seiff and Von Löher testify to its merits.

Bees.

Bees are kept in great numbers in many parts of the island; Dr. Clarke mentions the large number of hives which he saw at a village called Attien (probably Athienou); Von Löher notices that there were quantities on the slopes below Buffavento. It is stated, however, that there has been but little encouragement to the peasantry to keep bees, for the honey is generally demanded by the governor, so that an apiary may be considered as merely an additional tax.

WOODS AND FORESTS.

Cyprus formerly well-wooded.

From ancient writers we learn that when Cyprus was first colonized, the whole country was covered with forests, which were in certain places cleared by the Phœnicians for the double purposes of opening out ground for cultivation, and using the timber as fuel

for smelting copper. From historical accounts it also appears that the ancient rulers of Cyprus, whether Greeks, Persians, Egyptians, Romans, Arabs, or Byzantines, all gave particular care and attention to the cultivation and protection of the fine forest trees which then contributed so materially to the prosperity of the island; consequently, not only did stately pines and other trees cover the whole of the mountain ranges, but the entire plain was also clothed with a dense mass of forest.

The modern traveller in Cyprus would, however, have some difficulty in realizing that this had really been the case, for except on the Olympus range in the south-west part of the island, and on some of the slopes of the Cerinea and Karpas mountains, the island is now wholly denuded of forests, and so bare and treeless is the Messaria plain at the present day, that it is by no means easy to appreciate its former condition. Cyprus has undoubtedly in many ways suffered much at the hands of her recent owners, but in no particular is this fact more clearly evidenced than in the utter destruction of the forests.

Destruction of
the forests.

It is said that it was during the two first centuries of the Lusignan dynasty, the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, that the first serious attack was made upon the luxuriance of the Cyprian forests; at this period ship-building was carried on to an enormous extent, and no pains were taken to replace the trees used for this purpose.

The Venetians, who came next, were also great shipbuilders, but had sufficient foresight to undertake a certain amount of planting; their tenure of the island was, however, comparatively short, in 1572, Cyprus fell under Turkish rule, and then at once commenced the ruthless destruction which, were it continued much longer, could only end in the conversion of the island into an arid waste. Von Löher supplies us with details concerning the various ways in which the improvidence and carelessness of the Turks have caused the disappearance of the forests.

It appears that year after year the pashas, kaimakams, and agas have increased their revenues by cutting down the trees, and leaving those which they could not sell to be appropriated by whoever chose to take them. Every maritime disaster entailed fresh demands upon the Cyprian forests; if a hundred trunks were wanted, a thousand were felled, it being slightly easier to select the finest trees when lying on the ground than when upright, the best were then taken away, and the remainder left to rot where they lay. The forests were under no protection from government, and the poorer classes have derived a considerable portion of their livelihood from the sale of the trees, which they cut down when they please; near every village, or inhabited spot, the spoliation of the surrounding timber is evident; the small trees have all been cut down at the roots, whilst the larger ones which would entail some labour to fell, have had all their branches and bark hacked off. During the temporary occupation of the island by Egypt under Mehemet Ali, 1832-1840, the work of destruction continued with, if possible, increased activity, shipments of timber to Egypt being permitted and encouraged. But, in addition to all this, a very large proportion of

the forests have been destroyed simply through either carelessness or wanton mischief. Fires in the woods are of very frequent occurrence, they are generally kindled by the wandering shepherds or their families, who make not the slightest attempt to check the devastation which often ensues. Von Löher mentions that he rode through several charred and blackened districts, where it was quite evident that the progress of the fire had only been arrested by there being no more trees or shrubs to burn; he also says that the inhabitants of different villages often set fire to each other's trees or shrubs in order to avenge a quarrel. Fine trees meet with the same fate simply for the pleasure of seeing them burn, and it is stated that this is an amusement frequently indulged in by ignorant and unreflecting shepherds, in order to while away their time spent on the mountains.

The forests of dark pines which formerly clothed the mountain sides have also fallen victims to the foolish and reckless manner in which the tar burners and resin distillers carry on their business. Von Löher says, "Operations are commenced by stripping off the bark on one side, the finest trees being always selected, as high as the man can reach, and the resin taken. Fire is then applied to the base of the trunk, and a few hours suffice to lay it low. The branches are then lopped off, and with portions of the trunk, are heaped into a roughly constructed oven formed of quarried stone. Fire is then applied to the wood, and the resin pours forth into a little channel cut to receive it. The first fruits of this process are called kolophonium, and the second, resin, whilst the last result forms a kind of tar. Half the resin is, of course, wasted in this rough process, and when the devastators have taken of the best the hill-sides afford, they climb down to another green and luxuriant spot, there to recommence their work of destruction." Gaudry says that if a peasant wishes to sow some grain up in the mountains, he simply burns down the trees which stand on the spot, and their ashes serve to enrich the soil for a few years, during which it is cultivated, and when this piece of land is worked out, the same process is repeated in another place, and so on.

Means of restoring the forests.

To restore the forests to anything like their former condition will be the work of many years, and may at first involve a heavy expenditure; in the end, however, it cannot but prove remunerative, not only as regards the actual value of the timber itself for manufacturing purposes, but also on account of the influence which the existence of forests would have upon the climate. This last subject has been considered in Chapter VI.

To effect the restoration of the timber supplies of the island, not only will whole districts have to be replanted, but it is suggested that all the existing woods and forests should be put under the immediate protection of the government, and their culture and general management entrusted to efficient persons; every act of wanton destruction should be punished, boundary lines round the villages should be fixed, and restrictions placed upon the present trade in resin. Opinions regarding the best trees to plant in the island have been freely offered since our occupation of Cyprus commenced. In the selection of these trees, great care will be required, for various

qualifications are needful, and no trees should be introduced which will not eventually repay the Government by an increase of revenue; thus, those which are chosen, should, if possible, be trees of rapid growth, be able to resist both heat and drought, and to adapt themselves to the soil of the island; they should, moreover, supply the requisite material for fuel, and for manufacturing purposes. The suitability of the *eucalyptus globulus* for planting in the plains is universally insisted upon from a directly hygienic point of view; its capacity for destroying the malaria of marshy lands, and its rapid growth in almost any soil have already been alluded to in Chapter VI. But there are numerous other trees equally, if not more, important, which may well be mentioned. Several varieties of the Australian acacia would prove invaluable acquisitions in a manufacturing point of view; amongst these the *Acacia cyanophylla* and the *Acacia leiophylla* resist heat and drought in a wonderful manner, and are not particular as to the quality of the soil in which they grow. The wood of these trees makes excellent fuel, and is useful for cabinet work. The bark is extremely rich in tannin, yielding as much as 25 per cent., against 6 or 7 per cent. in the ordinary oak bark. Some of these Australian acacias have been planted in Algeria, and at ten years of age have been found to have bark about six times as thick as oak trees of the same age. The careful removal of the bark at proper intervals, does not affect the growth of the trees, so that in this way alone a new and important industry would be introduced into the island, and at the same time the quantity of firewood that would be available from the proper lopping of the trees would be enormous.* It is also quite possible that the jarrah tree of West Australia, the timber of which is superior to any other variety for ship-building purposes, might flourish in the island. The *pinus maritima*, which even now abounds in parts of the island, is a fine and useful tree; more of these should be planted, and the existing trees tended and encouraged. On the mountains may be found spots where there is a young growth of this tree, but in most cases the plants are not allowed to reach maturity, for those which are not destroyed by man, are irreparably injured by the sheep and goats which wander at will amongst them.

Amongst other trees which flourish in the Levant, the walnut is one of the most valuable, and fine specimens now exist in Cyprus:

The Spanish chestnut would probably flourish; it is important as a crop-bearer, and its timber is very valuable for house-building, being almost imperishable. It should also be remembered that amongst the exports of the Levant, valonia, the cup of the acorn of the *quercus agilops*, is very largely consumed in England, being the chief aid of the tanner. This article varies in marketable value from £20 to £30 per ton, and is at present gathered only in its wild state. Any quantity of acorns can be collected, and there can be little doubt that should oak forests be planted upon Crown lands in Cyprus, they would eventually yield an important revenue.

* When our troops first arrived in Cyprus, it was reported that everything was cheap and plentiful, except fuel and fodder.

Forest trees
now existing
in Cyprus.

The trees which are at present to be found in the island are the following:—the *pinus maritima* covers most of the mountain regions to the height of 4,000 feet above the sea, as one of the commonest trees; the *pinus laricio* abounds on most of the heights to 4,000 feet, and on the western mountains it rises to 6,000 feet, giving the slopes a dark appearance when seen from a distance; the wild cypress (*cupressus horizontalis*) is the next most abundant tree; it is very common in the eastern part of the island, and in some places forms woods by itself; throughout the northern chain this wild cypress often grows to the height of from 2,000 to 3,000 feet above the sea, and it is probable that in ancient times large forests of this tree covered a great portion of the island. A shrub, the *juniperus phænicea* is also common, and was once very abundant indeed, especially in the southern part of the island.

Several varieties of the oak, and the cork-oak, are found in the northern mountains; the arbutus abounds everywhere, and on the banks of the rivers and streams, the carob and olive trees flourish, and extend up to an elevation of 1,000 feet above the sea.

Dr. Unger and Kotschy, in "Die Insel Cypern," Chapters V. VI. VII. pages 97–401, supply most valuable botanical information regarding the forest and fruit trees, and the vegetation of the island generally.

Fruit trees.

The fruit trees of Cyprus deserve special notice; they have acquired some notoriety, and, as may be expected from the geographical position of the island, are mostly those peculiar to southern countries.

Oranges,
citrons, and
lemons.

Orange, citron, and lemon trees are largely cultivated in the gardens throughout the island, but not in sufficient quantity for their fruits to be an article of exportation; indeed oranges are occasionally imported into Cyprus from Tripoli and Jaffa.

Pome-
granates.

Pomegranates are very abundant, and a quantity of this fruit is annually exported to Alexandria.

Apricots.

The apricot is said to be the finest fruit of Cyprus, and the best variety is grown at Famagusta. Dr. Clarke says that the apricot tree appears to be indigenous in the island, and that it seems to flourish there in greater perfection than in any other country. He notices the great size of some of the trees at Nicosia, and mentions that the branches were supported by props to prevent their being broken by the load of fruit upon them. One variety has a smooth shining skin like a nectarine; another, called the "caisha," is sweet-kernelled and very luscious, and there is besides a small variety which is of poor quality, and is considered unwholesome.

Figs.

The fig-tree is very common, and is found in the neighbourhood of all villages.

Prickly pears.

The prickly pear grows in large quantities; it often lines the road-sides, and is also found in gardens. The fruit is cooling and wholesome, and is much eaten by the lower classes.

Grapes.

Grapes are abundant and of excellent quality; the vines grow to a great size, the bunches of grapes are large, and the fruit is highly flavoured; in some varieties the juice is said to resemble a concentrated essence. Some of the best vines have a yellowish

grape from which the Commanderia wine is made. The manufacture of wine, and its export from Cyprus, are considered in Chapter VIII. It was from this island that the vine was introduced with so much success into Madeira, and when the grape disease destroyed so many of the vines at the latter place, fresh shoots were sent from Cyprus to supply their places.

A small description of cherry is to be found in the island, and it is sold in the markets of Nicosia and Larnaca. Cherries.

Small quantities of apples and pears are raised, but their quality is very inferior. Apples and pears.

Melons and water-melons are produced in considerable quantities; the ordinary melons have little of the aroma of the cultivated fruit, but rather resemble the cucumber in flavour; there is however, another description, called "tumburæ," which is sweet and well-flavoured. The water-melons are smaller than those of Jaffa, and by no means equal to them in taste. Melons.

The palm tree abounds in Nicosia and Lefca, and is also found in smaller numbers in Larnaca and Limasol. Its presence in a village generally indicates that the majority of the inhabitants are Turks, the Mussulmans being much attached to this tree. The dates produced by the Cyprian palms are much inferior to those of Egypt, and never attain to the same degree of maturity. Palms.

Olives are one of the chief indigenous trees in Cyprus. They are constantly found with the carob trees at the base of the mountains and skirting the plains, forming a line of demarcation between the uncultivated mountain sides, and the tilled land below. The olive tree requires a certain amount of culture, and as it has been much neglected is now less common in the island, and less fruitful than in former times, consequently, instead of the oil forming a valuable article of export, barely enough is now produced for the supply of the inhabitants, and in spite of the profusion in which the tree is found, it is sometimes necessary to import olive oil into Cyprus to meet the requirements of the local consumption. Vast quantities of the trees in a wild state are scattered over the island, particularly in the vicinity of Baffo, but these are entirely unproductive, though all that they require to make them fruitful is merely to be grafted. From Consul Watkins' Report for 1877, we learn that the produce of olive oil in that year was estimated at 250,000 oke against 200,000 oke in 1876. Olives.

Prices ranged from nine to ten piastres per oke.

The presses which are used in the island are very imperfect, and it is said that twelve pounds of olives yield about three pints of oil. A tree often bears 150 lbs. of fruit.

The oil-producing districts are Cerinea, Kythrea, Larnaca and Limasol. As a rule the olive tree only produces abundantly once in five years, the conditions required for a good yield are cold and wet weather, then the quantity produced may reach 400,000 or even 500,000 oke. The oil is rarely exported; when it is cheap, soap is made in such quantities as to supply Mersine and other parts of Caramania.

Mulberry trees are grown in small plantations in various parts of the island, in order to supply leaves for the food of silkworms. Mulberry trees.

The culture of the tree is, however, almost entirely neglected, and consequently the quality of the silk has deteriorated. The best and finest mulberry trees are found near Baffa.

Nuts. Walnut and almond trees are comparatively rare, but they are found here and there in the island. General di Cesnola mentions the "two noble walnut trees" close to his house at Dali.

Vegetables. The utilization of the fruit of the island as a means of profit is but little thought of, as the amount sold in the bazaars of the town bears but a very small proportion to what is, or might be, produced. Von Löher says that even the celebrated vegetables of Cyprus are but little cultivated, and some varieties are becoming almost unknown, as the inhabitants content themselves with gathering wild cresses, artichokes, purslane, and asparagus. Of the vegetables which have been cultivated with success in Cyprus, and which can be procured there at the present time, the following are those most worthy of notice:—potatoes, cabbages, cauliflowers, pumpkins, cucumbers, gherkins, marrows, lettuces, tomatoes, spinach, celery, broad beans, french beans, lentils, onions and brinjals.

The prices asked for these vegetables have hitherto been very moderate.

Sweet potatoes are said to be indigenous to the country, but are not cultivated, and the people appear to be ignorant of the value of this esculent. Potatoes yield two crops a year, producing from 50 to 75 cwt. per acre; they are of fair quality, and do not appear to be affected by any disease.

It is said that Cyprus is the native place of the cauliflower, which in its English form has been produced by the art of the gardener from the *Brassica oleracea*, the part used for food being the deformed flower stalks.

The cultivation of rhubarb, saffron, hemp, and other valuable vegetable natural products is almost entirely neglected.

Colocynth. Colocynth is somewhat largely grown in the island and forms an article of export. The plant is the *cucumis colocynthis*, or *citrullus colocynthis*, but is known in Cyprus as colloquintida. The plants spread over the ground like the water-melon, which they also resemble in leaf and flower, as well as in fruit, whilst the melons are young: the spongy inside, or pith of the fruit, is used medicinally as a cathartic.

Sumac. Sumac grows in a wild state in Cyprus, and is an indigenous shrub. The quality of the Cyprian sumac is considered superior to that of the Tyrolese, but in the European markets, the Sicilian plants command a higher price. This may be due to want of special cultivation, to imperfect preparation of the leaf, or to a natural inferiority of the plant. It is generally exported from Limasol in the leaf; very little goes to England, but in 1877, £500-worth was sent to Turkey, and £450-worth to Greece. Various parts of the plant are used for tanning, dyeing, and in medicine.

Sugar canes. At the time when the Venetians possessed Cyprus, large plantations of sugar canes were made, and it is said that the plant succeeded in the districts of Episcopi and Lefca, as well as in Egypt. Buildings in which the sugar was refined were erected on these

spots, and the profits derived from the production of sugar so near Europe, must doubtless have been large. The plantations have now been entirely abandoned, though the soil and climate are probably as suitable at the present time for the growth of sugar-canes as at any previous period.

The soil of Cyprus is in various parts favourable for the growth of the coffee plant, and Sonnini thinks that it might be successfully cultivated. Coffee.

At one time a lucrative trade was carried on with Syria in the oil extracted from the seed of the jujube tree, *zizyphus jujuba*. This oil, as well as that obtained from glasswort, is used when the supply of olive oil is insufficient. Jujube oil.

The mastic tree (*pitachia lentiscus*) grows abundantly in the torrent valleys; on incision a resinous gum exudes, which is very useful as an astringent, an aromatic, and an ingredient in drying varnishes. Mastic.

From various plants found in the island, liquid storax, also called liquid amber, is obtained; it is a fragrant resinous substance, medicinally used as an expectorant, and by the natives it is burnt for incense. Storax.

This substance is a gum resin of dark colour and pungent odour. It is distilled to some extent in Cyprus from the *cistus ladaniferus* and the *cistus creticus*, and is chiefly used medicinally as a mild stimulant in external applications. Ladanum oil.

One of the most important plants of the island in respect to its economical uses is the *Ferula Græca*; of the stalks the Cypriote forms a great part of his household furniture, and the pith is used instead of tinder for conveying fire from one place to another. Ferula Græca.

Drs. Unger and Kotschy in "Die Insel Cypern" give a complete synopsis and enumeration of the flora of Cyprus, together with their commercial and medicinal uses; they say that prairie or meadow-land does not exist in the island, but arable land entirely takes the place of it. The Flora.

The want of hay for the food of the animals belonging to the British army of occupation, was much felt when the troops first landed, and a quantity of fodder had to be imported.

After the rains, but only for a short time, cereals give a satin-like green to the landscape, and among them grow a profusion of flowers; but these artificial rather than natural fields fade more quickly than the flowers, and scarcely last more than a few weeks after the end of the spring rains. The great heat of summer destroys all the tender plants, and only those survive which, through their anatomical construction, or hard substance, can resist the effects of the heat. This description applies, however, only to open plains where there is no water, for throughout the island wherever the earth is sufficiently supplied with moisture, thousands of plants spring up in rich profusion, and there can be no doubt that the soil is almost everywhere luxuriantly fertile. One of the principal difficulties experienced by agriculturists is to keep their corn from being smothered by weeds. The valleys of the rivers and torrents are clothed with immense quantities of shrubs and flowers; of these the most abundant are the arbutus, myrtle, oleander,

juniper, and mastic ; whilst the carpet of flowers is composed of roses, jasmine, poppies, tulips, hyacinths, narcissus, ranunculus anemones, &c., all of which thrive without any cultivation.

In February and March there is a profusion of lilies along the edges of all streams, and in April and May the flowers which have been mentioned are in their greatest beauty.

Drs. Unger and Kotchy state that in Cyprus, as far as the island has yet been explored, there are a thousand different sorts of plants, and they enumerate all the genera and species.

Still, with all the inducements to cultivate the soil which exist, vast wastes have under the late government been allowed to exist, although probably at one time or another the greater part of them have been under tillage. These uncultivated tracts are burnt up and dry ; they are generally covered with bushes of a furzy nature, prickly brambles and thistles, or overgrown with heath, thyme, and various aromatic and odoriferous plants.

In the following chapter, which treats of the agriculture of the island, and those vegetable productions which at present form articles of trade and export, a full account is given of the growth, culture, and quantities of several products which have not been mentioned above, viz., wheat, barley, cotton, madder-roots, silk, vines, (and the manufacture of wine), locust-beans, and tobacco.

CHAPTER VIII.

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS.

THE report of Consul Riddell for 1872 contains several important facts relating to the agriculture of Cyprus. From it we gather that this branch of industry is in a very rude and backward state; the farmers are poor, they possess but small holdings, their implements are of the rudest and least costly description, and they are wholly without the means or knowledge requisite for maintenance of high cultivation. Scarcely any system in the rotation of crops is observed; manure in sufficient quantity thoroughly to enrich the soil is not to be obtained, artificial manures are unknown in the island, and their cost would prevent their general use; so, to prevent the land from becoming quite worked out, it is usually allowed to lie fallow every alternate year. No root crops were then produced beyond a few patches of ill-cultivated potatoes in the vicinity of towns, but we now hear better accounts of the potatoes, also that beets, turnips, and artichokes do well under irrigation, the latter yielding from 2½ to 5 tons per acre.

Defects in the system of agriculture.

Land has generally hitherto been cheap, but its price varies according to its suitability for particular crops, its means of irrigation, and its distance from any town or village. The richest ground is used for crops of madder roots, cotton, tobacco, &c., and it is stated by Consul White that in 1863, good cotton land, in a favourable position, was worth about £9 the acre, and that madder root land at Famagusta commanded a comparatively very high price, as much as £90 the acre having been paid for it; this price is a striking instance of the influence of the situation of land over its value, for the madder roots produced at Famagusta are inferior to those grown at Aghia Irene or at Morpho, yet the land at the former place is five times more valuable than at the others, in consequence in a great measure, of its more convenient position for the shipment of the crop, and the larger population of the district, as well as the greater profit obtained by the earlier growth of the root. In the Messaria, where wheat is largely grown, land averaged in 1863, from £2 to £3. 10s. It is said that ordinary crop-bearing ground fetched on an average £3 an acre, and cotton-producing ground £10 an acre. The value of land both for agricultural and building purposes, may, however, be expected to undergo great change in consequence of the British occupation of the island, and, as far as private properties are concerned, the landowners will probably consider the prices mentioned above to be quite a thing of the past.

Different kinds of land.

Irrigation of
land.

As regards irrigation, the country is divided by one writer into five kinds :—

1. Plains watered by rivers.
2. Land dependent on rain for irrigation.
3. Land watered by wells, and worked by means of mules.
4. Mountainous regions, producing only vines and timber.
5. Soil prepared so as to retain its moisture during the dry season.

Cultivation being in Cyprus so entirely dependent upon the water supply, the nature of the irrigation is of the highest importance in the selection of land. In 1845, land watered by torrents or springs fetched £10 per *scala*, whilst that which was dependent on rainfall only fetched from 1s. to 19s. per *scala*.* Districts with running waters are cultivated for cotton, barley, and wheat. Droughts have generally occurred in recent times about every fifth or sixth year. Blights are frequent in April and May, and some of the hot winds in summer exercise a very injurious influence upon the crops, especially the cotton plants, which are withered and burnt down to the very roots by it.

Proportion of
cultivated
land.

The number of acres annually under tillage has been variously estimated at from 130,000 to 160,000; this, if we take the area of the island at 3678 square miles (Keith Johnston's figures), represents only about one-fifteenth or sixteenth part of the whole country, but as a great part of the land is generally left fallow every alternate year, we may consider that scarcely one-tenth part of the area is under cultivation,† and when it is remembered that the part now cultivated does not yield, owing to the defective modes of culture which have been alluded to, more than perhaps a half of what it might produce, it is evident that there is a wide scope for intelligent development of the agricultural resources of the island.‡ Consul Lang in his Paper on Cyprus in Macmillan's Magazine of August, 1878, says that he is still of the same opinion as when, in 1870, he stated that the part which Englishmen have chiefly to play in the development of the agricultural resources of the island, is not as labourers, but as intelligent farmers, bringing their practical knowledge to guide operations carried out by natives, and possessing a sufficient capital to undertake works upon a considerable scale.

A consular Report of 1873, states that the main obstacles to the introduction and general use of improved agricultural implements are not only their cost, but also the ignorance of the native cultivators, who would have to be taught the proper use of European implements, and lastly the want of skilled workmen to keep them in repair.§

* A *scala* is about 60 paces square.

† Perhaps as much as one-fourth part of the island has at one time or another been under cultivation, but much of this now bears no traces of tillage, and is covered with thorny scrub and weeds.

‡ Report of H.M. Consul upon Industrial Classes, 1873, referred to again at page 146.

§ When Consul Lang was in Cyprus, he had English ploughs, harrows, &c., sent out to him, but found after a time that the natives could not give him effective aid with these implements, so he abandoned them, and got the best models of the native plough instead. He says that the results of his efforts in the way of agriculture surpassed all his expectations.

Consul Riddell agrees in the belief that colonization by industrious European farmers, can alone bring about the needful improvements, and he says that the soil, climate, and geographical position of the island offers strong inducements to European immigration, against which the only deterrents were the long periods of drought, and consequent bad seasons to which the island was subject, and the unfostering character of the Turkish Government. The last of these no longer existing, it is to be hoped that British enterprise may to a certain extent overcome or counteract the evil effects of the first, and that Cyprus may in future years become highly productive. That the water supply for purposes of irrigation can be both improved and economized, is beyond a doubt, and the attention of both the Government and the private agriculturists, will probably be turned at once to this matter.

Consul Riddell, writing again in 1875, says, "there is a great and increasing scarcity of field labourers, even at comparatively high wages, and there being also a very great want of animal power for agricultural purposes, much of the land put under crop has been insufficiently worked, which will affect the yield and diminish the average quantity."

In 1876, Consul Riddell says, "I am unable to report any improvement either in the system of agriculture or the implements used, and although improved European implements have been partially introduced, they do not appear as yet to have attracted such notice amongst the native agriculturists as to have had any general or even extensive use.

Still the chief wealth of the island lies in its agricultural products, the most important of which are wheat, barley, cotton, madder roots, silk, wine, raisins, olive oil, locust-beans, tobacco, fruits, and vegetables.

Agricultural products.

The following details concerning the growth, culture, and amounts of these products are, in a great measure, extracted from the annual reports of the British Consul at Cyprus; the information contained in these is of the highest value, for they indicate very clearly the various causes, such as drought, imperfect cultivation, injudicious taxation, decrease in demand, &c., which in different years have affected the yield, and consequently the export trade of the island, so that if the following remarks are read in conjunction with the statistics of trade which are given in Chapter XIII, a fair estimate of what the wealth of Cyprus might be under an enlightened government can be easily deduced.

The wheat of Cyprus is a hard and small grained variety; its quality is good and it is said to possess all the advantages of the hard wheats of Russia. It is largely grown in the north part of the Messaria plain, the best lands there are said to have yielded thirty bushels per acre in a good year; throughout the island the yield of wheat ranges from 9 to 20 bushels per acre, averaging 14½ bushels; the difference being attributable to the care taken in its cultivation, and the nature of the season; the wheat from the Baffo district is considered the best in the island. In 1862 the harvest was unusually large, and is supposed to have yielded as much as 120,000 quarters; the average annual produce at that time being

Wheat.

about 80,000 quarters. The sowing season commences in October, and continues as the weather permits, until the beginning of January, the harvest commences at the end of May, or beginning of June. It has been noticed that the value of all the grains of Cyprus is lowered in European markets in consequence of the primitive manner in which the operation of threshing is conducted; it is found that small stones from the threshing-floor become mixed with the grain, and can only be separated afterwards at great trouble and expense. This defect can of course be easily remedied, but at present it is a fatal objection to the use of the grain by nearly all the grinders of flour in England.

Barley.

The barley of Cyprus is a good description, and superior to the ordinary Egyptian barley. In the best lands of Messaria the yield per acre in a good year is said to be as high as forty bushels, and the average throughout the island is about twenty-nine bushels. The average produce of the island is about 120,000 quarters, but the harvest of 1862, which, as stated above, was very abundant, yielded 180,000 quarters. The seed is sown during September and the two following months, and the crop is reaped at the close of April, and the beginning of May, thus preceding the wheat harvest by about a month.

Grain crops.

The following extracts from consular reports indicate the variations which occur in the grain crops generally from year to year, and show clearly how they may be accounted for.

From Consul Riddell's Report for 1872:—

"The grain harvest of 1872, though superior to that of the previous year, was yet below the average of what is considered a good year in Cyprus. In 1870 the grain crops were a total failure; in 1871 the production sufficed for seed and the wants of the population, with only a small surplus left over for exportation; in 1872 there was comparatively a much larger quantity of both wheat and barley exported, which was chiefly sent, the former to the Archipelago and Italy and the latter to Barbary, where nearly a famine prevailed. The average prices obtained here may be quoted at about 16s. 6d. for barley, and 34s. for wheat per imperial quarter. I regret to have to state that, owing to the want of sufficient rain, the crops of 1873 are likely to be nearly a failure again, and at the best it is reckoned that few farmers will gather from their cultivated lands more than the seed sown upon them, in many cases not even this, thus losing all their labour and receiving nothing to support themselves, their families, and the animals necessary to till the ground and prepare it for next year's crops. The lot of the peasant farmer in Cyprus has become, through a succession of bad seasons and drought, one of extreme hardship and poverty, and I trust the Imperial Government may come to their aid, generously and timely, either by remission of taxes or giving employment on public works undertaken for this purpose, and for which there is a profitable field."

From Consul Riddell's Report for 1873:—

"In my Report for the year 1872 I mentioned that owing to the want of sufficient rain the harvests of 1873 were likely to turn out a failure. This has proved to be the case to an extent even exceeding the worst apprehensions; and unfortunately applies to nearly all the products of the island, so that not only have large quantities of grain been imported at high prices, with an accompanying strain upon the financial resources of the island, but also there having been little produce for exportation, trade has severely suffered throughout the year. The prices of grain continued until the end of June at about the same as stated in my Report of 1872, say £1. 14s. for wheat, and

16s. 6d. for barley per imperial quarter. By the end of August it became apparent that a considerable importation of grain from abroad would be required to carry through the winter—but although imports then commenced, and prices also began to advance, it was not until the last two months of the year that any serious rise in prices took place. By the end of the year, and notwithstanding considerable importations of grain from Turkey, prices here had risen to £2. 16s. for wheat, and £1. 17s. for barley."

"Owing to prices having continuously advanced in Syria, Caramania, and Anatolia—from whence supplies for Cyprus could be brought—imports not only cost more money to the importer, but supplies began also to fall off in quantity, so that by the end of March of the present year stocks in Cyprus were well-nigh exhausted, notwithstanding that prices had risen to about £3. 15s. for wheat and £2. 7s. for barley, with an insufficient supply for the wants of the island till next harvest. Great numbers of the quasi-starving peasants were obliged to subsist on the edible roots of such indigenous plants as they could dig up in the fields, using also locust beans to a large extent in lieu of cereals. The tithes of the year collected by the Government amounted to only a small amount, which had all to be given out to the peasant farmers for seed, without which they had not the means of replanting their fields for the harvests of 1874."

"Altogether, 1873 has proved in every respect one of the most disastrous years remembered in Cyprus, and, owing to the great scarcity and high price of food, the borders of famine have been touched, and the hardship and suffering are great."

From Consul Riddell's Report for 1874:—

"The year 1874 will be remembered as one of the greatest abundance within the memory of any living inhabitant. Generally all the crops of 1874 in this island have been abundant, whilst those of cereals have far surpassed the most sanguine computation. Both barley and wheat, especially the former, having met with an active demand for exportation, the produce has been turned into money as fast as it could be brought to market, and at more than the usual average prices for Cyprus grain. At the end of the year there had been exported to Europe alone 48,000 quarters of wheat and 66,800 quarters of barley, besides considerable quantities, of which no correct estimate can be obtained, sent to Syria and Anatolia, and the year closed with large quantities of both wheat and barley still existing in the island for export thereafter. The average price paid for wheat may be estimated at £2. 3s. and of barley £1. 1s. per imperial quarter, put free on board ship. A new and remarkable feature in the grain trade of Cyprus is the quantity of barley exported to England, carried there chiefly by steamers. Of the total quantity of barley exported to Europe to the end of 1874, estimated at 66,800 quarters, and valued at £70,350., no less than 41,300 quarters, valued at £43,365, were sent to England."

From Consul Riddell's Report for 1875:—

"The crops, though yielding less in quantity than in 1874, were nevertheless a good fair average, and grain met with an active export demand at fair prices; indeed, at the beginning of the season wheat found numerous buyers for Italy at exceptionally high prices, though the average figure for the year is computed at about £1. 12s. per imperial quarter. At the beginning of the season the Italian demand pushed up the price to about £2 to £2. 2s. per quarter. Barley realized an average of about 17s. per quarter. Of barley there was exported to Great Britain in 1875 about 45,000 quarters, against 41,300 quarters in 1874."

From Consul Pierides' Report for 1876:—

"The rainfall during the winter of 1875 and the spring of 1876 was insignificant, so that the grain crops of 1876 were very short, and the exports amounted to only one-third or even one-fourth of those in 1875, and the quality of both wheat and barley was poor. The average price for wheat was

30s. per quarter, and that of barley 14s. free on board. The wheat was chiefly shipped to Italy, and barley to Belgium and England, with three or four small cargoes to Africa."

From Consul Watkins' Report for 1877 :—

"Although a very fair proportion of land was put under cultivation, the result of the grain crops for the year 1877 is as follows :—800,000 kiloa. of wheat, against 1,600,000 in 1876 ; 1,500,000 kiloa. of barley, against 2,400,000 in 1876.

"Of this a little was exported in the early part of the harvest, and when it was thought that the crops would succeed better than they eventually did ; as the season, however, advanced, it was found necessary to import rather than to export, and prices of grain increased from £1. 10s. to £2. 15s. for wheat per quarter, and from 17s. to £1. 12s. for barley per quarter,

Only a very small quantity of oats is raised in Cyprus, but heavy crops have been obtained. Maize is also but little grown, and the quality is very poor ; the plant only attains a height of 4 ft. or 5 ft., but better cultivation and irrigation would very much improve this crop.

Cotton.

Cotton is a very important product of Cyprus, and though the native seed is not of a very superior description, the island is capable of producing most serviceable qualities of cotton wool. During the American War, American seeds were introduced into Cyprus, and proved a great success, the fibre is excellent, but the staple is somewhat short. Consul Lang himself tried the New Orleans seed with profitable results, but he mentions a difficulty experienced by peasant cultivators in the production of cotton from American seed. It appears that the pods produced by it open out at maturity so fully, that, unless the cotton is at once picked, it falls on to the ground and deteriorates, thus the picking during the season requires to be done almost daily, but this does not suit the tax-gatherer who has to be in attendance to receive his eighth portion ; and this circumstance alone prevents many native growers from using this seed, although they acknowledge its advantages. Consul Lang suggests that as nearly all the cotton grown in the island is exported, it would be of advantage to the grower that the tax imposed upon the produce should be collected at the time of shipment, and not when the crop is gathered. Mariti relates that under the Venetian rule, 30,000 bales, or 6,600,000 lbs. of cotton were annually exported from Cyprus ; latterly, the quantity produced is comparatively very small, as is shown by the reports which follow, and it is considered that perhaps not more than one-twentieth part of the cotton which the island is capable of producing, has recently been grown. The greater part of that which is now exported is sent to France and Austria. Intimately connected with the growth of cotton is the subject of the increase of the means of irrigation, and if, as suggested by competent authorities, water could be obtained in Cyprus by the artesian system, the profits that might be realized in this branch of agriculture alone, would be great.

The best time for sowing cotton is in April or May, but until very lately the growers were compelled to wait for the swarms of locusts to cross the land before sowing, otherwise the whole crop

would have been destroyed. The loss occasioned by deferring the sowing till so late is alluded to in Chapter VII, but now fortunately owing to the destruction of the locusts, the seed can be put into the ground at the proper time, and the cotton is fit for picking before the autumnal rains, which are injurious to it. The seeds are planted three and four together at proper distances, and when the shoots appear above ground, the strongest plant is allowed to remain, and the rest removed. The ground is hoed in June or July, and the cotton collected in October or the beginning of November.

The yield averages about two bales of 250 lbs. each to the acre, and its value is about 4*d.* per pound.

There are various qualities of cotton, called the best, good mercantile, passable, and mercantile; there is also an inferior kind known by the name of *scovazze*, which is consumed on the island.

From Consul Riddell's Report for 1872 :—

"The yield of 1872 has proved very deceptive. The cotton lands were planted under favourable auspices, and the seed sprouted readily :—the plants as they grew up had a vigorous and healthy appearance, flowering most abundantly, and until the end of September there was every appearance to justify the expectation of an abundant yield of good quality; from that time, whether owing to some atmospheric influences or other unknown causes, a great change was observable in all the cotton fields, the plants lost their vigour, the flowers dropped off, and many of the bolls which had already formed, shrivelled and fell off the plant, whilst a large proportion of those which came to maturity contained discoloured cotton of weak and brittle fibre. The entire yield is not estimated, by the most sanguine, at more than 7,000 native bales of about 250 lbs. each, whilst several experienced and well-informed agriculturists do not expect it will turn out more than 6,000 bales, if even so much. There is a growing favour for cotton produced from American instead of from native cotton seed, owing to the higher prices and readier sale which the former meets with in those markets to which it is exported; but there is great need of a new and sufficient supply of fresh American seed to maintain all its best characteristics when grown in this island."

From Consul Riddell's Report for 1873 :—

"The result of the crop of 1873 turned out very deficient in quantity and inferior in quality. The influences which caused such an unfortunate result were alluded to in my Report of 1872; but the yield of the whole crop fell much below the lowest and worst estimates then formed.

"The gathering of cotton in Cyprus rarely begins earlier than the month of October, and there is none ready for export before the month of November. Only a very insignificant quantity was exported to Great Britain in 1873, owing in part to the want of regular opportunities of shipment, referred to in my Report of 1872, and also that down to about the middle of the year, the prices obtained for raw cotton in the markets of Marseilles and Trieste were relatively much higher than those current at the same period in Liverpool; hence the bulk of the shipments in 1873 went to foreign ports. Of a total export amounting to 827,704 lbs., only 19,430 lbs. went direct to Great Britain. Prices here based upon quotations of value in the Mediterranean ports became greatly inflated, and there is too much reason to believe that very heavy losses have been sustained by exporters. The crop of 1874, owing to the larger area of cotton land which the torrents have permitted to be well watered, will it is expected be both large and good, unless subjected, as it was in 1873, to unusual and deleterious influences."

From Consul Riddell's Report for 1874 :—

"Contrary to the general expectation the cotton crop of 1874 has been a very

indifferent one, the quantity small, and the quality inferior, except on some of the choicest watered and best cultivated lands. The reduced prices of raw cotton in the European markets, compared with what they were during the American Civil War, the difficulty of procuring sufficient "pickers" when the cotton grown from American seed arrives at maturity, and the deterioration in quality partly from bad seed, and careless cultivation, sufficiently account for the declining state into which this valuable textile has fallen in Cyprus; nor does there appear any reasonable ground of hope for future improvement. Much land upon which cotton has been planted during past years is now being sown with crops requiring less care and attention in the cultivation than cotton, and it is said that a comparatively small breadth of land in 1875 will be devoted to cotton. The scarcity and high wages of labourers, coupled with the scarcity and dearness of all animals suited to agricultural labour, operates no doubt as a great barrier to maintaining and extending cotton culture in Cyprus."

From Consul Riddell's Report for 1875:—

"*Cotton*.—Its culture has not undergone any change since my last report, and it appears to be stationary both in the extent of production and the quality of the fibre. Its cultivation in Cyprus is now mostly confined to such localities and soils as are best adapted to its growth. The Cyprus cotton is now chiefly sent to Marseilles, and also to Spanish markets through Smyrna, and a little to Trieste. Hardly any goes to Great Britain, where it does not command the same prices as it obtains in other foreign markets."

From Consul Pierides' Report for 1876:—

"The largest portion of the whole production (which exceeded that of 1875) was shipped to Trieste and Marseilles, the average price being about 4d. per lb."

From Consul Watkins' Report for 1877:—

"The cotton crop in 1877 was very fair as regards quantity and quality, and may be estimated at about 2,000 bales of 200 okes per bale, the average price being about 4d. per lb."

Great care and attention are given to the cultivation of this plant, which is chiefly of American seed.

Experiments have been made with the view of introducing the Bamia cotton, but it is thought the dry nature of the soil is little adapted for its growth."

Madder roots.

Madder roots, which produce a dye commonly known as Turkey red, were for a long time in great demand in England, to which country about two-thirds of the annual shipments of this article from Cyprus were consigned, and the trade was one of the most important and profitable possessed by the island. Of late years, however, as evidenced by the reports which follow, the demand has decreased owing to the substitution of alizarine dye. The Plain of Morpho, and the fields round Aghia Irene, and near Famagusta, are the localities where madders are produced in the largest quantities. The roots grown at Aghia Irene are the finest and have the richest colour, those of Morpho are next esteemed, and afterwards those of Famagusta. The culture of this plant requires very assiduous care and attention, but the profits are correspondingly large. Madders are planted in November, January, and February; at Morpho, and at Aghia Irene the roots are in their greatest perfection three years afterwards, and should not be gathered until then. At Famagusta, however, they are best fit for picking eighteen months after planting, but rarely are the roots

allowed to remain so long in the ground, for in order to obtain more rapid profits they are picked at Morpho and Aghia Irene two years, and at Famagusta one year, after planting.

From Consul Riddell's Report for 1872:—

"Prices in the island having been more favourable to the grower this than the previous year, a larger quantity was lifted, estimated at about 6,600 cwts., of which about 5,000 cwts. have been exported to Great Britain. Rumours of a successful substitute being largely produced in Germany are creating some apprehension amongst the growers of roots in this island, and as a consequence the prices offering being now lower, a smaller quantity has been lifted this spring than usual. Madder-root lands bear a high value in Cyprus, and anything arising to permanently lower the value of the roots in the European markets would prove very injurious to the owners of such high priced lands."

From Consul Riddell's Report for 1873:—

"The quantity of madder roots produced in 1875 has been scarcely inferior to that of previous years, notwithstanding the great depreciation in the value of this dye in the markets of Europe. The falling off, however, in the quantity sent to Great Britain is remarkable, being only 230 cwts. against 4,930 cwts. in 1872. Of the entire quantity exported in 1873 (about 4,700 cwts.) 4,250 cwts. went to France; it would therefore appear that prices have been more remunerative in France than in England. Growers in Cyprus are turning their madder-root land to other purposes, as they affirm that present prices are much less remunerative than will be other products which they can obtain from the same lands. The crop of 1874 will be probably much below that of previous years."

From Consul Riddell's Report for 1874:—

"The cultivation of madder roots in this island is being gradually abandoned, and this branch of commerce, formerly large and valuable, will soon become extinct. This arises from the difficulty of sale, and the greatly reduced value of the root in the markets of Europe, where the new mineral alizarine is now used almost exclusively by all Turkey red dyers. The madder lands of Cyprus are being turned to other purposes, as the prices obtainable for roots, either here or abroad, no longer remunerate the grower."

From Consul Riddell's Report for 1875:—

"Having been almost superseded in the European markets by the mineral alizarine dye there cannot be said to be any demand for them, even at the very low prices which planters would accept in order to enable them to lift their roots and clear the lands for other crops. This trade, formerly a large and valuable one in Cyprus, may now be said to be practically extinguished."

From Consul Pierides' Report for 1876:—

"During the summer of 1876 there was a slight demand for the French market, but it only lasted a short time. The cultivation is being abandoned in many districts, and madder roots are superseded by the cultivation of more advantageous produce."

From Consul Watkins' Report for 1877:—

"The produce in 1877 amounted only to about 250 tons.

"It is probable that the root will not be cultivated any longer, seeing that the expense of growing it exceeds the actual selling price. The cause of this is the late substitution of alizarine for madder roots. Prices averaged £12 per ton free on board."

The silk trade, though less flourishing than in former times is still

still of value to the island. Various causes, mentioned below, have caused a diminution in the quantity annually exported. The best silk is produced at Baffo and the surrounding district; this superiority is chiefly the result of the mulberry trees being older than in other localities, and also because they are not grafted. The Baffo silk is generally of a beautiful golden yellow colour. Silk is also produced at Varoschia, close to Famagusta; at Kythra in the Karpas district, and many other of the northern villages, and also at Maratassa in the Troodos region, where the cocoons are remarkable for their beauty, and the brilliancy of their colour.

The Varoschia and the Karpas silks are very fine, and are generally white; in other places the cocoons are orange, sulphur-yellow, or golden yellow. In 1863 the average quantity of silk produced annually in Cyprus was about 56,000 lbs., one-half of which was raised in the district of Baffo; about one-tenth of the whole was at that period consumed in native manufactures, and the greater part of the remainder was exported to France. The Cyprus silk only needs a better system of winding to be adopted, to make it fetch a far higher price than at present, and to cause it to be more sought after in the markets of Lyons and Liverpool. Consul Watkins, writing at the beginning of 1878, reports that—

"The production of silk has sensibly diminished during the last few years, owing to disease amongst the silkworms, and to a partial fall in prices in the French market.

"The quantity produced formerly exceeded 25,000 okes of reeled silk.

"In 1877 the estimate of dry cocoons exported is 15,000 okes, and of those used in the island 4,000 okes.

Price of cocoons, 3s. 6d. per lb. free on board."

It can scarcely be disputed that owing to the evenness of the weather in Cyprus after the winter has passed, the island possesses great advantages over many other countries where silkworms are reared.

Wine.

The wines of Cyprus form one of the principal articles of export. They are made of several qualities: the cheapest are black and red common wines; these are coarse, heady, and have a strong taste of tar, acquired from the casks in which they are kept, and the skins in which they are transported, being always coated with pitch to preserve them from leaking. The tarry flavour is highly disagreeable to most tastes, but the natives are very partial to these wines, and they consider them extremely wholesome. Large quantities of these common wines are exported from Limasol in particular, and also from Larnaca, to Egypt, Syria, and Trieste, but never to Western Europe.

The best wine is that called Commanderia; it derives its name from a commandery formerly possessed by the Templars at Kolossi, about six miles west of Limasol on the road to Baffo. This is a sweet malmsey wine, but strong and heady; when quite new it is of a dark colour like a brown sherry, but after it has been kept two or three years it becomes very much lighter, though when old it again becomes dark, and eventually turns almost black, and thick like syrup. Commanderia, when quite free from contamination by tar, is of a rather agreeable flavour, but does not appear

generally to suit English taste, for few English travellers purchase it, and it is never sent direct to England; large quantities are, however, exported annually to Trieste and Constantinople, and some of the older and best qualities are shipped to France and Italy. There is another wine manufactured in Cyprus called "Mavro" (black), as all red wines are styled in Greek. It is very dry, and is consequently not much consumed, for the inhabitants, like all Orientals, prefer rich and sweet wines.

Morocanella is another description of very fair quality. Muscadine is a white wine, which is very sweet, and becomes like syrup even when comparatively new. Raki is a weak white brandy, made from the commonest red wine; a good deal is consumed in the island, the remainder is exported to Turkey. Cyprus wines are in best condition in spring and summer; both their colour and flavour are destroyed by great cold.

The grievances connected with the culture of vines and the manufacture of wine which are alluded to in the consular reports which follow, existed as long ago as 1863, and are then mentioned by Consul White, who says that the peasants were even then beginning to find it more profitable to sell their grapes, or to make them into raisins, rather than by turning them into wine to subject themselves to the duty lately imposed over and above the tithe and export duties, which were collected in a very harassing manner. The growers have had to pay, under the tax called "dimes" an eighth part of the produce of grapes to the treasury; but this could not be taken in kind, so a money value was fixed yearly by the local "medjlis" or mixed tribunal, but as the assessment was based on the market price at the chief town of the district, instead of the value at the place of growth, this tax instead of being about 12½ per cent., in reality amounted to over 20 per cent. Then again, when the wine was made, an excise duty of 10 per cent. was levied, and on export a tax of 8 per cent. had to be paid. The natural consequence of these excessive impositions has been the diminution of a culture for which the island is particularly adapted. Consul Lang suggests that it might be wise to free this production from all tax, except a proper export duty.

In 1852, the vines were attacked by a disease called "oidium," which has prevailed more or less ever since, and has greatly reduced the quantity of wine manufactured. With improved methods of preparation the Cyprus wine trade would doubtless become more extensive, for even the common wine of the country, which is sold at about 1d. per quart bottle, is a wine which in the opinion of competent judges, would be very valuable to the trade for mixing, if freed from its tarry taste.

From Consul Riddell's Report for 1872:—

"The quantity produced in the island of all kinds has been diminishing; this is attributed to heavy and injudicious taxation, the vine disease, and the continued droughts affecting the vineyards. It is also said that although the exportation of the lower ordinary qualities is maintained, there is a remarkable falling-off in the demand in all foreign markets for Commanderia of the better and more expensive sorts."

From Consul Riddell's Report for 1874 :—

"The production of wine in the island has been this year very abundant, surpassing the yield of many previous years, especially the common or black sorts, such as are consumed in the island, and largely exported to Egypt and Turkey. Very little of this wine finds its way to any of the European markets, owing chiefly to the "tarry" flavour imparted to it during the processes of fermentation and preparation, which unfits it for the purpose of mixing with other kinds of wine. The quantity of this common wine exported during 1874 is estimated at £37,500 in value.

From Consul Riddell's Report for 1875 :—

"The wine trade of Cyprus was last year exceptionally large, owing to the abundant produce of the vineyards in 1874. The outcome of grapes and wines in 1875 did not exceed an ordinary average, and growers still complain loudly that the imposts upon wines, reckoning from the grape to the vat, are so heavy—amounting to about 35 to 40 per cent, and their imposition and collection so very arbitrary and unequal, that many vineyards are being abandoned. The Government, it is said, have under consideration the anomalous state of the wine trade in Cyprus with a view to relieve and redress the many grievances of which producers complain, and in the meanwhile the collection of the imposts is suspended. Should the result prove to be the elaboration of a fair, reasonable, and consistent scale of duties, the revival of the wine trade may be reasonably looked forward to, and under sound regulations and with intelligent fostering, the trade could undoubtedly become a large and profitable one to this island. The principal wine-producing districts are situated in the vicinity of Limasol, whence the principal exports are shipped."

From Consul Pierides' Report for 1876 :—

"The quantity of all sorts of wine produced was much below that of 1875. The principal shipments were made to Trieste and Venice. The collection of the imposts, which was for a short time suspended, has recommenced, and the manner in which it is conducted is still arbitrary and vexatious, while remonstrances have hitherto been of no avail. It is time for the Government to put an end to these grievances which indeed threaten to destroy one of the best resources of the island."

From Consul Watkins' Report for 1877 :—

"The manufacture of wine here is greatly on the decrease; for, owing to all sorts of unreasonable regulations, and to the vexatious mode of their application, cultivators now prefer making their grapes into raisins.

"The wine produced in 1877 was 2,400,000 oke, of which one-fifth was Commanderia.

"Prices of both, 2½ pias. per oke, first cost."

Locust-beans.

The fruit of the carob tree (*ceratonia siliqua*), called in commerce locust-beans, is extensively exported from Cyprus. Until 1827, the sale of this product was a Government monopoly, but since this was abolished the cultivation of the carob tree has greatly increased, wild trees have been grafted, and new plantations are everywhere springing up. The tree flourishes in a wild state throughout the island, but is more particularly abundant in the districts of Limasol and Cerinea. Plantations at a distance from the sea are more productive than those in the immediate vicinity of the coast. General di Cesnola mentions some carob trees growing near Lefca, which measured 120 feet in circumference. The pods, or beans, were not many years ago exported chiefly to Trieste, and to Odessa or other Russian ports, but, according to recent trade returns, England has now become the largest purchaser of the

beans, which are employed as food for cattle, and also in the manufacture of a kind of molass. From the pulp of the beans the natives manufacture a sort of sweet cake, which they call St. John's bread; it is said to resemble manna, and is highly esteemed as a nutritive article of food; the Russian peasantry also eat a great deal of it during Lent. The great obstacle against a larger export of this product is the cost of freight, which represents about 30 per cent. of its price at the place of shipment. Now that British enterprise is especially directed to Cyprus, it is probable that means will be found to crush, and manufacture it into food for cattle before shipment, and so economize in large part the heavy freight. The production is especially valuable, as it requires but little labour and is largely remunerative; the following reports give full particulars regarding the present state of its culture and export.

From Consul Riddell's Report for 1872 :—

"The product of this food is annually increasing throughout the island. The tree grows readily in most soils, and not requiring much moisture or care its cultivation gives little trouble; however, although the tree grows and thrives without much moisture the yield of fruit is affected during dry seasons, the quantity being less and the quality inferior. The production of 1872 has been moderately abundant, and is estimated for all the districts at about 10,000 tons. The export is chiefly to the Russian ports of the Black Sea, and the average prices paid here this season may be reckoned at £4. 10s. per ton, which is high, and above the average of previous years."

From Consul Riddell's Report for 1874 :—

"The production of carobs in 1874, which forms a very important product in this island, has been below an average in quantity, whilst the quality is very inferior, attributable, no doubt, to the weaker condition of the trees through previous years of drought. Great, and what appears to be very foolish, competition amongst native exporters and dealers has, however, so far compensated growers by the exorbitant prices paid, and upon which there is too much reason to fear heavy losses must ensue. The abundant rains of last and the previous winter give rise to reasonable expectations of a good carob crop this autumn as regards both quantity and quality."

From Consul Riddell's Report for 1875 :—

"The crop of last year turned out, as anticipated, to be very abundant in quantity, and also of superior quality. At the beginning of the season in September, chiefly owing to the heavy losses of the previous year upon shipments to Russia, the export demand was very limited and prices low. Later on a comparatively large demand sprang up for England. Prices rapidly advanced to about £4. 10s. to £5 per ton, and considerable shipments were made at about these figures. This demand has now ceased apparently, and prices have receded to about £3. 10s. per ton with few purchasers, and also a comparatively small stock left over unsold. As compared with former years, Russia has taken a much smaller quantity, the largest proportion having been sent to English ports. The entire crop is estimated at fully 18,000 tons."

From Consul Pierides' Report for 1876 :—

"The crop was not so abundant as that of 1875. The demand for Russia is on the decline, and England is now our largest purchaser. The demand, however, is less steady, and prices are lower than in 1875. The crop amounts to about 14,500 tons, against 18,000 in 1875. Actual price £2. 13s. 6d. per ton of 20 cwt., free on board."

From Consul Watkins' Report for 1877 :—

"The demand for carobs being yearly on the increase, the peasants are seriously turning their attention to the proper cultivation of the tree, which was hitherto somewhat neglected.

"The yield in 1877 averaged 60,000 cantars of Aleppo, against 45,000 in 1876."

"It is most abundant when the winter is severe.

"In the early part of the season they changed hands at £3. 5s. per ton, free on board. The last purchases were made at £4 per ton, free on board."

Tobacco.

The extracts from the Consular Reports which are quoted below, indicate, without necessity for further comment, the cause of the decline in the culture and export of tobacco from Cyprus, and it is enough to mention that 20 years ago the production of this plant in the island was very considerable, also that the qualities grown in certain localities near Limasol, were highly esteemed both in Syria and in Egypt, but at present the production does not represent a tenth part of the consumption of tobacco in the island. The cause of this anomaly is explained by the Consuls, and it has been suggested that in order to raise this valuable culture to its former importance, it might be advisable to free it for a time from all burdens except export duty.

From Consul Lang's Report for 1870 :—

"Exorbitant taxation vexatiously applied is rapidly extinguishing the production of this plant in the island. Only a few years ago the island produced more than a sufficiency for the wants of the population, now four-fifths of the consumption is supplied by importation."

From Consul Riddell's Report for 1872 :—

"The production of this narcotic in Cyprus is small and is apparently diminishing. Whether from over taxation and other fiscal impositions and burdens, its growth is discouraged, it is certain that the production, as shown by the revenue derived from it, does not suffice for local wants. It is probably extensively carried on as well internally as along the coast from other countries. The revenue collected from it into the Imperial exchequer amounted in 1868 to only about £400 whilst in 1872 it has increased to £300."

From Consul Riddell's Report for 1875 :—

"Under the 'Régie' system the production of tobacco in Cyprus, which was never large, has almost ceased; on the other hand the consumption appears to be fully maintained, if not indeed exceeded, notwithstanding the enhanced price to the consumer and the decreased value to the grower. This appears to be amply confirmed by the remarkable increase in the revenue derived from tobacco under the action of the 'Régie' which came into operation in Cyprus during the month of April, 1874. To show this more clearly I have been able to obtain from a reliable source the amount of the excise revenues derived from tobacco in Cyprus during the past five years, reckoned from and to the 1st (13th) March of each year :—

				Piastres.
1872	57,836
1873	25,748
1874	28,260
1875	405,663
1876	845,557

1 cantar of Aleppo = 180 oke, and is therefore equivalent to about 504 English lbs. av.

thus satisfactorily, I think, showing that, however local production may have interfered with and lessened, it may be attributable more to less favourable advantages of soil or climate than to any reduction of consumption through the action of the "Régie," whilst this monopoly contributes largely to the revenues of the State, levied upon an article which must be regarded more as a luxury than a necessity."

From Consul Pierides' Report for 1876 :—

"The cultivation in the island is being abandoned on account of the fiscal difficulties attending it. The consumption of foreign tobacco is fully maintained under the "Régie," and the revenue derived is on the increase."

From Consul Watkins' Report for 1877 :—

"The monopoly is farmed out, and there are eight depôts in the island, of which four are in Nicosia, two in Larnaca, and two in Limasol, opened in 1874. Selling prices vary from 30 to 10 pias. The quality sold here is principally the lowest, and about 6,000 okes at 15 pias the oke. The quantity disposed of in a year is about 100,000 okes, from which the Government nets 1,300,000 pias. The payment to the Government was formerly made in Medjidis, at 20 pias, but now calmé is taken at par. Of the above quantity of 100,000 okes, one-tenth is exported to Syria and Caramania in sealed packets.

The tobacco used here is brought from Volo and Salonica, where it pays an "octroi" duty of three pias. per oke. Cyprus formerly produced about 20,000 okes of tobacco, but now, on account of the vexations to which the grower is subjected, the quantity grown does not exceed 5,000 oke."

This Chapter has been confined to a description of those agricultural productions of Cyprus, which at present form articles of trade and export. In Chapter VII, which treats of the Natural History of the island, a full account has been given of all the other vegetable products, viz. : the forest trees, the fruit trees, the vegetables, shrubs, plants, herbs, and flowers.

CHAPTER IX.

GEOLOGY AND MINERALOGY.

THE physical features of Cyprus, consisting of two distinct mountain systems, the larger, the Olympus range, which occupies the south and south-west portion of the island, separated by a large plain, called the Messaria, from the other, called the Cerinea and Karpas range, which borders the north coast, have been topographically described; it now remains to consider their geological aspect.

Speaking in general terms, the fundamental masses of both the mountain ranges are composed of igneous or plutonic rocks, but there is this difference, namely, that in the southern range these rocks form the main mass of the mountains, and extend in a continuous line from west to east; whilst in the northern range they occur only in subordinate and isolated patches of small extent. This plutonic, or perhaps in part metamorphic, formation, consists chiefly of greenstone, with its varieties, such as diorite, gabbro, aphanite, &c., and is associated with a quartz-bearing trachyte, a rock of undoubted volcanic origin.

These rocks are overlain by sedimentary deposits, amongst which we find various limestones, sandstones, argillaceous marls, beds of gypsum, and conglomerates.

The chronological order of the several formations has been determined by Gaudry as follows, commencing with the oldest—

1. The compact Limestones. These are supposed by Gaudry to be cretaceous, whilst Unger and Kotschy classify them as jurassic.
2. Sandstones or "macignos." Gaudry considers this formation to be lower tertiary (eocene), but it is identified by Unger and Kotschy as Vienna sandstone (upper cretaceous ?)
3. The white marl, white chalky limestone, and gypsum. These beds are middle tertiaries (miocene).
4. The igneous and plutonic (metamorphic ?) rocks.
5. The coarse limestone, sand, and marl. These beds are upper tertiaries (pliocene).
6. The sands and conglomerates. These are a quaternary formation.

The above order is only open to question with regard to the relative chronological position of the plutonic rocks; in this matter the authorities before us are not of accord, and until a more thorough geological examination of the island has been made, it is difficult to speak on the subject with certainty. It appears, how-

ever, to be not improbable that the main mass of these so-called plutonic rocks, may in reality prove ultimately to be metamorphosed and highly plicated strata of secondary and primary (cretaceous and older) formations. Such rocks have been known in South America, in Jamaica, in the British Isles, and other places to assume the appearance of some of the common igneous rocks, and it may possibly be the case in this instance. Subsequently these rocks, with the unaltered sedimentary rocks which overlie them, may have been traversed and altered by the trachytes and their associated igneous rocks. This view of the relations of feldspathic and hornblendic masses is comparatively modern, and may not have been considered at the time when the valuable works of Gaudry, Unger, and Kotschy were written.

1. This limestone forms the axis of the northern chain of mountains, and extends, in a narrow and unbroken ridge of rugged and uneven rock, from near Cape Kormakiti to Komi in the Karpas district, a distance of about 60 miles. Gaudry recognises this limestone as identical in appearance with the masses of hippurite limestone which abound in the south of Europe, and which reappear in Asia and Africa, but Drs. Unger and Kotschy consider it to be a jurassic formation. This rock is generally fine-grained and of even texture, but in the vicinity of the plutonic rocks it is very variable both in texture and colour, it often loses its compactness and becomes schistose, with all the variations between the two; the fracture is sometimes even, sometimes conchoidal, the colours are black, grey, blue, and white. No definite stratification can be detected; the beds are much tilted up, in many cases even approaching the vertical, and it is not impossible that on closer examination they may prove to be closely folded beds, denuded at the surface.

1. The compact limestone.

The highest points in the chain rise to about 3,000 feet, and consist, as a rule, of yellowish red limestone containing small fragments of dolomite; this is the case at Pentadactylon and at Bufavento. Here and there amongst the plutonic rocks on the southern slope of Mount Olympus, and on the Acamas peninsula, are found limestones similar to those above described, and they are probably of the same formation. At Cape Greco, the south-east extremity of the island is a limestone rock rising 500 or 600 feet above the sea. It is compact, of a light colour, has steep sides and contains corals such as the *Favia*, the *Stylina*, and perhaps the *Heterocomia*. Professor Reuss is of opinion that this rock belongs either to the chalk or to the upper jurassic formations.

2. Gaudry, following the example of the Italian geologists, gives this formation the name of "Macignos," using the term to denote a certain physical contexture, rather than a definite chemical composition; he considers the rock to belong to the eocene period. Drs. Unger and Kotschy identify the formation with the Vienna sandstone.

2. The sandstones

These sandstones present numerous mineralogical differences; they are in different places, calcareous, argillaceous, and micaceous, Their colour is usually dark grey, but is often tinged with yellow, brown, or green. The rock is generally fine-grained, but the several beds vary considerably in hardness.

This formation is found almost exclusively in the northern range, where it rests upon the compact limestone, but it also exists in isolated patches in the south-western extremity of the island, near Cape Acamas, and at Drimou, Chrysoroghiatissa, Hagios Georgios, and Acoutzo. The absence of organic remains in this sandstone renders its geological age difficult to determine. In most cases the formation occasions a hilly and unproductive district, and it is only in the localities where the slopes are gentle, and where shales prevail, as above Myrtu and Asomato, that cultivation is attempted. Good building stone can be obtained from this formation.

3. The white marl, chalky limestone, and gypsum.

3. This formation is of the middle tertiary age, it covers a very large portion of the island, and is one of its special geological features. The white marls of the Messaria plain and of the Karpas range; the chalk-marls along the southern side of Mount Olympus, and on the Acamas peninsula; the beds of gypsum in the Karpas mountains, and to the northward of Larnaca, all belong to this formation.

In the great plains surrounding Nicosia and Morpho the white marl forms a productive soil, which at first sight might be supposed to consist of detritus washed down by streams from the friable shales of the northern range, but, on closely examining the order of superposition of the strata, this is found not to be the case, for the nearly perpendicular strata of sandstone (eocene) fall towards the south, and gradually disappear under the marl, which in its turn is in places, and particularly along the south side of the Messaria, surmounted by the sands and conglomerates of the pliocene and quaternary formations, but where these have been removed by erosion, the white marl forms the upper stratum. Certain fossils are found in this formation, but they are somewhat rare. Gaudry mentions the *Astræa*, *Chenopus*, *Toxobrissus*, *Cidaris*, and various foraminifera.

That the marly strata belong to the tertiary formation is evident from their connection with the white chalky limestone which forms so large a part of the mountains throughout the island, and in which are found the large beds of gypsum described a few pages further on. The rock is well exemplified in the chain of hills which stretch along the north of Larnaka to Monte St. Croce; no organic remains have been discovered in it. Gaudry says "that the inclination of sedimentary beds on the south slopes of the hills to the west of Larnaca, is such as to lead to the belief that artesian wells sunk at Larnaca and the Marina, sufficiently deep to reach the white marl, would afford an abundant supply of water." He illustrates this by a section showing the disposition of the strata from Sinaitico, through Hagia Anna and Kalo Khorio, to Larnaca.

4. The blue and green schists.

4. These rocks cover about a quarter of the island and are well worthy of attention, on account both of their curious metamorphic effects, and of the minerals which they contain. They form the summit and the whole of the northern slopes of the Olympus range from the western shore at Khrysokho Bay to Monte S. Croce, and on the south side of the mountains they extend as far as Scarpho,

Omodos, Phinicarga, and Moni. In the northern chain they do not constitute the main mass of the mountain, but only appear here and there above the compact limestone in isolated domes; their chief points of development in this part of the island are between Hagios Panteleimona and Vasilia, near Clepini and Hagios Chrysostomos, and between Ghilanemo and Platanisso in the Karpas district.

The most important of these rocks are greenstone, hornblende, diorite, augite, diabase, and gabbro, only these prevail to any great extent, and they constitute the main portion of the formation whilst quartzite, porphyry, wacké, clay-slate, ochre, &c., are only found isolated, and are entirely subordinate to the first-named rocks. Allied to the clay-slate is a yellow and red argillaceous iron-stone found with aphanite at Herakli; it is not worked.

Diorite, diabase, gabbro, and such like rocks are the chief components of the mountains in the south-west of the island; they rise to a height of from 2,000 to 6,000 feet above the sea, and form a continuous chain from Monte St. Croce to the Troodos, and thence to the sea.

This range averages about 25 miles in breadth and is seamed in all directions with deeply sunken valleys. This broken character is indeed the main feature of the mountains of Cyprus, and looking westward from Prodromo, it may be observed to the best possible advantage. The several ores and minerals found in this formation are described later.

The aphanite and quartz-porphyry which appear in places on either side of the rugged limestone rocks of the northern range, give evidence of the rocks which, though hidden by more recent formations, underlie the whole island.

The quartz-bearing trachyte found in the north-west environs of the Hagios Chrysostomos is certainly an igneous and eruptive rock, and is of more recent date than any already mentioned. It differs outwardly so little from the older limestone which surrounds it, that on a superficial glance it might easily be overlooked, especially as its colour is much the same. It is a fine-grained, somewhat earthy decomposed mass of greyish-white colour, containing numerous brownish-grey and smoke-grey crystals of quartz. Feldspar crystals are not found in it, neither is there any trace of hornblende. The rock answers completely to the normal Hungarian rhyolite of von Richthofen.

The several rocks which are in close proximity to the plutonic formation present various strange metamorphic phenomena. In the northern range, the compact limestones, naturally of a dark colour, become white in the neighbourhood of the wackés; close to the line of contact, they are impregnated with silex and are schistose; they shine and the white colour is tinted with grey, green, and brick-red.

Where the sedimentary formations are in immediate contact with the wackés, ochres are found with shiny greenish surfaces, and they are often cracked and broken into small cubes which it is almost impossible to distinguish from the wackés. Where the Vienna sandstone and the chalky limestones are in contact with the

wackés, they are in a schistose state, are veined with quartz, and of a greenish-grey colour.

5. The coarse limestone, sand, and marl.

5. The upper tertiary formation is found in the Karpas district in several places; at Bogasi, it is a white limestone containing *ostrea edulina*; at Hai Theodoro it is a coarse marly limestone; near Hai Simeon it is a coarse limestone containing large specimens of the *pectunculus*; near Calebournou it forms a high hill of sand and soft limestone containing several fossils; it also appears at Ghilanemo, Rhizo Carpasso and Yaloussa. The formation is also found in the Cerinea mountains at Clepini, Lapethus, Vasilia, and other places; it here much resembles the miocene marls. It covers with yellow sand the southern edge of the Messaria plain from Visatchia to Athienou, where the hills have a base of white miocene marl, but their upper part is an upper tertiary formation of fine fossiliferous sand.

The formation again appears at Cape Pyla, and at Mavrospilios in the south-eastern part of the island; here the rock is chiefly a coarse marly limestone, containing numerous fossils, such as *pecten*, *pectunculus*, *tellina*, *ostrea*, *spatangus*, *echinolampas*, &c. Along the southern coast of the island are bands of conglomerates, sands, and coarse limestones, lying on miocene beds, but it is difficult to determine whether they are of the pliocene or the quaternary period.

6. Sands and conglomerates.

6. A cordon of rocks of quaternary formation borders the coast of Cyprus almost throughout, and its continuity renders the study of it comparatively easy.

The components of this cordon are coarse yellowish limestones, grey or yellow sands full of foraminifera, and conglomerates which are sometimes hard, sometimes friable. At Cape St. Andrea the marine conglomerates appear to be of quite recent formation. The whole of the north coast from Cape St. Andrea to Cape Kormakiti is composed of coarse limestones, slightly glauconitic, and of the same character as those of Hagia Napa on the south coast. Generally the beds are horizontal, but near Yaloussa, they incline slightly to the south. The following fossils are amongst those found on the north coast:—*rissoa*, *trochus*, *cypræa*, *conus*, *columbella*, *cerithium*, *lucina*, *pectunculus*, *arca*, and *ostrea*. The shore of the west side of the island is formed of coarse limestones alternating with sandy conglomerates containing aphanite. These rocks simply border the sea, and do not extend any distance inland; they lie horizontally on masses of aphanite and ophite.

The southern coast of the same character; its rocks are of the pliocene and quaternary periods.

The peculiar character of the conglomerate hills inland has been noticed by Drs. Unger and Kotschy and many other writers. They occur notably along the road between Larnaca and Nicosia, as it enters the plain of Messaria, in numerous conical and table-shaped heights, with intervals between them which are evidently the result of erosion. The conglomerate is chiefly composed of diorite pebbles, and generally appears in two beds separated by a layer of sand; it rests upon the tertiary marl and must once have been a continuous layer.

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS.

Accepting for the present Gaudry's assertion that the compact limestones are of the secondary, or cretaceous, epoch, and putting aside the doubt as to whether the pseudo-plutonic rocks may possibly be older formations which have undergone a process of metamorphism, then, although the absence of fossils in this limestone prevents its exact age from being known with certainty, we may consider it to be the oldest formation in the island; and from its fine grain and homogeneous texture and colour, extending over a large area, where not modified by the contact of eruptive rocks, we may further assume that it was deposited beneath a very deep and tranquil sea.

The sandstones which overlie this formation were also formed beneath the sea, but under different conditions and in shallow water; for their remarkable tabular appearance, and their very changeable texture, being in some places very hard and in others quite friable, seem to indicate the existence of strong under-currents, as well as subsequent pressure, and variable cementation.

That the marls which succeed were formed in deep sea appears evident from their fine texture and the rarity of fossils; probably no violent commotion or sudden change of circumstances separated this formation from that below it. The miocene age (according to Gaudry) closed with an upheaval of the island from the bottom of the sea, and the two great systems of mountains existing at present, then first appeared above the water, the northern chain which is less lofty than the other, being perhaps at this period separated into several small islands. Whether this upheaval arose from vertical or lateral pressure is difficult to determine, and the question as to the true age and formation of the greenstone, diorite, and other plutonic (or perhaps metamorphic) rocks, must for the present be left in abeyance.

Drs. Unger and Kotschy remark that the dislocations and disturbances of the strata, which are perceptible in the older rocks, appear to have a local character, and do not seem to have been coeval with the general up-lifting of the island, and they consider that the eruption of trachyte, though small, may have had no small share in these disturbances. The portion of the island left submerged in comparatively shallow water was now covered by the pliocene fossiliferous deposit, after which a slight upheaval took place, and the quaternary conglomerates and sands were next formed. Lastly, the whole island was raised by an extensive upheaval of about 500 feet, and it then assumed its present form and relief; it is believed that this alteration of level was preceded by violent storms which had the effect of washing away a great portion of the conglomerate deposit. The littoral cordon, which contains numerous fossils almost identical with living species, is similar to that which appears on nearly all the eastern shores of the Mediterranean; its formation is therefore due to something more than a local occurrence, and has been attributed to a general fall in

the level of the water of the Mediterranean, and it is very possible that this is the true solution. These changes do not seem to be by any means at an end, for in both pre-historic and in historic times, and even up to the present day, they have continued under the form of earthquakes and alterations of level, of greater or less force and extent.

Drs. Unger and Kotschy consider that the upheaval by which the marine sedimentary strata of the island were raised above the level of sea, probably established a land communication with Syria; this supposition alone may account for the concordance of the Cyprian fauna and flora with those of the neighbouring continent. The connection, if not removed by ordinary erosion, may have been taken away by the sinking of the isthmus shortly before the historic period, in consequence of one of the commotions alluded to above.

THE METALS OF CYPRUS.

Cyprus has contained, and very probably still possesses great metallic wealth; the working of the mines in ancient days is proved by the unanimous testimony of all authors to have been a source of great riches; the positions of the mines are still visible, and the accumulations of scorix which are found in many spots show the existence of the foundries. The district which appears to have been most worked is that round Lisso, a village situated near the Western extremity of the Olympus range, in the midst of porphyritic rocks abounding in minerals. At Djinhoussa in the same neighbourhood the remains of ancient mines and galleries are very distinct. Near Poli-tou-Khrysokho, on the coast, are three large mounds of scorix, and from its situation, this place appears to have once been a busy mining centre. Near Lithrodonda there are also traces of mining operations on a large scale, and evidences of extensive excavations are apparent at Tamassus, Lefcara, Phinicarga, Arediou, Corno, and Soli.

As all mining operations in Cyprus have long since been abandoned, information regarding the various metals supposed to exist in the island can only be gathered from ancient writers, and from the above-ground observations of geologists and travellers.

1. Gold.

1. The authors of ancient times appear to make no mention of the existence of gold in Cyprus, but Etienne de Lusignan, writing in 1580, says that Cinyras found a mine of gold; he does not, however, mention from what source he obtained this information. Pliny tells us that Cinyras discovered copper in the island, but he says nothing about gold. Porcacchi da Castiglione, a contemporary of Etienne de Lusignan, speaks of gold, and goes so far as to assert that a vein of this metal existed at Poli-tou-Khrysokho; it is true that this name certainly does mean a "town in the land of gold," but Gaudry, having carefully examined the locality, has come to the conclusion that very probably some sparkling substances, such as copper- or iron-pyrites, or even mica, may have been mistaken for gold by persons unlearned in mineralogy. It is, however, quite possible that in the quartz and in the pyrites there

may be traces of gold, but no competent authority has yet proclaimed the fact.

2. Strabo, on the testimony of Eratosthenes, mentions the existence of silver mines in Cyprus, and in the history of Pliny we read of molybdenite and silver being found at Cape Zephyrium, near Palæ Paphos. Dr. Pococke writes that the Monte S. Croce contains lead mines, but no traveller in Cyprus has in modern times actually seen either the silver or lead. Gaudry says that he searched both the localities above mentioned, and could find no trace of either metal, but he still considers it quite possible that the Cyprian sulphide of copper, may, as is generally the case, contain traces of silver.

2. Silver and lead.

3. Copper mining in Cyprus dates from very ancient times; Pliny states that the first discovery of the metal was made in this island. Aristotle, Strabo, and Galien expatiate upon the extreme richness of the copper mines at Tyrria, Tamassus, and Soli. In more modern times, copper was still the most renowned metal of Cyprus, and in 1576 testimony of this fact is borne by Porcacchi da Castiglione and by Etienne de Lusignan. Various minerals of copper such as malachite, chrysocolla, chalcopyrite, &c., have been found in the island. The working of this metal has undoubtedly been both an important branch of industry and source of wealth in Cyprus, but later mines have been entirely neglected. The quality of the Cyprus copper was famous, the "æs cyprium" was considered superior to any other.

3. Copper.

4. Gaudry says that he discovered no zinc in Cyprus, and that the presence of this metal could not be detected in any of the scorïæ subjected to analysis by M. Terreil; but the latter fact is, however, no proof of its previous non-existence in the rock, for it is well known that zinc volatilizes and rarely leaves any traces in scorïæ. Ancient authors, Dioscorides, Pliny, and Galien write positively concerning the excellence of the pompholyx and the calamine of Cyprus, and these minerals are respectively the oxide and carbonate of zinc. They appear to have been worked at Soli.

4. Zinc.

According to Gaudry, iron abounds in Cyprus, both in the state of sulphide and hydrous oxide; it is to be found at Monte S. Croce of excellent quality in the form of scaly crystals. The metal does not appear to have been worked in either ancient or modern times, and the above author considers the statement of Sonnini that iron mines are scattered over the island, to have been based upon false information.

5. Iron.

6. The peroxide of manganese is abundant; it is found in various conditions, sometimes it is in a pulverulent state, and sometimes hardened by silex. It occurs in threads, or else disseminated throughout the igneous rocks near their line of contact with the sedimentary formations. This substance was known to the ancients as black manganese, and it is consequently strange that no mention of its occurrence in Cyprus is made by the historians of the island, as it is found not only in the rocks, but also in great quantities in the scorïæ.

6. Manganec.

BUILDING MATERIALS.

Limestones
and sand-
stones.

Cyprus is rich in excellent building materials. The compact limestone of the Cerinea range is a good and durable stone, it is especially suitable for the capitals of pillars, for friezes, and for any part of a building which requires carving; still this rock rarely has the grain of marble, nor is it entirely either black or grey, but of varied tints. Much of the formation being in contact with the plutonic rocks has become cracked or schistose, and solid blocks of large dimensions are not easily obtained. Cyprus possesses no true marbles, and it is probably on this account that the monuments of antiquity have nearly disappeared, and that the art of sculpture was not more cultivated. For constructions where the stones should be large, but are not required to be built up to any very great height, the lower tertiary sandstones (the "macignos" of Gaudry, and the Vienna sandstone "of Unger and Kotschy") may be used with advantage. They consist of alternate bands of hard and friable sandstone, and the hard parts are very easily separated from the friable beds, so that the stone can be worked without great labour. At Florence a similar stone has been used for the construction of several fine buildings. The most generally useful building stones of the island are, however, the coarse limestones of the littoral cordon. These pliocene and quaternary limestones are very like the coarse eocene limestones of Paris. The beds are very thick and regular, consequently stones of large dimensions can be cut from them. They may be worked on the surface of the ground close to the shore almost all round the island; and, as they can be shipped at once, their transport is both easy and cheap. The stone is generally not so hard as to make the working of it at all difficult, and it forms the usual building stone of the island. A curious example of its use is shown at Buffavento; here the castle actually stands on the compact limestone at a height of over 3,000 feet, but instead of using the latter material, it was preferred to raise to this height, blocks of the limestone of the littoral cordon.

Gypsum.

The gypsum of Cyprus was held in great esteem by the ancients; it is of very pure quality, and is found in great abundance amongst the white miocene marls all over the island, from Karpas in the east, to Drimou near the western extremity. The beds amongst the hills to the north west of Larnaca, along the road leading from that town to Ithi, have been largely worked. It is found in several varieties; most frequently it is in a granulated form, but it also occurs almost compact, and can then be raised in large sheets. This gypsum forms an excellent material for the paving of rooms, and for some interior court-yards.

ORNAMENTAL STONES USED IN JEWELLERY.

Rock-crystal is very common amongst the porphyritic rocks of the mountains of Cyprus, and is particularly plentiful where these rocks have passed into the wacké condition. Pliny makes mention of the amethysts of Cyprus. Gaudry says that he could not find any amethystine quartz in the island, but crystals abounding amongst the ores of iron and manganese are frequently tinged with these substances and have the appearance of amethysts. Rock-crystal.

The jasper of Cyprus is of remarkable beauty, and may be found in sufficient quantity to repay the labour and expense of working. Theophrastes, Pliny, Etienne de Lusignan, Mariti, and Sonnini have all testified to its merits. The colours are generally green, yellow, purple, red, or black, but it is also sometimes found in bands of well defined and various colours. The best specimens are to be found at Platanisso, Hagios Andronicos, Mavro-vouni, Visatchia, Acoutzo, and Moni. Jasper.

Pliny mentions the existence of agate in Cyprus. On the northern slope of Olympus, near Hai Herakliti, the green and red jaspers are somewhat translucent, and Gaudry thinks it not impossible that fine agates and bloodstones might be found in this locality. White chalcedony abounds on the southern slope of this mountain range at Pentacomo and Moni, in the white siliceous marls of the miocene age. Agate.

According to Pliny, varieties of the opal, which he calls *paideros* and *sangenon* were found in Cyprus, but Gaudry was unable to discover any true opals in the island. Opal.

The substance which ancient writers have called the "diamond of Cyprus" is probably analcime, a silicate of alumina; this supposition is to a certain extent borne out by the fact that in the localities where the presence of the "diamonds" is indicated, large quantities of very fine analcime crystals have been found. In the caverns near Baffo, crystals of this substance are found in large numbers and of great beauty. Analcime.

Several ancient authors have mentioned the emeralds of Cyprus. Theophrastes says they are found in the copper mines. Pliny speaks of the green colour of the Cyprian emeralds being often unequally distributed in the same stones. Porcacchi da Castiglione, Etienne de Lusignan, Le Pieux Pelerin, and Sonnini all allude to the emeralds found in the island, but probably only on the authority of the above-named writers. Emeralds.

Gaudry does not credit their assertions, but thinks that the name of emerald has been given to some copper mineral, or perhaps to quartz-prase, which has a green tint.

Morion is a black quartz. Pliny mentions a substance which he calls morion, as existing in Cyprus, but says it resembles the colour of sardonyx. Gaudry did not discover any true morion, but, amongst the minerals that he found, that which most accords with Pliny's description, was an opaque flesh-coloured hydrolite. Morion.

MINERAL SUBSTANCES EMPLOYED IN THE ARTS AND INDUSTRIES.

Clay and
marl.

The clays and marls of Cyprus have been used for brickmaking since the earliest ages until now. The bricks are made chiefly in the southern part of the island in the vicinity of Mazoto and Arpera; lime, or fine white sand, is spread over the ground, and on this the bricks are dried by the heat of the sun only. Most of the houses in Larnaca, Limasol, and the villages, are built of these bricks. There are several potteries: earthenware articles for domestic use and large wine jars are made at Larnaca, Limasol, Lapethus, Varoschia, and Corno. The pottery is porous, very fragile, coarse, and without any elegance in form. On the site of the ancient Idalium, statues and terra-cotta vases have been found, the grain of which is less coarse than that of the present pottery. Really good pottery clay is, according to Gaudry, scarce in Cyprus; the sandy marls have not sufficient consistency, but, in the vicinity of the plutonic rocks, the sedimentary beds have in some cases been partially altered into argillaceous rocks, which supply a far better material; this is the case particularly at Ghilanemo in the Karpas, but the beds appear scarcely sufficiently extensive to be worked with profit.

Umber.

Umber, or *terra d'ombra*, was undoubtedly worked by the ancients in Cyprus, and formed an article of export. It is a true ochre composed chiefly of hydrous oxyde of iron, and is a schistose and somewhat friable substance. The Cyprian umber is of excellent quality and well worthy of its high reputation; it is much used by painters. It is generally of three shades, light brown, very dark brown, and brownish yellow. The substance has been analysed by Klaproth, with the following result:—

Oxyde of iron	—	—	48
Oxyde of manganese	—	—	20
Silicic acid	—	—	13
Alumina	—	—	5
Water	—	—	14
			100

It is found in the clay-slate at a hill about seven miles north of Larnaca, near Stroullus and Mavro-vouni. It can be dug on the surface of the ground, and is sent into Larnaca in small carts. The greater part is exported to Holland.

Green earth.

A green earth is found in Cyprus, chiefly on the northern slopes of Olympus, in sufficient quantity to pay for working it. This substance is the product of the decomposition of igneous rocks.

Klaproth has analysed it as follows:—

Silica	—	—	51.5
Oxyde of iron	—	—	28.5
Potash	—	—	18
Magnesia	—	—	13
Water	—	—	8
			100

It is used by painters, and a green dye can also with very little preparation be made from it; it is employed for colouring the walls of rooms, &c. A small quantity is exported to Holland.

This substance is found in Cyprus, and was an article of export in the seventeenth century. Copperas, or
blue vitriol.

The asbēstos (or *amianthus*) of Cyprus has been highly praised by ancient writers, but it is of no great value in the arts, and does not appear to have been much used in former times. Dioscorides, Dyscolus, and Etienne de Lusignan (1580) notice it in their works. It is chiefly found in the country between Limasol and Baffo, also in the hills above Soli, and is described as of superior quality, being very white and silky, with a delicate fibre. It is no longer worked in Cyprus. Asbestos.

It has been stated that emery is to be found in Cyprus, but Gaudry thinks this is a mistake, and that some black sandstone of extreme hardness, which is found near the extremity of the Acamas peninsula has been mistaken for this substance. Emery.

Ancient writers say that both black and white alum exist in Cyprus. Alum.

Soda was once an article of export from Cyprus. M. De Mas Latrie says that the village of Kalopsida in the Messaria, was one of the places where it was chiefly collected. To the south of Tricomo, Gaudry noticed the plain covered with efflorescences of sulphate of soda which appeared like snow. It was analysed by M. A. Damour, and found to contain the following substances:— Soda.

Sulphate of soda	0.6587
Sulphate of potash....	...	0.0036
Sulphate of magnesia	0.1814
Chloride of sodium	0.0336
Water	0.0928
Insoluble earthy substances	0.0290

0.9991

It is frequently stated that coal exists in Cyprus, but it is certain that it has never been worked, and scarcely anything is known as yet regarding either the position or extent of the beds. Mr. Lang, who was for some years British Consul in Cyprus, states positively in a paper contributed by him to Macmillan's Magazine in August 1878, that he has some specimens of coal which were found near the ancient Soli. Coal.

The salt lakes of Cyprus are worked, and afford an important source of local revenue. These lakes, or lagoons, occur in two places; near Larnaca they extend along the coast in a southerly direction for about five miles towards Cape Kiti; and to the westward of Limasol on the Akrotiri Peninsula is another lake: both occur amongst rocks of quaternary formation. The Larnaca lakes, according to the dimensions given them by Etienne de Lusignan and by Mariti, appear to have recently diminished in extent. The Larnaca salt is the whitest, but that of Limasol is considered the most pungent. Gaudry says that the lakes are supplied in the following manner: in winter, when strong south and south-west winds blow, the sea rises along the shore slightly above its natural Salt.

level; the salt water then penetrates the unconsolidated quarter-nary sands which border the coast, and salt lakes are consequently formed in the neighbouring low ground. He mentions the popular idea of the Cypriotes concerning the supply of salt, but considers it erroneous: they say that during the rainy season, water runs down from the mountains and fills the lakes with fresh water, which the heat of summer evaporates, and the soil being strongly impregnated with salt which combines with the fresh water a crust of pure salt is then left on the surface of the ground. This opinion is based upon the fact that the more rain that falls in the winter, the greater is the yield of salt. Gaudry answers this by showing that the rocks over which the rain-water flows are white marls, calcareous sands, and aphanites, which contain scarcely any chloride of sodium, and that the simple reason why more salt is collected after a rainy season, is that the surface of the lake is enlarged, and the deposit of salt covers a larger space, so that although the total mass remains the same, a larger quantity can be gathered up. It is, of course, not impossible that rock-salt may exist (as is often the case) in the vicinity of the gypsum which abounds not very far off, but the formation of the salt lakes does not appear to be due to water flowing from any such beds.

Sometimes there is too much water in the lakes for the whole of it to be evaporated; in ancient times drains were cut so that the overplus might be got rid of, but these are now choked up, so that often the salt cannot be collected from a great part of the lakes.

Salt has for a long time been exported from Cyprus with profit; it was an important source of revenue in the time of the Lusignans, and during the rule of the Venetians seventy vessels are said to have been loaded annually for export. Salt now forms a government monopoly, and its importation from other countries is strictly prohibited. The salt lagoons appear to be able to provide an almost unlimited supply, but the fiscal policy of the Turkish government is so unwise, that the profit is very much less than it would be under better management. Until 1863, the lakes were farmed out for sums varying from 200,000 to 300,000 piastres per annum (£1,800 to £2,700), but this system was then abandoned, as it was found that the quantity of salt yielded in one year was, allowing 20 per cent. for loss, about 20,000 tons, which, at the government rate of 500 piastres the araba, gives about £72,700. This quantity cannot, however, at present be always sold in one year, so the salt is heaped up in large mounds by the sides of the lakes, and the produce of the former year must be sold before that of the new year can be touched. The salt is collected in August, so that it may be heaped up before the autumn rains; the mounds then become very hard, and remain uninjured throughout the winter. No attempt is made to refine the salt. Consul Lang remarks that it was hopeless to expect efforts of improvement from the Turkish government, but if made by British enterprise, they are certain of success. In the hope of raising the revenue, the government some years ago increased the price of salt; it was then immediately found that Syria, which previously had drawn nearly its whole supply of this article from Cyprus, could be supplied at a cheaper rate from

Benghazi, consequently the price was lowered again, but the mischief was then done, and, in spite of the cost of sea carriage, Syria is still largely supplied with Barbary salt, and receives only a comparatively small portion of the annual consumption from Cyprus.

Consul Riddell, writing in 1873, says that the tariffed price in Cyprus is 20 paras per oke (say about a penny for 2½ lbs.), and at Benghazi, salt is sold for 17 paras the oke, with, it is alleged, better weight. Hence it is evident that if the price were now lowered 2 or 3 paras per oke, the Barbary traders, who at present make only bare profit, would have to abandon the Syrian market, and the salt revenue of Cyprus would be largely increased.

Consul Watkins in his report dated March 1878, says: "The salt lakes of Larnaca, which belong to the government, can produce salt to the extent of 20,000,000 of okes per annum. It is collected in the autumn, and sells at 20 paras per oke in *caimé*. In 1877, the quantity exported, principally to Syria, amounted to 3,734,000 okes, and that for internal consumption is estimated at 729,000 okes, making a total of 4,463,000 okes.

CHAPTER X.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, &c.

Population. THE population of Cyprus, as shown by the estimates given below, has varied very considerably at different epochs in the history of the island.

In ancient times it was stated to be	2,000,000
In 1571, at the date of the Turkish Conquest	400,000
In 1791 according to Mariti it was	40,000
In 1801 " Sonnini	60,000
In 1815 " Dr. Clarke	60,000
In 1840 " Consular Reports	100,000

In 1841 a census was ordered to be taken by the Governor, Talaat Effendi; the figures obtained were not very exact, but they showed a total population of 108,000 to 110,000; of these 75,000 to 76,000 were Greek Christians, 32,000 to 33,000 Turks, 1,200 to 1,300 Maronites, 500 Roman Catholics, and 150 to 160 Armenians. The population of Nicosia was then 12,000, consisting of about 8,000 Turks, 3,700 Greeks, and a few Armenians and Maronites. In 1854-58, consular reports stated that the population had risen to 180,000, consisting of 26,514 families, of which 7,299 families were Turkish, and 19,215 Christians.

The population of Greek Christians was then described as increasing, and in 1867 the population was reported to amount to 200,000 inhabitants, of whom no less than three-quarters were Christians of the Orthodox Greek Faith.

The last official report we have is that of Consul Watkins, who, writing in March, 1878, says that of the estimated present population of 200,000, about two-thirds are Greek, and the remainder, with but few exceptions, Moslems. Since the cession of the island to Great Britain, several estimates, varying considerably in their figures, have been made concerning the present population, but the best authorities consider that there are now about 220,000 people in Cyprus, three-fourths of whom are Christians.

The causes of the sudden and rapid increase of the population since 1840, have been assigned to the disappearance of the plague, which was always a source of considerable mortality in Cyprus; the introduction of vaccine, and consequent comparative freedom from small-pox; and to the somewhat improved system of government which has been adopted since that date.

(continued)

The inhabitants consist of the native Cypriotes who form the great bulk of the population, for the Turks, though governing the country, are quite in a minority; moreover, amongst those who are

considered Turks, and in outward appearance might be taken for Mahomedans, many are not so in reality; the greater part of these are the descendants of converts, and would go back to their original faith if they could, others are of the sect known as Linobambaki, which is described a few pages further on, and are the descendants of forced converts; they are unwilling followers of Islamism, and have little or no sympathies in common with the true Turks.

The Armenians, Maronites, Europeans, and other nationalities in the island form but a very small fraction of the total population.

The inhabitants of Cyprus are often included in a general classification as Greeks, but this is evidently incorrect, for, from the earliest days up to the present time, not only have the characteristics of the people been essentially different from those of the true Greeks, but it must also be remembered that ethnologically the Cypriotes, belonging to the old stock of the island, which has been aptly called "proto-Hellenic," are quite a distinct race from the Greeks, with whom, indeed, almost the only connecting link lies in the fact that the majority of inhabitants of Cyprus are Christians of the orthodox Greek faith, and it would appear that it is on this account alone that they have been considered to be Greeks. The number of real Greeks by birth now in the island is stated to be not more than a few hundreds.

In character the Cypriotes are deficient of the liveliness and nervous activity of the Hellenes, and do not possess any Hellenic aspirations; their leading traits are a quiet and docile disposition, combined with frugal and careful habits, and considerable cunning in business transactions. The natives are said to be very sociable and hospitable, and are remarkably fond of pleasure, but, although wine is both abundant and cheap, they are as a race considered very sober; still they waste much of their time in the cafés, are great frequenters of the fairs which are often held in different parts of the island, and are devoted to all amusements. The climate of the island does not promote industry, and the Cypriotes, as a rule, are very averse to hard and continued labour; the extreme simplicity of their mode of living, and the inexpensiveness of the necessities of life, enable the labouring classes to indulge in idle and lazy habits, which in most other countries would inevitably lead to ruin. This love of ease is, however, combined with saving habits, and it is said that the natives are often very niggardly and avaricious, so that although, on the one hand, they do not care to work and make money, on the other hand what little they do earn is hoarded up, and made to last a long time; no expenditure that can possibly be avoided is ever incurred, and in food and living generally, they are particularly temperate and frugal. Coarse bread, cheese, olives, and vegetables, with now and then salt fish or salt pork, form the ordinary food of the peasantry, and all these articles can be procured at extraordinarily low prices.

The Cypriotes are very easily governed, anything like brigandage is unknown in the island, and burglaries and assassinations are very rare, though, by recent accounts, it appears that the use of the knife in quarrels, particularly in the Baffo district, is by no

Character.

this is incorrect!

means uncommon. Political agitation, or opposition on the part of the people to the constituted authorities is unknown, although the country has had hard things to bear at the hands of her Turkish rulers, and it is generally remarked that patience and docility are amongst the marked features of the national character. At the same time the slyness and cunning of the Cypriotes are noted, and all over the Levant they have a reputation for keenness in business which includes efforts to over-reach and cheat whenever it is possible, knavery and lying being freely employed in order to gain the required object. The Mussulmans of Cyprus have little of the fanatical spirit and bigotry which characterize the Arab Mussulman. They generally live in harmony with their Christian neighbours in town and country; this is usually found to be the case wherever the Mussulman element is in the minority, and only in Nicosia, where they form the majority of the population, do they evince any desire to assert a superiority. The Christian population is far more industrious and zealous in the acquisition of wealth than the Mahomedan, and for many years past in the sales of land, the latter have generally been the sellers, and rarely the purchasers. The Turk is also seldom an intelligent agriculturist so it can scarcely be wondered at that in Cyprus, the Christians have acquired considerable ascendancy.

The Cypriote love of home and family is very strongly evidenced, and is noticed by nearly all writers. It has often been found difficult to induce men to leave their native village even for considerable pecuniary advantages. The continual care of parents is the settlement for life of their children, and, with this object, they will often despoil themselves of their whole property, and settle it upon the younger members of the family. Consul Lang, General di Cesnola, and others, mention cases of this being done, and it points out in a most decisive manner not only the self-denial, but the striking affection of the parent towards his children. It is very commonly supposed that the morals of the Cypriotes are loose, but Consul Lang, speaking with a thorough knowledge of the island, declares that this is an entire mistake, and that the morals of the peasantry will bear most favourable comparison with the same class in England and Scotland.

The marriage customs of the Greek and Catholic inhabitants are governed by the rules of the Greek and Roman churches, and do not differ in any essential points from those in force elsewhere.

The Turks, in all religious rites, follow the precepts of the Koran.

During the Lenten fast, and on Fridays throughout the year, the religious Cypriote lives on bread and olives, and will not even touch fish, or anything that has breathed. Various superstitions exist in the island, the origin of which may be traced to the old rites of Aphrodite; such, for example, is the custom of offering doves to the priests. The "evil eye" is much dreaded throughout the island, and curious precautions are taken by the natives in order to avoid its influence. The ladanum plant is believed to have magical properties, and the peasants carry it in their hands,

and smell it, under the belief that it will charm away disease. The patron saints of the island are St. George, St. Lazarus, St. Barnabas, and St. Andrew. At Whitsuntide the Cypriotes hold a curious ceremonial called the water *fête*; it appears to be a celebration of the anniversary of the rising of Venus from the waves at Paphos. Gaudry witnessed this *fête* at Larnaca, and describes the great crowd which marched in procession to the sea shore, and the various ceremonies which took place. At the birth of an infant, a vessel of wine is buried, and is not dug up, or touched, until the child is grown up and married, but whatever may be the fate of the child the wine is never used in commerce.

As regards *physique*, the Cypriote males are generally described as a tall, fine looking, and broad shouldered race; Mariti especially praises their personal appearance. The women are said not to retain their ancient reputation for beauty, but their domestic qualities are highly praised by all who are well acquainted with the island.

From the position of Cyprus there has necessarily been a great mixture of Semitic, Aryan, and African races, their languages must also have been to some extent mixed, and some of them, as far as the island is concerned, lost. During the Venetian rule the pertinacity of the Greek element maintained their language, though it became more or less corrupted, particularly in pronunciation, by Italian. Language.

The Cypriote language is now a Greek dialect with a Doric tendency, and words of Semitic origin prevail extensively. The peculiarities of the dialect are such that a knowledge of ordinary Romaic is often of little use in the villages. Mr. Stuart Poole advises any one who wishes to become thoroughly acquainted with the Cypriote language, to supplement a good colloquial knowledge of Romaic with a careful study of Professor Mullach's "Grammatik der Griechischen Vulgarsprache," in relation to Cypriote.

It is said that the Italian language is much used in Cyprus in commercial transactions, and both it and Turkish are spoken commonly by the better classes. Orientals acquire a knowledge of Italian with much greater facility than any other European language. Greek, or the Cypriote dialect of it, is much used by Mahomedans as well as Christians, and there are many villages where the Mahomedan inhabitants are quite ignorant of Turkish. French is very little spoken in the island. Official communications must now be couched either in English or Turkish.

RELIGION.

Commencing with the earliest ages, we find but little information regarding the religion practised by the first inhabitants of Cyprus, but it is probable that in the almost savage life led by the early settlers, the religion derived from their forefather Japhet gradually died out, and that when the Phœnician and Cilician colonists arrived, they found nothing but fetishes. Early forms of worship.

The worship of Aphrodite, the early form of Venus, was then introduced, and Kinyras, who established himself in a regal and priestly position at Palæ Paphos, was the founder of the priesthood

of the Kinyradæ. The Tamaridæ family held the priesthood of the Cilician worship, and maintained with Babylonian rites the worship of the goddess Mylitta.

To these two forms of worship was added that of Jupiter, which was introduced by Teucer, the son of Telamon. Afterwards, colonists from other countries arrived, and to the above prevailing systems new practices were introduced, but as they all involved the same general principles and customs, it appears that all worked smoothly together.

Introduction
of Chris-
tianity.

These idolatries continued undisturbed until about A.D. 45, when Paul and Barnabas in the course of their missionary tour arrived in Cyprus; they landed at Salamis and travelled through the island to Paphos, where they converted the pro-consul Sergius Paulus by their preaching, and performed the miracle upon Elymas the Sorcerer, as related in the Acts of the Apostles. At this time the Jews formed a large and important element of the population of Cyprus, but after the revolt and massacre of A.D. 115, mentioned in Chapter I, they were expelled from the island, and have never since recovered their influence there.

The conversion of the island to Christianity progressed rapidly, numerous bishoprics were founded, and we learn that Epiphanius was Bishop of Salamis in the fourth century; afterwards, religion in Cyprus deteriorated, as was the case for a time throughout the whole Church. At present it is said that about two-thirds of the population belong to the Orthodox Greek Faith, but have several rites and ceremonials peculiar to the island.

Mahomedans.

Of the remaining one-third, the greater part profess the religion of Islam, but of these the true Mussulmans are chiefly confined to the Turks of Nicosia, Famagusta, and Paphos, who alone are really Osmanlis; the remainder, who have been designated as neo-Muslims, are of Greek origin, they are the descendants of converts to Mahomedanism, and are by no means zealous adherents of that faith.

Linobambaki.

A somewhat different sect also exists in the island, the members of which have been nicknamed "Linobambaki," that is linen and cotton, a figurative expression meaning a mixture of Christian and Mussulman. These people do not number more than about 1,200; they are distributed chiefly near Nicosia, Famagusta, Limasol, and in a village called Leo-Petro, situated at the south-east extremity of the island between Capes Pila and Greco. In outward appearance the members of this sect resemble Turks, and are recognised as such by the authorities, but in reality they are Christians whose ancestors were forced, after the Turkish conquest in 1571, to declare themselves Mussulmans, and embrace the faith of Islam in order to save their lives and property. Their ancestors were members of the Latin Church, and it is now a matter of dispute between the Greek bishops and the Latin priests, as to which of these Churches they really belong, each being desirous of claiming them. On account of their anomalous position the Linobambaki have frequent dealings with the Turkish authorities with regard to religious rites, ceremonies, &c.*

* Further details concerning this sect are contained in Osmani's "Cyprus, its Churches, &c." page 183.

There are in Cyprus some Armenians, descendants of refugees who settled here, and these practise their own form of Christianity, residing chiefly in Nicosia. Armenians.

The Maronites also have a colony in Cyprus, and are said to number about 2,800.* They belong to a tribe of people who inhabit the western slope of Mount Lebanon, and figure in history as a sect of Christians. By adopting the Monothelitic doctrine soon after it had been condemned in A.D. 680, by the Council of Constantinople, they came to be distinguished as a distinct religious party, and having as their first bishop, a certain monk, John Maro, they received the name of Maronites. Maro assumed the title of "Patriarch of Antioch," he asserted the ecclesiastical independence of the tribe, and its members defended their freedom against the Greeks, and afterwards against the Saracens. At length in 1182, they renounced the opinions of the Monothelites, and were readmitted within the pale of the Romish Church, but are only united to it by the single tie of the acknowledgment of the supremacy of the Pope. Maronites.

The Maronite monks of Cyprus live in monasteries scattered amongst the mountain regions, and most of the members of the sect occupy the country near Cape Kormakiti.

St. Andrew is said to be the chief patron saint of the island, and on Palm Sunday and at Easter the usual ceremonies of the Eastern Church are performed. In the early days of Christianity, Cyprus became a land of saints, and numerous names stand in the calendar as belonging to the island, such as Barnabas, Lazarus, Epiphanes, Hilarion, Spiridion, Catherine, Acona, Maura, &c. Patron saint.

EDUCATION.

The education of the people was formerly much neglected under the Turkish administration, but there are now schools at Nicosia, Larnaca, Limasol, Morpho, and at a few of the large villages. Herr Von Löher remarks that "until thirty years ago schools were strictly prohibited, whereas now every town has its training school, whilst in three of the chief towns, Larnaca, Nicosia, and Limasol, these are of three grades, and in them are taught history, geography, and Grecian literature, even to the reading of Homer and Xenophon. The prices for these classes are from 100 to 300 marks. Anything over and above this charge is covered by the bishop, and a toll upon the exports and imports of the towns." Schools.

In the grammar school at Nicosia, ancient Greek, French, mathematics, history, and geography are taught; this school is supported partly by the bishops, partly by the aid of subscriptions, and partly by the payments of the pupils. There are also in Nicosia two free schools of mutual instruction on the Lancasterian system, and a school for girls. In Larnaca there is a grammar

* See Mrs. Joyner's translation of Herr Von Löher's work on Cyprus; Appendix, page 295.

school, a Lancasterian school, a girls' school, and a school capable of holding 500 pupils, under the superintendence of the nuns of the order of St. Joseph.

Limasol has one grammar school, one Lancasterian school, and one girls' school. Last year, according to Herr Von Löher, there were about twenty scholars in the higher school, and in the lower upwards of a hundred; their number is said to increase rapidly from one half-year to another. Baffo has a school on the Lancasterian system; there is also a school at Morpho, and at one or two of the other villages, but beyond these there is but little provision for general instruction.

The Greek bishops are generally men of culture, but a great proportion of the village priests and monks are very ignorant and uneducated; they cannot even instruct the peasants amongst whom they live, and teachers for the schools have, as a rule, to be obtained from Athens.

Such education as there is in Cyprus is confined almost entirely to the Greek Christian portion of the inhabitants; the Mahomedans are generally quite uneducated. Young men who have studied for some time in the grammar schools in Cyprus, not unfrequently go to Athens to complete their education.

CHAPTER XI.

INTERNAL ADMINISTRATION.

FROM time to time reports concerning the government of Cyprus have reached us through Her Majesty's Consuls in the island, and they have invariably described it as most unjust and corrupt. In 1845, it was stated that the government was administered by a Pasha from Constantinople, who was changed every year, that embezzlement and oppression prevailed in every form, that the rapacity of the government officials, and even of the Greek clergy, knew no bounds, that the entire administration of the island deserved the strongest condemnation, and that Cyprus was considered to be the most oppressed part of the Ottoman dominions. In 1854-58 some improvement was reported. The administration was then stated to be on a more satisfactory footing, and the presence of the European Consuls was considered to have contributed towards a more equitable mode of government.

Civil adminis-
tration.

It is, however, more with the character of the government at the time of the occupation by Great Britain that we have here to deal. It appears that the island has lately been governed by an official called the "Mutessurif," who is sent from Constantinople, and is generally of the rank of Pasha. The Mutessurif is president of the central "Mejlis" or council, which holds its sittings at Nicosia, being assembled whenever summoned by the Pasha, and always once a week; it is the highest civil and criminal tribunal, and its decisions are embodied in documents called "musbata," which are signed by all the members present. The council is composed of thirteen members besides the Pasha, of these, nine are Mussulmans and four are Christians; of the former, six sit in virtue of their office, viz. :—*

The Cadi.

The Mufti, or highest Mussulman religious authority.

The Mal-i-Mudiri, or treasurer and financial agent.

The Administrator of Mortmain property.

The Administrator of Crown Lands.

The Public Registrar.

The number is made up by three Mahomedan representatives of the town.

* This list is from the reports of Consuls White and Sandwith; Mr. Lang in a recent contribution to Macmillan's Magazine gives a slightly different composition as follows :—The Pasha; the Mufti, the Greek Archbishop; the Financial agent; the Evcaf-nazir, or administrator of Mussulman religious property; three Mussulman and two Christian notables, making only ten in all.

The Christian members of the council are:—

The Archbishop of Cyprus, who sits *ex-officio*.

Three Christian elected representatives.

This court takes cognizance of all matters of an administrative or financial character connected with taxes, tithes, and customs duties, also such civil suits as do not immediately concern questions of inheritance, as these fall within the Cadi's jurisdiction, or, in the case of Christians, are managed by their own ecclesiastics; it further considers appeals made from the district courts of the island.

The island has been hitherto divided into six districts which are governed by "Kaimakams," who are aided by councils, and who report to the governor. There is a further subdivision of the island into sixteen minor districts, or "cazas," of which the chief functionaries are called "mudirs."

The following are the names of the districts and sub-districts:—

	<i>Kaimakamlık.</i>	<i>Cazas.</i>
<i>Seat of the Mutesarrıf.</i> NICOSIA.	Nicosia ...	{ Kythrea. Orini.
	Famagusta ...	{ Famagusta. Messaria.
	Larnaca ...	{ Karpas. Larnaca.
	Limasol	{ Limasol. Episcopi. Kilani.
	Baffo	{ Baffo. Khrysokho. Avdimu. Kuklia.
	Cerinea	{ Cerinea. Lefca. Morpho.

It is reported that the administrative and judicial affairs of the Kaimakamlıks are managed by two courts, viz., the Mejlis Idari and the Mejlis Davi; the former is the administrative council, and is composed of eight members, of whom five are Mussulmans and three are Christians, as follows:—the Kaimakam as president, the Cadi as judge, the Christian Bishop of the district, three Mussulmans and two Christians elected by the people. The Mejlis Davi has five members, viz., the Cadi as president, two Christians and two Mussulmans. This tribunal disposes up to the sum of 5,000 piastres, and can inflict punishment for a period not exceeding three months. The Mejlis of Tidjaret, or commercial tribunal, sits at Larnaca, and has six Turkish and six European members.

From the large Mussulman majority in the council of the Mutesarrıf, it is very evident that no initiative can be taken by the Christian members, and as the Pasha had power, if dissatisfied with the selection of any particular elected representative member, to compel him to resign his seat, and can appoint another in his place, any member who makes himself obnoxious by voting

against the Mussulman majority can easily be got rid of. The subservience of the members to the wishes of the government is further increased by the fact that the salaries which they draw are distributed by the Pasha, consequently the council has proved to be no protection whatever against the evils of an inactive administration, for not only are the Christian representatives in reality, though not avowedly, the choice of the governor and the Kaimakams, but, should any of them maintain an independent attitude by checking abuses, they would inevitably be deprived of their seats. Thus, in the council where all the most important interests of the country are adjudicated, and which is the tribunal at which all appeals from inferior courts are finally decided, there are nine members to represent the Mussulman element and interests; viz., one-fourth of the population and one-sixth of the property; whilst only four members guard the interests of the remaining important majority, whilst over all a Mussulman functionary of the highest rank in the island exercises his important influence.

Consul Sandwith, in a report of 1867 upon the condition of the Christians in Cyprus, notices these facts, but says that it would not, however, be fair to draw the conclusion that justice is always denied to Christians, though such an inference might appear to be justified by the constitution of the several courts, and also from the fact that the rejection of the evidence of Christians is one of the fundamental Mussulman laws. The following quotation from his report indicates clearly the position in which the Christians in Cyprus have hitherto been situated as regards the administration of justice.

"It must not be forgotten that the members of the Courts are open to bribery, and the rich Christian suitor is often more than a match for his poor Mussulman adversary. The civil disabilities, too, under which the Christians lie are materially mitigated by the important circumstance that they are the wealthiest class in the island, being the principal landowners, and, in trade, no less than in agriculture, possess a pre-eminence over the Mahomedans. Enjoying thus the many advantages which accrue from the possession of superior wealth as well as intelligence, they are not unfrequently able to induce the local Councils to accept their evidence against Mahomedans. This is especially the case in places where the latter are few and poor, and dependent, it may be, on the Christians for their means of living. In such cases, it may truly be said that the Christians get justice for themselves, and in spite of the spirit of the institutions provided for that purpose by Government. It is in the capital, where the most important causes are heard, that they labour under the greatest disadvantages, for there alone is observable any spirit of Mussulman fanaticism, the rest of the country being singularly free from its baneful influence. The Mussulmans having there been long in the ascendancy, in the possession of considerable property, and their exclusive spirit kept alive by the presence of the Government, which is more or less animated by jealousy of Christian influence, and the members of which are constantly recruited from Constantinople, a certain hostility to the Greek population displays itself, the more remarkable from its absence elsewhere. It is of the utmost importance, therefore, that the Medjlis which holds its sittings there, should fairly represent the interests of all parties in the island, its members being chosen from its several districts, instead of, as at present, from the town itself, and provision should be particularly made that it be not overweighed by the presence of so many as seven irremovable Turkish functionaries.

"The two Courts where Christian evidence is received, are, first, the Medjlis el Tahkik, where the more important criminal and police cases are

tried, the members of which are both Christians and Mussulmans, and which holds its sittings at Nicosia, the capital of Cyprus; and, secondly, the Medjlis el Tijaret, sitting at Larnaca where commercial suits are heard, the members of which consist of equal numbers of Europeans and natives, each important Consulate sending a delegate, and the natives being half Christian and half Mussulman, making a total of twelve. Thus fair guarantees of justice are afforded to the population of this commercial town, where, too, the several Consulates are able to watch the proceedings of the Court. At the capital the Medjlis el Tahkik cannot adequately attend to the criminal jurisdiction of the whole island, the majority of cases being disposed of by the District Courts where Christian testimony is inadmissible.

"Another grievance of which the Greeks have to complain is the unequal distribution of the personal tax called 'verghi,' of which they pay in most villages more than their fair share; but this is an evil which would be quickly remedied could they make themselves heard in the Central Medjlis.

"Though they have just cause then to complain of the inferior position which they hold in the eye of the law in the instances already mentioned, both Mussulmans and Christians have equal cause to be dissatisfied with the mal-administration which, in these days of commercial activity, arrests the development of the resources of the island. The government derives a revenue of £230,000 from Cyprus, and the expenses of administration amount at most to £30,000, the surplus of £200,000, finding its way to the Treasury at Constantinople. Nothing whatever is spent on the improvement of the country, no roads are constructed, no bridges thrown across the winter torrents. But these and other instances of a careless or vicious administration which could be enumerated are not exclusively detrimental to the interests of the Greek population, and, therefore I refrain from dwelling on them here. But I think that there can be no doubt that the evils which press equally upon Turks and Greeks are more intolerable than those of which the Greeks alone have cause to complain."

Consul Lang, during his nine years' residence in Cyprus, appears to have gained considerable knowledge of the working of the administration; he considered that the representatives of the people were assigned an important position in the councils of the island, and that it was partly from servility and partly from incapacity on the part of the elected members, that so little advantage was reaped by the people, but this was a defect, not in the system, but in its execution.

It seems that in Cyprus, it is not so much the laws themselves, but rather the administration of the laws which needs reform. The Ottoman Government is noted for publishing innumerable firmans, laws, and ordinances, which leave but little room for improvement as regards either completeness or natural equity; and it has been either the disregard or the mal-administration of these laws, which has done so much injury in the country.

It is said that there is a code of commercial law based upon the *Code Napoléon*; also that the criminal code is both comprehensive and sensible; the property laws appear to be somewhat complicated, but it is believed that when they have been thoroughly investigated, a clear system will be found to pervade them.

The foundation of Turkish law is the *sheri*, a religious compilation comprising the Koran and a series of maxims. This law cannot be altered by the secular power, but supplementary and elucidatory enactments suited to modern requirements, may be, and have been, added; these are known as the *destour*, or Ottoman secular law.

The annex of the recent convention between Great Britain and Turkey (*see* page 27) seems to recognise four different ownerships

Land tenure.

of land—State land, Crown land, Church land, and private land; the legal distinctions between these various tenures will have to be investigated by the land commission, a task which will probably require some delicacy of perception, for it appears that the distinction between State and Crown lands is scarcely sufficiently defined or universally accepted; moreover, under a despotic power like Turkey, it may be difficult to say what constitutes the personal property of the Sovereign, and what belongs to the State. All barracks, police grounds, lighthouses, custom-houses, police stations, and such like, are clearly State property, also all lands affected for the pay of salaries and the maintenance of revenue, these go therefore with the proprietorship of the island.

Mr. Haddan says that the Mussulman law invests all freehold rights in the head of the State, and no subject can hold landed property in his own right; further, the tenure of land is entirely dependent upon cultivating, or otherwise rendering productive, the property in occupation, and all holdings neglected for three years lapse *ipso facto* to the State. The 10 per cent. tax upon the produce may therefore be considered merely as a rental, the non-payment of which is punished by ejectment. Thus Mr. Haddan considers that the greater part of Cyprus, being unoccupied and uncultivated, is at the entire disposal of the British Government.

The wording of Article IV of the Annex of the Convention* does not show what land is to be considered as belonging to the Sultan personally, and the State property scarcely seems to be separated from the Crown property, but there can be no doubt that the two are distinct, and will be so dealt with.†

As regards the ecclesiastical, or *vakouf*, lands, and the private lands, there will probably not be so much difficulty, as the laws with regard to these are tolerably clear. At Nicosia a register book has been kept containing the names of all owners of land, with an alphabetical index. All transfers and sales are noted in this book, and a certificate of registration called a *hodjet* is given to the buyer; this document, together with the registry, constitutes a legal title to the possession of the land.

The Zaptiehs, or Turkish policemen, in the island are said to number about 275; one of their chief duties hitherto has been to assist the persons who farm the taxes to collect their dues, and also to exact those to be paid direct to the government. It appears that this duty has in very many cases been performed by the Zaptiehs in a most arbitrary manner, and has often been accompanied by acts of needless severity, and even brutality; consequently the police force is very generally unpopular amongst the Cypriotes, and the bitter feeling which exists has sometimes culminated in reprisals.

This force being now under English control, will be brought under a stricter discipline, and its members taught to respect the

Police force.

* IV. That the Sublime Porte may freely sell and lease all lands and other property in Cyprus belonging to the Ottoman Crown and State, the produce of which does not form part of the revenue of the island referred to in Article III.

† This question, which is of great importance, is further explained in letters from the "Times" correspondent in Cyprus, contained in the issues of that newspaper of September 9th, and October 9th, 1878.

law of which they are the instruments, They will have to be properly clothed and fairly paid, so that their position may be raised in the estimation of the natives. It is believed that amongst the Zaptiehs are to be found the materials for the formation of an excellent police force, which will naturally now be thrown open to Christians, instead of being, as hitherto, confined only to Mussulmans.

Administra-
tion of the
British
Government.

The following Order in Council, dealing with the administration of the government in Cyprus under British rule, has been promulgated.

"At the Court at *Balmoral*, the 14th day of *September*, 1878.

PRESENT,

The QUEEN's Most Excellent Majesty.
His Royal Highness Prince Leopold.
Marquis of Lorne.
Mr. Secretary Cross.
Sir Thomas Myddelton-Biddulph.

"Whereas it is expedient to make provision for the exercise of the power and jurisdiction vested by Treaty in Her Majesty the Queen in and over the Island of Cyprus :

"Now, therefore, Her Majesty, by virtue of the powers in this behalf by the Foreign Jurisdiction Acts, 1843 to 1878, or otherwise in Her vested, is pleased by and with the advice of Her Privy Council to order, and it is ordered, as follows :—

"I. There shall be a High Commissioner and Commander-in-Chief (hereinafter called 'the High Commissioner') in and over the said Island of Cyprus (hereinafter called 'the said island'), and the person who shall fill the said office of High Commissioner shall be from time to time appointed by Commission under Her Majesty's Sign-Manual and Signet.

"II. The High Commissioner shall administer the government of the said Island in the name and on behalf of Her Majesty, and shall do and execute in due manner all things that shall belong to his said command and to the trust thereby reposed in him, according to the several powers and authorities granted or appointed to him by virtue of this Order, and of such Commission as may be issued to him under Her Majesty's Sign-Manual and Signet, and according to such instructions as may from time to time be given to him, under Her Majesty's Sign-Manual and Signet, or by Order of Her Majesty in Council, or by Her Majesty through one of Her Principal Secretaries of State, and according to such Laws and Ordinances as are or shall hereafter be in force in the said Island.

"III. The High Commissioner shall have an Official Seal bearing the style of his office, and such device as one of Her Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State from time to time approves, and such seal shall be deemed the public seal of the said Island, and may be kept and used by the High Commissioner for the sealing of all things whatsoever that shall pass the seal of the said Island. And until a public seal shall be provided for the said Island, the seal of the High Commissioner may be used as the public seal of the said Island for sealing all things that shall pass the said seal.

"IV. There shall be in the said Island a Legislative Council, constituted as hereinafter mentioned.

"V. It shall be lawful for the High Commissioner, with the advice of the said Legislative Council, to make all such Laws and Ordinances, as may from time to time be necessary for the peace, order, and good government of the said Island, subject, nevertheless to all such instructions as Her Majesty may from time to time issue under Her Sign-Manual and Signet for the guidance of the High Commissioner and of the said Legislative Council therein : Provided, nevertheless, that full authority is hereby reserved to Her Majesty,

through one of Her Principal Secretaries of State, to confirm or disallow any such Laws and Ordinances as aforesaid in the whole or in part, and to make and establish from time to time, with the advice of Her Privy Council, all such Laws or Ordinances as may to Her appear necessary for the peace, order, and good government of the said Island as fully as if this Order has not been made.

"VI. The Legislative Council for the said island shall consist of the High Commissioner for the time being, and of such other public officers and persons within the same, not being less than four or more than eight in number, as shall be named or designated for that purpose by Her Majesty, by any instruction or instructions, or warrant or warrants, to be by Her for that purpose issued under Her Sign-Manual and Signet; or shall be provisionally appointed, subject to Her Majesty's will and pleasure, by the High Commissioner, in pursuance of any instruction or instructions, warrant or warrants, under such Sign-Manual as aforesaid: Provided always that one half of the members of the said Council, other than the said High Commissioner, shall be persons holding public offices in the said Island, who shall be styled 'official members,' and the other half shall be inhabitants of the said Island, who shall be styled 'unofficial members,' and shall hold their seats at the said Council for a period of two years only, subject to reappointment for a like period as from time to time may seem fit.

"VII. In case any member of the said Council shall be temporarily absent from the said Island, or incapable of acting in the exercise of his office, or in case he shall die, or from any cause shall cease to be a member of the said Council, it shall be lawful for the High Commissioner by any instrument under the seal of the Island to appoint provisionally any fit person to be an official or unofficial councillor (as the case may be) in the place of such member; and in all cases where such provisional appointment shall be made by reason of the temporary absence or incapacity of such member, so soon as he shall return to the said Island, or shall be declared by the High Commissioner capable of exercising his office of legislative councillor, the person so provisionally appointed shall cease to be a member of the said Council. Every such provisional appointment may be disallowed by Her Majesty, through one of Her Principal Secretaries of State, or may be revoked by the High Commissioner, by such instrument as aforesaid.

"VIII. Every legislative councillor shall, notwithstanding anything hereinbefore contained, hold office during Her Majesty's pleasure, and whenever a Councillor shall from any cause cease to hold office, the said Council may continue to transact business, and its proceedings shall be valid, notwithstanding that the proportion between the official and unofficial members may be temporarily altered, pending the appointment, provisionally or otherwise, of a new member in the place of the Councillor ceasing to hold office as aforesaid.

"IX. The official members of the Council shall take precedence of the unofficial members, and shall take rank among themselves in the order of precedence of their respective public offices, or, in case of any doubt, as the High Commissioner shall direct. The unofficial members shall take rank according to the date of their appointment, or if appointed by the same instrument, according to the order in which they are named therein, unless the High Commissioner shall, in any case, otherwise direct.

"X. The High Commissioner, or in his absence any member of the Council appointed by him in writing, or in default of such appointment the member present who shall stand first in order of precedence, shall preside at every meeting of the said Council. All questions brought before the Council shall be decided by the majority of the votes given, and the High Commissioner or Presiding Member shall have an original vote on all such questions, and also a casting vote if the votes shall be equally divided.

"XI. Until otherwise provided by the Council no business (except that of adjournment) shall be transacted, unless there shall be present three Members of Council besides the High Commissioner or Presiding Member.

"XII. The Council shall in the transaction of business and passing of laws conform as nearly as may be to such instructions under Her Majesty's Sign-Manual and Signet as may hereafter be addressed to the High Commissioner in that behalf.

"XIII. Subject to such instructions the Council may make standing rules and orders for the regulation of their own proceedings.

"XIV. If any Councillor shall become bankrupt or insolvent, or shall be convicted of any criminal offence, or shall absent himself from the said Island for more than three months without leave from the High Commissioner, the High Commissioner may declare in writing that his seat at the Council is vacant, and immediately on the publication of such declaration, he shall cease to be a Member of the Council.

"XV. The High Commissioner may by writing under his hand and seal suspend any Councillor from the exercise of his office, proceeding therein in such manner as may from time to time be enjoined by such instructions under Her Majesty's Sign-Manual and Signet as may be addressed to the High Commissioner in that behalf.

"XVI. Any unofficial Councillor may resign his office by writing under his hand, but no such resignation shall take effect until it be accepted in writing by the High Commissioner, or by Her Majesty through one of Her Principal Secretaries of State.

"XVII. No Law or Ordinance made by the High Commissioner with the advice of the said Legislative Council shall take effect until the High Commissioner shall have assented thereto in the name of Her Majesty and on Her behalf, and shall have signed the same in token of such assent.

"XVIII. Notwithstanding anything in this Order contained, it shall be lawful for the High Commissioner, in cases of emergency, to make and proclaim, from time to time, Ordinances for the peace, order, and good government of the said Island, subject, however, to the disallowance of the whole or any part thereof by Her Majesty through one of Her Principal Secretaries of State; and every such Ordinance shall have like force of law with an Ordinance made by the High Commissioner with the advice of the said Legislative Council as by this Order provided, for the space of not more than six months from its promulgation, unless the disallowance of such Ordinance by Her Majesty shall be earlier signified to the High Commissioner by one of Her Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State, or unless such Ordinance shall be controlled or superseded by a Law or Ordinance made by the High Commissioner with the advice of the said Legislative Council.

"XIX. Any Law or Ordinance, or any part thereof, made by the High Commissioner, with the advice of the said Legislative Council, or of his own authority by Proclamation as aforesaid, which shall be disallowed by Her Majesty under the provisions hereinbefore contained, shall cease to be of any force or effect so soon as the disallowance thereof shall be published in the said Island by the High Commissioner.

"XX. The High Commissioner may make and execute in Her Majesty's name and on Her behalf, under the public seal of the said Island, grants and dispositions of any lands which may be lawfully granted or disposed of by Her Majesty within the said Island.

"XXI. The High Commissioner may constitute and appoint all such Judges, Justices of the Peace, and other necessary officers in the said Island as may lawfully be appointed by Her Majesty, all of whom shall hold their offices during Her Majesty's pleasure.

"XXII. The High Commissioner may, as he shall see occasion, in Her Majesty's name and on Her behalf, grant to any offender convicted of any crime in any court, or before any Judge, Justice, or Magistrate within the said Island, a free and unconditional pardon, or a pardon subject to such conditions as may at any time be lawfully thereunto annexed, or any respite of the execution of the sentence of any such offender for such period as to him may seem fit.

"XXIII. The High Commissioner may, as he shall see occasion, in Her Majesty's name and on Her behalf, remit any fines, penalties, or forfeitures which may accrue or become payable to Her, provided the same do not exceed the sum of fifty pounds sterling in any one case, and may suspend the payment of any such fine, penalty, or forfeiture exceeding the said sum of fifty pounds, until Her Majesty's pleasure thereon shall be made known and signified to him.

"XXIV. The High Commissioner may, upon sufficient cause to him appearing, suspend from the exercise of his office within the said Island any

person exercising the same, which suspension shall continue and have effect only until Her Majesty's pleasure therein shall be made known and signified to the High Commissioner. And in proceeding to any such suspension, he is to observe the directions in that behalf given to him by any such instructions under Her Majesty's Sign-Manual and Signet as may be hereafter addressed to him.

"XXV. There shall be in the said Island, for the purpose of advising the High Commissioner, an Executive Council, which shall be composed of such persons and constituted in such manner as may be directed by any instructions which may from time to time be addressed to the High Commissioner by Her Majesty, under Her Sign-Manual and Signet, and all such persons shall hold their places in the said Council during Her Majesty's pleasure; and the said Executive Council shall observe such rules in the conduct of business as may from time to time be contained in any such instructions as aforesaid.

"XXVI. In the event of the death, incapacity, removal, or absence from the said Island of the High Commissioner for the time being, all and every the powers and authorities herein granted to him shall, until Her Majesty's further pleasure is signified therein, be vested in such person as may be appointed to administer the same by any instrument under Her Majesty's Sign-Manual and Signet; or if there be not in the Island any person so appointed, then in the senior military officer for the time being in command of Her Majesty's regular troops in the said Island.

"XXVII. The following Orders of Her Majesty the Queen in Council that is to say: the Order of the 12th day of December, 1873, for the Regulation of Consular Jurisdiction in the Dominions of the Sublime Porte; the Order of the 13th day of May, 1875, for the Regulation of Hospital Dues levied on British Shipping within the said Dominions; and the Order of the 26th day of October, 1875, amending the said Order of the 12th day of December, 1873, shall cease to have any force and effect in the Island of Cyprus from and after a day to be named in a proclamation to be issued in the said Island by authority of the High Commissioner, with such saving and exceptions (if any) as may be contained in such proclamation.

"XXVIII. This Order shall commence and have effect as follows:—

- "(a.) As to the appointment of the High Commissioner, and the issue of any instructions immediately from and after the making of this Order.
- "(b.) As to all other matters and provisions comprised and contained in this Order immediately from and after a day to be named in any Proclamation to be issued in the said Island by authority of the High Commissioner.

"And this Order shall remain in force until the same shall be revoked or altered by Her Majesty with the advice of Her Privy Council.

"And the Most Honourable the Marquis of Salisbury and the Right Honourable Viscount Cranbrook, two of Her Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State, and the Lords Commissioners of the Treasury, are to give the necessary directions herein as to them may respectively appertain.

"C. L. PEEL."

ECCLESIASTICAL ADMINISTRATION.

The ecclesiastical division of the island is into an Arch-Dioceses. bishopric and three Bishoprics. The Archbishopric diocese is that of Nicosia, and comprises the Famagusta and Karpas districts. The dioceses of the three bishops are Larnaca, Baffo, and Cerinea. The number of the Christian clergy in Cyprus is said to exceed 1,700. The incomes of the archbishop, bishops, and the clergy, are derived from the people on the voluntary system, and are therefore fluctuating. Consul White, in his report of 1863, says that the

income of the archbishop is generally above £2,000 per annum, and those of the bishops vary between £800 and £1,500 per annum, the diocese of Baffo being the wealthiest, and that of Cerinea the poorest.

Independence
of the Greek
Church of
Cyprus.

From the earliest times the Greek Church of Cyprus has enjoyed an especial degree of independence; in the reign of the Emperor Zeno, A.D. 473, exceptional privileges were conceded to the Archbishop of Cyprus, who, although he owns the supremacy of the Patriarch of Constantinople over the Orthodox Greek Church, claims to be entirely independent of him as regards church discipline; he wears purple, carries a gold-headed sceptre, has the title of Beatitude, signs in red as the Greek Emperors were wont to do, and uses a seal bearing a two-headed imperial eagle. It is said that these dignities were conferred in consequence of the fortunate discovery, at Salamis, of the body of St. Barnabas, with a copy of the Gospel of St. Matthew, which precious relic was sent to Constantinople, and in return the Emperor confirmed the Church of Cyprus in its absolute independence, and gave the archbishop the above privileges. The archbishop is nominated from amongst the bishops, and the bishops are elected by the congregations from amongst the monks, who are unmarried; the rest of the clergy are allowed to marry; it is said that their stipends are very small, and many of them are in miserable circumstances, they are almost entirely uneducated, and often have to work in the fields, or adopt other kinds of manual labour, in order to support their families.

From the writings of several travellers in Cyprus at the beginning of this century, we gather that the rapacity of the Greek Archbishop and his subordinate clergy, was then so great that the peasants were plundered in the most infamous manner, in order to provide money for the support of the churches and convents, and that having to bear this tax in addition to those exacted by the Turkish Government, the condition of the Cypriotes was indeed pitiable; Mariti writes in very strong terms upon this subject. Of late years there appears to have been an amendment in this respect, and Consul Lang speaks of the Greek Archbishop who was in office during his residence in the island, in the highest terms of commendation, both as regards his personal character, and his management of church affairs. He describes him as a most enlightened man, and an exemplary and devout Christian, and further states that not only is no impediment put by the Greek Archbishop upon the free dissemination of the Bible throughout the island, but that the Archbishop has expressed a lively interest in its distribution.

It is reported that the position and dignity of the archbishop and bishops are respected by the Turkish Government, and that the Christians generally have of late years been in enjoyment of both civil and religious freedom.

In the Greek schools attached to the convents, the standard of education is low, and it is a mark of the deficiency of education, that the archbishop assigns as an excuse why no registers of births, deaths, and marriages are kept in the parishes, that the great part of the rural clergy can neither read nor write.

Church of
England.

It has been arranged by the Foreign Office that the Bishop of

Gibraltar shall have the episcopal superintendence of any congregations, churches, and clergy of the Church of England in Cyprus. The Right Reverend Dr. Sandford is the present Bishop of Gibraltar.

This bishopric was especially founded for the superintendence of British congregations, not only at Gibraltar and Malta, but on the shores and in the islands of the Mediterranean Sea.

The Turkish garrison of Cyprus is an insignificant force consisting of not more than about 100 artillerymen, about 300 nizams, or regulars, and a small number of redifs or militiamen. Military force.

The Zaptiehs, or police, are said to number about 275.

The guns of the artillery are almost useless, and the whole force is in a disorganized state; the clothing and equipment is very bad, and the pay has been very irregular. In all probability a new local force will be organized under British auspices.

CHAPTER XII.

MANUFACTURES AND INDUSTRY.

THE manufactures of Cyprus are inconsiderable, and are in a backward state.

Printing
calicoes.

Formerly there was a large trade carried on at Nicosia in printing British calicoes in bright colours for divan and quilt covers, window blinds, &c.; these were exported in great quantities to Syria, Smyrna, and Constantinople.

In 1846, the establishments carrying on this business were numerous, but of late years the trade has much fallen off, and in 1863 it was reported by Consul White that not more than five or six of these houses were then open, and it was believed that the high exportation duty charged upon the articles was the main reason of the decline of this branch of industry.

Morocco
leather.

Good Morocco leather is prepared at Nicosia and in the neighbouring villages; the workmen pretend to have a particular process which they keep a secret, but, however this may be, their leather is generally softer, more brilliant in colour, and better dressed than in other parts of Turkey; very fine blue, yellow, and red leathers are made for Turkish shoes and slippers, a considerable quantity of which are annually exported to Alexandria.

Silks.

Some very pretty light silk stuffs are manufactured at Nicosia for dresses, scarfs, shirts, mosquito nets, and pocket-handkerchiefs; the latter are especially good, and are considered equal to any made in France.

Embroideries.

The Greek women in some of the towns and villages work beautiful embroidery, and make silk net which will bear comparison with fine European lace; the gold and silver embroidery worked in Nicosia is greatly admired.

Cotton,
woollen, and
linen stuffs.

Some common cotton, woollen, and linen fabrics, the latter chiefly sacking, are woven in the island, and a branch of domestic industry which may be noticed is the manufacture from coarse woollen stuff, of the gregos, or capotes, so much used in the Levant.

Soap.

It was reported in 1863, that three soap factories had recently been opened at Larnaca, where this article is made for home consumption.

Pottery.

Pottery, sufficient for home consumption, is made at Larnaca, Limasol, Lapethus, Varoschia, and Corno (see page 122).

Distilleries,
&c.

On the west side of the island, the peasantry distil rose, orange, and lavender water, and prepare myrtle and ladanum oil. Vegetable resins, such as mastic, and storax ("liquid amber") are also collected; the former is used as an astringent, an aromatic, and an

ingredient in drying varnishes; the latter has medicinal properties and is also used for incense.

Drs. Unger and Kotschy, in Chapter VI, of their joint work upon Cyprus, describe these last products and manufactures in detail.

Our latest authentic account of the present state of the manufactures and industries of Cyprus, is contained in Consul Watkins' Report for the year 1877, dated March 31st, 1878. He writes: "Tanning is one of the chief industries. The tanneries at Nicosia turn out from 1,500 to 2,000 bales of leather per annum. The manufacture of silk stuffs is produced by women at Nicosia to the extent of about 10,000 pieces yearly for dresses, besides handkerchiefs and sashes. The printing of English grey cloth for divans and coverlets is also carried on. Building and carpentering are entirely done by Greeks, who also make good tailors and shoemakers. The trades followed by Turks are those of barbers, butchers, calico printers, shoemakers and saddlers."

Industries in
Cyprus
during 1877.

Sponge fishing commences in May, and ends in August. The fishers are Greeks from the island of Hydra and Castelrossa.

Sponge
fisheries.

About 40 boats, in all, were employed in 1877, each boat manned by a crew of from eight to ten. Operations extend from Baffo to Caravostassi on the south-west and west coasts, and from Famagusta to Cape St. Andrea on the east coast. The quantity taken last summer amounted to about 2,500 oke, the sponges were of all sizes and qualities, but chiefly of the more common kind; 500 oke were sold to Syrian buyers at 20 francs per oke, and the remainder were taken away.*

The agricultural industries, the manufacture of wine, the working of the umber and gypsum beds, brick-making, the collection of salt from the lagoons near Larnaca and Limasol, and all the other miscellaneous occupations of the inhabitants of Cyprus, have been reported upon in preceding chapters.

The present industrial condition of Cyprus does not compare favourably with the records handed down to us concerning its former state in this respect. At one time the forests of the island were able to supply trees suitable for ship-building on a large scale, and at that period we have every reason to believe that they were turned to good account; again, in olden times Cyprus was, perhaps more famous for its minerals and for the activity with which they were worked, than for any other of its productions or industries. The copper mines were especially rich, and the copper which they yielded, the "*æs cyprium*" of the ancients, was considered superior to any other. Whether these mines are exhausted or not, is at the present moment unknown, for no mining operations have been undertaken for a long period, and this profitable occupation has been entirely neglected. The fisheries on the shores of Cyprus are much neglected, but it is not improbable that, if properly managed, appreciable profits might be made by them. Should the Maltese come to Cyprus in any numbers under the new rule, they may perhaps turn their attention to this branch of industry.

* From Consul Watkins' Report for the year 1877.

Consular re-
port upon the
industrial
classes of
Cyprus.

A report upon the Industrial Classes of Cyprus was furnished by Consul Lang in February, 1872, the substance of which is as follows:—

The industrial classes in this island may be divided into three categories:—

1. Tailors, shoemakers, carpenters, masons, blacksmiths, cartwrights, and such like.
2. Labourers, inhabitants of towns, such as porters, boatman, domestic servants, &c.
3. Agricultural labourers.

The workmen of the first category supply solely, in their respective departments, the requirements of the population of the island. Their work is of the simplest character, but suitable to the wants of a people having few luxurious tendencies, and unwilling as well as unable to pay for a higher quality of work. Their earnings range from 3s. to 5s. per diem, varying according to the intelligence and activity of the workman.

The labourers of the second category are lower in the social scale than those of the first, and little or no intelligence is required of them in the discharge of their occupations. Their earnings, frequently very uncertain, vary from 1s. 6d. to 2s. 6d. per diem.

Agricultural labourers are the most numerous class in the island. Their earnings vary according to the work upon which they are employed.

During harvest time they may perhaps receive as much as 3s. per diem, but the average of the rest of the year is about 11d. to 1s. 3d. per diem for male labourers, and about half as much for females.

Evidently, when this was written, there was no opening for European labourers, even in the class of occupations comprised in the first category, for the superior work of European tradesmen would not receive its equivalent value, the people being quite contented with second rate articles at low prices. A European labourer would, moreover, find it difficult and irksome to lead the intensely simple life, possessing few comforts and no luxuries, to which Orientals are accustomed.

There is at present but little scope for ambition among the working classes, and the nature of the climate causes the labourers to be little disposed to exertion, but rather on the other hand to be inclined to a life of ease. Native labourers do not perform, nor are they expected to perform, half the work that would be done by a European.

The simplicity and inexpensiveness of the necessaries of life are greatly in favour of the industrial classes in Cyprus; the comforts of a dwelling-house are a secondary consideration with a people accustomed to spend nine months of the year, day and night, in the open air, and the food on which the peasantry subsist, consisting chiefly of bread, olives, onions, oil, cheese, and salt fish, can be procured at an exceedingly low rate.

Consul Lang at the time when this Report was written, considered that the only opening that the island afforded to Europeans,

was as farmers. He based his opinion upon the following facts, viz.: the soil is fertile, and may be had, either by purchase, or on lease, at most moderate prices: the cultivation of grain, vegetables and fruits of all sorts is largely profitable where economy and a moderate capital are combined with diligent effort; perfect security to life and property is an advantage possessed to a greater degree in Cyprus in any other part of Turkey.

This being the case in 1872, it may fairly be considered that the British occupation being now an accomplished fact, still greater opportunities are at present offered for success in agricultural pursuits, and there can be little doubt that capital so embarked, and administered with practical knowledge and economy would soon bring in handsome returns.

The Cypriotes do not appear to have excelled in art; still, some few names have been preserved, and it is probable that further researches will discover others. Art and
Literature.

A sculptor named Styppax is known as a contemporary of Pericles; Simos, another sculptor, was a native of Salamis, as also was Onasiphon, whose name, with that of Epicharmos of Soli, is on an inscription at Rhodes. One Zenodotes is mentioned in a tablet at Nea Paphos.

It has been already described how the use of the soft Cyprian marble, or limestone, was fatal to the production of high art in sculpture.

Embroidery seems almost to have been carried to the position of a fine art. It is called Assyrian work by Pausanias.

As regards literature, Euclus, one of the earlier prophetic singers, was a native of Cyprus, and some of his verses existed in the time of Pausanias. The author of the Cyprian Iliad or Kypria, Stasinos, was born in Cyprus, and wrote this poem in conjunction with Hegesias; its subject is the events which led to the siege of Troy. Cleon of Kuriun is alleged to have written a poem on the Argonauts; amongst other writers were the lyric poet Hérmeius of Curium, and Sopatros, the author of some comedies. Of prose writers there was Clearchus of Soli, who wrote biographies, and a work called Gergithos.

Zeno, the philosopher, was born in Citium.

CHAPTER XIII.

TRADE AND REVENUE.

Trade.

CYPRUS has an excellent geographical position for commerce, it lies within easy distance of all the great ports of the eastern Mediterranean, and is almost in the direct route between them. It also holds the key of the Gulf of Scanderoon, which may in course of time become one of the greatest emporiums of the commerce of the Levant. The trade and resources of the island have probably never yet been fully developed, though perhaps they were most so during the periods of the Lusignan and Venetian governments.

A very close connection exists between the commerce of Cyprus and its products, vegetable, animal, and mineral; the foregoing chapters contain full details concerning the various influences which annually cause fluctuations in the amount and quality of the numerous products, and which have been explained to be due to either ignorance of the art of high cultivation, want of proper agricultural implements, droughts, mistaken fiscal policy on the part of the government, combined with oppressive and ill-adjusted taxation, or last, though perhaps not least, if the neglected mineral wealth of the island be considered, the lethargic character, and want of enterprise of the inhabitants; these influences must therefore be borne in mind whilst reviewing the trade statistics now given of the last few years.

The present infusion of British energy and capital, together with the introduction of modern science and a good administration, all of which will be the natural results of our occupation of the island, will soon take effect, and the evils above alluded to may be expected to disappear on the removal of the paralysing effects of Turkish rule.

We hear that the immediate result of the Anglo-Turkish Convention has been to quicken Mediterranean business in our leading sea ports and to give great activity to freights. Hitherto British merchant ships have been almost invariably sent to Cyprus in ballast (as the table below shows), or else at prices for cargo almost equivalent to ballast; consequently there has been no special inducement to embark in direct trade with the island, and but a small proportion of exports have been shipped direct to England in British vessels. Consul Riddell remarks upon this fact in his Report for 1872, as follows:—

“The want of more frequent opportunities for direct shipment to Great Britain operates seriously against the extension of trade, yet it is easier to state the fact than propound a remedy. The volume of the exports from

Cyprus cannot be considered, comparatively, of the first importance in Europe and although the products are numerous the actual production of any single article is not large. The Liverpool steamers trading with the ports of Syria and Egypt do not, it appears, find it remunerative to touch at Larnaca, except only at long intervals, when a sufficient amount of produce for shipment can be guaranteed. Owing to this want of frequent and reliable opportunities, the exporter prefers to avail himself of the Austrian mail steamers calling here fortnightly, and taking produce for all the ports of the Mediterranean, to send off his purchases to some of these ports than to hold them over indefinitely, even though convinced that, with immediate shipment, he would realise a better result by sending the produce to English markets. How this is to be successfully brought about I am unable to suggest, but it is evident that until more frequent and regular opportunities of steam conveyances to English ports can be procured, and relied upon, the volume of exports from Cyprus to England can hardly increase, and much will continue to be forwarded to Continental ports which otherwise would go to those of Great Britain."

The occupation of the island by Great Britain affords the remedy here sought for, and it is to be expected that the direct trade will now largely increase.

The Larnaca statistics of the last four years show the following figures:—

RETURN OF BRITISH SHIPPING AT THE PORT OF LARNACA.

Year.	ENTERED.				CLEARED.			
	Vessels with cargo.	Vessels in ballast.	Total Vessels.	Value of cargo.	Vessels with cargo.	Vessels in ballast.	Total Vessels.	Value of cargo.
1874	—	16	16	—	16	—	16	45,000
1875	—	18	18	—	17	—	17	40,576
1876	3	7	10	3,500	10	—	10	35,000
1877	—	3	3	—	3	—	3	1,000

In the three first years above mentioned, nearly the whole of the cargoes sent to England consisted of wheat and barley, but in 1877, owing to the failure of the grain crop on account of the continued drought during the months of January, March, and April, and also in a considerable degree to the influence of the war, there was a general depression of trade, which showed itself in a marked manner with regard to the direct commerce between Larnaca and England, for in that year the whole of the exports from that town to Great Britain, in vessels of all countries, amounted only in £3,007, whereas the year before, vessels of all countries conveyed there the produce of the island to the value of £43,800. It is however, worthy of notice that the exports to England from Limasol did not decline last year; their value amounted to £28,650, whilst in 1876 their total was but £28,150. This great increase is to be attributed to the recent large demand for locust-beans, of which no less than £28,600-worth was sent to England from Limasol in 1877.

Statistics of the whole trade of Cyprus are given; these are taken from the Consular Reports, but in a country where no public accounts are kept, there is nothing upon which the figures

can be based with certainty, and Consul Riddell, writes, April, 1876;—"As no accurate statistics of the annual trade are accessible, if indeed any be recorded in the different government departments, the bases of valuation and estimation have to be obtained as best they can through the agency of local traders, and cannot therefore amount to more than approximate accuracy." The totals of the following tables may therefore not be absolutely correct, but they still have a considerable value inasmuch as they show the variations of the last few years, and the increase or decrease of each may invariably be traced directly to the removal or the occurrence of one or more of the various influences which have been enumerated as affecting the prosperity of the trade of the island; consequently highly important information for the future regulation of taxes, export duties, &c., may be deduced therefrom.

For instance, the decrease of the total value of exports from Larnaca in 1876 and 1877, was due to long intervals between the rains, during which periods northerly and easterly bleak cold winds prevailed, to the manifest injury of the growing crops; whereas the large exports of 1874 and 1875 are to be attributed to the excellent crops of wheat and barley obtained in that year.

The decrease in the quantity of salt exported lately is due to the mistaken policy of the government with regard to the sale of this monopoly.

The increase in the quantity of tobacco now annually imported is, beyond a doubt, to be attributed to the exorbitant taxation to which the grower of the plant in Cyprus is subjected; otherwise the island could now, as it formerly did, provide for its own wants, and if it is a true saying that the prosperity of a country may be gauged by the excess of its exports over its imports, the measures which in Cyprus oppress the tobacco and vine growers, and which prevent the exportation of live stock cannot but be ill-advised.

In the same manner each falling off in the products, and consequent diminution of both trade and revenue, may be traced with certainty to a definite source.

To all who are interested in the welfare of Cyprus it is, however, a reassuring fact that the various causes of decline arise from influences which are clearly capable of removal; the art of proper cultivation may be taught, proper agricultural implements introduced, harbours with improved means and facilities for shipment constructed, the custom-house annoyances and delays, noticed by Consul Watkins in his Report for 1877, can be prevented, those taxes which are found to be inappropriate and oppressive can be re-adjusted, and a commercial spirit encouraged instead of stifled; under the influence of such reforms the great natural advantages of the island would develop, and its financial and commercial importance be fully realized.

In the following tables the trade statistics of 1877 are given in detail, and each table is briefly compared with the corresponding totals of the three previous years, so that the gain or loss may be seen at a glance.

RETURN OF THE EXPORTS FROM THE PORT OF LARNACA IN THE YEAR 1877.

Names of Articles.	To England.	To France.	To Austria.	To Italy.	To Russia.	To Turkey.	Total Value.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Cotton	12,000	8,000	1,000	21,000
Wine	900	4,000	2,000	6,900
Cheese	2,975	2,975
Madder roots	2,200	2,200
Skins	4,000	5,000	2,000	11,000
Wool	8,000	1,500	1,500	12,000
Cotton manufacture	8,400	8,400
Tobacco (cut)	315	315
Worked skins	2,770	2,770
Rags	479	...	1,000	1,479
Barley and wheat	1,600	2,000	17,000	20,600
Salt	14,140	14,140
Locust beans	1,000	8,000	9,000
Fruit and vegetables	6,600	6,600
Cattle	2,500	2,500
Silk cocoons	17,358	17,358
Linseed-cotton seed	8,719	8,719
Terra umber and bones	307	640	947
Old copper	518	518
Miscellaneous	100	200	600	400	...	2,200	4,500
Total value	3,007	53,858	18,615	16,540	...	57,900	180,918

In 1874 the exports from Larnaca were valued at ... £ 312,625
 " 1875 " " " " " 308,979
 " 1876 " " " " " 207,512

The large totals of 1874 and 1875 were due to the good crops of those years, which enabled upwards of £175,000-worth of wheat and barley alone to be exported each year.

RETURN OF THE EXPORTS FROM THE PORT OF LIMASOL IN THE YEAR 1877.

Name of Articles.	To England.	To France.	To Austria.	To Italy.	To Russia.	To Greece.	To Turkey.	Total Value.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Cotton	300	60	...	660
Wool in grease	750	750
Lamb and goat skins	80	475	555
Rags	400	400
Sumac, in the leaf	450	500	950
Black wine	27,000	27,000
Commanderia wine	60	...	1,750	240	...	150	250	2,440
Locust beans	28,600	1,700	3,000	4,700	2,300	...	900	41,200
Raisins	3,000	750	2,100	6,850
Sundries	200	350	150	...	600	12,000	13,300
Total	28,650	3,030	8,575	6,240	2,300	1,260	43,750	93,905

In 1874 the exports from Limasol were valued at ... £ 59,600
 " 1875 " " " " " 77,022
 " 1876 " " " " " 59,898

The year 1875 showed an increase on nearly all the articles of export, and a particularly large quantity of the common black wine was sent to Turkey. In 1877 the value of the locust beans exported, viz., £41,200, was about double what it had been in any previous year; there was also a marked increase in the value of the raisins exported.

RETURN OF THE IMPORTS AT THE PORT OF LARNACA IN THE YEAR 1877.

Names of Articles.	From Turkey.	From Austria and Germany.	From France.	From England.	From Italy.	From Greece.	Total Value.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Cotton manufacture	14,000	...	22,000	36,000
Hardware...	2,000	1,000	4,000
Glass and pottery ware	900	700	...	100	...	1,700
Leather	2,500	...	50	2,000	6,550
Tobacco	17,000	17,000
Soap	2,200	2,200
Butter	650	650
Matches	430	430
Colonials	6,000	6,000
Iron, wrought and unwrought	1,800	700	2,500
Petroleum	1,600	1,600
Rice	400	...	2,000	...	800	...	2,200
Salt fish and drysalteries	400	100	250	250	800	250	1,650
Skins, ox and camel	9,485	9,485
Olive oil	1,705	1,705
Rum, &c.	400	350	750
Wax	645	645
Copper	300	675	975
Grain and flour	2,000	...	636	2,636
Miscellaneous	2,200	500	800	200	100	200	3,900
Total	22,941	21,950	16,036	22,450	1,350	2,550	105,277

£

In 1874 the imports received at Larnaca were valued at ... 100,282
 " 1875 " " " " ... 152,223
 " 1876 " " " " ... 150,480

The value of the cotton manufactures, which are the chief articles of import, have decreased since 1875, when they amounted to about £81,000; in 1876 they fell to about £63,000, and last year to but little more than half that amount, as shown in the table above.

RETURN OF THE IMPORTS AT THE PORT OF LIMASOL IN THE YEAR 1877.

Names of Articles.	From Turkey.	From Austria.	From France.	From England.	From Italy.	From Greece.	Total Value.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Grain	2,500	2,500
Tobacco	6,000	6,000
Butter	1,100	1,100
Salt fish	180	300	420	900
Soap	280	280
Matches	40	200	40	...	15	...	295
Glassware	500	250	300	400	1,450
Manufactured goods	12,000	...	1,000	13,000
Coffee	585	...	700	180	1,465
Sugar	680	...	800	400	1,760
Leather	650	1,000	1,650
Rice	750	450	400	1,600
Petroleum	800	80	...	880
Hardware	50	30	150	150	200	50	630
Sundries	7,000	200	300	400	50	500	8,450
Total	21,555	680	2,940	1,700	1,085	2,950	41,920

In 1874 the imports received at Limasol were valued at ... 46,830
 " 1875 " " " " ... 47,325
 " 1876 " " " " ... 50,920

The trade of Limasol, though by no means so great as that of Larnaca, appears both as regards exports and imports, to fluctuate but little; the decline last year showed a greater difference than

has existed for some years, but this is fully accounted for by the depression of trade resulting from the war; the fall was chiefly in cotton manufactures, tobacco, and hardware.

The two last tables show clearly the nature of the imports which are received in Cyprus; in order of importance, as regards the quantities annually required, they may be named as follows:—Cottons, and manufactured goods; tobacco; colonials (coffee, sugar, rice, &c.); ox and camel skins; leather; hardware; soap; glass; salt fish and drysalteries; petroleum; iron, wrought and unwrought; butter, &c.

The following shipping return shows that the greater part of the trade is carried on by Austrian merchant vessels, for although the Ottoman ships greatly exceed them in number, the latter are chiefly coasting craft of small tonnage.

RETURN OF SHIPPING AT THE PORT OF LARNACA IN THE YEAR 1877.

ENTERED.										
Nationality of Vessels.	With Cargoes.			In Ballast.			Total.			Value of Cargoes.
	Vessels.	Tons.	Crews.	Vessels.	Tons.	Crews.	Vessels.	Tons.	Crews.	
British ...	3	...	38	3	820	29	3	820	29	4
French ...	2	767	38	2	767	38	1,133
Austrian ...	56	60,385	2,624	4	1,177	28	60	66,562	2,682	78,444
Italian ...	2	808	17	24	7,747	253	26	8,063	270	2,042
Greek ...	11	524	69	17	2,016	138	28	2,540	207	2,332
Ottoman ...	113	3,546	727	281	10,086	1,796	394	13,632	2,513	23,753
Dutch	1	192	8	1	192	8	...
American	1	247	10	1	247	10	...
Total ...	184	65,527	3,475	331	22,285	3,292	515	91,812	5,737	107,223

CLEARED.										
Nationality of Vessels.	With Cargoes.			In Ballast.			Total.			Value of Cargoes.
	Vessels.	Tons.	Crews.	Vessels.	Tons.	Crews.	Vessels.	Tons.	Crews.	
British ...	3	820	29	3	820	29	1,000
French ...	2	767	38	2	767	38	5,133
Austrian ...	56	65,221	2,652	1	341	10	60	65,562	2,662	70,274
Italian ...	23	7,046	237	3	1,006	33	26	8,052	270	30,497
Greek ...	16	1,762	119	12	778	88	28	2,540	207	9,625
Ottoman ...	319	10,793	2,031	75	2,839	462	394	13,632	2,513	30,991
Dutch ...	1	192	8	1	192	8	550
American ...	1	247	10	1	247	10	800
Total ...	424	86,848	5,124	91	4,964	613	515	91,812	5,737	148,870

Comparing this return with the corresponding one of the previous year, we find that during 1876 the number of vessels which entered was 457, and the value of their cargoes £154,630, or about one-half more than in 1877.

The number of vessels which cleared was 483, and the value of

their cargoes £207,900; about £60,000 more than in 1877. The decrease last year was chiefly in British and Austrian ships.

It is stated that the small craft which ply between Cyprus and Beyrout can afford to transport merchandise at a cheaper rate than larger vessels.

REVENUE.

In 1845 the revenue was 4,431,650 piastres or £40,657, and the annual expenditure 600,000 piastres or £5,504.

In 1863 Consul White in his Report gives the following table, drawn up from data which he believed to be correct, showing the revenue of the island at that time.

	Piastres.
Direct Contributions....	3,300,000
Tithe of Agricultural Produce	5,000,000
Customs and Silk Tithes	2,600,000
Salt Lakes	8,000,000
Exemption from Military Service	750,000
Internal Duty on Wine	700,000
Duty on Transfer of Property	300,000
Goat and Sheep Tax....	600,000
Stamp Paper	60,000
Monopoly of Weighing and Measuring	200,000
Total	21,510,000

Independently of these sources of revenue, some fresh taxes were imposed during 1862, such as an excise duty on tobacco, and licenses to be taken out by owners of wineshops, and it was not known what sums they would produce.

This revenue gives an amount of 107 piastres per head, which is far above the average of the other possessions of the Porte, for the taxation of the whole Turkish Empire produces only 45 piastres per head.

Consul Riddell reports that the net revenue of Cyprus during the financial year ending March 1876, is "with presumably tolerable accuracy computed at over 20,000,000 piastres, all of which is drained from the island to help Imperial necessities at the capital."

In the next year Consul Pierides reported that owing to bad crops the revenue of the financial year ending March 1877 would be much below that of the two previous years: only a portion of the dimes was farmed out, the most important districts being administered by government officials.

The last report is that of Consul Watkins, dated March 1878; he states that the revenues of last year are considerably under those of the year before, in consequence of the unfavourable returns of the crops. The tithes were administered by government officials, with a view to remedy certain abuses complained of by the peasants; but the experiment, so far, has not benefited either them or the government.

Of the dimes in grain, 120,000 kilos of barley were sent to Constantinople for the requirements of the army, and about 30,000 kilos of wheat were given to the poorer of the peasants for sowing.

There can be little doubt that the island was overtaxed by the

Turks, although, perhaps, different and more appropriate taxes might have yielded a larger revenue without bearing so heavily upon the inhabitants. Over-taxation has kept down the population, and is responsible, in combination with extortion and corruption, for the decay and ruin which is everywhere apparent. It is generally believed that the Turkish government collected in Cyprus an annual revenue of about £100,000, of which sum not more than £30,000 was expended in the island in salaries, maintenance of establishments, and so forth. The number of the taxes is legion; there are tithes upon every article of produce, some of which have already been shown to be excessive, besides being levied in a manner particularly injurious to the farmer; of all live stock 13 per cent. are taken by the tax collector; a custom duty of 8 per cent. *ad valorem* is charged upon all exports, and 1 per cent. upon all imports; there is a land tax upon all land let at a yearly rental; an exemption tax from military service which is exacted from all Christians; excise duties which comprise taxes upon all sales (2½ to 5 per cent.), transfers, and leases of property, real and personal; a stamp tax; a tax upon the slaughter of cattle; the monopoly of weighing and measuring, and numberless other small exactions which weigh upon an impoverished peasantry.

Herr Von Löher, during his visit to Cyprus, endeavoured to obtain some information regarding the revenue. He found great difficulty in getting exact figures, but he gives the following table as an approximate estimate which is probably very near the truth.

					Plastres.
Tithes upon all income....	7,000,000
Tithes upon land	400,000
Percentage of products	5,000,000
Military taxes upon Christians	550,000
Poll tax upon live stock	700,000
Weighing taxes upon sales	300,000
Customs upon salt	1,500,000
Customs upon wines	1,000,000
Customs upon exported silk	200,000
Customs upon exported fish	20,000
Total					16,670,000

The latest estimate that we have of the revenue of Cyprus, is one contained in a paper contributed to Macmillan's Magazine of September 1878, by Mr. Lang, who had a long and thorough experience of the island, and who, in his official position as British Consul, was in a position to get as good information as it was possible to obtain.

He divides the revenues under three heads, viz. :—

1. Revenues resulting from the administration of property belonging exclusively to the State.
2. A royalty upon the produce of all lands.
3. Taxes, direct and indirect.

The general budget of receipts may be estimated as follows :—

	£
1. Salt monopoly....	40,000
2. Tithes of land....	70,000
3. Customs and excise	23,000
4. Monopoly of weighing and measuring	2,300
5. Stamp duties and transfer of property	3,300
6. Tobacco monopoly	7,000
7. Direct contributions (Verghi)	30,000
8. Tax on sheep and goats	6,000
9. Exemption from military service	7,000

Total £188,600

Comparing this estimate with those already quoted which were furnished by Consul White and by Herr Von Löher, and which are both calculated in piastres, we find that Consul Lang's total is far the highest, for taking the Turkish lira to be equivalent to 18s. and to contain 160 piastres (the present current rate), Consul White's estimate is but £121,000, and Herr Von Löher's amounts only to £94,000. To account for this difference, probably the current rate has altered considerably, or the Turkish lira was in these calculations valued at the bank rate.

Often the taxes are farmed out for certain sums, and then the tax gatherer tries to make as much profit as he possibly can upon the transaction, to the great disadvantage of the payers of the taxes.

At other times the government has tried to collect the taxes by means of its own officials, but these have generally been found unequal to the task, and then vacillation and cross-purposes have ensued, and nearly every year has produced alterations in the system of taxation.

Non-officially we hear that the tithe tax has of late years produced the following sums:—

In 1872	7,220,023 piastres	(most of the taxes farmed out).
" 1873	3,480,715 "	(collected by government agents).
" 1874	9,204,295 "	(most of the taxes farmed out).
" 1875	1,257,065 "	(a famine year).
" 1876	1,168,380 "	(again a famine year).
" 1877	1,234,595 "	(crops slightly better, the tax was collected in kind, and most of the wheat and barley not required for government purposes on the island was shipped to Syria and other parts of the Empire, wheat at 80 piastres, and barley at 40 piastres per kilo).

The last return was not such as to encourage a maintenance of the system of exportation of the tax collected in kind.

The tithe tax for 1878 has been estimated at 8,376,400 piastres, the Famagusta and Nicosia districts, which comprise the grain-growing plain of the Messaria, contributing together about three-quarters of this total.

According to all accounts the taxation of the inhabitants of Cyprus has, under Turkish administration been carried out in a most severe and oppressive manner, and the imposts upon certain articles of agriculture and commerce have been so heavy, that their culture and export has in some cases been almost abandoned; yet it is said that the resources of the island are entirely undeveloped, and that under an able and generous government the revenues might be very materially increased by an equitable adjustment of

the taxes, which would then give higher returns, whilst the pressure upon individuals would be lessened. It behoves us therefore to pass in review some of the items of taxation which form the revenue, and with regard to which amendments have been suggested.

The cultivation of vines for the manufacture of wine has been so heavily and unjustly taxed, that a great part of the vineyards have of late years been turned to other and more profitable purposes, or else have been abandoned, and consequently a branch of agriculture for which the island is especially suited, and a remunerative article of commerce, is neglected and allowed to decline. An extensive development of vineyards and manufacture of wine should be encouraged, and with this object it has been suggested that it might be wise to free this production from all except export duty.

Tobacco is undoubtedly a valuable culture, and might be made of great profit to the State, but, according to the consular reports quoted in Chapter VIII., the mistaken fiscal policy of the authorities in raising the tax upon this article, until at last it reached the exorbitant sum of six piastres per oke upon the most inferior qualities, has caused the production to fall below a tenth part of the consumption of the island, whereas not many years ago more than a sufficiency for the wants of the population was grown. To restore this culture to its former importance will doubtless be the care of the new government, and an alteration in the present burdensome tax will probably be the easiest solution of the difficulty.

Allusion has already been made to the injurious effect of the collection of the tithe upon cotton at the time when the crop is gathered, instead of at the time of shipment, and it has been explained how the former method prevents the farmers from growing the best and most remunerative varieties of the plant; this is a matter which requires the attention of the authorities when the re-adjustment of the taxes is considered.

The salt fields of the island can, under judicious management, be made infinitely more valuable, and the preceding chapters indicate other methods in which the resources of Cyprus may be developed, so that while some taxes might with advantage be either lowered or remitted, the gain which will, accrue from a wise and enlightened administration, will, even in a pecuniary sense, infinitely exceed the possible diminutions of certain items of the revenue.

An alteration will, for instance, have to be made in the indemnity paid by the Christian population for exemption from military service, for as under the present rule, both Christians and Mussulmans will be exempted from service, the tax must either be extended to the Mussulmans, or else abolished. The "Verghi" is the personal tax levied upon all householders and bread-winners in the island. Each village has to contribute a fixed amount, according to the number of its tax-payers, and the villagers as a whole are responsible for the sum, but the notables of the village apportion the quantum of the tax to each man as they consider just, and, as may be imagined, absolute justice is not always meted

out; the Mohamedan proprietors are especially dealt with easily, but with more accurate statistics regarding the property of each taxpayer, the burden might be more equitably adjusted. It is believed that there are now 59,461 males in the island who pay taxes.

The revenue upon stamps and the transfer fees will be certain to increase with the commercial facilities and general prosperity of the island.

M. Capitaine in an article in "L'Exploration du Globe" of July, 1878, gives an estimate of the cost of the Turkish government, and the expenses incurred in the administration of the island as follows:—

					£
Salary of Governor General	1,520
Administrative expenses	2,880
Financial services	3,240
Sanitary services....	480
Police	4,820
Military force	4,480
Total					£17,520

British administration will certainly be more costly than that of the Turkish Government, but it appears equally certain that there will be an enlarged income. The estimates that have been quoted show that the present revenue amounts to about £180,000, and that a large proportion of this is derived from the salt lakes, a property belonging exclusively to government, and which does not inflict any burden upon the inhabitants. On the whole there seems to be much cause for satisfaction as regards the prospect of pecuniary profit to be derived from Cyprus, in addition to the political and strategic advantages which result from its possession by Great Britain.

CHAPTER XIV.

CURRENCY, ETC.

From Consul White's Report for 1863 :—

"New regulations concerning the currency came into operation in August 1863. The English sovereign which was current at 154 piastres was then reduced to 110. Opposition was raised by some of the merchants to this great and sudden reduction, but the authorities succeeded in enforcing it. Local and other causes, however, prevented the price of labour and provisions being lowered in the same proportion as the coin, and the high price of provisions, especially of butchers' meat was felt by the poorer classes.

"The rates of exchange upon England during 1863 varied from January to August between 148 and 151½ piastres, old currency; from September to December it varied between 108½ and 105½ piastres, new currency.

From Consul Riddell's Report for 1873 :—

"During the year 1873 the current value of money in Cyprus greatly increased, owing mainly to a large importation of copper money.

The Imperial Ottoman Bank Agency here maintains a fixed rate of currency, the £ sterling being 114 piastres, and but for the check which this establishment exercises upon the currency it is impossible to guess to what abusive rates the coins in circulation might attain. At the beginning of the year, gold coins circulated in commerce at an agio of only 1 per cent. to 2 per cent. on the bank rates, whilst the Beshlik (or base) currency was at par. At the close of the year the difference had risen to nearly 20 per cent.—the pound sterling circulating at 130–134 piastres.

"The depreciation in the value of landed and other real property which arises when transactions are conducted in piastres is very obvious.

"For a time (but only for a time) the change operates in favour of exporters who effect the purchase of produce in piastres with the pound sterling at 130 piastres, in lieu of 114 piastres; but is manifestly against the importer who must also sell in piastres and be paid at the same rate, whilst he has to remit the cost of his goods in sterling value—in other terms, the rate of exchange which at the beginning of the year was about 114 piastres per £ sterling is now at 130 piastres, without anything nearly approximative in the currency price of the imported articles. Apply this to debts and obligations due in piastres and entered into long previously, but which must now be liquidated at current rates, and the ruinous consequences to the creditor become easily apparent.

In 1874 the "ruinous state" of the currency in the island is again alluded to in the Consular Report, and so far from having ameliorated, it is described as having continued to go from bad to worse, apparently without check or hindrance. The pound sterling which a year previously was current at 130 piastres, circulated freely throughout the island during 1874 at 150 piastres.

From Consul Pierides' Report for 1876 :—

Writing in January 1877, Consul Pierides mentions that "gold was scarce at that time, and the English sovereign was circulating at 157 piastres, and the Turkish lira at 145 piastres. It was expected that the forthcoming

issue of caimé, or paper money, would still further raise the prices of coins in good alloy to the manifest prejudice of commerce, and would also give rise to many disputes in the settlement of old debts."

The last information concerning the currency previous to the British occupation was as follows :—

One Pound Sterling was equal to 114 piastres at bank rate, and 175 at current rate.

One Napoleon was equal to 91 piastres at bank rate and 140 at current rate.

One Turkish lira was equal to 104 piastres at bank rate and 160 at current rate.

Banks and banking operations have hitherto been almost unknown in Cyprus, and cheques are never seen. It has now been reported that several banking agencies are in course of establishment.

Coinage.

40 paras = 1 piastre.
100 piastres = 1 Turkish lira.
500 piastres = 1 kése, or purse.
100 kése = 1 yuk, or load.

The copper coins are 5, 10, and 20 paras.

The silver coins are 1, 2, 5, 10, and 20 piastres.

The 20-piastres piece is called the silver medjidie.

The gold coins are 25, 50, and 100 piastres.

The Turkish lira, or pound, is equivalent to about 18s. 2d., and the silver medjidie is equivalent to about 3s. 7d. It must be remembered that although the lira really contains only 100 piastres, the current rate is now 160 piastres to the lira, and it is according to this rate that calculations should be made.

Weights and Measures.

Weights. 1 oke = 400 drams = 2½ lbs. av. English.
44 okes = 1 cantar.
180 okes = 1 cheki, or Aleppo cantar.
1,000 okes = 1 araba = 1½ tons

Liquids are generally sold by weight as above, but there is a measure for wine called the Cuse.

1 cuse = 8 okes = 3½ gallons.
The litre is equivalent to about 2½ okes.
The rottolo is equivalent to about 2½ British Imperial pints.
The measure called the killo is equivalent to about 55 lbs. weight.
Measures for grain. 1 bushel of Cyprus wheat = 56 to 58 lbs.
1 bushel of Cyprus barley = 43 to 45 lbs.
Long measure. The arahin = 28 English inches, is used for silk, broadcloth, &c.
The endaze = 26 English inches, is used for carpets, linens, &c.

Square measure. The usual measure for land is the scala, or skali, which is about 60 paces square.

PRICES.

Food. The prices of household necessities have considerably increased since the British occupation, and they have probably not yet

Some of the prices
 August, 1878.
 mine (2½ lbs.). A
 t sells for about 8s.
 for 14s.
 company of 80 men can
 s, tomatoes, vegetable
 umbers sell at a half-
 the English or Maltese,
 bout 5s. per cwt.
 and turkeys vary from
 and the standing price

gritty from the mode of
 re, however, some steam

e purchased at very cheap
 plentiful, and grapes can be
 (2½ lbs. English).
 about the size of a small her-
 sale, and varies from 3s. to 4s.
 or sweet, is sold at from one and
 the white, or new *Commanderia*
 or oke.
 and much higher prices, such as
 not always to be procured.
 invariably good; but in each town Houses.
 v buildings. Both rents and land
 ously since the cession, several
 up to ten times what was formerly

at present somewhat scarce, and Fuel and
 ively high prices. Forage.
 held in Cyprus and are attended by the Fairs.
 mbers both for pleasure, and for the

s are :—

th June.
 ith June.

obacco, and oxen), 14th September.
 ersary of the birth of Venus).

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- LAURIE, R. H. *Mediterranean Directory.* Part II. London. (Describes the Coast, Roadsteads, Harbours, &c., of Cyprus.)
- DI CESNOLA, General, L. P. *Cyprus: its Ancient Cities, Tombs, and Temples.* London, 1877. (The best archæological description of Cyprus.)
- CRESSY, Sir E. S. *History of the Ottoman Turks.* London, 1877. (Contains historical information regarding Cyprus.)
- COLLEN, Capt. E. H. H. A Report on Cyprus, based on information obtained chiefly from Consular Reports, 1845-1877. Intelligence Branch, Quarter-Master-General's Department. May, 1878.

MURRAY, J. Handbook of Turkey in Asia. London, 1878. (Contains a useful Guide to Travellers in Cyprus.)

CONSULAR REPORTS by Messrs. Lang, Riddell, Pierides, and Watkins, 1869-1878. (These Reports contain a large amount of very valuable statistical information concerning Cyprus.)

VON LÖHER, FRANZ. Cyprus. Stuttgart, 1878. (A good description of the island.)

Since the cession of Cyprus to Great Britain, a quantity of books and pamphlets compiled chiefly from the above sources have been published, and some original articles have appeared in the Magazines; of these the following have been referred to—

LANG, Consul. Articles on Cyprus in Macmillan's Magazine, August and September, 1878. (These articles contain much highly useful information.)

POOLE, R. STUART. Articles in the Contemporary Review. January and August, 1878. (The first is archæological, the second general; both contain useful information.)

FISHER, F. H. Cyprus, our New Colony. Routledge and Sons. London, 1878.

ROBINSON, P. Cyprus. W. Clowes and Sons. London, 1878.

HARRIS, COWPER, B. Cyprus: its Past, Present, and Future. London, 1878.

LAKE, J. J. Ceded Cyprus. London, 1878.

CYPRUS: its Value and Importance to England. Diprose and Bateman. London, 1878.

HELLER VON SAMO, A. The Vilayet of the Islands of the White Sea. Vienna, 1878. Translated in the Geographical Magazine of July and August, 1878. (Good statistical information.)

JOYNER, MRS. BATSON. Translation of Von Löher's "Cyprus," with an additional Appendix. Allen and Co. London, 1878.

CAPITAINE, M. H. Article on Cyprus in "L'Exploration du Globe." No. 80. July, 1878. 9 Rue Lamartine, Paris.

GEOGRAPHICAL MAGAZINE. Article on Cyprus, in the number for August, 1878.

The above are the authorities which have been consulted in the compilation of this work; the list does not contain quite the whole of the authors who have written upon Cyprus, but in it will be found all the best modern works.

The "Bookseller" of August 6th, 1878, contains a bibliography, which, however, does not profess to be complete, of the principal works on Cyprus, or of which Cyprus forms a greater or lesser portion of the subject. The arrangement is chronological. Several very old works are mentioned. At the end of Drs. Unger and Kotschy's "Die Insel Cypem," another list of authorities upon the island will be found.

The letters and telegrams from Cyprus of the Special Correspondents of the daily newspapers have been much referred to.

THE CARTOGRAPHY OF CYPRUS.

1562. Venetian Map, engraved by BERTELLI, Rome.
 1570. Map in the Atlas, by ORTELIUS.
 1595. " " " " MERCATOR.
 1635. " " " " BLEAU.
 1688. Map in DAPPER's Work.
 1696. Map in the Atlas, by CORONELLI.
 1726. " " " " DE LISLE.
 1743. Map to illustrate the Travels of Dr. POCOCKE.
 1754. " " " " " DRUMMOND.
 1816. " " " " " ALI BEY.
 1844-7. Map by M. MARCEL CERRUTI, Sardinian Consul at Larnaca. Unpublished and in MS.
 1849. Admiralty Chart, No. 2074 (Mediterranean). Compiled from Surveys by Capt. T. GRAVES in 1849, and republished with corrections up to 1874.
 1855. Map in "Recherches Scientifiques en Orient, &c., 1853-4," by M. ALBERT GAUDRY.
 1860. The same Map, geologically coloured, is in the "Mémoires de la Société Géologique." Second Series. Seventh Volume.
 1862. Carte de L'Ile de Chypre, by M. DE MAS LATRIE, in his History of the House of Lusignan. Scale $\frac{1}{100,000}$. (The maps of 1855 and 1860 were based upon this map, then unpublished.)
 1862. Plan of Famagusta Harbour, by A. MOTTEZ.
 1866. In UNGER and KOTSCHY's "Die Insel Cypem" is a reproduction of the geological map of 1860.
 1873. Map compiled by Mr. C. H. COOTE, of the British Museum, for the use of the late Mr. Thomas Lewin. This map was afterwards used for making the smaller one inserted in Mr. Lewin's "Life of St. Paul." Vol. I, page 120.
 1877. Two Maps in General di Cesnola's "Cyprus, its Cities, &c." The first is a reduction of the Admiralty Chart, the interior being filled up by Drs. SCHROEDER and KIEPERT of Berlin. The second shows General di Cesnola's Itineraries.

Since the cession of Cyprus to Great Britain a large quantity of maps of the island have been published: of these the best are the following, viz.:

STANFORD's Map of Cyprus. Scale $6\frac{1}{2}$ miles to 1 inch. It shows the harbours on a larger scale, and has small geological and agricultural maps.

WYLD's Map of Cyprus. Scale about $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles to 1 inch.

KIEPERT's Map of Cyprus. Scale $\frac{1}{100,000}$.

Admiralty Mediterranean Charts—

No. 846. Limasol, $\frac{1}{100,000}$.

No. 847. Famagusta, $\frac{1}{100,000}$.

No. 848. Larnaca, $\frac{1}{100,000}$.

Maps of the island have also been inserted in several of the recent books upon the Island. The "Geographical Magazine" has a good map in its August number. The same appears in Mrs. Bateson Joyner's translation of Von Löher's work; but all these are compiled from the maps which have been mentioned, particularly from those by Captain Graves and M. de Mas Latrie. Perhaps the oldest map of the island is one in a MS. of the thirteenth century, to be found in Segment VII of the "Pentinger Tables," preserved in the Imperial Library at Vienna.

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