
PEACE HANDBOOKS

VOL. III

THE BALKAN STATES

PART I

1920



THE LIBRARY
OF
THE UNIVERSITY
OF CALIFORNIA
LOS ANGELES



PEACE HANDBOOKS

Issued by the Historical Section
of the Foreign Office

VOL. III

THE BALKAN STATES

PART I

15. THE EASTERN QUESTION
16. TURKEY IN EUROPE
17. ALBANIA
18. GREECE WITH CYCLADES AND
NORTHERN SPORADES

LONDON :
H.M. STATIONERY OFFICE

1920

Editorial Note.

IN the spring of 1917 the Foreign Office, in connection with the preparation which they were making for the work of the Peace Conference, established a special section whose duty it should be to provide the British Delegates to the Peace Conference with information in the most convenient form—geographical, economic, historical, social, religious and political—respecting the different countries, districts, islands, &c., with which they might have to deal. In addition, volumes were prepared on certain general subjects, mostly of an historical nature, concerning which it appeared that a special study would be useful.

The historical information was compiled by trained writers on historical subjects, who (in most cases) gave their services without any remuneration. For the geographical sections valuable assistance was given by the Intelligence Division (Naval Staff) of the Admiralty; and for the economic sections, by the War Trade Intelligence Department, which had been established by the Foreign Office. Of the maps accompanying the series, some were prepared by the above-mentioned department of the Admiralty, but the bulk of them were the work of the Geographical Section of the General Staff (Military Intelligence Division) of the War Office.

Now that the Conference has nearly completed its task, the Foreign Office, in response to numerous enquiries and requests, has decided to issue the books for public use, believing that they will be useful to students of history, politics, economics and foreign affairs, to publicists generally and to business men and travellers. It is hardly necessary to say that some of the subjects dealt with in the series have not in fact come under discussion at the Peace Conference; but, as the books treating of them contain valuable information, it has been thought advisable to include them.

It must be understood that, although the series of volumes was prepared under the authority, and is now issued with the sanction, of the Foreign Office, that Office is not to be regarded as guaranteeing the accuracy of every statement which they contain or as identifying itself with all the opinions expressed in the several volumes; the books were not prepared in the Foreign Office itself, but are in the nature of information provided for the Foreign Office and the British Delegation.

The books are now published, with a few exceptions, substantially as they were issued for the use of the Delegates. No attempt has been made to bring them up to date, for, in the first place, such a process would have entailed a great loss of time and a prohibitive expense; and, in the second, the political and other conditions of a great part of Europe and of the Nearer and Middle East are still unsettled and in such a state of flux that any attempt to describe them would have been incorrect or misleading. The books are therefore to be taken as describing, in general, *ante-bellum* conditions, though in a few cases, where it seemed specially desirable, the account has been brought down to a later date.

G. W. PROTHERO,
General Editor and formerly
Director of the Historical Section.

January 1920.

HISTORY OF THE EASTERN QUESTION

LONDON :

PUBLISHED BY H.M. STATIONERY OFFICE

1920

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
I. GENERAL HISTORY	
CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY	1
1. FOUNDATION OF NATIONALITIES	
Introductory	3
Ancient History	4
Foundation of Rumanian Nationality	5
Byzantine Empire	5
Foundation of Slav Nationalities... ..	5
2. THE TURKS IN EUROPE	
Entry of Turks	7
Intervention of Western Powers; French Privileges	7
Decline of Ottoman Empire; Austrian Protection of Catholics	8
3. ADVANCE OF RUSSIA	
Approach of Russia	9
Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji; Schemes of Catherine of Russia	10
Napoleonic Era	11
State of Balkan Peoples at the Beginning of the Nineteenth Century	12
4. RISE OF INDEPENDENT STATES	
Wars of Independence, Serbia and Greece ...	15
Treaty of Adrianople	17
Turkish Reforms; Russian Advance; Treaty of Unkiar Skelessi	18
Events leading up to Crimean War	19
Action of Balkan States during Crimean War ...	20
Treaty of Paris (1856)	21
Dardanelles Question	23
5. BULGARIA AND MACEDONIA	
Further Assertions of Nationality in Balkans ...	23
The Bulgarian Exarchate	24
Bulgarian "Atrocities"; Russo-Turkish War ...	25
Treaties of San Stefano and Berlin	26
Effects on Eastern Rumelia and Rumania ...	27
Effects on Montenegro and Macedonia	28

	PAGE
Effects on Bosnia, Herzegovina and Greece ...	29
Albanian League	30
Union of Bulgaria and Eastern Rumelia...	30
Macedonian Question	31
Greece and Crete	33
Projects of Reform in Macedonia...	33
 6. TURKISH REVOLUTION AND BALKAN ALLIANCE	
Young Turk Revolution	35
Annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina ...	36
Rival Railway Schemes	37
Formation of the Balkan Alliance	38
First Balkan War (1912-13)	40
Treaty of London: Second Balkan War ...	40
Treaty of Bucarest... ..	41
Albania	42
Results of Balkan Wars; Defects of Arrangement	42
 II. GENERAL OBSERVATIONS	
1. POPULAR OPINION AND NATIONAL SENTIMENT	
Albania	44
Bulgaria	45
Greece	46
Macedonia	46
Montenegro	47
Serbia	47
Rumania	48
Turkey	49
2 FUTURE POSSIBILITIES	49
 III. THE STRAITS QUESTION	
Russian Rights in Black Sea, 1695-1739	52
Right to pass through Straits, 1774	52
Straits opened to Russian Warships, 1798	53
Passage of Straits closed to all Warships, 1809 ...	53
Rights of Mercantile Navigation confirmed, 1826 ...	54
Straits closed to foreign Warships except Russian, 1833	55
Co-operation for Security of Straits, 1840	55
Straits close to all Warships, 1841	56
Changes proposed, 1854... ..	56
Straits closed to Warships: Black Sea neutralized, Treaty of Paris, 1856	57
Russian Denunciation of Neutrality of Black Sea, 1870	57

	PAGE
Neutrality abrogated; Closing of Straits confirmed, 1871	57
British and Russian Exchange of Views, 1877	58
Treaty of Berlin (1878), confirming Treaty of Paris (1856) as to Straits	59
British Reservations	59
Exceptions allowed	60
Recent Proposals	60
 IV. THE DANUBE QUESTION	
Earlier arrangements; Russia and Turkey	62
International Commerce	63
Treaty of Paris (1856): European Commission	64
Austro-Hungarian Claims	65
Convention of London (1883)	65
Treaty of Bucarest (1918)	65
 APPENDIX	
I.—Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji, 1774	67
II.—Treaty of Adrianople, 1829	68
III.—Treaty of Unkiar Skelessi, 1833	71
IV.—Convention of London, 1841	73
V.—Treaty of Paris, March 30, 1856	74
VI.—Treaty of Paris, April 15, 1856	78
VII.—Russian Note, 1870 (Black Sea Clauses)	78
VIII.—Treaty of London, 1871 (Black Sea and Straits)	81
IX.—Treaty of San Stefano, 1878	82
X.—Treaty of Berlin, 1878	95
XI.—Treaty of Alliance, Bulgaria and Serbia, 1912, and Secret Annexe	115
XII.—Military Convention, Bulgaria and Serbia, 1912	119
XIII.—Treaty of Alliance, Bulgaria and Greece, 1912	127
XIV.—Military Convention, Bulgaria and Greece, 1912	129
XV.—Treaty of London, 1913	132
XVI.—Treaty of Bucarest, 1913	134
XVII.—Treaty of Constantinople, Turkey and Bulgaria, 1913, and Annexes	138
 AUTHORITIES	 155
MAPS	156
Note explanatory of Map showing Nationalities in Balkan Peninsula	157
Table of Treaties affecting Balkan Boundaries	161

I. GENERAL HISTORY

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 600 B.C. Foundation of Greek colony of Byzantium.
146 B.C. Macedonia becomes a Roman province.
106 A.D. Trajan conquers Dacia.
325 A.D. Constantinople founded on site of Byzantium.
577 A.D. Slavs in Macedonia.
610 A.D. Serbs and Bulgars in Balkan Peninsula.
893-927 First Bulgarian Empire. Simeon.
1204 Fourth Crusade. Latin Emperor in Constantinople.
11th-12th cent. Seljuks in Asia Minor.
1300 Osman Sultan at Yenishahr.
1346 Serbian Empire. Stephen Dushan crowned at Skoplye.
1365 Turks in Adrianople.
1389 Battle of Kosovo.
1393 Trnovo captured. Bulgarian Patriarchate abolished.
1453 Turks capture Constantinople.
1535 French protectorate of Holy Places and Capitulations.
1583 and 1675 British Capitulations.
1689 Austrian protectorate of Albanian Catholics.
1699 Peace of Karlowitz. Turks give up Hungary. Roman Catholic religion protected.
1718-39 Austrian rule in Bosnia and Serbia.
1739 Treaty of Belgrade. Russia protects Russian pilgrims.
1740 Renewal of French protectorate of Holy Places.
1774 Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji. Russian protection of Christians.
1778-1822 Ali Pasha in Yanina.
1797 Treaty of Campo Formio. Austria obtains Dalmatia and France the Ionian Islands.
1797 Napoleon in Egypt.
1799 Montenegrin independence recognised in firman.
1804 Serbian rising. Kara George.
1807-13 French in Cattaro. Illyrian Provinces.
1807 Proposed Russo-French partition of Turkey (Tilsit).
1815 British protectorate of Ionian Islands.
1817 Serbia autonomous under Turkish suzerainty. Milosh Obrenovich.
1821-29 Greek War of Independence.

- 1826 Janissaries exterminated.
 1829 Treaty of Adrianople.
 1832 King Otho in Greece. Greek boundaries fixed.
 1833 Treaty of Unkiar Skelessi.
 1841 Straits closed to all foreign Warships.
 1854-56 Crimean War.
 1856 Treaty of Paris.
 1859 Rumania united under Prince Cuza.
 1863 King George in Greece.
 1863 Ionian Islands ceded to Greece.
 1866 Prince Carol in Rumania.
 1867 Turkish garrisons leave Serbia.
 1870 Bulgarian Exarchate instituted.
 1871 Black Sea clauses of Treaty of Paris annulled.
 1876 Bulgarian "atrocities."
 1876 Accession of Abdul Hamid. Turkish Constitution.
 1877-78 Russo-Turkish War.
 1878 Treaties of San Stefano and Berlin.
 1878 Formation of Albanian League.
 1879 Alexander Prince of Bulgaria.
 1881 Annexation of Thessaly and Arta to Greece.
 1881 Carol King of Rumania.
 1882 Milan King of Serbia.
 1885 Union of Eastern Rumania with Bulgaria.
 1885 Serbo-Bulgarian War.
 1886 Abdication of Prince Alexander.
 1887 Ferdinand Prince of Bulgaria.
 1890 First Bulgarian bishops in Macedonia.
 1896 Recognition of Prince Ferdinand by Turkey.
 1896 Last Cretan insurrection.
 1897 Græco-Turkish War.
 1898 Crete autonomous under Prince George.
 1899 New Albanian League.
 1899 Macedonian Committee's memorial to Powers.
 1903 Assassination of Alexander of Serbia. King Peter Kara-georgevich.
 1903 Austro-Russian and Mürzsteg schemes of reform.
 1905 British proposals. Financial Commission.
 1908 "Young Turk" Revolution.
 1908 Austria-Hungary annexes Bosnia and Herzegovina.
 1908 Crete proclaims union with Greece.
 1908. Bulgaria proclaims independence: Ferdinand Tsar.
 1909 Venizelos in Athens.
 1910 Nicolas of Montenegro becomes King.
 1912-13 First and second Balkan Wars.
 1913 King George of Greece assassinated: Constantine King.
 1913 Treaties of London and Bucarest and Turco-Bulgarian Treaty.

- 1914 Prince William of Wied in Albania.
1914 Autonomous government in North Epeiros. Convention of Corfu.
1914, July-Aug. Austria declares war on Serbia. Germany, Russia, France, and England declare war.
1914, Nov. Turkey joins German alliance.
1914, Nov. Cyprus annexed by Great Britain.
1914, Dec. Italy occupies Valona.
1915, Feb. Bombardment of Dardanelles.
1915, Apr.-Dec. Dardanelles expedition.
1915, May. Italy joins the Entente.
1915, Oct. Bulgaria joins Austro-German attack on Serbia.
1915, Oct. Allies occupy Salonika.
1916, Aug. Rumania joins the Entente.
1917, Mar. Russian Revolution.
1917, June Constantine deposed. Greece joins the Entente.
-

1. FOUNDATION OF NATIONALITIES

(The Eastern question is here treated mainly, if not exclusively, as it affects the States of the Balkan Peninsula, i.e., Rumania, Bulgaria, Serbia, Montenegro, Albania, Macedonia, Greece, and Turkey. The policy and interests of the Great Powers in Europe, Asia, and North Africa are only touched on so far as they directly affect this question.)

Introductory.—The beginning of the “Eastern question” is by some dated from the first appearance of the Slavs in the Balkan Peninsula; by others from the entry of the Turks into Macedonia, and subsequently into Constantinople. Its modern phase may be said to begin with the decadence of the Turkish Empire in the eighteenth century. This decadence had as its external result the encroachment of Austria and Russia from the north, and the constantly increasing intervention of Western Powers which felt their vital interests to be affected; while internally the weakening of the central authority admitted a growing conscious-

ness of nationality among the subject races, and a desire, as opportunity offered, to throw off the Turkish yoke and to attain independence.

The many problems offered by the Balkan Peninsula are due, in the main, to two causes—firstly, its geographical position on the borders of Europe and Asia, with their incompatible social, religious, and political ideals; secondly, to the succession of various races who have from time to time entered it as conquerors or as settlers, sometimes occupying definite areas, but frequently living side by side, with little mixture or amalgamation, in regions to which none of them can justify any exclusive claim. So long as a vigorous conqueror or a strong central government, such as that of Rome, of the stronger Byzantine Emperors, or of the Turkish Sultans, held them in subjection, they could live side by side in comparative tranquillity. But, as soon as this pressure was removed, they have shown a tendency to racial, dynastic, or national enmities which have led to internecine strife and laid waste the country. At the same time the great economic and commercial importance of the region, as controlling the main trade routes between East and West, affected even distant Powers. This importance, conspicuous in ancient and mediæval times, diminished with the preponderance of sea transport by the Cape; but it has revived again in recent times with the re-opening of the overland routes to India and the East, the construction of the Suez Canal, and the various projects for through railway communication between Europe and Asia.

Ancient History.—The first attempt to solve the Balkan problem may be attributed to the Persians, who tried to annex Thrace, Macedonia, and Greece to their great Asiatic Empire, but were subsequently driven back by the Greeks even from the coasts of Asia Minor. The tables were turned by Alexander, who may be said to have annexed Western Asia to Europe. The empire of Alexander and his successors, with its blend of European and oriental ideals, fell as a heritage to

Rome; but its civilisation, both in the Balkan Peninsula and in Asia Minor, was essentially Greek in character as well as in language.

Foundation of Rumanian Nationality.—An exception, however, must be made in the case of Trajan's conquest of Dacia; for the Roman colonists whom he planted beyond the Danube, mingling with the native Dacians, formed a community which still preserves, in language and in sympathy, and even in its name of Rumania, its connection with the Latin peoples of the West. This community was the first to be submerged by the barbarian inroads from the north and east; but the ancestors of the Rumanians withdrew to the mountains, to emerge again after the flood had subsided, and to produce one of the chief factors of the Balkan problem of the present day.

Byzantine Empire.—When Constantine transferred the centre of the Roman world to Constantinople, he conferred on the imperial city a prestige which it has retained through all subsequent vicissitudes. He renamed the city Constantinople, but its old name was not forgotten: and it is the tradition of the Byzantine Empire that has made, and still makes, the possession of Constantinople to be coveted by so many rival claimants. On the separation of the Eastern and Western Empires, the Balkan Peninsula and the adjacent portions of Asia Minor naturally formed the heart of the Byzantine State. The Patriarch of Constantinople claimed to be the head of "Orthodox" or Greek Christendom, thus exercising a religious and political authority which remained almost unimpaired, through various conquests, until the nineteenth century. But divergences in doctrine and practice, not only between Rome and the East but also between various Eastern parties and Churches, led to dissensions and disunion which, even before the approach of the Mohammedan danger, were tearing Christendom asunder, and effectually hindered any combination against a common enemy.

Foundation of Slav Nationalities.—Some of the

barbarian inroads, which were frequent from the fourth century onwards, were only transitory in their effect on the Balkan region; but others led to permanent settlements, which formed the basis of the various nationalities now found in the peninsula. First among these latter invaders were the Slavs, who appeared in Macedonia towards the end of the sixth century A.D., and spread throughout the Balkan Peninsula until they reached from the Danube right up to the north-east of the Adriatic. In the seventh century the Serbs, a Slavonic people, and the Bulgars, of Mongol or Tartar stock, but with Slavonic admixture and adopting a Slavonic language, entered the peninsula, and settled mainly, though not exclusively, in the countries now called by their names. The first to show a power of political organization were the Bulgarians. Their power reached its zenith under Tsar Simeon, whose empire early in the tenth century extended over almost the whole of the peninsula, except Greece and Southern Macedonia. The temporary revival of the Byzantine Empire under Basil, "the Bulgar-slayer," recovered this region for Byzantium in 1014; but in the next century a second Bulgarian Empire was founded, with Trnovo as its capital. A new danger threatened the Greek Empire from the west in the "Franks," who accompanied the Fourth Crusade, set up, in 1204, a Latin Emperor in Constantinople, and held possession, during the succeeding centuries, of Greece and many other parts of Byzantine territory. The Greek imperial dynasty, established meanwhile at Nicæa, recovered Constantinople in 1261; but the leading Power in the Balkans during the succeeding century was Serbia, which under Stephen Dushan acquired an empire, with its capital at Skoplje (Usküb), extending from the Danube to the Gulf of Corinth. It was against the Serbian danger that the Byzantine Emperor called in the aid of the Turks, and thereby diverted their energies in a direction that gave another century's respite to Constantinople.

2. THE TURKS IN EUROPE

Entry of Turks.—The Ottoman Turks, when they succeeded to the empire of the Seljuks in Asia Minor, knew how to take advantage of the political and administrative powers of the Greeks. Osman married his son to a Christian girl, and it has even been said that he “laid on Christian foundations the strength of his dynasty and his State.”¹ The vitality of the Ottoman nation has been in great measure due to such assimilation and actual transfusion of blood from subject races, notably in the case of the tribate of children and the formation of the corps of the Janissaries. In 1365 the Turks established their capital at Adrianople; in 1389 the disastrous defeat at Kosovo placed the Serbians at their mercy. Trnovo, the Bulgarian capital, was captured in 1393, and the Bulgarian Patriarchate abolished. Soon afterwards the whole of the Balkan Peninsula, except Greece and the immediate dependencies of Constantinople, fell into the power of the Turk, who was to exercise an unchallenged supremacy until the nineteenth century. Salonika in 1430, and Constantinople in 1453, shared the fate of the provinces they once had governed; and the Turks succeeded, in appearance as well as in fact, to the Eastern Empire. The Franks held out about a century longer in Greece and the islands; Rhodes was captured in 1522, Cyprus in 1571, and Crete in 1669. There is no need here to follow the expansion and subsequent shrinkage of Ottoman conquests in Europe, Asia, and North Africa. The highest point was reached about 1520, when, after acquiring the control of the sacred cities of the Hejaz, the Sultan of Turkey claimed the Caliphate, a title which, though not undisputed, is of the highest importance to the present day.

Intervention of Western Powers; French Privileges.
—The Great Powers of Western Europe, with their

¹ D. G. Hogarth, *The Balkans*, p. 325.

growing interests—commercial, political, and religious—in the East, could not long remain indifferent to the fortune of the rulers of Constantinople. During the earlier years of the Turkish Empire, though Venice took a leading part in fighting the Turks, the privileges granted under the Byzantine Empire to Venetian and other western merchants were renewed, and as the Turks themselves had no inclination or ability for commerce, much of the business of the chief ports was in the hands of “ Frank ” settlers, who usually lived in special quarters. Owing to the discrepancy between Oriental and European ideals of justice and administration, such communities came to desire extra-territorial rights; these were granted by the “ capitulations ” to the French in 1535, when Francis I, to the scandal of Christendom, made the first French alliance with Turkey, and when France was granted special privileges in connection with the Holy Places in and around Jerusalem, renewed on several occasions, notably in 1740 (p. 10). In 1607 it was agreed that Christians of all nations not represented at Constantinople by an Ambassador should be under French protection. Such intervention in the affairs of Turkey has given rise to many of the most serious episodes in the later relations between Turkey and the Powers. England acquired special capitulations in 1583, and again in 1675; and other Powers subsequently gained similar privileges.

Since 1607 France has from time to time claimed to be the official protector of Christians established in Turkey; but the claim has not been generally admitted. The claim of Austria to protect Roman Catholics dates from 1689, and that of Russia to protect Orthodox Christians from 1739. Recently, since 1880 and more especially since 1904, Italy has claimed the right to protect Italian missionaries.

Decline of Ottoman Empire: Austrian Protection of Catholics.—The successive defeats by which the Ottoman Power in Europe, after overrunning Hungary and twice, in 1529 and 1683, reaching the walls of Vienna, was driven back within the limits of the Balkan

Peninsula, affect the Eastern question most directly through the rights acquired by the Great Powers, especially Austria and Russia, to intervene in Balkan affairs. Thus, in 1689, Turkey had to recognise an Austrian protectorate of the Albanian Catholics, and by the Treaty of Karlowitz, in 1699, to promise protection to the Catholic religion within her borders, together with the proviso that the Austrian Ambassador might address complaints and requests to the Porte, both as to religion and as to the visits of pilgrims to the Holy Places at Jerusalem. These rights were confirmed by the Treaties of Passarowitz (1718) and Belgrade (1739) between Turkey and Austria. Austria had meanwhile received large accessions of Serbian immigrants, who had fled from Turkish oppression in the middle of the sixteenth century. The relations thus established between the Slavs in Austria and those beyond the Turkish frontier have ever since offered a difficult problem, and have exercised great influence on both sides of the border. The Treaty of Passarowitz, in 1718, was concluded by the mediation of Great Britain and Holland—an early instance of the intervention of Western Powers in Balkan arrangements. Austria acquired by it a considerable part of the Danubian principalities, Bosnia, and Serbia. On the other hand, Venice finally withdrew from the Morea and the Greek Archipelago, which remained for another century under the Turks: she retained, however, the Ionian Islands and her conquests in Albania and Dalmatia.

3. ADVANCE OF RUSSIA

Approach of Russia.—A new phase of the Eastern question began with the nearer approach of the Russians, who were bound by ties both of race and of religion to many of the subject peoples of European Turkey, and were already seeking an outlet to the Black Sea. So early as 1711, relations were established between Russia and Montenegro, a rapproche-

ment which had far-reaching effects on later policy. Acting in concert with Austria, Russia claimed in 1739 the north coast of the Black Sea from the Danube to the Caucasus, with the right of navigation in the sea and through the straits. But France, who had already, in 1684, subsidised the Sultan against a "holy alliance," intervened in support of what was to be her settled policy from this time on—the preservation of the integrity of the Turkish Empire. By the Treaty of Belgrade (1739) Austria had to give up all her possessions in the Balkan Peninsula. Russia agreed to retire from the Black Sea, and Russian trade in that sea was to be carried in Turkish ships; she, made, however, a stipulation for the protection of Russian pilgrims to the Holy Places. French prestige and influence in Turkey were greatly increased by this treaty. The renewed "capitulations" of 1740 gave many privileges to French subjects in the Ottoman dominions, including that control of the Holy Places in Palestine which was to be the immediate cause of the Crimean War.

Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji: Schemes of Catherine of Russia.—Russia, after this temporary set-back, made further advances in the Balkan region between 1769 and 1774; and the Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji (App. I), in the latter year, marks an epoch. By it Russia gained command of the whole north coast of the Black Sea, the right of free commercial navigation in that sea, and the establishment of a permanent Russian Embassy in Constantinople; she also acquired a right to protect all Orthodox Christians in Turkey, and even, in the case of the Danubian principalities and the islands, to require better government as well as a free exercise of religion. In 1783 the Crimea was formally annexed. But Russia did not operate from the north only. She sent a fleet into the Ægean, which, with the help of British officers, inflicted several defeats upon the Turks; and her emissaries stirred up, in 1770, an insurrection in the Morea, which, though suppressed at the time, anticipated the events of fifty years later. The Empress Catherine, in conjunction with Austria

even drew up a grandiose scheme for the dismemberment of European Turkey and the revival of the Greek Empire in Constantinople. The scheme came to nothing, but by the Treaty of Jassy in 1792 Russia retained all she had won, and her frontier was advanced to the Dniester. These Russian acquisitions excited the apprehensions of the younger Pitt, who tried, in 1788 and 1790, without much success, to arouse attention to them both in England and outside it.

Napoleonic Era.—The Napoleonic era brought a respite to the decaying Ottoman Empire, firstly by distracting Russia from her southerly advance, and secondly through the rivalry of France and England, which led each of them in turn to threaten and to support the Power holding the gate of the East. Napoleon's project of a French empire in the East led him to Egypt; and he secured the Ionian Islands in 1797 as an intermediate post of essential importance. The Venetian possessions on the Dalmatian coast passed to Austria by the Treaty of Campo Formio in the same year. The battle of the Nile in 1798, and the defeat of the French in Egypt in 1801, restored the prestige of England in the Levant; and the integrity of Turkey was guaranteed by the Peace of Amiens in 1802. But Napoleon's Eastern schemes were not abandoned; by a secret clause of the Treaty of Tilsit in 1807, and at a conference with the Russian Tsar at Erfurt in 1808, a partition of the Turkish territory in Europe was contemplated. France was to obtain Albania, Greece, the Ægean Islands, the chief seaports of Asia Minor, Egypt, and perhaps Syria: Russia was to acquire the Danubian principalities and adjacent territory; while Austria was to receive accessions in the north and west of the Balkan Peninsula. But it was found impossible to come to an agreement as to Constantinople and the Dardanelles, which Russia demanded as essential to her access to the Mediterranean; she refused to be satisfied with the establishment of Constantinople as an independent free city. It is to be noted that this scheme, like that drawn up by Russia and Austria some thirty

years earlier, took no account of the principle of nationality, so strongly to be emphasised in the succeeding period—and this although Prince Czartoriski, one of the earliest advocates of Pan Slavism, had at the time a leading position in the counsels of Russia. It had, however, no practical result, and Napoleon soon had his hands full elsewhere. The Ionian Islands, despite his belief in their military value to France, became an independent State under the protection of Russia and Turkey in 1800, and passed to Great Britain in 1815. The French occupied Cattaro from 1807 to 1813, when it was captured by the Montenegrins with British help, but was soon afterwards returned to Austria.

The Eastern question was ignored by the Congress of Vienna, and affairs in Turkey were left to settle themselves, though Castlereagh had suggested that the Powers should give a territorial guarantee of the general settlement, in which the dominions of the Porte were to be included. The French Revolution and its sequel had, however, deeply impressed the Balkan peoples; and, although their aspirations were constantly opposed by the reactionary forces represented in the Congress, they could no longer be restrained.

State of Balkan Peoples at the Beginning of the Nineteenth Century.—Before proceeding to the epoch of national revivals and wars of independence which mark the next century in the Balkans, it seems advisable to make a brief survey of the position of the various peoples concerned at the beginning of this period.

Montenegro alone, secure in its mountain fastnesses, had never submitted to the Turks, though constantly at war with them; and its independence was recognised by a firman of 1799. All the rest of the peninsula, south of the Austrian and Russian frontiers, was under Turkish rule, though some portions of it possessed a more or less independent administration.

Moldavia and Wallachia.—Moldavia and Wallachia were governed by a succession of Constantinopolitan Greek princes, whose rule was unpopular among the

Rumanian population, and who did little or nothing for the development of the country. The people consequently looked to their northern neighbour for help against Turk and Greek alike, while Russia acquired treaty rights of protecting the religion and political interests of the people of these provinces; up to this time it was geographical proximity rather than racial affinities which dictated her policy. She repeatedly occupied the country during the war with Turkey, and in 1812, by the Treaty of Bucarest, annexed the district of Bessarabia, under which name was included the part of Moldavia lying between the Dniester and the Pruth.

In connection with Moldavia and Wallachia, later to be united as Rumania, must be mentioned the *Vlachs*, or Koutso-Vlachs, who speak a Romance language closely allied to Rumanian. They are found mostly on Mount Pindus, in Thessaly, and in south Albania, and have recently been the object of nationalist propaganda on the part of the Rumanians, who claim them as kinsmen. Their origin is obscure, and they have frequently been classified as Greek: most of them speak that language as well as their own; they have no separate religious organization, but belong to the Greek Orthodox Church. It has been suggested that they are, like the Rumanians, survivors of the original inhabitants Latinised by Roman colonists, as no Rumanian migration into their districts is recorded.

Bulgaria.—The rest of the Balkan Peninsula was divided into provinces under Turkish governors, though none of the subject peoples had entirely forgotten its ancient or mediæval traditions, and some more or less successful efforts at national and literary revivals had been made in the eighteenth century. But so far all attempts to throw off the Turkish yoke had been defeated. Bulgaria, as lying nearest the centre of Turkish rule, was the most completely suppressed, and consequently was the last to recover any degree of independence. With the exception of such nobles and peasants as adopted Islam at various periods, the

Bulgarians remained Christians, but under the Greek Œcumenical Patriarchate.

Serbia.—Serbia was in proximity to Austria, which had actually occupied a large portion of Serbian territory from 1718 to 1739, and included within her borders many Serbian refugees and other kindred peoples; the example and help of Montenegro, whither many of the Serbian landowners who remained Christian had migrated, were also close at hand. The peasants had mostly retained their Christian religion, but the land was in the possession of Moslem converts. Both alike were oppressed by the Janissaries, who, especially the more turbulent of them, were sent away from Constantinople into this remote district. The Serbians might have been content to remain under the rule of the Sultan; it was not against this, but against the Janissaries, that they raised the insurrection which was finally to lead them to independence.

Albania.—The fierce mountaineers of Albania, constantly at feud both with one another and with their Christian neighbours, had never been completely subjugated by the Turks. But many of them had turned Moslems, chiefly in order to retain the privilege of bearing arms; and they became in many ways a privileged people. They served in the Turkish army on special terms; they long supplied the Sultan's bodyguard; and many of them were settled in different parts of the Balkan Peninsula to overawe or to replace the Christian population. A considerable number of Albanians had at various times migrated into Greece, where they rapidly became assimilated, and contributed in no small degree to the success of the Greek war of independence. In the south of Albania also, where Greek was used as the official language, the native population had become more or less completely Hellenised; Yanina, in particular, was for a long time an important centre of Greek educational and literary activity. The Albanians had only occasionally shown any power of combining together, notably under George Kastriotis (Skanderbeg)

in 1443-67. At the beginning of the nineteenth century the famous Ali Pasha, who had been appointed Pasha of Yanina in 1788, had practically united the whole of Southern Albania under his rule, until he finally defied the Sultan and was overthrown and assassinated in 1822. His action had no small influence on the outbreak of the Greek insurrection in 1821. Ali's contemporary, Mustapha Pasha Bushati, acquired almost equal power and influence as ruler of Northern Albania; but this also was ephemeral.

Greece.—If Bulgaria and Serbia were inspired by recollections of their earlier history, still more was this the case with the Greeks, who were proud of the classical traditions of their race, and claimed a more direct succession to the glories of the Byzantine Empire. Not only could they lay claim to that empire as Greek in language and traditions, but, even after it had fallen to the Turks, Greek officials had retained a considerable degree of power in its administration. Above all, the Greek Œcumenical Patriarch of Constantinople was head of the Orthodox Church throughout the Turkish dominions; and Greek and Christian had come to be used as almost synonymous terms. The prestige and power thus acquired by the Greeks were a great advantage to them; but they also led to much jealousy and resentment on the part of less privileged Christian races, whose desire for ecclesiastical liberation from the Greeks was as keen as their wish for political independence of the Turks. The Greeks not only inhabited the present Greek Kingdom and the islands and coast of Asia Minor, but they also formed rich and intelligent communities in Constantinople, Odessa, and many other European cities; and the influence of these "Greeks outside Greece" has always been an important factor in the progress and policy of the Greek people.

4. RISE OF INDEPENDENT STATES

Wars of Independence; Serbia.—The first of the Balkan peoples to attain virtual independence,

under a ruler of their own choosing, were the Serbians. Their insurrection under Kara George in 1804 was directed against the oppression of the Janissaries. After it had attained its object, however, they offered to place themselves under the protectorate first of Austria and then of Russia; but they had to submit again to Turkish rule in 1812, only gaining by the Treaty of Bucarest a promise of a certain measure of self-government. A second rising in 1815 led to the recognition by all the headmen of Milosh Obrenovich as their chief, with hereditary rights, in 1817; but he was not formally invested as hereditary prince by the Sultan until 1830. Serbian politics have ever since been complicated by the rivalry of the dynasties of Karageorgevich and Obrenovich. Independence of Turkish suzerainty was not attained until the Treaty of Berlin in 1878. Ecclesiastical independence of the Patriarchate of Constantinople was attained in 1831, when the Serbian Church became autocephalous under the Metropolitan of Belgrade.

Greece.—The turn of the Greeks came next, and they aimed from the first at emancipation from the Turkish yoke. Their chief centre of organization was the "Friendly Society," which had many branches outside Greece. An invasion of the Danubian provinces in 1821, under Alexander Ypsilantes, was easily suppressed; but better success attended a simultaneous rising in the Morea, and continued until Mehemet Ali of Egypt sent a strong force to the assistance of the Turks in 1825. The Western Powers at first showed little official sympathy with the insurgents; but Philhellene volunteers, especially British and French, came to their assistance, and contributed in no small degree to the success of their arms, both by land and sea, as well as to a strong movement of public feeling in their favour; London and Paris could not forget the debt of the civilised world to ancient Greece. These considerations, combined with a jealousy of Russia's separate intervention, induced France and England to send a naval expedition

to the Levant and to enforce an armistice. The three combined fleets, acting on the circumstances of the moment, inflicted on the Turkish fleet at Navarino a crushing defeat, which again turned the fortunes of the war in favour of the Greeks (1827). French troops were landed in the Morea, and the insurgents gained further successes, while the forces of Turkey were diverted to meet a new Russian invasion of the Danubian provinces. In the resultant Treaty of Adrianople, in 1829, the independence of Greece was one of the stipulations. The frontiers of the new nation, drawn from the Gulf of Volo to the Gulf of Arta, and including the islands of the archipelago, but excluding Crete, were fixed by Great Britain, France, and Russia, who acted in common, then, as later, as the three protecting Powers (App. II).

By the Protocol of London (1830) Greece was recognised as an independent monarchical State. Its government had already given rise to serious difficulties; presidents of Greek origin and the requisite experience, such as the Phanariote Mavrokordatos and the Corfiote Capo d'Istria, had been unable to impose their authority upon their fellow-countrymen. It was consequently agreed to adopt the policy ever since followed, as occasion arose in the emergence of a Balkan State from Turkish domination, of setting over it as king or prince a junior member of some dynasty of Northern or Western Europe. The choice in this case finally fell on Otto of Bavaria, who was accordingly installed as King of Greece, with the support of Bavarian Ministers and a body of Bavarian troops. The new kingdom, however, only included a comparatively small proportion of the Greeks in the Turkish Empire; and ample scope was left for Greek irredentism, which formed during the succeeding century the mainspring of the nation's policy.

The Treaty of Adrianople had other important consequences elsewhere. In Wallachia and Moldavia, where in 1822 the Phanariote Greeks had been replaced by princes of native origin, a Russian

protectorate was established; and the rights of Turkey as suzerain were limited to a monetary tribute and the right of investiture of the princes, who were to be elected by national assemblies and to hold office for life. From this time onward French sympathies, already encouraged by the Greek princes, grew rapidly stronger with the growing consciousness of Latin nationality, and have ever since characterised the feelings of the Rumanian people. The treaty also secured freedom of navigation in the Black Sea and in the Straits for merchant ships proceeding to or from Russia; but the Dardanelles remained closed to men-of-war, as agreed by the Treaty of Constantinople between Great Britain and Turkey in 1809.

Turkish Reforms; Russian Advance; Treaty of Unkiar Skelessi.—At this time the Ottoman Empire was threatened not only with partition from without, but by disintegration from within. Its powerful vassals, Mehemet Ali in Egypt and Ali Pasha in Yanina, had set up what were virtually independent States. The drastic reforms of the Sultan Mahmud II (1808-39) and the extermination of the Janissaries in 1826 gave new life to the Turkish power; but for a time they weakened and disorganized its military efficiency. Russia profited by the opportunity to assert more strongly her claims to predominance in the Balkans. By the Convention of Akkerman in 1826 she was recognised as protector of the Serbs and of the Danubian Principalities. During the revolt of Mehemet Ali of Egypt she came to the assistance of Turkey, and obtained as her reward, in 1833, the Treaty of Unkiar Skelessi (App. III), which constituted the high-water mark of her influence at Constantinople.

This was nominally a defensive alliance between the two countries; but by a secret clause Turkey undertook to close the Dardanelles against the warships of all other nations except Russia, thereby overriding the treaty of 1809, by which the Straits were closed to all

warships. The Treaty of Unkiar Skelessi caused the gravest apprehensions in England and France; and from that time on the "integrity of the Turkish Empire" became an essential part of the "balance of power" which was the dominating factor in European policy. After several years of stormy and complicated negotiations, the Treaty of London of 1841 was concluded between England, France, Russia, Prussia, and Austria, these five Powers giving joint sanction to an arrangement by which any separate protectorate over Turkish subjects, whether on the part of Russia or of France, was repudiated. As perfect equality before the law had been declared between all Ottoman subjects, of whatever religion or sect, by the Tanzimat of 1839, the need for such external protection appeared to be abolished. Turkey recovered Syria, Crete, and Arabia from Mehemet Ali; and the Dardanelles and Bosphorus were again closed to all foreign ships of war so long as the Turkish Empire was at peace (App. IV).

Events leading up to Crimean War.—Russia did not long acquiesce in her rebuff of 1841, but again began to press her claim to a protectorate over the Christian subjects of the Sultan. Matters were brought to a head by a dispute as to the custody of the Holy Places in Syria with the French, who claimed rights accorded to them by the capitulations of 1535 and 1740. The causes of the Crimean War must, however, be sought in the determination of England and France to check Russian aggression in the Balkan region. Turkey had to make concessions to France, backed by other Catholic Powers, as to the Holy Places; but Russia protested, and Prince Menshikoff was sent to Constantinople to reassert the Russian claim to a general protectorate over all Orthodox Christians in the Levant. In 1853 Lord Stratford de Redcliffe returned to Constantinople. The Tsar, anxious to come to a separate understanding with England, represented that the dissolution of the Ottoman Empire was imminent, and proposed to occupy Constantinople, offering

Crete and Egypt as compensation to England. This offer was refused; and France also, under Napoleon III, adopted an uncompromising attitude. Russia thereupon occupied the Danubian principalities; not, it was explained, as an act of war, but as a material guarantee of her rights. An attempt to avert war was made; and representatives of Great Britain, France, Austria, and Prussia met at Vienna, and presented a joint note to Russia and Turkey reaffirming the adherence of the Porte to the letter and spirit of the Treaties of Kuchuk Kainarji and Adrianople "relative to the protection of the Christian religion." This last phrase, however, was ambiguous; and the Porte, instigated by the British Ambassador, proposed to make them clear by the insertion of the words "by the Sublime Porte" after "the Christian religion." This did not satisfy Russia, and war became inevitable. The Russian forces withdrew from the principalities before the Turkish attack, and they were occupied during the war, under an arrangement with the Porte, by an Austrian army. The objects of the Crimean War, as defined by Lord Clarendon, were to deprive Russia of the treaty rights in virtue of which she had occupied the principalities; to guard Turkey against attack from the Russian navy in the Black Sea; to secure the free navigation of the Danube by removing Russia's uncontrolled possession of the principal mouth; and to remove the ambiguity in the Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji as to "the protection of the Christian religion."

Action of Balkan States during Crimean War.

—The history of the war is too familiar to need repetition; but an event of great significance is the adherence of Sardinia to the alliance, thereby entitling Italy to a place in the Concert of Europe on the Eastern question. The effect of the war on the different States and peoples of the Balkan Peninsula varied considerably in accordance with their interests and sympathies. Greece was in sympathy with Russia, and showed a desire to seize the opportunity

of annexing Epeiros, Thessaly, and Macedonia, a design which was thwarted by the occupation of the Piræus from 1854-57 by Anglo-French troops. Serbia was at the time under the influence of Austria, and was under obligations to both sides. The Prince was on the side of the English, who had supported his recognition, and of the Turks; the people were mainly pro-Russian. The country organized its army, but maintained an armed neutrality; as a reward, it obtained a collective guarantee from the Powers. Montenegro, in accordance with its traditions, was even more in favour of Russia; the Prince had difficulty in restraining his subjects, and hostilities against the Turks actually took place. Turkey offered to give the Prince Herzegovina and a Turkish title in return for an acknowledgment of suzerainty; but he could not go so far. Albania had no collective policy; the Mirdites, under their Prince, joined the Turks. Bulgaria and Macedonia had, as yet, no independent existence. Wallachia and Moldavia played a passive part, first offering a battleground to Russians and Turks, and then submitting to Austrian occupation. Their destiny, as one of the immediate causes of the war, was decided by the Treaty of Paris (App. V).

Treaty of Paris.—The Treaty of Paris, in 1856, is notable as the first example of an agreement between Turkey and the six great European Powers which have since formed the Concert of Europe on the Eastern question. Great Britain, France, Sardinia, Turkey, and Russia had actively participated in the war, and Austria indirectly by her occupation of the principalities; Prussia was also represented. The Six Powers declared the Sublime Porte admitted to participate in the advantages of the Public Law and System of Europe. An attempt was made to settle the main questions which had given rise to the war by a guarantee, on the part of the Six Powers, of the independence and territorial integrity of the Ottoman Empire, and a statement that they would consider any

act of violation a question of general interest (App. VI). It is to be observed

“ that it was a common or collective, and not an individual, guarantee; and, as no Power other than one of the six was likely to make a serious attack upon Turkey, there was little value in the guarantee, though no doubt the statement that any attack upon Turkey would be a question of general interest might afford a justification for any one or more of the Six Powers assisting Turkey in the event of an attack by any of the other Powers. . . By Article 9 it was stated that note was taken of a communication by the Sultan of the firman which he had issued for the benefit of his Christian subjects, and the firman was welcomed. But it was stipulated* that this was to give the Powers no right to interfere collectively or separately in the relations of the Sultan with his subjects, or in the internal administration of Turkey. . . Nevertheless, from that date till the Russo-Turkish War and the Treaty of Berlin, in 1878, the Christian Powers who had come to the assistance of Turkey in the Crimean War and the other Congress Powers felt themselves bound in honour from time to time, as special outbreaks of misgovernment, injustice, or cruelty on the part of the Porte towards its Christian subjects occurred, to offer remonstrances.”¹

It was repeatedly stated during this period that no Power sought or would seek any exclusive influence in the fulfilment of these common obligations, France alone reserving her rights as to the Holy Places in Palestine.²

By Articles 22 and 27 the positions of Moldavia and Wallachia were regulated, and a national convention was to be held in each province to decide their definite organization, which was placed under the collective guarantee of the Powers; this organization included

¹ Sir W. G. F. Phillimore, *Three Centuries of Treaties of Peace* (London, 1917), p. 78.

² The question has appeared in a new form since the beginning of the present century, owing to the formal recognition secured by certain Powers for their religious, charitable, or educational institutions in Turkey. Between 1901 and 1903 this was done by France, Russia, Germany, and Britain. After 1904 Italy sought to secure protection over her Catholic missions, but France has never renounced her privileges in this matter, especially in Syria.

the establishment of a national armed force. They were, however, to remain under the suzerainty of the Porte. Southern Bessarabia was ceded by Russia to Moldavia. The rights of Serbia were similarly guaranteed, though the word suzerainty is not used in this case. By Articles 10-14 the provisions of previous treaties as to closing the Straits to ships of war were renewed; the Black Sea was neutralised, and no naval arsenals were to be established or maintained on its coast by either Turkey or Russia; its waters were to be open to the mercantile marine of all nations; but no ships of war were to be allowed upon it, except light vessels used by the embassies and police vessels for the Danube.

Dardanelles Question.—These restrictions were offensive to Russia, who seized the opportunity offered by the Franco-German War of 1870 to claim their abrogation.¹ This was done by the Treaty of London in 1871, but a provision was annexed that the Porte might

“ open the said Straits in time of peace to the vessels of war of friendly or allied Powers, in case [it] should judge it necessary in order to secure the execution of the stipulations of the Treaty of Paris.”

By a separate treaty, concluded a fortnight after the Treaty of Paris, Great Britain, France, and Austria agreed to guarantee the integrity of the Ottoman Empire, and to regard any infringement of it as a *casus belli*.

5. BULGARIA AND MACEDONIA

Further Assertions of Nationality in Balkans.—The next fourteen years after the Treaty of Paris passed without any decisive crisis in the development of the Eastern question; but several significant events took place during this interval, all in the direction of the assertion of nationality on the part of the subject peoples, and their attainment of a further degree of

¹ Appendix VII, VIII.

independence. The national conventions of Wallachia and Moldavia agitated for the union of the two principalities, and, after meeting with opposition, settled the matter themselves by both electing the same prince, Colonel Cuza, with the title Alexander I, and thereby forming for the first time a united Rumania (1859). On Cuza's abdication, in 1866, Prince Carol of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen was elected his successor; and thus Rumania, like Greece, adopted a foreign dynasty. In 1864 the Rumanian branch of the Orthodox Church was declared independent, national, and autocephalous; and this change, though it was not recognised by the Œcumenical Patriarchate until 1885, separated another large body of Orthodox Christians from Greek supremacy.

Greece had been strengthened in 1863 by the expulsion of Otho and the election as King of the Danish Prince George; and with the acquisition of the Ionian Islands, bestowed on Greece by Britain, came a renewal of the guarantee of the Greek territory and Constitution by the three protecting Powers—Britain, France, and Russia. It is on the basis of this guarantee that they have recently asserted the right to intervene in the internal affairs of Greece. Serbia also gained a step forward by obtaining, in 1867, the final withdrawal of Turkish garrisons from Belgrade and other fortresses within her boundaries.

The Bulgarian Exarchate.—The modern, or Macedonian, phase of the Eastern question may be said to begin with the creation of the Bulgarian Exarchate in 1870. The Bulgarians had had no political existence since their subjugation by the Turks in 1393; and the simultaneous abolition of the Bulgarian Patriarchate of Trnovo had left them without any separate religious recognition; all alike were reckoned as Greek Orthodox Christians, and as subject to the Œcumenical Patriarch at Constantinople. The Greeks fully realised the meaning of this new departure; but, in spite of their opposition, the first Exarch was appointed in

1872, to reside, like the Greek Patriarch, at Constantinople. Thus the Bulgarians obtained an ecclesiastical independence for which they had been agitating for about thirty-five years, having even, in 1860, seriously contemplated transferring their allegiance from the Eastern Church to Rome. The new Exarchate, gained chiefly by Russian influence, rapidly led to further successes in the assertion of their submerged nationality; and Europe generally became for the first time aware of the existence of a people which was soon to take an important place in Balkan problems.

Bulgarian "Atrocities": Russo-Turkish War.—The disturbances leading up to the Russo-Turkish War of 1877-78 began, in 1875, with an insurrection in Herzegovina; in the war against Turkey which followed, Serbia and Montenegro were only saved by the intervention of Russia. Another rising, in 1876, in Bulgaria was repressed by irregular troops by means of the notorious Bulgarian atrocities, which alienated the sympathies of the Western Powers from Turkey. The Berlin Memorandum, by Germany, Austria, and Russia, started negotiations which led to a Conference of the Six Great Powers at Constantinople; reforms in administration in the Turkish provinces were proposed, but Turkey refused to accept the two main principles of an International Commission to superintend the carrying out of the reforms and the participation of the Powers in the appointment of the Christian Valis, who were to be named for five years as Governors of the two provinces of Bulgaria; and consequently the Conference broke up without reaching any result. Turkey, during its sittings, took the opportunity to promulgate a new and liberally reformed Constitution for the Ottoman Empire, including representative government. The proposals of the Powers were, however, insisted on by the Protocol of London, but again rejected by the Porte; Russia decided to intervene, and declared war upon Turkey in April 1877.

During the war, Rumania, who formally declared her independence, at first only gave free passage to the Russian armies through her territory; but later she took an active part in the fighting, and contributed in no small degree to its successful issue. Serbia also joined in, after the fall of Plevna, and captured Pirot, Nish, and Vrania; while Montenegro occupied Spizza, Antivari, and Dulcigno, thus obtaining at last an outlet to the sea. Greece alone of the Balkan States was not a belligerent, being restrained by promises, mainly on the part of England, that her interests would be considered at the conclusion of the war.

Before the conclusion of peace the British Government sent to Russia a Memorandum stating that no treaty made between Russia and Turkey, affecting the treaties of 1856 and 1871, would be considered valid without the assent of the Powers who were parties to those treaties. Consequently, the Treaty of San Stefano was discussed at a Conference held in Berlin in 1878, and was considerably modified by the Treaty of Berlin. The provisions of the two treaties are, therefore, best taken together, so that the effects of these modifications may be appreciated (App. IX, X).

Treaties of San Stefano and Berlin: Bulgaria.—The distinguishing feature of the map of the Balkans, as drawn up by the Treaty of San Stefano, was the new principality of Bulgaria, which was to include not only most of the present Bulgaria, but also nearly the whole of Macedonia, with Pirot, Vrania, Üsküb (Skoplye), Okhrida, and Monastir on the west, and Koritsa, Kastoria, Yenitsa, and Kavalla on the south, Salonika, the Khalkidike, and Adrianople being excluded. Apart from these exclusions, this "big Bulgaria" has become the ruling ambition of the Bulgarian people, to whom it would have given a strong predominance in the Balkan Peninsula; and it has consequently been the bugbear of all the other Balkan States. Partly in their interests and that of Turkey, but still more from fear that the new principality would be under Russian influence, the Berlin Conference

reduced its territory to the area between the Danube and the Balkans, and formed the region south of that range into a new province, with the name of Eastern Rumelia. As regards the government and administration of the new principality, there was no great difference between the Russian proposals and those accepted by the Conference. The Prince was to be freely elected by the population, and confirmed by the Porte, with the assent of the Powers, members of whose reigning dynasties were ineligible. Before the election of a Prince an Organic Law for the principality was to be drawn up by an assembly of notables; and religious freedom was to be assured. A tribute was to be paid to Turkey, whose suzerainty was acknowledged; to this was added, by the Conference, a fair proportion of the Ottoman Public Debt.

The new province of *Eastern Rumelia*, created by the Berlin Conference, was to be "under the direct political and military authority" of the Sultan, "under conditions of administrative autonomy." It was to have a Christian Governor-General, nominated by the Porte, with the assent of the Powers, for a term of five years. A European Commission was to be formed to arrange its organization.

The independence of *Rumania*, proclaimed in 1877, was recognised by both treaties; but that of Berlin made it conditional on the possession of equal civil and political rights by all persons, whatever their religious creed or profession. The frontier between Russia and Rumania, though they had fought in alliance, was modified by the restoration to Russia of the portion of Bessarabia, north of the Kilia mouth of the Danube, which Russia had ceded to Moldavia by the Treaty of Paris in 1856. Rumania was compensated by obtaining the whole of the Dobruja and a strip to the south of it between Silistria and the Black Sea.

The articles as to the independence of *Serbia* were similar to those affecting Rumania in both treaties, except that Serbia had also to bear a portion of the Ottoman National Debt. The two treaties, however,

differed considerably as to the new territory assigned to her. That of San Stefano had given her not only the district of Nish and the upper valley of the Morava, but also a region to the west of it, extending close to Novibazar and Mitrovitsa. For this western region the Treaty of Berlin substituted the district around Pirot and Vrania, on the south-east, which Serbia had occupied during the war, but which the Treaty of San Stefano assigned to Bulgaria.

The independence of *Montenegro* was recognised by the Porte and by "all those of the High Contracting Parties who had not hitherto admitted it." Her frontiers, according to the Treaty of Berlin, were extended on almost all sides beyond those before the war, though considerably within those proposed at San Stefano. The frontier, as defined at San Stefano, on the north-east side, approached close to the Serbian boundary, leaving only the narrowest of corridors to connect Bosnia with Macedonia; at Berlin this frontier was moved back, so as to leave a larger intervening space, which, as the Sanjak of Novibazar, has since played a prominent part in Balkan arrangements. On the side of the Adriatic, Montenegro retained the port she had acquired at Antivari, though under severe restrictions as to its use; but she had to give up Spizza, which commands it, and Dulcigno; the last she recovered, after further negotiations, two years later.

The rest of *Macedonia*, taken away from the "big Bulgaria" by the Treaty of Berlin, was restored to the Ottoman Empire; but it was stipulated by Article 23 that the Organic Law drawn up for Crete in 1868

"shall also be introduced into the other parts of Turkey in Europe for which no special organization has been provided by the present treaty. The Sublime Porte shall depute special Commissions, in which the native element shall be largely represented, to settle the details of the new laws in each province. The schemes of organization resulting from these labours shall be submitted for examination to the Sublime Porte, which, before promulgating the Acts for putting them into force, shall consult the European Commission instituted for Eastern Rumelia."

This revision accordingly took place in 1880, but it was not sanctioned by the Porte or put into force; and Macedonia consequently remained for the next thirty-five years a constant source of trouble to the Powers, and of intrigue and rivalry among the contending nationalities.

The provinces of *Bosnia* and *Herzegovina* were to be occupied and administered by Austria; the Sanjak of Novibazar, separating Serbia from Montenegro, was to continue under Ottoman administration, but to be garrisoned by Austria. By a convention between Britain and Turkey, signed at Constantinople ten days before the meeting of the Berlin Conference, Cyprus was to be occupied and administered by Britain, on condition that,

“if Batum, Ardahan, or Kars, 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, 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 these territories.”

Further undertakings on the part of the Porte as to the protection of the Armenians and other Christians were included in the Berlin Treaty.

Greece, not having been a belligerent, was not mentioned in the Treaty of San Stefano; but, in redemption of the promise made to her, an extension of her frontiers in Epeiros and Thessaly was discussed at Berlin and agreed to by all the Powers except Turkey. No decision on the matter was recorded in the treaty, but in the event of Turkey and Greece being unable to agree upon the rectification suggested, the Six Great Powers “reserved to themselves to offer their mediation.” This was accordingly done; and, after protracted negotiations, the new frontier, giving Greece Thessaly and Epeiros as far as Arta, was agreed upon by a convention signed at Constantinople in May 1881.

Such were the immediate results of the Treaty of Berlin. It had made a complete change in the map of the Balkan Peninsula, but the position of the subject peoples remaining under Ottoman administration was in no way ameliorated. Soon after, to enhance their prestige, two of the independent States gave to their Princes the title of King—Rumania in 1881 and Serbia in 1882.

Albanian League.—The proposals of the Treaty of San Stefano greatly alarmed the Albanians; and in 1878, by the formation of the Albanian League, yet another Balkan nationality began formally to assert itself. The Albanians, though not showing much power of political coherence, have at least made an effectual protest against the parcelling out of their country among alien and unsympathetic neighbours. In contrast, however, to other Balkan peoples, their aim was not, at this time or later, complete independence, but the maintenance of the sovereignty of the Sultan and the inviolability of his dominions, so far as their own district was concerned.

Union of Bulgaria and Eastern Rumelia.—The first breach in the compromise agreed upon at Berlin was due to its separation of Eastern Rumelia from Bulgaria. In 1879 Prince Alexander of Battenberg was elected first Prince of Bulgaria, in accordance with the treaty; and his election was confirmed by the Sultan and by the Powers. In Eastern Rumelia there was from the first an agitation for union, which increased as the predominant Russian influence became more unpopular in that province as well as in Bulgaria. Consequently, when, in 1885, the union of the two was proclaimed after a bloodless revolution at Philippopolis, the positions taken up by Russia and England respectively at Berlin were inverted. Russia opposed the union; while England, represented at Constantinople by Sir William White, realized that a strong Bulgaria was a barrier against Russian aggression, and for some years to come gave her support to Stamboloff, now the leading spirit in Bulgarian

politics. A conference of ambassadors at Constantinople, by the Convention of Tophane, conferred on the Prince of Bulgaria the Governor-Generalship of Eastern Rumelia; and thus the union became an established fact.

The other Balkan States were greatly alarmed at this accession of strength to Bulgaria, in whom both Serbia and Greece saw a formidable rival to their national ambitions. Serbia declared war, but was defeated by the Bulgarians at Slivnitsa, and was only saved from further disaster by the intervention of Austria. The Peace of Bucarest (1885) re-established the *status quo*. Greece was prevented from taking similar action by an international blockade.

In 1886 Prince Alexander was forced by Russian intrigue to abdicate. A year later Prince Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg was elected as his successor, though Russia and Turkey did not withdraw their opposition to his recognition until 1896. Sympathy with Bulgaria on the part of the other Powers had meanwhile been alienated by the assassination of Stamboloff in 1895.

Macedonian Question.—During the twenty-five years which followed the union of the two Bulgarias, interest in the Near East was mainly centred in the Macedonian question.¹ After the Treaty of Berlin, in 1878, each of the Balkan races was represented by an independent State, which regarded itself as the champion of its unredeemed kinsmen, and set before itself as a national aspiration and policy the inclusion of those kinsmen within its boundaries. These several policies were irreconcilable, partly because the various races inhabiting Macedonia did not occupy separate or clearly-defined areas, still more because it was disputable to which race many communities or families belonged, and no criteria of language, religion, or national sympathy were generally accepted. In these circumstances, almost unlimited

¹This is more fully treated in *Macedonia*, No. 21 of this series.

scope was offered to the various national propaganda organized within the independent States, and exercised in Macedonia, sometimes through schools, churches, peaceful emissaries, and other legitimate means; sometimes by the less defensible method of armed bands or *komitajis*, who too often aimed at forcible conversion. The main influences at work in Macedonia were Greek and Bulgarian. In 1890 Stamboloff obtained the appointment of the first Bulgarian bishops to the sees of Okhrida and Skoplye, and two more were appointed in 1894. The Œcumenical Patriarch protested, but was unable to prevent these appointments, which seriously affected the ecclesiastical predominance of the Greeks. Serbia had an interest in Old Serbia and the region round her historical capital at Skoplye, as well as in Bosnia and Herzegovina and the other Southern Slav districts. The Koutso-Vlachs or Macedonian Rumanians had started a national propaganda of their own through schools and other means, and had protested against the transfer of the Thessalian Vlachs to Greece. They could hardly, however, look either for independence or annexation to Rumania, nor would they make common cause with any other Balkan people. There were also, in addition to the Moslem sections of the indigenous population, many Turkish or Anatolian settlers, and many Albanian communities, scattered throughout the country, who were strongly interested in the preservation of Turkish rule, as was also the large Jewish community of Salonika and its various local offshoots. The Turks, who delayed indefinitely the reforms agreed on at Berlin, made no serious effort to cope with the disorder, but were content to see that none of the rival parties met with sufficient success to give them a chance of attaining their objects; they therefore lent their support from time to time to one or other of the contending nationalities, so long as it was not strong enough to be formidable, and relied on the knowledge that each of the subject races would rather remain under the

Ottoman rule than be transferred to any of its Christian rivals. The only hopes of improvement lay either in intervention by the Great Powers, such as took place from time to time in a more or less ineffective manner, or in such co-operation of the Balkan States as was actually achieved in 1912, but was prevented earlier by mutual jealousies.

Greece and Crete.—In 1896 an insurrection took place in Crete, and the insurgents demanded union with Greece. This led to Turkey declaring war on Greece in 1897. Bulgaria and Serbia remained neutral. Russia and Austria had bound themselves by a convention not to intervene separately in Balkan affairs. Greece, unaided by her Balkan neighbours, and with no help from the West except a few Philhellene volunteers, was easily defeated, but was saved from disaster by the intervention of the Powers; the only result to her, apart from paying an indemnity, was a small strategic modification of the Thessalian frontier, bringing Turkish territory close to Larissa. Crete, however, attained autonomy in 1898 under a Christian Governor, in the person of Prince George of Greece, who was appointed High Commissioner by the Four Contracting Powers. Germany and Austria had withdrawn from the Concert on this question; and much indignation was felt in Greece against Germany, who had not only trained the Turkish Army, but was by this time openly giving Turkey her sympathy and support. Though Crete did not attain full independence or union with Greece until later, the island was now in a position similar to that of some of the Balkan States; and its part in the Balkan problem has recently become a prominent one, since it has supplied Greece with her greatest statesman and her finest troops.

Projects of Reform in Macedonia.—In 1899 a Macedonian Committee, established in Sofia, addressed a memorial to the Powers advocating a new solution of the Macedonian question. This was the formation of an autonomous Macedonia, with its

capital at Salonika and a Governor-General "of the predominant nationality." The proposal, however, though it met with some sympathy in various quarters, did not meet with any official encouragement; and it was viewed with the greatest apprehension by the partisans of the Greeks and others, who saw in it the possibility of a repetition of the history of Eastern Rumelia, and another step towards the realisation of the "big Bulgaria" of the Treaty of San Stefano. Opposition also came from another quarter in a revival of the Albanian League, which had never been dissolved since its foundation in 1878, though mainly carried on by Albanians living abroad. A great meeting of Albanian notables was summoned at Ipek (Pech) to consider the defence of Islam against the disaffected Christian tribes of Old Serbia, Montenegro, and Macedonia; and the new league had the twofold object of defending the Sultan's dominions against all encroachment and of opposing any changes in the administration of Macedonia.

Meanwhile, the condition of Macedonia went from bad to worse, and the moral obligation to further intervention forced itself upon the Great Powers. The Sultan, becoming alarmed at the state of things, appointed Hilmi Pasha Inspector-General of Macedonia, but no great improvement was effected. In 1903 Russia and Austria drew up at Vienna a scheme of reforms, which was supported by the other Powers. It included the appointment of an Inspector-General for a number of years, a reorganized gendarmerie of Moslems and Christians, with foreign officers, and separate budgets for each of the three Macedonian vilayets, on the revenues of which the cost of local administration was to be a first charge. The Sultan accepted the scheme, but its only result was to make both Bulgarians and Albanians more aggressive. Accordingly, a new and more drastic scheme, known as the Mürzsteg Programme, was issued by Russia and Austria in October 1903. Russian and Austrian civil agents were attached to Hilmi Pasha; the reorganiza-

tion of the gendarmerie was entrusted to an Italian general, who was assisted by military officers of the other Powers in the various districts; the administrative and judicial institutions were to be reformed with the participation of the Christian population. This scheme, however, also proved ineffective. The Greek villagers had hitherto probably been the chief sufferers, since they were attacked not only by Turkish irregulars but by Bulgarian *komitajis*; and Greek armed bands were sent across the frontier to their assistance. The best of the leaders of these bands were genuine patriots, more concerned to protect and encourage their own sympathisers than to harry or oppress their opponents. The worst were mere brigands, who exploited the situation to kill and plunder in their own interests. The result, in either case, was to add to the general confusion.

At the same time, various incidents had embittered the Rumanians both against the Bulgarians and against the Greeks. The Greeks and Serbians, on the other hand, were drawn together by their common danger into a sympathy that was later to have important results. In 1905, on the proposal of the British Government, a further step was taken by the Powers. An International Commission was appointed to frame financial reforms, and pressure was put upon Turkey to recognise it; the appointments of the Inspector-General and the foreign officials were prolonged for six years. Remonstrances were simultaneously made at Sofia and Athens against the passage of Bulgarian and Greek bands into Macedonia. Before it could be seen whether this enlarged scheme would be any more successful than its predecessors a revolution took place in Turkey which completely altered the aspect of the Macedonian question.

6. TURKISH REVOLUTION AND BALKAN ALLIANCE

Young Turk Revolution.—It had become evident that the policy and diplomacy of Abdul Hamid,

though it had met with many partial or temporary successes, had led to a state of things which could no longer be tolerated either by the subject peoples, the autonomous Balkan States, or the Great Powers. Accordingly, in 1908, the Young Turk party took the matter into their own hands; and the Turkish army in Macedonia readily became the instrument of the "Committee of Union and Progress" in a conspiracy in which its own leading officers, the representatives of the Young Turks abroad, the Jewish community of Salonika, and even the hitherto faithful Albanians all played a considerable part. Its success was complete and immediate. Constantinople was occupied, and full representative government and a new Constitution and Administration were announced, which were to make no distinction between Moslem, Christian, and Jew, between Turk, Bulgar, and Greek. The subject peoples welcomed the proclamation effusively, and saw in it the end of all their troubles; the Powers withdrew their representatives on the International Commission. In the independent and autonomous States of the Balkans, on the other hand, the change gave rise to considerable apprehensions. Even if all its promises were fulfilled, it would have precluded or postponed indefinitely their several national aspirations to incorporate within their own frontiers their kinsmen in Macedonia and the territory they inhabited. Some of them, especially the Greeks, were sceptical from the first as to the impartial execution of the proposed reforms; and their doubts were justified by the results of the first elections to the Turkish Parliament, which contained only eighteen Greek members. Crete now proclaimed its union with Greece.

Annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina.—Bulgaria also took a vigorous line of action; its independence of Turkey was proclaimed, and Prince Ferdinand assumed the title of King (or Tsar). Almost contemporaneously—though the exact relation of the two events to each other is obscure, both having been for some time in contemplation—Austria withdrew her

forces from the occupation of the Sanjak of Novibazar, and annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina, in contravention of Article 25 of the Treaty of Berlin, which had entrusted her with their administration, while reserving the sovereignty of the Sultan. This act aroused very bitter feelings in Montenegro and Serbia, who saw their aspirations to the formation of a great Southern Slav State barred by the presence of a Great Power. Turkey also protested; and her protest was emphasised by a boycott on Austrian goods. The diplomatic negotiations which followed were lengthy and complicated. Serbia was with difficulty restrained from rash action by England, Russia, and France, while Germany backed Austria. Finally a compromise was reached on the basis of pecuniary compensation to Turkey; and a similar arrangement was made between Bulgaria and Turkey, Russia undertaking to find part of the compensation demanded. In both cases, however, the change had ultimately to be accepted as a *fait accompli*. Montenegro received compensation in a modification of the restrictions under which she held Antivari.

Rival Railway Schemes.—A further complication had been introduced into the Balkan problem, this time of a commercial nature. Austria, which already offered the only outlet for Serbian produce, and so could at any time put pressure on her smaller neighbour, supported a scheme for joining up her railway system in Bosnia, through the Sanjak of Novibazar, with the direct railway to Salonika. Serbia, backed by Russia, supported the rival scheme of a railway joining the Danube with the Adriatic, and thus giving her a new outlet to the sea through Albania. These two cross-pressures—of Austria towards the *Ægean* and of Serbia towards the *Adriatic*—have had an important influence on recent developments in the Balkan Peninsula, the bar opposed by any strong combination of Balkan States being the chief obstacle to Germany's avowed policy of penetration and expansion towards Turkey and the East.

Formation of the Balkan Alliance.—The Young Turks, however good may have been the intentions of some of their leaders, soon disappointed those who had hoped so much from their reforms. A counter-revolution in Constantinople, instigated by discontent at the final loss of Bosnia and Herzegovina and Bulgaria, was easily suppressed, and led to the deposition of Abdul Hamid. But the promised equality of all races and creeds, instead of offering an opportunity for the independent and characteristic development of various national ideals, proved to aim at a levelling uniformity, and to mean in reality the turkification of the whole Empire. Such an end was even more antipathetic to the Christian peoples of the Balkan area—and to many of the Moslems also, especially the Albanians—than the old Turkish regime; and the various Balkan States at last decided in common to take the matter into their own hands. All of them had profited by recent experiences to increase greatly the numbers and efficiency of their armies. In Greece, to solve internal difficulties, M. Venizelos had been summoned from Crete; and his advent not only reformed and strengthened the internal affairs of the country, but inaugurated a more enlightened policy of co-operation with the other Balkan States

As a result of various meetings and negotiations, treaties of alliance and military conventions were arranged between Bulgaria, Serbia, Montenegro, and Greece in February and May 1912, providing for joint action against Turkey if a favourable opportunity should arise. The difficulty of the distribution of the territory that might be acquired, in case of success, was foreseen; and, as between Serbia and Bulgaria, an agreement was embodied in a secret annex to the treaty.¹ It was arranged that a condominium should be provisionally established, and that within three

¹ See full texts in Appendix XI, XII, XIII, XIV.

months from the conclusion of peace the acquired territory should be divided on the following bases:—

Serbia recognised the Bulgarian claim to all the region east of Rhodope and the Struma.

Bulgaria recognised the Serbian claim to all the region north and west of the Shar Mountains.

As to the region lying between Shar, Rhodope, the Ægean, and Okhrida, if the formation of an autonomous province should prove impracticable, it was to be divided by a line running approximately south-west from Mount Golem (north of Kriva Palanka) to Lake Okhrida. Serbia claimed nothing beyond this line; and Bulgaria accepted this frontier, if pronounced for by the Emperor of Russia, whose arbitration as to their rights and interests was accepted by both parties.¹

By this proposed division Struga, Skoplye, and Kumanovo were assigned to Serbia; Okhrida, Monastir, and Ishtip to Bulgaria. It is to be noted in this connection that Skoplye was the capital of the historic Serbian Empire, while Okhrida was for some time the Bulgarian capital and the seat of the Bulgarian Patriarchate. No agreement was made as to distribution of territory between Greece and Serbia or Greece and Bulgaria—a fact which influenced both the conduct of the campaigns and all subsequent events. The opportunity awaited came in consequence of the war between Turkey and Italy in Libya and a serious revolt of the Albanians. The Balkan States sent an ultimatum to Turkey, demanding immediate and drastic reforms. The Great Powers warned them that “in case of war they would not admit, as its result, any modification of the territorial *status quo*

¹ The “contested zone” is by some writers restricted to the area between the Shar Mountains and the Golem-Okhrida line, though this is not in accordance with the wording of the treaty. The restriction of the contested zone to this area is emphasised in Gueshoff, *The Balkan League* (London, 1915). He gives a map, which marks the area in question as “zone contestée.”

in European Turkey," and at the same time urged on the Porte the carrying-out of the promised reforms. Turkey returned a dilatory answer, attributing the delay to the disturbed state of the provinces. As a result, war was declared on the same day on which the Treaty of Lausanne put an official end to the Italo-Turkish War in October 1912.

First Balkan War (1912).—The progress of the campaign was influenced to a considerable extent by political considerations, each State occupying the regions which it hoped to acquire. The Bulgarians attacked in the direction of Thrace, masked the fortress of Adrianople, and advanced, after severe fighting, to the Chatalja lines. The Serbians occupied the Sanjak of Novibazar, thus getting into touch with Montenegro; captured Skoplye, the capital of Old Serbia, and Monastir; and then turned to Albania, seizing the ports of San Giovanni di Medua and Durazzo. Montenegro spent most of her efforts on the siege of Scutari. The Greeks advanced from the north of Thessaly, and then turned to Salonika, thus anticipating the Bulgarians in the possession of this coveted port. Their fleet meanwhile occupied all the Turkish islands in the Ægean and off the coast of Asia Minor, except the Southern Sporades, which had been retained by the Italians on the conclusion of the Libyan war. After an armistice in December 1912 and January 1913 hostilities were resumed, and the Bulgarians captured Adrianople with Serbian aid; the Greeks took Yanina; and Scutari surrendered to the Montenegrins. Meanwhile the assassination of King George of Greece in Salonika on March 18 deprived the Balkan allies of their most cautious and experienced statesman, and involved disaster both immediately and later.

Treaty of London; Second Balkan War.—The intervention of the Great Powers led, in May, to the signature of the Treaty of London (App. XV), which was never ratified. By this treaty the Balkan allies obtained from Turkey Crete and all territory

to the west of the Enos-Midia line; but the question of the islands, except Crete, was reserved, and it was also decided to form an independent Albania, Montenegro being obliged to give up Scutari, and Serbia also losing her conquests in this region and the Adriatic ports. This led to serious difficulties in the distribution of the acquired territory among the allies. Serbia claimed that, to compensate for the loss of an outlet to the Adriatic, the line of demarcation agreed on in the secret annexe to the Serbo-Bulgarian Treaty should be revised, so as to allow her to retain the region she had actually occupied, and acquire a frontier conterminous with Greece, and access to the Ægean at Salonika. Bulgaria insisted on the secret annexe, and also complained that Greece claimed a much larger share of Macedonia than she was entitled to. An appeal to the Tsar's arbitration was rejected; and, Serbia and Greece having concluded an alliance, the Second Balkan War broke out in June 1913. Hostilities were begun by Bulgaria with a simultaneous attack on the Serbs and the Greeks, but the results were disastrous to her in both cases; Turkey seized the occasion to recover Adrianople, and Rumania invaded Bulgaria, demanding a change of frontier in the Dobruja.

Treaty of Bucarest.—Resistance was useless; and by the Treaty of Bucarest Macedonia was partitioned, mainly in accordance with the actual occupation by each State. Montenegro and Serbia divided the Sanjak of Novibazar and became conterminous. Serbia acquired all Old Serbia and also Monastir and the Vardar Valley as far as Gevgeli, thus becoming conterminous with Greece and having an outlet to the Ægean by the railway to Salonika, where she was allowed an extra-territorial enclave by Greece. Greece acquired all the rest of Southern and Western Macedonia, including Salonika and Kavalla. Bulgaria had to content herself with the region north of the Belashitsa Mountains and east of the Mesta River. She had also to cede a considerable portion of the Dobruja to Rumania. Greece, in addition, retained Crete and

the islands, hitherto belonging to Turkey, which she had occupied. A separate treaty was made between Bulgaria and Turkey, revising the frontiers of the Treaty of London; by this Adrianople was restored to Turkey, and the lower Maritsa River formed the boundary near the sea, Turkey retaining rights over the railway in this region (App. XVI, XVII).

Albania.—In accordance with the Treaty of London, Albania was constituted an autonomous principality, and its frontiers were delimited by an International Commission so as to include Scutari on the north, and Valona, Argyrokastro, and Koritsa on the south. Prince William of Wied was appointed as its *Mpret*, and arrived at Durazzo in March 1914.

Results of Balkan Wars; Defects of Arrangement.—The territorial acquisitions resulting from the war are represented in the following table:—

—	Sq. Kilom.	Inhabi- tants.	Total After 1913.	
			Sq. Kilom.	Inhabi- tants.
Bulgaria: Gained from Turkey	25,257	656,535		
Ceded to Rumania . .	7,525	282,131		
Net gain.	17,732	374,404	114,017	4,711,917
Greece: Gained from Turkey	55,400	2,066,647	120,060	4,698,599
Serbia: " " "	39,000	1,750,000	87,300	4,600,000
Montenegro: " " "	5,100	150,000	14,180	435,000
Rumania: " " Bulgaria	7,525	282,131	145,427	7,791,140

The whole arrangement was a compromise, which satisfied none of the parties concerned, and left many stumbling-blocks in the way of any satisfactory settlement. The Greeks, though the greatest gainers on the whole, were cut off from North Epeiros, and started a vigorous propaganda and an autonomous Provisional Government in that region; their claims were partially recognised by the Convention of Corfu in May 1914. They also resented bitterly the Italian occupation of

the Southern Sporades (Rhodes, Kos, and the Dodekanese), which, though nominally only provisional, prevented the annexation of these almost entirely Greek islands to the Greek Kingdom.

Bulgaria, though her rulers were immediately responsible for the Second Balkan War, naturally resented its result; for she obtained the smallest share of the conquered territory, while her expenditure in men and money had been the largest, and she had borne the brunt of the fighting against Turkey. Consequently, she watched for an opportunity of enforcing her claims in Macedonia, and of retaliating on her former allies, Serbia and Greece. When, in 1915, she joined the alliance of the Central Powers, she recovered, by an arrangement with Turkey, a district west and south of Adrianople, with the line of the Maritsa and the railway along its western bank; but Turkey remained dissatisfied. Bulgaria also looked to regain all, and more than all, she had to cede to Rumania in the Dobruja.

II. GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

1. POPULAR OPINION AND NATIONAL SENTIMENT

The question of national sentiment is of paramount importance in any attempt to settle the Eastern Question upon a firm basis. But it is difficult, if not impossible, to make any general statement as to this sentiment in the Balkan Peninsula, because the various Balkan peoples are, save for a few individual statesmen, so much wrapped up in their respective national ambitions or interests that it is premature to look to them for wider views on questions affecting the Balkans as a whole. It will, therefore, be convenient to consider, first, the sentiments of the several Balkan States or districts, and afterwards to see how far their aspirations are mutually exclusive, or admit of any common realisation or compromise.

Albania.—National sentiment in Albania is fully treated in No. 17 of this series, and need only be briefly summarised here. The desire of the Albanians has always been for local independence, rather than for any form of national unity; they were, on the whole, contented with the Turkish regime, under which they held a privileged position, and which usually left them free to follow their tribal customs, and to indulge in feuds among themselves and raids upon their neighbours. The Treaty of San Stefano alarmed them by its proposals to assign considerable districts of Albania to neighbours alien both in race and in religion; and the efforts of the Albanian League (which, however, it must be remembered, was engineered and led from Stambul) were directed to defending the sovereignty of the Sultan against foreign interference, and

quelling the disaffection of the Christian peoples of Macedonia. The Albanians welcomed the Young Turk revolution, so long as it appeared to offer the opportunity of independent development under a strong Turkish Government; but, when the policy of turkification set in, it found among them its most bitter opponents. Yet, even so late as 1911, they asked for the inclusion of all Albania in a single Turkish vilayet. When the Balkan Wars of 1912-13 isolated them from Turkey they received an independent government under a foreign prince. But the experiment was not tried under fortunate conditions; and the new State disintegrated before it was organized.

Bulgaria.—The Bulgarians had for some time desired liberation from the Turkish yoke politically, and from the jurisdiction of the Greek Patriarch ecclesiastically; but their territorial aspirations first took a definite form in the proposals of the Treaty of San Stefano, which assigned to them, especially in Macedonia, many districts to which the Serbians, Greeks, or Albanians also laid claim. This "big Bulgaria" was greatly curtailed at the Berlin Congress. After the union of Eastern Rumelia with Bulgaria, a propaganda was vigorously carried on in those parts of Macedonia which the Bulgarians claimed as akin to themselves in race and sympathy. In the negotiations preceding the Balkan Wars of 1912-13, the Bulgarians accepted a compromise with Serbia, whereby Okhrida and Monastir were to be assigned to Bulgaria; in Eastern Macedonia they succeeded, during the First Balkan War, in occupying some of the region which they claimed; but the Greeks anticipated them at Salonika.

The distribution resulting from the Second Balkan War and the Treaty of Bucarest was bitterly resented by the Bulgarians, and its alteration was one of their main objects in entering the European war. By the Treaty of London they were also to acquire the district of Adrianople as far as the Enos-Midia line, a district which they had occupied after heavy fighting, and

which contained a considerable proportion of Bulgarians; this also was lost in the Second War.

Greece.—The national sentiment of the Greeks is dominated by two ideas—the memory of the ancient glory of Greece and of the Byzantine Empire, and the desire to liberate their unredeemed kinsmen and to incorporate them in the kingdom. The foundation of the Greek State was due in great measure to the inspiration of classical traditions and the sympathy and help those traditions elicited from western Europe; and the limited area of the kingdom, which, even after its enlargement in 1913, only includes about half the Greeks resident in the Levant, made an irredentist propaganda inevitable.

Though the co-operation of the Balkan States was achieved in the First Balkan War of 1912, the Second War, and the Treaty of Bucarest, while drawing Greece and Serbia together, widened the gulf between them both and Bulgaria; and the European War has widened it still further. Constantine XII, as the Greeks liked to call him, was regarded as the successor not only of Constantine XI, but also of Basil the Bulgar-slayer; and M. Venizelos risked a loss of popularity and influence when he advocated the conditional transfer of Kavalla to Bulgaria. It is difficult to follow recent fluctuations in Greek feeling, but it would be hard to overestimate, in regard to this matter, the influence of the Asiatic Islands, and, above all, of Crete, which has exercised a regenerating and organizing influence throughout the Greek Kingdom. The old aspirations survive; but probably they are now more amenable than formerly to the wise and statesman-like guidance of M. Venizelos.

Macedonia.—Popular sentiment in Macedonia is divided on much the same lines as in the Balkans as a whole, since this district—formally divided in 1913 between Serbia, Greece, and Bulgaria—contains representatives of each of the main Balkan nationalities. The difficulty arises in regions where nationalities are mixed, or the character of the prevailing nationality is

in dispute, above all in the large area inhabited by the Slavonic people, claimed as Bulgars by the Bulgarians, and called Macedo-Slavs by the advocates of Serbia. Whatever their origin, these people have been the subject of vigorous and often violent racial propaganda during the last half-century. While, however, there are many violent partisans, especially among priests and schoolmasters, it is said to be not uncommon in mixed villages for different members of the same family to adopt different nationalities, or even for a family to change its name and nationality, according to circumstances. The desire of the majority of the peasants is probably for peace and orderly government, after so many successive wars, more than for any particular assignments of territory.

The numerous Turks and other Moslems in Macedonia probably realise by this time that no restoration of Turkish rule is practicable. Many, especially among the richer classes, have emigrated to Turkey; to those that remain it is a matter of comparative indifference to which State they are assigned, except in so far as some of the older population, who have turned Moslem, preserve their original racial sympathies.

Montenegro.—There seems no doubt that the popular feeling in Montenegro, as in Serbia, is in favour of Jugo-Slav unity. The pride of the Montenegrins in keeping their mountain sanctuary inviolate has always been associated with sympathy for their less fortunate kinsmen and with efforts to help them in their revolts against alien oppression.

Serbia, the first of the Balkan States to obtain autonomy, has always been confined within more or less artificial boundaries, and has consequently sought opportunities to include within her limits the regions occupied by her kinsmen outside. Her desire was inspired also by the recollection of the old empire of Stephen Dushan, with its capital at Skoplye; it has recently taken a wider scope in the great movement for the unity of the Jugo-Slavs. The regions inhabited by Serbs or their near kinsmen, outside Serbia and

Montenegro, were partly under Turkish rule, partly included in the Austro-Hungarian Empire. The reversion of the former was confidently expected by Serbia; and consequently the formal transference of Bosnia and Herzegovina from Turkish rule to that of Austria in 1908 caused great excitement in the country and almost led to war. Down to 1912 the two chief aspirations of Serbia were the acquisition of "Old Serbia" and of an outlet to the sea. Both seemed to be realised during the Balkan War of 1912-13; and the disappointment of Serbia was accordingly great when the Powers intervened against her possession of San Giovanni di Medua and Durazzo. Since then, however, the great Jugo-Slav idea, with all its possibilities of political and commercial expansion, has dominated all minor considerations.

Rumania has also her irredentist problem, complicated, as in the case of Serbia, by the different conditions in which the numerous Rumanians outside Rumania are placed. The nationalist feeling for union with them is strong in all cases; but the practicability of its realisation varies with these conditions. The Rumanians of Bessarabia were united with Moldavia from 1856 to 1878, and their transference to Russia in the latter year, after Rumania's valuable help in the Russo-Turkish War, was bitterly resented. The commercial compensation given to Rumania in the port of Constanza and the Dobruja, which was not a Rumanian district, gave little satisfaction to national sentiment. The Rumanians in Transylvania have never, except for a short period under Michael the Brave (1593-1601), been politically united with Rumania; but their oppression by the Magyars has intensified nationalist feeling on both sides of the border, and led, among other causes, to Rumania's declaration of war in 1916.

The case of Bukovina is somewhat different, both historically and racially, since it was part of the Principality of Moldavia, and was not ceded to Austria until 1777; but, on the other hand, the Rumanians

there are only a minority of the population. The Koutso-Vlachs, now included in Serbia, Greece, and Albania, have been the subject of Rumanian propaganda. But, scattered as they are, there can hardly be any practical scheme for their union with Rumania. Rumania has, however, aspirations in the direction of Bessarabia and of Transylvania, which must be reckoned with in any satisfactory solution of the Balkan problem.

Turkey.—The Young Turk movement started in Macedonia, and there are large Moslem sections of the population in many parts of the Balkan Peninsula; these, if not Turkish, in many cases come from Anatolia or even farther east. So far as these are in territory assigned to one of the Balkan States, not much nationalist feeling is likely to persist, especially since the more influential and fanatical Moslems have emigrated, or are likely to emigrate, to Turkish territory. The remaining peasants are likely to settle down to the new conditions, provided their religion is tolerated and their rights safeguarded. The Turks, as a dominant race, are at an end in the Balkan Peninsula, and are not likely to give much trouble, so long as they are treated with justice and toleration; it will, in that case, be a matter of indifference to them under which State they are to remain. Those Moslems who are not "Turks," but converted Slavs, naturally fall into the same racial divisions as their Christian kinsmen.

2. FUTURE POSSIBILITIES

Any permanent pacification and reconciliation of the Balkan peoples must depend on how far it is possible to meet and satisfy their various national sentiments and aspirations, or, where these are mutually incompatible, to effect a reasonable compromise between them. Only in this way is it possible to avoid a sense of bitterness and injustice, which is sure to lead to further trouble in the near future; and it is to be hoped that a broad sense of justice and expediency, rather than any desire

to reward friends and punish enemies, will be the guiding spirit in any solutions that may be proposed.

There appear to be three main considerations affecting any permanent settlement of Balkan affairs—nationality and popular sentiment; economic conditions, especially access to the sea and to important through routes of international commerce; and scientific frontiers, from the military and naval point of view.

The racial question is most difficult in Macedonia, both because of disputes as to the racial character and national sympathies of large sections of the population, and because different racial elements are often found intermingled in the same district or village. The racial question in Albania does not appear to offer any insuperable difficulties. Any proposal for partition is clearly inadmissible, on the acknowledged principle of respect for small nations and the self-determination of nationalities. On the other hand, the southern regions, where the majority are Greek in race or sympathy, might be assigned to Greece, if their population desire it; the division would be easier if the Italian occupation of Valona and an enclave adjacent to it should be maintained. The Italian possession of Valona suggests an Italian protectorate over an independent Albania, at least until that country shows ability to take entire control of its own affairs.

As to Rumania, Transylvania offers a complicated problem, owing to the presence of a large number of Magyars and Germans. But the only satisfactory solution seems to be that it should be joined to Rumania, with clear guarantees for the protection of the non-Rumanian minorities. This should satisfy the strong feeling in Rumania against the present state of things. The question of the Vlachs, in Macedonia, Albania, and elsewhere, is probably not taken very seriously by the Rumanians themselves, and they cannot hope to annex these scattered people.

There remains the question of Constantinople. The freedom of the Bosphorus and Dardanelles seems to

imply that Constantinople should be a free port under international guarantee.

Economic considerations are considered elsewhere; but it seems necessary to note here how far they would be inconsistent with the solutions suggested on a racial basis. Many difficulties would be avoided if some system, like that under which the Serbians were, in 1913, allowed access to Salonika and an extra-territorial enclave, could be more widely adopted, or even if a certain number of free ports, with railway communication, could be established. Greece has plenty of harbours, but needs facilities for connecting up her railway system with that of Central Europe. These various interests, so far as affected by new frontiers, might perhaps be reconciled by mutual concessions. In any case, they do not seem to render impracticable a solution which may otherwise commend itself.

III. THE STRAITS QUESTION

1695-1739, *Russian Rights in Black Sea*.—The question of the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles, which is intimately bound up with that of the rights of navigation in the Black Sea, is an intricate problem of International Law. A discussion of it from the legal point of view would be out of place here; but it will be convenient to give an historical summary of the relevant facts.

So long as no other Power than Turkey owned the shores of the Black Sea, the question of the Straits did not arise. In 1695 Russia constructed a fleet during her attack on the fort of Azov, which was captured in 1696 and assigned to Russia by the Peace of Constantinople in 1700. Azov, together with other forts, had to be razed in accordance with the stipulations of the Treaty of the Pruth in 1711; in 1736 it was recovered, but had again to be abandoned by the Treaty of Belgrade in 1739, which also expressly forbade Russia to maintain or to build a fleet or other ships on the Sea of Azov (Zabache) or the Black Sea. Merchandise was to be freely interchanged between Russia and Turkey, but it must be carried on the Black Sea in Turkish ships, according to the arrangement already made by the Commercial Treaty of Passarowitz in 1718.

1774, *Right to pass through Straits*.—By the Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji in 1774, Russia became definitely a Black Sea Power. Free and unlimited navigation was granted to merchant vessels of both Russia and Turkey in all seas washing their shores, and free

passage to and from the Mediterranean. Freedom of trade was also given to Russian ships in all Turkish ports, together with all privileges and exemptions that were accorded to French and British ships by the capitulations. Turkey, however, evaded the clause as to granting free access through the Straits to the Mediterranean; and this right was confirmed by an explanatory convention in 1779. A Russian man-of-war having entered the Straits of Constantinople in 1780, further discussions took place between the two Powers; and a convention was agreed to in 1781. The right of the passage of the Straits for merchant ships was confirmed again by the Commercial Treaty of 1783, which is quoted as a precedent in later arrangements (Akkerman, 1826).

1798, *Straits opened to Russian Warships, closed to others.*—By the Treaty of Constantinople of December 23, 1798, between Russia and Turkey for mutual defensive action, Turkey agreed to the free passage of Russian warships through the Straits, and closed them to those of other nations. In the following years, while Turkey vacillated between Russia, France, and England, Russia secured a renewal of this article in the treaty of 1805, with the addition of a clause that any attempt of a third Power on the Straits would be regarded as a *casus fœderis*, and jointly opposed by Russia and Turkey. On the other hand, the French representative, Sebastiani, tried to induce the Turks to close the Bosphorus and Dardanelles to all British and Russian ships. Russia protested; and one of the reasons given by Turkey for declaring war on Russia in 1807 was the abuse by Russia of the permission granted her in sending men-of-war through the Straits for other purposes than the protection of the Ionian Islands or similar defensive objects.

1809, *Passage of Straits closed to all Warships.*—In 1807 a British fleet, under Vice-Admiral Duckworth, forced the passage of the Dardanelles and anchored off Constantinople, though no formal declara-

tion of war preceded or followed this action, which was due, according to a treaty concluded between Britain and Turkey in 1809, to “les apparences d’une mésintelligence survenue à la suite des événements du temps.” This treaty (sometimes called the Treaty of the Dardanelles) renews the rights of British commerce in the Black Sea and other privileges, as granted by the treaty of 1675 (Capitulations), and recently confirmed in 1799. Article XI runs as follows:—

“ Comme il a été de tout temps défendu aux vaisseaux de guerre d’entrer dans le canal de Constantinople, savoir dans le détroit des Dardanelles et dans celui de la mer Noire, et comme cette ancienne règle de l’Empire ottoman doit être de même observée dorénavant en temps de paix vis-à-vis de toute Puissance, quelle qu’elle soit, la cour britannique promet aussi de se conformer à ce principe.”

This is virtually the first definite statement, as an international rule, of a principle ever since acknowledged, though it is described as an ancient rule of the Ottoman Empire.

1826, *Rights of Mercantile Navigation confirmed*.— In the Treaty of Akkerman (1826) the right of passage of the Straits by Russian merchant ships was confirmed, as granted by the Commercial Treaty of 1783. Free navigation is secured for Russian merchant ships in all Turkish waters, including the right of transshipment, in case of necessity. And

“ The Sublime Porte will accept the good offices of the Imperial Russian Court in granting, in accordance with former precedents, the entrance of the Black Sea to vessels of Powers friendly to the Ottoman Government, which have not, as yet, obtained that privilege, so that the import trade of Russia, by means of their vessels, and the export of Russian produce on board of them, may not be subject to any impediment.”

Article 7 of the Treaty of Adrianople (1829) confirms the grant of free navigation of the Black Sea, the Dardanelles, and the Bosphorus to all merchant ships, whether Russian, or under the flags of Powers at peace with Turkey, going to or coming from Russian ports. No delay, search, or detention is to occur; and any

infringement of these stipulations will be considered as an act of hostility, involving reprisals against the Ottoman Empire.

1833, *Straits closed to Foreign, but not to Russian Ships*.—During the troubles with Mehemet Ali, a Russian squadron proceeded to the Bosphorus, and anchored off Constantinople. The fortifications of the Dardanelles were improved under Russian supervision, and six Russian warships were allowed to pass through the Straits. To the Treaty of Unkiar Skelessi (July 8, 1833), in which mutual aid was promised by Russia and Turkey, a separate and secret article was added, which stated that the aid mutually promised was not to be asked for by Russia, but that Turkey,

“in place of the aid which it is bound to furnish in case of need, according to the principle of reciprocity of the Patent Treaty, shall confine its action in favour of Russia to closing the Straits of the Dardanelles—that is to say, to not allowing any foreign vessels of war to enter therein under any pretext whatever.”

A protest against this was made on August 26, 1833, by France and Britain, “who hold themselves at liberty to act . . . as if the treaty . . . were not in existence.” Permission for Russian war vessels to pass the Straits is not expressly mentioned in the treaty, but is by many authorities thought to be implied.

1840, *Co-operation for Security of Straits*.—The Convention of London for the Pacification of the Levant (1840) aimed at supporting the Sultan against Mehemet Ali, and provided for the co-operation of Britain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia with Turkey to place the Straits in security against all aggression. The former Powers were to withdraw their forces to the Black Sea and the Mediterranean respectively when the Sultan “shall deem their presence no longer necessary.” The measure is to be regarded as exceptional, and

“shall not derogate in any degree from the ancient rule of the Ottoman Empire, in virtue of which it has at all times been

prohibited for vessels of war of foreign Powers to enter the Straits of the Dardanelles and of the Bosphorus."

The Sultan and the Powers agreed to conform to this principle, which thus obtained for the first time a general European sanction.

1841, *Straits closed to all Warships*.—In the Convention of London (1841; sometimes called "The Straits Convention") between the same Powers with the addition of France, the rule as to the Straits was formally restated as follows:—

Art. I.—"His Highness the Sultan, on the one part, declares that he is firmly resolved to maintain for the future the principle invariably established as the ancient rule of his Empire, and in virtue of which it has at all times been prohibited for the ships of war of foreign Powers to enter the Straits of the Dardanelles and of the Bosphorus; and that, so long as the Porte is at peace, His Highness will admit no foreign ship of war into the said Straits." And all Sovereigns of the other Contracting Powers, "on the other part, engage to respect this determination of the Sultan, and to conform themselves to the principle above declared."

Art. II.—"The Sultan reserves to himself, as in past times, to deliver firmans of passage for light vessels under flag of war, which shall be employed as is usual in the service of the missions of foreign Powers."

Art. III.—"The Sultan reserves to himself to communicate the present convention to all the Powers with whom the Sublime Porte is in relations of friendship, inviting them to accede thereto."

1854, *Changes Proposed*.—During the events leading to the Crimean War, the British and French fleets passed the Dardanelles, and afterwards entered the Black Sea, at the invitation of Turkey. These Powers having not yet declared war, Russia, at the Conference of Vienna in March-June 1855, proposed as alternatives either that the Straits should be opened or that they should be closed to the fleets of all Powers alike. This proposal was rejected by the allies, and the war continued.

1856, *Straits closed to Warships; Black Sea neutralised*.—By the Treaty of Paris (1856), the convention of 1841 was revised by common consent; its provisions were, however, repeated verbatim in the accompanying Straits Convention of 1856, with the additional exception of not more than two light vessels for each of the Contracting Powers stationed at the mouths of the Danube. By the same treaty, the Black Sea was

“neutralised; its waters and its ports, thrown open to the mercantile marine of every nation, are formally and in perpetuity interdicted to the Flag of War, either of the Powers possessing its coasts or of any other Power.”

The only exception, besides those already mentioned, is a limited number of light vessels, to be maintained by Russia and Turkey for the service of their coasts. “The maintenance or establishment of military-marine arsenals upon the Black Sea, therefore, becomes alike unnecessary and purposeless,” and Russia and Turkey engage not to establish or to maintain any such arsenals.

1870, *Russian Denunciation of Neutrality of Black Sea*.—The Russian note of October 31, 1870, denouncing the stipulations as to the neutrality of the Black Sea, complains of the exposure to attack of the Russian coasts on that sea, since its entry is interdicted to men-of-war only in time of peace, and asserts that repeated infractions of this rule have taken place.

1871, *Neutrality abrogated; Closing of Straits confirmed*.—Strong protests were made against such a unilateral denunciation of a treaty signed by all the Great European Powers; and a conference was held in London to consider the matter. By the Treaty of London (1871), the Articles of the Treaty of Paris (1856) as to the neutralisation of the Black Sea were abrogated. But the principle of closing the Straits, as established by the convention of 1856, was maintained,

“ with power to His Imperial Majesty the Sultan to open the said Straits in time of peace to the vessels of war of friendly and allied Powers, in case the Sublime Porte should judge it necessary, in order to secure the execution of the stipulations of the Treaty of Paris ” (1856).

The Black Sea was to remain open, as heretofore, to the mercantile marine of all nations.

1877, *British and Russian Exchange of Views*.— This is the last international decision on the question, and, having been confirmed by the Treaty of Berlin, 1878, remains in force to the present day. Among the British interests in the East, as defined in Lord Derby's note to Count Shuvaloff (May 6, 1877), were the arrangements under European sanction which regulate the navigation of the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles; and serious objections are stated to their alteration in any particular. The Russian reply (May 18/30, 1877) is as follows:—

“ As regards the Straits, although their two shores belong to the same Sovereign, they form the only outlet of two great seas in which all the world has interests. It is, therefore, important, in the interests of peace and of the general balance of power, that this question should be settled by a common agreement on equitable and efficiently guaranteed bases.”

In a further memorandum from Count Shuvaloff to Lord Derby (June 8, 1877) it is replied:—

“ With regard to the Straits, the arrangements by virtue of which the Black Sea, which is closed in time of peace, is opened in time of war to all fleets hostile to Russia, were conceived in a spirit of distrust and enmity towards her. It is a question that can only be settled by general agreement, in such a manner as to guarantee the Black Sea against the consequences of the abnormal and exceptional position of the Straits. Would it be possible for Russia, at the outset of a war which may end fortunately for her, to undertake not to make Europe appreciate the necessity of a resettlement of a state of things which was established to her prejudice?”

During the events of 1877-8, Russia and Britain gave a mutual undertaking that neither Power would land troops or occupy the Gallipoli Peninsula or the Dardanelles.

Treaty of Berlin (1878), confirming Treaty of Paris (1856) as to Straits.—In the preliminary bases of peace (Convention of Adrianople) as stated by Russia on January 31, 1878, one condition was that the rights and interests of Russia in the Straits of the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles were to be secured by an understanding with the Sultan. Article XXIV of the Treaty of San Stefano states that:—

“ the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles shall remain open in time of war, as in time of peace, to the merchant vessels of neutral States arriving from or bound to Russian ports. The Sublime Porte consequently engages never henceforth to establish at the ports of the Black Sea and the Sea of Azov a fictitious blockade at variance with the spirit of the Declaration signed at Paris, April 4/16, 1856.”

At the Berlin Congress (1878), the question of the Straits was discussed; and, according to Article LXIII:—

“ The Treaty of Paris of March 30, 1856, as well as the Treaty of London of March 13, 1871, are maintained in all such of their provisions as are not abrogated or modified by the preceding stipulations.”

British Reservations.—These provisions, as already quoted, are therefore still in force. Lord Salisbury, however, formally declared that Britain's obligation in the matter did not “ go further than an engagement with the Sultan to respect His Majesty's independent determination ”; on the other hand, the Russian plenipotentiaries asserted that “ the closing of the Straits is a European principle,” and the stipulations concerning it “ are binding on the part of all the Powers, . . . not only as regards the Sultan, but also as regards all the signatory Powers.” Moreover, when, in 1886, Russia fortified and closed the port of Batum, which had been declared a free and commercial port by the Berlin Treaty, Lord Salisbury's declaration to the Congress was quoted in Lord Rosebery's despatch to Sir R. Morier:—

“ that, if Batum were to be maintained on such conditions as would threaten the free navigation of the Black Sea,

England would not have been able to engage herself ' towards the other European Powers ' to forgo access to the Black Sea. Considering, however, that Batum was declared a free and commercial port, England would not refuse to renew her engagements regarding the Straits; *i.e.*, she would agree to the maintenance of the *status quo*—the principle of closing to all warships."

Exceptions allowed.—While the regulation as to the Straits remains by treaty as above stated, various exceptions have been allowed under special conditions by Turkey and other Powers. Proposals have also been made for a modification of the rule, though none has met with general acceptance. During the Italo-Turkish War of 1911, Russia's claim to liberty of passage, though not opposed by England and France, was refused through the influence in Constantinople of Germany and Austria.¹

Recent Proposals.—There seems a pretty general agreement among writers of the Entente Powers that the present war must lead to the neutralisation or internationalisation of the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus, under the guarantee of the Powers.² This would mean that the Straits were open to merchant ships and warships of all Powers and at all times, with special provision against any acts of belligerency. The question is intimately bound up with that of the possession of Constantinople. The Russian claim to the city, insisted on by many parties in Russia during the earlier years of the war, appears now to have been dropped. The claims of Greece to the capital of the Byzantine Empire have not so far met with any strong advocacy. Bulgaria, whatever her ambitions, has no historical or racial claim on the city. If, however, Constantinople were to remain Turkish, while the Straits were to be open and unforti-

¹ Phillipson and Buxton, *The Question of the Bosphorus and Dardanelles*, pp. 190-2.

² For various proposals see Phillipson and Buxton, *ibid.*, Part III.

fied, its position as the capital of an almost entirely Asiatic Empire would be difficult. A solution that has met with favour in many quarters is that it should be made a free port under international guarantee; and any internationalisation of the Straits seems to imply some such arrangement, though it remains an open question to whom its administration should in that case be entrusted.

IV. THE DANUBE QUESTION¹

Earlier Arrangements; Russia and Turkey.—The question of the right of navigation on the Danube, which is closely connected with that in the Black Sea and the Straits, is discussed in *International Rivers*, No. 149 of this series, §§ 19-23; its history is there given from the Treaty of Paris (1856) onward. Before that time, however, various other treaties or conventions had dealt with the question in a more or less partial manner. Until the beginning of the nineteenth century, Turkey was the only Power controlling the navigation of the lower course of the Danube from the Iron Gates to the sea, though international agreements had been made between riparian Powers on the Upper Danube, e.g. between Austria and the Elector Palatine in 1779. Though Russian armies had advanced as far as the Kilia mouth in 1770 and 1791, the Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji (1774) fixed the Russo-Turkish boundary at the Bug, and that of Jassy (1792) at the Dniester. It was not until the Treaty of Bucarest (1812) that the Pruth and the Kilia mouth of the Danube became the Russo-Turkish frontier. At the same time it was agreed that navigation on the Danube should be common to the subjects of the two Powers, and that the islands of the Delta should remain unoccupied. This last arrangement having proved impracticable, an amended arrangement was agreed to in 1817, and confirmed by the Convention of Akkerman (1826). By Article III of the Treaty of Adrianople (1829), Russian territory was extended to the St. George's mouth (the most southerly), including all the islands of the Delta. The merchant vessels of the two Powers were to be

“ competent to navigate the Danube throughout its whole course; and those which bear the Ottoman flag may freely

¹ See also *Rumania*, No. 23 of this series, pp. 45-55

enter the Kilia and Sulina embouchures, that of St. George remaining common to the war and merchant flags of the two contracting Powers. But Russian ships of war must not, in sailing up the Danube, go beyond the place of its junction with the Pruth."

International Commerce.—Meanwhile, Austria, having to some extent overcome the difficulties of navigation past the Iron Gates, sought to expand the commerce of her peoples by way of the stream of the Danube. In 1838 she made an agreement with England by which the two Powers mutually guaranteed their free navigation of the Danube and the security of their commerce in the 'Black Sea,' and gave reciprocal privileges to ships of the two Powers sailing by way of the Danube between British and Austrian ports. A treaty between Russia and Austria in 1840 applied to the Danube the principles of free navigation of international rivers laid down by the Congress of Vienna in 1815. These were applied, not only to Russian and Austrian ships, but also to "those of every other nation having the right to navigate in the Black Sea and at peace with Russia." Rights as to towage, &c., are arranged, and Russia undertakes to clear the Sulina mouth and erect a lighthouse. This treaty was to remain in force for ten years, and it was renewed for another year in 1850.

In the notes exchanged between Britain and Austria in 1854, it is stated that

"the relations of the Sublime Porte with the Imperial Court of Russia cannot be re-established on solid and durable bases . . . if the navigation of the Danube at its mouths be not freed from all obstacles, and made subject to the application of the principles established by the Acts of the Congress of Vienna (1815)."

And in the Bases of Conference on the Eastern Question, in the Memorandum presented by Britain,

¹Larmeroux, J., *La Politique extérieure de l'Autriche-Hongrie*, 1875-1914, Tome I, p. 259.

Austria, and France to Russia on December 28, 1854, one of the four Articles runs as follows :

“ To give to the freedom of navigation of the Danube all the development of which it is susceptible, it would be desirable that the course of the Lower Danube, beginning from the point where it becomes common to the two river-bordering States, should be withdrawn from the territorial jurisdiction existing in virtue of Article III of the Treaty of Adrianople. In every case the free navigation of the Danube could not be secured if it be not placed under the control of a syndicate authority invested with powers necessary to destroy the obstructions existing at the mouths of that river, or which hereafter may be formed there.”

Treaty of Paris; European Commission.—By the Treaty of Paris (1856), Russia ceased to be a riparian Power on the Danube, the portion of Bessarabia adjoining the Kilia branch being assigned to Moldavia. The islands in the Delta were also assigned to Moldavia by this treaty, but were transferred to Turkey in 1857, together with the Isle of Serpents off the Kilia mouth, not mentioned in previous treaties. By the Treaty of Berlin (1878), Bessarabia was restored to Russia, Rumania receiving instead the Dobruja and the islands in the Delta south of the Kilia branch, together with the Isle of Serpents, which was to be given to Russia by the Treaty of San Stefano. The establishment by the Treaty of Paris (1856) of the International Commission of the Danube in accord with the principles laid down in 1854, and its subsequent history, are described elsewhere.¹ On the “ Riparian Commission ” constituted at the same time, the Powers represented were Austria, Bavaria, Turkey, and Württemberg, and the three Danubian Principalities. The duration of the International Commission has been repeatedly renewed, its powers increased, and its authority extended, first to Galatz (1878), and then to Braila (1883). It included delegates from Britain, Austria, France, Prussia, Russia, Sardinia, and Turkey. To these Rumania was added in 1878, though

¹ For full text of relevant articles of Treaty of Paris see *International Rivers*, No. 149 of this series, Appendix III.

she subsequently refused to accept the consultative position offered to her and to Serbia. At the Conference of London in 1883, Russia resumed her rights over the Kilia mouth.

Austro-Hungarian Claims.—By the Treaty of Berlin (1878), Austria-Hungary was assigned the task of improving the conditions of navigation at the Iron Gates, and given the right to levy a provisional tax in order to cover the cost of these works. This task was delegated to the Hungarian Government, which carried out the work, and inaugurated the new canal in 1896. But the taxes imposed by the Hungarian Ministry of Commerce in 1899 were levied on cargoes as well as on ships, and discriminations were made contrary to the international character of the river.¹

Convention of London (1883).—According to the Convention of London, the Danube, from the Iron Gates to Braila, is under the control of a mixed commission consisting of delegates of Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, Rumania, and Serbia, with one representative of the European Commission. From Braila to the sea, the European Commission of the Great Powers has complete authority, with extra-territorial powers, with its own flag, and under guaranteed neutrality. Russia, however, controls the Oksakoff mouth, and shares the Kilia mouth with Rumania.

Treaty of Bucarest (1918).—These arrangements have naturally been in abeyance during the European War. The Treaty of Bucarest (1918) reconstituted the European Commission, but made it consist solely of representatives of States situate on the Danube or the European shores of the Black Sea, thus contrasting with the wider scope given by all previous treaties to international interests.²

¹ Larmeroux, *op. cit.*, p. 285.

² For text of these articles see *International Rivers*, No. 149 of this series, Appendix IV.

APPENDIX

I. TREATY OF KUCHUK KAINARJL.

*July 10/21, 1774.**Russia.* Prince Nicolas Repnin. *Turkey.* Resmi Achmet Effendi.
Ibrahim Munis.

ARTICLE VII.

The Sublime Porte promises constantly to protect the Christian Religion in all its Churches, and also agrees that the Ministers of the Imperial Court of Russia may make Representations in favour of the Church to be erected at Constantinople, as well as those officiating therein, and promises to receive these remonstrances as coming from a trustworthy person in the name of a sincerely friendly neighbouring Power.

ARTICLE VIII.

[Permission to Russian subjects to visit Jerusalem and other places.]

ARTICLE XIV.

Besides the Private Church, the Court of Russia shall have the right, in the same manner as other Powers, to erect a Church at Galata, in the street called Bey-Ugla, which Church shall bear the name of Russo-Greek Church, and shall always be under the Protection of the Russian Minister, exempt from all Taxes, and secure from attacks.

ARTICLE XVI.

2. Not to put, in any manner whatever, any obstacle to the exercise of Divine Worship, free in every respect, or to prevent the building of New Churches, or the repair of the old ones, as they were before.

3. To restore to Convents and other Private Persons the Property and Lands around Braila, Choczim, Bender, &c., formerly belonging to them, but which have since been unjustly taken from them.

4. To recognize and to honour Ecclesiastics, according to their rank.

II. TREATY OF ADRIANOPOLE.

September 14, 1829.

<i>Russia.</i>	Count Diebitch Za-	<i>Turkey.</i>	Sadik Effendi.
	balkansky.		Abdoul Kedir Bey.
	Count Alexis Orloff.		
	Count F. Pahlen.		

ARTICLE III.

The Pruth shall continue to form the Boundary of the two Empires, from the point where that River touches the Territory of Moldavia as far as its confluence with the Danube. From this place the frontier line shall follow the course of the Danube as far as the embouchure of St. George, so that while leaving all the Islands formed by the different branches of this River in the possession of Russia, the right bank will remain, as heretofore, in that of the Ottoman Porte. It is, nevertheless, agreed that this right bank, commencing from the point where the St. George branch separates from that of Souline, shall remain uninhabited, to the distance of two hours from the river, and that no establishment of any kind whatsoever shall be formed thereon, and that in like manner it shall not be permitted to make any establishment or construct any fortification upon the Islands which shall remain in the possession of the Court of Russia, excepting always the quarantines which shall be thereon established. The merchant-vessels of the two Powers shall be competent to navigate the Danube throughout its whole course, and those which bear the Ottoman flag may freely enter the Kili and Souline embouchures, that of St. George remaining common to the war and merchant flags of the two Contracting Powers. But the Russian Ships of War must not, in sailing up the Danube, go beyond the place of its junction with the Pruth.

ARTICLE V.

The Principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia having been in consequence of a Capitulation placed under the Suzerainty of the Sublime Porte, and Russia having guaranteed their prosperity, it is understood that they shall preserve all the privileges and immunities which have been granted to them either by their Capitulations, or by the Treaties concluded between the two Empires, or by the Hatti-Sherifs promulgated at different times. In consequence whereof, they shall enjoy the free exercise of their Worship, perfect security, an independent national Government, and full liberty of Commerce. The additional clauses to the preceding stipulations, clauses which are judged to be neces-

sary in order to secure to these two Provinces the enjoyment of their Rights, are consigned to the Separate Act herewith annexed, which is and shall be considered as forming an integral part of the present Treaty.

ARTICLE VI.

The circumstances which have occurred since the conclusion of the Convention of Ackermann not having allowed the Sublime Porte to occupy itself immediately with the carrying into execution the clauses of the Separate Act relative to Servia, and annexed to Article V of the said Convention, it undertakes in the most solemn manner to fulfil them without the least delay, and with the most scrupulous exactitude, and to proceed especially to the immediate restitution of the six districts detached from Servia, so as to secure for ever the tranquillity and welfare of that faithful and devoted nation. The Firman furnished with the Hatti-Sherif commanding the execution of the said clauses shall be delivered and officially communicated to the Imperial Court of Russia within the term of one month, reckoning from the signature of the present Treaty of Peace.

ARTICLE VII.

Russian subjects shall enjoy, throughout the whole extent of the Ottoman Empire, as well by land as by sea, the full and entire freedom of trade secured to them by the Treaties concluded heretofore between the two High Contracting Powers. This freedom of trade shall not be molested in any way, nor shall it be fettered in any case, or under any pretext, by any prohibition or restriction whatsoever, nor in consequence of any regulation or measure, whether of public government or internal legislation. Russian subjects, ships, and merchandise, shall be protected from all violence and imposition. The first shall remain under the exclusive jurisdiction and control of the Russian Minister and Consuls; Russian ships shall never be subjected to any search on the part of the Ottoman authorities, neither out at sea nor in any of the ports or roadsteads under the dominion of the Sublime Porte; and all merchandise or goods belonging to a Russian subject may, after payment of the Custom-house dues imposed by the tariffs, be freely sold, deposited on land in the warehouses of the owner or consignee, or transhipped on board another vessel of any nation whatsoever, without the Russian subject being required, in this case, to give notice of the same to any of the local authorities, and much less to ask their permission so to do. It is expressly agreed that the different kinds of wheat coming from Russia shall partake of the same privileges, and that their free transit shall never, under any pretext, suffer the least difficulty or hindrance.

The Sublime Porte engages, moreover, to take especial care that the trade and navigation of the Black Sea, particularly, shall be impeded in no manner whatsoever. For this purpose it admits and declares the passage of the Strait of Constantinople and that of the Dardanelles to be entirely free and open to Russian vessels under the merchant flag, laden or in ballast, whether they come from the Black Sea for the purpose of entering the Mediterranean, or whether, coming from the Mediterranean, they wish to enter the Black Sea: such vessels, provided they be merchant ships, whatever their size and tonnage, shall be exposed to no hindrance or annoyance of any kind, as above provided. The two Courts shall agree upon the most fitting means for preventing all delay in issuing the necessary instructions. In virtue of the same principle the passage of the Strait of Constantinople and of that of the Dardanelles is declared free and open to all the merchant ships of Powers who are at Peace with the Sublime Porte, whether going into the Russian ports of the Black Sea or coming from them, laden or in ballast, upon the same conditions which are stipulated for vessels under the Russian flag.

Lastly, the Sublime Porte, recognizing in the Imperial Court of Russia the right of securing the necessary guarantees for this full freedom of trade and navigation in the Black Sea, declares solemnly, that on its part not the least obstacle shall ever, under any pretext whatsoever, be opposed to it. Above all, it promises never to allow itself henceforth to stop or detain vessels laden or in ballast, whether Russian or belonging to nations with whom the Ottoman Porte should not be in a state of declared war, which vessels shall be passing through the Strait of Constantinople and that of the Dardanelles, on their way from the Black Sea into the Mediterranean, or from the Mediterranean into the Russian ports of the Black Sea. And if, which God forbid, any one of the stipulations contained in the present Article should be infringed, and the remonstrances of the Russian Minister thereupon should fail in obtaining a full and prompt redress, the Sublime Porte recognizes beforehand in the Imperial Court of Russia the right of considering such an infraction as an act of hostility, and of immediately having recourse to reprisals against the Ottoman Empire.

ARTICLE X.

In declaring its entire adhesion to the stipulations of the Treaty concluded at London on the 24th June/6th July, 1827, between Russia, Great Britain, and France,¹ the Sublime Porte equally accedes to the Act entered into on the 10th/22nd of

¹ Pacification of Greece, which is to become a dependency of Turkey and pay tribute.

March, 1829, with common consent, between those same Powers upon the bases of the said Treaty, and containing the arrangements of detail relating to its definitive execution. Immediately after the exchange of the Ratifications of the present Treaty of Peace, the Sublime Porte will appoint Plenipotentiaries for the purpose of agreeing with those of the Imperial Court of Russia, and of the Courts of England and of France, upon the carrying into execution the said stipulation and arrangements.

III. TREATY OF UNKIAR SKELESSI.

July 8, 1833.

Russia. Count Alexis Orloff.
A. Bouteneff.

Turkey. Hosrew Mehemet
Pasha.
Ferzi Akhmet Pasha.
Hadgi Mehmet Akiff
Reis Effendi.

ARTICLE I.

There shall be for ever Peace, Amity, and Alliance between His Majesty the Emperor of All the Russias and His Majesty the Emperor of the Ottomans, their Empires and their Subjects, as well by land as by sea. This Alliance having solely for its object the common defence of their dominions against all attack, their Majesties engage to come to an unreserved understanding with each other upon all the matters which concern their respective tranquillity and safety, and to afford to each other mutually for this purpose substantial aid, and the most efficacious assistance.

ARTICLE II.

The Treaty of Peace concluded at Adrianople on the 2nd/14th September, 1829, as well as all the other Treaties comprised therein, as also the Convention signed at St. Petersburg on the 14th/26th April, 1830, and the Arrangement relating to Greece, concluded at Constantinople on the 9th/21st July, 1832, are fully confirmed by the present Treaty of Defensive Alliance, in the same manner as if the said transactions had been inserted in it word for word.

ARTICLE III.

In consequence of the principle of conservation and mutual defence, which is the basis of the present Treaty of Alliance, and by reason of a most sincere desire of securing the permanence,

maintenance, and entire Independence of the Sublime Porte, His Majesty the Emperor of All the Russias, in the event of circumstances occurring which should again determine the Sublime Porte to call for the naval and military assistance of Russia, although, if it please God, that case is by no means likely to happen, engages to furnish, by land and by sea, as many troops and forces as the two High Contracting Parties may deem necessary. It is accordingly agreed, that in this case the Land and Sea Forces, whose aid the Sublime Porte may call for, shall be held at its disposal.

ARTICLE IV.

In conformity with what is above stated, in the event of one of the two Powers requesting the assistance of the other, the expense only of provisioning the Land and the Sea Forces which may be furnished, shall fall to the charge of the Power who shall have applied for the aid.

ARTICLE V.

Although the two High Contracting Parties sincerely intend to maintain this engagement to the most distant period of time, yet, as it is possible that in process of time circumstances may require that some changes should be made in this Treaty, it has been agreed to fix its duration at 8 years from the day of the exchange of the Imperial Ratifications. The two parties, previously to the expiration of that term, will concert together, according to the state of affairs at that time, as to the renewal of the said Treaty.

SEPARATE ARTICLE.

In virtue of one of the clauses of Article I of the Patent Treaty of Defensive Alliance concluded between the Imperial Court of Russia and the Sublime Porte, the two High Contracting Parties are bound to afford to each other mutually substantial aid, and the most efficacious assistance for the safety of their respective dominions. Nevertheless, His Majesty the Emperor of All the Russias, wishing to spare the Sublime Ottoman Porte the expense and inconvenience which might be occasioned to it by affording substantial aid, will not ask for that aid if circumstances should place the Sublime Porte under the obligation of furnishing it. The Sublime Ottoman Porte, in place of the aid which it is bound to furnish in case of need, according to the principle of reciprocity of the Patent Treaty, shall confine its action in favour of the Imperial Court of Russia to closing the Strait of the Dardanelles, that is to say, to not allowing any Foreign Vessels of War to enter therein under any pretext whatsoever.

The present Separate and Secret Article shall have the same force and value as if it was inserted word for word in the Treaty of Alliance of this day.

IV. CONVENTION OF LONDON.

July 13, 1841.

<i>Britain.</i> Viscount Palmerston.	<i>Prussia.</i> Baron de Bülow.
<i>Austria.</i> Prince Esterhazy.	<i>Russia.</i> Baron de Brunnow
Baron de Neumann.	<i>Turkey.</i> Chekib Effendi.
<i>France.</i> Baronde Bourqueneuy.	

ARTICLE I.

His Highness the Sultan, on the one part, declares that he is firmly resolved to maintain for the future the principle invariably established as the ancient rule of his Empire, and in virtue of which it has at all times been prohibited for the Ships of War of Foreign Powers to enter the Straits of the Dardanelles and of the Bosphorus; and that, so long as the Porte is at Peace, His Highness will admit no Foreign Ship of War into the said Straits.

And their Majesties the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, the Emperor of Austria, King of Hungary and Bohemia, the King of the French, the King of Prussia, and the Emperor of All the Russias, on the other part, engage to respect this determination of the Sultan, and to conform themselves to the principle above declared.

ARTICLE II.

It is understood that in recording the inviolability of the ancient rule of the Ottoman Empire mentioned in the preceding Article, the Sultan reserves to himself, as in past times, to deliver Firmans of passage for light Vessels under Flag of War, which shall be employed as is usual in the service of the Missions of Foreign Powers.

ARTICLE III.

His Highness the Sultan reserves to himself to communicate the present Convention to all the Powers with whom the Sublime Porte is in relations of friendship, inviting them to accede thereto.

V. TREATY OF PARIS.

March 30, 1856.

<i>Britain.</i>	Earl of Clarendon. Lord Cowley.	<i>Sardinia.</i>	Count Cavour. Marquis de Villa- Marina.
<i>Austria.</i>	Count Buol-Schauen- stein. Baron de Hübner.	<i>Turkey.</i>	Mouhammed Amin Aali Pasha.
<i>France.</i>	Count Colonna Wal- ewski. Baronde Bourqueney.		Mehemmed Djemil Bey.
<i>Russia.</i>	Count Orloff. Baron de Brunnow.	<i>Prussia.</i>	Baron de Manteuffel. Count Hatzfeldt.

ARTICLE VII.

Her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, His Majesty the Emperor of Austria, His Majesty the Emperor of the French, His Majesty the King of Prussia, His Majesty the Emperor of All the Russias, and His Majesty the King of Sardinia, declare the Sublime Porte admitted to participate in the advantages of the Public Law and System (*Concert*) of Europe. Their Majesties engage, each on his part, to respect the Independence and the Territorial Integrity of the Ottoman Empire ; guarantee in common the strict observance of that engagement ; and will, in consequence, consider any act tending to its violation as a question of general interest.

ARTICLE VIII.

If there should arise between the Sublime Porte and one or more of the other Signing Powers, any misunderstanding which might endanger the maintenance of their relations, the Sublime Porte, and each of such Powers, before having recourse to the use of force, shall afford the other Contracting Parties the opportunity of preventing such an extremity by means of their Mediation.

ARTICLE IX.

His Imperial Majesty the Sultan having, in his constant solicitude for the welfare of his subjects, issued a Firman, which, while ameliorating their condition without distinction of Religion or of Race, records his generous intentions towards the Christian population of his Empire, and wishing to give a further proof of his sentiments in that respect, has resolved to communicate to the Contracting Parties the said Firman, emanating spontaneously from his Sovereign will.

The Contracting Powers recognize the high value of this communication. It is clearly understood that it cannot, in any case, give to the said Powers the right to interfere, either collectively or separately, in the relations of His Majesty the Sultan with his subjects, nor in the Internal Administration of his Empire.

ARTICLE X.

The Convention of 13th of July, 1841, which maintains the ancient rule of the Ottoman Empire relative to the Closing of the Straits of the Bosphorus and of Dardanelles, has been revised by common consent.

The Act concluded for that purpose, and in conformity with that principle, between the High Contracting Parties, is and remains annexed to the present Treaty, and shall have the same force and validity as if it formed an integral part thereof.

ARTICLE XI.

The Black Sea is neutralized ; its Waters and its Ports, thrown open to the Mercantile Marine of every Nation, are formally and in perpetuity interdicted to the Flag of War, either of the Powers possessing its Coasts, or of any other Power, with the exceptions mentioned in Articles XIV and XIX of the present Treaty.

ARTICLE XII.

Free from any impediment, the Commerce in the Ports and Waters of the Black Sea shall be subject only to Regulations of Health, Customs, and Police, framed in a spirit favourable to the development of Commercial transactions.

In order to afford to the Commercial and Maritime interests of every Nation the security which is desired, Russia and the Sublime Porte will admit Consuls into their Ports situated upon the Coast of the Black Sea, in conformity with the principles of International Law.

ARTICLE XIII.

The Black Sea being neutralized according to the terms of Article XI, the maintenance or establishment upon its Coast of Military-Maritime Arsenals becomes alike unnecessary and purposeless ; in consequence, His Majesty the Emperor of All the Russias, and His Imperial Majesty the Sultan, engage not to establish or to maintain upon that Coast any Military-Maritime Arsenal.

ARTICLE XIV.

Their Majesties the Emperor of All the Russias and the Sultan having concluded a Convention for the purpose of settling the

Force and the Number of Light Vessels, necessary for the service of their Coasts, which they reserve to themselves to maintain in the Black Sea, that Convention is annexed to the present Treaty, and shall have the same force and validity as if it formed an integral part thereof. It cannot be either annulled or modified without the assent of the Powers signing the present Treaty.

ARTICLE XV.

The Act of the Congress of Vienna having established the principles intended to regulate the Navigation of Rivers which separate or traverse different States, the Contracting Powers stipulate among themselves that those principles shall in future be equally applied to the Danube and its Mouths. They declare that its arrangement henceforth forms a part of the Public Law of Europe, and take it under their Guarantee.

ARTICLE XXII.

The Principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia shall continue to enjoy under the Suzerainty of the Porte, and under the Guarantee of the Contracting Powers, the Privileges and Immunities of which they are in possession. No exclusive Protection shall be exercised over them by any of the guaranteeing Powers.

There shall be no separate right of interference in their Internal Affairs.

ARTICLE XXIII.

The Sublime Porte engages to preserve to the said Principalities an Independent and National Administration, as well as full liberty of Worship, of Legislation, of Commerce, and of Navigation.

The Laws and Statutes at present in force shall be revised. In order to establish a complete agreement in regard to such revision, a Special Commission, as to the composition of which the High Contracting Powers will come to an understanding among themselves, shall assemble, without delay, at Bucharest, together with a Commissioner of the Sublime Porte.

ARTICLE XXIV.

His Majesty the Sultan promises to convoke immediately in each of the two Provinces a Divan *ad hoc*, composed in such a manner as to represent most closely the interests of all classes of society. These Divans shall be called upon to express the wishes of the people in regard to the definitive organization of the Principalities.

ARTICLE XXV.

Taking into consideration the opinion expressed by the two Divans, the Commission shall transmit, without delay, to the present seat of the Conferences, the result of its own labours.

The Final Agreement with the Suzerain Power shall be recorded in a Convention to be concluded at Paris between the High Contracting Parties ; and a Hatti-sheriff, in conformity with the stipulations of the Convention, shall constitute definitively the organization of those Provinces, placed thenceforward under the Collective Guarantee of all the signing Powers.

ARTICLE XXVI.

It is agreed that there shall be in the Principalities a National Armed Force, organized with the view to maintain the security of the interior, and to ensure that of the Frontiers. No impediment shall be opposed to the extraordinary measures of defence which, by agreement with the Sublime Porte, they may be called upon to take in order to repel any external aggression.

ARTICLE XXVII.

If the Internal Tranquillity of the Principalities should be menaced or compromised, the Sublime Porte shall come to an understanding with the other Contracting Powers in regard to the measures to be taken for maintaining or re-establishing legal order.

No armed Intervention can take place without previous agreement between those Powers.

ARTICLE XXVIII.

The Principality of Servia shall continue to hold of the Sublime Porte, in conformity with the Imperial Hats which fix and determine its Rights and Immunities, placed henceforward under the Collective Guarantee of the Contracting Powers.

In consequence, the said Principality shall preserve its Independent and National Administration, as well as full Liberty of Worship, of Legislation, of Commerce, and of Navigation.

ARTICLE XXIX.

The right of garrison of the Sublime Porte, as stipulated by anterior regulations, is maintained. No Armed Intervention can take place in Servia without previous agreement between the High Contracting Powers.

VI. TREATY OF PARIS.

April 15, 1856.

<i>Britain.</i>	Earl of Clarendon Lord Cowley.	<i>France.</i>	Count Colonna Walewski.
<i>Austria.</i>	Count Buol-Schauenstein. Baron de Hübner.		Baron de Bourqueney.

ARTICLE I.

The High Contracting Parties Guarantee, jointly and severally, the Independence and the Integrity of the Ottoman Empire, recorded in the Treaty concluded at Paris on the 30th of March, 1856.

ARTICLE II.

Any infraction of the stipulations of the said Treaty will be considered by the Powers signing the present Treaty as a *casus belli*. They will come to an understanding with the Sublime Porte as to the measures which have become necessary, and will without delay determine among themselves as to the employment of their Military and Naval Forces.

VII. RUSSIAN NOTE OF TSARSKOË SÉLO.

October 31, 1870.

Prince Gortchakoff to Baron de Brunnow. [Communicated to Britain and other Powers.]

The successive alterations which the transactions considered as the foundation of the European Balance of Power have undergone during late years, have rendered it necessary for the Imperial Cabinet to inquire how far their results affect the political position of Russia.

Among these transactions, that which interests Russia most directly is the Treaty of 18th/30th March, 1856.

The special Convention between the two States bordering on the Black Sea, which forms an Appendix to this Treaty, contains an engagement on the part of Russia to limit her Naval Forces to a minimum.

In return this Treaty established the principle of the Neutralization of that Sea.

By laying down this principle the signatory Powers intended to remove any possibility of a conflict between the Powers

bordering on the Black Sea, or between them and the Maritime Powers. It was intended to increase the number of the Territories which have been accorded the benefit of Neutrality by the unanimous consent of Europe, and thus protect Russia herself from all danger of attack.

A 15 years' experience has proved that this principle, on which the safety of the whole extent of the Russian Frontiers in this direction exclusively depends, is no more than a theory.

In reality, while Russia was disarming in the Black Sea, and, by a Declaration contained in the Protocols of the Conference, likewise loyally deprived herself of the possibility of taking measures for an effectual Maritime Defence in the adjoining Seas and Ports, Turkey preserved her privilege of maintaining unlimited Naval Forces in the Archipelago and the Straits; France and England preserved their power of concentrating their squadrons in the Mediterranean.

Again, under the Treaty in question, the entry of the Black Sea was formally and in perpetuity interdicted to the Flag of War either of the Powers possessing its Coasts or of any other Power; but the so-called Straits Treaty closes the Straits only in time of Peace to men-of-war. Owing to this contradiction, the shores of the Russian Empire are exposed to attack even from less powerful States whenever they have Naval Forces at their disposal, while all that Russia could oppose to them would be some ships of small size.

The Treaty of 18th/30th March, 1856, has, moreover, not escaped the modifications to which most European transactions have been exposed, and in the face of which it would be difficult to maintain that the written Law, founded upon the respect for Treaties as the basis of Public Right and regulating the relations between States, retains the moral validity which it may have possessed at other times.

We have witnessed the Principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia, whose position had, under the guarantee of the Great Powers, been defined in the Treaty of Peace and the subsequent Protocols, accomplish a series of revolutions which are equally at variance with the letter and spirit of these transactions, and which first led to the Union, and subsequently to the election of a Foreign Prince. These facts have obtained the sanction of the Porte and the consent of the Great Powers,—or, at any rate, the latter have not thought it necessary to enforce their decisions.

The Representative of Russia was the only one who raised his voice to remind the Cabinets that by this tolerance they would be departing from the distinct stipulations of the Treaty.

No doubt, if these concessions to one of the Christian Nationalities of the East had proceeded from a general agreement between the Cabinets and the Porte, and if they had been based upon

a principle alike applicable to all the Christian populations of Turkey, they would have been applauded by the Imperial Cabinet ; but they were exclusive.

The Imperial Cabinet, therefore, could not but be surprised at seeing the Treaty of 18th/30th March, 1856, violated with impunity in one of its most essential clauses, but a few years after its conclusion, and this in face of the Great Powers assembled in Conference at Paris, and representing together the high collective authority on which rested the Peace of the East.

But this infraction was not the only one. Repeatedly, and under various pretexts, Foreign Men-of-War have been suffered to enter the Straits, and whole Squadrons, whose presence was an infraction of the character of absolute Neutrality attributed to those waters, admitted to the Black Sea.

While the pledges offered by the Treaty, and more especially the Guarantees for the effective Neutralization of the Black Sea, were thus being weakened, the introduction of ironclad vessels, unknown and unforeseen at the conclusion of the Treaty of 1856, increased the danger for Russia in the event of War, by adding considerably to the already patent inequality of the respective Naval Forces.

Under these circumstances, His Majesty could not but ask himself what are the Rights and Duties accruing to Russia from these modifications of the general situation and the departures from the engagements which, although conceived in a spirit of distrust towards herself, she has invariably and scrupulously observed.

After maturely considering this question, His Imperial Majesty has arrived at the following conclusions, which you are instructed to bring to the knowledge of the Government to which you are accredited :—

Our illustrious Master cannot admit, *de jure*, that Treaties, violated in several of their essential and general clauses, should remain binding in other clauses directly affecting the interests of his Empire.

His Imperial Majesty cannot admit, *de facto*, that the security of Russia should depend on a fiction which has not stood the test of time, and should be imperilled by her respect for engagements which have not been observed in their integrity.

Confiding in the feelings of justice of the Powers who have signed the Treaty of 1856, as well as in their consciousness of their own dignity, the Emperor commands you to declare that His Imperial Majesty cannot any longer hold himself bound by the stipulations of the Treaty of 18th/30th March, 1856, as far as they restrict his Sovereign Rights in the Black Sea ;

That His Imperial Majesty deems himself both entitled and obliged to denounce to His Majesty the Sultan the Special and

Additional Convention appended to the said Treaty, which fixes the number and size of the Vessels of War which the two Powers bordering on the Black Sea shall keep in that Sea ;

That His Majesty loyally informs of this the Powers who have signed and guaranteed the General Treaty, of which the Convention in question forms an integral part ;

That His Majesty restores to the Sultan the full exercise of his rights in this respect, resuming the same for himself ;

In acquitting yourself of this duty, you will take care to point out that our illustrious Master has only the safety and dignity of his Empire in view. His Imperial Majesty has no wish to revive the Eastern Question. On this point, as on all others, he has no wish but the preservation and consolidation of Peace. He fully adheres to his consent to the general principles of the Treaty of 1856, which have fixed the position of Turkey in the European system. He is ready to enter into an understanding with the Powers who have signed that transaction, for the purpose either of confirming its general stipulations, or of renewing them, or of replacing them by some other equitable arrangement, which may be considered as calculated to secure the tranquillity of the East, and the Balance of Power in Europe.

His Imperial Majesty is convinced that that Peace and that Balance of Power will receive a fresh Guarantee if they are based upon a more just and solid foundation than one resulting from a state of things which no Great Power can accept as a normal condition of its existence.

VIII. TREATY OF LONDON.

March 13, 1871.

<i>Britain.</i>	Earl Granville.	<i>France.</i>	Duc de Broglie.
<i>Germany.</i>	Count Bernstorff- Stinterberg.	<i>Italy.</i>	Chevalier Cadorna.
<i>Austria.</i>	Count Apponyi.	<i>Russia.</i>	Baron de Brunnow.
		<i>Turkey.</i>	Musurus Pasha.

ARTICLE I.

Articles XI, XIII, and XIV of the Treaty of Paris of the 30th March, 1856, as well as the special Convention concluded between Russia and the Sublime Porte, and annexed to the said Article XIV, are abrogated, and replaced by the following Article.

ARTICLE II.

The principle of the closing of the Straits of the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus, such as it has been established by the

separate Convention of the 30th March, 1856, is maintained, with power to His Imperial Majesty the Sultan to open the said Straits in time of Peace to the Vessels of War of friendly and allied Powers, in case the Sublime Porte should judge it necessary in order to secure the execution of the stipulations of the Treaty of Paris of the 30th March, 1856.

ARTICLE III.

The Black Sea remains open, as heretofore, to the Mercantile Marine of all Nations.

ARTICLE VIII.

The High Contracting Parties renew and confirm all the stipulations of the Treaty of the 30th March, 1856, as well as of its annexes, which are not annulled or modified by the present Treaty.

IX. TREATY OF SAN STEFANO.

Preliminaries of Peace between Russia and Turkey.

Signed at San Stefano, ^{19 February}_{3 March}, 1878.

[Communicated to the Earl of Derby by Count Schouvaloff,
March 23, 1878.]

Russia. Count N. Ignatiew. *Turkey.* Safvet Pasha.
A. Nelidow. Sadoullah Bey.

ARTICLE I.

Afin de mettre un terme aux conflits perpétuels entre la Turquie et le Monténégro, la frontière qui sépare les deux pays sera rectifiée, conformément à la carte ci-annexée, sauf la réserve ci-après, de la manière suivante :—

De la montagne de Dobrostitza, la frontière suivra la ligne indiquée par la Conférence de Constantinople jusqu'à Korito par Bilek. De là la nouvelle frontière ira à Gatzko (Metochia-Gatsko appartiendra au Monténégro) et vers le confluent de la Piva et de la Tara, en remontant au nord par la Drina jusqu'à son confluent avec le Lim. La frontière orientale de la Principauté suivra cette dernière rivière jusqu'à Prijepoljé, et se dirigera par Roshaj à Sukha-Planina (laissant Bihor et Roshaj au Monténégro). En englobant Bugowo, Plava, et Gusinje, la ligne frontière suivra la chaîne des montagnes par

Shlieb, Paklen, et le long de la frontière de l'Albanie du nord par la crête des monts Koprivnik, Babavik, Bor-vik, jusqu'au sommet le plus élevé de Prokléti. De ce point la frontière se dirigera par le sommet de Biskaschik et ira en ligne droite au Lac de Tjiceni-hoti. Partageant Tjiceni-hoti et Tjiceni-kastrati elle traversera le Lac de Sentari pour aboutir à la Boyana, dont elle suivra le thalweg jusqu'à la mer. Niksitch, Gatzko, Spouje, Podgoritza, Jabliak, et Antivari resteront au Monténégro.

Une Commission Européenne, dans laquelle seront représentés la Sublime Porte et le Gouvernement du Monténégro, sera chargée de fixer les limites définitives de la Principauté, en apportant sur les lieux au tracé général les modifications qu'elle croirait nécessaires et équitables, au point de vue des intérêts respectifs et de la tranquillité des deux pays, auxquelles elle accordera de ce fait les équivalents reconnus nécessaires.

La navigation de la Boyana ayant toujours donné lieu à des contestations entre la Sublime Porte et le Monténégro, fera l'objet d'un règlement spécial qui sera élaboré par la même Commission Européenne.

ARTICLE II.

La Sublime Porte reconnaît définitivement l'indépendance de la Principauté du Monténégro.

Une entente entre le Gouvernement Impérial de Russie, le Gouvernement Ottoman, et la Principauté de Monténégro déterminera ultérieurement le caractère et la forme des rapports entre la Sublime Porte et la Principauté en ce qui touche notamment l'institution d'Agents Monténégrins à Constantinople, et dans certaines localités de l'Empire Ottoman, où la nécessité en sera reconnue, l'extradition des criminels réfugiés sur l'un ou l'autre territoire, et la soumission des Monténégrins, voyageant ou séjournant dans l'Empire Ottoman, aux lois et aux autorités Ottomanes, suivant les principes du droit international et les usages établis concernant les Monténégrins.

Une Convention sera conclue entre la Sublime Porte et le Monténégro pour régler les questions se rattachant aux rapports entre les habitants des confins des deux pays et aux ouvrages militaires sur ces mêmes confins. Les points sur lesquels une entente ne pourrait être établie seront résolus par l'arbitrage de la Russie et de l'Autriche-Hongrie.

Dorénavant, s'il y a discussion ou conflit, sauf les cas de nouvelles réclamations territoriales, la Turquie et le Monténégro abandonneront le règlement de leurs différends à la Russie et à l'Autriche-Hongrie, qui devront statuer en commun arbitralement.

Les troupes du Monténégro seront tenues d'évacuer le

territoire non compris dans la circonscription indiquée plus haut, dans le délai de dix jours à partir de la signature des Préliminaires de Paix.

ARTICLE III.

La Serbie est reconnue indépendante. Sa frontière, marquée sur la carte ci-jointe, suivra le thalweg de la Drina en laissant le Petit Zwornik et Zakar à la Principauté, et en longeant l'ancienne limite jusqu'aux sources du ruisseau Dezevo, près de Stoilac. De là le nouveau tracé suivra le cours de ce ruisseau jusqu'à la Rivière Raska, et puis le cours de celle-ci jusqu'à Novi-Bazar.

De Novi-Bazar, remontant le ruisseau, qui passe près des villages Mekinje et Irgoviste jusqu'à sa source, la ligne frontière se dirigera par Bosur Planina dans la vallée de l'Ibar et descendra le ruisseau qui se jette dans cette rivière près du village Ribanic.

Ensuite elle suivra le cours des rivières Ibar, Sitnitza, Lab, et du ruisseau Batintze, jusqu'à sa source (sur la Grapachnitza Planina). De là la frontière suivra les hauteurs qui séparent les eaux de la Kriva et de la Veternitza et rejoindra, par la ligne la plus courte, cette dernière rivière à l'embouchure du ruisseau Miovatzka, pour remonter celui-ci, traverser la Miovatzka Planina et redescendre vers la Morawa, près du village de Kalimanci.

A partir de ce point la frontière descendra la Morava jusqu'à la Rivière Vlossina, près du village Staïkovtzi, en remontant cette dernière ainsi que la Linberazda et le ruisseau Koukavitze, passera par la Sukha Planina, longera le ruisseau de Vrylo jusqu'à la Nisawa et descendra la dite rivière jusqu'au village de Kronpatz, d'où elle ira rejoindre, par la ligne la plus courte, l'ancienne frontière Serbe au sud-est de Karaoul Baré, pour ne plus la quitter jusqu'au Danube.

Ada-Kalé sera évacué et rasé. Une Commission Turco-Serbe établira sur les lieux, avec l'assistance d'un Commissaire Russe, le tracé définitif de la frontière, dans l'espace de trois mois, et réglera définitivement les questions relatives aux Îles de la Drina. Un Délégué Bulgare sera admis à participer aux travaux de la Commission lorsqu'elle s'occupera de la frontière entre la Serbie et la Bulgarie.

ARTICLE IV.

Les Musulmans qui possèdent des propriétés dans les territoires annexés à la Serbie, et qui voudraient fixer leur résidence hors de la Principauté, pourront y conserver leurs immeubles, en les faisant affermer ou administrer par d'autres. Une Commission Turco-Serbe, assistée d'un Commissaire Russe,

sera chargée de statuer souverainement, dans le courant de deux années, sur toutes les questions relatives à la constatation des propriétés immobilières où des intérêts Musulmans seraient engagés.

Cette Commission sera également appelée à régler, dans le terme de trois années, le mode d'aliénation des biens appartenant à l'État ou aux fondations pieuses (vacouf) et les questions relatives aux intérêts des particuliers qui pourraient s'y trouver engagés. Jusqu'à la conclusion d'un Traité direct entre la Turquie et la Serbie déterminant le caractère et la forme des relations entre la Sublime Porte et la Principauté, les sujets Serbes voyageant et séjournant dans l'Empire Ottoman seront traités suivant les principes généraux du droit international.

Les troupes Serbes seront tenues d'évacuer le territoire non compris dans la circonscription indiquée plus haut dans le délai de quinze jours, à partir de la signature des Préliminaires de Paix.

ARTICLE V.

La Sublime Porte reconnaît l'indépendance de la Roumanie, qui fera valoir ses droits à une indemnité à débattre entre les deux parties.

Jusqu'à la conclusion d'un Traité direct entre la Turquie et la Roumanie, les sujets Roumains jouiront en Turquie de tous les droits garantis aux sujets des autres Puissances Européennes.

ARTICLE VI.

La Bulgarie est constituée en Principauté autonome tributaire, avec un Gouvernement Chrétien, et une milice nationale.

Les frontières définitives de la Principauté Bulgare seront tracées par une Commission Spéciale Russo-Turque avant l'évacuation de la Roumélie par l'armée Impériale Russe.

Cette Commission tiendra compte dans ses travaux pour les modifications à introduire sur les lieux au tracé général du principe de la nationalité de la majorité des habitants des confins, conformément aux Bases de la Paix, ainsi que des nécessités topographiques et des intérêts pratiques de circulation pour les populations locales.

L'étendue de la Principauté de Bulgarie est fixée en traits généraux sur la carte ci-jointe, qui devra servir de base à la délimitation définitive. En quittant la nouvelle frontière de la Principauté Serbe le tracé suivra la limite occidentale du Caza de Wrania jusqu'à la chaîne du Kara-dagh.

Tournant vers l'ouest la ligne suivra les limites occidentales des Cazas de Koumanovo, Kotchani, Kalkandelen, jusqu'au Mont Korab ; de là, par la Rivière Welestchitza jusqu'à sa

jonction avec le Drine Noire. Se dirigeant vers le sud par le Drine et après par la limite occidentale du Caza d'Ochride vers le Mont Linas, la frontière suivra les limites occidentales des Cazas de Gortcha et Starovo jusqu'au Mont Grammos. Ensuite par le Lac de Kastoria, la ligne frontière rejoindra la Rivière Moglénitza et, après avoir suivi son cours et passé au sud de Yanitza (Wardar Yenidje), se dirigera par l'embouchure du Wardar et par le Galliko vers les villages de Parga et de Saraï-keui ; de là par le milieu du Lac Bechik-Guel à l'embouchure des Rivières Strouma et Karassou, et par la côte maritime jusqu'au Buru-Guel ; plus loin, partant dans la direction nord-ouest, vers le Mont Tchaltépé par la chaîne du Rhodope jusqu'au Mont Krouchowo, par les Balkans Noirs (Kara Balkan), par les Monts Eschek-Koulatchi, Tchepelion, Karakolas et Tschiklar, jusqu'à la Rivière Arda.

De là la ligne frontière sera tracée dans la direction de la ville de Tchirmen et, laissant la ville d'Andrinople au midi, par les villages de Sugutlion, Kara-Hamza, Arnaout-Keui, Akardji, et Enidje, jusqu'à la Rivière Tékéderessi. En suivant le cours de Tékéderessi et de Tchorlouderessi jusqu'à Loulé-Bourgaz et de là par la Rivière Soudjak-déré jusqu'au village de Serguen, la ligne frontière ira par les hauteurs directement vers Hakimtabiassi, où elle aboutira à la Mer Noire. Elle quittera la côte maritime près de Mangalia, en longeant les limites méridionales du Sandjak de Toultscha, et aboutira au Danube au-dessus de Rassoava.

ARTICLE VII.

Le Prince de la Bulgarie sera librement élu par la population et confirmé par la Sublime Porte avec l'assentiment des Puissances. Aucun membre des dynasties régnantes des Grandes Puissances Européennes ne pourra être élu Prince de la Bulgarie.

En cas de vacance de la dignité de Prince de la Bulgarie l'élection du nouveau Prince se fera dans les mêmes conditions et dans les mêmes formes.

Une Assemblée de Notables de la Bulgarie, convoquée à Philippopolis (Plowdiw) ou Tyrnowo, élaborera, avant l'élection du Prince, sous la surveillance d'un Commissaire Impérial Russe et en présence d'un Commissaire Ottoman, l'organisation de l'administration future, conformément aux précédents établis en 1830, après la paix d'Andrinople, dans les Principautés Danubiennes.

Dans les localités où les Bulgares sont mêlés aux Turcs, aux Grecs, aux Valaques (Koutzo-Vlachs), ou autres, il sera tenu un juste compte des droits et intérêts de ces populations dans les élections et l'élaboration du Règlement Organique.

L'introduction du nouveau régime en Bulgarie et la surveillance de son fonctionnement seront confiées pendant deux années à un Commissaire Impérial Russe. A l'expiration de la première année après l'introduction du nouveau régime et si une entente à ce sujet s'établit entre la Russie, la Sublime Porte, et les Cabinets Européens, ils pourront, s'il est jugé nécessaire, adjoindre au Commissaire Impérial de Russie des Délégués Spéciaux.

ARTICLE VIII.

L'armée Ottomane ne séjournera plus en Bulgarie et toutes les anciennes forteresses seront rasées aux frais du Gouvernement local. La Sublime Porte aura le droit de disposer à sa guise du matériel de guerre et autres objets appartenant au Gouvernement Ottoman, et qui seraient restés dans les forteresses du Danube déjà évacuées en vertu de l'armistice du $\frac{19}{31}$ Janvier, ainsi que de ceux qui se trouveraient dans les places fortes de Schoumla et de Varna.

Jusqu'à la formation complète d'une milice indigène suffisante pour le maintien de l'ordre, de la sécurité et de la tranquillité, et dont le chiffre sera fixé plus tard par une entente entre le Gouvernement Ottoman et le Cabinet Impérial de Russie, des troupes Russes occuperont le pays et prêteront main-forte au Commissaire en cas de besoin. Cette occupation sera limitée également à un terme approximatif de deux années.

L'effectif du corps d'occupation Russe, composé de six divisions d'infanterie et de deux de cavalerie, qui séjournera en Bulgarie après l'évacuation de la Turquie par l'armée Impériale, n'excédera pas 50,000 hommes. Il sera entretenu aux frais du pays occupé. Les troupes d'occupation Russes en Bulgarie conserveront leurs communications avec la Russie, non-seulement par la Roumanie, mais aussi par les ports de la Mer Noire, Varna et Bourgas, où elles pourront organiser pour la durée de l'occupation les dépôts nécessaires.

ARTICLE IX.

Le montant du tribut annuel que la Bulgarie paiera à la Cour Suzeraine en le versant à la Banque que la Sublime Porte désignera ultérieurement, sera déterminé par un accord entre la Russie, le Gouvernement Ottoman, et les autres Cabinets, à la fin de la première année du fonctionnement de la nouvelle organisation. Ce tribut sera établi sur le revenu moyen de tout le territoire qui fera partie de la Principauté.

La Bulgarie sera substituée au Gouvernement Impérial Ottoman dans ses charges et obligations envers la Compagnie

du Chemin de Fer de Roustchouk-Varna, après entente entre la Sublime Porte, le Gouvernement de la Principauté, et l'administration de cette Compagnie. Le règlement relatif aux autres voies ferrées qui traversent la Principauté est également réservé à un accord entre la Sublime Porte, le Gouvernement institué en Bulgarie, et l'administration des Compagnies intéressées.

ARTICLE X.

La Sublime Porte aura le droit de se servir de la voie de la Bulgarie pour le transport, par des routes déterminées, de ses troupes, munitions, et approvisionnements dans les provinces situées au-delà de la Principauté, et *vice versa*. Afin d'éviter les difficultés et les malentendus dans l'application de ce droit, tout en garantissant les nécessités militaires de la Sublime Porte, un règlement spécial en établira les conditions dans l'espace de trois mois après la ratification du présent acte, par une entente entre la Sublime Porte et l'administration de la Bulgarie.

Il est bien entendu que ce droit ne s'étendra qu'aux troupes Ottomanes régulières et que les irréguliers, les Bachi-Bouzouks et les Circassiens, en seront absolument exclus.

La Sublime Porte se réserve aussi le droit de faire passer à travers la Principauté sa poste et d'y entretenir une ligne télégraphique. Ces deux points seront également réglés de la façon et dans le laps de temps susindiqués.

ARTICLE XI.

Les propriétaires Musulmans ou autres qui fixeraient leur résidence personnelle hors de la Principauté pourront y conserver leurs immeubles en les faisant affermer ou administrer par d'autres. Des Commissions Turco-Bulgares siégeront dans les principaux centres de population sous la surveillance de Commissaires Russes pour statuer souverainement, dans le courant de deux années, sur toutes les questions relatives à la constatation des propriétés immobilières où des intérêts Musulmans ou autres seraient engagés.

Des Commissions analogues seront chargées de régler, dans le courant de deux années, toutes les affaires relatives au mode d'aliénation, d'exploitation, ou d'usage pour le compte de la Sublime Porte, des propriétés de l'État et des fondations pieuses (*vacouf*).

A l'expiration du terme de deux années mentionné plus haut, toutes les propriétés qui n'auront pas été réclamées seront vendues aux enchères publiques et le produit en sera consacré à l'entretien des veuves et des orphelins, tant Musulmans que Chrétiens, victimes des derniers événements.

ARTICLE XII.

Toutes les forteresses du Danube seront rasées. Il n'y aura plus dorénavant de places fortes sur les rives de ce fleuve, ni de bâtiments de guerre dans les eaux des Principautés de Roumanie, de Serbie, et de Bulgarie, sauf les stationnaires usités et les bâtiments légers destinés à la police fluviale et au service des douanes.

Les droits, obligations, et prérogatives de la Commission Internationale du Bas-Danube sont maintenus intacts.

ARTICLE XIII.

La Sublime Porte prend à sa charge le rétablissement de la navigabilité du passage de Soulina et le dédommagement des particuliers dont les biens auraient souffert du fait de la guerre et de l'interruption de la navigation sur le Danube, en affectant à cette double dépense une somme de 500,000 fr. sur celles qui lui sont dues par la Commission Danubienne.

ARTICLE XIV.

Seront immédiatement introduites en Bosnie et en Herzégovine les propositions Européennes communiquées aux Plénipotentiaires Ottomans dans la première séance de la Conférence de Constantinople avec les modifications qui seront arrêtées d'un commun accord entre la Sublime Porte et le Gouvernement de Russie et celui d'Autriche-Hongrie.

Le paiement des arriérés ne sera pas exigé, et les revenus courants de ces provinces, jusqu'au 1^{er} Mars, 1880, seront exclusivement employés à indemniser les familles des réfugiés et des habitants victimes des derniers événements, sans distinction de race et de religion, ainsi qu'aux besoins locaux du pays. La somme qui devra revenir annuellement après ce terme, au Gouvernement central, sera fixé ultérieurement par une entente spéciale entre la Turquie, la Russie et l'Autriche-Hongrie.

ARTICLE XV.

La Sublime Porte s'engage à appliquer scrupuleusement dans l'île de Crète le Règlement Organique de 1868, en tenant compte des vœux déjà exprimés par la population indigène.

Un règlement analogue, adapté aux besoins locaux, sera également introduit dans l'Épire, la Thessalie, et les autres parties de la Turquie d'Europe pour lesquelles une organisation spéciale n'est pas prévue par le présent acte.

Des Commissions Spéciales, dans lesquelles l'élément indigène aura une large participation, seront chargées dans chaque province d'élaborer les détails du nouveau règlement.

Le résultat de ces travaux sera soumis à l'examen de la Sublime Porte, qui consultera le Gouvernement Impérial de Russie avant de les mettre à l'exécution.

ARTICLE XVI.

Comme l'évacuation par les troupes Russes des territoires qu'elles occupent en Arménie, et qui doivent être restitués à la Turquie, pourrait y donner lieu à des conflits et à des complications préjudiciables aux bonnes relations des deux pays, la Sublime Porte s'engage à réaliser sans plus de retard les améliorations et les réformes exigées par les besoins locaux dans les provinces habitées par les Arméniens et à garantir leur sécurité contre les Kurds et les Circassiens.

ARTICLE XVII.

Une amnistie pleine et entière est accordée par la Sublime Porte à tous les sujets Ottomans compromis dans les derniers événements, et toutes les personnes détenues de ce fait ou envoyées en exil seront immédiatement mises en liberté.

ARTICLE XVIII.

La Sublime Porte prendra en sérieuse considération l'opinion émise par les Commissaires des Puissances médiatrices au sujet de la possession de la ville de Khotour, et s'engage à faire exécuter les travaux de délimitation définitive de la frontière Turco-Persane.

ARTICLE XIX.

Les indemnités de guerre et les pertes imposées à la Russie que Sa Majesté l'Empereur de Russie réclame et que la Sublime Porte s'est engagée à lui rembourser se composent de :

(a.) 900,000,000 de roubles de frais de guerre (entretien de l'armée, remplacement du matériel, commandes de guerre) ;

(b.) 400,000,000 de roubles de dommages infligés au littoral méridional du pays, au commerce d'exportation, à l'industrie et aux chemins de fer ;

(c.) 100,000,000 de roubles de dommages causés au Caucase par l'invasion ;

(d.) 10,000,000 de roubles de dommages et intérêts aux sujets et institutions Russes en Turquie.

Total, 1,410,000,000 de roubles.

Prenant en considération les embarras financiers de la Turquie et d'accord avec le désir de Sa Majesté le Sultan, l'Empereur de Russie consent à remplacer le paiement de la plus grande partie des sommes énumérées dans le paragraphe précédent par les cessions territoriales suivantes :—

(a.) Le Sandjak de Toultscha, c'est-à-dire les districts (cazas) de Kilia, Soulina, Mahmoudié, Isaktcha, Toultscha, Matchine, Babadagh, Hirsowo, Kustendje, et Medjidié, ainsi que les Iles du Delta et l'Ile des Serpents.

Ne désirant pas s'annexer ce territoire et les Iles du Delta, la Russie se réserve la faculté de les échanger contre la partie de la Bessarabie détachée par le Traité de 1856 et limitée au midi par le thalweg du bras de Kilia et l'embouchure du Stary-Stamboul.

La question du partage des eaux et des pêcheries devra être réglé par une Commission Russo-Roumaine dans l'espace d'une année après la ratification du Traité de Paix.

(b.) Ardahan, Kars, Batoum, Bayazet et le territoire jusqu'au Saganlough.

En traits généraux, la ligne frontière en quittant la côte de la Mer Noire suivra la crête des montagnes qui séparent les affluents de la rivière Hopa de ceux de la Rivière Tcharokh et la chaîne de montagnes au sud de la ville d'Artwin jusqu'à la Rivière Tcharokh près des villages Alat et Bechaget ; puis la frontière se dirigera par les sommets des monts Dervenikghek, Hortchezor, et Bedjiguin-Dagh par la crête qui sépare les affluents des Rivières Tortoum-tehai et Tcharokh et par les hauteurs près de Zaily-Vihine pour aboutir au village Vihine-Kilissa sur la Rivière Tortoum-Tchai ; de là elle suivra la chaîne Sivri-Dagh jusqu'au col de ce nom, en passant au sud du village Noriman ; elle tournera ensuite vers le sud-est, ira à Zivine, d'où la frontière, passant à l'ouest de la route qui mène de Zivine aux villages Ardozt et Horassan, se dirigera au sud par la chaîne de Saganlough jusqu'au village Gilitchman ; puis par la crête du Charian-Dagh elle arrivera à dix verstes au sud de Hamour au défilé de Murad Tchai ; la frontière longera ensuite la crête de l'Alla-Dagh et les sommets du Hori et du Tandourek et, passant au sud de la vallée de Bayazet, ira rejoindre l'ancienne frontière Turco-Persane au sud du Lac de Kazli-gueul.

Les limites définitives du territoire annexé à la Russie, indiquées sur la carte ci-jointe, seront fixées par une Commission composée de délégués Russes et Ottomans.

Cette Commission tiendra compte dans ses travaux tant de la topographie des localités que des considérations de bonne administration et des conditions propres à assurer la tranquillité du pays.

(c.) Les territoires mentionnés dans les paragraphes (a) et (b) sont cédés à la Russie comme équivalent de la somme d'un milliard cent millions de roubles. Quant au reste de l'indemnité, sauf les 10,000,000 de roubles, dûs aux intérêts et institutions Russes en Turquie, soit 300,000,000 de roubles,

le mode de paiement de cette somme, et la garantie à y affecter, seront réglés par une entente entre le Gouvernement Impérial de Russie et celui de Sa Majesté le Sultan.

(d.) Les 10,000,000 de roubles réclamés comme indemnité pour les sujets et institutions Russes en Turquie seront payés à mesure que les réclamations des intéressés seront examinées par l'Ambassade Russe à Constantinople et transmises à la Sublime Porte.

ARTICLE XX.

La Sublime Porte prendra des mesures efficaces pour terminer à l'amiable toutes les affaires litigieuses des sujets Russes pendantes depuis plusieurs années, dédommager ces derniers s'il y a lieu, et faire exécuter sans délai les sentences rendues.

ARTICLE XXI.

Les habitants des localités cédées à la Russie, qui voudraient fixer leur résidence hors de ces territoires, seront libres de se retirer en vendant leurs propriétés immobilières. Un délai de trois ans leur est accordé à cet effet à partir de la ratification du présent Acte.

Passé ce délai, les habitants qui n'auront pas quitté le pays et vendu leurs immeubles resteront sujets Russes.

Les biens immeubles appartenant à l'État ou aux fondations pieuses, sises en dehors des localités précitées, devront être vendus dans le même délai de trois années, suivant le mode qui sera réglé par une Commission spéciale Russo-Turque. La même Commission sera chargée de déterminer le mode de retrait par le Gouvernement Ottoman du matériel de guerre, des munitions, des approvisionnements, et autres objets appartenant à l'État, et qui existeraient dans les places, villes, et localités cédées à la Russie et non occupées actuellement par les troupes Russes.

ARTICLE XXII.

Les ecclésiastiques, les pèlerins, et les moines Russes voyageant ou séjournant dans la Turquie d'Europe et d'Asie jouiront des mêmes droits, avantages, et privilèges que les ecclésiastiques étrangers appartenant à d'autres nationalités.

Le droit de protection officielle est reconnue à l'Ambassade Impériale et aux Consulats Russes en Turquie tant à l'égard des personnes sus-indiquées que de leurs possessions, établissements religieux, de bienfaisance, et autres dans les lieux saints et ailleurs.

Les moines de Mont Athos d'origine Russe seront maintenus dans leurs possessions et avantages antérieurs, et continueront à jouir, dans les trois couvents qui leur appartiennent

et dans les dépendances de ces derniers, des mêmes droits et prérogatives que ceux qui sont assurés aux autres établissements religieux et couvents de Mont Athos.

ARTICLE XXIII.

Tous les Traités, Conventions et engagements antérieurement conclus entre les deux Hautes Parties Contractantes relativement au commerce, à la juridiction, et à la position des sujets Russes en Turquie, et qui avaient été supprimés par l'état de guerre, seront remis en vigueur, sauf les clauses auxquelles il serait dérogé par le présent Acte. Les deux Gouvernements seront replacés, l'un vis-à-vis de l'autre, pour tous leurs engagements et rapports commerciaux et autres, dans la situation même où ils se trouvaient avant la déclaration de guerre.

ARTICLE XXIV.

Le Bosphore et les Dardanelles resteront ouverts en temps de guerre comme en temps de paix aux navires marchands des États neutres arrivant des ports Russes ou en destination de ces ports. La Sublime Porte s'engage en conséquence à ne plus établir dorénavant, devant les ports de la Mer Noire et de celle d'Azow, de blocus fictif qui s'écarterait de l'esprit de la Déclaration signée à Paris le $\frac{4}{16}$ Avril, 1856.

ARTICLE XXV.

L'évacuation complète par l'armée Russe de la Turquie d'Europe, à l'exception de la Bulgarie, aura lieu dans l'espace de trois mois après la conclusion de la paix définitive entre Sa Majesté l'Empereur de Russie et Sa Majesté le Sultan.

Afin de gagner du temps, et d'éviter le maintien prolongé des troupes Russes en Turquie et en Roumanie, une partie de l'armée Impériale pourra être dirigée vers des ports de la Mer Noire et de celle de Marmora pour y être embarquée sur des bâtiments appartenant au Gouvernement Russe ou frétés pour la circonstance.

L'évacuation de la Turquie d'Asie s'opérera dans l'espace de six mois à dater de la conclusion de la paix définitive, et les troupes Russes auront la faculté de s'embarquer à Trébizonde pour retourner par le Caucase ou par la Crimée.

Les opérations de l'évacuation devront commencer immédiatement après l'échange des ratifications.

ARTICLE XXVI.

Tant que les troupes Impériales Russes séjourneront dans les localités qui, conformément au présent Acte, seront restituées

à la Sublime Porte, l'administration et l'ordre des choses resteront dans le même état que depuis l'évacuation. La Sublime Porte ne devra y prendre aucune part durant tout ce temps, et jusqu'à l'entière sortie de toutes les troupes.

Les troupes Ottomanes ne devront entrer dans les localités qui seront restituées à la Sublime Porte, et cette dernière ne pourra commencer à exercer son autorité, que lorsque, pour chaque place et province qui aura été évacuée par les troupes Russes, le Commandant de ces troupes en aura donné connaissance à l'officier désigné à cet effet de la part de la Sublime Porte.

ARTICLE XXVII.

La Sublime Porte prend l'engagement de ne sévir d'aucune manière, ni laisser sévir, contre les sujets Ottomans qui auraient été compromis par leur relation avec l'armée Russe pendant la guerre. Dans le cas où quelques personnes voudraient se retirer avec leurs familles à la suite des troupes Russes, les autorités Ottomanes ne s'opposent pas à leur départ.

ARTICLE XXVIII.

Immédiatement après la ratification des Préliminaires de Paix, les prisonniers de guerre seront rendus réciproquement par les soins des commissaires spéciaux nommés de part et d'autre, et qui se rendront à cet effet à Odessa et à Sébastopol. Le Gouvernement Ottoman payera tous les frais de l'entretien des prisonniers qui lui seront restitués en dix-huit termes égaux dans l'espace de six années d'après les comptes qui seront établis par les commissaires susmentionnés.

L'échange des prisonniers entre le Gouvernement Ottoman et ceux de la Roumanie, de la Serbie, et du Monténégro, aura lieu sur les mêmes bases, en déduisant toutefois, dans le décompte à établir, le nombre des prisonniers restitués par le Gouvernement Ottoman du nombre des prisonniers qui lui seront restitués.

ARTICLE XXIX.

Le présent Acte sera ratifié par leurs Majestés Impériales l'Empereur de Russie et l'Empereur des Ottomans, et les ratifications seront échangées dans quinze jours, ou plus tôt si faire se peut, à St-Petersbourg, où l'on conviendra également du lieu et de l'époque à laquelle les stipulations du présent Acte seront revêtues des formes solennelles usitées dans les Traités de Paix.

Il demeure toutefois bien entendu que les Hautes Parties Contractantes se considèrent comme formellement liées par le présent Acte depuis le moment de sa ratification.

En foi de quoi les Plénipotentiaires respectifs ont revêtu le présent Acte de leurs signatures, et y ont apposé leurs cachets.

Fait à San Stéfano, le ^{dix-neuf Février}_{trois Mars}, mil huit-cent soixante dix-huit.

Paragraphe final de l'Article XI de l'Acte des Préliminaires de Paix signé aujourd'hui ^{19 Février}_{3 Mars}, 1878, qui a été omis, et qui doit faire partie intégrante du dit Article :—

Les habitants de la Principauté de Bulgarie qui voyageront ou séjourneront dans les autres parties de l'Empire Ottoman seront soumis aux lois et aux autorités Ottomanes.

X. TREATY OF BERLIN.

Signed at Berlin, July 13, 1878.

<i>Britain.</i>	Earl of Beaconsfield. Marquess of Salisbury. Lord Odo Russell.	<i>France.</i>	M. W. H. Waddington. Comte de Saint-Vallier. M. F. H. Desprez.
<i>Germany.</i>	Prince Bismarck. de Bülow. Prince Hohenlohe-Schillingsfürst.	<i>Italy.</i>	Comte Corti. Comte de Launay.
<i>Austria.</i>	Count Andrassy. Count Károlyi. Baron de Haymerle.	<i>Russia.</i>	Prince Gortchakow. Comte Schouvaloff. M. P. d'Oubril.
		<i>Turkey.</i>	Carathéodory Pasha. Mehemed Ali Pasha. Sadoullah Bey.

ARTICLE I^{er}.

La Bulgarie est constituée en Principauté autonome et tributaire sous la suzeraineté de S. M. I. le Sultan ; elle aura un Gouvernement Chrétien et une milice nationale.

ARTICLE II.

La Principauté de Bulgarie comprendra les territoires ci-après :

La frontière suit au nord la rive droite du Danube depuis l'ancienne frontière de Serbie jusqu'à un point à déterminer par une Commission Européenne à l'est de Silistrie et, de là, se dirige vers la Mer Noire au sud de Mangalia, qui est rattaché au territoire Roumain. La Mer Noire forme la limite est de la Bulgarie. Au sud, la frontière remonte, depuis son embouchure, le thalweg du ruisseau près duquel se trouvent les villages Hodžakiöj, Selam-Kiöj, Aivadžik, Kulibe, Sudžuluk ;

traverse obliquement la vallée du Deli Kamcik, passe au sud de Belibe et de Kemhalik et au nord de Hadžimahale, après avoir franchi le Deli Kamcik à 2½ kilomètres en amont de Ćengei ; gagne la crête à un point situé entre Tekenlik et Aidos-bredza et la suit par Karnabad Balkan, Prisevica Balkan, Kazan Balkan au nord de Kotel jusqu'à Demir Kapu. Elle continue par la chaîne principale du Grand Balkan, dont elle suit toute l'étendue jusqu'au sommet de Kosica.

Là elle quitte la crête du Balkan, descend vers le sud entre les villages de Pirtop et de Dužanci, laissés l'un à la Bulgarie et l'autre à la Roumélie Orientale, jusqu'au ruisseau de Tuzlu Dere, suit ce cours d'eau jusqu'à sa jonction avec la Topolnica, puis cette rivière jusqu'à son confluent avec Smovskio Dere, près du village de Petricevo, laissant à la Roumélie Orientale une zone de 2 kilomètres de rayon en amont de ce confluent, remonte entre les ruisseaux de Smovskio Dere et la Kamenica, suivant la ligne de partage des eaux, pour tourner au sud-ouest à la hauteur de Voinjak, et gagner directement le point 875 de la carte de l'État-Major Autrichien.

La ligne-frontière coupe en ligne droite le bassin supérieur du ruisseau d'Ichtiman Dere, passe entre Bôgdina et Karaúla, pour retrouver la ligne de partage des eaux séparant les bassins de l'Isker et de la Marica, entre Ćamurli et Hadžilar, suit cette ligne par les sommets de Velina Mogila, le col 531, Zmailica Vrh, Sumnatica, et rejoint la limite administrative du Sandjak de Sofia entre Sivri Taš et Ćadir Tepe.

De Ćadir Tepe, la frontière, se dirigeant au sud-ouest, suit la ligne de partage des eaux entre les bassins du Mesta Karasu d'un côté et du Strúma Karasu de l'autre, longe les crêtes des Montagnes du Rhodope appelées Demir Kapu, Iskoštepe, Kadimesa Balkan, et Aiji Gedük jusqu'à Kapetnik Balkan, et se confond ainsi avec l'ancienne frontière administrative du Sandjak de Sofia.

De Kapetnik Balkan la frontière est indiquée par la ligne de partage des eaux entre les vallées de la Rilska-reka et de la Bistrica-reka, et suit le contrefort appelé Vodénica Planina, pour descendre dans la vallée de la Struma au confluent de cette rivière avec la Rilska-reka, laissant le village de Barakli à la Turquie. Elle remonte alors au sud du village de Jelešnica, pour atteindre, par la ligne la plus courte, la chaîne de Golema Planina au sommet de Gitka, et y rejoindre l'ancienne frontière administrative du Sandjak de Sofia, laissant toutefois à la Turquie la totalité du bassin de la Suha-reka.

Du Mont Gitka, la frontière ouest se dirige vers le Mont Ćrni Vrh par les Montagnes de Karvena Jabuka; en suivant l'ancienne limite administrative du Sandjak de Sofia dans la partie supérieure des bassins de Egrisu et de la Lepnica, gravit

avec elle les crêtes de Babina-palona, et arrive au Mont Crni Vrh.

Du Mont Crni Vrh, la frontière suit la ligne de partage des eaux entre la Struma et la Morawa par les sommets du Strešer, Filogolo, et Mešid Planina, rejoint par la Gačina, Crna Trava, Darkovska, et Drainica plan, puis le Deščáni Kladanec, la ligne de partage des eaux de la Haute Sukowa et de la Morawa, va directement sur le Stol, et en descend pour couper à 1,000 mètres au nord-ouest du village de Seguša la route de Sofia à Pirot. Elle remonte en ligne droite sur la Vidlič Planina et de là sur le Mont Radočina dans la chaîne du Kodža Balkan, laissant à la Serbie le village de Doikinci, et à la Bulgarie celui de Senakos.

Du sommet du Mont Radočina la frontière suit vers l'ouest de la crête des Balkans par Ciprovec Balkan et Stara Planina jusqu'à l'ancienne frontière orientale de la Principauté de Serbie près de la Kula Smiljova Cuka, et de là cette ancienne frontière jusqu'au Danube, qu'elle rejoint à Rokovitza.

Cette délimitation sera fixée sur les lieux par la Commission Européenne, où les Puissances Signataires seront représentées. Il est entendu—

1. Que cette Commission prendra en considération la nécessité pour S. M. I. le Sultan de pouvoir défendre les frontières du Balkan de la Roumélie Orientale.

2. Qu'il ne pourra être élevé de fortifications dans un rayon de 10 kilomètres autour de Samakow.

ARTICLE III.

Le Prince de Bulgarie sera librement élu par la population et confirmé par la S. Porte, avec l'assentiment des Puissances. Aucun membre des dynasties régnantes des Grandes Puissances Européennes ne pourra être élu Prince de Bulgarie.

En cas de vacance de la dignité princière l'élection du nouveau Prince se fera aux mêmes conditions et dans les mêmes formes.

ARTICLE IV.

Une assemblée de Notables de la Bulgarie, convoquée à Tirmovo, élaborera, avant l'élection du Prince, le Règlement Organique de la Principauté.

Dans les localités où les Bulgares sont mêlés à des populations Turques, Roumaines, Grecques ou autres, il sera tenu compte des droits et des intérêts de ces populations en ce qui concerne les élections et l'élaboration du Règlement Organique.

ARTICLE V.

Les dispositions suivantes formeront la base du droit public de la Bulgarie :—

La distinction des croyances religieuses et des confessions ne pourra être opposée à personne comme un motif d'exclusion ou d'incapacité en ce qui concerne la jouissance des droits civils et politiques, l'admission aux emplois publics, fonctions et honneurs ou l'exercice des différentes professions et industries, dans quelque localité que ce soit.

La liberté et la pratique extérieure de tous les cultes sont assurées à tous les ressortissants de la Bulgarie, aussi bien qu'aux étrangers, et aucune entrave ne pourra être apportée soit à l'organisation hiérarchique des différentes communions, soit à leurs rapports avec leurs chefs spirituels.

ARTICLE VI.

L'administration provisoire de la Bulgarie sera dirigée jusqu'à l'achèvement du Règlement Organique par un Commissaire Impérial Russe. Un Commissaire Impérial Ottoman, ainsi que les Consuls délégués *ad hoc* par les autres Puissances Signataires du présent Traité, seront appelés à l'assister à l'effet de contrôler le fonctionnement de ce régime provisoire. En cas de dissentiment entre les Consuls délégués, la majorité décidera et, en cas de divergence entre cette majorité et le Commissaire Impérial Russe ou le Commissaire Impérial Ottoman, les Représentants des Puissances Signataires à Constantinople, réunis en Conférence, devront prononcer.

ARTICLE VII.

Le régime provisoire ne pourra être prolongé au delà d'un délai de neuf mois à partir de l'échange des ratifications du présent Traité.

Lorsque le Règlement Organique sera terminé il sera procédé immédiatement à l'élection du Prince de Bulgarie. Aussitôt que le Prince aura été institué, la nouvelle organisation sera mise en vigueur, et la Principauté entrera en pleine jouissance de son autonomie.

ARTICLE VIII

Les Traités de Commerce et de Navigation, ainsi que toutes les Conventions et arrangements conclus entre les Puissances étrangères et la Porte, et aujourd'hui en vigueur, sont maintenus dans la Principauté de Bulgarie, et aucun changement n'y sera apporté à l'égard d'aucune Puissance avant qu'elle n'y ait donné son consentement.

Aucun droit de transit ne sera prélevé en Bulgarie sur les marchandises traversant cette Principauté.

Les nationaux et le commerce de toutes les Puissances y seront traités sur le pied d'une parfaite égalité.

Les immunités et privilèges des sujets étrangers, ainsi que les droits de juridiction et de protection Consulaires, tels qu'ils ont été établis par les Capitulations et les usages, resteront en pleine vigueur tant qu'ils n'auront pas été modifiés du consentement des parties intéressées.

ARTICLE IX.

Le montant du tribut annuel que la Principauté de Bulgarie paiera à la Cour Suzeraine, en le versant à la banque que la S. Porte désignera ultérieurement, sera déterminé par un accord entre les Puissances Signataires du présent Traité, à la fin de la première année du fonctionnement de la nouvelle organisation. Ce tribut sera établi sur le revenu moyen du territoire de la Principauté.

La Bulgarie devant supporter une part de la Dette Publique de l'Empire, lorsque les Puissances détermineront le tribut, elles prendront en considération la partie de cette dette qui pourrait être attribuée à la Principauté sur la base d'une équitable proportion.

ARTICLE X.

La Bulgarie est substituée au Gouvernement Impérial Ottoman dans ses charges et obligations envers la Compagnie du chemin de fer de Roustchouk-Varna, à partir de l'échange des ratifications du présent Traité. Le règlement des comptes antérieurs est réservé à une entente entre la S. Porte, le Gouvernement de la Principauté et l'administration de cette Compagnie.

La Principauté de Bulgarie est de même substitué pour sa part aux engagements que la S. Porte a contractés tant envers l'Autriche-Hongrie qu'envers la Compagnie pour l'exploitation des chemins de fer de la Turquie d'Europe, par rapport à l'achèvement et au raccordement ainsi qu'à l'exploitation des lignes ferrées situées sur son territoire.

Les Conventions nécessaires pour régler ces questions seront conclues entre l'Autriche-Hongrie, la Porte, la Serbie et la Principauté de Bulgarie immédiatement après la conclusion de la paix.

ARTICLE XI.

L'armée Ottomane ne séjournera plus en Bulgarie ; toutes les anciennes forteresses seront rasées aux frais de la Principauté dans le délai d'un an, ou plus tôt si faire se peut ; le

Gouvernement local prendra immédiatement des mesures pour les détruire, et ne pourra en faire construire de nouvelles. La Sublime Porte aura le droit de disposer à sa guise du matériel de guerre et autres objets appartenant au Gouvernement Ottoman et qui seraient restés dans les forteresses du Danube déjà évacuées en vertu de l'Armistice du 31 Janvier, ainsi que de ceux qui se trouveraient dans les places fortes de Schoumla et de Varna.

ARTICLE XII.

Les propriétaires Musulmans ou autres qui fixeraient leur résidence personnelle hors de la Principauté pourront y conserver leurs immeubles en les affermant ou en les faisant administrer par des tiers.

Une Commission Turco-Bulgare sera chargée de régler, dans le courant de deux années, toutes les affaires relatives au mode d'aliénation, d'exploitation ou d'usage, pour le compte de la S. Porte, des propriétés de l'État et des fondations pieuses (Vakoufs), ainsi que les questions relatives aux intérêts des particuliers qui pourraient s'y trouver engagés.

Les ressortissants de la Principauté de Bulgarie qui voyageront ou séjourneront dans les autres parties de l'Empire Ottoman seront soumis aux autorités et aux lois Ottomanes.

ARTICLE XIII.

Il est formé au sud des Balkans une province qui prendra le nom de 'Roumélie Orientale', et qui restera placée sous l'autorité politique et militaire directe de S. M. I. le Sultan, dans des conditions d'autonomie administrative. Elle aura un Gouverneur-Général Chrétien.

ARTICLE XIV.

La Roumélie Orientale est limitée au nord et au nord-ouest par la Bulgarie, et comprend les territoires inclus dans le tracé suivant :—

Partant de la Mer Noire, la ligne frontière remonte, depuis son embouchure, le thalweg du ruisseau près duquel se trouvent les villages Hodžakiöj, Selam Kiöj, Aivadšik, Kulibe, Sudžuluk, traverse obliquement la Vallée du Deli Kamčik, passe au sud de Belibe et de Kemhalik et au nord de Hadžimahale, après avoir franchi le Deli Kamčik à 2½ kilomètres en amont de Čengei ; gagne la crête à un point situé entre Tekenlik et Aidos-Bredža, et la suit par Karnabad Balkan, Prisevica Balkan, Kazan Balkan, au nord de Kotel jusqu'à Demir Kapu. Elle continue par la chaîne principale du Grand Balkan, dont elle suit toute l'étendue jusqu'au sommet de Kosica.

A ce point, la frontière occidentale de la Roumélie quitte la crête du Balkan, descend vers le sud entre les villages de Pirtop et de Dužanci, laissés l'un à la Bulgarie et l'autre à la Roumélie Orientale, jusqu'au ruisseau de Tuzlu Dere, suit ce cours d'eau jusqu'à sa jonction avec la Topolnica, puis cette rivière jusqu'à son confluent avec Smovskio Dere près du village de Petričevo, laissant à la Roumélie Orientale une zone de 2 kilomètres de rayon en amont de ce confluent, remonte entre les ruisseaux de Smovskio Dere et la Kamenica, suivant la ligne de partage des eaux, pour tourner au sud-ouest, à la hauteur de Voinjak, et gagner directement le point 875 de la carte de l'État-Major Autrichien.

La ligne frontière coupe, en ligne droite, le bassin supérieur du ruisseau d'Ichtiman Dere, passe entre Bogdina et Karaŭla, pour retrouver la ligne de partage des eaux séparant les bassins de l'Isker et de la Marica, entre Čamurli et Hadžilar, suit cette ligne par les sommets de Velina Mogila, le col 531, Zmailica Vrh, Sumnatica, et rejoint la limite administrative du Sandjak de Sofia entre Sivri Taš et Čadir Tepe.

La frontière de la Roumélie se sépare de celle de la Bulgarie au Mont Čadir Tepe, en suivant la ligne de partage des eaux entre le bassin de la Marica et de ses affluents d'un côté et du Mesta Karasu et de ses affluents de l'autre, et prend les directions sud-est et sud, par la crête des Montagnes Despoto Dagh, vers le Mont Kruschowa (point de départ de la ligne du Traité de San Stefano).

Du Mont Kruschowa la frontière se conforme au tracé déterminé par le Traité de San Stefano, c'est-à-dire, la chaîne des Balkans Noirs (Kara Balkan), les Montagnes Kulaghy-Dagh, Eschek-Tschpellü, Karakolas et Ischiklar, d'où elle descend directement vers le sud-est pour rejoindre la rivière Arda, dont elle suit le thalweg jusqu'à un point situé près du village d'Adačali, qui reste à la Turquie.

De ce point la ligne frontière gravit la crête de Beštepe Dagh, qu'elle suit pour descendre et traverser la Maritza à un point situé 5 kilomètres en amont du pont du Mustafa Pacha ; elle se dirige ensuite vers le nord par la ligne de partage des eaux entre Demirhanli Dere et les petits affluents de la Maritza jusqu'à Kūdeler Baïr, d'où elle se dirige à l'est sur Sakar Baïr, de là traverse la Vallée de la Tundža, allant vers Būjūk Derbend, qu'elle laisse au nord, ainsi que Soudzak. De Būjūk Derbend elle reprend la ligne de partage des eaux entre les affluents de la Tundža au nord et ceux de la Maritza au sud, jusqu'à la hauteur de Kaibilar, qui reste à la Roumélie Orientale, passe au sud de V. Almali entre le bassin de la Maritza au sud et différents cours d'eau qui se rendent directement vers la Mer Noire, entre les villages de Belevrin et Alatli ;

elle suit au nord de Karanlik les crêtes de Vosna et Zuvak, la ligne qui sépare les eaux de la Duka de celles du Karagač-Su, et rejoint la Mer Noire entre les deux rivières de ce nom.

ARTICLE XV.

S. M. le Sultan aura le droit de pourvoir à la défense des frontières de terre et de mer de la province en élevant des fortifications sur ces frontières et en y entretenant des troupes.

L'ordre intérieur est maintenu dans la Roumélie Orientale par une gendarmerie indigène, assistée d'une milice locale.

Pour la composition de ces deux corps, dont les officiers sont nommés par le Sultan, il sera tenu compte, suivant les localités, de la religion des habitants.

S. M. I. le Sultan s'engage à ne point employer de troupes irrégulières telles que Bachi-Bozouks et Circassiens dans les garnisons des frontières. Les troupes régulières destinées à ce service ne pourront en aucun cas être cantonnées chez l'habitant. Lorsqu'elles traverseront la province, elles ne pourront y faire de séjour.

ARTICLE XVI.

Le Gouverneur-Général aura le droit d'appeler les troupes Ottomanes dans les cas où la sécurité intérieure ou extérieure de la province se trouverait menacée. Dans l'éventualité prévue, la S. Porte devra donner connaissance de cette décision, ainsi que des nécessités qui la justifient, aux Représentants des Puissances à Constantinople.

ARTICLE XVII.

Le Gouverneur-Général de la Roumélie Orientale sera nommé par la S. Porte, avec l'assentiment des Puissances, pour un terme de cinq ans.

ARTICLE XVIII.

Immédiatement après l'échange des ratifications du présent Traité, une Commission Européenne sera formée pour élaborer, d'accord avec la Porte Ottomane, l'organisation de la Roumélie Orientale. Cette Commission aura à déterminer, dans un délai de trois mois, les pouvoirs et les attributions du Gouverneur-Général, ainsi que le régime administratif, judiciaire et financier de la province, en prenant pour point de départ les différentes lois sur les vilayets et les propositions faites dans la huitième séance de la Conférence de Constantinople.

L'ensemble des dispositions arrêtées pour la Roumélie Orientale fera l'objet d'un Firman Impérial, qui sera promulgué par la Sublime Porte et dont elle donnera communication aux Puissances.

ARTICLE XIX.

La Commission Européenne sera chargée d'administrer, d'accord avec la Sublime Porte, les finances de la province jusqu'à l'achèvement de la nouvelle organisation.

ARTICLE XX.

Les Traités, Conventions, et arrangements internationaux, de quelque nature qu'ils soient, conclus ou à conclure entre la Porte et les Puissances étrangères, seront applicables dans la Roumélie Orientale comme dans tout l'Empire Ottoman. Les immunités et privilèges acquis aux étrangers, quelle que soit leur condition, seront respectés dans cette province. La S. Porte s'engage à y faire observer les lois générales de l'Empire sur la liberté religieuse en faveur de tous les cultes.

ARTICLE XXI.

Les droits et obligations de la S. Porte, en ce qui concerne les chemins de fer dans la Roumélie Orientale, sont maintenus intégralement.

ARTICLE XXII.

L'effectif du corps d'occupation Russe en Bulgarie et dans la Roumélie Orientale sera composé de six divisions d'infanterie et de deux divisions de cavalerie, et n'excédera pas 50,000 hommes. Il sera entretenu aux frais du pays occupé. Les troupes d'occupation conserveront leurs communications avec la Russie, non seulement par la Roumanie d'après les arrangements à conclure entre les deux États, mais aussi par les ports de la Mer Noire, Varna et Bourgas, où elles pourront organiser, pour la durée de l'occupation, les dépôts nécessaires.

La durée de l'occupation de la Roumélie Orientale et de la Bulgarie par les troupes Impériales Russes est fixée à neuf mois à dater de l'échange des ratifications du présent Traité.

Le Gouvernement Impérial Russe s'engage à terminer, dans un délai ultérieur de trois mois, le passage de ses troupes à travers la Roumanie et l'évacuation complète de cette Principauté.

ARTICLE XXIII.

La Sublime Porte s'engage à appliquer scrupuleusement dans l'île de Crète le Règlement Organique de 1868, en y apportant les modifications qui seraient jugées équitables.

Des règlements analogues adaptés aux besoins locaux, sauf en ce qui concerne les exemptions d'impôt accordées à la Crète, seront également introduits dans les autres parties de

la Turquie d'Europe pour lesquelles une organisation particulière n'a pas été prévue par le présent Traité.

La Sublime Porte chargera des Commissions Spéciales, au sein desquelles l'élément indigène sera largement représenté, d'élaborer les détails de ces nouveaux règlements dans chaque province.

Les projets d'organisation résultant de ces travaux seront soumis à l'examen de la Sublime Porte, qui, avant de promulguer les actes destinés à les mettre en vigueur, prendra l'avis de la Commission Européenne instituée pour la Roumélie Orientale.

ARTICLE XXIV.

Dans le cas où la Sublime Porte et la Grèce ne parviendraient pas à s'entendre sur la rectification de frontière indiquée dans le Treizième Protocole du Congrès de Berlin, l'Allemagne, l'Autriche-Hongrie, la France, la Grande-Bretagne, l'Italie, et la Russie se réservent d'offrir leur médiation aux deux parties pour faciliter les négociations.

ARTICLE XXV.

Les Provinces de Bosnie et d'Herzégovine seront occupées et administrées par l'Autriche-Hongrie.

Le Gouvernement d'Autriche-Hongrie ne désirant pas se charger de l'administration du Sandjak de Novi-Bazar, qui s'étend entre la Serbie et le Monténégro dans la direction sud-est jusqu'au delà de Mitrovitza, l'Administration Ottomane continuera d'y fonctionner. Néanmoins, afin d'assurer le maintien du nouvel état politique ainsi que la liberté et la sécurité des voies de communication, l'Autriche-Hongrie se réserve le droit de tenir garnison et d'avoir des routes militaires et commerciales sur toute l'étendue de cette partie de l'ancien Vilayet de Bosnie. A cet effet les Gouvernements d'Autriche-Hongrie et de Turquie se réservent de s'entendre sur les détails.

ARTICLE XXVI.

L'indépendance du Monténégro est reconnue par la S. Porte et par toutes celles des Hautes Parties Contractantes qui ne l'avaient pas encore admise.

ARTICLE XXVII.

Les Hautes Parties Contractantes sont d'accord sur les conditions suivantes :—

Dans le Monténégro la distinction des croyances religieuses et des confessions ne pourra être opposée à personne comme un motif d'exclusion ou d'incapacité en ce qui concerne la

jouissance des droits civils et politiques, l'admission aux emplois publics, fonctions, et honneurs, ou l'exercice des différentes professions et industries, dans quelque localité que ce soit. La liberté et la pratique extérieure de tous les cultes seront assurées à tous les ressortissants du Monténégro aussi bien qu'aux étrangers, et aucune entrave ne pourra être apportée, soit à l'organisation hiérarchique des différentes communions, soit à leurs rapports avec leurs chefs spirituels.

ARTICLE XXVIII.

Les nouvelles frontières du Monténégro sont fixées ainsi qu'il suit :—

Le tracé partant de l'Ilinobrdo au nord de Klobuk descend sur la Trebinjčica vers Grančarevo, qui reste à l'Herzégovine, puis remonte le cours de cette rivière jusqu'à un point situé à un kilomètre en aval du confluent de la Čepelica et, de là, rejoint, par la ligne la plus courte, les hauteurs qui bordent la Trebinjčica. Il se dirige ensuite vers Pilatova, laissant ce village au Monténégro, puis continue par les hauteurs dans la direction nord, en se maintenant autant que possible à une distance de 6 kilomètres de la route Bilek-Korito-Gaeko, jusqu'au col situé entre la Somina-Planina et le Mont Čurilo, d'où il se dirige à l'est par Vratkoviči, laissant ce village à l'Herzégovine, jusqu'au Mont Orlin. A partir de ce point, la frontière—laissant Ravno au Monténégro—s'avance directement par le nord-nord-est en traversant les sommets du Lebernšik et du Volujak, puis descend par la ligne la plus courte sur la Piva, qu'elle traverse, et rejoint la Tara en passant entre Crkveia et Nedvina. De ce point elle remonte la Tara jusqu'à Mojkovac, d'où elle suit la crête du contrefort jusqu'à Siškojezero. A partir de cette localité elle se confond avec l'ancienne frontière jusqu'au village de Sekulare. De là, la nouvelle frontière se dirige par les crêtes de la Mokra Planina, le village de Mokra restant au Monténégro, puis elle gagne le point 2166 de la carte de l'État-Major Autrichien, en suivant la chaîne principale et la ligne du partage des eaux, entre le Lim d'un côté, et le Drin, ainsi que la Cjevna (Zem), de l'autre.

Elle se confond ensuite avec les limites actuelles entre la tribu des Kuči-Drekaloviči d'un côté, et la Kučka-Krajna, ainsi que les tribus des Klementi et Grudi, de l'autre, jusqu'à la plaine de Podgorica, d'où elle se dirige sur Plavnica, laissant à l'Albanie les tribus des Klementi, Grudi, et Hoti.

De là, la nouvelle frontière traverse le lac près de l'îlot de Gorica-Topal, et à partir de Gorica-Topal, elle atteint directement les sommets de la crête, d'où elle suit la ligne du partage des eaux entre Megured et Kalimid, laissant Mrkovič au Monténégro et rejoignant la Mer Adriatique à V. Kruči.

Au nord-ouest le tracé sera formé par une ligne passant de la côte entre les villages Susana et Zubei et aboutissant à la pointe extrême sud-est de la frontière actuelle du Monténégro sur la Vrsuta-Planina.

ARTICLE XXIX.

Antivari et son littoral sont annexés au Monténégro sous les conditions suivantes :—

Les contrées situées au sud de ce territoire, d'après la délimitation ci-dessus déterminée, jusqu'à la Bojana, y compris Dulcinjo, seront restituées à la Turquie.

La commune de Spiča jusqu'à la limite septentrionale du territoire indiqué dans la description détaillée des frontières sera incorporée à la Dalmatie.

Il y aura pleine et entière liberté de navigation sur la Bojana pour le Monténégro. Il ne sera pas construit de fortifications sur le parcours de ce fleuve, à l'exception de celles qui seraient nécessaires à la défense locale de la place de Scutari, lesquelles ne s'étendront pas au delà d'une distance de 6 kilomètres de cette ville.

Le Monténégro ne pourra avoir ni bâtiments ni pavillon de guerre.

Le port d'Antivari et toutes les eaux du Monténégro resteront fermées aux bâtiments de guerre de toutes les nations.

Les fortifications situées entre le lac et le littoral sur le territoire Monténégrin seront rasées, et il ne pourra en être élevé de nouvelles dans cette zone.

La police maritime et sanitaire, tant à Antivari que le long de la côte du Monténégro, sera exercée par l'Autriche-Hongrie au moyen de bâtiments légers garde-côtes.

Le Monténégro adoptera la législation maritime en vigueur en Dalmatie. De son côté, l'Autriche-Hongrie s'engage à accorder sa protection Consulaire au pavillon marchand Monténégrin.

Le Monténégro devra s'entendre avec l'Autriche-Hongrie sur le droit de construire et d'entretenir à travers le nouveau territoire Monténégrin une route et un chemin de fer.

Une entière liberté de communications sera assurée sur ces voies.

ARTICLE XXX.

Les Musulmans ou autres qui possèdent des propriétés dans les territoires annexés au Monténégro, et qui voudraient fixer leur résidence hors de la Principauté, pourront conserver leurs immeubles en les affermant ou en les faisant administrer par des tiers.

Personne ne pourra être exproprié que légalement pour cause d'intérêt public, et moyennant une indemnité préalable.

Une Commission Turco-Monténégrine sera chargée de régler dans le terme de trois ans toutes les affaires relatives au mode d'aliénation, d'exploitation, et d'usage pour le compte de la S. Porte des propriétés de l'État et des fondations pieuses (Vakoufs), ainsi que les questions relatives aux intérêts des particuliers qui s'y trouveraient engagés.

ARTICLE XXXI.

La Principauté du Monténégro s'entendra directement avec la Porte Ottomane sur l'institution d'agents Monténégrins à Constantinople et dans certaines localités de l'Empire Ottoman où la nécessité en sera reconnue.

Les Monténégrins voyageant ou séjournant dans l'Empire Ottoman seront soumis aux lois et aux autorités Ottomanes suivant les principes généraux du droit international et les usages établis concernant les Monténégrins.

ARTICLE XXXII.

Les troupes du Monténégro seront tenues d'évacuer, dans un délai de vingt jours à partir de l'échange des ratifications du présent Traité, ou plus tôt si faire se peut, le territoire qu'elles occupent en ce moment en dehors des nouvelles limites de la Principauté. Les troupes Ottomanes évacueront les territoires cédés au Monténégro dans le même délai de vingt jours. Il leur sera toutefois accordé un terme supplémentaire de quinze jours, tant pour quitter les places fortes et pour en retirer les approvisionnements et le matériel que pour dresser l'inventaire des engins et objets qui ne pourraient être enlevés immédiatement.

ARTICLE XXXIII.

Le Monténégro devant supporter une partie de la Dette Publique Ottomane pour les nouveaux territoires qui lui sont attribués par le Traité de Paix, les Représentants des Puissances à Constantinople en détermineront le montant, de concert avec la S. Porte, sur une base équitable.

ARTICLE XXXIV.

Les Hautes Parties Contractantes reconnaissent l'indépendance de la Principauté de Serbie en la rattachant aux conditions exposées dans l'Article suivant.

ARTICLE XXXV.

En Serbie la distinction des croyances religieuses et des confessions ne pourra être opposée à personne comme un

motif d'exclusion et d'incapacité en ce qui concerne la jouissance des droits civils et politiques, l'admission aux emplois publics, fonctions et honneurs, ou l'exercice des différentes professions et industries, dans quelque localité que ce soit.

La liberté et la pratique extérieure de tous les cultes seront assurées à tous les ressortissants de la Serbie aussi bien qu'aux étrangers, et aucune entrave ne pourra être apportée soit à l'organisation hiérarchique des différentes communions, soit à leurs rapports avec leurs chefs spirituels.

ARTICLE XXXVI.

La Serbie reçoit les territoires inclus dans la délimitation ci-après :—

La nouvelle frontière suit le tracé actuel en remontant le thalweg de la Drina depuis son confluent avec la Save, laissant à la Principauté le Mali Zvornik et Sokhar, et continue à longer l'ancienne limite de la Serbie jusqu'au Kopaonik, dont elle se détache au sommet du Kanilug. De là elle suit d'abord la limite occidentale du Sandjak de Nisch par le contrefort sud du Kopaonik, par les crêtes de la Marica et Mrdar Planina, qui forment la ligne de partage des eaux entre les bassins de l'Ibar et de la Sitnica d'un côté et celui de la Toplica de l'autre, laissant Prepolac à la Turquie.

Elle tourne ensuite vers le sud par la ligne du partage des eaux entre la Brvenica et la Medvedja, laissant tout le bassin de la Medvedja à la Serbie, suit la crête de la Goljak Planina (formant le partage des eaux entre la Kriva Rjeka d'un côté et la Poljanica, la Veternica, et la Morawa de l'autre) jusqu'au sommet de la Poljanica. Puis elle se dirige par le contrefort de la Karpina Planina jusqu'au confluent de la Koinska avec la Morawa, traverse cette rivière, remonte par la ligne de partage des eaux entre le ruisseau Koinska et le ruisseau qui tombe dans la Morawa près de Neradovec, pour rejoindre la Planina Sv. Ilijia au-dessus de Trgovište. De ce point elle suit la crête de Sv. Ilijia jusqu'au Mont Kljuc, et, passant par les points indiqués sur la carte par 1516 et 1547 et par la Babina Gora, elle aboutit au Mont Crni Vrh.

A partir du Mont Crni Vrh la nouvelle délimitation se confond avec celle de la Bulgarie, c'est-à-dire :

La ligne frontière suit la ligne de partage des eaux entre la Struma et la Morawa par les sommets de Strešer, Vilogolo, et Mešid Planina, rejoint par la Gašina, Crna Trava, Darkosvka, et Drainica Plan, puis le Deščani Kladanec, la ligne de partage des eaux de la Haute Sukowa et de la Morawa, va directement sur le Stol et en descend pour couper à 1,000 mètres au nord-ouest du village de Seguša la route de Sofia à Pirot. Elle remonte, en ligne droite, sur la Vidlic Planina, et de là

sur le Mont Radoëina, dans la chaîne du Kodža Balkan, laissant à la Serbie le village de Doikinci et à la Bulgarie celui de Senakos.

Du sommet du Mont Radoëina la frontière suit vers le nord-ouest la crête des Balkans par Ciprovec Balkan et Stara Planina jusqu'à l'ancienne frontière orientale de la Principauté de Serbie près la Kula Smiljova čuka, et, de là, cette ancienne frontière jusqu'au Danube, qu'elle rejoint à Rakowitza.

ARTICLE XXXVII.

Jusqu'à la conclusion de nouveaux arrangements rien ne sera changé en Serbie aux conditions actuelles des relations commerciales de la Principauté avec les pays étrangers.

Aucun droit de transit ne sera prélevé sur les marchandises traversant la Serbie.

Les immunités et privilèges des sujets étrangers, ainsi que les droits de juridiction et de protection Consulaires, tels qu'ils existent aujourd'hui, resteront en pleine vigueur tant qu'ils n'auront pas été modifiés d'un commun accord entre la Principauté et les Puissances intéressées.

ARTICLE XXXVIII.

La Principauté de Serbie est substituée pour sa part aux engagements que la Sublime Porte a contractés, tant envers l'Autriche-Hongrie qu'envers la Compagnie pour l'exploitation des chemins de fer de la Turquie d'Europe, par rapport à l'achèvement et au raccordement ainsi qu'à l'exploitation des lignes ferrées à construire sur le territoire nouvellement acquis par la Principauté.

Les Conventions nécessaires pour régler ces questions seront conclues immédiatement après la signature du présent Traité entre l'Autriche-Hongrie, la Porte, la Serbie, et, dans les limites de sa compétence, la Principauté de Bulgarie.

ARTICLE XXXIX.

Les Musulmans qui possèdent des propriétés dans les territoires annexés à la Serbie, et qui voudraient fixer leur résidence hors de la Principauté, pourront y conserver leurs immeubles, en les affermant ou en les faisant administrer par des tiers.

Une Commission Turco-Serbe sera chargée de régler, dans le délai de trois années, toutes les affaires relatives au mode d'aliénation, d'exploitation, ou d'usage pour le compte de la S. Porte, des propriétés de l'État, et des fondations pieuses (Vakoufs), ainsi que les questions relatives aux intérêts des particuliers qui pourraient s'y trouver engagés.

ARTICLE XL.

Jusqu'à la conclusion d'un Traité entre la Turquie et la Serbie, les sujets Serbes voyageant ou séjournant dans l'Empire Ottoman seront traités suivant les principes généraux du droit international.

ARTICLE XLI.

Les troupes Serbes seront tenues d'évacuer, dans le délai de quinze jours à partir de l'échange des ratifications du présent Traité, le territoire non compris dans les nouvelles limites de la Principauté.

Les troupes Ottomanes évacueront les territoires cédés à la Serbie dans le même délai de quinze jours. Il leur sera toutefois accordé un terme supplémentaire du même nombre de jours tant pour quitter les places fortes, et pour en retirer les approvisionnements et le matériel, que pour dresser l'inventaire des engins et objets qui ne pourraient être enlevés immédiatement.

ARTICLE XLII.

La Serbie devant supporter une partie de la Dette Publique Ottomane pour les nouveaux territoires qui lui sont attribués par le présent Traité, les Représentants à Constantinople en détermineront le montant, de concert avec la S. Porte, sur une base équitable.

ARTICLE XLIII.

Les Hautes Parties Contractantes reconnaissent l'indépendance de la Roumanie en la rattachant aux conditions exposées dans les deux Articles suivants.

ARTICLE XLIV.

En Roumanie la distinction des croyances religieuses et des confessions ne pourra être opposée à personne comme un motif d'exclusion ou d'incapacité en ce qui concerne la jouissance des droits civils et politiques, l'admission aux emplois publics, fonctions, et honneurs, ou l'exercice des différentes professions et industries, dans quelque localité que ce soit.

La liberté et la pratique extérieure de tous les cultes seront assurées à tous les ressortissants de l'État Roumain aussi bien qu'aux étrangers, et aucune entrave ne sera apportée, soit à l'organisation hiérarchique des différentes communions, soit à leurs rapports avec leurs chefs spirituels.

Les nationaux de toutes les Puissances, commerçants ou autres, seront traités en Roumanie, sans distinction de religion, sur le pied d'une parfaite égalité.

ARTICLE XLV.

La Principauté de Roumanie rétrocède à S. M. l'Empereur de Russie la portion du territoire de la Bessarabie détachée de la Russie en suite du Traité de Paris de 1856, limitée à l'ouest par le thalweg du Pruth, au midi par le thalweg du bras de Kilia et l'embouchure de Stary-Stamboul.

ARTICLE XLVI.

Les îles formant le delta du Danube, ainsi que l'Île des Serpents, le Sandjak de Toultscha, comprenant les districts (cazas) de Kilia, Soulina Mahmoudié, Isaktcha, Toultscha, Matchin, Babadagh, Hirsovo, Kustendje, Medjidié, sont réunis à la Roumanie. La Principauté reçoit en outre le territoire situé au sud de la Dobroutcha jusqu'à une ligne ayant son point de départ à l'est de Silistrie et aboutissant à la Mer Noire au sud de Mangalia.

Le tracé de la frontière sera fixé sur les lieux par la Commission Européenne instituée pour la délimitation de la Bulgarie.

ARTICLE XLVII.

La question du partage des eaux et des pêcheries sera soumise à l'arbitrage de la Commission Européenne du Danube.

ARTICLE XLVIII.

Aucun droit de transit ne sera prélevé en Roumanie sur les marchandises traversant la Principauté.

ARTICLE XLIX.

Des Conventions pourront être conclues par la Roumanie pour régler les privilèges et attributions des Consuls en matière de protection dans la Principauté. Les droits acquis resteront en vigueur tant qu'ils n'auront pas été modifiés d'un commun accord entre la Principauté et les parties intéressées.

ARTICLE L.

Jusqu'à la conclusion d'un Traité réglant les privilèges et attributions des Consuls entre la Turquie et la Roumanie, les sujets Roumains voyageant ou séjournant dans l'Empire Ottoman, et les sujets Ottomans voyageant ou séjournant en Roumanie, jouiront des droits garantis aux sujets des autres Puissances Européennes.

ARTICLE LI.

En ce qui concerne les entreprises de travaux publics et autres de même nature, la Roumanie sera substituée pour tout le territoire cédé aux droits et obligations de la Sublime Porte.

ARTICLE LII.

Afin d'accroître les garanties assurées à la liberté de la navigation sur le Danube, reconnue comme étant d'intérêt Européen, les Hautes Parties Contractantes décident que toutes les forteresses et fortifications qui se trouvent sur le parcours du fleuve depuis les Portes de Fer jusqu'à ses embouchures seront rasées et qu'il n'en sera pas élevé de nouvelles. Aucun bâtiment de guerre ne pourra naviguer sur le Danube en aval des Portes de Fer, à l'exception des bâtiments légers destinés à la police fluviale et au service des douanes. Les stationnaires des Puissances aux embouchures du Danube pourront toutefois remonter jusqu'à Galatz.

ARTICLE LIII.

La Commission Européenne du Danube, au sein de laquelle la Roumanie sera représentée, est maintenue dans ses fonctions et les exercera dorénavant jusqu'à Galatz dans une complète indépendance de l'autorité territoriale. Tous les Traités, arrangements, actes et décisions relatifs à ses droits, privilèges, prérogatives et obligations sont confirmés.

ARTICLE LIV.

Une année avant l'expiration du terme assigné à la durée de la Commission Européenne les Puissances se mettront d'accord sur la prolongation de ses pouvoirs ou sur les modifications qu'elles jugeraient nécessaires d'y introduire.

ARTICLE LV.

Les règlements de navigation, de police fluviale et de surveillance depuis les Portes de Fer jusqu'à Galatz seront élaborés par la Commission Européenne assistée de délégués des États Riverains et mis en harmonie avec ceux qui ont été ou seraient édictés pour le parcours en aval de Galatz.

ARTICLE LVI.

La Commission Européenne du Danube s'entendra avec qui de droit pour assurer l'entretien du phare sur l'Île des Serpents.

ARTICLE LVII.

L'exécution des travaux destinés à faire disparaître les obstacles que les Portes de Fer et les Cataractes opposent à la navigation est confiée à l'Autriche-Hongrie. Les États Riverains de cette partie du fleuve accorderont toutes les facilités qui pourraient être requises dans l'intérêt des travaux.

Les dispositions de l'Article VI du Traité de Londres du

13 Mars, 1871, relatives au droit de percevoir une taxe provisoire pour couvrir les frais de ces travaux, sont maintenues en faveur de l'Autriche-Hongrie.

ARTICLE LVIII.

La S. Porte cède à l'Empire Russe en Asie les territoires d'Ardahan, Kars, et Batoum avec ce dernier port, ainsi que tous les territoires compris entre l'ancienne frontière Russo-Turque et le tracé suivant :—

La nouvelle frontière partant de la Mer Noire, conformément à la ligne déterminée par le Traité de San Stefano, jusqu'à un point au nord-ouest de Khorda et au sud d'Artwin, se prolonge en ligne droite jusqu'à la rivière Tchoroukh, traverse cette rivière et passe à l'est d'Aschmichen, en allant en ligne droite au sud pour rejoindre la frontière Russe indiquée dans le Traité de San Stefano à un point au sud de Nariman, en laissant la ville d'Olti à la Russie. Du point indiqué près de Nariman la frontière tourne à l'est, passe par Tebreneç, qui reste à la Russie, et s'avance jusqu'au Pennek Tschai.

Elle suit cette rivière jusqu'à Bardouz, puis se dirige vers le sud, en laissant Bardouz et Jönikiöy à la Russie. D'un point à l'ouest du village de Karaougan la frontière se dirige sur Medjingert, continue en ligne directe vers le sommet de la montagne Kassadagh et longe la ligne du partage des eaux entre les affluents de l'Araxe au nord et ceux du Mourad Sou au sud, jusqu'à l'ancienne frontière de la Russie.

ARTICLE LIX.

S. M. l'Empereur de Russie déclare que son intention est d'ériger Batoum en port franc, essentiellement commercial.

ARTICLE LX.

La vallée d'Alaschkerd et la ville de Bayazid, cédée à la Russie par l'Article XIX du Traité de San Stefano, font retour à la Turquie.

La Sublime Porte cède à la Perse la ville et le territoire de Khotour, tel qu'il a été déterminé par la Commission Mixte Anglo-Russe pour la délimitation des frontières de la Turquie et de la Perse.

ARTICLE LXI.

La Sublime Porte s'engage à réaliser, sans plus de retard, les améliorations et les réformes qu'exigent les besoins locaux dans les provinces habitées par les Arméniens, et à garantir leur sécurité contre les Circassiens et les Kurdes. Elle donnera connaissance périodiquement des mesures prises à cet effet aux Puissances, qui en surveilleront l'application.

ARTICLE LXII.

La Sublime Porte ayant exprimé la volonté de maintenir le principe de la liberté religieuse en y donnant l'extension la plus large, les Parties Contractantes prennent acte de cette déclaration spontanée.

Dans aucune partie de l'Empire Ottoman la différence de religion ne pourra être opposée à personne comme un motif d'exclusion ou d'incapacité en ce qui concerne l'usage des droits civils et politiques, l'admission aux emplois publics, fonctions et honneurs, ou l'exercice des différentes professions et industries.

Tous seront admis sans distinction de religion à témoigner devant les Tribunaux.

La liberté et la pratique extérieure de tous les cultes sont assurées à tous, et aucune entrave ne pourra être apportée, soit à l'organisation hiérarchique des différentes communions, soit à leurs rapports avec leurs chefs spirituels.

Les ecclésiastiques, les pèlerins et les moines de toutes les nationalités voyageant dans la Turquie d'Europe ou la Turquie d'Asie jouiront des mêmes droits, avantages, et privilèges.

Le droit de protection officielle est reconnu aux Agents Diplomatiques et Consulaires des Puissances en Turquie tant à l'égard des personnes susmentionnées que de leurs établissements religieux, de bienfaisance et autres dans les Lieux Saints et ailleurs.

Les droits acquis à la France sont expressément réservés, et il est bien entendu qu'aucune atteinte ne saurait être portée au *statu quo* dans les Lieux Saints.

Les moines du Mont Athos, quel que soit leur pays d'origine, seront maintenus dans leurs possessions et avantages antérieurs, et jouiront, sans aucune exception, d'une entière égalité de droits et prérogatives.

ARTICLE LXIII.

Le Traité de Paris du 30 Mars, 1856, ainsi que le Traité de Londres du 13 Mars, 1871, sont maintenus dans toutes celles de leurs dispositions qui ne sont pas abrogées ou modifiées par les stipulations qui précèdent.

ARTICLE LXIV.

Le présent Traité sera ratifié et les ratifications en seront échangées à Berlin dans un délai de trois semaines, ou plus tôt si faire se peut.

En foi de quoi les Plénipotentiaires respectifs l'ont signé et y ont apposé le sceau de leurs armes.

Fait à Berlin, le treizième jour du mois de Juillet, mil huit cent soixante-dix-huit.

XI. BULGARO-SERBIAN TREATY OF
ALLIANCE AND SECRET ANNEXE.Signé à Sophia, le 29 février, 1912.¹Bulgaria. I. E. Guéchoff. Serbia. M. Milovanovitch.
A. Niképhorof. R. Poutnik.Traité d'Amitié et d'Alliance entre le Royaume de Bulgarie et
le Royaume de Serbie.

SA Majesté Ferdinand I, Roi des Bulgares, et Sa Majesté Pierre I, Roi de Serbie, pénétrés de la conviction de la communauté d'intérêts et de la similitude des destinées de leurs États et des deux peuples frères, bulgare et serbe, et décidés à défendre solidairement, avec des forces communes, ces intérêts et à s'efforcer de les mener à bonne fin, sont convenus de ce qui suit :

ARTICLE I^{er}.

Le Royaume de Bulgarie et le Royaume de Serbie se garantissent mutuellement leur indépendance politique et l'intégrité de leur territoire, en s'engageant d'une manière absolue et sans restriction d'aucune sorte à se porter réciproquement secours, avec la totalité de leurs forces, dans tout cas où l'un des deux royaumes serait attaqué par un ou plusieurs États.

ARTICLE II.

Les deux parties contractantes s'engagent de même à se porter mutuellement secours, avec la totalité de leurs forces, au cas où l'une quelconque des grandes Puissances tenterait de s'annexer, ou d'occuper, ou d'appréhender avec ses troupes, même provisoirement, n'importe quelle partie des territoires de la péninsule des Balkans se trouvant actuellement sous la domination turque, si l'une des parties contractantes estime ce fait contraire à ses intérêts vitaux et constituant un *casus belli*.

ARTICLE III.

Les deux parties contractantes s'engagent à ne conclure la paix que conjointement et après entente préalable.

¹ Text of XI, XII, XIII, and XIV is taken from I. E. Guéchoff, *L'Alliance Balkanique*, Paris, 1915.

ARTICLE IV.

Une convention militaire sera conclue à l'effet d'assurer l'exécution du présent traité d'une manière complète et la plus conforme au but poursuivi. Cette convention stipulera aussi bien tout ce qu'il y aura lieu d'entreprendre de part et d'autre en cas de guerre, que tout ce qui, ayant trait à l'organisation militaire, la dislocation et la mobilisation des troupes, les rapports des hauts commandements, devra être établi, dès le temps de paix, pour la préparation et la bonne conduite de la guerre.

La convention militaire fera partie intégrante du présent traité. Son élaboration devra commencer au plus tard quinze jours après la signature du présent traité et être terminée dans le délai maximum de deux mois.

ARTICLE V.

Le présent traité et la convention militaire seront en vigueur du jour de leur signature jusqu'au 31 décembre, 1920, inclusivement. Ils ne pourront être prorogés au delà de ce délai qu'après une entente complémentaire, expressément sanctionnée, des deux parties contractantes. Toutefois, au cas où au jour de l'expiration du traité et de la convention militaire les deux parties se trouveraient être en guerre ou sans avoir liquidé encore la situation résultant de la guerre, le traité et la convention seront maintenus en vigueur jusqu'à la signature de la paix ou à la liquidation de l'état de choses amené par la guerre.

ARTICLE VI.

Le présent traité sera établi en deux exemplaires uniformes, rédigés tous les deux en langue serbe et bulgare. Il sera signé par les Souverains et les Ministres des Affaires Étrangères des deux États. La convention militaire, également en deux exemplaires rédigés en bulgare et en serbe, sera signée par les Souverains, les Ministres des Affaires Étrangères et les plénipotentiaires militaires spéciaux.

ARTICLE VII

Le présent traité et la convention militaire ne pourront être publiés ou communiqués à d'autres États qu'après entente préalable des deux parties contractantes, et ce conjointement et simultanément.

Une entente préalable sera de même nécessaire pour l'admission d'un tiers État dans l'alliance.

Fait à Sophia, le 29 février, 1912.

Annexe secrète au Traité d'Amitié et d'Alliance entre le Royaume de Bulgarie et le Royaume de Serbie.

ARTICLE I^{er}.

Au cas où il surviendrait en Turquie des troubles intérieurs, de nature à mettre en danger les intérêts nationaux ou d'État des parties contractantes ou de l'une d'elles, comme au cas où des difficultés intérieures ou extérieures avec lesquelles la Turquie se verrait aux prises mettraient en cause le maintien du *statu quo* dans la péninsule des Balkans, celle des deux parties contractantes qui aboutirait la première à la conviction qu'une action militaire doit être engagée de ce fait s'adressera, par une proposition motivée, à l'autre partie, qui sera tenue d'entrer immédiatement dans un échange de vues, et si elle ne tombe pas d'accord avec son alliée, de lui donner une réponse motivée.

Si une entente en vue d'une action intervient, cette entente devra être communiquée à la Russie, et au cas où cette Puissance ne s'y opposerait pas, l'action sera engagée conformément à l'entente établie et en s'inspirant en tout des sentiments de solidarité et de communauté d'intérêts. Dans le cas contraire—soit si une entente n'intervient pas—les deux États feront appel à l'opinion de la Russie, laquelle opinion sera, si et dans la mesure dans laquelle la Russie se prononcera, obligatoire pour les deux parties.

Au cas où, la Russie s'abstenant de donner son opinion et l'entente entre les deux parties contractantes ne pouvant, même après cela, être obtenue, celle des deux parties qui est pour une action déciderait d'engager cette dernière à elle seule et à ses risques, l'autre partie sera tenue d'observer une neutralité amicale viv-à-vis de son alliée, de procéder sur-le-champ à une mobilisation dans les limites prévues par la convention militaire et de se porter, avec toutes ses forces, au secours de son alliée, si un tiers État prenait le parti de la Turquie.

ARTICLE II.

Tous les accroissements territoriaux qui seraient réalisés par une action commune dans le sens des articles 1^{er} et 2 du traité et de l'article 1^{er} de la présente annexe secrète tombent sous la domination commune (condominium) des deux États alliés. Leur liquidation aura lieu sans retard, dans un délai maximum de trois mois après le rétablissement de la paix, et sur les bases suivantes :

La Serbie reconnaît à la Bulgarie le droit sur les territoires

à l'est des Rhodopes et de la rivière Strouma ; la Bulgarie reconnaît le droit de la Serbie sur ceux situés au nord et à l'ouest du Char-Planina.

Quant aux territoires compris entre le Char, les Rhodopes, la mer Égée et le lac d'Ochrida, si les deux parties acquièrent la conviction que leur organisation en province autonome distincte est impossible en vue des intérêts communs des nationalités bulgare et serbe ou pour d'autres raisons d'ordre intérieur ou extérieur, il sera disposé de ces territoires conformément aux stipulations ci-dessous :

La Serbie s'engage à ne formuler aucune revendication en ce qui concerne les territoires situés au delà de la ligne tracée sur la carte ci-annexée et qui, ayant son point de départ à la frontière turco-bulgare, au mont Golem (au nord de Kr. Palanka) suit la direction générale du sud-ouest jusqu'au lac d'Ochrida, en passant par le mont Kitka, entre les villages de Metejevo et Podarjikon, par le sommet à l'est du village Nerav, en suivant la ligne de partage des eaux jusqu'au sommet 1,000, au nord du village de Baschévo, entre les villages de Liubentzi et Petarlitza, par le sommet Ostrich 1,000 (Lissetz-Planina), le sommet 1,050 entre les villages de Dratch et Opila, par les villages de Talichmantzi et Jivalevo, le sommet 1,050, le sommet 1,000, le village Kichali, la ligne principale de partage des eaux Gradichté-Planina jusqu'au sommet Gorichté, vers le sommet 1,023, suivant ensuite la ligne de partage des eaux entre les villages Ivankovtzi et Loghintzi, par Vetersko et Sopot sur le Vardar. Traversant le Vardar, elle suit les crêtes vers le sommet 2,550 et jusqu'à la montagne Petropole, par la ligne de partage des eaux de cette montagne entre les villages de Krapa et Barbarès jusqu'au sommet 1,200, entre les villages de Yakryenovo et Drenovo, jusqu'au mont Tchesma (1,254), par la ligne de partage des eaux des montagnes Baba-Planina et Krouchka-Tepessi, entre les villages de Salp et Tzerske, jusqu'au sommet de la Protoyska-Planina, à l'est du village de Belitza, par Bréjani, jusqu'au sommet 1,200 (Ilinska-Planina), par la ligne de partage des eaux passant par le sommet 1,330 jusqu'au sommet 1,217 et entre les villages de Livoichta et Gorentzi jusqu'au lac d'Ochrida près du monastère de Gabovtzi.

La Bulgarie s'engage à accepter cette frontière si Sa Majesté l'Empereur de Russie, qui sera sollicité d'être l'arbitre suprême en cette question, se prononce en faveur de cette ligne.

Il va de soi que les deux parties contractantes s'engagent à accepter comme frontière définitive la ligne que Sa Majesté l'Empereur de Russie, dans les limites sus-indiquées, aurait trouvée correspondre le plus aux droits et aux intérêts des deux parties.

ARTICLE III.

Copie du traité et de la présente annexe secrète sera communiquée conjointement au Gouvernement Impérial de Russie, qui sera prié en même temps d'en prendre acte, de faire preuve de bienveillance à l'égard des buts qu'ils poursuivent, et de prier Sa Majesté l'Empereur de Russie de daigner accepter et approuver les attributions désignées pour sa personne et son Gouvernement par les clauses de ces deux actes.

ARTICLE IV.

Tout différend qui surgirait touchant l'interprétation et l'exécution d'une quelconque des clauses du traité et de la présente annexe secrète et de la convention militaire sera soumis à la décision définitive de la Russie, dès lors que l'une des deux parties aura déclaré qu'elle estime impossible une entente par des pourparlers directs.

ARTICLE V.

Aucune des dispositions de la présente annexe secrète ne pourra être publiée ou communiquée à un autre État sans une entente préalable des deux parties et l'assentiment de la Russie.

Fait à Sophia, le 29 février, 1912.

XII. CONVENTION MILITAIRE ENTRE LE ROYAUME DE BULGARIE ET LE ROYAUME DE SERBIE.

Sofia, le 29 avril, 1912.

CONFORMÉMENT à l'esprit et sur la base de l'article III¹ du Traité d'Amitié et d'Alliance entre le Royaume de Bulgarie et le Royaume de Serbie et afin de mieux assurer la conduite de la guerre avec succès et la réalisation plus complète des buts que l'alliance a en vue, les deux parties contractantes conviennent des stipulations ci-dessous, qui auront en tout même force et valeur que les dispositions du traité lui-même.

ARTICLE I.

Le Royaume de Bulgarie et le Royaume de Serbie s'engagent, dans les cas prévus par les articles I et II du Traité d'Alliance et par l'article I de l'annexe secrète à ce traité, à se

¹ Page 116. The article referred to appears to be IV, not III, in the text given.

porter mutuellement secours, la Bulgarie avec une force armée qui ne devra pas être inférieure à 200,000 combattants, et la Serbie avec une force d'au moins 150,000 combattants, en mesure aussi bien de combattre à la frontière que de prendre part à des opérations militaires hors du territoire national.

Dans ce nombre ne sauraient être compris ni les combattants de formations surnuméraires, ni ceux du troisième ban serbe, ni les troupes territoriales bulgares.

Ce contingent de combattants devra être rendu à la frontière ou au delà des frontières de son territoire national—dans la direction où il devra être dirigé suivant les causes et le but de la guerre, et d'après le développement des opérations militaires—au plus tard le vingt et unième jour après la déclaration de la guerre ou la communication de l'État allié que le *casus fœderis* s'est produit. Toutefois, même avant l'expiration de ce délai, les deux parties considéreront comme leur devoir d'alliée—et si cela est conforme à la nature des opérations militaires et peut contribuer à l'issue favorable de la guerre—d'envoyer, même partiellement et dans les limites de la mobilisation et de la concentration, leurs troupes sur le champ de bataille dès le septième jour à partir de la déclaration de la guerre ou de la survenance du *casus fœderis*.

ARTICLE II.

Si la Roumanie attaque la Bulgarie, la Serbie est tenue de lui déclarer immédiatement la guerre et de diriger contre elle ses forces, d'au moins 100,000 combattants, soit sur le moyen Danube, soit sur le théâtre d'opérations de la Dobroudja.

Au cas où la Turquie attaquerait la Bulgarie, la Serbie s'engage à pénétrer en Turquie et à distraire de ses troupes mobilisées 100,000 combattants au moins pour les diriger sur le théâtre d'opérations du Vardar.

Si la Serbie se trouve être à ce moment seule ou conjointement avec la Bulgarie, déjà en guerre avec un tiers État, elle engagera contre la Roumanie ou la Turquie toutes les troupes dont elle conservera la libre disposition.

ARTICLE III.

Si l'Autriche-Hongrie attaque la Serbie, la Bulgarie est tenue de déclarer immédiatement la guerre à l'Autriche-Hongrie et de diriger ses troupes, d'au moins 200,000 combattants, en Serbie, de telle sorte que, unies à l'armée serbe, elles opèrent soit offensivement, soit défensivement, contre l'Autriche-Hongrie.

La même obligation incombera à la Bulgarie vis-à-vis de la Serbie au cas où l'Autriche-Hongrie, sous quelque prétexte que ce soit, d'accord ou sans le consentement de la Turquie, ferait

pénétrer ses troupes dans le sandjak de Novi-Bazar, et où par suite la Serbie lui déclarerait la guerre ou, pour la défense de ses intérêts, dirigerait ses troupes dans le sandjak et par là provoquerait un conflit armé entre elle et l'Autriche-Hongrie.

Au cas où la Turquie attaquerait la Serbie, la Bulgarie s'engage à franchir immédiatement la frontière turque et à prélever sur ses troupes, mobilisées conformément à l'article I de la présente Convention, une armée forte d'au moins 100,000 combattants, qui sera dirigée sur le théâtre d'opérations du Vardar.

Si la Roumanie attaque la Serbie, la Bulgarie est tenue d'attaquer les troupes roumaines dès qu'elles auront pénétré, en traversant le Danube, sur le territoire serbe.

Si la Bulgarie, dans l'un quelconque des cas envisagés par le présent article, se trouve déjà, seule ou conjointement avec la Serbie, en guerre avec un tiers État, elle est tenue de porter au secours de la Serbie toutes les troupes dont elle conserverait la libre disposition.

ARTICLE IV.

Si la Bulgarie et la Serbie, suivant une entente préalable, déclarent la guerre à la Turquie, l'une et l'autre seront tenues, s'il n'en est disposé autrement par un arrangement spécial, de prélever sur leurs troupes, mobilisées conformément à l'article I de la présente Convention, et de diriger sur le théâtre d'opérations du Vardar, une armée d'au moins 100,000 combattants.

ARTICLE V.

Au cas où l'une des parties contractantes déclarerait la guerre à un tiers État sans entente préalable et sans le consentement de l'autre partie contractante, cette dernière sera déliée des obligations prévues à l'article I de la présente Convention, mais sera tenue d'observer, pendant la durée de la guerre, une neutralité amicale vis-à-vis de son alliée, ainsi que de mobiliser sans retard une force d'au moins 50,000 combattants qui sera concentrée de manière à assurer au mieux la liberté des mouvements de son alliée.

ARTICLE VI.

En cas de guerre conjointe, aucune des parties contractantes ne pourra conclure avec l'ennemi d'armistice plus long que vingt-quatre heures, sans une entente préalable et sans le consentement de l'autre partie.

Une entente préalable et par écrit sera de même nécessaire pour que des pourparlers de paix puissent être engagés et un traité de paix signé.

ARTICLE VII.

Pendant la durée de la guerre, les troupes de chacune des parties contractantes seront commandées et toutes leurs opérations seront dirigées par leurs propres commandements.

Lorsque des corps de troupes appartenant aux armées des deux États opéreront contre un même objectif, le commandement commun sera pris, pour des unités de même importance, par le chef le plus ancien en grade, et pour des unités d'importance différente par le chef le plus ancien au point de vue du commandement exercé.

Lorsqu'une ou plusieurs armées distinctes appartenant à une des parties contractantes seront mises à la disposition de l'autre partie, elles se trouveront sous les ordres de leurs propres commandants qui, pour la conduite stratégique des opérations, seront soumis au commandant en chef de l'armée à la disposition de laquelle elles sont mises.

En cas de guerre conjointe contre la Turquie, le commandement en chef sur le théâtre d'opérations du Vardar appartiendra à la Serbie si l'armée principale serbe opère sur ce théâtre et si elle est numériquement plus forte que les troupes bulgares sur ce théâtre, conformément à l'article IV de la présente Convention. Toutefois si l'armée principale serbe n'opère pas sur ce théâtre et lorsqu'elle y sera numériquement plus faible que les troupes bulgares, le commandement en chef sur ce théâtre appartiendra à la Bulgarie.

ARTICLE VIII.

Au cas où les troupes des deux parties contractantes se trouveraient placées sous les ordres d'un même commandant, tous les ordres et toutes les prescriptions se rapportant à la conduite stratégique des opérations tactiques communes seront rédigées dans les deux langues — en bulgare et en serbe.

ARTICLE IX.

En ce qui concerne le ravitaillement et les subsistances en général, le logement, le service médical, le transport des blessés et malades ou l'inhumation des morts, le transport du matériel de guerre et autres objets similaires, l'armée de chacune des parties contractantes jouira des mêmes droits et facilités sur le territoire de l'autre partie et par les mêmes procédés que les troupes de cette dernière partie, conformément aux lois et règles locales. Toutes les autorités locales doivent, dans le même but, prêter leur appui aux troupes alliées.

Le paiement de toutes les subsistances sera réglé par chaque partie pour son compte aux prix locaux, de préférence en

espèces, et dans des cas exceptionnels contre bons délivrés spécialement.

Le transport des troupes et de tout le matériel de guerre, subsistances et autres objets en chemin de fer et les frais y relatifs seront à la charge de la partie sur le territoire de laquelle ce transport a lieu.

ARTICLE X.

Les trophées appartiennent à l'armée qui les aura pris.

Dans le cas où la prise a lieu par l'effet d'un combat en commun sur le même terrain, les deux armées partageront les trophées proportionnellement aux forces des combattants qui y auront directement participé.

ARTICLE XI.

Durant la guerre, chaque partie contractante aura un délégué dans l'état-major du commandement en chef ou dans les commandements des armées, lesquels délégués entretiendront la liaison entre les deux armées sous tous les rapports.

ARTICLE XII.

Les opérations stratégiques et les cas qui ne sont pas prévus, ainsi que les contestations qui pourraient surgir, seront réglées d'un commun accord par les deux commandements en chef.

ARTICLE XIII.

Les chefs des états-majors des armées alliées s'entendront, immédiatement après la conclusion de la présente Convention, sur la distribution des troupes mobilisées d'après l'article I de cette Convention et leur groupement dans la zone de concentration dans les cas exposés ci-dessus, sur les routes qui devront être réparées ou construites de nouveau en vue de la concentration rapide sur la frontière et les opérations ultérieures.

ARTICLE XIV.

La présente Convention sera en vigueur à partir du jour de sa signature et durera tant qu'aura force le Traité d'Amitié et d'Alliance auquel elle est annexée à titre de partie intégrante.

Arrangement entre les États-Majors de Bulgarie et de Serbie.

Varna, 19 juin, 1912.

Serbia. Gen. Poutnik.

Bulgaria. Gen. Fitcheff.

Conformément à l'article XIII de la Convention militaire existant entre le Royaume de Bulgarie et le Royaume de Serbie, les délégués désignés par les deux parties ont, sur la base des plans d'opérations respectifs, convenu de ce qui suit :

Au Cas d'une Guerre entre la Bulgarie et la Serbie d'une part et la Turquie de l'autre :

Dans l'hypothèse où la principale armée turque serait concentrée dans la région d'Uskub, Koumanovo, Kratovo, Kotchani, Vélès, les troupes alliées destinées à agir sur le théâtre d'opérations du Vardar seront réparties comme suit :—

1. Une armée serbe de deux divisions marchera, par le Kara-Dagh, sur Uskub. Cette armée formera l'aile droite des troupes alliées ;

2. Une armée serbe de cinq divisions d'infanterie et une division de cavalerie avancera, par la vallée de la Moravitza et de la Ptchina, sur le front Koumanovo—Kratovo. Cette armée constituera le centre des troupes alliées avec la mission d'opérer de front contre l'ennemi ;

3. Une armée bulgare de trois divisions formera l'aile gauche des troupes alliées, avec la mission d'opérer contre l'aile droite et sur les derrières de l'ennemi, dans les directions de Kustendil, Egri—Palanka, Uskub et Kustendil, Tzarévo—Sélo, Kotchani.

4. Les deux chefs d'état-major général reconnaîtront ensemble la région entre Kustendil et Vrania, et si cette reconnaissance démontre la possibilité d'employer de grandes masses dans la direction Kustendil, Egri—Palanka, Uskub, les deux divisions serbes destinées à opérer, par le Kara-Dagh, contre Uskub, seront, si la situation générale le permet, employées à renforcer l'aile gauche des troupes alliées et seront concentrées à cet effet près de Kustendil.

5. Pour couvrir le flanc droit des troupes alliées, le chef d'état-major de l'armée serbe disposera à sa convenance des trois divisions restantes du deuxième ban.

6. Le chef d'état-major de l'armée bulgare s'engage à agir pour la prompte mise en état de la route de Bossilograd à Vlassina.

7. Si la situation exige le renforcement des troupes bulgares sur le théâtre d'opérations de la Maritza et si, pour le théâtre d'opérations du Vardar, toutes les troupes ci-dessus énumérées

ne sont point indispensables, les unités nécessaires seront transportées de ce dernier théâtre d'opérations sur celui de la Maritza. A l'inverse, si la situation exige le renforcement des troupes alliées sur le théâtre d'opérations du Vardar et si le maintien de toutes les troupes désignées pour les opérations sur le théâtre de la Maritza n'est pas indispensable, les unités nécessaires seront transportées de ce théâtre sur celui du Vardar.

Annexe.

Les deux états-majors généraux s'engagent :

(a.) A échanger tous leurs renseignements sur les armées des pays limitrophes ;

(b.) A se procurer mutuellement le nombre voulu d'exemplaires de tous les règlements, instructions, cartes, &c., tant officiels que secrets ;

(c.) A envoyer chacun dans l'armée alliée un certain nombre d'officiers chargés de se familiariser avec son organisation et d'en étudier la langue, conformément à l'article II¹ de la Convention militaire.

(d.) Les chefs d'état-major des armées serbe et bulgare se rencontreront chaque automne pour se mettre au courant de la situation générale et pour introduire dans les arrangements conclus les modifications rendues nécessaires par les changements de la situation.

GÉNÉRAL R. POUTNIK.
GÉNÉRAL FITCHEFF.

Remarque.—Le groupement des troupes alliées et l'idée première des opérations appartiennent à l'état-major général serbe ; je n'en prends point la responsabilité.

Signé : GÉNÉRAL FITCHEFF.'

Avis exprimés par les représentants des états-majors.

Au cours de l'examen concerté du plan d'opérations contre la Turquie, le chef de l'état-major bulgare a établi ce qui suit :

1. J'estime que dans une guerre contre la Turquie la vallée de la Maritza formera le principal théâtre d'opérations et que c'est là qu'il faudra frapper le coup décisif, car je suppose que, vu la configuration du terrain et les importants objectifs stratégiques, les principales forces de l'armée turque y seront concentrées ;

¹ Art. XI appears to be meant.

‘ 2. Ceci étant, je propose à l’état-major serbe d’étudier la question de savoir comment il pourra renforcer l’armée bulgare dans la vallée de la Maritza, pour qu’elle acquière la supériorité numérique sur l’ennemi en ayant en vue la concentration supposée de la force turque dans cette vallée.

‘ 3. Les troupes nécessaires pour renforcer l’armée bulgare sur le théâtre de guerre de la Maritza peuvent être prélevées sur les contingents du théâtre de la guerre en Macédoine sans égard à leur nationalité.

‘ Belgrade, le 23 août/5 septembre, 1912.

‘ Le Chef de l’état-major général,

‘ GÉNÉRAL-MAJOR FITCHEFF.’

Au cours de l’examen concerté du plan d’opérations contre la Turquie, le chef de l’état-major serbe est resté d’avis :

‘ 1. Que la vallée du Vardar formera le principal théâtre de la guerre et que là seront concentrées les plus grandes forces de l’ennemi :

‘ 2. Ceci étant, il faudra concentrer sur ce théâtre, au début de la campagne, des forces alliées plus nombreuses ;

‘ 3. L’état-major, tenant compte de l’importance générale du théâtre de la guerre du Vardar, ayant en vue surtout la configuration du terrain et la saison prévue pour les opérations militaires, ainsi que cette circonstance politique. à savoir que les armées grecque et monténégrine opéreront dans le même temps contre l’armée turque sur ce théâtre, déclare :

‘ (a) Que toute l’armée serbe doit opérer contre l’armée turque du théâtre de la guerre du Vardar, et,

‘ (b) Que l’armée bulgare alliée doit envoyer de Kustendil même sur le théâtre de la guerre du Vardar une force d’au moins une division (24 bataillons avec l’artillerie et tous les services requis) pour grossir l’effectif de l’armée serbe.

‘ Belgrade, le 23 août/5 septembre 1912.

‘ Le suppléant de l’adjoint au chef de l’état-major général, colonel d’état-major,

‘ Signé : JIVOTINE MITCHITCH.’

Arrangement entre les états-majors de Bulgarie et de Serbie.

Sur la base de l’article 4 de la convention militaire existant entre le royaume de Bulgarie et le royaume de Serbie, les délégués désignés par les deux parties, les chefs de leurs états-majors respectifs, après avoir examiné le projet d’une guerre

offensive contre la Turquie, ont, d'un commun accord, pris la résolution qui suit :

‘ 1. Toute l'armée serbe opérera sur le théâtre de la guerre de la Macédoine en s'engageant à assurer la ligne d'opération Egri-Palanka-Kustendil.

‘ 2. La totalité de l'armée bulgare opérera dans la vallée de la Maritza, en détachant une division, au début des opérations, sur la ligne Kustendil-Doupnitza. Une garnison spéciale sera laissée à Doupnitza pour la sécurité de la ville.

‘ 3. Une division serbe du premier ban sera transportée en chemin de fer à Kustendil et formera au début, avec la division bulgare, une armée qui coopérera avec la principale armée serbe.

‘ Si la principale armée serbe refoule les Turcs au delà de la ligne Uskub-Vélès-Chtip, et si elle se porte à l'attaque au sud de cette ligne, les Bulgares pourront se servir de leur division pour renforcer les troupes du théâtre de guerre de la Maritza, en laissant des troupes territoriales à la frontière macédonienne.

‘ 4. L'organisation du transport sera la suivante : la ligne Pirov-Tzaribrod-Sofia-Kustendil sera laissée à la disposition de l'état-major serbe dès la cinquième journée de la mobilisation. Les transports se feront par des trains serbes, le matériel roulant bulgare ne pouvant pas être disponible à ce moment.

‘ 5. Le ministère bulgare de la Guerre assurera dans les premiers temps l'approvisionnement de la division serbe.

‘ Les provisions de vivres prises aux Bulgares seront rendues en nature par le ministère serbe de la Guerre.

‘ 6. L'arrangement du 19 juin 1912 entre les chefs d'état-major respectifs (signé à Varna) reste en vigueur après la présente combinaison.

‘ Sofia, le 15 septembre 1912.

‘ GÉNÉRAL-MAJOR FITCHEFF.

‘ GÉNÉRAL R. POUTNIK.’

XIII. GRAECO-BULGARIAN TREATY OF ALLIANCE

Signed at Sofia, May 16 (29), 1912.

CONSIDÉRANT que les deux royaumes désirent formement la conservation de la paix dans la Péninsule balkanique et peuvent par une alliance défensive solide mieux répondre à ce besoin ;

Considérant, dans ce même ordre d'idées, que la coexistence pacifique des différentes nationalités en Turquie, sur la base d'une égalité politique réelle et véritable, et le respect des

droits découlant des traités ou autrement concédés aux nationalités chrétiennes de l'Empire, constituent des conditions nécessaires pour la consolidation de l'état de choses en Orient ;

Considérant, enfin, qu'une coopération des deux royaumes dans le sens indiqué est de nature, dans l'intérêt même de leurs bons rapports avec l'Empire ottoman, à faciliter et à corroborer l'entente des éléments grec et bulgare en Turquie ;

Le Gouvernement de Sa Majesté le Roi des Hellènes et le Gouvernement de Sa Majesté le Roi des Bulgares se promettant de ne pas donner une tendance agressive quelconque à leur accord purement défensif et ayant résolu de conclure une alliance de paix et de protection réciproque dans les termes ci-dessous indiqués, ont nommé pour leurs Plénipotentiaires savoir :

Sa Majesté le Roi des Hellènes : M. Demetrius Panas ; et

Sa Majesté le Roi des Bulgares : M. Ivan Eustratief Guéchoff ;

Lesquels, après avoir échangé leurs pleins pouvoirs, ont arrêté ce qui suit :

ARTICLE I^{er}.

Si, contrairement au sincère désir des deux hautes parties contractantes et en dépit d'une attitude de leurs Gouvernements évitant tout acte d'agression et toute provocation vis-à-vis de l'Empire ottoman, l'un des deux États venait à être attaqué par la Turquie, soit dans son territoire, soit par une atteinte systématique aux droits découlants des traités ou des principes fondamentaux du droit des gens, les deux hautes parties contractantes sont tenues à se prêter réciproquement secours avec la totalité de leurs forces armées, et par suite à ne pas conclure la paix que conjointement et d'accord.

ARTICLE II.

Les deux hautes parties contractantes se promettent mutuellement, d'un côté, d'user de leur influence morale auprès de leurs congénères en Turquie, afin qu'ils contribuent sincèrement à la coexistence pacifique des éléments constituant la population de l'Empire, et de l'autre côté de se prêter une assistance réciproque et de marcher d'accord dans toute action auprès du Gouvernement ottoman ou auprès des Grandes Puissances qui aurait pour but d'obtenir ou d'assurer la réalisation des droits découlant des traités ou autrement concédés aux nationalités grecque et bulgare, l'application de l'égalité politique et des garanties constitutionnelles.

ARTICLE III.

Le présent traité aura une durée de trois ans à partir du jour de sa signature et sera renouvelé tacitement pour une

année sauf dénonciation. La dénonciation doit être notifiée au moins six mois avant l'expiration de la troisième année à partir de la signature du traité.

ARTICLE IV.

Le présent traité sera gardé secret. Il ne pourra être communiqué à une tierce Puissance soit intégralement, soit en partie, ni divulgué en partie ou en tout, qu'avec le consentement des deux hautes parties contractantes.

Le présent traité sera ratifié le plus tôt que faire se pourra. Les ratifications seront échangées à Sophia (ou à Athènes).

En foi de quoi les Plénipotentiaires respectifs ont signé le présent traité et y ont apposé leurs cachets.

Fait à Sophia, en double expédition, le 16 mai, 1912.

Déclaration.

L'ARTICLE 1^{er} ne se rapporte notamment pas au cas où une guerre viendrait à éclater entre la Grèce et la Turquie par suite de l'admission dans le Parlement grec des députés crétois contre la volonté du Gouvernement ottoman ; dans ce cas, la Bulgarie n'est tenue qu'à garder vis-à-vis de la Grèce une neutralité bienveillante. Et comme la liquidation de la crise des affaires d'Orient née des événements de 1908, aussi quant à la question crétoise, correspond à l'intérêt général, et est même de nature, sans troubler l'équilibre dans la Péninsule balkanique, à y consolider dans l'intérêt de la paix la situation internationale, la Bulgarie (indépendamment des engagements assumés par le présent traité) promet de ne gêner d'aucune façon une action éventuelle de la Grèce qui tendrait à la solution de cette question.

XIV. MILITARY CONVENTION BETWEEN BULGARIA AND GREECE.

Signed at Sofia, September 22 (October 5), 1912.

SA Majesté le Roi des Hellènes et Sa Majesté le Roi des Bulgares, désirant compléter par une Convention militaire le Traité d'Alliance conclu à Sophia le 16 mai, 1912, entre le Royaume de Grèce et le Royaume de Bulgarie, ont dans ce but nommé pour leurs Plénipotentiaires :

Sa Majesté le Roi des Hellènes : son Excellence M. D. Panas, et M. le Capitaine J. Métaxas ;

Sa Majesté le Roi des Bulgares : son Excellence M. Iv. Ev. Guéchoff, et M. le Général Iv. Fitcheff ;

Lesquels, après s'être communiqué leurs pleins pouvoirs, trouvés en bonne et due forme, sont convenus de ce qui suit :

ARTICLE I^{er}.

Dans le cas où, conformément aux obligations découlant du Traité d'Alliance défensive conclu à Sophia le 16 mai, 1912, entre la Grèce et la Bulgarie, la Grèce interviendrait militairement contre la Turquie dans une guerre bulgaro-turque, ou bien la Bulgarie dans une guerre gréco-turque, les deux États grec et bulgare s'engagent à se prêter mutuellement secours, soit la Grèce avec un effectif atteignant au minimum 120,000 hommes, et la Bulgarie avec un effectif d'au moins 300,000 hommes ; ces forces devront être aptes aussi bien à entrer en campagne sur la frontière qu'à prendre part à des opérations militaires en dehors des limites du territoire national.

Les troupes susindiquées devront être concentrées à la frontière et à même de la franchir au plus tard le vingtième jour qui aura suivi la mobilisation ou l'avis donné par l'une des parties contractantes que le *casus fœderis* s'est produit.

ARTICLE II.

Au cas où la Grèce viendrait à être attaquée par la Turquie, la Bulgarie s'engage à déclarer la guerre à cette dernière Puissance et à entrer en campagne contre elle avec l'ensemble de ses forces, fixées, aux termes de l'article I^{er}, à un minimum de 300.000 hommes, en conformant ses opérations militaires au plan élaboré par l'état-major bulgare.

Au cas où la Bulgarie viendrait à être attaquée par la Turquie, la Grèce s'engage à déclarer la guerre à cette dernière Puissance et à entrer en campagne contre elle avec l'ensemble de ses forces fixées, aux termes de l'article I^{er}, à un minimum de 120,000 hommes, en conformant ses opérations militaires au plan élaboré par l'état-major grec. L'objectif principal de la flotte hellénique devra toutefois être de se rendre maîtresse de la mer Égée et d'interrompre les communications par cette voie entre l'Asie Mineure et la Turquie d'Europe.

Dans les cas prévus aux deux paragraphes précédents, la Bulgarie s'engage à opérer offensivement avec une partie importante de son armée contre les forces turques concentrées dans la région des vilayets de Kossovo, Monastir et Salonique. Si la Serbie, en vertu de ses accords avec la Bulgarie, prend part à la guerre, la Bulgarie pourra disposer de la totalité de ses forces militaires en Thrace ; mais dans ce cas elle prend par le présent acte l'engagement avec la Grèce que des forces

militaires serbes, d'un effectif d'au moins 120,000 combattants, opéreront offensivement contre les forces turques concentrées dans la région des trois vilayets susmentionnés.

ARTICLE III.

Si la Grèce et la Bulgarie, aux termes d'une entente préalable, déclarent la guerre à la Turquie, elles sont l'une et l'autre tenues — à moins qu'il n'en soit disposé autrement par un accord spécial — de faire entrer en campagne les effectifs prévus à l'article 1^{er} de la présente Convention.

Les dispositions des deux derniers paragraphes de l'article II sont dans ce cas aussi applicables.

ARTICLE IV.

Au cas où l'un des Gouvernements contractants déclarerait la guerre à un État autre que la Turquie sans une entente préalable et sans le consentement de l'autre Gouvernement, ce dernier est délié des obligations exposées à l'article 1^{er}, mais reste néanmoins tenu d'observer, pendant toute la durée de la guerre, une neutralité amicale à l'égard de son allié.

ARTICLE V.

En cas de guerre conjointe, aucun des États alliés ne pourra conclure d'armistice d'une durée supérieure à vingt-quatre heures sans une entente préalable et sans le consentement de l'autre État allié.

L'entente des deux parties contractantes, contenue dans un accord écrit, sera de même nécessaire pour que l'une d'elles puisse engager des négociations en vue de la paix ou conclure un traité de paix.

ARTICLE VI.

Dans le cas où la Grèce et la Bulgarie ayant mobilisé leurs forces armées ou étant entrées en campagne, la Grèce se verrait obligée de régler la question crétoise suivant les vœux des populations de l'île et serait pour cela attaquée par la Turquie, la Bulgarie s'engage à se porter à son secours conformément à l'article 1^{er} de la présente Convention.

ARTICLE VII.

Les chefs d'état-major général des armées grecque et bulgare devront se renseigner mutuellement et en temps opportun sur leurs plans d'opérations en cas d'une guerre. Ils devront, en outre, faire connaître tous les ans les modifications apportées à ces plans du fait de circonstances nouvelles.

ARTICLE VIII.

La présente Convention deviendra obligatoire pour les deux parties contractantes sitôt après avoir été signée ; elle demeurera en vigueur pendant toute la durée du Traité d'Alliance défensive du 16 mai, 1912, auquel elle est incorporée à titre de partie intégrale.

Fait à Sophia, en double exemplaire, le 22 septembre, 1912.

XV. TREATY OF LONDON.

Treaty of Peace between Bulgaria, Greece, Montenegro, Serbia, and Turkey.

Signed at London, May 30, 1913.

<i>Bulgaria.</i>	Dr. Stojan Danev.	<i>Serbia.</i>	Stojan Novakovitch.
	M. Madjarov.		A. Nikolitch.
<i>Greece.</i>	E. Skouloudis.		Milenko Vesnitch.
	J. Gennadius.		I. Pavlovitch.
	G. Streit.	<i>Turkey.</i>	Osman Nizamy Pasha.
<i>Montenegro.</i>	J. Popovitch.		Batzaria Effendi.
	Comte L. de Voïnovitch.		Ahmed Réchid Bey.

ARTICLE I^{er}.

Il y aura, à dater de l'échange des ratifications du présent traité, paix et amitié entre Sa Majesté l'Empereur des Ottomans d'une part, et Leurs Majestés les Souverains alliés d'autre part, ainsi qu'entre Leurs héritiers et successeurs, Leurs États et sujets respectifs, à perpétuité.

ARTICLE II.

Sa Majesté l'Empereur des Ottomans cède à Leurs Majestés les Souverains alliés tous les territoires de Son Empire sur le continent européen à l'ouest d'une ligne tirée d'Énos sur la mer Egée à Midia sur la mer Noire, à l'exception de l'Albanie.

Le tracé exact de la frontière d'Énos à Midia sera déterminé par une commission internationale.

ARTICLE III.

Sa Majesté l'Empereur des Ottomans et Leurs Majestés les Souverains alliés déclarent remettre à Sa Majesté l'Empereur d'Allemagne, à Sa Majesté l'Empereur d'Autriche, Roi de Bohême, &c., et Roi Apostolique de Hongrie, à M. le Président de la République Française, à Sa Majesté le Roi de Grande-Bretagne et d'Irlande et des Territoires britanniques au delà

des Mers, Empereur des Indes, à Sa Majesté le Roi d'Italie et à Sa Majesté l'Empereur de Toutes les Russies le soin de régler la délimitation des frontières de l'Albanie et toutes autres questions concernant l'Albanie.

ARTICLE IV.

Sa Majesté l'Empereur des Ottomans déclare céder à Leurs Majestés les Souverains alliés l'île de Crète et renoncer en Leur faveur à tous les droits de souveraineté et autres qu'Il possédait sur cette île.

ARTICLE V.

Sa Majesté l'Empereur des Ottomans et Leurs Majestés les Souverains alliés déclarent confier à Sa Majesté l'Empereur d'Allemagne, à Sa Majesté l'Empereur d'Autriche, Roi de Bohême, &c., et Roi Apostolique de Hongrie, à M. le Président de la République Française, à Sa Majesté le Roi de Grande-Bretagne et d'Irlande et des Territoires britanniques au delà des Mers, Empereur des Indes, à Sa Majesté le Roi d'Italie et à Sa Majesté l'Empereur de Toutes les Russies le soin de statuer sur le sort de toutes les îles ottomanes de la mer Égée, l'île de Crète exceptée, et de la péninsule du Mont-Athos.

ARTICLE VI

Sa Majesté l'Empereur des Ottomans et Leurs Majestés les Souverains alliés déclarent remettre le soin de régler les questions d'ordre financier résultant de l'état de guerre qui prend fin et des cessions territoriales ci-dessus mentionnées à la commission internationale convoquée à Paris, à laquelle Ils ont délégué Leurs représentants.

ARTICLE VII.

Les questions concernant les prisonniers de guerre, juridiction, nationalité et commerce seront réglées par des conventions spéciales.

ARTICLE FINAL.

Le présent traité sera ratifié et les ratifications seront échangées à Londres dans le plus bref délai possible.

En foi de quoi les Plénipotentiaires des Hautes Parties contractantes ont signé le présent traité et y ont apposé leurs sceaux.

Fait à Londres, le 17 (30) mai, 1913, à midi 35 (heure de Greenwich).

NOTA.—Le texte ci-dessus, quant à l'ordre des Hautes Parties contractantes au préambule et de signatures, est celui de l'exemplaire en possession du Gouvernement bulgare.

XVI. TREATY OF BUCAREST

Treaty of Peace between Rumania, Greece, Montenegro, Serbia, and Bulgaria.

Signed at Bucarest, August 10, 1913.

<i>Rumania.</i>	T. Maioresco. A. Marghiloman. Take Ionesco. C. G. Dissesco. Gen. C. Coanda. Col. C. Christesco.	<i>Serbia.</i>	N. P. Pachitch. M. G. Ristitch. Dr. M. Spalaïko- vitch. Col. K. Smilia- nitch.
<i>Greece.</i>	E. Veniselos. D. Panas. N. Politis. Capt. A. Exodactylos. Capt. C. Pali.	<i>Bulgaria.</i>	D. Tonchef. Gen. I. Fitcheff. Dr. S. Ivantchof. S. Radef. Lt.-Col. Stanciof.
<i>Montenegro.</i>	Gen. Ianko Vou- kotitch. J. Matanovitch.		

ARTICLE I^{er}.

Il y aura, à dater du jour de l'échange des ratifications du présent traité, paix et amitié entre Sa Majesté le Roi de Roumanie, Sa Majesté le Roi des Bulgares, Sa Majesté le Roi des Hellènes, Sa Majesté le Roi de Monténégro et Sa Majesté le Roi de Serbie, ainsi qu'entre leurs héritiers et successeurs, leurs États et sujets respectifs.

ARTICLE II.

Entre le Royaume de Bulgarie et le Royaume de Roumanie, l'ancienne frontière entre le Danube et la mer Noire est, conformément au procès-verbal arrêté par les délégués militaires respectifs et annexé au Protocole No. 5 du 22 juillet (4 août), 1913, de la Conférence de Bucarest, rectifiée de la manière suivante :—

La nouvelle frontière partira du Danube, en amont de Turtukaïa, pour aboutir à la mer Noire au sud d'Ekrene.

Entre ces deux points extrêmes, la ligne frontière suivra le tracé indiqué sur les cartes 1000000 et 2000000 de l'état-major roumain et selon la description annexée au présent article.

Il est formellement entendu que la Bulgarie démantèlera, au plus tard dans un délai de deux années, les ouvrages de fortifications existants et n'en construira pas d'autres à Roustchouk, à Schoumla, dans le pays intermédiaire, et dans une zone de 20 kilom. autour de Baltchik.

Une commission mixte, composée de représentants des deux hautes parties contractantes, en nombre égal des deux côtés, sera chargée, dans les quinze jours qui suivront la signature du présent traité, d'exécuter sur le terrain le tracé de la nouvelle frontière, conformément aux stipulations précédentes. Cette commission présidera au partage des biens-fonds et capitaux qui ont pu jusqu'ici appartenir en commun à des districts, des communes ou des communautés d'habitants séparés par la nouvelle frontière. En cas de désaccord sur le tracé et les mesures d'exécution, les deux hautes parties contractantes s'engagent à s'adresser à un Gouvernement tiers ami pour le prier de désigner un arbitre dont la décision sur les points en litige sera considérée comme définitive.

ARTICLE III.

Entre le Royaume de Bulgarie et le Royaume de Serbie, la frontière suivra, conformément au procès-verbal arrêté par les délégués militaires respectifs et annexé au Protocole No. 9 du 25 juillet (7 août), 1913, de la Conférence de Bucarest, le tracé suivant :—

La ligne frontière partira de l'ancienne frontière, du sommet Patarica, suivra l'ancienne frontière turco-bulgare et la ligne de partage des eaux entre le Vardar et la Strouma, avec l'exception que la haute vallée de la Stroumitza restera sur territoire serbe ; elle aboutira à la montagne Belašiča, où elle se reliera à la frontière bulgare-grecque. Une description détaillée de cette frontière et son tracé sur la carte $\frac{1}{200000}$ de l'état-major autrichien sont annexés au présent article.

Une commission mixte, composée de représentants des deux hautes parties contractantes, en nombre égal des deux côtés, sera chargée, dans les quinze jours qui suivront la signature du présent traité, d'exécuter sur le terrain le tracé de la nouvelle frontière, conformément aux stipulations précédentes.

Cette commission présidera au partage des biens-fonds et capitaux qui ont pu jusqu'ici appartenir en commun à des districts, des communes, ou des communautés d'habitants séparés par la nouvelle frontière. En cas de désaccord sur le tracé et les mesures d'exécution, les deux hautes parties contractantes s'engagent à s'adresser à un Gouvernement tiers ami pour le prier de désigner un arbitre dont la décision sur les points en litige sera considérée comme définitive.

ARTICLE IV.

Les questions relatives à l'ancienne frontière serbo-bulgare seront réglées suivant l'entente intervenue entre les deux hautes parties contractantes, constatée dans le protocole annexé au présent article.

ARTICLE V.

Entre le Royaume de Grèce et le Royaume de Bulgarie, la frontière suivra, conformément au procès-verbal arrêté par les délégués militaires respectifs et annexé au Protocole No. 9 du 25 juillet (7 août), 1913, de la Conférence de Bucarest, le tracé suivant :—

La ligne frontière partira de la nouvelle frontière bulgaro-serbe sur la crête de Belašiča planina, pour aboutir à l'embouchure de la Mesta à la mer Égée.

Entre ces deux points extrêmes, la ligne frontière suivra le tracé indiqué sur la carte $\frac{1}{250000}$ de l'état-major autrichien et selon la description annexée au présent article.

Une commission mixte, composée de représentants des deux hautes parties contractantes, en nombre égal des deux côtés, sera chargée, dans les quinze jours qui suivront la signature du présent traité, d'exécuter sur le terrain le tracé de la frontière conformément aux stipulations précédentes.

Cette commission présidera au partage des biens-fonds et capitaux qui ont pu jusqu'ici appartenir en commun à des districts, des communes ou des communautés d'habitants séparés par la nouvelle frontière. En cas de désaccord sur le tracé et les mesures d'exécution, les deux hautes parties contractantes s'engagent à s'adresser à un Gouvernement tiers ami pour le prier de désigner un arbitre dont la décision sur les points en litige sera considérée comme définitive.

Il est formellement entendu que la Bulgarie se désiste, dès maintenant, de toute prétention sur l'île de Crète.

ARTICLE VI.

Les quartiers généraux des armées respectives seront aussitôt informés de la signature du présent traité. Le Gouvernement bulgare s'engage à ramener son armée, dès le lendemain de cette signification, sur le pied de paix. Il dirigera les troupes sur leurs garnisons, où l'on procédera, dans le plus bref délai, au renvoi des diverses réserves dans leurs foyers.

Les troupes dont la garnison se trouve située dans la zone d'occupation de l'armée de l'une des hautes parties contractantes seront dirigées sur un autre point de l'ancien territoire bulgare et ne pourront gagner leurs garnisons habituelles qu'après évacuation de la zone d'occupation sus-visée.

ARTICLE VII.

L'évacuation du territoire bulgare, tant ancien que nouveau, commencera aussitôt après la démobilisation de l'armée bulgare, et sera achevée au plus tard dans la quinzaine.

Durant ce délai, pour l'armée d'opération roumaine, la zone de démarcation sera indiquée par la ligne Sistov-Lovcea-Turski-Izvor-Glozene-Zlatitza-Mirkovo-Araba-Konak-Orchania-Mezdra-Vratza-Berkovitza-Lom-Danube.

ARTICLE VIII.

Durant l'occupation des territoires bulgares, les différentes armées conserveront le droit de réquisition, moyennant payement en espèces.

Elles y auront libre usage des lignes de chemin de fer pour les transports de troupes et les approvisionnements de toute nature, sans qu'il y ait lieu à indemnité au profit de l'autorité locale.

Les malades et les blessés y seront sous la sauvegarde desdites armées.

ARTICLE IX.

Aussitôt que possible après l'échange des ratifications du présent traité, tous les prisonniers de guerre seront réciproquement rendus.

Les Gouvernements des hautes parties contractantes désigneront chacun des commissaires spéciaux chargés de recevoir les prisonniers.

Tous les prisonniers aux mains d'un des Gouvernements seront livrés au commissaire du Gouvernement auquel ils appartiennent ou à son représentant dûment autorisé, à l'endroit qui sera fixé par les parties intéressées.

Les Gouvernements des hautes parties contractantes présenteront respectivement l'un à l'autre, et aussitôt que possible après la remise de tous les prisonniers, un état des dépenses directes supportées par lui pour le soin et l'entretien des prisonniers, depuis la date de la capture ou de la reddition jusqu'à celle de la mort ou de la remise. Compensation sera faite entre les sommes dues par la Bulgarie à l'une des autres hautes parties contractantes et celles dues par celles-ci à la Bulgarie, et la différence sera payée au Gouvernement créancier aussitôt que possible après l'échange des états de dépenses sus-visés.

ARTICLE X.

Le présent traité sera ratifié et les ratifications en seront échangées à Bucarest dans le délai de quinze jours, ou plus tôt si faire se peut.

En foi de quoi les plénipotentiaires respectifs l'ont signé et y ont apposé leurs sceaux.

Fait à Bucarest, le 28^e jour du mois de juillet (10^e jour du mois d'août) de l'an 1913.

XVII. TURCO-BULGARIAN TREATY

Treaty of Peace between Bulgaria and Turkey.

Constantinople, September 16 (29), 1913.

[Ratifications exchanged at Constantinople, October 1 (14), 1913.]

SA Majesté l'Empereur des Ottomans et Sa Majesté le Roi des Bulgares, animés du désir de régler à l'amiable et sur une base durable l'état de choses créé par les événements qui se sont produits depuis la conclusion du Traité de Londres,¹ de rétablir les relations d'amitié et de bon voisinage si nécessaires pour le bien-être de leurs peuples, ont résolu de conclure le présent traité et ont choisi respectivement à cet effet pour leurs Plénipotentiaires :

Sa Majesté l'Empereur des Ottomans : Talaat Bey : le Général Mahmoud Pacha ; Halil Bey ;

Sa Majesté le Roi des Bulgares : le Général Savoff ; M. Natchévitch ; M. Tocheff ;

Lesquels, après s'être communiqué leurs pleins pouvoirs, trouvés en bonne et due forme, sont convenus de ce qui suit :

ARTICLE I^{er}.

La frontière entre les deux pays prend son point de départ à l'embouchure de la rivière Rezvaja, au sud du monastère San Ivan, se trouvant sur la mer Noire : elle suit le cours de cette rivière jusqu'au point de jonction des rivières Pirogu et Déliva, à l'ouest de Kamila-köj. Entre l'embouchure et le point de jonction plus haut mentionné, la rivière Rezvaja, à partir de l'embouchure, suit d'abord la direction du sud-ouest et, laissant à la Turquie Placa, forme un coude et se dirige vers le nord-ouest et puis vers le sud-ouest : les villages Madzura et Pirogoplo restent en territoire ottoman. La rivière Rezvaja, après avoir suivi, à partir de Pirogoplo, la direction du sud sur une longueur approximative de 5½ kilom., forme un coude vers l'ouest et le nord et se prolonge ensuite, légèrement incurvée vers le nord, dans la direction générale de l'ouest. Dans cette partie, les villages Likudi, Kladara restent en territoire bulgare et les villages Ciknigori, Mavrodio et Lafva reviennent à la Turquie ; ensuite, la frontière, suivant toujours la rivière Rezvaja, laisse Torfu-ciflik à la Bulgarie, se dirige vers le sud-est et, laissant le village Radoslavci en territoire ottoman,

¹ Page 132.

oblique vers l'ouest à 800 mètres environ au sud de ce village ; elle laisse le village Kamila-köj en territoire ottoman et arrive à une distance de 400 mètres environ à l'ouest de ce village, au point de jonction des rivières Pirogu et Déliva.

La ligne frontière suit, à partir du point de jonction des rivières Pirogu et Déliva, le cours du Déliva et, se prolongeant avec ladite rivière dans la direction générale du nord-ouest, laisse à la Turquie les villages Paspala, Kandildzik et Déli et se termine à l'est de Souk Sou ; ce dernier village reste à la Turquie, tandis que Sévéligu revient à la Bulgarie. La ligne frontière, après avoir passé entre Souk Sou et Sévéligu, continue dans la direction du nord-ouest, en suivant la crête qui passe sur les côtes 678, 619 et 563 ; au delà de la côte 563, elle laisse le village Caglaïk (Cajirlik) en territoire ottoman et, contournant ce dernier village à 3 kilom. à l'est et au nord, gagne le ruisseau Goléma. La frontière suit le cours du Goléma sur une longueur de 2 kilom. environ et arrive au point de jonction de ce ruisseau avec l'autre bras de la même rivière, qui vient du sud de Karabanlar (Karabaalar). A partir de ce point de jonction, la ligne frontière passe sur la crête au nord du ruisseau venant de Türk-Alatli pour aboutir à l'ancienne frontière turco-bulgare.

Le point de jonction de la nouvelle ligne et de l'ancienne frontière se trouve à 4 kilom. à l'est de Türk-Alatli, au point où l'ancienne frontière turco-bulgare forme un coude vers le nord, dans la direction de Ajkiri-Jol.

A partir de ce point, elle suit exactement l'ancienne frontière turco-bulgare jusqu'à Balaban-Basi, à l'ouest de la Tundja et au nord du village Derviska-Mog.

La nouvelle ligne frontière se sépare de l'ancienne frontière aux environs de Balaban-Basi et descend en ligne droite vers Dermen-Déré. Le point où la nouvelle frontière se sépare de l'ancienne se trouve à 2 kilom. de distance de l'église du village Derviska-Mog. La frontière, après avoir laissé le village Derviska-Mog, dans le territoire ottoman, suit le cours du Dermen-Déré jusqu'au village Bulgar-Lefké et laisse ce village en territoire bulgare. A partir des lisières est et sud de Bulgar-Lefké, la ligne frontière abandonne le cours du Dermen-Déré et se dirige vers l'ouest, laisse en territoire ottoman les villages Türk-Lefké et Dimitri-köj et, en suivant la ligne de partage des eaux entre Bük-Déré et Démirhan-Déré (côte 241), arrive au point le plus septentrional du coude formé par la Marica vers le nord, à l'est de Mustafa-Pasa. Cette partie du coude se trouve à 3½ kilom. de distance de l'entrée est du pont de Mustafa-Pasa. La frontière suit la partie ouest du coude de la Marica jusqu'au moulin et, de là, arrive en ligne droite, atteignant Cermen-Déré, au nord du pont du chemin de fer

(Cermen-Déré est la rivière qui se jette dans la Marica à 3 kilom. à l'est du village Cermen) et puis, contournant Cermen au nord, va à Tazi-Tépési. La frontière laisse Cermen à la Turquie et, suivant le cours de Cermen-Déré, coupe la ligne du chemin de fer au nord-ouest de Cermen ; elle suit toujours la même rivière et monte à Tazi-Tépési (côte 613). (Le point où Cermen-Déré coupe la ligne du chemin de fer au nord-ouest de Cermen se trouve à une distance de 5 kilom. du centre du village de Cermen et à 3,200 mètres de la sortie ouest du pont de Mustafa-Pasa.)

La frontière laisse en territoire ottoman le point le plus élevé de Tazi-Tépési et, à partir de ce point, suit la ligne de partage des eaux entre l'Arda et la Marica en passant par les villages Jajladzik et Gjuldzuk (Goldzik), qui restent en territoire ottoman.

A partir de Goldzik, la frontière passe par la côte 449 et ensuite descend à la côte 367 et, à partir de cette côte, se dirige vers l'Arda dans la direction sud, à peu près en ligne droite. Cette ligne droite passe à 1 kilom. à l'ouest de Bektasli, qui reste en territoire ottoman.

La ligne frontière, après être arrivée de la côte 367 à l'Arda, suit vers l'est la rive droite de l'Arda et arrive au moulin qui se trouve à 1 kilom. au sud du village de Cingirli ; à partir de ce moulin, elle suit la ligne de partage des eaux se trouvant à l'est de Gajdohor-Déré ; elle passe à 1 kilom. à l'est du village Gajdohor et, laissant le village Drébisna à la Bulgarie, en passant à peu près à 1 kilom. à l'est de ce village, descend à Atéren-Déré à 1 kilom. au sud du susdit village ; de là, elle va dans la direction du sud-ouest, par le plus court chemin, à la source du ruisseau qui coule entre les villages Akalan et Kajlikliköj et suit le thalweg de ce cours d'eau pour descendre à la rivière Kizil-Déli. A partir du susdit ruisseau, la frontière, laissant Gökcebnar en Bulgarie, emprunte le cours de Kizil-Déli-Déré et, de là, en suivant le thalweg du ruisseau qui se sépare vers le sud en un point se trouvant à 4 kilom. au sud de Mandrica et à 3 kilom. à l'est de Soganliki-Bala, va à la source du même ruisseau ; elle descend ensuite par le plus court chemin à la source du Mandra-Déré ; elle suit le thalweg du Mandra-Déré, à partir de sa source, pour joindre la Marica à l'ouest de Mandra. Dans cette partie, le village Krantu reste en territoire bulgare et les villages Bas-Klisa, Ahirjanbnar et Mandra reviennent à la Turquie.

A partir de ce point, la frontière suit le thalweg de la Marica jusqu'au point où le fleuve se sépare en deux branches, à 3½ kilom. au sud du village de Kaldirkoz ; de là, elle suit le thalweg de la branche droite, qui passe non loin de Férédzik, pour aboutir à la mer Égée. Dans cette partie, les marais d'Ak-Sou,

ainsi que les lacs de Quénéli-Gheulet et de Kazikli-Gheul, restent à la Turquie et les lacs de Touzla-Gheul et de Drana-Gheul reviennent à la Bulgarie.

ARTICLE II.

Dix jours après la signature du présent traité par les Plénipotentiaires susmentionnés, les armées des deux parties contractantes qui, en ce moment, occuperaient des territoires revenant à l'autre partie, s'empresseront de les évacuer et, dans l'espace des quinze jours suivants, de les remettre, conformément aux règles et aux usages, aux autorités de l'autre partie.

Il est en outre entendu que les deux États démobiliseront leurs armées dans l'espace de trois semaines, à partir de la date du présent traité.

ARTICLE III.

Les relations diplomatiques, ainsi que les communications postales, télégraphiques et de chemin de fer, reprendront entre les hautes parties contractantes immédiatement après la signature du présent traité.

L'arrangement sur les Muftis, formant l'Annexe II du présent traité,¹ sera applicable dans tous les territoires de la Bulgarie.

ARTICLE IV.

En vue de favoriser les relations économiques entre les deux pays, les hautes parties contractantes s'engagent à remettre en vigueur, aussitôt après la signature du présent traité et pour un délai d'un an à dater de ce jour, la Convention pour le Commerce et la Navigation conclue le 6 (19) février, 1911, et à accorder à leurs produits industriels, agricoles et autres toutes les facilités douanières compatibles avec leurs engagements existant à l'égard des Puissances tierces.

La déclaration consulaire du 18 novembre (1^{er} décembre), 1909), sera également remise en vigueur pendant le même délai.

Toutefois, chacune des hautes parties contractantes pourra créer des consulats généraux, consulats, vice-consulats de carrière dans toutes les localités de leurs territoires où des agents de Puissances tierces sont admis.

Les hautes parties contractantes s'engagent en outre à procéder, dans le plus bref délai possible, à la nomination de Commissions mixtes pour négocier un Traité de Commerce et une Convention consulaire.

¹ Page 147.

ARTICLE V.

Les prisonniers de guerre et otages seront échangés dans le délai d'un mois à partir de la signature du présent traité, ou plus tôt si faire se peut.

Cet échange aura lieu par les soins de commissaires spéciaux nommés de part et d'autre.

Les frais d'entretien desdits prisonniers de guerre et otages seront à la charge du Gouvernement au pouvoir duquel ils se trouvent.

Toutefois, la solde des officiers payée par ce Gouvernement sera remboursée par l'État dont ils relèvent.

ARTICLE VI.

Une amnistie pleine et entière est accordée par les hautes parties contractantes à toutes les personnes qui ont pris part aux hostilités ou qui se sont compromises dans les événements politiques antérieurs au présent traité.

Les habitants des territoires cédés jouiront de la même amnistie pour les événements politiques y survenus.

Le bénéfice de cette amnistie cessera à l'expiration du délai de deux semaines fixé par les autorités légalement constituées lors de la réoccupation des territoires revenant à la Bulgarie et dûment porté à la connaissance des populations.

ARTICLE VII.

Les originaires des territoires cédés par l'Empire ottoman au Gouvernement Royal de Bulgarie et qui y sont domiciliés deviendront sujets bulgares.

Ces originaires devenus sujets bulgares auront, pendant un délai de quatre ans, la faculté d'opter sur place en faveur de la nationalité ottomane, par une simple déclaration aux autorités locales bulgares et un enregistrement aux consulats Impériaux ottomans. Cette déclaration sera remise, à l'étranger, aux chancelleries des consulats bulgares et enregistrée par les consulats ottomans. L'option sera individuelle et n'est pas obligatoire pour le Gouvernement Impérial ottoman.

Les mineurs actuels useront de l'option dans les quatre ans qui suivent leur majorité.

Les musulmans des territoires cédés devenus sujets bulgares ne seront pas assujettis pendant ce délai au service militaire, ni ne payeront aucune taxe militaire.

Après avoir usé de leur faculté d'option, ces musulmans quitteront les territoires cédés, et cela jusqu'à échéance du délai de quatre ans prévu plus haut, en ayant la faculté de faire passer en franchise de droits de sortie leurs biens meubles. Ils peuvent toutefois conserver leurs biens immeubles de toutes catégories, urbains et ruraux, et les faire administrer par des tiers.

ARTICLE VIII.

Les sujets bulgares musulmans de tous les territoires de la Bulgarie jouiront des mêmes droits civils et politiques que les sujets d'origine bulgare.

Ils jouiront de la liberté de conscience, de la liberté et de la pratique extérieure du culte. Les coutumes des musulmans seront respectées.

Le nom de Sa Majesté Impériale le Sultan, comme Khalife, continuera à être prononcé dans les prières publiques des musulmans.

Les communautés musulmanes, constituées actuellement ou qui se constitueront à l'avenir, leur organisation hiérarchique, leurs patrimoines seront reconnus et respectés ; elles relèveront sans entraves de leurs chefs spirituels.

ARTICLE IX.

Les communautés bulgares en Turquie jouiront des mêmes droits dont jouissent actuellement les autres communautés chrétiennes de l'Empire ottoman.

Les Bulgares sujets ottomans conserveront leurs biens meubles et immeubles et ne seront aucunement inquiétés dans l'exercice et la jouissance de leurs droits de l'homme et de propriété. Ceux qui ont quitté leurs foyers lors des derniers événements pourront retourner dans un délai de deux ans au plus tard.

ARTICLE X.

Les droits acquis antérieurement à l'annexion des territoires, ainsi que les actes judiciaires et titres officiels émanant des autorités ottomanes compétentes, seront respectés et inviolables jusqu'à la preuve légale du contraire.

ARTICLE XI.

Le droit de propriété foncière dans les territoires cédés, tel qu'il résulte de la loi ottomane sur les immeubles urbains et ruraux, sera reconnu sans aucune restriction.

Les propriétaires d'immeubles ou de meubles dans lesdits territoires continueront à jouir de tous leurs droits de propriété, même s'ils fixent, à titre provisoire ou définitif, leur résidence personnelle hors de la Bulgarie. Ils pourront affermer leurs biens ou les administrer par des tiers.

ARTICLE XII.

Les vakoufs mustesna, mulhaka, idjarétein, moukataa, idjaréi-vahidé, ainsi que les dîmes vakoufs, dans les territoires cédés, tels qu'ils résultent actuellement des lois ottomanes, seront respectés.

Ils seront gérés par qui de droit.

Leurs régimes ne pourront être modifiés que par indemnisation juste et préalable.

Les droits des établissements religieux et de bienfaisance de l'Empire ottoman sur les revenus vakoufs dans les territoires cédés, à titre d'idjaréi-Vahidé, de moukataa, de droits divers, de contre-valeur de dimes vakoufs et autres, sur les vakoufs bâtis ou non bâtis, seront respectés.

ARTICLE XIII.

Les biens particuliers de Sa Majesté Impériale le Sultan, ainsi que ceux des membres de la dynastie Impériale, seront maintenus et respectés. Sa Majesté et les membres de la dynastie Impériale pourront les vendre ou les affermer par des fondés de pouvoirs.

Il en sera de même pour les biens du domaine privé qui appartiendraient à l'État.

En cas d'aliénation, préférence sera accordée, à conditions égales, aux sujets bulgares.

ARTICLE XIV.

Les hautes parties contractantes s'engagent à donner à leurs autorités provinciales des ordres afin de faire respecter les cimetières et particulièrement les tombeaux des soldats tombés sur le champ d'honneur.

Les autorités n'empêcheront pas les parents et amis d'enlever les ossements des victimes inhumées en terre étrangère.

ARTICLE XV.

Les sujets de chacun des États contractants pourront séjourner et circuler librement, comme par le passé, sur le territoire de l'autre État contractant.

ARTICLE XVI.

Le Gouvernement Royal de Bulgarie est subrogé aux droits, charges et obligations du Gouvernement Impérial ottoman à l'égard de la Compagnie des Chemins de fer orientaux, pour la partie de la ligne à elle concédée et située dans les territoires cédés.

Le Gouvernement Royal de Bulgarie s'oblige à rendre sans retard le matériel roulant et les autres objets appartenant à ladite compagnie et saisis par lui.

ARTICLE XVII.

Tous les différends et litiges qui surviendraient dans l'interprétation ou l'application des articles XI, XII, XIII et

XVI du présent traité seront réglés par l'arbitrage à La Haye, conformément au compromis formant l'Annexe III¹ du présent traité.

ARTICLE XVIII.

Le Protocole relatif à la frontière (Annexe 1); l'arrangement concernant les Muftis (Annexe 2); le compromis d'arbitrage (Annexe 3); le Protocole relatif au chemin de fer et à la Maritza (Annexe 4) et la déclaration se rapportant à l'article X (Annexe 5) sont annexés au présent traité dont ils font partie intégrante.

ARTICLE XIX.

Les dispositions du Traité de Londres sont maintenues en ce qui concerne le Gouvernement Impérial ottoman et le Royaume de Bulgarie pour autant qu'elles ne sont pas abrogées ou modifiées par les stipulations qui précèdent.

ARTICLE XX.

Le présent traité entrera en vigueur immédiatement après sa signature.

Les ratifications en seront échangées dans la quinzaine à dater de ce jour.

En foi de quoi les Plénipotentiaires respectifs l'ont signé et y ont apposé leurs cachets.

Fait en double exemplaire à Constantinople, le 16 (29) septembre 1913.

ANNEXE 1^{re}.

Protocole N^o. 1.

(A.) Les hautes parties contractantes ont convenu d'ajouter à la description de la frontière insérée à l'article I^{er} du traité les remarques suivantes :

1. La frontière est décrite d'après la carte de l'état-major autrichien à l'échelle de 1 : 200,000 et le tracé en est marqué sur un croquis annexe, copié sur cette carte.

Les indications se rapportant à la partie inférieure et à l'affluent de la Maritza sont enregistrées d'après la carte topographique à l'échelle de 1 : 50,000 et elles sont portées sur une carte détaillée et complète de cette partie, indiquant la frontière définitive de Mandra à l'embouchure.

2. Des commissions mixtes composées d'officiers ottomans et bulgares traceront la carte de la nouvelle ligne frontière sur un espace de 2 kilom. de chaque côté de cette ligne, à l'échelle

de 1 : 25,000 ; la frontière définitive sera marquée sur cette carte. Ces commissions seront divisées en trois sections et commenceront leurs travaux simultanément dans les parties suivantes : la côte de la mer Noire, le territoire situé entre la Maritza et l'Arda et celui compris entre l'Arda et Mandra.

Après cette opération, la ligne frontière sera appliquée sur le terrain et des pyramides y seront élevées par les soins des dites commissions mixtes. Les protocoles de la frontière définitive seront dressés par les commissions.

3. Lors du tracé de la ligne frontière, les commissions relèveront le plan des propriétés privées ou publiques restant en deçà ou au delà de la ligne.

Les deux hauts Gouvernements examineront les mesures à prendre pour éviter des conflits qui pourraient éventuellement surgir de l'exploitation de pareilles propriétés.

Il est bien entendu que jusqu'à ce qu'une entente intervienne à ce sujet les propriétaires continueront à jouir librement de leurs biens, comme par le passé.

4. Les protocoles antérieurement dressés par les deux parties en ce qui concerne les parties de l'ancienne frontière turco-bulgare maintenues actuellement telles quelles resteront en vigueur.

Si les bornes-frontière, ou koulés, se trouvant dans ces parties, sont détruites ou endommagées, il sera procédé à leur reconstruction ou restauration.

5. Pour les rivières et les ruisseaux, sauf la Toundja, la Maritza et l'Arda, la ligne frontière suivra le thalweg des cours d'eau. Pour les trois susdites rivières, la ligne frontière est indiquée exactement dans le protocole.

(B.) La délimitation en ce qui concerne les îles situées dans le lit de la Maritza sera confiée à une commission spéciale.

Il a été également convenu que les deux Gouvernements s'engagent à s'entendre, le moment venu, pour la canalisation de la Maritza.

(C.) Les deux Gouvernements sont d'accord pour faciliter l'échange facultatif mutuel des populations bulgare et musulmane de part et d'autre, ainsi que de leurs propriétés dans une zone de 15 kilom. au plus, le long de toute la frontière commune.

L'échange aura lieu par des villages entiers.

L'échange des propriétés rurales et urbaines aura lieu sous les auspices des deux Gouvernements et avec la participation des anciens des villages à échanger.

Des commissions mixtes nommées par les deux Gouvernements procéderont à l'échange et à l'indemnisation, s'il y a lieu, de différences résultant de l'échange de biens entre villages et particuliers en question.

ANNEXE 2.

Arrangement concernant les Muftis.

ARTICLE I^{er}.

Un Mufti en chef résidera à Sofia et servira d'intermédiaire entre les Muftis de la Bulgarie dans leurs relations avec le Cheïkh-ul-Islamat, pour les affaires religieuses et civiles relevant du Chéri, et avec le Ministère bulgare des Cultes.

Il sera élu par les Muftis de la Bulgarie et, parmi ceux-ci, réunis spécialement à cet effet. Les Mufti-Vékilis prendront part à cette réunion, mais seulement en qualité d'électeurs.

Le Ministère bulgare des Cultes notifiera l'élection du Mufti en chef, par l'entremise de la Légation impériale à Sofia, au Cheïkh-ul-Islamat, qui lui fera parvenir un menchour et le murassélé l'autorisant à exercer ses fonctions et à accorder, de son côté, le même pouvoir aux autres Muftis de la Bulgarie.

Le Mufti en chef aura, dans les limites des prescriptions du Chéri, le droit de surveillance et de contrôle sur les Muftis de la Bulgarie, sur les établissements religieux et de bienfaisance musulmans, ainsi que sur leurs desservants et leurs mutévellis.

ARTICLE II.

Les Muftis sont élus par les électeurs musulmans de la Bulgarie.

Le Mufti en chef vérifie si le Mufti élu réunit toutes les qualités requises par la loi du Chéri et, en cas d'affirmative, il informe le Cheïkh-ul-Islamat de la nécessité de lui délivrer l'autorisation nécessaire pour rendre les fetvas (menchour). Il délivre au nouveau Mufti, en même temps que le menchour ainsi obtenu, le murassélé nécessaire pour lui conférer le droit de juridiction religieuse entre les musulmans.

Les Muftis peuvent, à condition de faire ratifier leur choix au Mufti en chef, proposer la nomination, dans les limites de leurs circonscriptions et dans les localités où on en verrait la nécessité, des Mufti-Vékilis, qui auront à y remplir les fonctions déterminées par le présent arrangement, sous la surveillance directe des Muftis locaux.

ARTICLE III.

La rétribution du Mufti en chef, des Muftis et des Mufti-Vékilis, ainsi que du personnel de leurs bureaux, sera à la charge du Gouvernement royal bulgare et sera fixé en considération de leur dignité et de l'importance de leur poste.

L'organisation du Bach-Muftilik sera fixée par un règlement élaboré par le Mufti en chef et dûment publié.

Le Mufti en chef, Muftis et Mufti-Vékilis, ainsi que leur personnel, jouiront de tous les droits que les lois assurent aux fonctionnaires bulgares.

ARTICLE IV.

La révocation des Muftis et de leurs Vékils aura lieu conformément à la loi sur les fonctionnaires publics.

Le Mufti en chef, ou son délégué, sera appelé à siéger au conseil disciplinaire toutes les fois que ce dernier aura à se prononcer sur la révocation d'un Mufti ou d'un Mufti-Vékili. Toutefois, l'avis du Mufti en chef ou de son délégué servira audit conseil de base à l'appréciation des plaintes de caractère purement religieux.

L'acte de révocation d'un Mufti ou Mufti-Vékili fixera le jour de l'élection de son remplaçant.

ARTICLE V.

Les heudjets et jugements rendus par les Muftis seront examinés par le Mufti en chef, qui les confirmera, s'il les trouve conformes aux prescriptions de la loi du Chéri, et les remettra au département compétent afin d'être mis à exécution.

Les heudjets et jugements qui ne seront pas confirmés pour cause de non-conformité à la loi du Chéri seront retournés aux Muftis qui les auraient rendus et les affaires auxquelles ils ont trait seront examinées et réglées de nouveau suivant les prescriptions de ladite loi. Les heudjets et jugements qui ne seront pas trouvés conformes aux prescriptions de la loi du Chéri ou ceux dont l'examen au Cheïkh-ul-Islamat aura été demandé par les intéressés seront envoyés par le Mufti en chef à son Altesse le Cheïkh-ul-Islam.

Les heudjets et jugements confirmés par le Mufti en chef ou sanctionnés par le Cheïkh-ul-Islamat seront mis à exécution par les autorités bulgares compétentes. Dans ce cas, ils seront accompagnés d'une traduction en langue bulgare.

ARTICLE VI.

Le Mufti en chef fera, le cas échéant, aux autres Muftis les recommandations et communications nécessaires en matière de mariage, divorce, testaments, successions et tutelle, pension alimentaire (nafaka) et autres matières du Chéri, ainsi qu'en ce qui concerne la gestion des biens des orphelins. En outre, il examinera les plaintes et réclamations se rapportant aux affaires susmentionnées et fera connaître au département compétent ce qu'il y aurait lieu de faire conformément à la loi du Chéri.

Les Muftis étant aussi chargés de la surveillance et de l'administration des vakoufs, le Mufti en chef aura, parmi ses attributions principales, celle de leur demander la reddition de leurs comptes et de faire préparer les états de comptabilité y relatifs.

Les livres relatifs aux comptes des vakoufs pourront être tenus en langue turque.

ARTICLE VII.

Le Mufti en chef et les Muftis inspecteront, au besoin, les conseils d'instruction publique et les écoles musulmanes ainsi que les médressés de la Bulgarie et adopteront des dispositions pour la création d'établissements scolaires dans les localités où le besoin s'en ferait sentir ; le Mufti en chef s'adressera, s'il y a lieu, au département compétent pour les affaires concernant l'instruction publique musulmane.

Le Gouvernement royal créera à ses frais des écoles primaires et secondaires musulmanes dans la proportion établie par la loi sur l'instruction publique bulgare. L'enseignement aura lieu en langue turque et en conformité du programme officiel, avec enseignement obligatoire de la langue bulgare.

Toutes les lois relatives à l'enseignement obligatoire ainsi qu'au nombre et aux droits des instituteurs continueront à être appliquées au corps enseignant des communautés musulmanes. Les appointements du personnel enseignant ou autre de ces institutions seront réglés par le Trésor bulgare dans les mêmes conditions que ceux des corps enseignants des institutions bulgares.

Une institution spéciale sera également créée pour former des Naïbs.

ARTICLE VIII.

Dans chaque chef-lieu ou ville ayant une nombreuse population musulmane, il sera procédé à l'élection d'une communauté musulmane, chargée des affaires vakoufs et d'instruction publique secondaire. La personnalité morale de ces communautés sera reconnue en toute circonstance et par toutes les autorités.

Les vakoufs de chaque district devant être administrés, selon les lois et dispositions du Chéri, par la communauté musulmane respective, c'est la personnalité morale de cette dernière qui sera considérée comme propriétaire de ces vakoufs.

Les cimetières publics musulmans et ceux sis à proximité des mosquées sont compris dans le domaine des biens vakoufs appartenant aux communautés musulmanes, qui en disposeront à leur convenance et conformément aux lois de l'hygiène.

Aucun bien vakouf ne peut en aucun cas être exproprié sans que sa contre-valeur soit versée à la communauté respective.

On veillera à la bonne conservation des immeubles vakoufs sis en Bulgarie. Aucun édifice du culte ou de bienfaisance ne pourra être démoli que pour une nécessité impérieuse et conformément aux lois et aux règlements en vigueur.

Dans le cas où un édifice vakouf devrait être exproprié pour des causes impérieuses, on ne pourra y procéder qu'après la désignation d'un autre terrain ayant la même valeur par rapport à l'endroit où il se trouve situé, ainsi qu'après le paiement de la contre-valeur de la bâtisse.

Les sommes à payer comme prix des immeubles vakoufs qui seront expropriés pour des causes impérieuses seront remises aux communautés musulmanes pour être entièrement affectées à l'entretien des édifices vakoufs.

ARTICLE IX.

Dans les six mois qui suivront la signature du présent arrangement une commission spéciale, dont le Mufti en chef fera partie de droit, sera nommée par le Gouvernement bulgare et aura pour but, dans une période de trois ans à partir de la date de sa constitution, d'examiner et de vérifier les réclamations qui seront formulées par les mutévellis ou leurs ayants droit.

Ceux des intéressés qui ne seraient pas contents des décisions de la commission pourront recourir aux tribunaux compétents du pays.

ANNEXE 3.

Compromis d'Arbitrage.

ARTICLE I^{er}.

Au cas où quelque différend ou litige surviendrait, d'après les prévisions de l'article XVII du traité conclu en date de ce jour entre le Gouvernement impérial ottoman d'une part, et le Gouvernement royal de Bulgarie de l'autre, ce différend ou ce litige sera déféré à l'arbitrage à La Haye, conformément aux dispositions ci-après.

ARTICLE II.

Le Gouvernement demandeur notifiera au Gouvernement défenseur la ou les questions qu'il entendra soumettre à l'arbitrage, au fur et à mesure qu'elles surgiront, et donnera à leur sujet des indications succinctes, mais précises.

ARTICLE III.

Le tribunal arbitral auquel la ou lesdites questions seront soumises sera composé de cinq membres, lesquels seront désignés de la manière suivante :

Chaque partie, aussitôt que possible et dans un délai qui n'excédera pas deux mois à partir de la date de la notification spécifiée dans l'article précédent, devra nommer deux arbitres.

Le sur-arbitre sera choisi parmi les Souverains de Suède, Norvège et Hollande. Si on ne tombe pas d'accord sur le choix de l'un de ces trois Souverains, le sort en décidera. Si la partie défenderesse ne nomme pas ses arbitres dans le délai précité de deux mois, elle pourra le faire jusqu'au jour de la première réunion du tribunal arbitral. Passé ce délai, la partie demanderesse indiquera le Souverain qui aura à choisir le sur-arbitre. Après le choix dudit sur-arbitre, le tribunal se constituera valablement par le sur-arbitre et par les deux arbitres choisis par la partie demanderesse.

ARTICLE IV.

Les Puissances en litige se feront représenter auprès du tribunal arbitral par des agents, conseils ou avocats, en conformité des prévisions de l'article LXII de la Convention de La Haye pour le règlement pacifique des conflits internationaux.¹

Ces agents, conseils ou avocats seront désignés à temps par les parties pour que le fonctionnement de l'arbitrage ne subisse aucun retard.

Toutefois, si la partie défenderesse s'en abstient, il sera procédé à son égard par défaut.

ARTICLE V.

Le tribunal arbitral, une fois constitué, se réunira à La Haye à une date qui sera fixée par les arbitres et dans le délai d'un mois à partir de la nomination du sur-arbitre. Après le règlement en conformité avec le texte et l'esprit de la Convention de La Haye de 1907 de toutes les questions de procédure qui pourraient surgir et qui ne seraient pas prévues par le présent compromis, ledit tribunal ajournera sa prochaine séance à la date qu'il fixera.

Toutefois, il reste convenu que le tribunal ne pourra ouvrir les débats sur les questions en litige ni avant les deux mois, ni plus tard que les trois mois qui suivront la remise du contre-mémoire ou de la contre-réplique prévue par l'article VII.

¹ Brit. State Papers, Vol. c, page 308

ARTICLE VI.

La procédure arbitrale comprendra deux phases distinctes : l'instruction écrite et les débats, qui consisteront dans le développement oral des moyens des parties devant le tribunal.

La seule langue dont fera usage le tribunal et dont l'emploi sera autorisé devant lui sera la langue française.

ARTICLE VII.

Dans le délai de dix mois au plus tard à dater de la notification prévue à l'article II, la partie demanderesse devra remettre à chacun des membres du tribunal arbitral, en cinq exemplaires, et à la partie défenderesse, en trente exemplaires, les copies complètes, écrites ou imprimées, de son mémoire, contenant toutes pièces à l'appui de sa demande, lesquelles se référeront à la ou aux questions en litige.

Dans un délai de dix mois plus tard après cette remise, la partie défenderesse devra remettre à chacun des membres du tribunal, ainsi qu'à la partie demanderesse, en autant d'exemplaires que ci-dessus, les copies complètes, manuscrites ou imprimées, de son contre-mémoire avec toutes les pièces à l'appui.

Dans le délai d'un mois après cette remise, la partie demanderesse notifiera au président du tribunal arbitral si elle a l'intention de présenter une réplique. Dans ce cas, elle aura quatre mois au plus, à compter de cette notification, pour communiquer ladite réplique dans les mêmes conditions que le mémoire. La partie défenderesse aura alors cinq mois, à compter de cette communication, pour présenter sa contre-réplique dans les mêmes conditions que le contre-mémoire.

Les délais fixés par le présent article pourront être prolongés de commun accord par les parties ou par le tribunal, quand il le jugera nécessaire pour arriver à une décision juste.

Mais le tribunal ne prendra pas en considération les mémoires, contre-mémoires et autres communications qui lui seront présentées par les parties après l'expiration du dernier délai fixé par lui.

ARTICLE VIII.

Si dans les mémoires ou autres pièces échangées l'une ou l'autre partie s'est référée ou a fait allusion à un document ou papier en sa possession exclusive, et dont elle n'aura pas joint la copie, elle sera tenue, si l'autre partie le demande, de lui en donner copie au plus tard dans les trente jours.

ARTICLE IX.

Les décisions du tribunal arbitral sur la ou les questions en litige seront prononcées dans le délai maximum d'un mois après la clôture, par le président, des débats relatifs à cette ou ces questions.

ARTICLE X.

Le jugement du tribunal arbitral sera définitif et devra être exécuté strictement, sans aucun retard.

ARTICLE XI.

Chaque partie supporte ses propres frais et une part égale des frais du tribunal.

ARTICLE XII.

En tout ce qui n'est pas prévu par le présent compromis, les stipulations de la Convention de La Haye de 1907 pour le règlement pacifique des conflits internationaux seront appliquées aux arbitrages résultant du présent compromis, à l'exception, toutefois, des articles qui ont été réservés par les parties contractantes.

ANNEXE 4.

Protocole No. 2.

LE tracé de la frontière coupant le fleuve Maritza et le chemin de fer Moustafa-Pacha-Andrinople-Dédé Agatch, qui desservent les territoires ottomans et bulgares, il a été convenu entre les deux parties contractantes que, pour préserver les relations commerciales et autres des moindres entraves, les règlements et les usages qui régissent actuellement les mouvements commerciaux, tant sur le fleuve Maritza que sur ladite ligne ferrée, ainsi que tous les droits, taxes et autres découlant desdits règlements, seront maintenus dans leur plénitude, et que toutes facilités compatibles avec lesdits règlements et usages seront accordées. Aucune modification ne pourra y être introduite sans un accord préalable entre les deux États contractants et les administrations desdits chemins de fer et fleuve. Le transit direct des marchandises sera exempt de droits et taxes quelconques ; toutefois, chaque Gouvernement pourra réglementer la surveillance dudit transit.

Les dispositions ci-dessus ne s'appliqueront pour le chemin de fer que jusqu'au jour où les deux hautes parties contractantes auront déjà construit simultanément, la Bulgarie une ligne de raccordement à la mer Egée, dans son territoire, et la Turquie une ligne aboutissant à ladite mer.

Il est bien entendu qu'en temps de paix la Bulgarie sera libre, jusqu'à la construction de la ligne prévue, qui aura lieu au plus tard dans dix ans, de faire transporter sur ledit chemin de fer, ainsi que sur le fleuve, des recrues, des troupes, des armes, des munitions, des vivres, etc.

L'État ottoman aura toujours le droit de prendre les mesures de surveillance nécessaires.

Toutefois, ce transport de troupes et autres ne pourra commencer qu'à partir de trois mois à dater de ce jour.

ANNEXE 5.

Déclaration.

EN ce qui concerne l'article X du traité, le Gouvernement Impérial ottoman déclare qu'il n'a point consenti, depuis l'occupation par les forces bulgares des territoires cédés, à des cessions de droits à des particuliers, en vue de restreindre les droits souverains de l'État bulgare.

AUTHORITIES

In addition to those quoted in the histories of the different Balkan States (Handbooks Nos. 16-23 and 57-66), the following give more general treatment of the subject :—.

DRIAULT, EDOUARD. *La Question d'Orient*. 7th edn. Paris, 1917.

ELIOT, SIR CHARLES, K.C.M.G. *Turkey in Europe*. 2nd edn. London, 1908. (1st edn., London, 1900, by "Odysseus.")

HOGARTH, D. G., NEVILL FORBES, ARNOLD J. TOYNBEE, and D. MITRANY. *The Balkans: A History of Bulgaria, Serbia, Greece, Rumania, Turkey*. Oxford, 1915.

MARRIOTT, J. A. R. *The Eastern Question*. Oxford, 1917.

NEWBIGIN, MARION L. *Geographical Aspects of Balkan Questions*. London, 1915.

PHILLIMORE, SIR WALTER G. F., Bart. *Three Centuries of Treaties of Peace*. London, 1917.

PHILLIPSON, BUXTON, COLEMAN, AND NOEL. *The Question of the Bosphorus and Dardanelles*. London, 1918.

SETON-WATSON, R. W. *The Rise of Nationality in the Balkans*. London, 1917.

Nationalism and War in the Near East. By a Diplomatist. Carnegie Endowment. Oxford, 1915.

Cambridge Modern History, vols. VIII-XII. Cambridge, 1907-1910.

Authorities quoted in No. 149, *International Rivers*.

The most important treaties and other documents are given in EDWARD HERTSLET, *The Map of Europe by Treaty*, vols. I-III, 1814-1875 (London, 1875), and vol. IV, 1875-1891 (London, 1891).

MAPS.

For maps of the different Balkan States, see notes in the special Handbooks, Nos. 16-23 and 58-65.

For historical boundaries, see Skeleton Map of South-Eastern Europe (G.S.G.S., No. 3703), on the scale of 1:1,500,000, issued by the War Office, in connection with this series, December 1918; and the accompanying Table of Treaties, &c.

For ethnography, see (1) the Ethnographical Map of Central and South-Eastern Europe (G.S.G.S., No. 3703*a*), issued by the War Office (December 1918), in connection with this series, in four sheets, on the scale of 1:1,500,000; the two southern sheets (Northern Italy and South-Eastern Europe) contain the countries here concerned; an explanatory note is added. (2) For Turkey in Asia, see the Ethnographical Map of Eastern Turkey, &c., published by the Royal Geographical Society, 1910 (G.S.G.S., No. 2901), on the scale of 1:2,000,000. (3) *L'Europe ethnique et linguistique: Atlas descriptif en trois cartes*, &c., published by De Agostini's Geographical Institute, Novara (1917), on the scale of 1:3,000,000.

NOTE EXPLANATORY OF THE MAP SHOWING
THE DISTRIBUTION OF NATIONALITIES
IN THE BALKAN PENINSULA

THE racial character of the various Balkan peoples and their distribution is considered in Handbooks Nos. 15 to 23. The main racial elements are Slavonic (including Serbs, Montenegrins, and Bulgars), Rumanian (including Vlachs), Albanian, Greek, and Turkish.

No racial distinction can be drawn between the Serbs and Montenegrins, nor between these and the Bosnians, Herzegovinians, and Croatians to the north. On the side of Albania there is much dispute as to the racial boundary, the partisans of each people claiming that it is strongly represented within the boundaries of the other, the Albanian claim being apparently the better founded. In the direction of Macedonia also the southern and eastern limit of the Serbs is a matter of controversy.

The Bulgars are fairly homogeneous in Bulgaria itself, in the regions adjacent to it east of the Struma, and in the vilayet of Adrianople. Their language is Slavonic, though they are generally held to be mainly of Tartar race in origin. The extreme racial claims of the Bulgarians are indicated by the territory assigned to them by the Treaty of San Stefano (see Map of Historical Boundaries).

Between the regions undisputedly Serbian or Bulgarian there lies a large area, comprising a great part of Macedonia ; it extends from the Struma to Okhrida, and from the Shar Mountains almost to the sea. The

large majority of the population of this area is Slavonic, and has been the subject of endless racial disputes and of rival national propaganda. The Bulgarians, who have been most successful in this matter, claim the whole Slavonic population as Bulgar. The advocates of the Serbs call it Macedo-Slav. A compromise between Serbia and Bulgaria on the question was reached in 1912.¹ As to race and language, these people appear to shade, by scarcely perceptible grades, from Serbs on the west to Bulgars on the east. The region round Pirot and Vranja, included by the Treaty of Berlin in the kingdom of Serbia, was assigned to the Bulgarians by the Treaty of San Stefano, and is still claimed by them on racial grounds, though the sympathies of the population are clearly Serbian. On the other hand, Serbian authorities assert that the population between the Isker and the Timok, north-west of Sôfia, is more Serbian than Bulgarian.

Rumanians form almost the entire population in Rumania, with the exception of the Dobruja. They are also in a large majority in Bessarabia, and a great number of them are found outside the Balkan region, in western Transylvania and south-eastern Bukovina. They have also penetrated, in considerable numbers, into the north-east corner of Serbia, in the angle between the Timok and the Danube. The Koutso-Vlachs, who are akin to the Rumanians and speak a Rumanian dialect, are mainly found on Mount Pindus, in the district south of Samarina ; but groups of Vlach villages are scattered about throughout Macedonia and central and south Albania. In addition there are many Vlach traders in the towns, and nomad shepherds in country districts. Their numbers are therefore very difficult to estimate, nor can their distribution be clearly indicated in a map.

¹ See above, pp. 41. 49.

The Albanians inhabit Albania, with some Serb admixture in the north and some Greek admixture in the south. Some Albanian districts have been assigned to Montenegro and Serbia, especially round Dulcigno and Jakova, and in the region of Kosovo. There are also Albanians in Epeiros, between Yanina and the sea. In Greece there are many Albanians, both on the mainland and on certain islands; but they were settled there long before the War of Independence, and are Greek in national feeling, though many of them still speak Albanian.

The population of Old Greece, as it was before 1913, was exclusively Greek, with the exception of these Albanian settlements and some Vlachs and Turks in Thessaly. The same may be said of all the islands in the Aegean joined to Greece since that date, with the exception of a certain number of Turks in Crete, Mitylene, Chios, and elsewhere. On the northern mainland the racial question is more complicated and controversial. The coastal regions, from Olympus to Constantinople, and on the Black Sea up to Burgas and Varna, are mainly inhabited by Greeks, and this Greek fringe extends also down the west coast of Asia Minor. How far the Greek district extends inland in Macedonia is discussed in Handbook No. 21, *Macedonia*, p. 14. A strong Greek commercial element is also found in many towns which are not predominantly Greek in race.

The name 'Turk' is often loosely applied to any Moslem population in the Balkans, except such as retain a distinct racial character, like the Albanians or the Bulgarian Pomaks. There is a fairly continuous band of Turkish settlements extending from Constantinople to Seres and the Khalkidike, mostly at some little distance from the coast, and up the valleys of the Struma and Vardar as far as Veles; there is also

a considerable Turkish district north of Kozani. On the Black Sea coast of Thrace the Turks have withdrawn to a great extent within the last fifty years from the district around Varna ; but a large Turkish population remains inland in this region.

Other nationalities do not appear in sufficient numbers or in sufficiently definite local areas to be indicated in the map. The Jews form the majority of the population in Salonika, and are found in some other Macedonian towns ; they are numerous in Rumania, and form a large community in Constantinople. Armenians also are found in considerable numbers in Constantinople and Adrianople. Other races occur mainly as survivals of settlements that were made from time to time, partly for political reasons, partly to develop the country ; examples may be seen in the German, Russian, and Tartar colonies in the Dobruja and Bessarabia. There are also, in Rumania, some remnants of Magyar settlements on the Sereth near Bacău and around Bucarest. Outside the Balkan States there is a large and homogeneous mass of Magyars in the east of Transylvania, and there is a considerable German population adjoining them on the west. There is thus a serious barrier between the Rumanians to the east and those to the west of these districts.

RIES, TO EXPL

Albania.

TABLE OF TREATIES AFFECTING BALKAN BOUNDARIES, TO EXPLAIN HISTORICAL MAP

Treaty.	Montenegro.	Serbia.	Bulgaria.	Rumania.	Albania.	Greece.	Turkey.	Treaty.
Bucarest, 1812		Privileges granted to Serbia					Frontier towards Russia—Pruth and Kilia mouth of Danube	Bucarest, 1812
Paris, 1815						(Roman Islands British Protectorate)		Paris, 1815
Akherman, 1828		Privileges of Serbias confirmed						Akherman, 1828
Adrianople, 1829		Six districts, E and S, added to Serbia.				(Proclamation of March 22) took frontier to run from Field of Veleza to Gulf of Aris and islands of Dubrovnik (see B. S. C. (1) (Annex 9, 1832))	Russian frontier relinquished to St. George's mouth of Danube	Adrianople, 1829
Paris, 1856				Part of Bessarabia added to Moldavia (under Turkish suzerainty)				Paris, 1856
Paris, 1857							Delta of Danube restored to Turkey	Paris, 1857
Constantinople, 1868	Montenegrin frontier enlarged.							Constantinople, 1868
London, 1864						Roman Islands ceded to Greece		London, 1864
San Stefano, 1878	Signetified. Frontier extended to include Gackvo on NW. line of Drina and Lim on N. and south, Hoti, Klementi, and Dubogino on S.	Frontier extended to Nebozar and Thar SW., and to Nish and Morava valley on S.	State constituted, to extend from Black Sea to Dan and Danube on W., on Danube from Vranja, Ohrida, and Kosteria, and from Danube to Bosphorus, including Sabanka and Khal kende, extending along coast to Bay E. of Porto Lepso, running N. of Albania to the sea at Blaken Tapes. On the N.E. the frontier runs from near Mangalia to above Ezerova on the Danube.	The NW frontier follows the Pruth and the Kilia north of the Danube, Bessarabia being restored to Russia S. of the Dobruja, which is added to Rumania; the frontier runs from near Mangalia to above Ezerova on the Danube.	Eastern Albania from the Drin to Triumphi, assigned to Greece.		Creation of Bulgaria and extension of Montenegrin and Serbia at expense of Turkey. Organic Law applied to Turkey in Europe and Asia.	San Stefano, 1878
Berlin, 1878	Size doubled only; Gackvo restored to Herzegovina. Tane boundary on N.E., Grad, Hoti, and Klementi remain Albanian, also Dubogino.	Extension on SW towards Novoazar remains Turkish; Nish, Prut, and Vranja assigned to Serbia.	Bulgaria restricted to N. of Balkans. E. Rumania is ceding province Turkish province. Prut and Vranja on W. transferred to Serbia. Frontier on N.E. runs from Silistra to S. of Mangalia. SE frontier at E. Ezerova runs from B. steppe Dagh to sea near Dobra E.	As by San Stefano, but S. frontier of Dobruja extended to Silistra-Mangalia line, and Danube Delta assigned to Rumania.	Romania is before under Turkey.	M. Danube ceded to Rumania on S. of frontier	E. Bulgaria, Rumania (Macedonia), and Sinyak of New Dobruja remain Turkish. Bosnia and Herzegovina to be administered by Austria-Hungary, annexed (1878).	Berlin, 1878
Kouina, 1880	Dubogino annexed to Montenegro							Kouina, 1880
Constantinople, 1881							Thessaly and Achaia annexed to Greece	Constantinople, 1881
Constantinople, 1886			E. Rumania being united to Bulgaria, Rhodope and Karakul districts restored to Turkey					Constantinople, 1886
Constantinople, 1887						Strategic modification of Thessaly-Greek frontier in the south and Epirus, especially near Larissa		Constantinople, 1887
Sofia, 1912 (Secret Annex)		Colon-Ohrida line accepted as prospective boundary between Serbia and Bulgaria						Sofia, 1912 (Secret Annex)
London, 1913					Albanian frontier to be delimited by Treaty.		Turkey in Europe bounded by new Sofia line	London, 1913
Bucarest, 1913	Halt Sanyak of Novoazar annexed to Montenegro, which becomes confederating with Serbia, also extension to SE, including Jabova and Ipek.	Serbia annexes half Sanyak of Novoazar, and districts of Skoplye, Monastir, and Ohrida.	Bulgaria annexes Stranina and upper Strama and Nosta valleys, and coast from Nosta to Maritsa. Lower strip of S. Dobruja from Dobrak to Tarrakan to Rumania.	Annexes S. Dobruja to Balchik Tarrakan line from Bulgaria		Greece annexes Epirus and Macedonia to Mosta on E. and to Thessaly on N., leaving only rumania with Serbia and Bulgaria. Albania and Vep in hands		Bucarest, 1913
Constantinople, 1913		Frontier with Turkey runs N. from lower Maritsa to junction frontier. Basin of Vohka R. transferred to Bulgaria on Black Sea.					Receives Adrianople district from Bulgaria. Frontier running S. from lower Maritsa, and on Black Sea leaving Vohka R. basin to Bulgaria	Constantinople, 1913
? 1915			Frontier N. of Adrianople follows Tunga R., and then runs E. of Maritsa to sea.				Frontier N. of Adrianople follows Tunga R., and then runs E. of Maritsa to sea	? 1915
Bucarest, 1918				Bessarabia returned to Rumania. Dobruja question reserved.				Bucarest, 1918
Treaty.	Montenegro.	Serbia.	Bulgaria.	Rumania.	Albania.	Greece.	Turkey.	Treaty.

TURKEY IN EUROPE

LONDON :

PUBLISHED BY H. M. STATIONERY OFFICE.

1920

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL	
(1) Position and Frontiers	1
(2) Surface, Coasts, and River System	
Surface	1
Coasts	3
River System	3
(3) Climate	4
(4) Sanitary Conditions	5
(5) Race and Language	6
(6) Population	
Distribution	8
Movement	10
II. POLITICAL HISTORY	
Chronological Summary	11
(1) Introduction	13
(2) Development of Ottoman Empire	
Turkish domination of Asia Minor	13
Extension of power in Europe and Asia	14
Janissaries	15
(3) Relations with Austria and Russia	16
(4) Napoleonic Era	20
(5) Balkan States, 1812-33	
Serbia	22
Greece	23
(6) Turkish Administration	
The Unreformed System	24
Reforms of Selim III	26
Reforms of Mahmud II	28
(7) Revolt of Mehemet Ali and Action of the Powers	29
(8) Reforms of Abdul Mejid : (i) Decree of Gulhané.	30
(9) Crimean War	31
(10) Policy of Russia, 1700-1856	33
(11) Reforms of Abdul Mejid : (ii) Hat-i-Humayun	34
(12) Affairs in the Provinces, 1856-77	
Danubian Principalities	35
Lebanon	35
Crete	36
Balkan States	36

	PAGE
(13) Russo-Turkish War ; Treaty of San Stefano	38
(14) Treaty of Berlin	40
(15) Affairs in the Provinces, 1878-85	41
(16) Administration of Abdul Hamid II	42
Armenia	43
Macedonia	44
Crete	45
(17) Young Turk Revolution	46
(18) Rule of the Committee of Union and Progress	50
(19) Conflict with Italy	52
(20) Balkan Wars, 1912-13	52
(21) Relations with the Powers, 1913-14	56
(22) Young Turk War Aims	57

III. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) Internal

(a) Roads

Thrace	59
Vilayet of Constantinople	60

(b) Waterways

Rivers	62
Straits of the Bosphorus	62

(c) Railways

(i) Systems, Routes, Relations to Government, Finance, &c.

The Oriental Railway	64
The Anatolian Railway	66
Metropolitan Railway of Constantinople	68

(ii) Adequacy to economic needs

(d) Posts, Telegraphs, &c.	70
Foreign Post Offices	70
Mails	71
Telegraphs	72
Telephones	72
Wireless	73

(2) External

(a) Ports and Roadsteads

(i) Accommodation	73
Thrace : Rodosto	74

	PAGE
Constantinople	74
Outer Port	75
Port of Commerce	76
Inner Port	77
The Bosphorus	78
(ii) Statistics of Inward and Outward Tonnage	80
Table I: Arrivals and Clearances at Constanti- nople in 1904	82
Table II: Arrivals and Clearances at Constanti- nople in 1913	83
Table III: British and other Ships calling at Constantinople from 1904 to 1913	84
(iii) Districts served	85
(iv) Adequacy to economic needs ; possibilities of development	85
(b) Shipping Lines	88
Table IV: Principal Steamship Lines sailing to or calling at Constantinople, 1913	86
 (B) INDUSTRY	
(1) Agriculture	
(a) Products	89
(b) Irrigation	91
(c) Forestry	91
(d) Methods of Cultivation	92
(e) Land Tenure	92
(2) Fisheries	97
(3) Mining	
(a) Mining Laws	98
(b) Mineral Output	101
(4) Other Industries	102
(5) Water-power	104
 (C) COMMERCE	
(1) Domestic	
(a) Principal Branches of Trade	104
(b) Towns, Markets, Fairs	
Adrianople	107
Keshan	107
Silivri	108
Other Towns	108
(c) Organizations to promote Trade and Commerce	109

	PAGE
(d) Foreign Firms and Companies	109
(e) Methods of Economic Penetration	111
(2) Foreign	
(a) Exports and Imports	118
Tobacco Exports	123
Expanding Branches of Export Trade	124
Table V: Exports from Turkey (compiled from Turkish Customs House Returns)	120
Table VI: Exports from Turkey (compiled from Trade Returns of each Country)	121
Table VII: Principal Turkish Exports to the United Kingdom in 1911-12, as compared with total Exports	122
Table VIII: Exports of various Districts (1910-11)	122
Table IX: Imports into Turkey (compiled from Turkish Customs House Returns)	125
Table X: Imports into Turkey (compiled from Trade Returns of each Country)	126
Table XI: Principal Imports into Turkey from various Countries	127
Table XII: Principal Imports into Turkey from the United Kingdom, 1910-12	127
Table XIII: Imports of the various Districts in 1910-11	127
(b) Commercial Treaties ; Customs and Tariffs	128
(D) FINANCE ¹	
(1) Currency	129
(2) Banking	133
(3) Influence of Foreign Capital	136
(4) Principal Fields of Investment	137
APPENDIX	
I. Hat-i-Sheriff of Gulhané, 1839	139
II. Firman and Hat-i-Humayun, 1856	142
III. Firman, 1876	148
AUTHORITIES	151
MAPS	151

¹ For an account of the Ottoman Public Debt, the Turkish war budgets, and general taxation, see *Anatolia*, No. 59 of this series.

I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

TURKEY in Europe,¹ with an area of some 11,000 square miles, lies between 40° and 42° 10' north latitude and 26° and 29° 10' east longitude. The land boundary between Turkey and Bulgaria was determined by the Treaty of Constantinople in 1913. It was, however, subsequently modified by an agreement of 1915, and it is understood that yet later negotiations took place. Elsewhere the sea is the boundary.

(2) SURFACE, COASTS, AND RIVER SYSTEM

Surface

The region falls into three natural divisions: in the north-east the backbone of the Istranja Dagħ runs down into the Chatalja peninsula; in the south-west is the hilly country comprising the Yaila, Kuru, and Tekfur Dagħ ranges, with its extension in the peninsula of Gallipoli; while between the two lie the central plateau and the valley of the Ergene Su. The whole is bounded on the west by the marshy line of

¹ Turkey in Europe comprises the vilayets of Adrianople and Chatalja, together with about one-third of that of Constantinople, the remainder being on the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus. The following geographical description deals with the European territory alone. Economically, however, the Constantinople vilayet has to be considered as a whole, and the Asiatic portion is therefore included in section III, Economic Conditions. It extends some 40 miles east of Scutari, but offers no remarkable geographical features.

the Maritsa, on the north for the most part by a not very noticeable line of hills and the lower course of the Rezvaya Chai.

The Istranja Dagh consists of a long range of wooded hills, whose highest summits rise to somewhat over 3,000 ft. The valleys are deep and well watered, but sparsely inhabited, and roads and tracks are few. The hills sink almost to sea-level in the neighbourhood of Chatalja between the Lake of Derkos near the Black Sea coast and the Buyuk Chekmeje lagoon on the Sea of Marmora. Eastwards the ground rises again to heights of 400 to 700 ft., which carry the forts of the famous Chatalja lines. The surface of the peninsula is open and undulating in the south, while the northern side is higher and wooded. There is some cultivation in the valleys. The city of Constantinople stands at the extreme south-eastern point, eight or ten miles beyond the forest area and protected by a line of low hills.

The central plateau, bounded on the south by the Ergene, is bare and treeless, and furrowed by a regular succession of streams flowing from the north and east. Oxen and sheep find grazing here, and vines and cereals grow round the villages. On the northern edge of this district lies Kirk Kilsse, at its western extremity Adrianople.

The south-western hills do not rise much over 2,000 ft. It is the Tekfur range that is continued in the Gallipoli Peninsula. This from Kavak in the north-east to Sedd el-Bahr at the south-western extremity is 53 miles long. At its narrowest part, south-west of Bulair, it is 3 miles broad; its greatest breadth is 11 to 12 miles. The peninsula is divided from Asia Minor by the Straits of the Dardanelles, which are about 35 miles long, and have an average breadth of 2 miles. At their broadest, just within the entrance,

they are nearly $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles across; at the narrows, between Kilid Bahr and Chanak, only about 1,400 yds. The interior of the peninsula is a hilly country of chalk and sandstone, cut into ravines by the winter streams. There are many hills of 400 to 600 ft., but no greater heights. The peninsula is sparsely populated, but by no means inhospitable. The valleys have very steep sides, with flat and marshy bottoms. Corn and some cotton are grown.

Coasts

The Maritsa delta is flat and swampy, and the Aegean coast lies for the most part low, though the interior is hilly. The European shore of the Dardanelles is generally high, and, almost without exception, steep-to, these characteristics continuing along the north-western side of the Sea of Marmora to the neighbourhood of Rodosto. Thence to Constantinople the coast is flat and in part broken by lakes or lagoons. The old sea and land walls of Constantinople meet at Marmora tower, which marks the south-western angle of Stambul, whence the sea walls stretch to Seraglio Point, a distance of 3 miles. The Golden Horn extends inland first in a north-westerly direction, then north and north-east, and forms the port of Constantinople. Its length is 4 miles, its breadth 400 to 1,200 yds. The Black Sea shore of the Chatalja promontory is again low-lying, with a large lake which is almost a lagoon; farther north the coast becomes more hilly.

River System

The rivers which flow from the Istranja range north-east into the Black Sea and south into the Sea of Marmora are of little importance, with the exception of the Rezvaya Chai, which for over 30 miles forms the northern frontier, and the Kara Su and Ak Dere, which

constitute part of the defences known as the Chatalja lines. Thus the Thracian river system is practically confined to the Maritsa and its tributaries.

The Maritsa, from near Jisr Mustafa Pasha to its northern mouth about 5 miles from Enos, forms the western frontier of Turkey as defined in 1913. From Adrianople to the sea, a distance of 90 miles, it has a fall of some 130 ft. only, and flows through marshy meadows and plains, while near the sea occur extensive alluvial deposits and the stream divides into several branches, forming swamps and lagoons. The Maritsa is only fordable in very dry seasons.

Near Adrianople the Maritsa is joined from the north by the Tunja and by the Arda from the west. Both streams enter Turkish territory at a distance of about 30 miles from the town. When the Maritsa floods, the Tunja is liable to inundate its banks for 12 miles above the confluence. In dry seasons fords are frequent.

At a point 25 miles north-east of Enos the Maritsa is joined by the Ergene Su, which drains the central Thracian plateau. This river flows through a wide, flat-bottomed valley, which in summer is good meadow land, but becomes marshy in winter. It is fordable above Uzun Köprü, at certain regular crossings, and has a number of rough bridges.

The valleys of the Ergene and Maritsa are the natural lines of communication between central Thrace and Constantinople on the one hand, and the Aegean and the interior of Bulgaria on the other, and carry the present lines of railway.

(3) CLIMATE

The coastal belt enjoys a temperate climate; the inland parts have a continental type of climate with a wide range of temperature and less winter rainfall.

Southerly winds are frequent, though northerly predominate. Periods of clear, calm, and cold weather often coincide with northerly and north-easterly gales in the Aegean Sea. January is the month of the heaviest rainfall, though November and December are not far behind. In April the approach of the summer dry season makes itself felt. In June, July, and August the monthly rainfall is often below an inch. Indeed, in some places these months are almost rainless; in others, however, local thunderstorms with heavy rainfall occur. At Constantinople the monthly records are as follow :

	<i>Highest.</i>	<i>Lowest.</i>
Mean temperature	73° F. (23° C.) Aug.	41° F. (5° C.) Jan.—Feb.
Mean daily extremes	82° F. (28° C.) July, Aug.	36° F. (2° C.), Feb.
Mean humidity	53 % Aug.	74 % Dec., Jan.
Mean rainfall	1.06 in. (27 mm.) July	4.80 (122 mm.) Dec.

(4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

Malaria is prevalent wherever there are watercourses. Quarantine precautions are officially observed at Constantinople. Kavah Bay is the official quarantine station. The Moslem population manifest great dislike to the regulations, and do their best to avoid carrying them out.

Constantinople is generally considered a healthy city. There exist, however, no regular sanitary arrangements, such as proper drainage by canalization. Owing to the city being built largely on hills, there is a rough natural drainage. Each house has a cesspool, and the soil being generally a crumbly schist, there is considerable ground-absorption therefrom.

Very few strangers escape one or another form of

typhoid in the course of a few years' residence in Constantinople, but natives appear to be virtually immune. Cholera occurs in most years, but is rarely serious, not being as a rule of the true Asiatic type. The parts of the city situated on the Golden Horn, especially the quarters of Kassim Pasha and Hassköi, are the most unhealthy spots in the capital.

(5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

Divided according to religious affinities, the population falls into three main groups, Mohammedans, Christians, and Jews; but each of these groups is broken up into different sects and includes individuals of different nationality. Living together has tended to efface national characteristics, but it has not produced a common type. Turks, Greeks, Armenians, and Jews are the races found everywhere.

The Turks, who are to be classed as originally of Mongol stock, speak a language belonging to the Ural-Altaiic group, in which both nominal and verbal forms are built up by the addition of suffixes, and hard and soft vowels cannot occur in the same word. Turkish is distinguished from the other languages of this group by a more developed system of inflexion, a free use of possessive affixes, and a more thoroughly agglutinative character. As they advanced west from their original home in central Asia, the Turks gradually lost their primitive Mongol type, and to-day, through intermarriage with women of white races, have more Semitic and Aryan than Mongol blood, and may be regarded as belonging rather to the Caucasian than the yellow race.

The Greeks are the most intelligent race in this region, and possess the greatest wealth and commercial power. They divide with the Armenians the commercial activities of the country. There is a distinct

Constantinopolitan dialect of modern Greek, but the language of educated Greeks is taught in the schools and spoken by many.

The Armenians belong to the Indo-Iranic group of the Aryan stock, and are racially akin to the Persians and Kurds. Several of the facial characteristics of the Armenians are distinctly Semitic, and they share many of the mental characteristics of the Jew.

The Jews found in this region are mostly descendants of those who came from Spain towards the end of the fifteenth century: they have preserved the Spanish language in a corrupt form for use among themselves, although most speak French and some speak German. Many of the Ottoman Jews are said to present a very low type, and, although many are wealthy, the condition of the greater number is very miserable. The Jews were always, on the whole, the part of the population least hostile to strangers. Certain Jews, particularly at Adrianople, profess Islam while secretly practising the rites of Judaism; these are known as *Dunmehs*.

There are also a certain number of Serbo-Croatian Slavs in this region, but very few Bulgarians remained after 1913. There are, however, some *Pomaks*, Moslems of Bulgar origin, who generally use the Bulgarian language. Gipsies exist in large numbers. Persians have a quarter near the mosque of Saint Sophia. There are some *Circassians*. In Constantinople there is a large colony of *Wallachians*. There are also in Turkey representatives of many European peoples, the descendants of families settled for a long time in the East, who form the curious mixed race known as *Levantine*s. These have lost most of the qualities of their original nation and often cannot speak its language.

(6) POPULATION

Distribution

The city of Constantinople comprises Stambul, Pera, and Galata, together with Scutari on the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus. The suburbs of these towns extend along both shores of the Bosphorus and the European and Asiatic shores of the Sea of Marmora. The only other considerable town of European Turkey is Adrianople.

An estimate made in 1916 gives the following particulars regarding area and population :

<i>Administrative Divisions.</i>	<i>Area (square miles).</i>	<i>Population (total).</i>	<i>Population per square mile.</i>
Constantinople ¹	1,505	1,203,000	799
Chatalja .	733	78,000	106
Adrianople .	8,644	610,000	70
	10,882	1,891,000	174

The same estimate gives the approximate population of the city of Constantinople as 1,000,000, and of the city of Adrianople as 83,000. It is, however, extremely difficult to secure accurate statistics ; probably the population of the administrative district of Constantinople is nearly 1,225,000, and the city with its suburbs may have rather more than a million inhabitants. The population of Adrianople is probably about 80,000.

Before the Balkan Wars the triangle of land between Constantinople, Silivri, and Istranja had a population in which were about equal numbers of Turks and Greeks, with settlements of Bulgarians. This triangle was surrounded by a belt, largely inhabited by Greeks, which stretched from Constantinople round the coast of the Bosphorus and the Black Sea, and from Silivri to Rodosto on the Sea of Marmora. This Greek zone

¹ The vilayet of Constantinople, of which about two-thirds lie on the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus.

varied in width, and was linked up by occasional patches with a mass of Greek population extending south-east of Adrianople. The centre of the country was mainly Turkish, while to the north Bulgarians occupied Adrianople and the district east of that city. In the *kazas* (districts) of Vize, Lule Burgas, Chorlu, and Hairobolu the Turks formed 55 to 78 per cent. of the population. In the towns, however, the Turks were less numerous than the Greeks, forming little more than a third of the population. The *kazas* of Akhtebolu and Midia had few if any Turks. In the rest of the country the proportion of Turks varied from 21 to 40 per cent. The proportion of Greeks along the coast was over 50 per cent., except in the *kaza* of Rodosto, where, however, they peopled the maritime towns. Although only 26 per cent. of the total population as a whole, they formed a third of the urban population. The Armenians were found principally in the large towns: 200,000 in Constantinople, 9,000 in Adrianople, 1,000 to 2,000 at Rodosto, Gallipoli, and Kirk Kilisse respectively.

On the outbreak of the Balkan War, practically all the Bulgarian population was driven out. At Adrianople and Kirk Kilisse, indeed, many of the Bulgar townfolk were allowed to remain, but here also probably about 60,000 were either massacred or compelled to emigrate. The Greek population, which is estimated by good French authorities to have been 700,000 to 800,000 in 1913, emigrated or were expelled in large numbers—100,000 may have left before August 1914. The void made by these emigrations was filled, to some extent, by Moslem immigrants from the lost provinces. Large numbers of Moslem immigrants from Bulgaria settled round Rodosto and Keshan, while settlements were also made east of Vize.

Movement

No figures can be given regarding birth and death rates ; but the Turks are not a prolific race and infant mortality is high among them. The Turkish population has shown a tendency to decrease. The Greek increase in numbers rapidly, families of 8 to 10 not being uncommon.

A certain amount of emigration to the United States has taken place. In 1914 there were 8,199 emigrants to that country as against 2,528 returning thence ; in 1915 the numbers were 1,008 and 164 respectively.

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 1245 (*circa*). Mongol invasion of Asia Minor.
1300. Foundation of Ottoman Empire.
1326. Conquest of Brusa by Orkhan.
1357. Capture of Gallipoli and Rodosto by Suleiman.
1389. Victory over Southern Slavs at Kosovo.
1396. Victory over Hungarians at Nikopolis.
1402. Defeat of Turks by Tamerlane at Angora.
1453. Fall of Constantinople.
1512–20. Selim I.
1517. Conquest of Syria, Egypt, and Arabia.
1520–66. Suleiman I the Magnificent.
1526. Victory over Hungarians at Mohacs.
1529. Siege of Vienna.
1571. Defeat of Turks in battle of Lepanto.
1669. Capture of Candia.
1672. Cession of Podolia to Turkey.
1686. Austrians capture Budapest.
1699. Treaty of Karlowitz.
1711. Peace of the Pruth.
1718. Treaty of Passarowitz.
1735. Treaty of Vienna between Russia and Austria.
1739. Treaty of Belgrade.
1770. Turkish navy annihilated by Russia off Cheshme.
1774. Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji.
1784. Treaty of Constantinople. Crimea and Kuban annexed to Russia.
1787–91. War against Austria and Russia.
1789–1807. Selim III.
1792. Peace of Jassy.
1797. Treaty of Campo Formio between France and Austria.
1798. Treaty of Constantinople ; alliance with Russia.
1799. Adherence of Great Britain to Treaty of Constantinople.
1802. Turkey makes peace with France.

1807. Admiral Duckworth forces the Dardanelles.
Deposition of Selim III.
Treaty of Tilsit.
- 1808–39. Mahmud II.
1809. Treaty of Constantinople (Dardanelles) with Great Britain.
1812. Treaty of Bucarest with Russia.
1817. Milosh recognized as paramount chief in Serbia.
1821. Greek insurrection.
1826. Convention of Akkerman. Destruction of Janissaries.
1827. Treaty of London. Battle of Navarino.
1829. Treaty of Adrianople.
1830. Capture of Algiers by the French.
1831. Revolt of Mehemet Ali.
1833. Treaty of Unkiar Skelessi.
- 1839–61. Abdul Mejid.
1839. Hat-i-Sheriff of Gulhané (Law of the Tanzimat).
1840. Convention of London.
1841. Convention of the Straits.
- 1853–6. Crimean War.
1854. England and France declare war on Russia.
1856. Treaty of Paris. Hat-i-Humayun.
1859. Union of Danubian Principalities under Prince Cuza.
1861. First Charter of the Lebanon.
- 1861–76. Abdul Aziz.
1862. Turkish invasion of Montenegro.
1864. New Statute of the Lebanon.
1866. Deposition of Prince Cuza.
1867. Withdrawal of Turkish troops from Serbia.
1868. Organic Regulations for Crete.
1870. Creation of Bulgarian Exarchate.
1871. Conference in London.
1875. Revolt in Herzegovina.
1876. Deposition of Abdul Aziz. Abdication of Murad V.
Accession of Abdul Hamid II. New Constitution drafted by Midhat Pasha.
1878. Constitution suspended by Abdul Hamid.
Treaty of San Stefano. Congress of Berlin. Pact of Halepa.
1881. Rumania proclaimed a kingdom.
1885. Union of Eastern Rumelia with Bulgaria.

1889. Insurrection in Crete.
1897. Turkey declares war on Greece.
1908. Young Turk Revolution.
Austria annexes Bosnia and Herzegovina.
1909. Treaty with Austria. Independence of Bulgaria recognized.
Deposition of Abdul Hamid.
1911. Italian seizure of Tripoli and Benghazi.
1912. Treaty of Lausanne. Serbo-Bulgarian Treaty.
1913. Turkey signs Treaty of Peace in London.
Final peace between Turkey and Bulgaria.

(1) INTRODUCTION

‘TURKEY’ is, in a way, a misnomer. Turkey is not a country inhabited mainly by Turks, as Italy is inhabited by Italians, England by Englishmen, Spain by Spaniards, &c. As ‘Austria’ is frequently used to connote a congeries of non-Austrian races held together by a dynastic system, so Turkey, or the Ottoman Empire, stands for a number of non-Turkish races held together by the militarist and theocratic dynastic system of the Ottoman Sultanate. The Turkish language has no word for ‘Turkey’, which would properly be Turkestan, as Arabistan stands for Arabia. Under the old regime the official title of Turkey was ‘the exalted State’, while the Arabic expression for ‘Ottoman lands’ was used to connote the Ottoman Empire. The Young Turks have endeavoured to popularize the Levantine form, i. e. ‘Turkia’.

(2) DEVELOPMENT OF OTTOMAN EMPIRE

Turkish Domination of Asia Minor.—The Turks, or Turanians, coming originally from Mongolia, spread westwards through Turkestan and North Persia, until, in the tenth century, the Seljuk Turks entered Asia Minor, already largely Mohammedan, as an organized military force such as had been unknown for centuries

in those regions, and rapidly absorbed and moulded Phrygians, Cappadocians, Cilicians, and other indigenous elements into a Turki and Islamic State. In the early part of the thirteenth century the Mongol invasion, under Jenghiz Khan, destroyed the vitality of the Seljuk Turks, who, later on in the same century, welcomed the assistance of the new Turanian arrivals, the Ottoman Turks of some 400 tents.

The Ottomans, under their leader Ertogrul, were given as fiefs the march-lands south of Nicaea, the limit of Byzantine sovereignty in North-west Asia Minor, with Yenishehr as their capital. Osman succeeded Ertogrul in 1288, and on the extinction of the Seljuk Kingdom in 1300 assumed the style and title of Sultan. Orkhan took Brusa in 1326; and in 1357 Suleiman captured Gallipoli and Rodosto, thus extending Turkish sway into Europe. Adrianople became the Turkish head-quarters in 1371; and by the victories over the Southern Slavs at Kosovo in 1389, and over the Hungarians at Nikopolis in 1396, the Turkish boundary was carried to the Danube.

Extension of Power in Europe and Asia.—After the Tatar irruption of 1402, when the Ottoman Sultan, Bayezid I, was taken prisoner by Tamerlane at the battle of Angora, the Turkish dominion was consolidated up to the vicinity of Constantinople, which fell to Mohammed II in 1453. The conqueror, on succeeding to the Byzantine Emperors, adopted to a large extent the Court forms and the State machinery of the latter. He conferred on the Greek Patriarch the privilege of administering the affairs of the Orthodox Christian community, while he confirmed the existing extra-territorial rights of the Venetian and Genoese Latin colonies. Subsequent rights granted to French, British, and other Western nations were confirmed by the Capitulations, which were unilaterally abolished by

the Young Turks before their entry into the war in 1914. In 1456 Mohammed forced Wallachia to pay tribute, and annexed the Crimea and adjoining coast, thus converting the Black Sea into a Turkish lake, a character which it retained until the Russian occupation of Azof in 1774. Sultan Selim, 'the Grim' (1512-20), annexed Armenia and occupied parts of North-west Persia in 1514-16, and in 1517 conquered Syria, Egypt, and Arabia with the holy places of Mecca and Medina, making himself *de facto* Caliph.

His successor, Suleiman the Magnificent (1520-66), conquered Hungary after his victory at Mohacs in 1526, and besieged Vienna in 1529; his admiral laid siege to Malta in 1565. Failure in these two latter enterprises indicated the high-water mark of Turkish progress westward, for Turkish naval power declined after the defeat at Lepanto in 1571; and the second siege of Vienna in 1683, raised by the Pole, John Sobieski, was a flash in the pan. In Asia Sultan Murad III occupied Tabriz and half the Persian province of Azerbaijan in 1586; and in 1638 Murad IV effected the final conquest of Bagdad and Lower Mesopotamia.

Janissaries.—The kernel of the military system which enabled Turkey to effect these rapid conquests was the Corps of Janissaries, composed of forcibly Islamized Christians, and raised by 'the human tribute' levied by press-gangs every five years from the newly-acquired Christian territories. They gradually acquired the position of a privileged and all-powerful military caste, who were constantly clamouring for more pay and favours, or to be led on fresh expeditions likely to satisfy their cravings for booty. While they thus extended the limits of Turkey's dominions, their intrigues and revolts at Constantinople, where they constituted a Praetorian Guard, weakened the Empire at its heart's centre. They were mixed up in the

seraglio intrigues and factions, which brought about frequent changes of Sultan in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Down to about 1600 the Ottoman succession had been from father to eldest son, but, as the Sultan had become also Caliph, and an infant could not be Caliph, the order of succession was altered, and the Sultanate passed to the eldest male of the House of Osman—a system which led to frequent dynastic trouble, caused by ambitious princes who angled for the support of the Janissaries.

(3) RELATIONS WITH AUSTRIA AND RUSSIA

Though Candia, in Crete, was conquered in 1669, and Podolia was ceded to Turkey by the King of Poland in 1672, the period of decline had already set in. Budapest was surrendered to Austria in 1686; and by the Treaty of Karlowitz, in 1699, Turkey ceded Transylvania, nearly all Hungary, Slavonia, Croatia, and Podolia. By the Treaty of Passarowitz, in 1718, Austria acquired the Banat of Temesvar, the Banat of Craiova in Western Wallachia, Belgrade with adjoining territory, and a strip of North Bosnia; though by the Treaty of Belgrade, in 1739, the Banat of Craiova and the Austrian gains in Serbia and Bosnia were restored to Turkey.

In the meantime, in addition to the Austrian opponent from the north-west, a new antagonist had appeared in the north-east. Russia, or Muscovy, having thrown off the Tatar yoke, found herself in conflict with the Tatars south of the Grand Duchy of Moscow; and Peter the Great (1682–1725), after his vigorous re-creation of Russia, turned his attention to the south with the determination of opening up access to the Black Sea and, through the Straits, to the southern waters of the Mediterranean. In 1696 he took possession of Azof, and shortly afterwards placed

the first Russian warship, the *Kriépost*, on the Black Sea. In 1710, when he was engaged in hostilities with Sweden, Turkey attacked and surrounded his armies, compelling him to sign the Peace of the Pruth in July 1711, whereby he had to restore Azof, to refrain from interfering in Polish affairs, and to surrender the privilege of having an ambassador or envoy at Constantinople.

In August 1726 Russia and Austria concluded a treaty of alliance for mutual aid in the event of a Turkish war ; and, having come to an understanding as regards Poland, they entered into the Treaty of Vienna in 1735, rendering possible a concerted attack on Turkey. Russia's objects were, on her southern border, to stop the plundering of Tatar hordes subject to Turkish rule, and to acquire the Crimea and the right for her war-ships and merchantmen to pass the Straits of Constantinople. The Russian general, Marshal Münich, invaded the Crimea (1736), while his colleague, General Lacy, an Irishman in the service of Russia, besieged and captured Azof. The Austrian operations against the Turks were not successful ; and, aided by the skilful diplomaey of Louis XV's astute Ambassador at Constantinople, the Marquis de Villeneuve, Turkey induced Austria to conclude a separate peace at Belgrade (1739) ; whereupon Russia, menaced by Sweden, followed suit, and made peace on the terms proposed by Villeneuve, restoring her conquests, abandoning Azof and its district, and renouncing the claim to navigate the Black Sea. At the outset of the war, however, Nadir Shah of Persia, with Russian aid, had attacked Turkey and forced her, in 1735, to sign the Treaty of Erzerum, by which Georgia and Azerbaijan were ceded to Persia.

After an interlude of about a quarter of a century, during which Europe was occupied with the Austrian

succession, Sultan Mustapha III, alarmed at the agreement come to by Catherine and Frederick the Great regarding the disposal of the Polish throne, and encouraged by the French Ambassador Vergennes, declared war on Russia in October 1768. The Russians occupied Moldavia and Wallachia, the Crimea, and the northern coast of the Black Sea from the Danube to Taganrog ; while their Cronstadt fleet, largely officered by Englishmen, annihilated the Turkish navy off Cheshme in July 1770. The European Powers became alarmed. England feared that Russia might secure the passage of the Straits ; Prussia was afraid of being drawn into conflict with Austria ; while France felt uneasy at having urged Turkey into a war which brought disasters instead of the expected triumph over Russia. The first partition of Poland quieted Prussia, while England was involved in her difficulties with the American colonies. Although it was internal troubles which induced the Empress Catherine to conclude the Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji in 1774, by this treaty Sultan Abdul Hamid I recognized the independence of the Crimea, renounced Turkish suzerainty over the Caucasian tribes, and ceded several places on the north-east coast of the Black Sea, which Russian ships were allowed to navigate freely ; Russia also obtained a guarantee on which she afterwards based a claim to the right of protecting the Orthodox Christian subjects of the Porte, then treated as *rayas* or the property of the Moslem Turkish State, and suffering from a variety of disabilities.

Russia soon found that her liberty of navigation in the Black Sea was dependent on the will of the Sultan, who was swayed to and fro by the jealous machinations of rival ambassadors, and was preparing to renew hostilities ; but in 1779, by the mediation of the French Ambassador, a convention was agreed to, amplifying

the privileges of navigation in the Black Sea, restricting Turkish authority in the Danubian provinces, and recognizing a Russian nominee as Khan of the Crimea.

A defensive alliance having been concluded with Joseph II of Austria in 1781, Russian troops proceeded to occupy the Crimea; and in January 1784 Turkey, by the Treaty of Constantinople, recognized the annexation by Russia of the Crimea and the Kuban. The Empress Catherine, now full of the idea of re-establishing a Greek Empire at Constantinople, undertook in 1787 a progress to the Crimea, where, at Sebastopol, she reviewed a powerful navy. The Russian representative submitted fresh demands to the Porte, which retorted with a counter-proposal for the restoration of the Crimea. Meeting with a negative reply, the Sultan threw the Ambassador into prison, and, relying on the support of England and Prussia, declared war on Russia. Austria joined Russia; and in the campaign of 1789 Turkey suffered severe defeats, but was saved by the confusion in the Austrian dominions and by the intervention of the Triple Alliance of Great Britain, Prussia, and Holland. Though plans for proceeding against Constantinople were elaborated, Catherine, anxious to prosecute her Polish policy while Austria and Prussia were occupied with France, concluded the Peace of Jassy (January 9, 1792), which confirmed the Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji, extended the western boundary of Russia to the Dniester, and gave to Russia all the Black Sea coast between that river and the Bug. The preoccupation caused in Europe by the French Revolution and the death of the Empress Catherine in 1796 gave Turkey a respite when she seemed on the point of collapse.

(4) NAPOLEONIC ERA

The Treaty of Campo Formio (October 1797) gave the Ionian Islands to the French; and Bonaparte, after the conquest of Malta, undertook his Egyptian expedition. The Sultan Selim III appealed to the Russian Emperor Paul for assistance. This was agreed to in the Treaty of Constantinople (December 23, 1798), which constituted a defensive and offensive alliance for eight years, and also provided for the free passage of Russian war-ships through the Straits, while closing them to the naval flag of other countries. By the combined action of the Russo-Turkish fleets, the French were obliged to withdraw from the Ionian Islands.

In 1799 England had adhered to the Treaty of Constantinople; but in 1800 Russia formulated a scheme for partitioning the Ottoman Empire between Austria, Prussia, France, and herself, to the exclusion of England, whose Indian possessions were to be invaded. Shortly afterwards the Emperor Paul was assassinated; and his successor, Alexander I. was in favour of friendship with England and of the maintenance of a Turkey considered impotent to do harm to Russia.

After the Peace of Amiens between England and France (March 25, 1802), Turkey made a treaty with France on June 25, 1802, whereby the Sultan's possession of Egypt and all its territories was recognized, and the French commercial flag was entitled to traverse the Straits and navigate the Black Sea.

In 1805 the Porte proposed a renewal of the treaty of 1798. The Russians agreed, but insisted on the insertion of a clause whereby the Straits were to be closed to the naval flag of other nations, while open to the Russian, and were to be defended by the contracting parties in case any other armed ship attempted to enter, thus endorsing the principle that the two States

which bordered the Black Sea should have joint exclusive use of its exit so far as ships of war were concerned. This treaty of 1805 was to have lasted for a period of nine years. Napoleon, however, after his victories at Ulm and Austerlitz, sent General Sebastiani on a special embassy to Turkey to urge a repudiation of the alliance and the firm retention of the Danubian provinces. Sebastiani further insisted on a renewal of the old restrictions against the passage of Russian ships through the Straits, and induced the Porte to urge this demand upon the Russians and to interfere, contrary to the Convention of 1779, in the affairs of the Danubian provinces. Russian forces invaded Moldavia, whereupon Turkey dismissed the Russian Ambassador and declared war.

Russia, being in conflict with Napoleon in Prussia, received the support of England, whose fleet, under Admiral Duckworth, forced the Dardanelles on February 19, 1807, but was compelled to withdraw. Disorders, however, broke out in the Turkish capital. The Janissaries deposed Sultan Selim, and placed Mustapha IV on the throne. Napoleon took advantage of this revolution to conclude the Treaty of Tilsit, by which Alexander surrendered Cattaro and the Ionian Islands; he also initiated discussions with the Russian Emperor for the partition of Turkey to the exclusion of England. Turkey took alarm, and turned to England, who concluded the Treaty of Constantinople (also styled the Treaty of the Dardanelles) of January 5, 1809, stipulating that Great Britain should observe 'the ancient rule of the Ottoman Empire', which the Porte undertook to apply to all Powers, whereby warships of every flag were prohibited from entering the Straits, the exclusive right of sovereignty over the Dardanelles and Bosphorus being thus restored to Turkey, though Great Britain alone was a party to

the contract. The treaty was thus a partial internationalization of the Straits.

Relying on British support, Turkey now renewed hostilities against Russia (March 1809). The Russians overran Bessarabia, Moldavia, and Wallachia, crossed the Danube, occupied Silistria and Shumla (1812), and were preparing to march on Constantinople, when, menaced by Napoleon's preparations for the invasion of Russia, the Tsar agreed to the Treaty of Bucarest (May 16, 1812), which restored Moldavia and Wallachia to Turkish suzerainty, gave Bessarabia to Russia, and advanced the Russian frontier to the Pruth and the Kilia branch of the Danube, but omitted any mention of the Straits.

The Congress of Vienna was based on the idea of an equilibrium in Europe, which excluded Turkey, thus giving the latter the possibility of adopting a policy of playing off one Power, or group of Powers, against another—a policy which was to be the key-note of Ottoman diplomacy for a century.

(5) BALKAN STATES, 1812–33

Serbia.—The agitation which Russia encouraged among the Orthodox subjects of the Porte, and the echoes of the ideas of freedom of the French Revolution, added to the discontent caused by the injustices and abuses of the central and still more the provincial Turkish regime, led to a ferment among the subject races of the Balkan Peninsula. The extreme severity of the local Janissary rule at Belgrade had provoked an anti-Janissary rising among the Serbs in the beginning of the nineteenth century. The anti-Janissary rising developed into a rebellion against the Sultan's authority; and Russians and Serbs fought on the same side in the war which was terminated by the

Treaty of Bucarest in 1812. At the Congress of Vienna Russia effected an arrangement between Turks and Serbs, which conferred on the latter a certain measure of autonomy; and in 1817 Milosh was recognized as paramount chief in Serbia. It was not till 1833, after the Treaty of Adrianople (1829), that the Turks were compelled, under pressure of the Egyptian rebellion, to carry out the stipulations of the Convention of Akkerman, renewing those of the Treaty of Bucarest of 1812, to the effect that Serbia, while paying a tribute, should have complete internal autonomy under the suzerainty of the Sultan, and that, except the garrisons of the fortresses, no Turks were to live in Serbia.

Greece.—The revolt of Ali Pasha of Janina against Sultan Mahmud II set fire to a train which led to the Greek insurrection of March 1821, which the Turks endeavoured to repress by the sternest methods. The massacres of Greeks and the execution of the Greek Patriarch of Constantinople produced a violent anti-Turkish movement in Russia, which led to a breach of relations; but, on the mediation of Great Britain and Austria, Turkey agreed to evacuate the Principalities and to observe the existing rights of the commercial flag of foreign Powers to navigate the Straits. The Ottoman Government having failed to fulfil its engagements with Russia, the new Tsar, Nicholas I, sent an ultimatum (March 7, 1826) to Sultan Mahmud, who agreed to the Convention of Akkerman, conceding the evacuation of the Principalities, the cession to Russia of certain Circassian fortresses, and the unrestricted enjoyment by the Russian commercial flag of liberty of navigation in all Ottoman waters.

By the Treaty of London, July 6, 1827, Great Britain, Russia, and France agreed to intervene in the matter of the Greek insurrection, which was being stamped out

in the Morea by Turco-Egyptian troops under Ibrahim Pasha, with accompaniments of massacres and burnings. On the sinking of the Ottoman fleet by the Allied squadrons in the Bay of Navarino, the Porte proclaimed a Holy War and declared the Convention of Akkerman null and void. The Russian army crossed the Pruth on May 6, 1828, and, after defeating the Turks, compelled them to sign the Peace of Adrianople (September 14, 1829), recognizing the independence of Greece, the practical independence of the Danubian Principalities, and Russian treaty rights of freedom of navigation in the Straits and the Black Sea, while according similar rights 'to all merchant ships of Powers who are at peace with the Sublime Porte'. In 1830 this right was extended to the United States of America.

(6) TURKISH ADMINISTRATION

The Unreformed System.—The succession of military disasters and territorial amputations which Turkey had suffered during the eighteenth century led Sultan Selim III (1789–1807) to attempt, and Sultan Mahmud II (1808–39) to carry out, a series of drastic, if not revolutionary, changes in the Turkish system of government. To understand the nature of these changes, some notice or sketch of the structure of the Ottoman State may be helpful, if not necessary. The head, or apex, of that State was the Sultan, in whom were vested absolute and autocratic powers, limited only by the undefined obligation not to transgress the prescriptions of the Koran and of the Sunnah or traditional sayings of the Prophet Mohammed, as interpreted by the Chief Mufti. The Sultan had unquestioned power of life and death over his subjects. By ancient custom the Sultan obtained the decree or Fetva of the Mufti as sanction to any important

political act ; and instances occurred where the refusal of the Mufti led to the abandonment of the sovereign's contemplated project, while, on some occasions, the Sultan has dismissed the Mufti from office and replaced him by a more pliant instrument. On the other hand, any body of malcontents who had secured the support of the Janissaries or of the soldiery and obtained a decree of the Mufti declaring that the Sultan was a breaker of the divine law, a tyrant and unfit to govern, could dethrone the sovereign, provided the successor was a male of the House of Osman.

As regards the Imperial House, Mohammed II, the Conqueror, had legalized Imperial fratricide by his ordinance : 'The majority of my jurists have pronounced that those of my illustrious descendants who ascend the throne may put their brothers to death in order to secure the repose of the world. It will be their duty to act accordingly.' In the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries the practice was frequent where a Sultan had real or fancied fears that a brother was conspiring against him. Down to Sultan Ahmed I (1603-17) the succession was from father to son ; but, during the latter reign, it was transferred to the eldest male of the House of Osman, the intention being to avoid the possibility of an infant Caliph.

The basis of the State was military, being divided into pashaliks and sanjaks (banners), each of which had to supply a fixed number of soldiers for the Sultan's wars. A portion of conquered territory was converted into military fiefs, called Timars and Ziamets, granted to distinguished soldiers on condition that they furnished an armed horseman for every 3,000 aspres of revenue. The fiefs were generally hereditary in the male line, and in the course of time hereditary descent grew into a right. Down to the eighteenth century the high personal abilities of the Sultans, the existence of

the Janissary force, and the Mohammedan religion, which elevated the Sultan and maintained a feeling of equality between all his Moslem subjects, prevented the growth of such a feudal aristocracy as existed in Europe; but, during the period of decline in the eighteenth century, the local fief-holders grew into such an aristocracy at the expense of the Central Government and of the local populations, and were generally styled Dere Beys, or Lords of the Valley.

The Ottoman Empire was divided into twenty-six eyalets, which were in turn divided into 163 livas or sanjaks, while each liva was subdivided into cazas, and each caza into nahiyes or cantonal districts. The eyalets were of great size, like the districts of British India, and were presided over by Pashas of three tails with the rank of Vizier. Seventy-two livas had, as Governors, Pashas of two tails. In general the appointments to these, as to the eyalets, were annual, and were subject to payments of large sums to the palace and Porte officials, the Pasha recouping himself by exactions from the local populations during his tenure of office, which he at times got renewed by offering to the venal Ministers at Constantinople a larger bribe than that tendered by his would-be successor. Most of the sub-Governors similarly obtained their nominations by bribery, and endeavoured to enrich themselves by their exactions from those whose welfare was entrusted to their charge. The general result was that the capital swarmed with intriguing place-hunters, and the provinces were impoverished by hordes of predatory bureaucrats, an evil which increased in intensity as the Empire shrunk in size during the eighteenth century.

Reforms of Selim III.—Sultan Selim III was forced by his defeats and the continued curtailment of his Empire to introduce reforms based on the institu-

tions of the West. When he came to the throne the Sultan's authority was scarcely recognized, even in name, over vast tracts of his Empire, while official insubordination and local tyranny had reduced the people, and especially the Christians, to the lowest depths of misery. The Dere Beys had become practically independent, and misruled their fiefs with the same system of tyranny, peculation, and chaos as obtained in the rest of the Ottoman dominions.

Selim's projected reforms were : (1) the introduction of Western military methods on the French model to replace the Janissaries ; (2) the abolition of the feudal system through the resumption by the sovereign, on the death of their holders, of the Timars and Ziamets, whose revenues were thenceforth to be paid into the Central Treasury and appropriated to the upkeep of the new military force ; (3) the appointments of Governors of eyalets and livas to be for the term of three years, renewable where a Governor had given satisfaction to the governed ; (4) the abolition of tax-farming, and collection of the revenue by officers of the Imperial Treasury ; (5) restriction of the power of the Grand Vizier by compelling him to consult a divan of twelve superior Ministers on all important measures ; and (6) the spread of education among all classes of Ottoman subjects. He further established Ottoman Embassies at London, Paris, Vienna, and Berlin, but not at St. Petersburg.

The attempt to introduce a new military system, called the ' Nizam Jedid ', and the other progressive tendencies of the Sultan aroused religious fanaticism and the hatred of all vested interests under the existing regime. In 1807 the Janissaries, armed with a Fetva of the Mufti, invaded the palace and deposed Selim, putting Mustapha IV on the throne. An attempt to restore Selim led to his assassination

and that of Mustapha IV ; and Mahmud II, the sole surviving male of the House of Osman, became Sultan in 1808. The new Sultan issued an Imperial edict solemnly cursing and renouncing all infidel customs and innovations, while the old system and its abuses were re-established more firmly than ever.

Reforms of Mahmud II.—Sultan Mahmud, who had been carefully schooled in the necessity for reform by his father, Selim III, bided his time, improved his artillery corps, and in 1826 obtained a decree of the Mufti for the introduction of the Nizam Jedid. The Janissaries essayed revolt, but were mowed down by the Sultan's artillery and exterminated, both in the capital and the provinces. Mahmud then formed a regular force of 40,000 men, clothed, armed, and disciplined on the European system, and proceeded to expand this force into an army of 250,000 men. He took away the power of life and death from the Pashas in the provinces, and abolished the Court of Confiscations, a body which dealt with the forfeiture to the Crown of the property of all persons banished or condemned to death, and which had become a sink of delation. He redressed the worst abuses of the Vakufs (or pious foundations) by placing their revenues under State administration, and suppressed the Timars and Ziamets, as also the feudal nobility, or Dere Beys, but not without severe struggles and frequent insurrections. He further regularized the system of taxation, and dealt drastically with its most glaring abuses, especially in connexion with the Kharaj, or capitation tax. He ruthlessly cut down sinecures, both in the palace and in the State organism, while he reformed the Imperial household, and particularly the system of education of the princes.

(7) REVOLT OF MEHEMET ALI AND ACTION OF THE
POWERS

These reforms, being of a revolutionary character, convulsed the Empire, and seriously affected the Ottoman dominions in Asia and Africa. In 1830 the French seized Algiers, which had acknowledged Ottoman suzerainty since 1519. In 1831 the Albanian Mehemet Ali Pasha, Viceroy of Egypt, not content with Crete, assigned to him for his services in combating the Greek insurrection, revolted against the Sultan, overran Syria, crossed the Taurus, and advanced north of Konie. He demanded the cession of Syria and Adana, threatening to occupy Brusa. Sultan Mahmud, failing to get support from England or France, appealed for help to the Tsar, whose fleet entered the Bosphorus in February 1833. Mahmud compounded with Mehemet Ali Pasha by ceding Syria to him, and at Unkiar Skelessi concluded with the Russians, on July 8, 1833, a treaty of mutual alliance and assistance. Russia pledged herself to provide troops for the Sultan in case of need; and the Sultan, in case of Russia's need, undertook to close the Dardanelles to the warships of all nations. In 1839 Mahmud determined to eject his vassal from Syria, but his army was annihilated at the battle of Nezib a few days before the Sultan's death on July 1.

The new Sultan, Abdul Mejid (1839-61), saw his fleet go over to the Egyptians at Alexandria, and was about to come to terms with his vassal when Great Britain, Austria, Russia, and Prussia, declaring that the matter was of European concern, concluded the Convention of London on July 15, 1840, pledging themselves to force the Egyptian Viceroy to accept the terms arranged by them with the Sultan. An Anglo-Austrian fleet captured Beirut and Acre, compelling

the Egyptian forces to retire on Egypt. It was arranged that Mehemet Ali Pasha should renounce Crete, Syria, and the Holy Places, and be given the hereditary Viceroyship of Egypt, with the island of Thasos as an apanage of the Khedivate.

On July 13, 1841, France, England, Russia, Prussia, Austria, and Turkey signed at London the 'Convention of the Straits', which closed the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles, so long as the Porte was at peace, to the vessels of war of all foreign Powers.

(8) REFORMS OF ABDUL MEJID : (i) DECREE OF GULHANÉ

Sultan Abdul Mejid, on reaching the throne, resolved to continue the reforms initiated by his predecessor ; and, with a view to cutting the ground from under the Russian claim to intervention on behalf of Orthodox Turkish subjects, based on the Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji (1774), he proclaimed a charter of reforms on November 3, 1839, known as the Decree of Gulhané.¹ The lives, property, and honour of all his subjects, irrespective of race or creed, were guaranteed ; the incidence of taxation was determined and its collection regulated ; while the European system of recruiting was introduced for Moslems. Despite the apparent goodwill of the Sultan, the new measures encountered serious opposition, especially from holders of the dominant creed, who succeeded in rendering them nugatory to a great extent. Spasmodic attempts to introduce the 'reforms' led to risings and troubles of various kinds in Asia Minor, Syria, and the Lebanon ; while in 1843 the discontent of the Cretans at the return of the Turks on the departure of the Egyptian

¹ See Appendix I, p. 139.

troops led to an insurrectionary movement for union with Greece.

The revolutionary movement of 1848 in Europe was not without its echoes in Greece and the Danubian Principalities, while minor wars with Montenegro were only brought to a close in 1853.

(9) CRIMEAN WAR

By the Capitulations of 1535, 1673, and 1740, the custody of the Holy Places had been entrusted to the French Catholics, but, owing to the anti-clerical policy of France since her revolution, the Greek Orthodox Church had acquired some of the French rights. The matter came to a point in 1853, when the Emperor Napoleon III championed the Catholics against Russia, the protector of the Orthodox. Russia demanded also an addition to the Treaty of Kuehuk Kainarji, placing the Orthodox Church entirely under her protection. This the Sultan, on the advice of the British Ambassador, refused, whereupon Russian troops advanced in July 1853 into the Danubian Principalities. The Porte demanded their evacuation within fifteen days, and declared war against Russia on October 23; while, a day earlier, the British fleet entered the Dardanelles. Great Britain formally declared war, jointly with France, in March 1854. In June Austria also summoned the Tsar to evacuate the Principalities. Though Russia withdrew her forces, the war was prosecuted in the Crimea without conclusive military results until 1855, when preliminary peace *pourparlers* were initiated.

Great Britain, France, and Austria laid down 'the four points', viz.: (1) the cessation of the Russian protectorate over Moldavia and Wallachia, and the application of a collective guarantee of the Powers to the Danubian Principalities; (2) the freedom of navigation of the Danube; (3) the revision of the treaty of

July 13, 1841, so as to terminate Russian preponderance in the Black Sea ; and (4) the abandonment of Russia's claim to protect the Orthodox subjects of the Sultan. On March 2 the Emperor Nicholas I died, and was succeeded by his son, Alexander II. The peace *pourparlers* failed. Sebastopol fell on September 9, and the Russians captured Kars on November 28.

On the mediation of Austria a Peace Congress met at Paris on February 25, 1856, and an agreement was rapidly concluded. By the Treaty of Paris Russia ceded to Moldavia, then under Turkish suzerainty, the southern part of Bessarabia and the delta of the Danube, thus partly undoing her annexations of 1812 ; the mouths of the Danube were put under the authority of an International Commission ; the navigation of the Danube and the Black Sea was declared free, subject only to necessary police and sanitary regulations ; the Black Sea was neutralized, and its waters and ports were closed to the navies both of the riverain States and of any other Power ; Turkey was admitted to the privilege of participation in the public law and the Concert of Europe ; while the other signatories undertook ' to respect the independence and the territorial integrity of the Ottoman Empire ', guaranteed ' in common the strict observance of this engagement ', and promised to ' consider every act calculated to do injury thereto as a question of general interest '. Other clauses of the treaty provided for the welfare of the Sultan's Christian subjects. Abdul Mejid communicated to the other high contracting parties the Firman of February 18, which had proclaimed the liberty of worship and the civil equality of all Ottoman subjects, admitted Christians to military service, and reorganized the fiscal system. In return, the Powers disclaimed any right to collective or separate intervention between the Sultan and his subjects, while the Principalities of

Wallachia and Moldavia were to enjoy, under Turkish suzerainty and the guarantee of the Powers, their previous privileges with a reformed administrative statute.

(10) POLICY OF RUSSIA, 1700-1856

An analysis of Turco-Russian relations during the previous century and a half, i. e. from the latter years of Peter the Great's reign, shows that Russia's policy was mainly directed to opening or controlling the Straits exit to the Aegean Sea; and that, partly to this end, she used the politico-religious lever of securing redress for the genuine religious and civil grievances of the Orthodox and mainly Slav subjects of the Turco-Islamic Ottoman State; while her constant endeavour was to deal directly with Turkey and eliminate other and generally hostile interference. The Treaty of Paris undid her work of the eighty years which had elapsed since the Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji; and, while forbidding her to exercise the sovereign right of having a naval force in her own Black Sea ports and waters, internationalized both the regime of the Straits and the protection of the Christian subjects of the Porte. For, although the Powers disclaimed the right of interfering on their behalf, the communication of the Firman on the subject by the Porte to the Powers admitted by implication foreign interest in the matter, while the embodiment in the treaty of the clauses concerning the Straits *pro tanto* diminished or impaired the sovereign powers of Turkey. Turkey, in compensation, was admitted to the Concert of Europe, and gained a reinforced status for playing off the other Powers against Russia. The settled policy of Russia thus sustained a conspicuous defeat; and it was to be anticipated that she would seize the first opportunity for modifying or annulling the conditions of the peace.

(11) REFORMS OF ABDUL MEJID.

(ii) HAT-I-HUMAYUN

This Firman (1856) of religious and civil equality encountered strenuous opposition from the reactionary elements in the bureaucracy and among the Moslem Turks. Regulations and laws were multiplied, but they remained, as in the case of the reforms of Gulhané of 1839, *in toto* or in part a dead letter.

The Firman of Abdul Mejid of 1856¹ is generally known as the 'Hat-i-Humayun', and in it the Sultan undertook to maintain the franchises and securities given by the Hat-i-Sheriff of Gulhané to all classes of his subjects without distinction of race or religion. It contained numerous directions for the summoning of local councils of each Christian community for local self-government, for ensuring free exercise of religion, for providing mixed tribunals in matters where the litigants were of different religious persuasions, i. e. Moslem and Christian, for raising contingents of Christian troops, and for numerous improvements in the administration of legal and of commercial matters.

The rock upon which these schemes of reform, like their precursors and successors, were shipwrecked was the inability of the Turco-Moslem, who dominated by the sword, to accord equality before the law or in his administration to the subject Christian and non-Turk races, who were potentially his superiors in culture, economics, and modern progress. He felt that equality meant the eventual submersion of his dominant militarist caste; and, though he partially, if reluctantly, admitted his backwardness and the necessity of progress, he was determined not to give equal opportunity to his subject races and creeds.

¹ See Appendix II, p. 65.

Hence, although the Crimean War gained Turkey a respite of twenty years, no adequate improvement was registered during that period. The Sultan, while steadily refusing equality to his subject races, retarded their progress and relapsed into his archaic system of rule, punctuated by massacres of the complaining Christian elements in Crete, the Balkans, or Asia Minor.

Twice during Ottoman history, i. e. under Sultan Selim (1512–20) and Sultan Mahmud II (1808–39), State discussions took place as to the advisability, permissibility, and expediency, according to Koranic law, of exterminating and forcibly Islamizing the entire Christian population of the Empire. On both occasions the decision, on the grounds of expediency, was against such drastic measures. But on several occasions the imposition of reforms by external Christian agency was followed by partial or extensive massacres of the Christian population. It was left to the twentieth-century Young Turks to carry out in all but its entirety a policy which Sultan Selim the Grim and his Chief Mufti had rejected in the sixteenth century.

(12) AFFAIRS IN THE PROVINCES, 1856–77

Danubian Principalities.—The new regime, prescribed by the Treaty of Paris (1856) for the Danubian Principalities, resulted in a personal union under Prince Cuza in 1859. In 1862 an insurrection in Herzegovina led to a Turkish invasion of Montenegro, while the violence of the Turkish soldiery in Belgrade occasioned disorders in Serbia.

Lebanon.—In 1860 trouble occurred among the Maronite Christians of the Lebanon, against whom the Turks excited the Druses. Extensive massacres of Christians took place in the Lebanon and at Damascus; whereupon the French sent an expedition. The Sultan,

frightened at this foreign intervention, had a number of the Druses executed ; but the Powers, led by France, insisted on the grant of autonomy to the Lebanon, under a Christian Governor, appointed by the Porte with the sanction of the Powers. Some of the defects in the hastily drafted Statute of 1861 were remedied by that of September 6, 1864. Meanwhile, in 1861, Sultan Abdul Mejid died, and was succeeded by his brother, Abdul Aziz. The new Sultan found the exchequer embarrassed and the policy of progress and reform unfulfilled, while the Balkans, the Lebanon, and Crete were seething with unrest.

Crete.—The Cretans had been demanding the execution of the reforms promised by the Firman or Hat-i-Humayun of 1856 ; and, failing to obtain satisfaction, they proclaimed their union with Greece, after petitioning Great Britain, France, and Russia. The attempt of a Turkish army under Eumer Pasha to devastate the island and exterminate its Christian inhabitants provoked the intervention of the Powers ; whereupon the Sultan reversed his policy and tried conciliation, granting the Cretans the ‘Organic Regulations’ of 1868¹, which became the law of the island for ten years.

Balkan States, 1866–77.—In 1866 Prince Cuza of Rumania was deposed by a *coup d'état* ; and Prince Charles of Hohenzollern was chosen in his place, the Porte being finally persuaded to recognize him. In the following year an agitation in Serbia against the presence of Turkish garrisons led to their withdrawal under pressure from the Powers, though it was arranged that the Turkish flag should continue to float over the fortress of Belgrade.

In 1870 the Porte, influenced by the Russian Ambassador, Ignatieff, and the anti-Greek bias then prevalent

¹ See *Greece*, No. 18 of this series. Appendix IV.

owing to the Cretan and other difficulties with the Greeks, created the Bulgarian Exarchate for the 'vilayet of the Danube', including Nish and Pirot. The Greek Patriarch pronounced this autocephalous Bulgarian Church to be schismatic; and a bitter struggle began in the Balkans between Greek and Bulgar.

Availing herself of the Franco-German War, Russia announced in a circular of October 31, 1870, that she would no longer be bound by the Black Sea clauses of the Treaty of Paris. Great Britain protested that one party to a treaty could not declare its conditions to be no longer binding without the consent of the other parties; accordingly, at a conference in London in March 1871, the articles regarding the neutralization of the Black Sea were abrogated. The principle of closing the Straits was maintained, but the Sultan was allowed to open the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus in time of peace to the fleets of his friends and allies if necessary in order to secure the execution of the stipulations of the Treaty of Paris of 1856. The European Commission of the Danube was prolonged for twelve years, and the works already created there were neutralized, subject to the right of the Porte to send vessels of war into the river.

In Herzegovina in 1875, as in Crete in 1866, the non-application of the Firman of 1856 and the extortions of the local Turks led to an insurrection which the Turkish forces tried to stifle by ruthless methods. The insurrection spread to Bosnia, and forced Montenegro and Serbia to go to war with Turkey. A similar insurrection in Southern Bulgaria resulted in the atrocities of Batak; while in May 1876 the French and German Consuls were assassinated in Salonika. The Nationalist (i. e. Young Turk) party in Constantinople raised the cry of 'Turkey for the Turks', while

several thousand *softas* (theological students) forced the Sultan to appoint Midhat Pasha as Grand Vizier. The Sultan Abdul Aziz was deposed, and replaced by Murad V on May 30, 1876. On August 31 he was forced to abdicate in his turn, owing to his feebleness of mind and character; and his brother Abdul Hamid II was called to the throne. The Turkish Government had just declared a partial repudiation of its foreign debt; and the new Sultan found his European provinces ablaze with insurrection and wars proceeding with two vassals. The Turkish forces, however, defeated the Serbs, and were advancing on Belgrade, when Russia intervened and brought about peace in March 1877, leaving Serbian territory undiminished. The Turks were less successful against the Montenegrins.

(13) RUSSO-TURKISH WAR; TREATY OF SAN STEFANO

The British Fleet had arrived at Besika Bay; and, while a European Conference, with Lord Salisbury as British delegate, was sitting at Constantinople endeavouring to find in reforms a solution for the Balkan imbroglio, a Constitution, drafted for the whole empire by Midhat Pasha, was suddenly proclaimed on December 23, 1876;¹ and the Turks argued that, as the greater included the less, the *raison d'être* of the Conference had disappeared. They declined further discussion; and the Conference was dissolved in January 1877. Midhat Pasha fell, and his Parliament was impotent. Russia concluded a military convention with Rumania, and on April 24 her troops crossed the European and Asiatic frontiers of Turkey. When the Russians held Shipka, Serbia again declared war, while Montenegro prosecuted hostilities with renewed vigour and success. The Russians entered Adrianople in

¹ See Appendix III, p. 71.

January 1878, and an armistice was concluded on January 31.

As the Russians seemed to be approaching Constantinople, Great Britain took alarm; and Austria, although promised Bosnia and Herzegovina at Reichstadt on July 8, 1876, as the price of her neutrality, began also to move. When the Russian Grand Duke Nicholas established his head-quarters at San Stefano, a portion of the British fleet from Besika Bay moved up to Prinkipo, ten miles from the Turkish capital. In the general confusion (February 14) Abdul Hamid dissolved his Parliament and suspended the Constitution, which remained in abeyance till July 24, 1908.

The Greeks had hesitated to enter the war, but an insurrection broke out in Thessaly. It was ended by the British Consuls promising that 'Hellenic interests would not be injured by acceding to English advice', and proposing the separate administration of Thessaly and Epeiros, proposals which the Turks accepted. An incipient rebellion in Crete was similarly terminated.

The Treaty of San Stefano, of March 3, 1878,¹ besides creating a 'big Bulgaria', recognized the independence of Rumania and Serbia, and provided for the application of the Cretan Organic Law of 1868 to Epeiros, Thessaly, and the other parts of Turkey in Europe; while by Article 16 Turkey engaged 'to carry into effect without further delay the improvements and reforms demanded by local requirements in the provinces inhabited by Armenians, and to guarantee their security from Kurds and Circassians'. In Asia, Kars, Ardahan, Bayazid, and Batum were to be ceded to Russia in lieu of a portion of the war indemnity.

¹ See *Eastern Question*, No. 15 of this series, Appendix IX.

(14) TREATY OF BERLIN

The Western Powers, however, demanded and insisted on a revision of the Treaty of San Stefano. At the Congress of Berlin,¹ which met on June 13, it was decided that the 'big Bulgaria' should be divided into three parts: (1) a Bulgarian Principality, under Turkish suzerainty, between the Balkan Mountains and the Danube; (2) Eastern Rumelia, an autonomous province, under a Turkish Governor-General; and (3) the Macedonian portion, which was restored to Turkish administration with the proviso that it should be governed according to the principles of the Cretan Statute of 1868; also that Rumania should receive her independence and a large part of the Dobruja in lieu of southern Bessarabia, retroceded to Russia; that Serbia should be independent, and be given the districts of Vrania, Nish, and Pirot, while Montenegro should receive territory which doubled her size; that Bosnia and Herzegovina were to be 'occupied and administered by Austria-Hungary', to whom was also given the right to keep garrisons in the Sanjak of Novibazar; and that Greece should be accorded a rectification of boundary, while Crete should remain Turkish, with a stricter enforcement of the Statute of 1868.

Such were the provisions of the Treaty of Berlin, so far as it affected Europe. In Asia the Porte ceded Kars, Ardahan, and Batum as a 'free port, essentially commercial', while the Bayazid district was restored to Turkey. Article 61 repeated the stipulation as to Armenians made by Article 16 of the Treaty of San Stefano. Periodical statements on this matter were to be made to the Powers, who would superintend their application. A special responsibility for the protection of the Armenians devolved on Great Britain

¹ See *Eastern Question*, No. 15 of this series, Appendix X.

in virtue of the Cyprus Convention, which had been signed on June 4.¹ By it Great Britain engaged to join the Sultan in the defence of his Asiatic dominions against any further Russian attack ; and the Sultan, in return, undertook 'to introduce the necessary reforms' there, in consultation with his ally. In order to enable the latter to fulfil her engagement, he assigned to her 'the island of Cyprus to be occupied and administered by' her 'as a place of arms' in the Levant, on payment of an annual tribute calculated by the average surplus of the previous five years, and on the understanding that a Russian evacuation of Kars, Ardahan, and Batum should be followed by a British evacuation of Cyprus.

The Treaty of Berlin reaffirmed the Treaties of Paris (1856) and of London of March 30, 1871, in matters affecting the Straits.

(15) AFFAIRS IN THE PROVINCES, 1878-85

In 1881 Rumania was proclaimed a kingdom ; Dulcigno was handed over to Montenegro in lieu of Albanian districts assigned to her by the Treaty of Berlin ; and Miyatovich, the Serbian Minister for Foreign Affairs, signed a secret convention with Austria, promising to discourage Serbian agitation in Bosnia, on condition that Austria should support Serbian pretensions 'in the direction of the Vardar valley', i. e. in Macedonia ; while Greece, with the assistance of the Powers, gained the plain of Thessaly.

Crete had to content herself with a modification of the Organic Law of 1868 in the form of a new charter, called the Pact of Halepa,² of October 1878, providing that the Governor-General should hold office for five years ; that a General Assembly, composed of 49 Chris-

¹ See *Cyprus*, No. 65 of this series, Appendix I.

² See *Greece*, No. 18 of this series, Appendix V.

tians and 31 Mussulmans, should sit for 40, or at most 60, days in the year ; that Greek should be the language of both the Assembly and the law courts ; and that, after defraying the cost of local administration from the revenues of the island, the surplus should be divided in equal shares between the Porte and the houses of detention, schools, hospitals, harbours, and roads of Crete.

In 1885 Eastern Rumelia declared itself united to Bulgaria ; and Great Britain prevailed on Sultan Abdul Hamid to acquiesce in the change.

In 1881 France had occupied Tunis, where, by the Treaty of Bardo, she had recognized the shadow of Turkish suzerainty ; and in the same year Great Britain occupied Egypt as a result of the disorders caused by the Arabi rebellion.

(16) ADMINISTRATION OF ABDUL HAMID II

Abdul Hamid II (1876–1909) had not succeeded to a bed of roses. The partial repudiation of the foreign debt by his predecessor and a disastrous war had produced financial chaos, with a depreciated paper currency, while the foreign bondholders clamoured for payment. He was eventually forced (1881) to assign six sources of revenue to the service of the national debt, and to hand over their collection to the Public Debt Administration, managed by European representatives, besides finding additional revenue to meet the Russian war indemnity payable in annual instalments of £T360,000. He adhered steadily to his engagements in the matter throughout his long reign, during which Turkish stock rose from the nominal price of about £T20 to £T94 at the time of his deposition. By such old-world methods as refraining from borrowing, by paying the officials only six months' salary out of the twelve, and replacing the deficit by

a lavish bestowal of decorations and favours, he managed to live, so to speak, from hand to mouth.

He began his reign as a democratic sovereign who went amongst his subjects and was accessible to them ; but, after a serious attempt of the Liberal or Young Turks to dethrone him, he began to seclude himself in his palace, and to tighten the screw of what gradually grew into an autocratic and despotic regime. He soon began to look upon his personal rule as essential to the preservation of his State, and to rely on an elaborate system of secret police to combat the secret societies which were plotting to overthrow him.

While he did much for Moslem education and the opening of schools all over the Empire, his customs officers had stringent orders to prevent the entry of 'seditious' literature ; and a rigorous censorship dealt similarly with the press. He extended his rule and authority into vast tracts of his Asiatic dominions, where heretofore the Sultan's name and writ were unknown or ignored. He likewise appropriated lands and even districts, whose revenues were paid into his Civil List.

In the essential branch of the administration of justice, his father, Sultan Abdul Mejid, had, in pursuance of the Firman of 1856, attempted to introduce the *Code Napoléon* and to reconcile it with the Islamic Code. The experiment had been far from a success.

Armenia.—In addition to his long-drawn struggle with the holders of advanced liberal views, he found an analogous legacy in the Macedo-Bulgarian and Armenian reform problems of Articles 23 and 61 of the Treaty of Berlin. In the case of the Armenians, the Sultan feared that they might become a second Bulgaria, a fear that was shared by the Tsar. England's efforts to carry out her obligations under Article 61 and the Cyprus Convention encountered

evasions and an undercurrent of obstinate resistance. Armenian agitation was answered by redoubled repressive measures, which, in their turn, provoked the Armenian extremists to adopt revolutionary methods. The Sasun massacres of 1894 roused the British Government to a serious effort to enforce the long-delayed reforms. When the Sultan's Firman was issued under pressure in 1895 wholesale massacres occurred, causing the death of about 100,000 Armenians. There was a parallel Young Turk movement, especially in the capital, which the Sultan, feeling that his throne and the State were imperilled, vigorously repressed by deporting to Asia Minor some 6,000 *softas*. It was, perhaps, significant that the Young Turk organ in Paris approved of Abdul Hamid's treatment of the Armenians. The only tangible gain, so far as the Armenians were concerned, was to have the vague wording of 'provinces inhabited by the Armenians' geographically defined as the six vilayets of Erzerum, Van, Bitlis, Kharput, Diarbekr, and Sivas, with some administrative sub-districts in Cilicia or Lesser Armenia. During the remaining years of the Sultan's reign wholesale massacres were avoided, but replaced by a ruthless process of elimination in detail.

Macedonia.—In Macedonia events had occurred on similar but more violent lines. The non-execution of Article 23 of the Treaty of Berlin led to an agitation by the Bulgarians—an agitation which was intensified after the union of Eastern Rumelia with Bulgaria. The Turks and Austrians played off the Greeks and Serbs against the Bulgarians, while Russian agents were also actively anti-Bulgarian. Political assassinations became the order of the day; and the country was turned into a charnel-house. In 1903 a Bulgarian rising was repressed in a ruthless manner, hundreds of villages being sacked or burnt and thousands of

Bulgarians massacred or forced to flee into Bulgaria. Austria and Russia grew alarmed ; and, after agreeing on the Mürzsteg programme, used their joint influence to induce the Sultan to execute Article 23 by introducing some features of the Cretan Organic Law of 1868. Hussein Hilmi Pasha, descended from a Greek convert to Islam in the island of Mitylene, was sent to Macedonia as High Commissioner. Great Britain, Italy, and France began to interest themselves in the 'reforms' ; but the High Commissioner showed consummate skill in playing off the different parties, both native and foreign, while the Sultan, when pressed, proved obdurate. The result was that the situation went from bad to worse. The meeting of King Edward VII and the Emperor Nicholas II at Reval in June 1908 roused apprehension among the Turks.

Crete.—The condition of Crete was tolerably quiet until 1889, when a fresh insurrection, arising from a strife of rival parties, occurred. The Porte sent troops ; and a Firman of November 24 virtually repealed the Pact of Halepa. This created widespread disappointment and unrest, which continued until 1895, when a Governor was appointed. The Moslem minority resented this, and by the violence of their methods procured his recall. In 1896 a fresh revolt took place ; and the Sultan, urged by the Powers, revived the Pact of Halepa, while European Commissions were dispatched to reorganize the gendarmerie and the Courts of Justice. On February 4, 1897, the Mussulmans at Canca started a massacre of Christians and burnt the Christian quarter. This caused intense excitement in Athens. Prince George was dispatched with a Greek flotilla to prevent Turkish reinforcements reaching Crete, while Colonel Vassos, with a Greek force, was sent to occupy the island in the name of the King of Greece, and the ships of the five Powers landed men to occupy Canca.

Conflicts occurred on the Thessalian frontier ; and on April 17 Turkey declared war on Greece. Accompanied by German officers, the Turkish army, after initial successes, defeated the Greeks at Domokos on May 17. The Powers intervened. The Peace of Constantinople gave Turkey a rectification of frontier and £T4,000,000 as war indemnity. The insurrection continued in Crete, whose ports were held by European detachments. On September 6 the Mussulmans at Candia massacred some British officers and men, with the result that all Turkish troops were forcibly ejected from the island, and Prince George of Greece was appointed by the Powers as High Commissioner in Crete for three years, under the suzerainty of the Sultan. He remained nearly eight years. In 1906 Prince George retired, and was succeeded by M. Zaimis.

(17) THE YOUNG TURK REVOLUTION

The Powers were beginning to withdraw their troops in July 1908, when the Young Turk revolution started in the Near East. This upheaval had the most serious effects throughout the Balkan Peninsula, while its ultimate results involved practically the whole world. The Turks' traditional policy had pivoted on the belief that their safety lay in the antagonism between England and Russia. They got the impression that the two sovereigns had arrived at decisions which virtually meant the amputation of the Ottoman European provinces restored to them by the Treaty of Berlin ; and this at a moment when Crete was about to be definitely lost to them by the evacuation of the international garrisons. The Young Turks resolved to act in Macedonia, professing to believe that the impending disasters were due solely to the evils of Abdul Hamid's despotism, and that salvation lay in reviving Midhat Pasha's Constitution of 1876 and

overthrowing the Sultan. By inculcating these ideas into the bolder spirits in the army in Macedonia and Albania, they won over a group of young officers, like Enver and Niazi, and also secured the compliance of Hussein Hilmi Pasha. Through them they brought about at Salonika the revolution, or rather *pronunciamento*, of July 1908, and demanded the revival of the Constitution of 1876. The Sultan knew that the choice lay between civil war, with an inevitable Bulgarian invasion, and acceptance of the demands of the Committee and soldiers. He decided, against the advice of some of the more timid of his Ministers, who suggested half-measures, to issue a decree restoring the Constitution in its entirety; and, as it went forth with all the prestige of his name, it was accepted by the Mohammedan masses.

The Young Turks threatened to invite Bosnia and Herzegovina to send deputies to their Chamber, while there was also wild talk of regaining lost territory up to the Danube; and Austria proclaimed the annexation of the two provinces, which she occupied in virtue of the Treaty of Berlin; while on October 5 Bulgaria annexed Eastern Rumelia and proclaimed Prince Ferdinand Tsar of the Bulgarians. After some international commotion, an agreement with Austria was signed on February 26, 1909, by which Turkey was paid £T2,500,000 and Austria evacuated the Sanjak of Novibazar. Composition was made with Bulgaria by Russia forgoing forty annual instalments of the 1878 war indemnity.

The Constitution of 1876, known as Midhat Pasha's Constitution, had been abrogated by Abdul Hamid II, on the advice of his Chief Secretary, Kuchuk Said Pasha, on the grounds that it was too advanced for the country, half of which was in the tribal state; that, as a result of the declared bankruptcy of the

State and the ensuing financial chaos, Parliament was unable to carry out its main function of dealing with the Budget ; and that, in view of the low standard of education, the medley of races, and the babel of tongues represented in the Assembly, useful deliberations were impossible, while it would only become a seed-plot of racial misunderstandings and strife, entailing, perhaps, the disruption of the Ottoman Empire. To the adherents of Midhat Pasha and the Liberals it was purely a question between autocracy and a ' liberal regime ', for which they secretly agitated all through Abdul Hamid's reign. Many of them, such as Ahmed Riza Bey, Dr. Nazim, Prince Sebaeddin, and others, had been forced to live abroad, mainly in Paris and Switzerland, where they had imbibed advanced ideas, gained many foreign sympathizers, and endeavoured to take advantage of the Sultan's internal and external difficulties, chief among which were the Cretan and Macedonian imbroglios. The Young Turks used the same methods as the Russian revolutionaries, viz. impregnating with their ideas and capturing an important section of the army. The ' revolution ' was thus military rather than popular ; and, when its leaders had got the power into their hands, they found themselves obliged to reckon with the more violent instincts of the Turkish soldiery. At the outset they proceeded to curtail the constitutional powers of the sovereign, and to transfer to themselves the supreme direction of the army and navy. The Sultan-Caliph, in fact, became a cipher or puppet in the hands of the Committee of Union and Progress.

The contributory causes to the success of the Young Turk *coup* of July 1908 were, briefly, the following. A younger generation had grown up and forgotten the disasters and troubles of 1875-8. The ' intellectuals '—not unlike the Russian *intelligentsia* of the Cadet party—who were the product of Abdul Hamid's schools,

were impatient of the slow methods of intellectual advancement permitted by his system, while the international financier and the concessionnaire, desirous to quicken and cheapen the means of access to the Ottoman Empire, were naturally opposed to a regime which put obstacles in the way of developing or exploiting the riches of its vast territories. An increasing number of the younger officers owed their training to Germany, and did not fail to contrast that country's rapid progress with the backwardness and semi-decay of their own. Abdul Hamid, too, was growing old. He was then 66, while the thirty odd years of self-imposed seclusion and the strain of hard work and responsibility entailed by his autocratic system of rule had made him really much older. In 1906 he had become afflicted with an incurable internal malady, which often for considerable periods incapacitated him from directing the affairs of State, with the result that the administrative machine became clogged and strained almost to breaking-point. One of the prominent Young Turks, indeed, averred that, but for the Sultan's physical break-down, their revolution would have been impossible. Macedonia, too, was the region where external pressure for reforms and internal opposition to their introduction had produced a condition of maximum tension and preparedness for violent changes or desperate remedies.

Abdul Hamid's ever-tightening despotism had, in fact, become an anachronism; and the new dispensation had been greeted with effusion by all—Bulgarians, Armenians, Jews, Arabs, Greeks, Albanians, and Turks; while public opinion in Western countries also welcomed it with enthusiasm. Extraordinary scenes of fraternization took place; and the Sultan's popularity was momentarily unbounded. This latter feature seemed, however, to be exceedingly displeasing to the

Extreme section of the Committee of Union and Progress, which now partially emerged into the open ; and when, in April 1909, a semi-military movement, directed apparently against these Extremists, took place in Constantinople, their adherents in the Macedonian army marched their forces on the capital and dethroned Abdul Hamid, who had refused to order the Constantinople garrison to offer resistance. The ex-Sultan was placed in confinement at Salonika until the outbreak of the First Balkan War in October 1912. He was succeeded by his brother Reshad Effendi under the style of Mohammed V. The dethronement of Abdul Hamid, whose prestige among the Moslem masses, accumulated during his long reign of thirty-three years, was enormous, sent a convulsive shock through the Empire, and indisposed large sections of the Turks to the new regime. Suspicion of those who had engineered these events and hostility towards them was most marked among the moderate 'Liberals' of the capital and towns—the Albanians, Arabs, Armenians, and Greeks.

(18) RULE OF THE COMMITTEE OF UNION AND PROGRESS

The Committee of Union and Progress established a terror administered by a junta of unknown officers, who by decree of a secret court martial proceeded, without any formalities or judicial procedure, to proscribe, deport, or otherwise remove as dangerous or suspect their political opponents. They found, in fact, that, as they were in a minority and had to rule against the consent of the governed, a terrorist regime was a necessity. Consequently, martial law, established in the capital in 1909, had to be maintained during the succeeding years, and has continued throughout the present war. Confronted with the same

difficulties as Abdul Hamid had experienced in 1876, they had to decide on the fundamental obstacle to all Turkish reform, the inequality between Moslem and Christian and between Turk and non-Turk. The more violent spirits decided to substitute force for statesmanship, and to adopt the policy of turkification by armed force, while the non-Turkish races were bluntly told in the official organ of the new regime that the Ottoman Empire consisted of 'a dominant race and dominated races', i. e. the Turks and the non-Turks. Turkification really spelt Pan-Turanianism, though at the outset it was to be observed that the Committee of Union and Progress contained or attracted representatives of Indian, Egyptian, Tunisian, Moroccan, Persian, Caucasian, Central Asian, Siberian, Astrakhan, and even Polish Moslems.

The Young Turks started their Turanian policy with the Albanians, who were ordered to adopt the Turkish language and script under penalty of the bastinado. The clansmen revolted, and saw the Young Turk armies invade their country and burn or wreck their houses and villages. They naturally became disaffected to the regime to whose installation they had so powerfully contributed. The Arabs, Kurds, and Armenians next felt the heavy Turkish hand of the new rulers; while the Greeks were commercially hit by a boycott started against them on account of the action of the Cretans in again proclaiming union with Greece and hoisting the Greek flag at Canca. Turkey threatened war with Greece, whereupon an international landing party cut down the flagstaff at Canca, and Turkey was told that the Cretan question was a matter of European concern.

In addition to turkification, the Young Turks also proceeded openly to adopt and foster the Pan-Islamic policy of Abdul Hamid, a course which inevitably

brought them into antagonism with France, Great Britain, and Russia; and, as the militarist element was predominant in the Committee, while Germany's influence was paramount in the Turkish army, the new regime began to show tendencies of approximation towards the Central European Powers and of alienation from the Anglo-French *Entente*, whose association with Russia provoked their distrust. In 1910 loans were raised in Germany and their proceeds devoted to armaments, both naval and military, and not to roads and schools, as the *Entente* Powers had expected from the professedly liberal and progressive new regime.

(19) CONFLICT WITH ITALY

In the spring of 1911 Pan-Islamism brought Young Turkey into serious conflict with the Italians in the Red Sea and in the African Tripolitana; and in October of that year the Italian Government forced matters by seizing Tripoli and Benghazi. The Turks, under Colonel Fethi Bey in Tripoli and Enver Pasha in Benghazi, maintained a resistance until October 18, 1912, when, by the Treaty of Lausanne, the Italians agreed to give up—immediately after the Turkish evacuation of Libya—Rhodes, Kos, and the other islands of the Dodekanese, occupied by them in April and May 1912. As Turkish agents kept up a guerrilla warfare in Cyrenaica, the Italians continued to occupy the islands.

(20) BALKAN WARS, 1912-13

Meanwhile the Balkan States, menaced by the effects of turkification and the provocative language and deeds of Turkey, which held manœuvres in Thrace, had composed their differences in face of the common

enemy, the Serbo-Bulgarian Treaty of February 29, 1912, being the keystone of these arrangements. On October 8 Montenegro declared war, and met with considerable success. On October 13 Bulgaria, Serbia, and Greece sent identic notes to the mandatory Powers and to Turkey, demanding the administrative autonomy of the European provinces (as provided by Article 23 of the Treaty of Berlin), the frontiers of which were to be redrawn on ethnographic lines, with Swiss or Belgian Governors ; provincial elective Assemblies ; the reorganization of the gendarmerie ; freedom of education ; a local militia ; the application of reforms under the direction of an equal number of Christian and Moslem councillors and under the supervision, not only of the Ambassadors of the Powers, but also of the Ministers of the Balkan States at Constantinople ; and the immediate demobilization of the Ottoman army. Turkey recalled her representatives from Belgrade and Sofia, and on October 17 declared war on Serbia and Bulgaria. Next day Greece declared war on Turkey, after Venizelos had, on the 14th, admitted the Cretan deputies to the Chamber.

On October 24 the Bulgarians captured Kirk Kilisse, and soon afterwards won the five days' battle of Lule Burgas. The Serbs routed the Turks at Kumanovo and at Monastir ; while, on November 8, the Young Turk officers brought about the surrender of Salonika to the Greeks, when the Bulgars were close by, the calculation being that the town and the manner of its surrender would prove an apple of discord between Greek and Bulgarian. On December 3 an armistice was signed at Chatalja by Turkey and the three Slav States, while Greece continued hostilities. A Conference of all five was arranged, and met at St. James's Palace, London, on December 16, while a meeting of the Ambassadors of the Great Powers was held, under

the presidency of Sir Edward Grey. The Turks, bent on splitting the Balkan Allies, put forward obviously inadmissible demands, and adopted dilatory tactics, while Italy and Austria, backed by Germany and a section of public opinion in England, opposed the Serbian claim to a port on the Albanian coast—a course which, as pointed out by Prince Lichnowsky in his recently-published memoirs, forced Serbia to look southward to the Vardar Valley, and was thus the indirect cause of the Serbo-Bulgarian cleavage, and consequently of the Second Balkan War.

On January 17, 1913, the Powers sent a note to the Porte, advising the cession of Adrianople to the Balkan States, and inviting the Turkish Government to entrust to Europe the settlement of the Aegean Islands question. On January 22 a Grand Council at Constantinople practically agreed to the cession; but on the following day Enver Pasha, who had returned from Benghazi, brought off a *coup d'état* at the Porte, where the Generalissimo, Nazim Pasha, was assassinated. On January 29 the Balkan delegates declared the *pour-parlers* at an end, and on February 3 the armistice ended, and the war was renewed. Enver Pasha commanded an expedition, which, landing at Charkeui, on the Marmora coast, was to have effected a junction with the Gallipoli army and to have advanced to the relief of Adrianople. Both forces were defeated in detail by the Bulgars with heavy loss; and on March 26 Adrianople was taken by storm by the Bulgarian besieging forces, aided by Serbian heavy artillery.

On March 6 King George of Greece was assassinated at Salonika, while Yanina had fallen to the Greeks. The new King, Constantine, concentrated his forces in the Salonika district, as if directed against the Bulgarians. Skirmishes took place between the two armies at Chaiaghzi and Nigrita.

On May 30 Turkey signed in London a treaty of peace drafted by the Ambassadors' Conference, by which she ceded to the Balkan Allies all the territory lying to the north-west of a line between Enos and Midia, as also the island of Crete. On June 29 the Bulgarians attacked the Serbs and Greeks, who, with the assistance of Montenegro and Rumania, defeated them and drove them back on Sofia. The Turks, despite their assurances that they would not violate the Treaty of London, advanced under the command of Enver Pasha and retook Adrianople from the weak Bulgarian garrison; and Bulgaria, after the Treaty of Bucarest, by which she had to surrender further territory to Rumania, Serbia, and Greece, was compelled to send delegates to Constantinople to conclude a final peace with Turkey (September 16/29, 1913), retroceding to the latter the Adrianople and Kirk Kilisse district north of the Enos-Midia line.

The Young Turks had also occupied Western Thrace with bands of irregulars, who had massacred the local villagers and set up the 'Independent Government of Gumuljina'; but they restored this territory to Bulgaria on the condition that its inhabitants, who were mainly Mohammedan, should receive equal political rights with the rest of Bulgaria. By this show of generosity and magnanimity they established a contrast between the terms they imposed on Bulgaria and the harsher conditions exacted from her at Bucarest by her whilom allies. The fourteen Moslem deputies returned by Western Thrace practically held the balance in the Bulgarian Sobranje; and, as Talaat Pasha comes from that district, he virtually controlled the destinies of the Bulgarian Ministry of Dr. Radoslavoff. The inner meaning of the transaction only became apparent when Turkey had entered the world-war in November 1914, and when, during the Gallipoli opera-

tions, the fate of the Straits and of the Turkish capital, with the enormous Russian and other issues dependent thereon, rested with the Radoslavoff majority in the Bulgarian Chamber.

(21) RELATIONS WITH THE POWERS, 1913-14

Towards the end of 1913 the *Entente* diplomatic circles in Constantinople were stirred by the announcement that Turkey had handed over the executive command of her capital and the Dardanelles to the German General Liman von Sanders. The appointment appeared to indicate the existence of a secret military convention with Germany. Russia protested vigorously, but Britain and France were inclined to attach less importance to an event the full significance of which was subsequently to be revealed.

Turkey refused to accept the award of the Powers concerning the Greek islands of Lemnos, Mitylene, Scio, &c., purchased two battleships in England, and was apparently preparing for a war with Greece, while endeavouring to secure the co-operation of Bulgaria by holding out to the latter the prospect of securing the possession of Macedonia as the result of joint action. Whether Bulgaria was actually bound by any definite instrument has not yet (October 1918) transpired; but the general result of Turkey's dealings with Bulgaria was to give the policy of the latter country a Turco-German orientation, especially as the *Entente* Powers had championed the cause of Serbia, Greece, and Rumania as embodied in the Treaty of Bucarest. In 1915 Turkey for similar reasons ceded to Bulgaria the Maritza railway strip, when Serbia had refused the cession of territory in Bulgaria's favour advised but not enforced by the *Entente*.

The *Goeben* visited Constantinople in June 1914; and when, in July, Germany declared war on Russia

and the world-war supervened, Turkey at once ordered a general mobilization, a course which was obviously unnecessary in view of the guarantees which the *Entente* Powers offered to give her. A further indication of her policy was the 'acquisition' of the *Goeben* and *Breslau* to replace the two Turkish war-ships which Great Britain had requisitioned on the outbreak of war. Turkey allowed them to enter the Dardanelles under the German flag, thus violating the international treaties governing the Straits, and shortly afterwards abolished the Capitulations and foreign post offices in the Ottoman Empire.

(22) YOUNG TURK WAR AIMS

The underlying ideas which drove the Young Turks to provoke a war with the British Empire, Russia, and France are set forth in the circular sent out by them to the provinces on the day following the declaration of war between Turkey and the Triple *Entente* Powers. After an allusion to Russia's secular resolve to destroy Turkey, it suggested that England and France, owing to their 'grabbing' policy in India, Egypt, Tunis, Algeria, Morocco, &c., had become the implacable foes of Turkey and Islam, while Turco-German interests coincided 'in an anti-Slav brotherhood'. It went on :

'Are we to remain idle while our natural allies are at war with Russia—our sworn, irreconcilable, and eternal enemy? Will not victory for the Triple *Entente* be to us a sentence of death? We must not forget that our participation in the world-war would not take place solely to defend ourselves against threatened ruin; it would also represent something far nearer to our hearts—the vindication of our national ideal. The national ideal of our nation and people leads us, on the one hand, towards the destruction of the Muscovite enemy, in order to obtain thereby a natural frontier to our Empire, which should include and unite all branches of our race. On the other hand, our religious principles urge us to free the

Mohammedan world from the power of the unbelievers, and to give independence to the followers of Mahomet.

X These were the Young Turk war aims, i. e. Pan-Turanianism and Pan-Islamism; and, by entering the war and closing the Dardanelles, the Young Turks hold, and perhaps rightly, that they were the main factor in bringing about the defeat and collapse of Russia, which opened up to them the prospect of establishing Pan-Turanianism in the Caucasus, Persia, and Central Asia. The Pan-Islamic aim has so far been checked by the revolt of the Arabs, and by the British occupation of Baghdad, Jerusalem, and Damascus; while Zionism is also a movement which seriously embarrasses their plans. With the destruction of the Russian Empire and the extermination of the Armenians, together with the partial elimination of the Greek and Lebanese Christian elements, the Young Turks believed that the roots of all interference with them would have been removed; and, as they calculated that at the end of the world-war Germany would be exhausted, they expected to emerge from the war a relatively stronger and healthier Power than if they had remained neutral. They hoped to attain, by direct or indirect means, the withdrawal of the British from Mesopotamia and Palestine, a success which would have left them free to deal with the Arab revolt; while they calculated that a revolution in Bulgaria would give them the opportunity of easily regaining their old position in Europe. Had the Young Turk ideal of repeating under modern conditions the Turanian conquests of Jenghiz Khan and Tamerlane been realized, Aryan civilization, which Russia has introduced into enormous tracts of Central Asia, and which Great Britain has developed in India, might eventually have been seriously jeopardized.

III. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) INTERNAL

(a) Roads

Thrace.—Few metalled roads exist in Thrace, and some of these have only been completed since the beginning of the Balkan Wars. The majority have a width of 26 ft., with metalling for 20 ft.

Of metalled roads, the main road from Constantinople to Adrianople has been largely superseded by the Oriental Railway, but it is still of military importance, and has been reconstructed for that reason. On leaving Constantinople, the road runs near the coast, crossing the entrances of the Kuchuk Chekmeje lake and the lagoon of Buyuk Chekmeje, until it reaches Silivri. Thence it strikes across country to Chorlu, Lule Burgas, and Baba Eski, where it meets a metalled branch road, constructed for military purposes, which runs to Kirk Kilisse, Derekeui, and Tirnovojik. The main road goes direct from Baba Eski to Adrianople. About five miles from Adrianople it is joined by a metalled road from Kirk Kilisse, which was also constructed for military purposes.

In the south-west there exists a further system of metalled military roads. The first starts from Uzun Köprü on the Oriental Railway, and runs south to Keshan and thence to Gallipoli. Another, from Keshan

to Malgara, has recently been completed ; and similar roads lead from Malgara to Rodosto, and from Rodosto to Muradli, which is a station on the Oriental Railway.

There is also a military road behind the Chatalja lines, which form the land defences of Constantinople. The southern part, which was not constructed till 1913, starts at the coast on the eastern side of the bay of Buyuk Chekmeje, skirts the eastern shore of the lagoon of Buyuk Chekmeje, and from thence runs to Hademkeui on the railway. Hademkeui is a military depot and staff head-quarters. Thence the road continues at the back of the Chatalja fortifications until it reaches Lake Derkos and Kara Burnu on the Black Sea.

Towards the northern end of the Chatalja lines, the military road is joined by an ordinary road, not metalled, leading to Pera and Constantinople. This runs south-east, crosses the Valley of the Sweet Waters at the end of the Golden Horn, and leads to Pera, Galata, and Stambul.

There is also an old road, not metalled, which leads from Kirk Kilisse to Bunar-Hissar, Vize, Serai, and Chorlu, which is on the Oriental Railway.

All other roads are at best well-worn tracks, only passable for native carts and ox-wagons, generally winding along the summits of the hills or high ground, inches deep in dust during the summer, and full of deep mud holes in the winter.

Vilayet of Constantinople.—Few metalled roads exist in the vilayet of Constantinople. In the city itself and in Scutari the main roads have been paved, during the last generation, with granite blocks, which have been found an enormous improvement on the old system of paving.

Apart from the first stretch of the road to Adrianople, which lies within the vilayet, there are various metalled roads leading from Pera to Buyukdere on the Bosphorus and other villages. These roads run parallel

to the Bosphorus. There is no metalled road leading away from the Bosphorus to the interior or to the Black Sea coast.

On the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus, with the exception of roads leading along the shore and from Scutari to various villages on the Straits, the only metalled road runs from Scutari to the village of Ermenikeui in the forest of Alem Dagh. This road was originally built by Sultan Abdul Aziz to lead to a shooting lodge in the woods. In 1911 it was decided to connect it with a road starting from Chile on the Black Sea. This plan formed part of a scheme in the hands of a French group of concessionnaires. Its completion was interrupted by the Balkan Wars, although it was nearly finished. It is believed that another metalled road has been constructed during the present war leading from Beikos on the Bosphorus to Ermenikeui, and thence to Samandra and on towards Gebze in the Gulf of Ismid. This road would be for purely military use, so that troops arriving by rail from the interior would detrain at Gebze and march to Beikos for the northern end of the Bosphorus, instead of detraining at Haidar Pasha, and proceeding thence by steamer up the Bosphorus.

A metalled road, some seven miles in length, leads from Scutari to Bostandji. This, with its branches, owes its existence to the efforts of the Anatolian Railway to develop its suburban service.

An old caravan route called the Baghdad road leaves Scutari and passes along the shores of the Sea of Marmora towards Ismid, but it is no longer used, being partly cut into by the Anatolian Railway, which follows the same line. This road is simply a dusty, uneven track in summer, and a sea of mud in winter, like the roads, whether on the European or Asiatic side, leading to the inland villages.

(b) Waterways

Rivers. With the exception of the Maritza, which is now the boundary between Bulgaria and Turkey from above Adrianople to the sea, there are no navigable streams in European Turkey or the vilayet of Constantinople. The Maritza is navigable as far as Adrianople for small flat-bottomed boats at all seasons, and for larger boats up to 30 tons from about October to June. Its average depth is from 7 to 10 feet; its bed is sandy; and as no attempt is made to keep the river in its bed, it continually changes its course, splitting up into small channels. It has a current of about two knots. There are no rapids, and the river is only fordable in a very dry season.

The Straits of the Bosphorus, commonly called the Bosphorus, divide the vilayet of Constantinople into two parts. The European side is generally spoken of in Turkish as the Rumelian side, and the Asiatic side as the Anatolian. The length of the Straits is about 16 nautical miles. At the Marmora entrance the width is about 3,200 yards, and at the Black Sea entrance about 4,000 yards. The narrowest point is between Rumeli-Hissar and Anatoli-Hissar, where the width is only 1,200 yards. The average depth of the Bosphorus is over 30 fathoms, the greatest depth (53 fathoms) being found at its narrowest parts. The water is deep quite close to the shores, which from end to end rise sharply and steeply to small hills intersected with deep ravines.

The main or constant current runs from the Black Sea to the Sea of Marmora. Its surface speed varies, but a normal current is between two and three knots an hour, except at certain points and in the narrow part, where it increases in speed. With strong northerly winds the current runs down to the Sea of Marmora at

from five to six knots an hour. Sometimes a surface current runs up from the Sea of Marmora to the Black Sea, but only after a prevalence of southerly winds. The northerly winds and current leave backwaters and eddies in the bays and behind the points of the Bosphorus, but the southerly current leaves no backwater. The entrance to the Bosphorus from the Black Sea is fully exposed to the north-west, north, and north-east winds, and is a somewhat difficult place for mariners to make in misty or stormy weather, owing to the current and the difficulty of finding the entrance.

The passenger service of the Bosphorus is in the hands of a Turkish Société Anonyme called the 'Compagnie de Navigation Chirket-Hairie' (Bosphorus Steam Navigation Co.), which has been granted a monopoly of this traffic. The company is a purely Turkish one in the sense that only Turkish subjects are capable of holding shares. The capital is £T200,000 (£182,000) divided into 40,000 shares of £T5 each. The company owns a good many boats, and its service is very creditably carried out. The steamers start from alongside the Galata bridge.

There is another company called the 'Société Anonyme Ottomane de Bateaux de la Corne d'Or', which has a concession for the passenger service of the Golden Horn. This company was formed in 1910 to take over the then existing service. Although its shareholders are under the terms of the concession to be Ottoman subjects, it is in reality owned and controlled by the Deutsche Orient Bank through Ottoman subjects who are its nominees.

The Mahsoussie Steamship Company, which is a Government-owned concern, runs steamers to the Princes Islands and the Asiatic coast of the Marmora, including Kadikeui and Haidar Pasha. The Deutsche Bank, through the Anatolian Railway Company, ad-

vanced to the Mahsoussie Company the necessary funds for the building of three steamers in Germany for the passenger and luggage service between Constantinople and the railway terminus at Haidar Pasha port. The Germans were not able, however, to obtain a definite concession for the working of these boats as part of the railway system, although they tried hard to obtain the privilege.

(c) *Railways*

(i) *Systems, Routes, Relations to Government, Finance, &c.*

The Oriental Railway (Société Anonyme des Chemins de fer Orientaux).—Since 1913 this company has become entirely a Turkish Société Anonyme. Its original concession dated from 1872; when it was granted the right to build about 1,000 kilometres of line: (1) from Constantinople to old Bulgaria, and (2) from Salonica to the Serbian frontier. Up to 1889 the line was not open beyond Belova, 240 kilometres beyond Adrianople, but in that year it was joined up with the Bulgarian lines, and so gave direct railway communication between Constantinople and central and western Europe. The gauge is 4 ft. 8½ in. The length of the line to Adrianople is 318 kilometres (198 miles). The distance by road is only about 148 miles. From Kuleli Burgas, on the Maritza, the line now runs in Bulgarian territory, so that its length in Turkey is only 280 kilometres (174 miles). The railway was built by the group controlled by Baron Hirsch. It was badly constructed, and sharp curves are numerous, as the slightest gradients were avoided whenever possible. In consequence trains can only travel at a very slow pace. The track is single, except between Constantinople and Kuchuk Chekmeje. The doubling of this part was

begun in 1911, but owing to the Balkan Wars was still unfinished in August 1914.

At Constantinople the railway enters the city close to the sea by the Seven Towers (Yedi Kule), where the company has its depots and workshops. The line skirts the sea shore just within the old sea walls, and comes round Seraglio Point to the shore of the Golden Horn, where its terminus is at Sirkidji, close to the sea. The railway is cramped for room at this station, and has great need of facilities for sidings at a more convenient place. The company has consequently favoured the construction of an artificial port on the Marmora side of Stambul, which would allow it to have sidings at Yedi Kule and Psamatia (*see* Ports).

Near Baba Eski, 143 miles from Constantinople, there is a branch line to Kirk Kilisse, opened to traffic in 1912; its length is 50 kilometres ($31\frac{1}{2}$ miles). This line is of military importance.

It was reported in November 1917 that a line (probably of narrow gauge) was in course of construction from Pavlo Keui, 250 kilometres (156 miles) from Constantinople, to Keshan. This line was complete from Pavlo Keui to Kadikeui, a village which is a little more than half-way to Keshan, and work was reported to be well advanced on the remainder of the track. Its object was, no doubt, to transport coal from the coal mine in the valley north of Keshan.

The controlling interest in the Oriental Railway is in the hands of Austrians and Germans. The bulk of the share capital is held by the Banque des Chemins de fer Orientaux, a Swiss company formed in Zürich by the Deutsche Bank, the Schweizerische Kreditanstalt, and the Wiener Bankverein for the purpose, amongst others, of taking over the 88,000 shares of the company belonging to the late Baron Hirsch.¹

¹ See below, p. 137.

The Anatolian Railway Company (*Société des Chemins de fer d'Anatolie*) is a Turkish Société Anonyme, but the majority of its shares are in German hands. It has its terminus at Haidar Pasha, a suburb of Scutari. The railway station and sidings are on the property of the Haidar Pasha Port and Quay Company (*Société Anonyme Ottomane du Port de Haidar Pasha*) near the entrance of the Bosphorus.

The Anatolian Railway Company was originally formed with the object of building a line to Bagdad¹ through Angora. The term of the original concession was for 99 years dating from 1889. By a subsequent arrangement, all the company's concessions were to run for 99 years as from 1903. The line to Angora was opened in 1892, but the plan of extending it to Bagdad was abandoned about 1893, and the company obtained a concession for the extension of its line from Eski-Cheir to Konia, a distance of 276 miles. This section was completed in 1896. Konia is the starting-point of the Bagdad railway, constructed by a company technically distinct from the Anatolian Railway Company, but really under the same control.

In 1898 the Anatolian Railway Company obtained a further concession for the construction of a branch line from Hamidie station (on the Haidar Pasha-Eski-Cheir line) to the city of Adabazar, about 6 miles distant. In 1911 a concession was obtained for an extension of the Adabazar branch to Bolu. Work was begun in 1912.

The track is single throughout the system, except between Haidar Pasha and Pendik, the doubling of which, begun in 1912, was not complete in 1914. The gauge is 4 ft. 8½ in. The metals are laid on transverse iron sleepers and well ballasted.

In September 1917 the terminus and warehouses

¹ See, for further details, *Mesopotamia*, No. 63 in this series.

at Haidar Pasha were destroyed by an explosion of munitions stored in the station, the damage being estimated at £160,000.

The capital of the company is controlled by the Deutsche Bank and its group, and amounts to £5,400,000, divided into shares of £20 each. 10,000 shares are fully paid up, 125,000 have £12 called up, and 135,000 have £5 called up. The shares are to 'Bearer', and are subject to redemption at the rate of about 100 a year. Those drawn participate in surplus dividends in excess of 5 per cent. per annum. The amount outstanding in 1914 was £5,318,000. There have been various issues of debentures, amounting in all to some £8,800,000.

An annual gross revenue is guaranteed by the Turkish Government. For the Haidar Pasha–Ismid section ($57\frac{1}{4}$ miles) this is calculated at the rate of 10,300 fr. per kilometre (£659 a mile). From Ismid to Angora (302 miles) the rate is 15,000 fr. per kilometre (£960 a mile). For the section Eski-Cheir–Konie the Government has undertaken to pay yearly such an amount, not exceeding £T296·31 per kilometre (£434 a mile), as may be necessary to bring the gross traffic receipts up to £T604 per kilometre (£885 a mile). If the receipts on any of these lines amount to more than the sum guaranteed, the Government is to receive 25 per cent. of the excess. Special tithes of certain provinces were assigned to the Ottoman Public Debt as security for the payment of these guarantees. The Adabazar–Bolu branch is guaranteed at the same rate as the Ismid–Angora section. In this case, however, the security is an annual charge of £140,000 on the receipts of the Constantinople Customs House. This sum is paid in half-yearly instalments into the Deutsche Bank, which pays interest and refunds any sum not required for the guarantee.

The railway system had so developed the country through which it passed that in 1912 the company had no need to call on the Government in respect of the Haidar Pasha—Angora and Eski-Cheir—Konia sections. On the contrary, the Government in that year received from the excess profits of the Haidar Pasha—Angora line £36,000, and from those of the Eski-Cheir—Konia line £4,000. Since then the returns of the company have always been in excess of the amount guaranteed. The *Berliner Tageblatt* of July 6, 1917, states that in 1916 the Turkish Government's share of excess profits was £180,000. It must be remembered, however, that the company's receipts in 1916 must have been derived mainly from military traffic.

Metropolitan Railway of Constantinople.—From Galata to Pera at Constantinople, there is a short underground cable railway originally called the 'Chemin de fer Métropolitain de Constantinople entre Galata et Péra'. The concession was formerly in British hands, but on its renewal in 1911 it passed under the control of the Deutsche Orient Bank, whose president, Dr. Hartmann, is also president of the railway company. The railway was acquired with the ostensible object of working it in conjunction with the tramways of Constantinople, also under German control. The company is a Turkish Société Anonyme, with a capital of £250,000, divided into 12,500 shares of £20 each, fully called up.

(ii) *Adequacy to economic needs*

The Oriental Railway is the main trunk line from the Near East to central and western Europe. From the standpoint of Turkish commerce, however, it is much less important than the Anatolian Railway. The region through which it passes is thinly populated and on the whole unfertile; it was moreover traversed

by the Russian armies in 1878 and by the Bulgarians in 1912. The fertile districts near the Marmora coast export their products by sea. It is not likely that the line will ever be much used for the carriage to central and western Europe of raw materials produced in Asia Minor, as it is cheaper to send such goods by sea, especially in view of the inconvenience of transshipment at Constantinople. On the other hand, the line carries many goods imported into Turkey from Germany, Austria, and Bulgaria. Through rates for such goods were already fixed before the war, and efforts will doubtless be made to secure still more favourable terms for the trade of central Europe. The traffic of the railway would probably be largely increased by the construction of the proposed port on the Marmora side of Stambul (see p. 85).

As for the Anatolian Railway, there can be no doubt that it has a great future before it. The opening of further branches and extensions would soon make it necessary to double the existing track in order to cope with the traffic. It must be remembered that the interior of Asia Minor has neither roads nor navigable rivers. In former times the peasant cultivated enough for his needs and no more. It may be true that he is naturally indolent, but a more important cause of his want of enterprise was the impossibility of disposing of his surplus produce. In the districts traversed by the railway, this obstacle has been removed, and of late years the Anatolian peasant has shown that he is quick to learn and ready to use his opportunities. The railway has also mitigated the danger of famine, formerly very serious, as it is now possible for the products of a prosperous region to be sent to parts where the harvest has failed. A striking indication of the benefits conferred by the railway is given by the returns of the tithes collected by the

Ottoman Public Debt, which in certain parts near the line yield five or six times the amount collected before the railway was built. It is not that the population has appreciably increased; on the contrary, the inhabitants of districts near the railway are always the first to be mobilized in time of war.

(d) *Posts, Telegraphs, &c.*

Until the revolution in 1908 no local post existed in Turkey for the delivery of letters, although post-cards were allowed to be sent, for the reason that any one could read them. The inadequacy of the postal arrangements was due to the Sultan Abdul Hamid, who feared communication by letter amongst his subjects. The post for the interior of Turkey was badly managed during his reign, and the officials were corrupt and dishonest. Not only was every letter for the interior opened and censored, but a huge system of robbery went on, especially of notes or money-orders arriving from the United States. For this abuse there was no redress.

Even after the revolution only post-cards were allowed locally, but in the period shortly before the war matters had vastly improved, and mails were being received and dispatched with regularity, though the honesty of the employees still left much to be desired. The great improvement which took place was in dealing with mails for abroad, and was largely owing to the desire of the Turks to compete with the foreign post offices.

Foreign Post Offices.—Under the Capitulations, various European Powers maintained their own post offices in Constantinople. There were six of these foreign post offices—the British, with a head office at Galata and a branch office at Stambul, and the German, Austrian, French, Italian and Russian, each with

a head office at Galata and branch offices at Pera and Stambul. There were also letter boxes at various clubs, hotels, restaurants, shipping offices, and shops, which were cleared twice daily. The foreign post offices were for the use of foreigners only, no Turk being allowed to use them ; they did not accept letters for the local post, or forward letters from abroad into the interior of the country ; they had, however, branch post offices in the principal ports of the Turkish Empire, such as Smyrna, Salonika, and Beyrout.

The foreign post office privilege had always been a very thorny question with the Turks, and from the later years of Abdul Hamid's reign until the abrogation of the Capitulations the difficulty was acute. With the beginning of the European War the Turks seized the opportunity to withdraw the privilege. On September 8, 1914, the Young Turks notified the foreign embassies of the abrogation of the Capitulations as from October 1, 1914, and from that date the foreign post offices were closed.

Mails.—Mails from Europe arrived at Constantinople (i) once a day by the train from Vienna called the 'Conventional', (ii) three times a week by the 'Orient' Express from Ostend and Paris, *via* Vienna. Both these services brought mails from England, France, and other European countries (with the exception of Italy, Spain, Portugal and Russia), and also American mails *via* England. The bags were taken over at the Constantinople railway station by the employees of the respective foreign post offices. American mails were handed over to the Turkish authorities for distribution. (iii) Mails from Europe also arrived by the 'Constanza' Express and the Rumanian State steamers twice a week. Mails for departure by rail left Constantinople by the same routes and with the same frequency as the incoming mails. Great competition existed between

the foreign post offices for the conveyance of parcels.

Telegraphs.—The Ottoman service of telegraphs is under the Ministry of Post and Telegraphs at Constantinople, and is fairly complete throughout the Empire. There is a local service for Constantinople and its suburbs at the low rate of 5*d.* for twenty words.

The Ottoman telegraph service accepts telegrams for abroad for transmission over its lines at a slightly lower rate than the various foreign lines in communication with Constantinople. Of the latter, the Eastern Telegraph Company owns the Odessa–Indo line and the Tenedos–Syra line, and the German Ost-Europäische Telegraphen-Gesellschaft owns the Constanza line. The latter cable communicates direct with Constanza, and it is advertised that ‘all telegrams are transmitted direct from Pera to Berlin’, from whence they are dispatched to their destination. All telegrams have to be submitted to the censorship, and until very recently all messages in code were refused except for the diplomatic service of the various Powers. Subsequently one or two well-recognized codes were allowed to be used. The administration of the Turkish telegraph service, with the exception of its local Constantinople service, has always been fairly efficient.

Telephones.—Before 1911 no public telephone system existed in Turkey, although after 1908 the Government itself instituted its own telephones between the various Departments of State and public offices. A concession was granted for the term of 30 years on May 6, 1911, for the purpose of constructing and operating a general telephone system in Constantinople and its suburbs. In accordance with the terms of the concession, the ‘Société Anonyme Ottomane des Téléphones de Constantinople’ was incorporated under Turkish law. The group forming the company was an

Anglo-French one, but British interests predominated. There were clauses in the convention by which the Government from the tenth year onwards had the option of buying the system at a premium, but if the concession was not bought out by the Government at the expiry of the 30 years, the term became extended for another 10 years. The Turkish Government receives a royalty of 15 per cent. of the gross telephone revenue. The capital is £450,000 in shares of £5 each, of which £250,000 has been subscribed and paid up.

The telephone service in Pera, Galata, and Stambul was opened to the public in 1913, and shortly afterwards extended to Scutari and Kadikeui. The prospects of the company appeared to be excellent, as up to the time of the war the returns were most satisfactory and far surpassed all preliminary calculations.

Wireless.—No wireless system existed in Constantinople until 1913, when wireless telegraphy was introduced into the army under the direction of General Liman von Sanders and other German officers engaged in the reorganization of the Turkish military forces. A central station was then set up at the War Office in Stambul. Shortly after the beginning of the war, but before the entry of Turkey, a wireless installation was set up at the Ok-Meidan, the heights above the Admiralty in the Golden Horn, not far from Pera. This was under military control and German direction.

(2) EXTERNAL

(a) *Ports and Roadsteads*

(i) *Accommodation.*—Approach to Constantinople and the Marmora coast of Thrace has been much hampered by the formalities required by the Turkish Government. No ship may pass through the Dardanelles or the Bosphorus without authorization by firman. The necessary documents have to be

obtained at Chanak by ships from the Mediterranean, and at Kavak by ships from the Black Sea, and they are of course issued only after inspection of ships' papers. Not only is considerable delay thus caused, but ships have to wait under somewhat dangerous conditions, which are a source of many accidents. Further inconvenience is occasioned by the rule that permission to enter the Dardanelles is not granted between sunset and sunrise, so that vessels arriving at the entrance at night have to wait outside, whatever the weather. At night, moreover, no ship may leave the Dardanelles except by special permission. Before the war, however, some of the disadvantages which formerly arose from the regulations had been mitigated, mainly through the exertions of the British Consulate; it was, for example, no longer necessary for ships' officers to go ashore at Chanak and Kavak, the Government officials coming alongside.

Thrace

Rodosto is the only considerable port in Thrace. It has no harbour, but only an open roadstead, exposed to east and south-east winds. Rodosto exports cereals and seeds, which are brought down in summer by the peasants of the interior. Its exports amount to over £300,000 a year, and its imports, consisting of general merchandise, to £700,000. Before the war the population was mostly Christian, and had been subjected to much ill treatment during and after the Balkan Wars.

Constantinople

Constantinople is by its situation an admirable seaport, but full advantage has not been taken of its natural facilities, owing to the indolence and carelessness of the Turkish Government. The port proper

is divided into three sections—the Outer Port, the Commercial Port, and the Inner Port or Port of War.

The *Outer Port* lies between the entrance of the Golden Horn and the first bridge, known as the Karakeui bridge. Its width at the eastern end, from Old Seraglio Point on the Stambul side to Topkhane on the Galata side, is about 1,300 yds., and at the bridge end nearly 600 yds. The water is deep, varying from 22 fathoms on the Stambul side to 19 on the Galata side. The current, which sets westward on the Stambul side and eastward on the Galata side, is at times dangerous, but not often. Though vessels of the greatest draught can use the Outer Port, the space is somewhat cramped for manœuvring.

The Outer Port is buoyed for merchant steamers only, the various sets of buoys being generally allotted to the regular lines, which load and discharge cargoes with the assistance of barges, lighters, and pontoons.

On the Stambul side, from the Scutari ferry to the bridge, is the quay constructed by the Société Anonyme Ottomane des Quais, Docks, et Entrepôts de Constantinople. The length of the quay is about 400 yds., and behind it is the principal Customs House, with its depots, bonded warehouses, &c. This quay is generally used only for loading and discharging cargo. Though the water is deep enough for steamers to come alongside, the length of the quay is not sufficient to permit them to do so in normal circumstances. In consequence they generally have their sterns moored to the quay and their bows to buoys, using lighters and pontoons for transferring cargo.

On the Galata side, the quays extend for a length of about 800 yds., from the end of the so-called Arsenal quay to the bridge. The Galata Customs House, with

its dependent buildings, lies between the centre of the quays and the Arsenal. Vessels come alongside, and these quays are therefore used especially by mail and passenger steamers.

From the Karakeui bridge start the local steamers for the Bosphorus, the Princes Islands, and elsewhere. These are purely passenger services.

The Société Anonyme Ottomane des Quais, Docks, et Entrepôts de Constantinople was established under imperial concession in 1891, with a capital of £720,000. It was originally controlled by a French group, but a few years ago His Majesty's Government became interested in it, and it may now be described as an Anglo-French concern, though the management is still chiefly French.

The insufficiency of the facilities for shipping in the Outer Port has often been a subject of remonstrance on the part of foreign Governments. In 1913 the question was submitted to a commission of inquiry presided over by the Ministry of Commerce. Foreign merchants, shipping agents, and the foreign Chambers of Commerce were invited to give evidence. The subject of lighters, which had been a fruitful source of grievances, was discussed, and certain recommendations were made for the extension of the quays and the building of new warehouses. Little or nothing, however, had been done before the outbreak of war.

The *Port of Commerce* lies between the two bridges over the Golden Horn. A clear passage is kept down the centre of the Outer Port for ships bound for the Port of Commerce, and the Karakeui bridge, which is a floating bridge, opens for the passage of vessels.

The Port of Commerce varies in length from 1,100 to 1,200 yds., the Stambul side being longer than the Galata side. Its breadth, which varies little, is between 500 and 600 yds. In depth it is adequate for the

largest ships, but as the only quays are privately owned, few steamers enter except for discharging coal or undergoing minor repairs. The Port of Commerce, however, is largely used by small sailing-craft, which arrive from the Black Sea, the Sea of Marmora, and the Aegean Islands with local produce, and both shores are generally lined with such craft. As a rule, there are also many lighters, barges, and pontoons in this section of the port, waiting their turn at the Customs or at the ships in the Outer Port.

The *Inner Port* or *Port of War* extends from the inner or second bridge to the limit of navigation in the Golden Horn. The floating bridge at the entrance opens to admit the passage of ships. The greatest width of the Inner Port is 800 yds., and for about a mile from the bridge the water is deep.

On the Stambul side there are no quays properly so called, but along the shore there are a certain number of warehouses which use small craft for purposes of transport.

On the Galata side are the Admiralty works, the Ministry of Marine, the naval docks, slips, &c. The centre and northern side of the Inner Port is reserved for Turkish war-ships and Government vessels. At the bridge end there are three dry docks, two of which are generally available for any ships requiring repairs. The third is commonly reserved for the Turkish navy, but is on occasion used by other vessels. These are the only dry docks in the Turkish Empire.

In 1911 a local group of capitalists obtained a concession for the construction of a floating dock, with workshops and repairing plant, at the small port or bay of Stenia in the Bosphorus, some eight miles from Constantinople, and a company called the Société Anonyme Ottomane des Docks et Ateliers du Haut Bosphore was formed with a capital of £160,000. In

1913 the first dock, built by a British firm, was opened ; it is 490 ft. long and 95 ft. broad, and has a lifting capacity of 8,500 tons. From the first it was in continual use. A project was then formed for bringing the Stenia dock and those in the Golden Horn under one control, and on December 2, 1913, an agreement was concluded between the Turkish Government and the Armstrong and Vickers group for the formation of a company to be known as the Société Impériale Ottomane Co-intéressée de Docks, Arsenaux et Constructions Navales. This company, which acquired control of the Stenia dock, was to take over and reorganize the dockyards in the Golden Horn, and to construct at Ismid a floating dock of a capacity of 32,000 tons, and building and repairing yards for the navy. The term of the concession was thirty years. The board was composed of five British and four Turkish directors. The capital consisted of £200,000 in ordinary nominative shares, three-fifths of which were to be held by the Turkish Government, and £50,000 in privileged shares, to be held by the British group. The company was empowered to issue £1,100,000 5½ per cent. debentures, and the charges on these and on the privileged shares were secured, in case of insufficient profits, on the tithes of the province of Sivas, administered by the Ottoman Public Debt. Surplus profits were to be divided in the proportion of 40 per cent. to the shareholders and 60 per cent. to the Turkish Government.

The Bosphorus

Outside the entrance of the Golden Horn there is a roadstead or anchorage, which extends northwards on the European side of the Bosphorus as far as Beshik Tash. It is about a mile in length, and about one-third of the Bosphorus in width. The anchorage is

fairly good as regards wind and holding, but at times it is very dangerous by reason of the currents. Near the shore the waters are generally dead, or with a slight northerly current, whereas farther out the current is the normal one of the Bosphorus, setting towards the Sea of Marmora. On a change of wind or weather, the currents vary in a most bewildering and dangerous way, and at such times many collisions occur. The roadstead is considered to be outside the port of Constantinople, and no port or buoy dues are charged. It is used by war-ships of foreign Powers, but principally by merchant vessels making a short stay in order to coal, take in provisions, or receive instructions.

At Buyukdere Bay, on the European side of the Bosphorus, about 12 miles from Constantinople, there is a fairly good roadstead and anchorage, well sheltered and almost free from currents. It is used by small steamers and sailing vessels. At Buyukdere there are repairing works and a gridiron slip for craft of small tonnage.

On the Asiatic side, almost opposite Buyukdere, is Majar Bay, more commonly known as Kavak Bay, where ships from the Black Sea have to show their papers and obtain firmans permitting them to pass through the Straits. There is also a health office at Kavak, and the bay is an anchorage for ships in quarantine. The currents are dangerous, and collisions are frequent.

At the southern entrance of the Bosphorus, under the Asiatic shore, is Leander's Tower Roadstead, commonly called the Scutari Anchorage. It is an open roadstead extending from just below Leander's Tower to a point almost opposite the British Cemetery at Haidar Pasha. Anchorage is good, and under normal conditions there is little current. The roadstead is exposed to south and south-west winds, but these

seldom blow strongly. It is chiefly used by steamers stopping at Constantinople for a few hours only, or waiting a favourable opportunity for entering the port.

On the Asiatic side of the southern entrance of the Bosphorus is Haidar Pasha Port. The port is artificial, formed by quays built out from the land; it has two large grain silos near the quays, and modern appliances. It is, however, already too small for its traffic; and the breakwater, which is about 650 yards long, running parallel with the coast, is clearly too short and too near the shore.

At Haidar Pasha is the terminus of the Anatolian Railway, which has the exclusive use of the port. The port is nominally owned, under imperial concession, by a Turkish Société Anonyme called the Société du Port de Haidar Pasha. This company was formed by nominees of the Anatolian Railway Company, and its shares are under the control of the Banque des Chemins de fer Orientaux (see p. 137). The president is K. Schrader, the vice-president A. von Gwinner, and among the directors are Dr. Julius Frey, Dr. K. Helfferich, O. Kaufmann, and Dr. K. Zander. The capital is £320,000. Only the debentures are on the market. The concession was granted for the same term as those of the Anatolian and Bagdad Railways. For some time before the war, the company offered preferential terms to German and Austrian steamers with general cargo for trans-shipment to the railway, and preferential through rates for goods from Germany and Austria.

(ii) *Statistics of Inward and Outward Tonnage.*—In the text and tables under this head (see Tables I–IV), the term Port of Constantinople must be understood as covering not only the port proper, in the Golden Horn, but also the port of Haidar Pasha and the anchorages near the entrance of the Golden Horn and off Scutari.

The statistics given in the tables indicated show clearly that at present the port of Constantinople owes its prosperity not so much to its intrinsic advantages as to its position in relation to the Black Sea. In 1913 Constantinople was the final destination of only about 10 per cent. of the ships arriving there from the Mediterranean and 17 per cent. of those arriving from the Black Sea. Of the rest a few discharged cargo at Constantinople, but the great majority left after exhibiting and receiving necessary papers, or, at most, taking in coal or provisions. In considering the statistical tables, it must of course be remembered that most of the ships sailing to or from the Black Sea are counted twice.

What has just been said applies equally to British shipping. Indeed, Constantinople was the final destination of only 8 per cent. of the British ships that entered the port from the Mediterranean in 1913, and but for the ships of the Khedivial Line, which sail from Egypt, the proportion would have been only 3·5 per cent. It is worthy of remark that less than 2·5 per cent. of the British ships sailing for the Black Sea arrived at Constantinople with cargo on board. The rest were in ballast, having discharged their cargo—probably coal—at Mediterranean ports, and were generally going to the Black Sea for a shipment of grain.

It is to be noted that 1913 was an abnormal year owing to the Balkan Wars, Greek shipping being specially affected. Unfortunately, complete statistics for the three previous years are not available.

TABLE I
ARRIVALS AND CLEARANCES AT CONSTANTINOPLE IN 1904 (EXCLUDING SAILING AND SMALL COASTING VESSELS)

	Arrived from and cleared for the Mediterranean.		Arrived from the Mediterranean and cleared for the Black Sea.		Arrived from the Black Sea and cleared for the Mediterranean.		Arrived from and cleared for the Black Sea.	
	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.
<i>Regular Mail Steamship Services:</i>								
British: Khedivial Mail Steamship Company	55	77,296	1	2,106	1	2,106	—	—
Austro-Hungarian: Austrian Lloyd Steam Navigation Company	86	119,095	139	204,886	141	208,780	7	9,410
French: Messageries Maritimes	45	91,326	44	75,196	45	76,907	—	—
" Fraissinet & Cie	8	10,951	16	22,651	17	23,572	—	—
Greek: Panhellenic Company	—	—	55	53,699	56	54,591	—	—
Italian: Florio Rubattino Line	5	8,140	113	192,510	112	190,901	—	—
Russian: Russian Steam Navigation and Trading Co.	—	—	158	265,129	155	259,657	114	82,581
Turkish: Mahsousie Steamship Company	23	25,883	36	27,112	18	17,495	49	39,986
" Courtgi & Co.	79	23,245	35	16,506	33	12,492	39	29,034
<i>Other vessels:</i>								
British	92	141,388	1,897	3,536,718	1,894	3,530,497	1	1,203
Austro-Hungarian	1	1,995	188	350,715	187	350,132	17	9,820
German	11	28,815	155	241,905	153	240,904	1	1,389
Greek	191	45,798	915	1,092,554	910	1,097,013	18	10,432
Italian	8	8,397	236	356,001	236	356,157	—	—
Other nations	124	60,699	441	594,256	427	605,556	249	181,034
<i>Total.</i>	728	643,028	4,429	7,031,944	4,385	7,026,760	495	364,889

Total number of arrivals and clearances, 10,037; tonnage, 15,066,621.

TABLE II

ARRIVALS AND CLEARANCES AT CONSTANTINOPLE IN 1913 (EXCLUDING SAILING AND SMALL COASTING VESSELS)

	Arrived from and cleared for the Mediterranean.		Arrived from the Mediterranean and cleared for the Black Sea.		Arrived from the Black Sea and cleared for the Mediterranean.		Arrived from and cleared for the Black Sea.	
	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.
<i>Regular Mail Steamship Services:</i>								
British: Khedivial Mail Steamship Company	82	163,634	—	—	—	—	—	—
Austro-Hungarian: Lloyd Steam Navigation Company	24	54,827	146	303,783	145	301,931	1	2,358
French: Messageries Maritimes	49	111,626	51	120,639	51	120,639	—	—
" Fraissinet & Cie	6	7,399	23	38,154	22	36,486	—	—
Italian: Società Italiana di Servizi Marittimi	—	—	8	16,011	8	15,086	—	—
" Società Italiana di Servizi Marittimi	25	32,594	61	100,251	63	103,291	—	—
Russian: Russian Navigation and Trading Co.	4	12,505	156	343,610	153	335,264	133	103,129
Turkish: Administration de Navigation à Vapeur Ottomane	19	39,337	—	—	—	—	185	230,087
<i>Other vessels:</i>								
British	58	82,647	1,521	3,175,307	1,504	3,172,443	20	6,108
Austro-Hungarian	16	13,449	308	660,410	306	659,503	32	20,567
German	23	9,004	217	430,216	213	426,898	6	11,084
Greek	10	5,694	319	496,790	317	495,857	5	2,706
Italian	8	11,157	392	618,409	388	616,185	8	3,600
Russian	2	658	277	389,337	257	375,263	85	48,724
Other nations	129	91,974	662	881,607	670	953,392	348	287,984
<i>Total.</i>	455	636,505	4,141	7,574,524	4,097	7,612,238	823	716,347

Total number of arrivals and clearances, 9,516; tonnage, 16,539,614.

TABLE III

BRITISH AND OTHER SHIPS CALLING AT CONSTANTINOPLE FROM 1904 TO 1913

<i>Flag.</i>	<i>No. of ships.</i>	<i>Tonnage.</i>	<i>Arrived from the Medi- terranean and cleared for the Black Sea.</i>	<i>No. of ships.</i>	<i>Tonnage.</i>	<i>Arrived from the Black Sea and cleared for the Mediterranean.</i>	<i>No. of ships.</i>	<i>Tonnage.</i>	<i>Arrived from and cleared for the Black Sea.</i>	<i>No. of ships.</i>	<i>Tonnage.</i>	<i>Percentage of British shipping to the whole.</i>
1904												
British	147	218,684	1,898	1,895	3,538,824	1,895	1,895	3,532,603	1	1,203		
All others	581	424,344	2,531	2,490	3,493,120	2,490	494	3,494,157	494	363,686	39.2	48.3
1905												
British	149	233,162	1,742	1,736	3,287,031	1,736	—	3,275,390	—	—		
All others	553	452,563	2,647	2,622	3,650,956	2,622	347	3,638,540	347	248,038	37.1	45.9
1906												
British	138	229,534	1,785	1,783	3,492,360	1,783	5	3,484,066	5	2,110		
All others	552	421,895	2,575	2,555	3,622,355	2,555	476	3,606,386	476	337,686	37	47
1907												
British	158	263,403	1,693	1,693	3,325,776	1,693	38	3,332,141	38	11,800		
All others	664	427,685	2,453	2,411	3,491,706	2,411	520	3,473,616	520	368,558	37	47
1908												
British	144	252,268	1,310	1,296	2,569,587	1,296	37	2,563,671	37	13,507		
All others	739	507,101	2,173	2,155	3,228,182	2,155	619	3,202,049	619	420,705	32.8	42.3
1909												
British	157	270,310	1,645	1,640	3,318,239	1,640	12	3,311,437	12	5,272		
All others	684	540,397	2,657	2,578	3,800,235	2,578	703	3,868,059	703	442,381	33	43
1910-12.	Figures not available.											
1913												
British	140	246,281	1,521	1,504	3,175,307	1,504	20	3,172,443	20	6,108		
All others	315	390,224	2,620	2,593	4,399,217	2,593	803	4,439,674	803	710,239	30	39

(iii) *Districts served.*—The importance of Constantinople as a port of call for ships engaged in the Black Sea trade has already been emphasized. Moreover, most of the imports and exports of Thrace, the Marmora basin, and the interior of Asia Minor pass through the port of Constantinople, where they are either discharged or shipped. Strictly speaking, however, Constantinople's relation to these regions is rather that of a distributing centre than that of a port. It is true that many consignments arrive at Haidar Pasha for immediate trans-shipment to the Anatolian Railway, but most goods arriving at Constantinople are consigned to firms there, and are forwarded, whether to other parts of Turkey or to foreign countries, only after sale—sometimes repeated sale—in the local market.

(iv) *Adequacy to economic needs: possibilities of development.*—It has already been pointed out that the ports and roadsteads at and near Constantinople are in many respects inadequate. There is reason to believe that shortly before the war the Oriental Railway contemplated the construction of a new port on the Marmora side of Stambul, where the railway runs very near the sea. Nothing definite had been decided when war broke out, but since then, it appears, various schemes have been drafted. The port, as generally conceived, would extend from Kum Kapu to Yedi Kule, and would be protected by a breakwater or series of breakwaters enclosing the Bay of Psamatia. There are no serious physical obstacles. The waters near the shore are not affected by the main current down the Bosphorus. The bottom shelves gradually. The harbour would be exposed only to south and south-west winds, which seldom blow with great force.

The accomplishment of this project would be of immense advantage to the railway. At present it

TABLE IV
PRINCIPAL STEAMSHIP LINES SAILING TO OR CALLING AT CONSTANTINOPLE (1913)

<i>Nationality and name of line.</i>	<i>Loading port.</i>	<i>Frequency of service.</i>	<i>Outward ports of call.</i>
<i>British:</i> Ellerman Line	Liverpool	Weekly	Gibraltar, Malta, Corfu, Patras, Syra, Smyrna, Constantinople, and Black Sea ports.
Papayanni Line	Liverpool	Weekly	Gibraltar, Malta, Corfu, Patras, Syra, Smyrna, Constantinople, and Black Sea ports.
Westcott & Laurance Line	London	Fortnightly	Constantinople.
Wilson Line	Hull	Fortnightly	Constantinople and Russian Black Sea ports.
Cunard Line	Liverpool	Weekly	Mediterranean ports, Constantinople, and Black Sea ports.
Moss Line	Liverpool	Weekly	Mediterranean ports, Constantinople, and Black Sea ports.
Maclay & McIntyre Khedivial Mail Steamship Co.	Glasgow Alexandria	Monthly Weekly (mail and passenger service)	Constantinople and Russian Black Sea ports. Constantinople.
Khedivial Mail Steamship Co.	Alexandria	Fortnightly (cargo service)	Beirut, Asia Minor ports, Constantinople.
<i>Austro-Hungarian:</i> Austrian Lloyd Steam Navigation Company	Trieste	Frequently, almost daily	Constantinople and Black Sea ports.

<i>French :</i> Messageries Maritimes Messageries Maritimes	Marseilles London	Weekly Fortnightly	Constantinople, Marseilles, Constantinople, and Turkish Black Sea ports.
	Marseilles Marseilles	Fortnightly Weekly	Constantinople and Black Sea ports. Constantinople, Samsun, Trebizond, Batum, and Novorossisk.
<i>German :</i> Norddeutscher Lloyd Deutsche Levante Linie	Marseilles Hamburg	Weekly Weekly	Constantinople and Black Sea ports.
	Bremen	Fortnightly	" " " "
	Antwerp	Every ten days	" " " "
	Newcastle	Monthly	" " " "
	Swansea Hamburg	Once or twice a month Fortnightly	" " " "
<i>Italian :</i> Società Nazionale di Servizi Marittimi	Naples Venice	Twice weekly Twice weekly	Constantinople and Black Sea ports.
	Constanza	Frequently, almost daily	" " " " Constantinople, Piraeus, Alexandria.
<i>Rumanian :</i> Rumanian State Maritime Service	Odessa	Several times weekly	Constantinople, Aegean Islands, Mediter- ranean ports of Asia Minor, Alexandria, &c.
	Odessa	Twice monthly	Constantinople, Port Said, Red Sea ports, and the Far East.
<i>Russian :</i> Russian Steam Navigation and Trad- ing Company Russian Volunteer Fleet Association	Odessa	Twice monthly	Constantinople, Port Said, Red Sea ports, and the Far East.
	Odessa	Twice monthly	Constantinople, Port Said, Red Sea ports, and the Far East.

suffers from lack of space both at its terminus and at Yedi Kule, where its works are situated. Moreover, the trans-shipment of goods from the terminus to Haidar Pasha is difficult, currents making the passage dangerous. These disadvantages would be obviated by the new port. Extensive sidings and quays could be constructed at Kum Kapu ; the distance from thence to Haidar Pasha would be no greater than it is from the terminus, and the crossing would be much easier. The scheme will certainly be pushed by the Germans and Austrians, as the traffic of the Oriental Railway consists mainly of their goods.

(b) *Shipping Lines*

In Table IV is given a list of the principal shipping lines normally sailing to or calling at Constantinople.

Apart from the Rumanian State Service, which is mainly for mails and passengers sailing in connexion with the Constanza Orient Express, the most important line is the Deutsche Levante Linie, which has made great progress in recent years. Its steamers are willing to call at any small port or roadstead for cargo, and although advertised to sail at fixed times, they will always wait beyond the stated time rather than miss cargo. The line also undertakes, at through rates, the trans-shipment at Antwerp, Rotterdam, or Hamburg of cargo for the United Kingdom. Shipment by this line has consequently become very popular. The Austrian Lloyd, though granting facilities for cargo, is chiefly concerned with mail and passenger traffic.

Of the British lines, the Khedivial Mail Steamship Co., which is really an Egyptian concern, is prosperous and energetic. The other British companies have held their own fairly well, but their services are the same as they were twenty years ago, they work on hard-and-fast methods, and apparently make no effort to

accommodate themselves to local conditions or to secure the traffic of the smaller ports. One explanation of this want of enterprise is that, being entirely private concerns, they cannot afford to run risks which subsidized companies are willing to face.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) AGRICULTURE

(a) *Products*

Thrace consists of a series of plateaux descending gradually from the Istranja Mountains in the north-east to the Aegean and the Sea of Marmora. It may be roughly divided into two parts by a line from Constantinople to Adrianople.

In the north-eastern part the population is sparse, and large tracts of land are uncultivated and bare. This is partly due to the wars of 1877 and 1912, and partly to the wasteful cutting of the scanty timber. At best, however, this region, which is furrowed by innumerable streams, is more fitted for pasture than for cultivation, and in normal times sent many cattle, sheep, and goats to the Constantinople market. Much of the country is covered with oak scrub, which the villagers cut every ten or twelve years in the most thoughtless way for the purpose of making charcoal. Most of this goes to Constantinople, where charcoal made from oak commands a ready sale.

Near Adrianople, however, the land is suitable for agriculture and fairly well cultivated. Certain other districts are naturally fertile, especially round Kirk Kilisse, Vize, and Serai. Considerable quantities of grain could be grown in these parts, but as a rule only sufficient for local needs is produced, transport being difficult and brigandage prevalent. In these places,

where the inhabitants were mostly Christian, a good deal of wine was produced. Much of this was exported, some of it going to France for 'coupage'.

Before the Balkan Wars, the south-western half of Thrace was much the more prosperous. The soil is generally better than in the north-east, and except in the hills it is free from scrub. In the Keshan, Malgara, and Rodosto districts, it is particularly fertile. The chief products are wheat, barley, maize (especially along the Ergene and Maritza rivers), rye, oats, canary and other seeds. The methods of cultivation, though generally antiquated and wasteful, are somewhat less primitive than those followed in other parts of Turkey. One cause of this is that certain districts and villages, although Vakuf property (see below, p. 93), were under the Civil List or the Mother Sultana. The cultivators of such property were well protected and encouraged to use modern implements. The country was comparatively peaceful, and there are several good roads to the sea. Surplus produce was consequently sent to Rodosto, Gallipoli, or other ports, whence it was exported. In normal times Rodosto exported to Constantinople and western Europe grain to the value of £320,000 a year, besides other agricultural commodities such as seeds, beans, and onions.

Unfortunately, south-west Thrace suffered badly during the Balkan Wars, being overrun alternately by the Bulgarians and the Turks. Since then the Christian inhabitants, who were numerous and enterprising, have been subjected to further oppression; and it is feared that few of them are left to-day. Even under favourable conditions, it will take years for this region to recover its prosperity.

In the vilayet of Constantinople a certain amount of wheat and barley is grown near the Sea of Marmora and the European shore of the Bosphorus. There are

a few vineyards, and in the suburbs of Constantinople many market gardens.

On the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus the soil is very fertile, especially in the valleys, but much of it is rendered unproductive by the careless cutting of trees and the uprooting of shrubs for fuel. The villagers grow barley, rye, oats, sesame, linseed, and chick-peas, and along the Marmora coast, olives, walnut-trees, fruit-trees, and vines. Almost the whole of the produce is consumed locally.

Formerly the entire coast from Scutari to Gebze was covered with vineyards, but within the last twenty-five years these have been almost totally ruined by the phylloxera. Some years after the appearance of the disease, the Council of the Ottoman Public Debt, which administered the revenues from wines and spirits, began a systematic attempt to stem the evil. Model vineyards were started at Erenkeui, and American vines were distributed to the peasants. Generally, however, the expense of replanting is more than the peasant can afford. A certain amount of land near villages has been replanted with vines, and the Government has consented to remit several years' taxation on such land. Application for this benefit, however, has to be made by the cultivator, who is apt to be discouraged by the dilatory methods of Turkish Government departments. Grain is now largely grown in place of the vines.

(b) *Irrigation*

There is no irrigation except in the market gardens round the capital. The water for this is drawn from wells.

(c) *Forestry*

There is a Ministry of Agriculture, Mines, and Forestry. At Buyuk Halkali, near Kuchuk Chekmeje,

there was a school of forestry, established by the State, but this was said to be conducted mainly for the benefit of those in charge of it. It is not known whether it still exists.

In north-east Thrace the forests mostly consist of small and ill-grown trees. The south-west, though on the whole less thickly wooded, has pine forests of some value on the Tefkur Dagh and Kuru Dagh. In the vilayet of Constantinople there are extensive forests, and these are carefully preserved, mainly because they contain the reservoirs or 'bends', one of the chief sources of the water-supply. On the Asiatic side, however, much unauthorized cutting takes place.

(d) *Methods of Cultivation*

These are in general most primitive. Ploughing is commonly done with the one-handed plough used in Biblical times. The ground is not deeply ploughed or dug, and manure is used only in some of the villages inhabited by *Muhajirs* or immigrants from the lost provinces of Europe. Sowing and reaping are done by hand. The grain is threshed on floors in the open air by means of a large sledge studded with rough flints, which is dragged round and round over the corn. The wind is used for winnowing. The grain is very seldom screened, even when intended for sowing, the effect on succeeding crops being lamentable.

(e) *Land Tenure*

By a law of June 1867, all foreigners may individually possess land under the same conditions as Ottoman subjects, and on all questions touching real property they are amenable to Ottoman tribunals. No foreign corporation, however, may hold real property in its own name. The new law of 1913, extending the former laws, allows certain Turkish companies (legal persons)

to hold real property, but these are either recognized State institutions or Turkish Sociétés Anonymes existing under the sanction and approval of the Government, which have obtained special permission to acquire property; the property must, moreover, be situate within towns and villages. The same restriction exists as to the creation of mortgages in favour of Turkish Sociétés Anonymes.

There are in Turkish law five classes of real property which may be mentioned, viz. Mulk, Vakuf or Mevkufe, Mirie or Erâzi Emirie, Metruke and Mewat.

Mulk is land which is possessed freely and unreservedly by the owner, with actual and legal powers of disposition over it, as with a chattel.

Vakuf is land, the ownership of which belongs by right to an institution according to the statutes of the religious law and the deed of foundation (or gift), whilst the rights of use and disposal are in the hands of private persons. Of Vakuf lands, two main kinds are distinguishable—those which are devoted to such objects of public utility as mosques, schools, libraries, fountains, &c., and those which are a source of profit or income to the institutions from which they are leased.

Mirie is land owned by the State, the use and disposal of which, however, are in the hands of private persons.

Metruke and *Mewat* need nothing more than mention; the former is land which serves for general use (for example, public roads, places for prayer, pasture grounds, &c.); the latter is waste land, neither built upon nor cultivable (rocky hills, &c.).

The bulk of the land in Constantinople and the towns generally comes under one of the first two heads.

Until the promulgation of the laws of 1913, Vakuf property, especially in towns, was of little value as

an investment or from an economic point of view. The great disadvantages which marked its tenure and which rendered it entirely different from Mulk were, first, that it was charged with a *ghedik* or ground-rent, besides the Government dues, and, secondly, that only the children living at the time of the decease of the holder could inherit—no other heirs were recognized. In Mulk an unlimited class of persons could inherit. In recent years, however, against increased payment of the *ghedik* or a form of commutation, the class of persons entitled to inherit Vakuf had been slightly increased.

Great importance is paid to the registration of sales of property and of the succession of heirs, as such registration before the proper authority (the Land Department) constitutes the formal evidence of title. Nevertheless, on account of the elaborate laws of succession, property sometimes becomes involved in bewildering complications of title; for, although its acquisition and the registration of ownership is a simple matter, yet it is sometimes almost impossible to negotiate a sale or transfer, owing to the refusal of consent on the part of the owners of some undivided shares, or even to the impossibility of ascertaining all the interests concerned.

Mirie lands, the property of the State, are, generally speaking, agricultural or pastoral lands lying outside the towns, and may be divided into three classes: (1) Land, usually adjacent to cities or towns, which has lost its original character of village-land, but is still under cultivation, and is not allowed to be converted to modern industrial or building purposes except by imperial licence. Such 'unconverted' land, which is bought and sold by the *deunum* (1,100 square yards) for trifling sums, often lies contiguous to 'converted' land selling by the *arshin* (30 square inches)

at fifty times the value; and the spectacle is thus presented of overcrowded and insanitary suburbs lying side by side with open fields devoid of habitation and put to no profitable use. This is especially the case outside Constantinople, although the advantages of 'conversion' of such land is clearly evidenced by the prosperity of the suburban area on the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus, which the Anatolian Railway Company 'converted' under the terms of its concession.

(2) Lands known as *Tchiftliks*, which may be described generally as farms. These are lands granted by the State to individuals and held by them as private property under *tapou* (title of grant from the State). Such lands may have originally been feudal lands or village lands, in either case recovered by the State and now re-granted. The existing owners, especially in Thrace and the vilayet of Constantinople, often farm out such land on the *métayer* system, but this method of tenure leads to every kind of friction between the owner and tenant. Indeed it is hardly possible to imagine worse tenurial conditions than under the *tchiftlik* system as in force in Turkey, where the owners exploit the tenants and are tricked by them in return, and where absentee landlordism is generally the rule, owing either to the poverty of the owners or to the universal brigandage, which makes their capital insecure. It has also to be remembered that the Government services draw largely upon the landed class, and owners are consequently compelled to live in the capital, or, if in the army, away from their estates.

(3) The lands of the village communities. The village land within certain ordinarily well-defined boundaries is called the *Mera*, or common property of the village, over which each villager has equal rights of fuel, water, pasturage, and cultivation of waste. The land of a village community usually comprises (a) the village itself, where each villager on

building his house takes out a title-deed registering his ownership ; (b) the cultivated land which a villager or his forefathers have taken up out of the common land and cultivated. For this also registration can be obtained, carrying with it right of inheritance, &c. ; but, if such land is left fallow for more than three years, others can take it up ; (c) *Tchai* or meadow, through which water flows, and over which the community has rights of pasture. This cannot be cultivated or appropriated, though the village mosque sometimes has rights over the produce ; (d) the woodland, which is also common property, except where parts have been planted by villagers ; (e) the grazing land, which is the balance of the common land. Sometimes several villages have pasturage in common.

The system of common lands in Turkey; although possessing some advantages, e. g. co-operative protection against brigandage, is nevertheless cumbersome and inconvenient, and, considering the indolent nature and habits of the peasantry, must be pronounced economically bad.

Early in the year 1913 the Young Turks prepared six provisional laws dealing with real property, which were consolidated and promulgated under date April 13, 1913 ; but these enactments were not submitted to, or ratified by, the Turkish Parliament, and as far as is known up to December 1916, they were still only provisional. The objects of the enactments were undoubtedly to facilitate the registration of ownership and enjoyment, to extend the class of persons entitled to inherit, and to provide means for the mortgage of property with a view to the economic development of the country, so that real property could be effectively used as a security for the raising of money and for commercial purposes.

These new laws, although purporting to effect several

serious and radical reforms connected with real property, are vague and unworkable as regards several of the most important points, such, for instance, as mortgages. They might be said to have been issued tentatively by the extremists of the Young Turkish party, in order to test the feeling of the religious section of the population, as some of the conditions of the new laws tend to destroy certain rights of the Ministry of Pious Foundations, at the same time doing away with the jurisdiction of the Religious Courts, and favouring the civil jurisdiction. It was not known what opposition the changes would raise, and for this reason the laws were not submitted to Parliament. As a consequence, they were only partially in operation during the interval preceding Turkey's entry into the war.

(2) FISHERIES

The revenues arising from the issue of licences for fishing, the letting of fisheries, and the tax on all fish caught, are collected by the Council of the Ottoman Public Debt. The sums derived from Constantinople and neighbourhood are administered by the Council, but those derived from other parts of the Empire are applied to the charges on a loan made in 1888 by the Deutsche Bank.

Few fisheries exist in Thrace or in the vilayet of Constantinople. There are fisheries at the lakes of Buyuk Chekmeje and Kuchuk Chekmeje; these are let to Cossacks, who originally came from the Volga, and who are expert fishermen. The catch is mostly freshwater fish, but in the short rivers leading from the lakes to the sea quantities of grey mullet are taken, especially in the spawning season. These are sold in Constantinople, dried or fresh, according to the time of year. Red caviare is made from their spawn.

Of fish which migrate from the Black Sea to the Sea of Marmora through the Bosphorus, the most common are tunny, sword-fish, bass, rock turbot, and red and grey mullet. In the winter large shoals of *scombri*, small mackerel, and of *palamut*, large horse mackerel, generally appear, but there are years when none of these are caught. Fishing on a large scale is carried on at the north end of the Bosphorus and all round the Sea of Marmora. The apparatus used is called *taliani*, and consists of a long net leading from the shore to a trap or bag, into which the shoals following the coast are diverted. The principal fish thus taken are *scombri* and *palamut*; in winter these are exported fresh, but in spring the former are dried and the latter pickled before export. Sardines are plentiful in some seasons, and are generally sold fresh.

In 1910-11 dried, salted, or pickled fish to the value of £122,000 was exported from Constantinople, mainly to Bulgaria, Rumania, and Greece. There is no canning industry.

(3) MINING

(a) *Mining Laws*

Mines and quarries are treated separately under Turkish law. All matters, however, relating to such undertakings are within the competence of the Ministry of Agriculture, Mines, and Forests at Constantinople. There is a department of this Ministry in each vilayet.

The most recent mining law is dated March 26, 1906. It applies equally to Ottoman subjects and to foreigners. The revision of the old mining law was in great measure due to the late Sir Nicholas O'Connor, His Majesty's Ambassador to the Porte, who insisted on certain reforms as one of the conditions of the

consent of His Majesty's Government to the increase of the customs from 8 per cent. to 11 per cent.

The law makes a distinction between mines and minerals, defining mines as underground deposits, and minerals as metals or materials which appear in an irregular manner on the surface, such as iron ore, pyritic earth, scoriae, peat, &c. The adoption of certain scientific methods of working is insisted on in the case of mines, but otherwise the two classes are treated alike.

These mines or minerals can only be possessed and worked regularly by virtue of an imperial firman of concession. The concession is transferable by sale, cession, or inheritance, and the term is from 40 to 99 years. The law precludes the holding of mines by foreign companies, but this restriction can easily be circumvented.

For the purpose of prospecting, a permit is necessary. Any person discovering a mine can make a formal application to the local department of the Ministry of Mines. The application is registered, and, if no objection is raised, a permit is granted in due course. The permit fixes the extent of the district within which it is valid, and the nature of the mine or metal sought for. It is transferable by sale, cession, or inheritance, but the formal transfer must be made through the Ministry of Mines. Under a prospecting permit, a mine may be developed and worked, and samples exported of a limited quantity of its produce.

The grant of a prospecting permit should be followed within the year by an application for the concession of the mine under imperial firman. The application is registered, and an announcement is made in the official gazette or local paper giving particulars of the concession sought. If no objection is raised, the application is granted within six months by the Ministry of

Mines, and referred to the Council of State, and the Council of Ministers should issue the imperial firman within twelve months.

The holder of the concession must work the mine according to the methods of scientific mining engineering, and must appoint a responsible representative with whom the Ministry of Mines can communicate. Work must be begun within two years from the date of the firman, otherwise the Ministry may give notice that unless work is begun within six months the concession may be cancelled.

Two kinds of taxes are levied. One (*redevance fixe*) is a fixed tax on the surface area of the concession at the rate of 10 piastres (1s. 8d.) yearly for each *djereb* (10,000 square metres). The second (*redevance proportionnelle*) is a royalty on the material extracted. It varies from 1 per cent. to 5 per cent. on materials worked from shafts and galleries and found in veins, and from 10 per cent. to 20 per cent. on other materials. In assessing the tax, the cost of working and of transport abroad is deducted from the value of the output. If the concession is on private or 'Vakuf' property, 80 per cent. of the royalty goes to the owner or the 'Vakuf'.

The law works fairly well, and, once a concession is obtained, little trouble is encountered. Before 1906 the issue of the firman was often long delayed on various pretexts, but under the present law the representatives of foreign Governments are able, after a certain term, to press the Ottoman Government for the grant of the concession.

Quarries.—In order to work a quarry, it is necessary to obtain a prospecting permit, as in the case of a mine. The permit, however, gives full powers to develop the quarry, and no concession by imperial firman is necessary. Permits for quarries run for a period not exceeding 25 years.

(b) Mineral Output

In the vilayet of Constantinople there are no mines which are worked. A promising copper mine, belonging to a British subject, existed near Rumeli Kavak on the European side of the Bosphorus, but owing to the construction of fortifications close by, it was shut down.

There is a lignite mine just outside the north-west corner of the vilayet at Kara Burnu, near the Lake of Derkos. This mine has only been worked since the outbreak of war. Its produce is brought down to Constantinople by a light tram line, which for some distance follows the Valley of the Sweet Waters. Its output is of inferior quality, and has to be mixed with other coal, if used for other purposes than domestic heating. In August 1917 it was producing 70–80 tons a day, all sold in Constantinople.

At Keshan in Thrace there are lignite seams which yield steam coal of excellent quality. Its calorific power is stated to be only slightly inferior to that of Bebside (Newcastle) coal, and it burns no more quickly and creates little more smoke. The concession belongs to an Englishman, but before the war little work was done, the output being sold to local mills. During the war, however, the output has risen to 80 tons a day, with the prospect of a further increase; and a narrow-gauge railway is being built from Pavlo Keui, on the Oriental Railway, to Keshan, most probably with a view to exploiting this coal deposit.

Lignite mines also exist near Rodosto, on the Sea of Marmora. These were not worked before the war, but it appears that they are now being exploited. The output is shipped to Constantinople. The coal resembles that found at Keshan.

In the region between Ganos and Sharkeui, on the

Sea of Marmora, there are several naphtha beds for which concessions or permits of exploration have been granted. The productive area is said to be about 15 miles long and 3 miles broad. At one place, near Sharkeui, a boring $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. in diameter and 300 ft. in depth gave about 2 tons in 24 hours. The naphtha yielded 10 per cent. of paraffin.

No detailed statistics are published which distinguish between the Thracian mines and those of the whole Turkish Empire.

(4) OTHER INDUSTRIES

Apart from agriculture and mining, there are few industries worth mentioning. A certain amount of wheat is milled at Constantinople, but nearly all flour of the better class is imported.

The Régie Ottomane des Tabacs de l'Empire Ottoman has its head-quarters at Constantinople, where it possesses several large depots and factories for the manipulation of tobacco and the making of cigarettes.

There is a cotton-spinning mill at Constantinople and another at Gallipoli. That at Constantinople is owned by the Société Anonyme Ottomane de Fabrication de Fils et d'Étoffes en Coton et en Laine, which exists under an imperial firman of concession. This company spins yarns, which are mostly sold locally for re-sale in the interior, though some are sent direct to Asia Minor and Bulgaria. The company was originally formed by a combine of Manchester and local merchants. It is still under the control of British shareholders, though the Manchester group retain only a small interest in it.

Near Constantinople there are two cement factories, both of which were working successfully at the outbreak of war.

There is in the capital an American-British combine

dealing in light skins and sheep guts. The pelts are dressed and pickled, and then exported to the United States.

In Constantinople there are many small craftsmen who make boots, saddlery, brass and copper ware, and other articles sold in the bazaars for local consumption.

Electricity was scarcely used in Turkey during the reign of Abdul Hamid, who, it is said, thought that dynamo and dynamite were identical. Private installations for electric lighting were not unknown in Constantinople during the latter years of his rule, but it was impossible to secure any concession for producing electricity for public use. After the revolution of 1908, however, the Constantinople tramways were bought up by a German combination, called the Union Ottomane, Société pour Entreprises Électriques en Orient, domiciled at Zürich and working through the Deutsche Orient Bank. This combination, which is somewhat similar in character, and probably in composition, to the Banque des Chemins de fer Orientaux, obtained authority to construct many new lines, to run trams over the new bridge between Galata and Stambul,¹ and to work the system by electricity. Subsequently they secured concessions to supply the whole of Constantinople with electric light and power, though it was not till the spring of 1914 that their efforts were finally successful. The total value of these various concessions is of course very great.²

¹ This bridge was constructed by a German group. It was paid for by a loan obtained by the Prefecture of the city from the National Bank of Turkey, an Anglo-Turkish concern. This loan was secured on the bridge tolls.

² The combination was formed in July 1909, with a capital of 12,000,000 francs. The president, vice-president, and principal directors are those of the Banque des Chemins de fer Orientaux.

(5) WATER-POWER

Where streams exist, water-power is used by millers, but their methods are crude. In most cases the supply of water is irregular, and many mills can work only in autumn and winter.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) DOMESTIC

(a) Principal Branches of Trade

Constantinople cannot be called a great commercial city. It is to be noted that the majority of the population live at the expense of the Government, being either employees of the civil, military, or naval authorities, or members of one of the numerous *Medresse* or theological schools, or dependants of the mosques.

There are very few Mussulman merchants of any importance, and these are generally dependent on the services of native Greeks or Armenians for the conduct of their business. There are, of course, a certain number of Mussulman shopkeepers and retailers, mainly in the Stambul bazaars.

The business of the city consists of two main branches: (1) Dealing in and distributing foreign manufactured goods; (2) Collecting and dealing in goods, mostly raw material, for export to foreign markets.

(1) The trade in manufactured foreign goods is mostly in the hands of Greeks, Armenians, and Jews, either native or under foreign protection. These effect their purchases in foreign markets either directly, or through agents or commercial travellers, or (especially in the case of Manchester and Bradford goods) through their own houses in England. The goods are sold to merchants who come from Thrace, Asia Minor, and

the coasts of the Sea of Marmora, and buy either on sample or from stock. It is, however, advisable for the Constantinople merchant to have the season's goods ready for the buyers, whose purchases, being determined largely by the nature of the harvest in their own districts, are commonly put off till the last moment. Punctual delivery of goods by foreign firms is therefore of the greatest importance.

In normal times most of the trade in British textiles is done through agents in England or through the English houses of native firms. On the other hand, firms in other countries rely principally on their agents and travellers in Constantinople itself. In other words, the Constantinople merchant has to go to the British market for his goods, whereas goods from other countries are brought to him. The consequence is that, although more textiles are imported from England than from any other country, a great deal of British trade has been captured by rival nations. The Calico Printers' Association of Manchester, however, which has branches in Turkey, has done good work in checking this process. British textiles bought on sample at Constantinople used, as a rule, to be consigned to that port and thence forwarded to the purchaser. Within the last few years, however, British steamship lines had resumed through sailings to Black Sea ports, and goods destined for districts served by these were commonly sent direct. German and French textiles bought on sample had for long been generally consigned to the purchaser, owing to the frequency of boats for the Black Sea and the facilities for trans-shipment to the Anatolian Railway afforded by ships of the Austrian Lloyd and the Deutsche Levante Linie, which called at Haidar Pasha quay.

Constantinople has an important trade in coal,

which is sold to ships calling at the port, to the Turkish Navy, and to the railways, as well as for private consumption. The supplying of ships with bunker coal was mostly in the hands of British firms till the outbreak of war. The coal sold at Constantinople came principally from the United Kingdom and the mines in the region of Heraclea, on the Black Sea coast of Asia Minor. In 1913 Constantinople obtained about 180,000 tons from Great Britain, and about 300,000 tons from Turkish coalfields.

(2) The collection of Turkish produce for export is largely done by foreign firms at Constantinople, but native Greeks, Armenians, and Jews have also a considerable share of this business. Purchases are generally made through agents in the towns of Asia Minor, but the goods bought are commonly sent to Constantinople, where they are often sold and re-sold several times before being exported to foreign countries. Certain goods, however, such as silk and canary seed, are usually shipped to western Europe from ports on the Asiatic and European coasts of the Sea of Marmora.

Of special importance is the trade in cereals, most of which come by the Anatolian Railway to Haidar Pasha, where there are two silos. The Marmora ports, however, also have a considerable export trade in these products. Other commodities in which much business is done are opium, which comes largely from Afion-Kara Hissar, and mohair, which comes from the Angora district.

The tobacco trade is in the hands of the Régie Ottomane des Tabacs de l'Empire Ottoman, which has its head-quarters at Constantinople. This company was formed in 1883 by the groups associated with the Imperial Ottoman Bank, the Oesterreichische Kreditanstalt, and the German banking firm of S. Bleichröder. The capital was £4,000,000, of which £1,600,000 was called

up. The company was granted the monopoly of dealing in tobacco in the Ottoman Empire for the term of thirty years, paying in return to the Ottoman Public Debt £T750,000 a year. In 1913-14 it obtained the renewal of its rights with certain extensions, and the annual payment was raised to £T800,000.

There is considerable traffic in Oriental carpets. At Hereke, on the Gulf of Ismid, there is a large Government school and factory where Turkey carpets are made, these being sold at Constantinople. Persian carpets are also bought in large quantities. These are consigned to the bonded warehouses of the Turkish Customs at Stambul, where they are inspected and bought by foreign dealers. Antique carpets—Turkey and Persian—are in great demand.

As for markets, there are no recognized Exchanges where merchants can meet to transact business, Abdul Hamid having regarded such institutions with suspicion. There is, however, the Financial Bourse at Galata, where dealings and operations in stocks and shares take place. Markets for the retail of goods for local consumption are numerous; the most noteworthy is the Grand Bazaar in Stambul.

(b) *Towns, Markets, Fairs*

Adrianople.—Adrianople, capital of the vilayet of that name, has always been an important military centre. The town is a market for the crops of the neighbourhood, but it is not of great commercial importance. Before the war the population, stated to be 110,000, was mostly Christian. It is impossible to estimate the present population, but in all probability it is mainly Mussulman.

Keshan.—The town is on the main road from Uzun Keupru to Gallipoli, and is an important centre of the

Turkish telegraph system. The district is very fertile and contains a valuable coalfield (see p. 111). An annual fair, which lasted a week, used to be held in the town at the end of August. The population before the war was 29,000, mostly Christians. During and after the Balkan Wars the inhabitants suffered greatly at the hands of both Bulgarians and Turks.

Silivri.—On the Sea of Marmora, between Rodosto and Constantinople. The road from Constantinople to Adrianople passes through the town. Silivri is a centre of the trade in cereals, and used to have a big September fair lasting a week. The population consisted chiefly of Greeks, but in June 1914 these were expelled at a few hours' notice, and deported to Kavalla.

Other towns are Rodosto (see p. 90), Chorlu, Lule Burgas, Hairobolu, Uzun Köprü, Malgara, and Gallipoli. In most of these places the majority of the inhabitants were Christian subjects of the Porte, but since 1912 the disturbance of the population has been such that it is doubtful if there are many Christians left in the whole of Thrace. Most of the Bulgarian inhabitants accompanied the Bulgarian armies when these withdrew in 1913; and the Christians that remained were freely robbed and massacred by the Turks, especially in the interior. The German staff at Constantinople, which was reorganizing the Turkish army, then asserted that the Greeks in Thrace were so many enemies and spies within the Turkish defences, and urged their forcible removal. Accordingly a systematic policy of expulsion was adopted, multitudes of Greeks being sent by sea to Salonika and Kavalla, and others emigrating by land through Bulgaria. The deportations were in full swing when war broke out in 1914. The economic results will be disastrous.

(c) Organizations to promote Trade and Commerce.

There are no purely Turkish organizations which promote trade and commerce. The so-called Turkish Chamber of Commerce has never done so, its functions up to 1908 being limited to the endorsement of certificates of origin and the certification of other documents, while it was sometimes used by the Government to play off against the foreign Chambers of Commerce when they recommended unacceptable measures. Since the revolution the Turkish Chamber has gradually become more important, having been requested to study certain commercial questions, such as the improvement of the accommodation and facilities of the port of Constantinople.

The principal foreign Chambers of Commerce were the British, Austrian, French, Greek, and Italian. There was also an international Chamber of Commerce, called the 'Union Permanente'. This was composed of two or three members of each of the foreign Chambers, with the addition of one or two delegates nominated by the several legations of the smaller Powers which had no Chamber of their own. The Germans also nominated their delegates. The Union Permanente dealt with questions affecting foreign subjects, and took up matters referred to it by individual Chambers or by the embassies. Its principal object was to secure uniformity of policy on subjects concerning foreign commerce in general.

(d) Foreign Firms and Companies

Owing to the system of Capitulations, there existed many purely foreign firms and companies carrying on business in Constantinople. These were under the jurisdiction of the nations to which they respectively

belonged. Lawsuits between firms of different nationalities were decided in the court of the defendant's nation; those between foreign firms and Turkish subjects by the Turkish Mixed Tribunals. By the abrogation of the Capitulations in September 1914, the privileges of foreign firms and companies were overridden. The 'Law concerning the residence of foreigners in Turkey' came into force in January 1916.

The chief shipping companies had regular agents at Constantinople, and were in a class by themselves. A number of foreign insurance companies had agencies or branch offices at Constantinople. Except in the marine insurance business, British companies were the most numerous. They had a high reputation, though this had suffered somewhat through the unscrupulous methods of certain small and untrustworthy firms, and latterly some of the better-known concerns had run their Constantinople business at a loss. In other spheres of business, there were numerous foreign firms, some of them being British companies, registered under the British Companies Acts, whose head-quarters were at Constantinople. The trade in coal was mainly in the hands of British firms. Among foreign merchants, British firms took the lead, J. W. Whittall & Co. being the most important mercantile house. Ihmsen & Co. were the chief German firm; other German firms in the export and import trade were not of much note, being mostly commission agents who did a small business with their own capital, a class which has greatly increased in late years. British trade, however, had been losing ground for some time in face of German competition. (For foreign banking houses, see below, p. 134.)

(e) Methods of Economic Penetration

The best example of economic penetration is afforded by the methods of Germany, especially during the last few years previous to the war.

In 1900 the exports of Germany to Turkey were £583,000; in 1911 they were £4,636,000. In 1900 the exports of the United Kingdom to Turkey were £7,364,900; in 1911 they were £9,000,000. The British share of the import trade of Turkey had thus fallen from 35 per cent. to 22½ per cent. The British figures for 1911 were, moreover, exceptionally high; they fell again in 1912 and 1913 by over a million.

The capture of commerce by the Germans in the Near East was due to their own activity on the one hand and British inactivity on the other. On the one side there was a thorough and continuous effort to capture the Turkish import trade, which was backed by German diplomatic and consular influence, and furthered by the offer of commercial facilities and financial assistance. To these must be added the careful conduct of the German merchant, and his capacity to meet the wishes of the client in regard to the quality of the goods and the form best suited to the necessities of the country and customer. On the other side we have to note the absence of diplomatic and consular influence as well as of commercial and financial aid, while the somewhat crude methods of English commerce and the generally careless, 'take-it-or-leave-it' style of the British merchant, together with his reluctance to study the nature of the article wanted, the requirements of the country and the wants of the customer, placed him at a further disadvantage.

When the German Emperor and his advisers determined to capture the country, they meant to capture

it commercially as well as politically. The Kaiser's diplomatists directed the Foreign Office in Berlin on commercial matters, and had the Deutsche Bank at their beck and call. The Deutsche Bank was barely second to the German Embassy. Each worked with the other, and all worked together with Berlin. Immediately the order went forth, the Deutsche Bank began its work in Turkey, at first through the medium of the Anatolian Railway Company and subsequently as a separate establishment. It was soon followed by other German and controlled banks, such as the Deutsche Orient Bank, which was opened in January 1906. The Deutsche Bank in Turkey, both before and after its establishment as a separate concern, was continually receiving visits from its Berlin managers, amongst them Dr. K. Helfferich and A. von Gwinner; and the German Ambassador, with the whole German diplomatic staff in Constantinople, was there to carry out the bank's policy. The Deutsche Bank, when finally established at Constantinople as a bank in 1906, was a complete institution perfectly organized. It got hold of every specialist and expert it thought might be useful for the furtherance of big railway, dock, drainage, mining and other schemes. This was Germany's method of peaceful penetration. *Haute finance* made full use of the Embassy. Its projects, whether they had a purely political or a quasi-political object in view, were initiated, elaborated and put into operation, subject only to the approval of the authorities in Berlin.

So much for the *haute politique* and *haute finance* of Germany's enterprises in Turkey. The Deutsche Bank, through the Embassy and its consulates, did its best to develop trade and commerce; and the consular service was actively employed in the national interest. The Vice-Consul and even the Consul-General were not above

paying personal visits to the smallest firm or the humblest person of any nationality to glean information, and to find out all about trade and everything connected with it. They collated the reports of the Chambers of Commerce and the British blue books, and established at the Deutsche Bank in Berlin a sample room and a library, where German merchants could ascertain all that was to be known about the products of the country and its requirements.

Successful business concerns carried on by subjects of other nationalities in the Near East were marked down by the Consuls, and their methods inquired into. If the Consuls could not get the information wanted, they approached one of the German or German-controlled banks, and with their assistance the system adopted by the concern in question was soon found out. To attain this object, the banks would approach such businesses, offering high interest on accounts current, facilities for overdrawing, and other financial advantages. The acceptance or even provisional entertainment of such offers enabled the bank to make a careful study of the resources of their clients, their manner of business, the character of their customers, in short the whole inside of their affairs, with the result that one day either a German competitor would appear on the market under the auspices of the bank, or German participation in the concern would be suggested. If this were accepted, then in a short time the principals would be bought out, or the firm would be compelled to come to some arrangement with the German competitor, as otherwise a cut-throat competition would ensue, which, in the circumstances, would probably entail ruin.

Several times a year the German Government promoted excursions of German exporters and importers, and invited merchants to take advantage of them.

Enterprising merchants visited Turkey in hundreds by special trains at special rates. They were well looked after and taken round the country, each group being conducted by appropriate agents, and the requirements of the country and the kinds of article required were explained to them. They were introduced to native merchants, and generally given every facility for finding out what would sell and the special requirements of local markets; and, when they left, each visitor had acquired valuable knowledge about the conditions of his special trade. They were pleased, above all, because they knew that the German Government, with its whole machinery, including the banks, was behind them. As a result, they did better business on their return; they talked about it, and their countrymen followed them.

The Deutsche Bank and its connexions, and, for the matter of that, other German banks, may be compared to a big cobweb, of which the centre is in Germany, with immense threads stretching out all over the world with criss-cross network. If a merchant wished to do business, the bank would find him an agent in the country. The agent would, of course, be some one, probably a German or Austrian, recommended by the local branch, and, if he were a native agent, he would be promised the bank's financial support if he would bring over his clientèle or portfolio of customers to the German merchant and throw over his British houses. The parties, that is, merchant and customer, would soon be in communication through the agent. Or, again, if the German merchant wished to be financed, that would be easy. The bank's idea of the merchant's dealing with the customer would be so much against the invoice and bill of lading, so much by a three months' bill, and the balance in a six months' bill, or some such term, perhaps of longer date. The

bank would even offer to take charge of the whole matter from first to last, and, if the merchant desired, they would finance him up to 70 per cent. or 80 per cent. of the amount, against the bank's receiving the bills of lading or other securities.

If the German merchant were the creditor pure and simple, the local buyer might give trouble ; he would in all likelihood pay the amount of cash against the bills of lading of the goods, in order to get possession of them, but he might refuse to meet the first bill or the second on the ground that the goods were not up to sample, or on one of the thousand and one pretexts open to a debtor, when his creditor is many hundred miles away in another country. But, once the transaction got into the hands of the bank, a powerful bank on the spot, the debtor would need a very good excuse to refuse to honour his bill of exchange on presentation for payment by the bank. If his claim were genuine, it would be attended to by the bank with firmness and justice to all parties : otherwise he would incur the risk of a lawsuit, with all the influence of the bank, Embassy, and Consulate against him, and would be faced with the cutting-off of his credit, and the impossibility of doing trade with Germany or even with other countries, as he would be placed on the black list of all the banks. The customer could, however, in most circumstances, if he really required it, obtain a renewal of one or more of his bills, but in return he would have to give further orders or make other concessions. Meanwhile the manufacturer would get his money and set out to secure further orders and to provide further merchandise for the customer, perhaps with the encouragement of the bank, but always under its advice and protection, and with the aid of its agent.

It is not necessary to draw comparisons between this system and that of British banks. The nearest

approach to the German system is that, when the British merchant gives credit to oversea customers, he sends the drafts or bills of exchange for acceptance or presentation through his own bank, say, at Bradford, which hands them to some other institution in London, which in turn hands them to the agency of a foreign bank, and later they are presented. If the bills are paid, well and good; otherwise they are probably referred for instructions, or they are protested and returned to England, and weeks or months are lost over disputes, probably ending with a lawsuit, in which the manufacturer is at a great disadvantage. In such a case, the merchant, hundreds of miles distant from his customer, is to a great extent dependent on his agent. The bank's action is a pure banking action, a mechanical form; and, although it may not suit the customer to have his bills protested, yet he will put forward a sufficient excuse at the time of 'protest' in order to cover himself as against the bank, and the bank has no further interest in the matter. The agent, too, may not be quite straightforward; and there is no bank to control him as a German bank controls agents recommended by itself.

The Germans have also applied their characteristic methods to the export trade from Turkey. A merchant in Turkey wants to export his goods to Germany, America, or elsewhere. He applies to the German bank on the spot. Inquiries are made in Berlin respecting the article, the most likely market, &c.; and a customer is soon found, or the articles are forwarded 'on commission' or 'on consignment' to the bank or some agent of the bank, generally a German. The bank offers, against shipment and the bills of lading, to advance so much per cent. on the goods and takes charge of the affair; the merchant has the best part of his outlay back, and so matters progress. In such

a transaction the position is one of mutual profit, with security and confidence for the native or local merchant, as well as for the German or other foreign merchant. The bank has the matter under control, not only the security of the financial part, but the many questions that arise before the final closing of the whole transaction—freight, insurance, question of short delivery, brokerage, samples, storage, &c.

The difference between the success achieved by projects supported by the German commercial organization, and that achieved by schemes with only private support, is enormous. German influence, political and other, has been able to obtain concessions for railways, for the construction of harbours, docks, drainage systems, bridges, quays, mines, tramways, gas and electricity works, and has facilitated the raising of loans for these purposes. The exploitation of the concessions confers benefits on the country concerned, by bringing in capital and employing labour; while home industry profits largely, for the materials are mostly brought from Germany in German bottoms, and with them come German skilled workmen and others who require supplies from Germany. Trade inevitably follows. Such is the German system of economic penetration, not only in Turkey, but throughout the world.

(2) FOREIGN

(a) Exports and Imports

In regard to the annexed tables of statistics, certain considerations must be borne in mind.

In 1909 the Turkish Custom House administration underwent a radical change. The returns after that date were given in greater detail and were more accurate than those previously published. Complete returns, however, are only available for the year 1910-11. In 1911-12 Turkey was at war with Italy, and although statistics for that year were published in 1914, certain of the details which had been given for 1910-11 were omitted. No figures for 1912-13 have been published by the Turkish authorities.

In comparing Table V with Table VI and Table IX with Table X, it must be remembered that the Turkish financial year runs from March 1/14 to February 28/March 13. This partly accounts for the discrepancies in the figures. A further cause of these is the low state of Turkish official morality, many goods being clandestinely admitted without paying duty.

The figures in Tables VIII and XIII are largely vitiated by the inclusion of the returns for Haidar Pasha in a general total for the Marmora and Dardanelles ports and the Black Sea port of Zounguldak. By far the greater part of this total would be accounted for by the trade of Haidar Pasha. The figures for Erzerum and the Black Sea ports are given because nearly all the foreign trade of these places passes through the Bosphorus. In estimating the proportion borne by the trade of Constantinople to that of the whole Turkish Empire, it must be noted that the returns quoted refer to a time when the Empire included several provinces since lost.

A comparison of Tables V and IX shows that the

value of Turkey's imports greatly exceeds that of her exports. Even if the figures for tobacco be added to those of Table V, the fact remains that in 1910-11 the excess amounted to £15,000,000 and in 1911-12 to £12,000,000. In 1906 a British consular report drew attention to the adverse balance of trade, and gave statistics showing that since 1880 the total balance against Turkey was £210,000,000. It was then suggested that the Custom House returns were carelessly drawn up and the values of the exports under-estimated. Since 1909, however, the returns have been carefully prepared, and nevertheless show that the adverse balance is real and has increased. It is thought that the agricultural exports may still be undervalued by £2,500,000, and there is no doubt that the carpets exported to the United States fetch much higher prices than those indicated by the official Turkish figures. Turkish emigrants in America, it is also pointed out, send back considerable sums every year, and money is left in the country by tourists and pilgrims; but such sources of income must be relatively unimportant.

Military and railway material is largely paid for out of loans; but, as from 1881 to 1912 the nominal capital of the Turkish Public Debt increased by only £29,000,000, very little of the total excess of imports can have been met from such sources. When all is said, no adequate explanation has yet been found. It may, however, be noted that in 1880 the population of Constantinople and other large Turkish towns was very wealthy, and, as is usual in the East, their riches consisted principally in jewellery and precious stones. At present, however, the same population is very poor, and it is known that year by year they have to dispose of a great part of their valuables in order to live.

TABLE V.¹
EXPORTS FROM TURKEY (EUROPEAN AND ASIATIC)

(Compiled from the Turkish Customs House Returns)

Destination.	1900-1.		1905-6.		1908-9.		1910-11.		1911-12.	
	£	Per cent.	£	Per cent.	£	Per cent.	£	Per cent.	£	Per cent.
United Kingdom	5,025,800	38	5,608,800	32½	4,670,200	28	4,882,000	24	5,363,636	24½
France	3,933,400	29	4,262,600	24½	3,303,200	20	4,003,000	20	4,181,818	19
Austria-Hungary	1,329,200	10	1,893,800	11	2,252,500	13½	1,994,000	10	3,090,909	14
Germany	534,300	4½	1,087,800	6	1,045,400	6	1,190,000	6	1,363,637	6
Italy	440,600	3½	882,500	5	915,400	5½	1,344,000	6½	454,546	2½
Russia	412,900	3	526,200	3	522,600	3	828,000	4	818,181	3½
Other countries	1,530,400	12	3,168,300	18	4,053,400	24	5,831,000	29	6,630,000	30
Total.	13,206,600		17,430,000		16,762,700		20,072,000		21,902,727	

¹ Tobacco exports are not included in this table.

TABLE VI
EXPORTS FROM TURKEY (EUROPEAN AND ASIATIC)

(Compiled from the Trade Returns of each country)

<i>Country.</i>	<i>1907.</i>	<i>1908.</i>	<i>1909.</i>	<i>1910.</i>	<i>1911.</i>	<i>1912.</i>	<i>1913.</i>
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
United Kingdom	5,798,000	5,002,000	5,092,000	4,599,000	5,514,000	6,409,000	5,417,000
France	4,766,000	3,538,000	3,942,000	3,845,000	4,062,000	4,045,000	3,746,000
United States ¹	2,876,000	2,100,000	3,024,000	3,127,000	4,106,000	4,274,000	4,614,000
Germany	2,716,000	2,337,000 ²	2,817,000	3,317,000 ²	3,447,000	3,817,000	3,638,000
Italy	2,413,000	2,191,000	2,857,000	2,284,000	2,168,000	888,000	2,324,000
Austria-Hungary	1,745,000	1,718,000	1,829,000	2,166,000	2,513,000	3,049,000	2,820,000
Russia	762,000	787,000	931,000	1,144,000	1,080,000	1,711,000	1,946,000
Belgium	1,053,000	645,000	538,000	870,000	855,000	986,000	1,114,000
British India	383,000	449,000	378,000	424,000	417,000	380,000	385,000

¹ Turkish goods destined for the United States are seldom shipped direct, and for the most part, therefore, are classed by the Turkish Custom House authorities as exports to the countries to which they are first sent.

² It is impossible to account satisfactorily for the discrepancy between these figures and the corresponding ones in Table V, even if allowance be made for the fact that certain goods returned as going to Austria were really destined for Germany.

TABLE VII

PRINCIPAL TURKISH EXPORTS TO THE UNITED KINGDOM IN
1911-12 AS COMPARED WITH THE TOTAL EXPORTS

(Compiled from the Turkish Customs House Returns)

<i>Commodity.</i>	<i>Exports to United Kingdom.</i>		<i>Total exports.</i>	
	<i>Weight. Tons.</i>	<i>Value. £</i>	<i>Weight. Tons.</i>	<i>Value. £</i>
Barley	203,943	1,090,000	259,193	1,396,000
Beans, peas, &c.	14,018	97,000	50,965	355,000
Canary seed	3,363	39,000	10,030	113,000
Carpets	1,104	455,000	4,319	1,809,000
Emery	9,910	32,000	31,330	111,000
Figs	13,207	330,000	28,314	553,000
Hides, &c.	898	69,000	9,435	769,000
Lead ore	4,395	62,000	11,841	162,000
Mohair	4,138	563,000	4,383	595,000
Olive oil	1,025	44,000	10,963	487,000
Opium	183	412,000	306	692,000
Ores, other than lead	4,550	33,000	117,065	188,000
Raisins	12,621	643,000	40,700	1,740,000
Valonia	18,815	167,000	41,137	364,000
Wool	3,512	186,000	13,699	761,000

TABLE VIII

EXPORTS OF VARIOUS DISTRICTS

1910-11

(Compiled from Turkish Customs House Returns)

<i>Customs House.</i>	<i>Value of exports.</i>	
	£	£
Constantinople :		
Stambul and Galata	1,993,000	
Haidar Pasha, Marmora and Dardanelles ports, and Zounguldak	2,316,000	4,309,000
Trebizond	168,000	
Erzerum, Kerassund, Samsun, and Ineboli	1,486,000	1,654,000
Districts lost in the Italian and Balkan wars (excluding Porto Lagos and Aegean Islands)		2,638,000
Other districts (Smyrna, Alexandretta, Beyrut, Bagdad, &c.)		12,471,000
<i>Total</i>		20,072,000

According to the Turkish Customs Returns the exports from Constantinople and its dependencies in 1911-12 amounted to £5,909,000; those from Trebizond and its dependencies to £1,636,000. Exports from the whole Turkish Empire amounted to £21,902,727.

The figures for the districts since lost cannot be estimated with any approach to exactness.

There are no statistics showing the value of the several commodities exported through Constantinople and its dependencies. The chief of these are cereals (especially wheat and barley from Anatolia), canary seed and linseed, skins, mohair, opium, and boracite.

Tobacco Exports.—The export of tobacco is controlled by the Régie Ottomane des Tabacs, not by the Turkish Customs, whose returns do not include figures for this commodity.

In 1910-11 the exports of tobacco amounted to 61,495,571 kilogrammes of manufactured tobacco and cigarettes, and 24,758,196 kilogrammes of leaf tobacco, the total value being £2,584,090. Of the leaf tobacco upwards of 13,000,000 kilogrammes were exported from provinces or ports which Turkey has since lost, and, while exact figures are not available, it is estimated that more than half the manufactured tobacco came originally from the same districts. The principal purchasers of Turkish tobacco in that year were :

	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>
Austria-Hungary	16,531,541
Germany	13,789,771
France	12,470,801
United Kingdom	10,566,656
Egypt	5,914,917
America	5,770,556

It is, however, certain that more tobacco than is indicated by these figures eventually found its way to America, Turkish exports to the United States,

owing to the lack of direct steamship services, being generally shipped first to some other country, usually England.

In 1911-12 the export of tobacco greatly increased, reaching a value of £5,840,909. For this year, however, it is not possible to give the weight of the exports or their destinations.

Expanding branches of Export Trade.—Every branch of the export trade of Constantinople was expanding during the last few years before the war. The trade in cereals was growing with remarkable rapidity, owing to the Anatolian Railway. The railway was also bringing to Constantinople new and important classes of goods for export. Of these, eggs and skins deserve special mention. The narrow-gauge railway from Mundania, on the Sea of Marmora, to Broussa, has likewise greatly developed the trade of the district it serves. The line brings down silk, cereals, wool, carpets, opium, oil, and other goods, which mostly go to Constantinople before being exported. Similarly, the opening in 1912 of the railway from the Marmora port of Panderma to Soma has opened up districts rich in minerals, cereals, opium, and silk, most of which will be sent to the Constantinople market. (For further particulars of the regions traversed by these railways, see *Anatolia*, No. 59 of this series.)

According to the Turkish Customs Returns the imports of Constantinople and its dependencies in 1911-12 amounted to £15,363,000; those of Trebizond and its dependencies to £2,272,000. The imports of the whole Turkish Empire amounted to £39,880,000.

The figures for the districts since lost have been very incompletely published.

TABLE IX
IMPORTS INTO TURKEY (EUROPEAN AND ASIATIC¹)

(Compiled from the Turkish Customs House Returns)

<i>Country of origin.</i>	1900-1.	Per cent.	1905-6.	Per cent.	1908-9.	Per cent.	1910-11.	Per cent.	1911-12.	Per cent.
	£		£		£		£		£	
United Kingdom	7,365,000	35	9,739,000	35	8,557,000	30	7,709,000	20	9,000,000	22½
Austria ¹	3,993,000	19	5,773,000	21	3,705,000	13	6,957,000	17½	6,182,000	15½
France	2,448,000	11½	2,365,000	8	3,064,000	10	3,572,000	9½	3,545,000	9
Russia	1,846,000	9	1,613,000	6	2,267,000	8	2,543,000	6½	2,727,000	7
Italy	1,209,000	6	2,167,000	7	2,228,000	8	3,316,000	8½	2,182,000	5½
Germany ¹	583,000	2½	1,174,000	4½	1,760,000	6	3,542,000	9½	4,636,000	11½
Bulgaria							1,820,000	4½	1,272,000	3¼
British India							1,760,000	4½	—	—
Belgium	3,680,000	17	4,960,000	18½	6,993,000	25	1,518,000	4	1,818,000	4½
Egypt							1,058,000	2¾	—	—
United States							589,000	1½	1,090,000	2¾
Other countries:							4,303,000	11½	7,428,000	18½
<i>Total</i>	21,124,000		27,791,000		28,574,000		38,687,000		39,880,000	

¹ The returns for Germany and Austria are admittedly mixed, many German goods imported *via* Trieste being classed as Austrian. Imports of railway and war material from Germany are not included in this table.

² American goods destined for Turkey are generally sent through some other European country. It is consequently impossible to give an accurate estimate of the value of Turkey's imports from the United States of America. It is much higher than is indicated by the figures quoted.

TABLE X
IMPORTS INTO TURKEY (EUROPEAN AND ASIATIC)

(Compiled from the Trade Returns of each country)

<i>Country.</i>	<i>1907.</i>	<i>1908.</i>	<i>1909.</i>	<i>1910.</i>	<i>1911.</i>	<i>1912.</i>	<i>1913.</i>
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
United Kingdom:							
British Produce	7,494,000	6,949,000	7,564,000	8,570,000	9,396,000	8,040,000	7,705,000
Foreign & Colonial Produce	260,000	195,000	176,000	194,000	262,000	214,000	246,000
Austria-Hungary	4,495,000	3,386,000	3,779,000	5,294,000	5,221,000	5,480,000	4,223,000
Germany	4,017,000	3,151,000	3,880,000	5,157,000	5,550,000	5,548,000	4,838,000
Italy	2,930,000	2,686,000	3,163,000	4,305,000	3,820,000	261,000	3,767,000
France	2,319,000	2,580,000	2,733,000	2,917,000	3,250,000	3,479,000	3,330,000
Russia	2,039,000	2,403,000	2,922,000	2,941,000	3,545,000	3,180,000	3,777,000
Belgium	1,257,000	932,000	1,146,000	1,430,000	1,572,000	1,758,000	1,413,000
British India:							
Indian Produce	1,327,000	1,187,000	1,367,000	1,411,000	1,594,000	1,554,000	1,855,000
Foreign Produce	194,000	171,000	157,000	145,000	129,000	142,000	174,000
United States	398,000	431,000	598,000	515,000	916,000	661,000	756,000

TABLE XI

PRINCIPAL IMPORTS INTO TURKEY FROM VARIOUS
COUNTRIES

(Compiled from the Turkish Customs House Returns)

<i>Country.</i>	<i>Commodity.</i>	<i>1910-11.</i>		<i>1911-12.</i>	
		£		£	
Austria-Hungary	Sugar and sweets	2,340,000		1,573,000	
	Textiles	1,746,000		1,900,000	
	Metals and other manufactures	319,000		354,000	
France . . .	Farinaceous and leguminous products	351,000			
	Hides, skins, and leather	363,000			
	Textiles	932,000			
Germany . . .	Textiles	1,125,000		1,364,000	
	Machines, vessels	316,000		500,000	
	Metals and other manufactures	681,000		1,318,000	
Italy . . .	Farinaceous and leguminous products	413,000			
	Coffee, cocoa, tea, and spices	112,000			
	Textiles	2,091,000			
Russia . . .	Farinaceous and leguminous products	901,000			
	Sugar and sweets	249,000			
	Oils and fats	628,000			

TABLE XII

PRINCIPAL IMPORTS INTO TURKEY FROM THE UNITED
KINGDOM, 1910-12

<i>Goods.</i>	<i>1910.</i>			<i>1911.</i>			<i>1912.</i>		
	£			£			£		
Cotton piece goods	4,617,951			5,416,362			4,564,650		
Cotton yarns	383,324			437,341			588,218		
Woollen and worsted tissues	881,046			634,956			496,797		
Metals	405,514			464,487			216,689		
Machinery	284,017			375,274			315,148		
Coal	309,763			322,601			249,522		

TABLE XIII

IMPORTS OF VARIOUS DISTRICTS IN 1910-11

(Compiled from the Turkish Customs House Returns)

<i>Customs House.</i>	<i>Imports.</i>	
	£	£
Constantinople :		
Stambul and Galata	12,181,000	
Haidar Pasha, Marmora and Dardanelles ports, and Zounguldak	1,280,000	13,461,000
Trebizond	868,000	
Erzerum, Kerassund, Samsun, and Ineboli	1,514,000	2,382,000
Districts lost in the Italian and Balkan Wars (excluding Porto Lagos and Aegean Islands)		7,080,000
Other districts (Smyrna, Alexandretta, Beirut, Bagdad, &c.)		22,844,000
		<u>45,767,000</u>

(b) *Commercial Treaties ; Customs and Tariffs*

In view of the peculiar relations subsisting between Turkey and the Powers, it is impossible to treat the Turkish customs separately from commercial treaties.

About 1861 Turkey signed commercial treaties with all the Great Powers. The treaties with the United Kingdom and Italy were liable to denunciation by the Turks after seven years, the others after twenty-eight years. Each treaty contained the most-favoured-nation clause.

At the end of seven years the Porte denounced the treaties with the United Kingdom and Italy ; but these Powers still claimed the advantages of the most-favoured-nation clause, and in practice their position remained as before. In 1890 the other treaties expired. Difficulties arose owing to the Turkish argument that the commercial treaties abrogated the Capitulations, a view which the Powers refused to accept. In consequence, the terms of the old treaties remained provisionally in force pending the conclusion of a new arrangement. But in 1890 Turkey signed a commercial treaty with Germany (Aug. 26), which was prolonged, together with the convention of 1917 (see below), by an exchange of notes on May 2, 1914.

Under the treaties there was an *ad valorem* duty of 8 per cent. on all imports, the value of which was calculated on their current price in the local market. In 1903, however, the Turkish Government asked for a change of this system, and long negotiations took place with the Powers, who demanded various reforms and concessions in return for consent to the Turkish proposals. Finally, in 1906, it was agreed that a uniform *ad valorem* duty of 11 per cent. should be imposed, on condition of the improvement of the Customs administration, the modification of the mining law, and other reforms. The increase, which was to hold good for seven years, came into force in July

1907. It was a purely fiscal measure, with no protective influence on any Turkish industry.

About the same time, the Powers consented to an extension of the Stamp Law. The Turkish Government thereupon introduced into its Custom House procedure so many new formalities, all requiring stamps, that in effect the import duty was raised to 13 per cent., and merchants made their calculations accordingly.

In 1909 the Custom House administration was thoroughly reorganized by Sir Richard Crawford. Many valuable reforms were made, and importers had to furnish written declarations of all goods consigned to them, supported by invoices signed by the sellers.

In 1910 the Turkish Government sought to raise the duty to 15 per cent., but the Powers would not agree. Sir Richard Crawford then drew up a scheme whereby food-stuffs and certain raw materials would pay 8 per cent., partly-manufactured goods 12 per cent., and manufactured goods 16 per cent. and upwards. Negotiations regarding this were still in progress at the outbreak of the European war.

In March 1916 a new Turkish tariff was formally adopted, and in September of the same year it came into force. Its most important feature is the introduction of the weight-tariff system in place of the *ad valorem* system. It is evident that the new scheme has been drawn up under German influence. It is in fact known that Turkey signed a commercial treaty with Germany during the war.

(D) FINANCE

(1) CURRENCY

The unit is the Turkish pound (£T), usually called *lira*, which before the war had the nominal value of 100 gold piastres, and in practice the value of 107–108

silver piastres. The gold piastre was a sub-unit of value having no existence as a coin. The Turkish pound is worth 18s. 2d., English currency.

There were gold coins of the value of $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, 1, $2\frac{1}{2}$ and 5 £T; silver coins of 1, 2, 5, 10, and 20 piastres; nickel coins of $\frac{1}{8}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, and 1 piastre. These nickel coins were introduced in 1911 to replace the debased coinage known as *metallik*.

When exchanged for silver coins of the larger denominations, the Turkish pound was estimated at $107\frac{1}{2}$ or 108 silver piastres, according to the rate of the day. Small change being at a premium in Constantinople, a few piastres less would be given if small coins were asked for. The 20-piastre piece, called *medjedie*, was accepted and paid by the Government as worth 19 gold piastres. Payments made to the Government in Turkish pounds (gold) or in £T5 notes of the Imperial Ottoman Bank were calculated at the rate of 102·6 gold piastres to the Turkish pound.

Before the war, notes of £T5, £T10, and higher values were issued by the Imperial Ottoman Bank and circulated in Constantinople at their face value. Outside the capital they were at a discount.

Turkish currency has recently been very unstable. On April 14, 1916, the Government promulgated a provisional law with the object of reforming it. The law is a short one, with only eight articles, and is specially aimed at making the piastre the sole monetary unit and in doing away with the 'conventional' value of the piastre created by custom and usage in different parts of the Empire. The following are the principal clauses:

Article 1. The basis of the monetary system in the Ottoman Empire is the gold piece. The piastre is the monetary unit.

Article 2. The piastre is in nickel, and its value is

40 paras. The fractions of a piastre, in 20, 10, and 5 paras, are also nickel. The coins of 2, 5, 10, and 20 piastres are in silver, and those of 25, 50, 100, 250, and 500 piastres are in gold.

Article 3. The value, composition, and weight of the coins with legal currency are to be as follows :

	<i>Value.</i> <i>Paras.</i>	<i>Weight in</i> <i>grammes.</i>	<i>Alloy.</i>
Nickel . . .	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 5 \\ 10 \\ 20 \\ 40 \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1.75 \\ 2.65 \\ 4 \\ 6 \end{array} \right.$	Pure.
	<i>Piastres.</i>		
Silver . . .	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 2 \\ 5 \\ 10 \\ 20 \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 2.40 \\ 6.14 \\ 12.27 \\ 24.55 \end{array} \right.$	17 : 83.
	<i>Piastres.</i>	<i>Liras.</i>	
Gold . . .	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 25 \\ 50 \\ 100 \\ 250 \\ 500 \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{2} \\ 1 \\ 2\frac{1}{2} \\ 5 \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1.80 \\ 3.60 \\ 7.21 \\ 18.04 \\ 36.08 \end{array} \right.$
			84 : 916.

Article 4. Silver is legal tender up to 300 piastres, and nickel up to 50 piastres.

Article 5. The different rates (*cours de monnaies*) existing by custom and usage in various parts of the Empire are abolished ; and any transactions at a higher or lower rate than the present fixed legal value are forbidden, and will be punished in accordance with the penal laws.

Article 6. Speculations tending to create variations of the legal value are forbidden ; any offender will be punished in accordance with the penal laws and his business will be closed for three months.

Since the passing of this provisional law, it would appear that the Ottoman Government has somewhat varied its terms, perhaps being forced to do so owing

to the scarcity of the necessary nickel. The authorities decided to re-issue the debased coinage (*metallik* and *altilik*) which was withdrawn from circulation in 1910 and 1911, but which, it seems, was not destroyed. This amounts to about 10,000,000 piastres (about £90,000) in pieces of 10, 20, 50, and 100 paras. It was also decided to mint 6,000,000 (about £56,000) of one-piastre pieces in nickel and 50,000,000 (about £450,000) of piastres and fractional parts of a piastre, containing an alloy of three parts of copper and one of nickel. As, however, Germany has substituted zinc for its nickel coinage, it seems unlikely that Turkey could obtain the necessary metal for this scheme.

The problem of the coinage is complicated by the position of paper money. In August 1914 the Imperial Ottoman Bank began the issue of £T1 notes. Nominally these notes are still the equivalent of one Turkish pound in gold, and the bank and Government departments accept and pay the £T1 note at this rate. The issue of notes, however, has become very great, in consequence of the loans from the German Government, and now amounts to over £T134,000,000. Silver and nickel coins have gone out of circulation, and the Government has issued paper for 1, 2, 5, 10, 20, 25, and 50 piastres. Although the paper money is issued on German Treasury notes deposited with the administration of the Ottoman Public Debt, and undertaking is given that it will be exchanged for gold after the war, the public has lost confidence in it. One Turkish pound in gold, it is said, can be exchanged for four £T1 notes. Cheques on London, payable after the conclusion of peace, can be disposed of at from 75 per cent. to 80 per cent. above their face value. Exchange for remittance in francs from Constantinople to Switzerland is at the rate of frs. 13·20 against £T1.

When, in August 1917, a loan from Germany was arranged, the Turks stipulated that of the total sum of £T56,500,000, £T3,500,000 should be paid in gold and silver, £T3,000,000 in marks, and the remainder in German Treasury bonds. It appears that Germans in Turkish employ insisted on receiving part of their salaries in gold and silver. Every gold pound paid them could be surreptitiously exchanged for four £T1 notes, which could be converted into German money at the rate of 20 marks against £T1.

A further reason for the unsatisfactory state of Turkish currency is that for some years before the war the peasants, especially in Anatolia, demanded gold in payment for their crops, and refused the silver medjedie, which they had formerly favoured. The gold was generally hoarded ; and in 1912 it was estimated that within the past few years a million and a half in gold had in this way disappeared from circulation.

(2) BANKING

(a) *Turkish Banks*

The leading bank in Turkey is the *Imperial Ottoman Bank*, formed by an Anglo-French group, and established under an imperial firman granted in 1863, with a capital of £10,000,000. Its head-quarters are at Constantinople. Of late years it has greatly extended its operations in the Turkish Empire, and it now has over seventy agencies and sub-agencies, including those in Cyprus, Tripoli, and Egypt. The bank has always been in close touch with the Ottoman Government, which it has supplied with loans and advances, and it had almost a monopoly of banking business until the creation of the *Banque de Salonique*.

National Bank of Turkey.—This is a British-Turkish undertaking, formed in 1909 by Sir Ernest Cassel

under imperial firman, with a capital of £1,000,000. Its objects were both commercial and semi-political. It was this bank that advanced the money for the building of the new bridge between Stambul and Galata.

The *Banque de Salonique* was founded in 1888 under an imperial concession, with a capital of frs. 20,000,000. It is a Jewish concern, with an important Austro-Hungarian element in its management. It does considerable business at Constantinople, Smyrna, and Beyrut; but, apart from this, its principal sphere of operations is Salonika and the European provinces lost to Turkey in 1913.

Several Turkish banks were created by imperial firman after the revolution, but they are of small importance. Among them may be mentioned the *Banque de Turquie pour favoriser le Commerce et l'Industrie* and the *Société Commerciale Orientale*.

(b) Foreign Banks

Banque d'Athènes.—This is the most influential of the Greek banks operating in Turkey. It has an important business with Greek subjects of the Porte, especially through its agencies in seaport towns. Its business is purely commercial.

Crédit Lyonnais.—This bank operates chiefly at Constantinople. It concerns itself strictly with commercial and banking business.

Wiener Bankverein.—This bank's branch in Constantinople was opened in 1906. Although interested only in banking and commercial operations, it is closely connected with the leading German banks.

Deutsche Orient Bank.—A German undertaking for the furtherance of German interests, established at Constantinople in 1906. It was founded by the Dresdner Bank, the A. Schaffhausen'scher Bankverein,

and the Nationalbank für Deutschland. In October 1916, the A. Schaffhausen'scher Bankverein withdrew from the syndicate, after selling its holdings to the Deutsche Bank; and the syndicate was joined by the Oesterreichische Kreditanstalt, the Wiener Bankverein, and the Ungarische Kreditbank. The Deutsche Orient Bank was in consequence reconstituted. According to the *Frankfurter Zeitung* of October 19, 1916, it will in future concern itself mainly with the financing of official and public enterprises of economic importance, while retaining its existing commercial and banking interests.

Deutsche Bank.—This bank's branch in Constantinople was opened in 1906, but for several years previously it had worked through the Anatolian Railway Company. The part played by the bank in the economic penetration of Turkey by Germany has been described above (see p. 112).

On the establishment of German and Austrian banks in Turkey, great competition arose for the capture of the banking business of Constantinople and the adjacent regions; and in consequence the rival banks vied with one another in giving unprecedented facilities to the public. The rate of exchange on European markets became much more steady and the discounting of private paper easier. The German banks paid a high rate of interest, not only on deposit, but also on current accounts, granting on the latter $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., whereas the Imperial Ottoman Bank had given 1 per cent. The purchase of securities was undertaken by the banks, and coupons were cashed free of charge. Intending purchasers of securities were enabled to pay for them by instalments. Clients were also allowed to make large overdrafts, once the bank was satisfied with their methods of conducting business; the German banks charged 5 per cent. on an overdraft, whereas the Imperial Ottoman Bank had charged

6 per cent., and the overdrafts it allowed were small. The German banks were also ready to take over in their own name, for a very small charge, the collection of debts owed by Turkish Government departments for supplies of goods, and through their influence were thus able to get for local merchants money which would otherwise have been paid only after long delay. The Imperial Ottoman Bank, which had long held a commanding position, and the other banks, had in self-defence to adopt the methods of their German competitors. The Imperial Ottoman Bank, for instance, established a private safe deposit at its Pera agency, though its example was at once followed by the Deutsche Bank. Advances on goods, bills of lading and securities became much more common, the German banks specializing in such business in order to capture trade. (For the more commercial side of their activities, see above, p. 111.)

(3) INFLUENCE OF FOREIGN CAPITAL

Owing largely to the Capitulations, the influence of foreign capital in public works and enterprises in Turkey has been very great ; and this notwithstanding the stipulation, always made of late years when a concession was granted for an enterprise of public importance, that the company to be formed should be a Turkish Société Anonyme. The group obtaining the concession have invariably retained a majority of the votes attached to the share capital, placing only a limited number of shares on the market, and issuing to the public debentures which carry no voting power. Such companies, controlled as they are by foreign interests, have continually and successfully invoked the assistance of foreign embassies. There is in fact very little Turkish capital in any of them.

The most important of the undertakings of foreign capital have already been mentioned ; and it has been shown that those in Constantinople and Thrace are mostly under German control.

The Compagnie des Eaux de Constantinople (Derkos Water Company) is under French control, and the Constantinople Quay Company under Franco-British control, but all the railways, the Constantinople tramways, with associated undertakings, the port of Haidar Pasha, and the Compagnie des Eaux de Scutari et Haidar Pasha are German or Austro-German concerns.

The close connexion between these enterprises and the German banks, especially the Deutsche Bank, has already been pointed out, but another bond of union between the German undertakings in Turkey is the Banque des Chemins de fer Orientaux. This was founded at Zürich in 1890 by the Wiener Bankverein, the Deutsche Bank, and the Schweizerische Kreditanstalt. Its main business was defined as 'all kinds of financial operations relating to the construction and working of railways or other permanent concerns for the development of traffic in the East'. Another of its objects was to take over the interests of Baron Hirsch in the Oriental Railway. The nominal capital of the bank is frs. 50,000,000. There is a big general board, and an inner committee, among the members of which are Dr. Julius Frey, Dr. K. Helfferich, A. von Kaulla, Otto von Kühlmann, and K. Schrader. The bank is connected with all German and German-controlled enterprises in Turkey ; and the names of the directors mentioned appear over and over again on the boards of such concerns.

(4) PRINCIPAL FIELDS OF INVESTMENT

There is great need for a purely British bank at Constantinople, with agencies in the interior ; this

should conduct business on the lines followed by the foreign banks already operating in Turkey, and should not be fettered by British banking traditions. Apart from this, however, there are few promising opportunities for capital in Constantinople and Thrace, the best fields being already occupied. The construction of narrow-gauge railways in Thrace would develop the country and increase the security and prosperity of the peasant, but the advantages of such an undertaking would be felt mainly by the Oriental Railway Company.

In and around the Sea of Marmora, however, there are several attractive openings for capital, which would naturally be exploited by companies with their headquarters at Constantinople. A service of steamers for the local traffic of the sea is much needed. Considerable profits might also be derived from a line of small steamers running between Panderma and Mudania and Constantinople. A great quantity of raw material is produced in the country near the Sea of Marmora, and most of the products of the Asiatic coast are sent to Constantinople, but at present there are only a few bad steamers running.

A project which has been discussed is the opening up of the old waterway from Geumluk, on the Sea of Marmora, to the lake of Isnik (Nicaea). It is claimed that this would drain and render healthy a malarious and thinly-populated region of great natural resources. Similar results, it is thought, would be obtained by rendering navigable the River Sussulu, between Panderma and Mudania, and draining the adjacent country. (For further particulars of these schemes, see *Anatolia*, No. 59 of this series.)

APPENDIX

I

HAT-I-SHERIFF OF GULHANÉ (TANZIMAT),
NOVEMBER 3, 1839

All the world knows that in the first days of the Ottoman Monarchy the glorious precepts of the Koran and the Laws of the Empire were always honoured. The Empire in consequence increased in strength and greatness, and all her subjects, without exception, had risen in the highest degree to ease and prosperity. In the last 150 years a succession of accidents and divers causes have arisen which have brought about a disregard for the sacred code of laws, and the regulations flowing therefrom, and the former strength and prosperity have changed into weakness and poverty : an Empire, in fact, loses all its stability so soon as it ceases to observe its laws.

These considerations are ever present to our mind ; and, ever since the day of our advent to the throne, the thought of the public weal, of the improvement of the state of the Provinces, and of relief to the peoples, has not ceased to engage it. If, therefore, the geographical position of the Ottoman Provinces, the fertility of the soil, the aptitude and intelligence of the inhabitants are considered, the conviction will remain that, by striving to find efficacious means, the result, which by the help of God we hope to attain, can be obtained within a few years. Full of confidence, therefore, in the help of the Most High, assisted by the intercession of our Prophet, we deem it right to seek by new institutions to give to the Provinces composing the Ottoman Empire the benefit of a good Administration.

These institutions must be principally carried out under three heads, which are : (1) The guarantees ensuring to our subjects perfect security for life, honour, and fortune. (2) A regular system of assessing and levying taxes. (3) An equally regular system for the levy of troops and the duration of their service. . . .

As to the regular and fixed assessment of the taxes, it is very important to settle that matter, for the State which is forced to incur many expenses for the defence of its territory cannot

obtain the money necessary for its armies and other services except by means of contributions levied on its subjects. Although, thanks be to God, our Empire has for some time past been delivered from the scourge of Monopolies, falsely considered in times of war as a source of revenue, a fatal custom still exists, although it can only have disastrous consequences ; it is that of venal concessions, known under the name of ' *Itizam* '. Under that name the civil and financial administration of a locality is delivered over to the passions of a single man ; that is to say, sometimes to the iron grasp of the most violent and avaricious passions, for if that contractor is not a good man he will only look to his own advantage.

It is therefore necessary that henceforth each member of the Ottoman Society should be taxed for a quota of a fixed tax, according to his fortune and his means, and that it should be impossible that anything more could be exacted from him. It is also necessary that special laws should fix and limit the expenses of our land and sea forces.

Although, as we have said, the defence of the country is an important matter, and that it is the duty of all the inhabitants to furnish soldiers for that object, it has become necessary to establish laws to regulate the contingent to be furnished by each locality, according to the necessity of the time, and to reduce the term of military service to four or five years. For it is at the same time doing an injustice and giving a mortal blow to agriculture and to industry to take, without consideration to the respective population of the localities, in the one more, in the other less, men than they can furnish ; it is also reducing the soldiers to despair, and contributing to the depopulation of the country, by keeping them all their lives in the service.

In short, without the several laws, the necessity for which has just been described, there can be neither strength, nor riches, nor happiness, nor tranquillity for the Empire ; it must, on the contrary, look for them in the existence of these new laws.

From henceforth, therefore, the cause of every accused person shall be publicly judged in accordance with our Divine Law, after inquiry and examination, and so long as a regular judgement shall not have been pronounced, no one can, secretly or publicly, put another to death by poison or in any other manner.

No one shall be allowed to attack the honour of any other person whatever.

Each one shall possess his property of every kind, and shall dispose of it in all freedom, without let or hindrance from any person whatever ; thus, for example, the innocent heirs of a criminal shall not be deprived of their legal rights, and the property of the criminal shall not be confiscated.

These Imperial concessions shall extend to all our subjects, of whatever religion or sect they may be ; they shall enjoy them without exception. We therefore grant perfect security to the inhabitants of our Empire, in their lives, their honour, and their fortunes, as they are secured to them by the sacred text of our law.

As for the other points, as they must be settled with the assistance of enlightened opinions, our Council of Justice (increased by new members, as shall be found necessary), to whom shall be joined, on certain days which we shall determine, our Ministers and the Notabilities of the Empire, shall assemble, in order to frame laws regulating the security of life and fortune and the assessment of the taxes. Each one in those assemblies shall freely deliver his ideas and give his advice.

The laws regulating the military service shall be discussed by a Military Council, holding its sittings at the Palace of the Seraskier.

As soon as a law shall be passed, in order to be for ever valid, it shall be presented to us ; we shall give it our approval, which we will write with our Imperial sign manual.

As the object of these institutions is solely for the purpose of reviving religion, government, the nation, and the Empire, we engage not to do anything which is contrary thereto. In testimony of our promise, we will, after having deposited them in the Hall containing the glorious mantle of the Prophet, in the presence of all the Ulemas and the Grandees of the Empire, make Oath in the name of God, and shall afterwards cause the Oath to be taken by the Ulemas and the Grandees of the Empire.

After that, those from among the Ulemas or the Grandees of the Empire, or any other persons whatsoever, who shall infringe these institutions, shall undergo, without respect of rank, position, and influence, the punishment corresponding to his crime, after having been well authenticated. A Penal Code shall be compiled to that effect.

As all the public servants of the Empire receive a suitable salary, and that the salaries of those whose duties have not, up to the present time, been sufficiently remunerated are to be fixed, a rigorous law shall be passed against the traffic of favouritism and of appointments (*richvet*), which the Divine Law reprobates, and which is one of the principal causes of the decay of the Empire.

The above dispositions being an alteration and a complete renewal of ancient customs, this Imperial Rescript shall be published at Constantinople, and in all places of our Empire, and shall be officially communicated to all the Ambassadors of the friendly Powers resident at Constantinople, that they may be witnesses to the granting of these institutions, which, should it please God, shall last for ever. . . .

II

FIRMAN AND HAT-I-HUMAYUN (SULTAN OF TURKEY), FEBRUARY 18, 1856

The guarantees promised on our part by the Hat-i-Humayun of Gulhané,¹ and in conformity with the Tanzimat, to all the subjects of my Empire, without distinction of classes or of religion, for the security of their persons and property and the preservation of their honour, are to-day confirmed and consolidated, and efficacious measures shall be taken in order that they may have their full and entire effect.

All the privileges and spiritual immunities granted by my ancestors *ab antiquo*, and at subsequent dates, to all Christian communities or other non-Mussulman persuasions established in my Empire under my protection, shall be confirmed and maintained.

Every Christian or other non-Mussulman community shall be bound, within a fixed period, and with the concurrence of a Commission composed *ad hoc* of members of its own body, to proceed, with my high approbation and under the inspection of my Sublime Porte, to examine into its actual immunities and privileges, and to discuss and submit to my Sublime Porte the reforms required by the progress of civilization and of the age. The powers conceded to the Christian Patriarchs and Bishops

¹ Generally known as the Hat-i-Sheriff of Gulhané. See above I, p. 139

by the Sultan Mahomet II and his successors shall be made to harmonize with the new position which my generous and beneficent intentions ensure to these communities.

The principle of nominating the Patriarchs for life, after the revision of the rules of election now in force, shall be exactly carried out, conformably to the tenor of their Firmans of Investiture.

The Patriarchs, Metropolitans, Archbishops, Bishops, and Rabbins shall take an oath on their entrance into office according to a form agreed upon in common by my Sublime Porte and the spiritual heads of the different religious communities. The ecclesiastical dues, of whatever sort or nature they be, shall be abolished and replaced by fixed revenues of the Patriarchs and heads of communities, and by the allocation of allowances and salaries equitably proportioned to the importance, the rank, and the dignity of the different members of the clergy.

The property, real or personal, of the different Christian ecclesiastics shall remain intact; the temporal administration of the Christian or other non-Mussulman communities shall, however, be placed under the safeguard of an Assembly to be chosen from among the members, both ecclesiastics and laymen, of the said communities.

In the towns, small boroughs, and villages, where the whole population is of the same religion, no obstacle shall be offered to the repair, according to their original plan, of buildings set apart for religious worship, for schools, for hospitals, and for cemeteries.

The plans of these different buildings, in case of their new erection, must, after having been approved by the Patriarchs or heads of communities, be submitted to my Sublime Porte, which will approve of them by my Imperial order, or make known its observations upon them within a certain time.

Each sect, in localities where there are no other religious denominations, shall be free from every species of restraint as regards the public exercise of its religion.

In the towns, small boroughs, and villages where different sects are mingled together, each community, inhabiting a distinct quarter, shall, by conforming to the above-mentioned ordinances, have equal power to repair and improve its churches, its hospitals, its schools, and its cemeteries. When there is a question of the erection of new buildings, the neces-

sary authority must be asked for through the medium of the Patriarchs and the heads of communities from my Sublime Porte, which will pronounce a Sovereign decision according that authority, except in the case of administrative obstacles. The intervention of the administrative authority in all measures of this nature will be entirely gratuitous. My Sublime Porte will take energetic measures to ensure to each sect, whatever be the number of its adherents, entire freedom in the exercise of its religion.

Every distinction or designation tending to make any class whatever of the subjects of my Empire inferior to another class, on account of their religion, language, or race, shall be for ever effaced from the Administrative Protocol. The laws shall be put in force against the use of any injurious or offensive term, either among private individuals or on the part of the authorities.

As all forms of religion are and shall be freely professed in my dominions, no subject of my Empire shall be hindered in the exercise of the religion that he professes, nor shall be in any way annoyed on this account. No one shall be compelled to change their religion.

The nomination and choice of all functionaries and other employés of my Empire being wholly dependent upon my Sovereign will, all the subjects of my Empire, without distinction of nationality, shall be admissible to public employments, and qualified to fill them according to their capacity and merit, and conformably with rules to be generally applied.

All the subjects of my Empire, without distinction, shall be received into the Civil and Military Schools of the Government, if they otherwise satisfy the conditions as to age and examination which are specified in the organic regulations of the said schools. Moreover, every community is authorized to establish Public Schools of Science, Art, and Industry. Only the method of instruction and the choice of professors in schools of this class shall be under the control of a Mixed Council of Public Instruction, the members of which shall be named by my Sovereign command.

All commercial, correctional, and criminal suits between Mussulmans and Christian or other non-Mussulman subjects, or between Christians or other non-Mussulmans of different sects, shall be referred to mixed tribunals.

The proceedings of these tribunals shall be public : the parties shall be confronted, and shall produce their witnesses, whose testimony shall be received, without distinction, upon an oath taken according to the religious law of each sect.

Suits relating to civil affairs shall continue to be publicly tried, according to the laws and regulations, before the Mixed Provincial Councils, in the presence of the Governor and Judge of the place. Special civil proceedings, such as those relating to successions or others of that kind, between subjects of the same Christian or other non-Mussulman faith, may, at the request of the parties, be sent before the Councils of the Patriarchs or of the communities.

Penal, correctional, and commercial laws, and rules of procedure for the mixed tribunals shall be drawn up as soon as possible, and formed into a Code. Translations of them shall be published in all the languages current in the Empire.

Proceedings shall be taken, with as little delay as possible, for the reform of the penitentiary system as applied to houses of detention, punishment, or correction, and other establishments of like nature, so as to reconcile the rights of humanity with those of justice. Corporal punishment shall not be administered, even in the prisons, except in conformity with the disciplinary regulations established by my Sublime Porte, and everything that resembles torture shall be entirely abolished.

Infractions of the law in this particular shall be severely repressed, and shall, besides, entail, as of right, the punishment, in conformity with the Civil Code, of the authorities who may order and of the agents who may commit them.

The organization of the police in the capital, in the provincial towns, and in the rural districts shall be revised in such a manner as to give to all the peaceable subjects of my Empire the strongest guarantees for the safety both of their persons and property.

The equality of taxes entailing equality of burdens, as equality of duties entails that of rights, Christian subjects, and those of other non-Mussulman sects, as it has been already decided, shall, as well as Mussulmans, be subject to the obligations of the Law of Recruitment. The principle of obtaining substitutes, or of purchasing exemption, shall be admitted. A complete law shall be published, with as little delay as

possible, respecting the admission into and service in the army of Christian and other non-Mussulman subjects.

Proceedings shall be taken for a reform in the constitution of the Provincial and Communal Councils, in order to ensure fairness in the choice of the deputies of the Mussulman, Christian, and other communities, and freedom of voting in the councils. My Sublime Porte will take into consideration the adoption of the most effectual means for ascertaining exactly and for controlling the result of the deliberations and of the decisions arrived at.

As the laws regulating the purchase, sale, and disposal of real property are common to all the subjects of my Empire, it shall be lawful for foreigners to possess landed property in my dominions, conforming themselves to the laws and police regulations, and bearing the same charges as the native inhabitants, and after arrangements have been come to with foreign Powers.¹

The taxes are to be levied under the same denomination from all the subjects of my Empire, without distinction of class or of religion. The most prompt and energetic means for remedying the abuses in collecting the taxes, and especially the tithes, shall be considered. The system of direct collection shall gradually, and as soon as possible, be substituted for the plan of farming, in all the branches of the revenues of the State. As long as the present system remains in force, all agents of the Government and all members of the Medjlis shall be forbidden, under the severest penalties, to become lessees of any farming contracts which are announced for public competition, or to have any beneficial interest in carrying them out. The local taxes shall, as far as possible, be so imposed as not to affect the sources of production or to hinder the progress of internal commerce.

Works of public utility shall receive a suitable endowment, part of which shall be raised from private and special taxes levied in the Provinces, which shall have the benefit of the advantages arising from the establishment of ways of communication by land and sea.

¹ On January 18, 1867, a law was passed granting to foreigners the right to hold real property in the Ottoman Empire; and on July 28, 1868, a protocol was signed between the British and Turkish Governments relative to the admission of British subjects to the right of holding real property in Turkey.

A special law having been already passed, which declares that the Budget of the revenue and expenditure of the State shall be drawn up and made known every year, the said law shall be most scrupulously observed. Proceedings shall be taken for revising the emoluments attached to each office.

The heads of each community and a delegate designated by my Sublime Porte shall be summoned to take part in the deliberations of the Supreme Council of Justice on all occasions which might interest the generality of the subjects of my Empire. They shall be summoned specially for this purpose by my Grand Vizier. The delegates shall hold office for one year ; they shall be sworn on entering upon their duties. All the members of the Council, at the ordinary and extraordinary meetings, shall freely give their opinions and their votes, and no one shall ever annoy them on this account.

The laws against corruption, extortion, or malversation shall apply, according to the legal forms, to all the subjects of my Empire, whatever may be their class and the nature of their duties.

Steps shall be taken for the formation of banks and other similar institutions, so as to effect a reform in the monetary and financial system, as well as to create funds to be employed in augmenting the sources of the material wealth of my Empire.

Steps shall also be taken for the formation of roads and canals to increase the facilities of communication and increase the sources of the wealth of the country. Everything that can impede commerce or agriculture shall be abolished. To accomplish these objects means shall be sought to profit by the science, the art, and the funds of Europe, and thus gradually to execute them.

Such being my wishes and my commands, you, who are my Grand Vizier, will, according to custom, cause this Imperial Firman to be published in my capital and in all parts of my Empire ; and you will watch attentively, and take all the necessary measures that all the orders which it contains be henceforth carried out with the most rigorous punctuality.

10 Dzemaziul, 1272 (February 18, 1856).

III.

FIRMAN (SULTAN OF TURKEY), SEPTEMBER 10, 1876

The origin and causes of the crisis through which our Empire is now passing, and which reproduces itself under different forms, are, it is true, manifold ; but from whatever side they are regarded they may all be summed up under one head, viz. the imperfect execution of the laws which spring from the supreme edicts of the Cher'i, which is the fundamental base of our Empire, and the absolutism which every one has adopted, so to speak, as their rule in the conduct of affairs.

If, indeed, the irregularities, of which for some time past now the administration and finance of our country have felt the effects, have reached their present pitch ; if public opinion shows itself distrustful with respect to our credit ; if the tribunals have not yet arrived at securing the rights of individuals ; if it has not been yet possible to turn to account the natural resources which all the world allow that our country possesses, for industry, commerce, and agriculture, these fruitful sources of welfare and general prosperity ; if, lastly, all the measures hitherto adopted, as well in the interests of the country as with a view to secure to all my subjects, without exception, the benefits of individual liberty, have not acquired more consistency in spite of the sincere intentions which dictated them, nor attained the proposed result, through a succession of variations and changes,—all this can only be attributed to one cause, and that is, that the laws have not been regularly and constantly observed.

This, therefore, should be the starting-place to-day for the measures which it is urgent should be adopted to settle the laws and regulations of the country on bases calculated to inspire confidence.

Establishment of a General Council

For this purpose it is indispensable to proceed to the establishment of a General Council whose acts shall inspire the nation with all confidence, and shall be in accordance with the customs and capacities of the population of the Empire. This Council will have for its mission to guarantee, without exception, the faithful execution of the existing laws, or of those

which shall be promulgated in accordance with the dispositions of the Cher'i, and with the real and legitimate wants of the country and nation, and to control the balance of the receipts and expenditure of the Empire.

The Council of Ministers is instructed to devote itself to a profound study of this important question, and to submit to me the result of its deliberations.

Public Offices

Another obstacle to the good execution of the laws and regulations is the facility with which public duties are often entrusted to incompetent hands, and, further, the fact that they, the employés, are the object of frequent changes without any sufficient or legitimate reason, which entails very serious inconveniences both for the State and the transaction of business.

Henceforth every public office and function shall constitute a special career. To employ in the affairs of the State capable and competent persons ; to tolerate no dismissal or unjustified removal from office ; to establish gradually the responsibility of all kinds of functionaries, each in his respective sphere, this is the invariable rule to be adopted.

Education

The material and moral progress that all the world agrees in recognizing among European nations has been brought about, thanks to the spread of science and education. Now, as by their intelligence and natural dispositions, my subjects of all classes have in all respects, I am happy to state, special capacities for progress, and as the spread of education constitutes, in my eyes, a question as vital as it is pressing, you will take counsel without delay as to the best means of securing this important result by raising the amount of the supplies for allowances in a sufficient proportion and within possible limits.

Administrative, Financial, and Judicial Reforms

Further, the administrative, financial, and judicial reforms of the provinces must be proceeded with immediately, so as to create for them a really normal position, and in conformity with the bases which shall be adopted for the central organization.

Pacification of Herzegovina, Bosnia, and Serbia

In addition to the troubles which broke out last year in Herzegovina and Bosnia, at the instigation of evilly-disposed persons, the rebellion of Serbia has come upon us. Considering that the blood shed on both sides is that of the children of one and the same country, we are deeply distressed by the continuance of this state of things. You will therefore have to take most effective measures to put an end to such a deplorable situation.

AUTHORITIES

- CREASY, Sir E. S. *History of the Ottoman Turks*. London, 1878.
DRIault, E. *La question d'Orient*. 7th ed. Paris, 1917.
ELIOT, Sir Charles, K.C.M.G. *Turkey in Europe*. 2nd ed.
London, 1908.
HOGARTH, D. G. and others. *The Balkans*. Oxford, 1915.
MARRIOTT, J. A. R. *The Eastern Question*. Oxford, 1917.
MILLER, W. *The Balkans*. London, 1889.
PEARS, H. E. *German Methods in Turkey* (Quarterly Review,
No. 453, Oct. 1917).
POOLE, S. LANE. *Turkey*. London, 1888.
See also Authorities in *The Eastern Question*, No. 15, and in
other works in this series dealing with the Balkan States.

MAPS

Turkey in Europe is comprised in sheet K. 35 (Istanbul) of the International Map (G.S.G.S. No. 2758) published by the War Office, on the scale of 1 : 1,000,000. A revised edition of this map (G.S.G.S. No. 2555) has been issued, showing the boundary as determined by the treaties of Bucarest and Constantinople in 1913.

The War Office map on a scale of 1 : 250,000 (G.S.G.S. 2097) covers European Turkey in the five sheets, Adrianople, Vize, Rodosto, Constantinople, and Gallipoli, and, though not uniformly based on thorough survey, is yet a reliable map.

Another War Office map (G.S.G.S. No. 3055) covers Constantinople and its environs on the scale of 1 : 25,000.

For historical boundaries and ethnography see Table and Note on Maps in *The Eastern Question*, No. 15 of this series.

ALBANIA

LONDON :
PUBLISHED BY H. M. STATIONERY OFFICE.

1920

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL	
(1) Position and Frontiers	1
(2) Surface, Coast, and River Systems	2
(3) Climate	3
(4) Sanitary Conditions	6
(5) Race, Language, Religion, and Society	7
Ghegs	9
Tosks	17
Vlachs	21
(6) Distribution of Population	22
Note. Distribution of the Albanian Race in 1912	24
II. POLITICAL HISTORY	
Chronological Summary	27
i. Introductory	30
ii. Under Turkish Suzerainty	31
iii. Ali Pasha	34
iv. Turkish Policy	35
v. The Russo-Turkish War, 1877-8	38
vi. Albania and Montenegro	39
vii. The Albanian League	40
viii. The Young Turk Revolution	41
ix. Albanian Revolts	43
x. Turkish Concessions	45
xi. Albania and the Balkan Allies	46
xii. The First Balkan War	48
xiii. Albanian Independence proclaimed	49
xiv. The Treaty of London, 1913	50
xv. The Prince of Wied	51
III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS	
(1) Religion	53
(2) Government	53
(3) Education	54

	PAGE
GENERAL OBSERVATIONS	
(1) Popular Opinion and National Sentiment	
i. Local Independence	56
ii. Religious Feeling	57
iii. Consciousness of Nationality	58
(2) Questions interesting other Countries	
Montenegro	59
Serbia	61
Greece	62
Rumania	65
Italy	65
Bulgaria	66
Austria	67
(3) Proposals for Expansion and Development	
Treaty of Berlin	68
Conference of London	69
Proposals for Partition	70
Independence and Federation	70

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) Internal	
(a) Roads and Tracks	73
(b) Rivers	74
(c) Railways	75
(d) Posts and Telegraphs	77
(2) External	
(a) Ports	77
(b) Winds and Tides	79
(c) Shipping Lines	79

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) Agriculture	
(a) Products of Commercial Value	
Vegetable	80
Animal	83
(b) Methods of Cultivation	84

	PAGE
(c) Forests	85
(d) Land Tenure	85
(2) Fisheries	87
(3) Minerals	88
(4) Manufactures	89
 (C) COMMERCE	
(1) Domestic	90
(2) Foreign	91
 (D) FINANCE	
(1) Currency	92
(2) Banking	92
 APPENDIX	
I. Manifestoes of Central Albanian Committee, 1911	93
II. Proposed Concessions, 1911	95
III. Formation of an Independent Albania	97
 AUTHORITIES	101
MAPS	103

I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

ALBANIA lies along the eastern shore of the Adriatic Sea, from the frontier of Montenegro in the north to that of Greece in the south, and has an estimated area of between 10,500 and 11,500 square miles. Before the Balkan wars of 1912-13 the district constituted the Turkish vilayets of Scutari and Yanina, together with the sanjaks of Ipek, Prizren, and Prishtina in the vilayet of Kosovo, and the sanjaks of Dibra and Elbasan in that of Monastir. The frontier, as delimited by international commissions in accordance with the provisions of the Treaty of London in 1913, Art. III,¹ follows in the main well-marked natural features, such as rivers or mountain ranges, but, as a racial and linguistic boundary, it is to a great extent a compromise between incompatible national claims. On the north, some Albanian tribes have been assigned to the Montenegrin kingdom. On the south, while the district of Yanina is assigned to Greece, those of Koritsa, Argyrokastro, and Khimara, which the Greeks call North Epeiros, have been included in Albania, with the result that a section of their population has revolted, set up a provisional Government, and elected deputies to the Greek Parlia-

¹ See *General History of the Eastern Question*, No. 15 of this series, pp. 132, 133. Art. III entrusts the delimitation to Germany, Austria-Hungary, France, Great Britain, Italy, and Russia.

ment. On the eastern or Serbian frontier also the partisans of Albania assert that many districts, of which the population is mainly Albanian, have been excluded from the Albanian principality.

(2) SURFACE, COAST, AND RIVER SYSTEMS

The surface of Albania is for the most part extremely mountainous, many ranges varying in height from 5,000 to nearly 8,000 ft. The whole is very wild and inaccessible, especially in the north and south; in the central region, between the Skumbi and Voyusa rivers, it is more undulating and less rugged. There is also a considerable amount of level plain, both along the sea-coast between Scutari and Valona, and at a higher level in the river valleys. Some of this is very fertile, and more might be made so by a suitable system of drainage and irrigation.

In northern and central Albania, from the frontier on the Boyana river to Valona, the mountain ranges run for the most part obliquely to the coast, which consists of a succession of river mouths and curving bays with alluvial deposits. The shore current, which usually runs north-west, does not operate north of Valona; hence the formation of shallows and lagoons which make the approach to the shore difficult and dangerous. The rivers form deltas projecting into the sea, and between them are rocky projections, forming such landing-places as do exist. The sea is constantly receding, owing to the formation of banks and tracts of seaweed; thus many ports of Roman date are now three miles or so inland. Dunes make the rivers form lagoons, and there are stretches of marshy and malarious country, inhabited only by nomad shepherds in spring and autumn.

From Cape Glossa, opposite Valona, to the south,

the mountain ranges run parallel to the coast, which is inhospitable and dangerous—the ancient Acroceraunia. It is not indeed entirely without harbours—the best being at Santi Quaranta and Butrinto, where the island of Corfu gives additional shelter—but the difficulty of access cuts off the coast in this region from communication with the interior, so that such commerce as there is from the inland districts finds outlets rather towards Valona and Prevesa.

The rivers of Albania are useless for purposes of navigation, except the Boyana and the Drin, which can be ascended by vessels of light draft for a few miles from their mouths. But the river valleys offer the easiest lines of communication both from the coast to the interior and transversely from north to south. The most important is that of the Skumbi, which gives access from Durazzo to Elbasan and on to Monastir—the route followed by the Via Egnatia, the main artery between east and west in Roman times.

The Drin is the greatest of the Albanian rivers. It is formed by the union at Kukush of the White Drin, which runs to the south through the depressions of Jakova and Prizren, and the Black Drin, which runs to the north from Lake Okhrida. About six miles from Scutari the river divides, part of it keeping to its old channel past Alessio, below which it is navigable for small craft, and part of it flowing through the Drinassa to join the Boyana, close to where it leaves the Lake of Scutari. This influx has greatly accelerated the silting up of the Boyana, which has consequently provided insufficient drainage, with the result of flooding the low districts at the upper end of the lake. A proper control of these rivers would greatly increase the cultivable area. The Drin is distinguished by the force of its current and the steepness of its

banks, and, like other Albanian rivers, brings down an enormous quantity of alluvium.

South of the Skumbi, the valleys of the Semeni and its tributary the Devoli offer lines of communication between Elbasan and Berat, in central Albania, with Koritsa and the district south of the lakes. These valleys, as well as that of the Voyusa, follow the direction of the southern mountains, and consequently run from south-east to north-west. The Voyusa and Semeni are followed by the road from Yanina to Berat and the port of Valona.

In addition to the lagoons along the coast, several of which are used for the extraction of salt, the two chief lakes of Albania are Lake Okhrida, on the frontier of Serbia, and Lake Scutari, on that of Montenegro. The latter is of some importance for communication by means of lake steamers.

The only Albanian island, Saseno, lies off Cape Glossa, and helps to shelter the harbour of Valona. It was one of the Ionian Islands, and consequently was transferred to Greece with Corfu in 1864, being at the same time neutralized.¹ It was ceded by Greece to the Albanian principality in 1914, at the desire of Italy. The island is high and rocky, and occasionally visited by a few shepherds or fishermen.

¹ The Greek ownership was disputed by Italy in 1913. For the facts, see Vellay, *La Question de l'Adriatique*, p. 88. The island of Saseno is marked 'Griechisch' in Stieler's Atlas, ed. 1909 and 1916, coloured as Greek in Poole's Historical Atlas, Oxford, 1902, and assigned to Greece in Longman's Gazetteer, 1912.

(3) CLIMATE

In Albania the influence of the Mediterranean upon the climate diminishes eastward and north-eastward from the Adriatic coast and gives place to conditions of a more continental type. The rate and manner in which the transition takes place depend upon: (a) the existence of a permanent trough of relatively low barometric pressure along the line of the Adriatic, and (b) the relief of the land. The effect of the former is to strengthen the westerly component of the winds along the southern part of the coast, making air currents of moderate temperature and high humidity advance inland with greater persistence than farther north. The extent of the penetration of the moist temperate current from the sea depends upon the height and continuity of the mountain barrier. The warm moist south and south-west wind along the coast is often known as the Scirocco, but is merely the characteristic wind of the east side of the Adriatic depression. The off-shore wind, most frequent in the north, is a movement of air from the interior highlands, and is dry and very cold in winter. This wind is called the Bora.

On the coast the summer tends to be oppressively warm and the winter cold, while the great difference between the heat of the day and the cold of the night is often trying. The contrasts are most pronounced in southern Albania. At Valona the mean monthly temperature in January is 48° F. (9° C.), rising to 77° F. (25° C.) in July. The Bora greatly increases the difficulty of navigation along the Albanian coast. Along the coast the period during which rains can be counted on is from the beginning of October to March. The number of rainy days diminishes progressively

from north to south. In the dry period there only occur short but sudden and violent rainstorms.

At Durazzo 5·70 inches of rain have been recorded in December, decreasing to 0·51 inch in July; a slightly heavier rainfall is recorded in Valona. In the interior the rainfall is much heavier. Much of the precipitation in the mountains occurs in the form of snow.

In the Albanian highlands the winter is said to last five or six months. Snow covers all the higher mountain ranges till March or April, and knee-deep drifts in the passes have been reported in May. The distinctive characteristics of the Albanian climate are the extreme coldness prevailing in the mountains, the extraordinary variations of temperature, the violence of the winds, the intensity of the period of drought. Conditions are somewhat mitigated along the valleys between the limestone ranges, and are more favourable to vegetation and human settlement.

(4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

Owing to the existence of extensive marshy areas, deficiency of running water, lack of tidal movement in the sea, and the presence of stagnant water and large quantities of decaying organic matter, there is, during the summer, a good deal of fever and malaria in the plains. Durazzo and its neighbourhood are noted in this respect, and few people escape contracting malaria there during summer and autumn. Very much the same applies to the lagoon zone of Valona. The conditions are naturally much healthier in the mountains. Any pollution of streams or springs used for drinking purposes is carefully avoided. Hence enteric is rare and has never become endemic.

(5) RACE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION, AND SOCIETY

The Albanians, as their neighbours call them (the Turkish form of the word is Arnaut), or Skipetars, as they call themselves, are a widely-scattered people living mostly in the Balkan peninsula, whose chief bond of union is the common language, which all of them speak in various dialects, and also, but to a very minor extent, common customs. Their numbers are variously estimated at from 1,500,000 to 2,000,000. Of these only some 800,000 to 1,000,000 live within the boundaries of the principality of Albania, whose frontiers were mapped out by the international commissions of 1913. Even within these limits the Albanians are divided among themselves by distinct geographical features, to some extent by race and dialect, and to a large extent by religion. Conquests, too, however sweeping, have never subjected them all alike or forced them into the same mould; and, except possibly within the last few decades, they have never shared in a common history. Nevertheless their remarkable language, which has preserved its continuity despite much corruption, has always kept alive in their mountain fastnesses, from which no invader ever succeeded in ousting them, a strong spirit of distinct nationality. This has made them like the Scottish Highlanders before the eighteenth century, who, though they were always fighting with one another, were ready to unite—partially at any rate—against a foreign foe.

It is now generally believed that the modern Albanians are descendants of the Illyrians and Thracians of classical times, and that to this source may be traced those singular elements in their language which distinguish it so markedly from Greek and other neighbouring languages, of which it is the elder sister. Its basis is Indo-European in the same sense as the basis

of the English language is Teutonic ; but the modern vocabulary, as distinct from the grammatical structure, is mainly composed of words borrowed from Romance (neo-Latin), Slav, Turkish, and Greek. It is very limited and contains only some 5,000 words, out of which not more than 500 are of native origin. Some scholars hold that its structure is Thracian rather than Illyrian, but the remains of ancient Illyrian are too scanty to serve as foundation even for conjecture.

The Albanians have little in common except their name and language, and a certain remarkable racial individuality, which, though it does not unite them into a homogeneous people, marks them off very distinctly from the other races and nations of the Balkan peninsula. They all call themselves *Skipe-tars*, or, more correctly, *Shküpetars*—which has been variously derived from words signifying an ‘eagle’, a ‘rock’, or ‘one who knows’ the native language—and they all speak dialects of one and the same Indo-European language, probably derived from the ancient Illyrian tongue. But for centuries they have been divided into two sections, the *Ghegs* to the north and the *Tosks* to the south of the River *Skumbi*. These names, though they are in common use, are not thought quite complimentary, and have been compared to our use of ‘Yankee’ as applied to New Englanders. The *Ghegs* and *Tosks* speak dialects so different as to be—in their extreme forms—barely intelligible to each other ; the inhabitants of central Albania speak dialects midway between the two.

In religion and political and social institutions the *Ghegs* of the north and the *Tosks* of the south differ so greatly that the most convenient method is to deal with these two sections separately.

Ghegs

Religion

On the Ghegs, as on all Albanians, religion has always sat very lightly. Two-thirds are Moslems; the remaining third—with a very small minority of Orthodox Christians, mostly of Serb origin, on the eastern frontier—are Roman Catholics. Though the Moslems mostly belong to the usually strict Sunnite sect, they are, with few exceptions, not at all fanatical, and seldom perform their daily prayers and ablutions except at a mosque. Many in the southern part of the district belong to the almost pantheistic Bektashite confraternity, which is notorious for its loose observance of the Moslem ordinances and traditions—even of the five canonical hours of prayer. Except in Scutari and the coast towns, the Roman Catholics are confined to the mountains, where the inhabitants, enjoying practical independence, have never been tempted to forsake their old religion in exchange for the Moslem privileges of carrying arms and owning their own lands. Still, even in the highlands Mirdita is the only district where no Moslems are to be found. Among all the other tribes, Catholics and Moslems live side by side in varying proportions; and, though quarrels between tribes and individuals are only too common, religion is rarely the matter in dispute. Ordinarily, in fact, toleration goes so far that members of the same family profess different religions; and it is said to be not uncommon for parents to have the same child baptized one day as a Christian and circumcised another day as a Mussulman—with the result that a man uses two names, one Christian, the other Moslem, according to the circle in which he happens to be moving. Of late years there has been a considerable Catholic revival.

The uneducated, whether Moslem or Christian, are highly superstitious, believing in vampires, witches, and evil spirits.

Social Conditions

When the Turkish domination came to an end in 1912, with its elaborate but inefficient system of vali, mutasarrifs, kaimakams, and mudirs, the whole country outside the mountains lapsed into greater anarchy than ever. In the lowlands the local beys, or landowners, some of whom own large estates, always possessed more real authority than the Turkish officials; while in the highlands the Turkish Government, until the unlucky attempts of the Young Turks (1908-12) to enforce a uniform system, never made any real effort to interfere with that highly developed tribal organization—in many respects resembling that of the old clans of the Scottish Highlands—which has from time immemorial prevailed among the Albanian Malsors (mountaineers) of the northern mountains. Here each *fis* (tribe or clan) is self-governing; and, though customs and names vary, the constitution is in its broad outlines much the same everywhere. The governing authorities are the chief, the council of elders, and the assembly of the clan.

Bairaktar.—Each *fis* has its own hereditary chief or *bairaktar* (standard-bearer), unless it is large enough to have several. The office passes from father to son, or in default of a son, to the next male heir. The larger clans are often divided into groups, each with its own *bairaktar*. A group thus marching under one standard or *bairak* is itself called a *bairak*, and the term is also applied to the district in which it lives. Originally, it would appear, each clan constituted one *bairak* under its *bairaktar*; but, when men from a different stock were grafted into it, or when it grew

so large that geographical obstacles made it difficult for all the clansmen to rally under one flag for military purposes, it was divided into two or more *bairaks*. Mirdita, for instance, has five *bairaks*, two of them of much more recent origin than the rest. Under Turkish rule all the standards were Turkish, with the exception of Mirdita, which had a distinctive symbol of its own—a flag with a rayed sun upon it.

The *bairaktar* has for his duties to lead his *bairak* in war, to summon and preside over the council of elders and the assembly, and in general to administer affairs which concern the interests of the whole clan.

Mehala.—The *fis* is also divided into the *mehala*, or group of houses—sometimes all in one enclosure, sometimes not—inhabited by kinsmen, and the *shpi* or single house.

The headmen of the more noble or important *mehalas* are known as *kren* (plural of *krue*); of the less important groups of houses, as *jobars*—i. e. one *jobar* to each group of four or five houses; the head of each house is called the *zoti i shpis*. Their position and privileges, like those of the *bairaktar*, are hereditary. Each *krue* in war commands his section of the *bairak*—usually a third or a fourth part of it—and in peace holds assemblies of his own section to settle such business as concerns its particular interests. He has also to fix the number of persons to be chosen by the contending parties in a lawsuit, who are to form the court to try the case, or it may be even to act as judge himself. The *jobars* are rather the instruments of justice to carry out the sentences of their superiors, though each has power over his own family group of houses; but even in the clan itself no covenant can be made by the *bairaktar* and the *kren* without the consent of the *jobars*. The *zoti i shpis* is limited in his powers to his own family house.

Plekniya.—The council of elders is called *plekniya* (*plak* = old). In some *bairaks* membership of it is limited to the *kren*, or *voyvodas*, as they are called in Malzia e Mathe and other clans ; in other clans some of the *jobars* seem to be admitted to it as well. Its functions are deliberative rather than executive.

Kuven.—Supreme power rests with the assembly of the clan, which is called the *kuven*.¹ Every household must be represented by at least one man, and a fine is imposed for non-attendance. The *kuven* meets regularly two or three times a year, and can be summoned by the *bairaktar* on other occasions to transact extraordinary business affecting the interests of the clan. The *bairaktar* presides, surrounded by the elders. The people stand or sit round them. Every man attends fully armed. The *bairaktar* or one of the *kren* sets forth the business before the assembly, and refers it in the first instance to the consideration of the *jobars*. After a separate deliberation the *jobars* bring their proposals before the whole *kuven*, which has power to discuss and to adopt or reject them. The range of business is from questions of peace, or war, or of new laws, to the amount of fines to be imposed for trespass on pasture land.

Dielmiya.—During the last twenty-five years an almost revolutionary movement against the authority of the *bairaktar* and the *plekniya* has taken place in many of the clans. The movement began in Shala, where a certain innovator gathered round himself a *dielmiya* or body of ‘youths’—so called, not from their actual ages, but in opposition to the *plekniya* or council of elders—and got himself elected *pari i’ dielmîs* (chief of the youth). The movement was completely successful, and spread widely among the

¹ Many authorities use the term *mafliss* (*maflis* = assembly) indifferently for a meeting of the *plekniya* or of the *kuven*.

neighbouring tribes. The only undisputed power left to the *bairaktar* is his leadership in battle; and the *dielmiya* is often strong enough to override the *plekniya*.

The only law recognized in the mountains is either traditional custom (*adét*), or the unwritten *Kanun i Lekë Dukajinit*, so called after its reputed author, Alexander Dukajin, who is said to have been the head of a ruling family in the fifteenth century. This canon, which is at once a criminal and civil code, closely resembles the 'old law' that prevailed in Montenegro and Herzegovina till the middle of the nineteenth century, and differs from it chiefly in the matter of punishments. The canon knows only three—fines, burning of property, and expulsion from the clan; and its most obvious intention is the prevention of homicide, though in its application it is more often used to justify it. The code is accepted not only by all the Dukajin clans, but throughout the highlands, with, however, many local differences. It certainly gives its sanction to the practice of the vendetta, which has for ages been the curse of the country; but the natives claim that it tends to mitigate some of its horrors and to give some sort of security for honour, property, and good morals. The officers of each clan—the *bairaktar*, the *kren*, and the *jobars*—are responsible for the enforcement of the law; the *bairaktar* and the *kren* determine the punishment, the *jobars* carry it out.

Except murder, ordinary crimes are rare; and theft, as distinct from raids and brigandage, is universally despised. Raids, however, on the lowlanders or a hostile tribe are considered an honourable profession. The vendetta (*jiak*) is regulated by custom; and the canon of Lek Dukajin is only applicable when any one slays a man, woman, or child without any justifying plea of vengeance, and in this case is in many

tribes honoured in the breach rather than in the observance. For custom demands that the male relatives of the murdered person should exact vengeance either on the murderer himself or upon any of his male relatives—even down to the boy of three years of age; whereas the canon lays down rules for the punishment of the murderer and his family, or at least for a pecuniary composition of the crime. The most heinous offence of all is the murder of a guest friend, and this never admits of any judicial or peaceful settlement. At the present day the blood feud still rages among the Albanian mountains like a pestilence. Not only individuals, but whole tribes are involved. Any stain, however slight, on a man's honour may give rise to a feud lasting for generations; thus in the Pulati district an unfulfilled promise of four cartridges resulted in the death of 132 persons. In recent years the average killed has been estimated at 19 per cent. of adult males, and in Toplana the average has been as high as 42 per cent. Under such circumstances life would obviously become impossible, were it not for the mitigating custom of the *bessa* (truce; literally, *word of honour*). Under the *bessa* safety is in certain circumstances assured to a man who owes blood; thus he may not be slain in his own house, or when he is travelling under the protection of a third party or of a woman, or is under a friend's roof as a guest. Again, men may swear a *bessa* for a fixed time for business purposes. A particular path may be protected by a *bessa*, or attendance at religious festivals, &c. Even among the most savage tribes a *bessa* is inviolable.

Another counterpoise to all this killing and fighting is the custom of fraternal friendships, by which two young men solemnly bind themselves to succour and defend one another throughout their life.

Principal tribes.—The Malsor tribes may be roughly classified into seven groups:

1. The Mirdites are the largest tribe, numbering 17,000–20,000 people and forming five bairaks. They live round Oroshi in the mountainous district south-east of Scutari.

2. The Malzia e Mathe (the Great Highlands) occupy the mountainous district north-east of Scutari, and consist of five tribes, the Hoti, Gruda, Klementi, Shkreli, and Kastrati, of which the first two were in 1913 assigned by the European Powers to Montenegro.

3. The Dukajin (in the wider sense) include the six bairaks of the Pulati, Shala and Shoshi, Dushmani, Toplana, Nikaï, and Merturi. Their territory lies between the Malzia e Mathe and the River Drin.

4. The seven bairaks of the Dukajin (in a stricter sense) dwell on the high mountain range south of the River Drin—the Chereti, Puka, Kabashi, Berisha, Bujoni, Ibalya, and Malizi.

5. The Malzia Jakovs inhabit the Jakova highlands; hence their name. They comprise three tribes, all Moslems—the Bituchi, the Gashi, and Krasnichî.

6. The Malzia Leshs (i. e. of Alessio) occupy the highlands of Alessio and are divided into four small clans—the Buljeri, Manatia, Krüezcz, and Velya.

7. The Malzia of Dibra form an isolated group to the west and north of Dibra, and are notorious for their fierce, lawless character.

Matia, a region east of Kroya, in the upper valley of the River Mat, is remarkable for its peculiar organization. It is divided into four *zemts* (regions), each governed by a feudal family.

Dress.—The Ghegs are distinguished from the Tosks by their dress; instead of the *fustanella* they wear close-fitting trousers of home-spun cloth and a short jacket which is often richly embroidered; there are

also slight differences between the dress of Moslems and Catholics and of the various tribes.

Position of women.—Though in the towns the position of women is much the same as in other Moslem countries, in the country districts and especially in the mountains they are free and treated with respect; and in the fields even the Moslem women work unveiled. They are indeed the drudges of the men and do all the hard work of the community; but in the home they often reign supreme and are described as bright and intelligent. In some ways they hold a privileged position, for a woman's life is sacred and her *bessa* protects the traveller or the stranger. They are often used as intermediaries in the settlement of feuds; and, when neighbouring tribes are at feud with one another, they do all the travelling to the towns for marketing purposes. Wives are usually obtained by purchase, and the bride brings no dowry to her husband. Betrothals of infants and even pre-natal betrothals are not uncommon. There is a system of exogamous groups, and a man may not marry within his group, though he need not have to seek a wife from another tribe. One custom is remarkable: to avoid the marriages arranged for them women may take an oath of virginity. In this case they are treated with the greatest reverence; they often wear male clothes, eat with the men, and even carry arms, and they have been known to enter into blood feuds.

Ability.—The Ghegs, like the rest of the Albanians, possess great natural intelligence; and, though they have not, since the time of the great pashas, like the Bushat pashas of Scutari, achieved much in their own country, abroad they have often risen to positions of great eminence. Of late years, when these foreign-trained Albanians have returned and acted as leaders to their own countrymen, they have consistently put forward the demand for schools and instruction in

their own language as the first thing to be conceded by the Turkish Government.

Tosks

Religion

The Tosks, like the Ghegs, are divided into Moslems and Christians, and probably in about the same proportion—two to one. But there are important differences. The Moslems mostly belong to the easy-going Bek-tashite confraternity; the Christians are practically all Orthodox, acknowledging the authority of the Greek Patriarch at Constantinople. But apart from one or two mountainous districts like Khimara on the inaccessible Acroceraunian mountains, where both chiefs and their followers have always maintained their independence and their original Christianity, Turkish rule has ever since the conquest in the rich and comparatively more fertile lands of southern Albania been more of a reality—with two permanent social results. In the first place the Greek Patriarch, holding from the first a privileged position in the Turkish Empire, has been able to keep a closer hold over the Christians of south Albania than the Pope was able to do in the north. In the second place the Turks seized more of the land for themselves and their supporters, their Christian cultivators sinking to a position more nearly resembling that of the ordinary Christian *rayahs* of the rest of the Balkan peninsula. The Tosk chiefs, however, had the same motives for turning Moslem as their Gheg compeers—to keep their arms and their lands. So, while they and their armed retainers, who to carry arms had also to turn Moslem, collected in the towns and larger villages, the Christian farmers were left helpless upon their lords' farms. Nowadays south Albania is still a land of large estates, where the Moslem beys or

squires form a kind of feudal and landed aristocracy living on the labour of their Christian tenants, who cultivate their lands for them on the *métayer* system, paying to the landlord one-half or one-third of the produce of the soil.

Moreover, down to the Greek Wars of Independence the idea of nationality lay dormant ; and the Turks in their European dominions recognized both in theory and practice only two divisions in the population, Moslems and Christians, the latter term being in common parlance synonymous with Greeks. The consequence has been that, ever since Greece became an independent kingdom with territorial ambitions, she has always been eager to annex any adjacent lands where any large section of the inhabitants belong to the Orthodox Church. Greek claims to south Albania have been particularly persistent for several reasons. In the various Greek wars against Turkey the Albanian inhabitants of Greece did yeoman's service and, when independence was achieved, were rapidly hellenized. Again, in this district the Albanian language not having been reduced to writing for practical purposes until the last decade or two, Greek has always been the language for official and commercial documents and correspondence as well as for the services of the Church. Ali Pasha of Yanina and the later Turkish valis issued all their edicts in Greek. The Tosks—at any rate the men—are therefore for the most part bilingual ; they speak the Albanian patois, which serves for home life and is alone intelligible to their women, and also Greek, which is still the official, commercial, and social language just as it used to be in Turkish times.

Social Conditions

In south Albania some traces of an old tribal organization, or at any rate division, seem still to survive in the western region near the coast, but they are of little practical importance. For more than a century there have been no tribal chiefs and no tribal government. Their powers disappeared in the long tyranny of Ali Pasha (1789–1822); and any that were left were effectually stopped in 1829 by Reshid Pasha's massacre of the heads of the leading families. The names of three tribes still linger—Tosk, Liap, and Cham. (1) While the term Tosk is applied generally to all Albanians south of the River Skumbi, in a stricter sense it is confined to the inhabitants of a little district which extends from Tepelen north-west to the banks of the lower Voyusa. (2) The Liaps dwell in the maritime region to the south and west of the Tosks and as far south as Delvino, including Khimara. The term 'Liap' is a nickname and word of reproach given by their neighbours to the inhabitants of this district, who call themselves Arbi—a name from which the Turks are said to have derived Arnaut, the name that they apply to all Albanians. It is noteworthy that the Khimariotes have, owing to their geographical isolation, retained their patriarchal organization into families and family groups almost untouched. (3) The Chams live in the district between the rivers Pavla and Mavropotamo, and have since 1913 been wholly included in the kingdom of Greece.

Though any tribal organization has disappeared, the patriarchal organization of family groups still persists, at any rate in the more remote or mountainous regions. The unit is the family group, called *fare* or *fratria*, wherein kinship is only reckoned in the male line and between whose members marriage is strictly forbidden.

The group feeling depends not only upon common kinship, but on common customs and traditions, and in the more barbarous districts, e. g. round Berat, on the institution of the blood feud, according to which blood-guiltiness attaches not merely to the individual but to all the members of the family group. Of late years from various causes blood feuds in south Albania have tended to disappear, and even where they are rife, can in most cases be adjusted by the family elders and by money payments instead of murders. Moreover, if quarrels arise between one bey and another bey, it is customary for the injured party to employ a retainer to kill his rival; and in revenge his life may be taken by the rival's retainer. Thus the actual murderers are only agents, and feuds tend to be kept more in hand than among the Ghegs. The greater family group is subdivided into smaller family groups under which these separate families are ranged. Though the family name or names are well known to each of its members, the individual contents himself with his own name and his father's name, and sometimes—added on to them—his grandfather's name or perhaps the name of some distinguished but forgotten ancestor. North of the River Voyusa a place-name is substituted—after the father's name—for the ancestor's name. Some families are more distinguished than others. Each family group has a chief at its head, but he owes his position not so much to hereditary descent as to the influence that he has gained over his kinsmen by the extent of his landed possessions and the strength of his own character. The chiefs or heads of families live, not on their lands, the cultivation of which they leave to tenant farmers on payment of one-half or one-third of the produce as rent, but in small towns and villages. Thus in the village of Labovo, east of Argyrokastro, of about 100 houses 27 belong to the Dodate family, 20 to the Kiliate family,

33 to the Michantsuliate family, and the rest to families of no account. In the village of Tsheper 80 houses out of 150 belong to one family, the rest to three other families. The heads of families constitute a council of elders, who settle disputes, even, as already mentioned, in cases of blood feuds. But the political and military powers of the family chiefs and headmen have practically disappeared. In some parts the family groups celebrate common festivals.

In most districts the villages are grouped round a town, which may or may not give its name to the district ; and in the towns the heads of the principal families have their houses, often fortified strongholds, wherein their forefathers used to live surrounded by their armed and paid retainers.

Since the disappearance of the old tribal chiefs in the early decades of last century, a new class of beys has arisen, who gained the lands belonging to the ruined or exterminated families either by confiscation or by purchase. While some of these new beys were Turks, most of them were native Albanians, who, having turned Mussulman, had got rich or become powerful in the Turkish military or civil service, and had then returned to their own country to secure for themselves positions of influence in their own or neighbouring districts. Others had made money as traders in foreign parts and used their newly acquired wealth for the same purpose.

The distinctive dress of the Tosks is the well-known *fustanella*, which the Greek Palikars adopted from the Albanian settlers among them.

Vlachs

The Vlachs (called by the Slavs ‘Tsintsari’ or ‘Zingari’), who live mostly on the slopes of Mount

Pindus, form a very small element within the boundaries of the new principality of Albania. They inhabit a fairly large area on the Koritsa-Ersek road, but the largest number are shepherds in the great plain of Muzakya traversed by the River Semeni, who in summer pasture their flocks on the slopes of Mount Tomor. They are an inoffensive and inconspicuous people, who keep to themselves; when given a chance of educating themselves, they take readily to commerce. Most of the principal merchant families in Durazzo, for instance, are of Vlach origin. The Vlachs call themselves 'Arumani' (i. e. Romani), and speak a Romance dialect, which they must have learnt from their Latin masters in the time of the Roman Empire. Ethnologists consider them to be descendants of the ancient Thracians. They all belong to the Orthodox Church.

(6) DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION

There is a complete absence of census materials regarding Albania, and the scanty figures obtainable can only be regarded as approximate. The population is sparse in the mountainous districts and along the coast, except on the lacustrine and coastal plains, which include the ports of Scutari, Durazzo, and Valona, where there is a considerable population. The population is also denser along the rivers and on the inland plains. The total population is estimated as probably amounting to between 800,000 and 850,000, but some estimates put it as high as 1,500,000, or even more. The estimated populations of the principal towns are: Durazzo, 5,000; Scutari, 32,000; Elbasan, 13,000; Tirana, 12,000; Argyrokastro, 12,000; Berat, 8,500; Koritsa, 8,000; Kroya, 7,000; Valona, 6,500.

Emigration.—A certain amount of emigration takes

place to the United States, but the Annual Report of Immigration of that country does not give any figures regarding Albania. The return of emigrants from America is likely to have a considerable influence on the development of the country. (For Albanians settled outside Albania, see the Note to this section, 'Distribution of the Albanian Race in 1912'.)

Albanians have always been in great demand as cavasses, guards, and soldiers, and until 1908 the Sultan's bodyguard was exclusively composed of them.

It is difficult to obtain any trustworthy figures as to the distribution of different races and religions in Albania. M. Vellay¹ estimates the Catholic Christians, who are mostly in the north, at about 200,000. For the southern districts, claimed by the Greeks and by them called 'North Epeiros', the statistics seem mostly to be derived from a Turkish census of 1908; and though they vary somewhat according to their manipulation by different authorities, it appears possible to draw some general inferences from them. In the whole of this district, out of an estimated total of 220,000, some 100,000 appear to be Moslem, 50,000 Greek or Greek-speaking Christians, and 70,000 Albanian or other Orthodox Christians, to a great extent Greek in sympathy. If Koritsa and adjacent districts, in which there are few Greeks, but some 70,000 Moslems to 55,000 Christians, be excluded from the estimate, the region round Argyrokaströ and Khimara, with a population of nearly 100,000, is half Greek-speaking Christians, the remaining half being Orthodox Christians or Moslems in the proportion of about 1 : 2.

The number of Vlachs in Albania is by some estimated as high as 20,000. A much-disputed question is as to the number of Serbs; Gopčević places it as

¹ *La Question de l'Adriatique* (Paris, 1913), p. 18.

high as 24,000 in central Albania and 21,000 in the cazá of Koritsa, but his figures are not generally accepted, and clearly show a Serbian bias.

NOTE

Distribution of the Albanian Race in 1912

It may be properly assumed that the great bulk of the population within the frontiers finally agreed on by the Ambassadors' Conference in London in 1913, belong with some exceptions to the Albanian race. These exceptions are a few Serbs in the north, a few Bulgars in the Lake Okhrida district in the east, a considerable number of Greeks in the south, some Vlachs at Ersek and elsewhere in the Koritsa district, and some nomad Vlachs in the district of Mt. Tomor. There are also a few Turks and Gipsies, and in the coast towns a few Italians.

Outside the frontiers of Albania there are many Albanians living in various parts of the Balkan peninsula; for, like many races of mountaineers, they have multiplied and overrun into neighbouring countries, beyond the districts recently annexed, and even sent out colonies across the seas.

(1) In Montenegro Albanians are still found in considerable numbers (*a*) in the towns and districts of Dulcigno and Antivari (annexed 1878–80) on the coast, (*b*) in the interior—in the towns and districts of Podgoritsa (annexed 1878), Spuzh and Zhablyak in the valley of the Moracha and its tributary the Zeta, while the tribes of the Kochai (Kuchi) (annexed 1880) and of the Gruda and Hoti (annexed in 1913), and the towns and districts of Gusinye, Plava, Ipek, and Jakova (annexed in 1913) are wholly Albanian. Moreover the Triepshi tribe, annexed in 1880, though in origin half Montenegrin and half Albanian, is wholly Albanian in sentiment.

(2) In Serbia there are very considerable settlements of Albanians round the towns of Novibazar, Mitrovitsa, and Prishtina, and also in the plain of Kosovo and in the upper basin of the Morava as far north as Kursumlye and Prokuplye, towns lying on its tributary, the Toplitsa. In this region the part known as Old Serbia was occupied by Albanians as long ago as 1679, when 37,000 Serbian families emigrated to Karlowitz and the Austrian dominions. The Sultan Abdul

Hamid encouraged the settlement of Albanians in this district, as did the Austrian Government during its occupation of the Sanjak of Novibazar. The general result has been that Moslem Albanians now form the bulk of the population.

Scattered settlements of Albanians are found on the upper waters of the Vardar at Kalkandelen (or Tetovo), round Üsküb, and at Koprüülü (or Veles), and again north and east of Üsküb in the neighbourhood of Kumanovo, and, farther east, of Kratovo.

The districts of Lyuma and Dibra are mainly Albanian, and of Okhrida three parts are Albanian and one part Bulgarian.

A few Albanian villages occur south of Monastir—there are many Albanians in the town itself—among Serbian, Bulgarian, Vlach, and Turkish communities, and also north of Monastir as far as Prilep.

(3) In Greece the Albanians have for some centuries formed numerous settlements. In the middle of the nineteenth century it was estimated by Von Hahn that Albanians formed the majority of the population in Bocotia, Attica, Megara, and Argolis, and the entire population of the islands of Spezzia, Hydra, Salamis, and Paros, and also of the northern half of Andros and the southern part of Euboea. Numerous Albanian settlements existed in the valley of the Spercheus, in Phocis, in Achaea, Corinth, and Southern Arcadia. In fact there were Albanians almost everywhere except in Aetolia, Aearnanian, Laconia, and Messenia. Albanians then formed, it is stated, one-fifth of the population of the kingdom. At the present time they are estimated at one-seventh or one-eighth. Other estimates in Murray's and Baedeker's *Guide to Greece* estimate the proportion at between one-ninth and one-tenth. All these estimates refer to the time before the accessions of 1913, which nearly doubled the population of Greece, and must have diminished the proportion of Albanians. They have been rapidly hellenized; most of them speak Greek only, some Greek and Albanian; very few speak Albanian only.

In the newly (1913) annexed districts there are not a few Albanians in the Macedonian region; and in Epeiros, west of the Kalamas, the majority of the population is of Albanian descent as far south as Parga, though most of the inhabitants speak Greek only or are bilingual. Very few—and these chiefly women—speak Albanian only.

(4) In the rest of the Balkan peninsula isolated Albanian

communities are to be found in Bulgaria, Bosnia, and Turkey. These settlements in Turkey are formed of old soldiers of the Turkish army (or their descendants), who after the expiration of their term of service were given grants of land ; their villages are called Arnaut Kōi (Arnaut=Albanian) and are frequently to be met with on both sides of the Bosphorus.

Many Albanians have settled in Bucarest in Rumania.

(5) Many Albanians are to be met with in Vienna and Fiume ; considerable groups are to be found near Mitrovitsa above Belgrade on the Syrman frontier, and again at Borgo Erizzo near Zara on the Dalmatian coast.

(6) Most remarkable are the Albanian colonies in southern Italy and Sicily, which date back to the fifteenth century, further settlements being made in the two following centuries. The colonists were in the first place mercenary soldiers, then soldiers from Skanderbeg's army, and later isolated groups from Albania and the Greek peninsula. At the present day the number of Albanians living in South Italy and Sicily is, according to the Italian census of 1901, no less than 209,929. Other authorities believe that there are only half that number. These Albanians live in some 70 villages in Italy, scattered over the 'regions' of Calabria, Basilicata, Apulia, Abruzzi, and Otranto, and in 6 or 7 villages in Sicily in the provinces of Palermo, Catania, and Girgenti. Of the villages 27 are Orthodox, and the rest Roman Catholic. The colonists are mostly of Tosk origin, and have preserved many of their old customs, their dress, and even their language. Many, however, speak a corrupt Greek dialect—a fact which points to their being of Greek rather than Albanian descent—and in any case it is rare nowadays to meet an Albanian colonist who knows no language but his own.

(7) There is a considerable colony of Albanians in Egypt, formed by the descendants of Albanians who served as soldiers under Mehemet Ali (1769–1849) and his grandson and successor Ismail (Khedive, 1863–9).

(8) Of late years many Albanians have settled in the United States of America, where they have proved themselves to be highly successful colonists. These American Albanians have done much to promote the Albanian movement towards independence.

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

I. *Period of Foreign Rule*

27 B. C. Under the Roman Empire modern Albania divided between the three provinces of Dalmatia, Macedonia, and Epirus.

A. D. 395. After the division of the Roman Empire Albania included in the Eastern or Byzantine Empire, and divided between the Province of Dyrrachium (Durazzo) in the north and the Province of Nicopolis in the south.

Overrun by the Goths in the fourth and fifth centuries.

535. Reconquered by the Emperor Justinian.

North Albania

636-1360. Invaded and ruled—with sundry interruptions—by the Serbo-Croats (Slavs).

1081. The Normans seize Durazzo.

1271-1378. The Sicilian kings of the house of Anjou rule in Central Albania.

1331-55. Stephen Dushan, the Serb, includes all Albania in his extensive Serbian Empire under the title of 'Imperator Romaniae (i. e. the Greeks), Slavoniae, et Albaniae'.

South Albania

861. Conquered—as far north as Khimara—by Bulgars (Tatars).

893-927. The Bulgar Tsar Simeon extends his rule northwards as far as Dalmatia.

1014. Reconquered by the Byzantine Emperor, Basil II.

1204. Michael Comnenus founds the independent 'Despotate of Epeiros'.

II. *Period of Native Rule**North Albania*

- 1359-92. The Thopia family rule the district round Durazzo and Kroya.
- 1366-1421. The Balsha family rule a portion of Upper Albania; but the Venetians establish themselves in Scutari, Antivari, &c. The Dukajin rule Alessio and the district between it and Ipek.

South Albania

1358. Ghëg emigrants from the northern mountains capture Yanina and Arta. Tosk emigrants plant colonies in Bocotia, Attica, and Sparta.
- 1368-1476. The Musaki family rule the district round Berat.

III. *Period of Turkish Rule*

- c. 1435. Invaded by the Turks.
1443. George Castriotis (Skanderbeg) returns from Constantinople, seizes Kroya, and defeats the Turks in eight campaigns.
- 1458-60. Truce with Turkey.
- 1461-6. Skanderbeg again defeats the Turks.
1467. Skanderbeg dies, leaving Kroya and his principality to the Venetians.
1478. The Turks capture Kroya and (1479) Scutari from the Venetians.
- c. 1420. The Turks seize Argyrokastro.
1431. Sultan Murad captures Yanina and (1449) Arta. Many Tosk refugees settle in Sicily.

The whole of Albania now in possession of the Turks, except the most mountainous districts and except the Venetian possessions, Durazzo, Antivari, and Dulcigno, of which the Turks captured the first in 1502 and the two latter in 1571.

- c. 1760. Mahomet of Bushat obtains the title of hereditary pasha of Scutari.
- c. 1769. Ali of Tepelen (born 1740) makes himself bey of Tepelen.

North Albania

1770. His son, Kara Mahmud, fights against the Turks.

1829. Mustafa Bushati, hereditary pasha of Scutari, Veli Bey of Yanina, Silehdar Poda, and Arslan Bey rise against the Turks. Reshid Pasha re-subjugates Southern Albania.

1831. Mustafa surrenders to Reshid.

1835, 1836, 1844. Risings in Chegaria.

1853. The Mirdites at war with the Montenegrins.

1856. Mustafa Pasha establishes the Majlis i Jebel to administer justice among the Malsors.

1862. The Mirdites at war with the Montenegrins.

1865. Albania divided between the four new vilayets of Scutari, Yanina, Kosovo, and Monastir.

1876. The Malsors (except the Mirdites) fight with the Turks against the Montenegrins.

South Albania

1788. Ali appointed by the Porte pasha of Yanina.

1797. Ali occupies Butrinto, Prevesa, and Vonitsa.

1798. Ali deserts the French and joins the Allies.

1798. Ali made Governor of South Albania and Epeiros, (1799) Vali of Rumelia.

1803. Ali captures Suli.

1807. Ali allies himself with Napoleon.

1814. Ali deserts Napoleon, and (1819) gets possession of Parga.

1820. Sultan Mahmud II deprives Ali of his pashalik.

1822. Ali assassinated at Yanina.

1847. Insurrection in Toskeria.

1878. Formation of the Albanian League.
Treaty of Berlin.
1879. The Albanians resist the cession of Plava and Gusinye to the Montenegrins.
1880. Naval demonstration of the Great Powers; Dulcigno ceded to Montenegro. The Turks banish Prenk Bib Doda of Mirdita and attempt to dissolve the Albanian League.
1881. Cession of the district of Arta to Greece.
1899. Formation of a new Albanian League to defend the Sultan's territory against further encroachments.
1903. Albanians of Kosovo and Monastir protest against the Austro-Russian scheme of reforms in Macedonia, and murder the Russian Consul at Mitrovitsa.
1908. Albanians join the Young Turkish movement and swear loyalty to the Turkish Constitution.
1909. Albanians oppose the Ottomanizing policy of the Young Turks. Mutiny of the Sultan's Albanian body-guard at Constantinople. Rebellion of the Maltsors.
- 1910, 1911. Further Albanian revolts in the vilayets of Scutari and Kosovo.
1912. The Albanians of Kosovo seize Prishtina and Ūsküb and threaten Salonika. Outbreak of the First Balkan War.
Principle of Albanian Independence recognized by the Great Powers.
1913. Capture of Yanina by the Greeks and of Scutari by the Montenegrins.
Treaty of London (May 30): appointment of an International Commission of Control, and delimitation of the frontiers of the Albanian Principality.
1914. Prince William of Wied lands at Durazzo on March 7 and leaves the country on September 4.

i. *Introductory*

THE different history of the Albanians north and south of the River Skumbi, which, running from east to west, cuts the country into roughly equal halves, sufficiently accounts for their modern differences in physique, in language, and in manners and customs. For some centuries at any rate Albania has been divided into two well-marked districts, separated by

the Skumbi ; the northern is known as Ghegaria, the southern as Toskeria, inhabited respectively by Ghegs and Tosks, who now speak dialects so different as to be barely intelligible to one another.

Though a continuous history of the Albanian people can hardly be constructed, one fact clearly stands out through all the centuries. Sheltered by their impassable mountains and defended by their own indomitable courage and fierce spirit of local independence, the Albanians alone of all the peoples of the Balkan peninsula have safely weathered the storms of invasion. The Celts, the Romans, the Goths, the Serbs, the Bulgars, and the Turks successively overwhelmed them ; but, though in each case all or part of them were nominally conquered, they emerged with their peculiar national characteristics as strong as ever. They have always succeeded in preserving their own singular individuality and language, and, if any foreign elements forced their way among them, have assimilated them to their own type and culture, or rather, perhaps, lack of culture.

ii. *Under Turkish Suzerainty*

In the course of the century between 1383 and 1479, notwithstanding the brave defence (1443-67) of the northerners under the famous George Castriotis or Skanderbeg, both Ghegs and Tosks were incorporated in the Ottoman Empire. The succeeding centuries of Turkish rule, which legally came to an end only in 1913, have had for their result the present extraordinary divisions and diversities of the Albanian people. At the time of the Turkish invasion the Ghegs were Latin Catholics, while the Tosks belonged to the Orthodox Church. But in north and south alike, in districts where the Turkish conquest was a reality, the warlike Albanians, especially their chieftains, finding that their choice lay between giving up their arms or their

Christianity, clung to their arms rather than to their faith, and, in order to follow their favourite profession and at the same time to retain their landed property, for the most part promptly turned Mussulman. Their attitude to religion is well expressed by their own proverb: 'The creed follows the sword.' Only in districts where the Turks have been unable, or on account of the poverty of the inhabitants unwilling, to penetrate, have the Albanians adhered to their ancient faith. Thus most of the Malsors (mountaineers), including the Mirdites, of the north, have always remained Catholic; and in the south the Khimariotes of the wild Acroceraunian promontory have always remained Orthodox.

The result has been that, for some centuries, in Albania, unlike other parts of the Balkan peninsula where the bulk of the population persisted under continual oppression in their Christian faith, the Moslems have not only constituted the privileged caste, but have outnumbered the Christians in the proportion of nearly two to one. In the Moslem world, nationality has never counted for much; the great distinction is between Moslems and infidels. This fact the wily Albanian was quick to grasp and soon turned to his own advantage. If he elected to stay in his own country, he used his new creed not only to retain his lands and to exercise the privilege of carrying arms, but to secure for himself positions of power and influence, nominally in the Turkish service, but practically in almost complete independence of the central government. If, on the other hand, he went abroad, he entered the Turkish service as a soldier or as an administrator, and often gained promotion to offices of great power and importance. In fact, his soldier-like qualities and independent spirit won for him special privileges even as compared with other

Moslems in the Empire ; he was never subjected to the Turkish law of compulsory military service, but always served as a volunteer at a high rate of pay. Among the Janissaries the Albanians were always the best soldiers ; and in the nineteenth century the Sultan's body-guard was, until the Revolution of 1908, composed solely of Albanians. However, though the Albanian chiefs in their own worldly interests were apt to turn Mussulman, they always remained Albanians first and were Mussulmans only in the second place.

Even in the early years of Turkish supremacy they found but little difficulty in keeping the Turks out of their country, whose wild tribes and rugged mountain sides offered but little attraction to ambitious or avaricious Turkish pashas. Moreover the Turkish policy seems to have aimed not so much at governing the new territory as at keeping it weak by encouraging rivalry among the clans. These they allowed to be split up into petty military principalities, governed by native chiefs or beys jealous of and hostile to each other : and in course of time some of these were able to get the better of their neighbours, to add to their own territories at their expense, and to become, all but in name, independent princes. The two most famous instances were the Bushat Pashas of Scutari (Skodra) in the north, and Ali, Pasha of Tepelen, in the south.

The first Bushat Pasha of Scutari was Mahomet, who was appointed to his office about 1760 and gained for his family an hereditary pashalik. The last of the dynasty was Mustafa, who having rebelled against the Sultan, Mahmud II, was forced to surrender to the Grand Vizier, Reshid Pasha, in 1829.

iii. *Ali Pasha*

Ali, born at Tepelen in 1740, began by making himself bey of his native town and then obtaining recognition from the Porte. In 1787 he fought for the Turks against the Russians and was appointed Derwend-Pasha (Governor of the Marches) of Rumelia. A year later he was promoted to be Pasha of Yanina, in which office he still further gained the confidence of the central government by the cruel discipline that he maintained in his own district and by the regular payment of tribute and bribes to Constantinople. He extended his own territories at the expense of his neighbours. First the French and then the British acquiesced in his seizing the coast towns of Butrinto, Prevesa, and Vonitsa, which had previously belonged to Venice. He massacred many of the Christian inhabitants of Khimara. For eighteen years he fought the neighbouring Suliote League; but not till 1803, and then only by treachery, did he succeed in capturing and destroying Suli, its mountain stronghold. In central Albania he defeated a league of Moslem tribes headed by Ibrahim of Berat and Mustafa of Delvino. In 1797 the Sultan created him a pasha of 'three tails' and made him governor of southern Albania and Epeiros, and in 1799 he was in addition appointed Vali of Rumelia.

The year 1803 marks the height of his power; he was master of Epeiros, South Albania, and Thessaly; his son Veli was Pasha of the Greek Peloponnesus and his son Mukhtar Pasha of Lepanto (Naupactus). By practising all the arts that Machiavelli preaches, Ali had made himself into a practically independent prince. At last, however, he over-reached himself. In 1820 he attempted to procure the murder of his personal

enemy, Pachó Bey, within the precincts of the palace at Stamboul. The Sultan Mahmud II at once issued a decree for his deposition and, as Ali refused to obey and tried to make common cause with the Greek rebels in the south, entrusted its execution to Khursid Pasha. For many months in 1821 the old man withstood a siege in his island fortress at Yanina, but at last, early in 1822, he was forced to ask for terms and was treacherously assassinated.

Ali Pasha's importance in Albanian history is two-fold: first, by his local wars and massacres he destroyed the old feudal system of tribal chiefs in southern and central Albania; secondly, he united a large number of Albanians to fight under his own banner, and in his last years to fight against the Turk, thereby awakening in them some sense of Albanian nationality. His exploits are still sung in many an Albanian ballad, and his portrait still hangs among the sacred *ikons* in the cottages of south Albania.

iv. *Turkish Policy*

In his campaigns of 1829-31 Reshid Pasha, the Grand Vizier of Mahmud II, deposed Mustafa, the last hereditary Pasha of Scutari of the Bushat family, and by massacres and deportations put an end to the feudal chieftains in Ghegaria, save in the more inaccessible mountain fastnesses, at the same time destroying any remnants of the tribal system that had survived the reign of Ali Pasha in Toskeria. Warned by past experience, the Porte took care henceforward to appoint no clever or ambitious pashas in any part of Albania. Small revolts that occurred in Ghegaria in 1835-6 and in 1844 and in Toskeria in 1847 were easily quelled. In 1856 a threatened rising at Scutari was nipped in the bud by the appearance of Mustafa Pasha at the

head of an army of 10,000 men, who took the opportunity to set up a Council of Ten, with its seat at Scutari, to exercise jurisdiction over the Malzia e Mathe (i. e. the 'Great Highlands') round the city. This Council was popularly known as the *Jibal* (jebel = mountain); and its jurisdiction was at a later date extended to include all the Maltsors (i. e. mountaineers) north of the River Drin. Finally, in 1865, in order to render any combination of the Albanians impossible for the future, the country was for administrative purposes split up among the four vilayets of Scutari, Monastir, Yanina, and Kosovo, each with its own *vali* or governor and garrison.

In 1868 Bib Doda, the hereditary chief of the Roman Catholic Mirdites, died. At one time he had shown signs of carving out for himself an independent principality, but had, as a matter of fact, wasted all his power and resources in fruitless wars (1853 and 1862) against Prince Danilo II of Montenegro. After his death the Turks took the precaution of carrying off his son, Prenk Bib Doda, then only twelve years old, to Constantinople, and at the same time declared the seigneurial autonomy of Mirdita at an end.

The principle of nationality, awakened to some extent even in Albania by the attempt of Ali Pasha of Yanina to shake himself free of the overlordship of the Ottoman Sultan, realized to a limited extent in Serbia by the erection of a semi-autonomous principality in 1817, and in Greece successfully carried through in the War of Liberation in 1830, received in 1870 new life in that part of the Balkan peninsula which was still directly governed by Turkey, through the firman issued by the Sultan Abd-ul-Aziz creating the Bulgarian Exarchate. Hitherto all his Christian subjects—save a few Roman Catholics in Albania—had been under the spiritual jurisdiction of the Oecumenical Patriarch at

Constantinople, and had therefore been regarded, to whatever race they might really belong, as Greeks. The appointment of a Bulgarian Exarch meant the recognition by the Porte of different Christian nationalities; and from this time onwards it has been its deliberate policy to foment the conflicting ambitions of Greeks, Bulgarians, Serbs, Rumanians, and Albanians, in order to keep its hold over Thrace, Macedonia, Albania, and Epeiros—the provinces that still remained under Turkish rule.

For four hundred years the Albanians of Albania had been subject to the Turk; they had lived in a kind of European backwater and, so far as civilization was concerned, had gone backward rather than forward. At no period of their history had they ever constituted a single state. Contrasted with their neighbours, Albanians they certainly were and felt themselves to be; but their only political passion, if political it can be called, was to maintain the local independence of their beys and clans. Now, with the break-up of the Turkish Empire, they found themselves faced with a new and to them incalculable danger. The new independent principalities, carved out of the Ottoman dominions—Montenegro,¹ Serbia, and Greece—showed a tendency to aggrandize themselves, nominally at the expense of the Turks, but really at the expense of the Albanians. Finally, as time went on, first Austria and then Italy showed signs of wanting to have a finger in the Albanian pie.

¹ Montenegro was never really conquered; and a Turkish firman of 1799 recognized that it had never been a vassal of Turkey, a recognition formally repeated in 1878.

v. *The Russo-Turkish War, 1877-8*

It was not, however, till the year 1878 that the Albanians found themselves affected by the arrangements of the Great European Powers. In 1876 Prince Nicholas of Montenegro had, before he declared war against Turkey, asked in vain for aid from the Albanians. Most of the Maltsors threw in their lot with the Turks and were heavily involved in their defeat. The Mirdites temporized, promising help to the Turks, if their native prince, Prenk Bib Doda, now a youth of 17, was restored to them from exile. But, when Bib Doda was duly restored, they still refused to fight. The rest of the Albanians made no move. In 1877, when Russia entered into the war against Turkey, a wave of enthusiasm passed over the Albanians; and they all, the Mirdites included, fought loyally and bravely in support of the Sultan. At the end of the war the abortive Treaty of San Stefano (March 3, 1878) between the Russians and Turks gave the Albanians a foretaste of the degree of gratitude with which Turkey would repay their loyalty; for under its provisions they were to surrender Gusinye and Plava on their NE. borders to Montenegro, and the district west of Lakes Okhrida and Prespa to Bulgaria.

At this point, however, the Great Powers of Europe—Great Britain, France, Austria-Hungary, Italy, and Germany—interposed and superseded the Treaty of San Stefano by the Treaty of Berlin, signed July 1878. Under its provisions the Albanians found that, though the district west of Lake Okhrida was left to Turkey—really to themselves—they were still required to surrender Gusinye and Plava to Montenegro. Moreover the additions made to Serbian territory included Kurshumlye and Vranja, districts with many Albanian inhabitants. Once again the Turks tried to work on

the feelings of nationality to promote their own interests. In the summer of 1878 the Albanians of his district were instigated by Husein Pasha, the Vali of Scutari, to form a national league of their own. Accordingly their chiefs met together at Prizren and formed a League of 'Skipetars', having—so they proclaimed—a threefold object: (1) to maintain the sovereignty of the Sultan and to 'resist until death' any attempt made on the inviolability of his dominions in their own land; (2) to combine the three vilayets of Scutari, Kosovo, and Yanina into a single province to be governed by a Turkish Governor-General and Council of Ten, who were to be advised by an Albanian Committee elected by universal suffrage; and (3) to raise a national militia under Turkish officers. Scutari was made the head-quarters of the league, and branches were established at Prizren and Elbasan.

vi. *Albania and Montenegro*

The immediate result was that desired by the Turks; the Albanians, who cared little for the Sultan and nothing for the European Congress, forcibly resisted all attempts made by the Montenegrins to annex Gusinye and Plava. When the Sultan, in obedience to the European mandate, called upon them to withdraw, they murdered his first envoy and refused to obey his second. All through 1879 the Albanians continued to fight. In 1880 Count Corti, the Italian ambassador at Constantinople—the first appearance of official Italy on the Albanian scene—proposed a compromise, which also proved unacceptable to the Albanians. Prenk Bib Doda joined the malcontents at the head of 10,000 of his Mirdites. At this point Great Britain intervened and, by organizing a naval demonstration of the Great Powers (September 1880), compelled the

Turks to cede in compensation to Montenegro, instead of Gusinye and Plava, the roadstead of Dulcigno and a strip of sea-board extending southwards as far as the River Boyana—a district which was just as much Albanian as the other. In the following November the Turks drove the Albanians out of Dulcigno and handed the town over to the Montenegrins. At the same time Prenk Bib Doda was kidnapped on board a Turkish man-of-war and carried off into exile; his chief village, Oroshi, was burnt; the forces of the Albanian League were defeated; and the League itself was suppressed. Next year, however, the Porte found it to its interest to revive the Albanian League in order to oppose the cession of a strip of south Albania (including Yanina and Metsovo) to Greece in fulfilment of promises made to the Greeks at the Berlin Congress. French opposition to the proposal narrowed down the Turkish loss to the district of Arta.

vii. *The Albanian League*

For the next twenty-seven years Albania and the Albanians played no part in European politics, and, forgotten by European politicians, lapsed back into the time-honoured state of local feuds and anarchy. The Albanian League in some form or other lingered on, fostered by Albanian patriots living abroad in Egypt, Sofia, Bucearest, America, and elsewhere. During the Greco-Turkish War of 1897 it gave some feeble signs of life, when the Albanians of Kosovo and Monastir resisted European attempts to check disorder in their districts, as being an invasion of their ancient privilege of raiding upon their neighbours. Again in 1899 the same spirit of resentment against foreign interference was displayed at a great meeting of Albanian notables at Ipek, who had gathered to consider measures for the

defence of Islam against the disaffected Christian tribes of Old Serbia, Montenegro, and Macedonia. The notables resolved to form a new Albanian League, which was to have the twofold object of defending the Sultan's territory against all encroachment and of opposing any changes in the administration of Macedonia. Four years later (1903) a similar protest was made against the Austro-Russian projects of reform in Macedonia; indeed on this occasion 3,000 Albanians of Kosovo rose in rebellion and shot the Russian consul at Mitrovitsa.

viii. *The Young-Turk Revolution*

In 1908 the Albanians shared with all the peoples of Turkey in Europe and many of the peoples of Turkey in Asia the intoxication of the Young Turk movement and revolution. Ghegs and Tosks showed equal zeal in taking the oath to the 'Constitution'. What exactly they expected to get by it is by no means clear; at any rate it was something very different from what has turned out to be their portion.

To understand the events that followed, it is necessary to remember the peculiar position which the Albanians occupied in the Balkan peninsula. The Moslem Albanians had good reasons for remaining loyal to the Ottoman Empire—always provided that they were allowed to retain their local independence. Even the Christian Albanians of the mountains, protected by their inaccessibility, had always remained really independent and lived on equal terms with neighbouring Moslem Albanians.

The Porte on its side, however, had never forgotten the lesson of Ali Pasha of Yanina, and had ever since made repeated attempts to interfere with Albanian local independence. In this policy the Sultan Abdul Hamid II (1876–1909) had been most pertinacious.

He had, however, been powerless to protect what the Albanians had regarded as their territory, and had ceded whole districts to Greeks and Montenegrins. Then suddenly the Young Turks came forward with a full programme of liberal reforms, and, backed by the army, were able to carry through an almost bloodless revolution. Moslems, Jews, and Christians were declared equal in the eyes of the law. The various races of the Empire were promised full control over their own local affairs.

The first effects were magical; and the Albanians were not behindhand in the general enthusiasm. The southerners, already initiated into the great conspiracy, eagerly joined the first open movement near Lake Okhrida. The northerners, who had in July 1908 gathered in great force at Ferizovich for an entirely different purpose, were also persuaded to join, and thereupon bound themselves under a solemn *bessa* (pledge of honour) to support the demand for the Constitution of 1876. This *bessa*, moreover, imposed, as if by magic, a truce on all tribal and private feuds and vendettas for nearly a year. The Albanians threatened at the same time to march on Üsküb (Skoplye) unless the Sultan promptly yielded to the demands of the Young Turks. Abdul Hamid, thus deserted by the hitherto loyal Albanians, promptly granted the Constitution. Clouds, however, soon appeared. Austria annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina; Bulgaria renounced Turkish sovereignty; Crete proclaimed her union with Greece. The Greeks, though for the moment they did nothing, put forward claims to southern Albania as a Greek province.

Things nearer the capital went no better. In April 1909 the Albanian troops in Constantinople mutinied. A counter-revolution took place, which was speedily crushed by the Young Turkish army marching from

Salonika on Constantinople. Abdul Hamid was deposed, and his younger brother was put on the throne in his place under the name of Mahommed V. Meanwhile the Young Turks had had time to show their true colours. Their object was, not to secure the local liberties of the various Ottoman dependencies, but to enforce the uniform turkification of the Empire. At the dictation of their secret committee, known as the Committee of Union and Progress, sitting at Salonika, an obedient Parliament rushed through a series of measures, which soon showed that the Young Turk was but the Old Turk writ large. The newly emancipated press was put at the mercy of the executive government; the police were once more given the right of prohibiting public meetings; the formation of clubs on a racial basis, even for educational or philanthropic purposes, was forbidden; the internal autonomy of the Christian communities was curtailed; the Turkish language was to be the vehicle of instruction in the higher schools of all the nationalities; and finally, a rigid system of taxation, conscription, and general administration, utterly alien to the customs and traditions of the inhabitants, was devised for Albania and Arabia. Moreover all civilians were forbidden to carry arms.

ix. *Albanian Revolts*

Utterly disillusioned, the Albanians, both in north and south, became as hostile to the Young Turks as they had previously been favourable to them; but they soon found themselves at a much greater disadvantage than they had ever been under the old regime. For the one reform which the Young Turks had seriously taken in hand was the reform of the army and navy. They were therefore soon able to send much more numerous and efficient forces to suppress revolts than

the old Sultans had ever sent. From May 1909 to the outbreak of the First Balkan War in October 1912 Albanian history is merely a chronicle of revolts and their suppression.

In May 1909 the northern Moslem tribes, objecting to pay the new taxes, rose in rebellion; and it was not till the end of October that the rising was quelled, in spite of the large Turkish forces sent against them. Most of the fighting was in the district of Lyuma, where Isa Boletin led the insurgents. In 1910 the north-eastern Moslem tribes of Kosovo revolted for the same reason; and during the whole summer a force of 50,000 men was occupied in subduing the rebels and disarming the Albanian population throughout the country. Whole villages were destroyed, and—what the proud clansmen could less easily forgive—their chiefs were publicly flogged. Discontent was equally rife in central and south Albania, though in these districts there was no armed rebellion. Here the cause of complaint was not so much the payment of taxes or the surrendering of weapons as the suppression of the newly established national schools. The Young Turks insisted that the children should be taught to write Albanian in Arabic letters—a sheer impossibility; the natives demanded that they should learn the use of the Latin characters, as agreed upon at several national congresses.

In 1911 the insurrection assumed larger dimensions. While the Moslem tribes kept quiet, the Roman Catholic Malzia e Mathe tribes, instigated by the Montenegrins, formed armed bands, and in the spring attacked with success the Turkish outposts on the Montenegrin frontier. In April Torgut Shevket Pasha tried to suppress the movement with a large army, but notwithstanding the superiority of his forces met with several reverses. In May Russia warned the Ottoman

Government not to extend hostilities against Montenegro. In June Mirdita joined the rebels, proclaiming her own autonomy and setting up a provisional government. In the same month there was a great meeting of rebel chiefs, who drew up a statement of their grievances and a list of their demands under twelve headings,¹ of which the most important were the recognition of Albanian nationality and the use of the Albanian language in the schools and in all local administration. At the same time means were found to publish in the European press an account of the barbarities with which the Turks had suppressed the revolts of the two previous years, and which, so far as they were able, they were repeating this spring; in fact Montenegro was already overcrowded with refugees.

x. *Turkish Concessions*

Suddenly—probably from fear of Austrian intervention—the Young Turks changed their plans and ordered Torgut Shevket Pasha to offer terms to the rebels. King Nicholas of Montenegro withdrew his support, both open and secret, and counselled submission. With an ill grace the Malsors in August accepted the offered terms,² which—on paper—granted all the demands that their chiefs had so recently made. Henceforward the Malsors were, amongst other things, not to be liable to military service outside Albania except in Rumelia and Constantinople; to be exempt from taxation for two years and to have certain taxes lowered; to be allowed to carry arms except in towns and bazaars; to be governed by native officials according to their own tribal laws and customs; to have local revenues applied to local needs—roads, bridges, and schools; to have their children taught in the

¹ See Appendix I.

² See Appendix II.

Albanian language written in Latin letters; and finally to have funds given them to rebuild their burnt houses and villages. A certain sum of money was indeed distributed, but the rest of the concessions, it is almost needless to say, remained a dead letter. An ominous sign of the change of feeling towards the Sultan was the failure of the Government to get more than 160 Albanians in the whole country to come forward as volunteers in the war which in September 1911 broke out between Turkey and Italy.

xi. *Albania and the Balkan Allies*

The winter of 1911-12 was passed by the Balkan States in various political intrigues with each other and with certain Great Powers; the Albanians remained, as before, a mere pawn in the game. The first sign of trouble occurred in February 1912, when there took place, in Scutari cathedral, a great gathering of the Malsor chiefs, who declared for local autonomy. The Young Turks, who wished above all things to avoid war with their Balkan neighbours, were alarmed, and in March sent their Minister of the Interior, Hadji Adil Bey, to Scutari, to draw up a new scheme of reforms; but the Malsor chiefs refused to meet him. Instigated anew by the Montenegrins, who were seeking for a *casus belli* with Turkey, the Catholic tribes of the north once more rose in revolt. The Mirdites soon followed, as a protest against their young men being enlisted for the Turkish *gendarmerie*. More important still, the Moslem Albanians of Kosovo also revolted, and in the course of July organized a force of 20,000 men, seized Prishtina, and published a manifesto, demanding the dissolution of the Turkish Parliament and fresh and fairly-conducted elections. For a short time a part of the Turkish army quartered in the district acted with the insurgents. The Albanians proceeded to occupy

Ûsküb and threatened to march on Salonika. In August the Turkish Government surrendered to the demands of the men of Kosovo, dissolved Parliament, and promised them some sort of autonomy. At the same time, through the mediation of the Archbishop of Scutari, all the Catholic tribes except Gruda and Shala made their peace with the Government on condition that the Turks should evacuate their military posts in the mountains—a settlement not at all in accord with the wishes of Montenegro. Meanwhile Tosk bands, which had assembled at Berat, but taken no part in actual hostilities, melted away.

By this time the Balkan League of the four independent States, Montenegro, Serbia, Bulgaria, and Greece, had been completed and was only awaiting the favourable moment to declare war on Turkey. The Central Albanian Committee, with its principal seats at Elbasan and Koritsa (Korehe), seems to have carried on some negotiations with the Balkan allies. Finally, however, they came to the conclusion that strict neutrality and an appeal to the Great Powers for the recognition of Albanian independence would be their best policy.

Accordingly, when the war broke out in October, only the Roman Catholic Malsors joined the Montenegrins; the Kosovo Albanians fought on the side of the Turks; the rest of the Albanians remained neutral. The Malsors, moreover, withdrew from the struggle before the end of the hostilities, being enraged at the cruel treatment by the Montenegrins of their Moslem neighbours.

xii. *The First Balkan War*

On October 8, the day on which hostilities began, the Great Powers, through Austria and Russia, presented a joint note at Sofia, addressed to all the Balkan States, practically forbidding the allies to fight, and warning them that, if they did so, they would get no accessions of territory by it. But this did not prevent the war.

The Montenegrins were first in the field (October 8). They divided their forces into three armies, two of which were to attack Scutari while the third was to invade the vilayet of Kosovo. The first two armies were hung up at Scutari, which was stoutly defended, first by Husein Riza Pasha and then, after his murder, by the Albanian, Essad Pasha, of Tirana. The third army occupied Biyelopolye, Berane, Plevlye, Plava, Gusinye, and Ipek, and joined the Serbs at Jakova. After their victory at Kumanovo (October 24), two Serbian armies operated against the Turks in Albania. The first, after the capture of Monastir, turned northwards and occupied Prizren and Jakova, and then by a rapid march over Mirdita, which was entirely unprepared for their appearance and was moreover very ill supplied with weapons, reached Alessio on November 19, where they were joined by a Montenegrin column, which had a day or two earlier seized San Giovanni di Medua. The two armies turned southwards and jointly occupied Durazzo (November 30). Meanwhile the Serbians occupied Dibra, Okhrida, and Elbasan.

In the south the Greek army of Thessaly invaded Albania from the east and occupied Koritsa; while the Greek army of Epeiros, crossing the frontier near Arta, seized Prevesa and Pentepigadia and then invested Yanina. A Greek fleet bombarded Valona on December 3, the very day on which an armistice was con-

cluded at the dictation of the Great Powers, though the sieges of Scutari in the north and Yanina in the south still continued. On December 16 peace negotiations were opened in London; and on December 20 Austria, rather than allow Albania to be partitioned between the Slav States on the north and Greece on the south, with the result that Serbia would obtain an outlet on the Adriatic, induced the Great Powers to recognize the principle of an autonomous Albania.

xiii. *Albanian Independence Proclaimed*

Meanwhile at the summons of Ismail Kemal Bey, who had travelled from Constantinople *via* Bucarest, Budapest, and Vienna to Durazzo, a Congress of 83 Albanian notables, mostly from central and south Albania, met at Valona, and on November 28 proclaimed the independence of Albania and hoisted the old flag of Skanderbeg. They also constituted a Provisional Government, with Ismail Kemal as President, and notified to the Great Powers and the Porte the formation of the new State and their determination to defend the rights of the Albanian people, now menaced with extermination by the Serbian army, to free the land from all foreign invaders, and to prevent any cessions of Albanian territory. As a matter of fact, the powers of this Provisional Government did not extend more than a dozen miles round Valona.

In the winter months Austria-Hungary massed troops along the Montenegrin and Serbian frontiers; and, Turkey pursuing an obstructive policy, the peace negotiations were broken off on February 3, 1913. The Balkan allies being again successful, and the Greeks having captured Yanina on March 6, the London negotiations were resumed; and on March 28 the Great Powers handed in a collective note, ordering

hostilities to cease and commanding the Montenegrins to raise the siege of Scutari and the Serbs to evacuate Albania. A few days later they sent a combined fleet under Admiral Burney to Antivari to enforce the will of the European Concert. The Serbs obediently retired, though they contrived to leave considerable forces in Mirdita and the vilayet of Kosovo. The Montenegrins obstinately persisted in the siege of Scutari, till on April 22 Essad Pasha surrendered the town on good terms. The Montenegrins were, however, on May 14 compelled to hand the place over to an international landing force under Colonel Phillips.

xiv. *The Treaty of London, 1913*

Under the Treaty of London,¹ May 30, 1913, the settlement of the new Albania was reserved for the future decision of the Great Powers, who found themselves faced with the impossible task of reconciling the competing claims of the victorious Greeks, Serbs, and Montenegrins with the national rights of the Albanian population. In the course of the summer an international commission of control was sent out to Valona with the task of drawing up a general scheme of government; two commissions were appointed to delineate the new frontiers—of which the southern sent in its report on December 17, 1913, but the northern did not finish its work until June 1914²; and Holland was requested to organize a *gendarmerie* for the policing of the country. But for nearly twelve months no scheme for the general government of the country was provided. In September Essad Pasha set up a government of his own at Durazzo, which he called the Senate of Central Albania.

¹ Cf. Appendix III. For full text of the Treaty, see Appendix XV to *Eastern Question*, No. 15 of this series.

² Cf. Sir Edward Grey's speech: Hansard, lvi, p. 2283.

xv. *The Prince of Wied*

At last, in November, the Great Powers selected as their candidate for the throne of the new principality Prince William of Wied, nephew of the late Queen Elizabeth of Rumania, and cousin of the Queen of Holland. On February 21, 1914, Essad Pasha headed a deputation of Albanian notables to Neuwied to offer him the crown, with the title Mpret, in the name of the new Albania. The offer was accepted, and on March 7 Prince William landed at Durazzo. During his unfortunate reign he practically never went outside the town. His first act was to make Essad a general. The next week the Albanians attacked the Greeks at Koritsa; and an inter-tribal feud broke out between the partisans of Essad and Ismail Kemal. On March 18 a Cabinet was formed, in which Essad was Minister of War. This was immediately followed by a rising of the Greeks in southern Albania, who had been offered by the Dutch High Commissioner a form of autonomy which limited their union with the rest of Albania to one of personal allegiance to the new prince. The offer was repudiated by the new Government: and some 10,000 Albanians assembled to fight the Greek 'bands', who had now replaced the Greek army of occupation. The struggle went on for months, until the Greek bands, supported by volunteers from Greece, succeeded in July in capturing Koritsa, Klisura, and Tepelen. Meanwhile, in May, Essad Pasha was arrested at Durazzo by Austrian partisans, on suspicion of being concerned in a plot to dethrone Prince William, but was allowed to escape to Italy. In June his partisans, instigated by the Young Turks, laid siege to Durazzo. A month later Prince William appealed to the Ministers of the Powers for help. In August, after the European War had begun, affairs

became still more threatening. Insurgents, carrying the Turkish flag, seized Valona and marched on Durazzo, with the result that on September 4 Prince William of Wied fled the country.

Once more Albania lapsed back into its usual anarchy, from which indeed it had never really emerged, and at the end of the year 1914 was split up into six divisions, each under its own regime (cf. p. 72).

Note.—For a collection of treaties bearing on the Balkan States generally, see Appendix to *The Eastern Question*, No. 15 in this series.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

THE Albanians remain in such a primitive stage of culture, that it has been found more convenient to treat of their existing conditions in detail in the Geographical Section above. Here their religious, political, and social conditions are briefly summarized.

(1) RELIGION

Two-thirds of the Albanians are Moslems and one-third Christians. The Christians in the north are Roman Catholics, excepting a very small Orthodox minority, mostly of Serb origin. The parishes are mostly served by Jesuit or Franciscan priests, the former trained in Austria, the latter in Italy; many of the Franciscans are of Italo-Albanian origin. The Christians in the south, whether Tosks or Vlachs, are Orthodox and acknowledge the Greek Patriarchate. Superstition is universal.

(2) GOVERNMENT

The Albanian people never have had and have not now any political institutions in the strict sense of the term. Their territory has always in name or in fact formed part of some larger political whole, excepting the brief twenty years when the hero Skanderbeg led his Ghegs to victory over the Turks. Even his rule never extended south of the River Skumbi. Moreover, the independent principality of Albania, created by the Powers in 1913-14, disappeared within a few weeks of the outbreak of the European War.

From 1479 to 1913 the Albanians were included within the European dominions of the Turkish Empire; and their mode of government—so far as they acknowledged any government—has merely varied with the different changes in that Empire. In these circumstances the Albanians have remained in many ways the most primitive people of Europe. The Gheg mountaineers of the north still possess an elaborate system of tribal organization. The Ghegs of the centre are in a stage analogous to the feudal system of the Middle Ages—with the lord of the soil, his armed retainers and his dependent cultivators. The Tosks of the south, though they still retain slight traces of an earlier tribal system, have at present little organization beyond a curious system of family groups.

All these institutions are social rather than political, and have therefore been treated in the Geographical Section (p. 7), to which reference is here made.

(3) EDUCATION

During his long reign (1876–1908) the Sultan Abdul Hamid, relying on the Albanians as his chief instrument for upholding the Ottoman Empire in the west of the Balkan peninsula, made it his settled policy to keep them in total ignorance. No printing presses, no newspapers, no books were allowed. Such schools as there were he contrived to close one by one until only a single girls' school at Koritsa, under the protection of the Austrian and American Governments, was left open. Albanian patriots, whether at home or abroad, seeing the successful use of schools made by the Bulgars, the Serbs, and the Greeks for the purposes of their national propaganda, clamoured in vain for Albanian schools, where the children should be taught the Albanian language in Latin letters. Not till the

revolution of 1908 were any schools allowed ; and then, to their great disgust, the Albanians discovered that the Young Turks meant to use them only as a means of their own ' turkifying ' policy. The Turkish language was to be the vehicle of all higher education ; in the primary schools Turkish was also to be taught ; and the greatest concession that the Turks would make was to allow the children to be taught to write Albanian in Turkish letters, which, as a matter of fact, cannot represent many of the Albanian sounds.¹ Since the disappearance of Turkish rule in 1913, many schools have been opened throughout the country. Up to that time wealthy Albanians had been able to get an education for their children only by sending them abroad ; the rest of the children, except that the Moslem children were taught to repeat a few verses of the Koran, received no education at all.

Under the protection of the Austrian Government a college and seminary were maintained by the Jesuits at Scutari ; and a few primary schools, e. g. in Mirdita, were carried on by the Franciscans. In all these institutions, however, instruction had to be given in a foreign language, generally Italian, even in the Austrian schools, as being commonly understood. Ever since Ali Pasha opened his famous Greek schools in Yanina, such schools as were permitted in southern Albania have all been Greek.

¹ The language was not reduced to writing till late in the nineteenth century. The question of a suitable alphabet then became a burning question ; and in 1879 the Turkish Government made an attempt to frame one, which, however, did not meet with general acceptance.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

(1) POPULAR OPINION AND NATIONAL SENTIMENT

The Albanians, like all primitive peoples, are impulsive, and their history shows that in their actions as a people they have been animated first and foremost by a fierce passion for local independence; secondly, and to a much less extent, by religious feeling; and thirdly, but only during the last few decades, by a growing consciousness of nationality.

i. *Local Independence*

Writing some twenty years ago, Sir Charles Eliot said ¹:

However irksome the regulations of the Porte may be, it is the only Government which gives its Christian [to this might well be added, 'and Moslem'] subjects full liberty to fight their quarrels out—and that is the only form of independence which they appreciate.

Down to the Young Turk revolution of 1908 all the highlanders, whether Ghegs or Tosks, whether Moslems or Christians, had enjoyed this local independence in full measure. All Albanians alike, except a small body of Orthodox Tosks in the south, who cultivated the lands for their Moslem lords, had exercised the privilege of carrying arms. They served not as conscripts in the Turkish armies, but only as highly-paid volunteers. Taxes were only paid where the Turkish Government had the power to enforce them, though only a few districts (such as Khimara and some Gheg districts) have been able permanently to defy the

¹ *Turkey in Europe*, p. 346.

Turkish sovereignty in this matter. Tribal and family custom were everywhere stronger than Turkish law. Free-booting raids, whether practised on Albanian, Greek, or Slav neighbours, were no concern of the central government.

ii. *Religious Feeling*

Religion, all travellers agree, has always sat lightly upon the Albanians, who have never had a national church of their own. The majority of them turned Mussulman rather than surrender the highly-prized privilege of carrying arms. In the north the Christian Ghegs, who have remained faithful to the Roman Catholic Church, protected by their mountains, have in practice always been as free as their Mussulman brethren. Only in the south did a large number of the Tosks, rather than desert the Orthodox Church of their fathers, submit to become the despised *rayahs* of Moslem landlords, whether Turks or Albanians. Both the Roman Catholics and the Orthodox Church used foreign languages in their rituals.

None the less the mere fact that the large majority of the Albanians did, from whatever motives, embrace the Mohammedan religion, has had a profound influence upon their history since the Turkish conquest. Both before and long after the Serbs and the Greeks achieved their national independence, the Albanians remained loyal subjects of the Ottoman Sultan; they formed his body-guard, they served in his army, they rose to high positions in his Government; they settled¹ in large numbers beyond their own local boundaries in other parts of his dominions, where they could be relied on to help the Government in keeping down the

¹ Cf. Note to Geographical Section, p. 24.

subject Christian populations. They have frequently rebelled against the oppression of a pasha or against an attempt at taxation, but, the grievance once removed, they were as loyal as ever.

iii. *Consciousness of Nationality*

The long-continued prevalence of the two feelings just described, coupled with the backward stage of their civilization, explains the fact why the Albanians, though possessed of a national individuality quite as marked as that of any of the other Balkan nations, have never fought, like the rest, for their national independence, and have been the last to emerge as a separate State, and then only through the creation of this State by the Great Powers of Europe, acting not so much in the interest of the Albanians as in their own. How slow has been the growth of this feeling from its first awakening in the time of Ali Pasha down to the time of the Young Turk Revolution has already been described.¹ The series of fierce revolts of the northern mountaineers which followed (1909–12) was no ‘war of independence’, but a stubborn resistance against the ‘turkifying’ and centralizing policy of the Committee of Union and Progress. Even so late as 1911 the insurgents demanded,² not independence, but fulfilment of the promises of good government with which the Young Turks had started their movement. Finally, when, at the instigation of Austria and in nominal response to the demand of Ismail Kemal’s Provisional Government at Valona, independence, a definite territory, and a foreign prince were given to them, the Albanians knew not how to avail themselves of the privileges of the gift. The old passion for

¹ Above, pp. 34–41.

² See Appendix I, p. 93.

local independence proved stronger than the half-awakened impulse towards national freedom, the old elements of division stronger than the new elements of union. Gheg was still opposed to Tosk, highlanders to lowlanders, Moslem to Christian, tribe to tribe, district to district. Among Moslems, Sunnites had no love for Bektashites; among Christians, Roman Catholics had no love for Orthodox. National leader there was none. Prenk Bib Doda had no influence outside Mirdita, Essad Pasha none outside Tirana and Durazzo, Ismail Kemal none outside Valona, Isa Boletin none outside the Kosovo district, which had been assigned to Serbia. When for a brief period after the outbreak of the European War and the disappearance of Prince William of Wied the Albanians were amid the general turmoil left to themselves, the country was split up into six divisions, each under a regime (cf. p. 72) of its own.

(2) QUESTIONS INTERESTING OTHER COUNTRIES

Montenegro

Montenegro has, as the results of her victories in two wars (1876-8, 1912-3), gained considerable accessions of territory at the expense of the Albanians.

1. By the Treaty of Berlin,¹ 1878, the Albanian towns of Podgoritsa, Antivari, Gusinye, and Plava, and the Albanian tribes of the Kochaï and the semi-Albanian tribe of the Triepshi were assigned to Montenegro; but, owing to the resistance of the Albanians, Dulcigno was in 1880 substituted for Gusinye and Plava. The Kochaï and Triepshi were not actually annexed till 1880.

2. By the Treaty of London, May 30, 1913—subject to any changes that might afterwards be made by an

¹ Cf. above, p. 38.

International Commission—a small addition of territory between the Lake of Scutari and the sea, the territories of the Gruda and Hoti tribes, and the districts of (a) Gusinye and Plava, and (b) Ipek and Jakova were given to Montenegro.

In 1913 the Montenegrins, backed by Russia, their traditional friend ever since 1715, demanded a much broader strip of Albanian territory, extending southwards as far as the River Mat and including Scutari. They based their claims (1) on the historical fact that all the territory in question had formed part of the empire of the Great Serbian King, Stephen Dushan (1331–55), and that after his death the Balsha family, itself of Norman extraction, defended this district with success against the Turks with Scutari for their capital until 1394, when they sold the town to the Venetians; (2) on the much more important geographical and economical fact that Scutari is the real centre of the whole lowland district round the Lake of Scutari, of which the greater part already belongs to Montenegro. The claim was made jointly with Serbia; and it was probably intended that the most southern strip of territory, including Alessio and San Giovanni di Medua, should go to Serbia to provide her with the ardently-desired seaport on the Adriatic.

Ever since 1797, when by the Treaty of Campo Formio she acquired the Dalmatian possessions of the old Venetian Republic, Austria has been the main obstacle to Montenegrin development. Since 1815 she has been in almost undisputed possession of the Montenegrin coast land, more particularly of the splendid harbour of Cattaro. In 1878 she pushed still farther south by the incorporation of Spizza (Spica). In 1880 the Great Powers assigned to Montenegro the Albanian seaport of Dulcigno.

These recent acquisitions have doubled or trebled

the size and population of Montenegro, but, so far as they have been made at the expense of the Albanians, they have not increased her strength proportionately. The Montenegrins are Orthodox; the Albanians are in these regions Roman Catholic and Moslem. Consequently, though there has been a certain shifting of population through migration, massacre, and expulsion, the Montenegrins have done little, except in the case of Podgoritsa, to assimilate the Albanian population of their newly-acquired territory.

Serbia

In the recent days of her expansion, Serbia put forward a sentimental claim to Albanian territory on the ground that her greatest king, Stephen Dushan (1331-55), had made it part of his extensive but ephemeral empire, which included, besides Albania, all the modern kingdoms of Serbia and Montenegro, southern Dalmatia, and most of Greece. Far more profound in its effects was the earlier Serbian invasion, which began in the seventh century, and has left evidence of its thoroughness in the numerous Serbian place-names in all parts of Ghegaria, except Mirdita, and in the semi-Slav physique of the Ghegs in contrast with that of the Tosks.

Apart, however, from any questions of sentiment, the Serbians had in 1912, at the time of the formation of the Balkan League, a very definite economical reason for wishing to annex a part of northern Albania and including such annexation in the terms of the agreement with her allies. The new kingdom of Serbia possessed no access to the coast either of the Aegean or of the Adriatic. Austria-Hungary, with whom she was on the worst of terms, was the only profitable market for her goods—for geographical reasons: and with this country she was connected only by a single

line of railway, liable to be closed at any moment. When the Balkan War broke out in October 1912, Serbia hastened to turn her successes to full account. A few weeks later one of her armies was in Alessio, whence, joined by a Montenegrin column, it marched southwards and occupied Durazzo ; but she was obliged by an ultimatum from Austria in October finally to withdraw all the troops that she had left on the western side of what was to be the new Albanian frontier. Numerous Albanian settlements, some—more especially ¹ in Old Serbia—dating back to the seventeenth century, others quite recent, were included in the new territories of Serbia. But the claim made by the Serbs on ethnical grounds to some portions of this district is disputable ; and seven years of warfare, 1912–18, must have resulted in some diminution and shifting of the Serbian and Albanian population on both sides of the eastern frontier of Albania.

•
Greece

Before Greece was an independent kingdom with a frontier to defend, there seems to have been the freest intercourse between the Tosks and the Greeks. Though the majority of the Tosks turned Mussulman, the large Christian minority were Orthodox, and their bishops were appointed by, and were under the control of, the Patriarch at Constantinople. Their Turkish governors, even Ali Pasha himself, used the Greek language for purposes of government ; and, as the Albanian language was seldom written, Greek was the language used also for purposes of commerce and for such education as there was. Furthermore, after the overthrow of Ali Pasha in 1822, when south Albania fell more completely under Turkish domination than

¹ Cf. Note to Geographical Section, p. 24.

ever it had been before, the Turks not only permitted but even encouraged Greek propaganda in order to check the development of any national feeling, and at the same time prohibited the use of the Albanian language in schools and the appearance of Albanian newspapers. The result was the almost complete disuse of the native language south of the River Kalamas, even by Albanians of pure extraction: while north of that river as far as Argyrokastrò most of the Tosks were (and are) bilingual, speaking Greek for public purposes and Albanian only in their home life when it was needed, since in many cases their women had no acquaintance with Greek.

After the Greeks had achieved their independence, in the struggle for which the Albanians of the Greek peninsula had played no inconsiderable part, the more educated among the Tosks, and more especially the Christians, who suffered most under Turkish misrule and were more numerous on the new Greek frontiers than farther north, seem to have been by no means adverse to incorporation with a people so nearly akin to them in sentiment, if not in race: and in 1878 it was the opinion of the diplomatists at the Congress of Berlin that all the Greek-speaking district south of the Kalamas—north of the river the Tosks mostly speak Albanian—ought to be included in the Greek kingdom. As a matter of fact, in 1881¹ only the district of Arta, where the Greeks far outnumbered the Albanians, was so annexed: and, though it was not annexed without a protest from the then existing Albanian League, it was annexed without a struggle.

The fixing of the new southern frontier of independent Albania by the international commission in 1913 (cf. p. 1) was not accepted without opposition by

¹ Cf. p. 40.

a considerable proportion of the inhabitants of the districts of Santi Quaranta, Khimara, Argyrokastro, and Koritsa—a region called by the Albanians ‘Southern Albania’, and by the Greeks ‘Northern Epeiros’. The Orthodox Christians, who are mostly either Greek-speaking or bilingual, have the same sympathy for Greece and the same desire for union with it as had previously inspired their kinsmen around Yanina. The Greek regular army, which had occupied a great part of the district, withdrew in April 1914, at the demand of the Great Powers; but it was replaced by irregular bands, which were supplemented by volunteers from Greece; the Greek regular forces resumed their occupation in October. An autonomous Government was set up, headed by local magnates who had held high positions in Greece, one as Minister for Foreign Affairs; and deputies were elected to the Greek Parliament in Athens, but were not allowed to take their seats. The bands carried on a guerrilla warfare against the local Moslems, in which each side charged the other with the worst excesses. An address which was sent from Koritsa, a town of mixed population, in favour of Greek rule represented the views of a portion only of the citizens. At the request of the Prince of Albania, a conference was held at Corfu between the autonomous Government of ‘Northern Epeiros’, the Albanians, and the representatives of the Powers; and a convention was drawn up, and subsequently approved by the Powers in July 1914, entrusting the administration of the two provinces of Argyrokastro and Koritsa to the International Commission of control for Albania, and confirming the ancient privileges of Khimara.

The European War led to the absence of any central authority under international sanction; and ‘Northern Epeiros’ naturally resumed its autonomous character.¹

¹ Cf. p. 52.

Rumania

Though Rumania is too remote to make any territorial claims, the interests of the Arumani, or Vlachs, cannot be ignored.¹ As a result of the Balkan Wars, Rumania secured from all the Balkan States educational and religious freedom for the Vlachs.

Italy

Historically Italy has a double connexion with Albania. (1) Towards the end of the fourteenth century the Venetians extended their settlements southwards from Dalmatia to the coast towns of northern Albania—Budua, Antivari, Duleigno, San Giovanni di Medua, Alessio, and Durazzo—and maintained their hold over them for nearly a century, after which they were one by one captured by the Turks. They also held Parga and a few of the coast towns opposite the Ionian Islands, which they kept till they were forced to surrender them to Napoleon in 1797. At the present day the commercial language of the Adriatic coast, even from Trieste to Valona, is still Italian. (2) Ever since the middle of the fifteenth century there have been numerous settlements of Albanians in southern Italy and Sicily. At the present time most of them still speak their native language, and a third of them have remained faithful to the Orthodox Church. Their numbers are now variously estimated to be between 100,000 and 200,000.

In order to counteract the increase of Austrian influence in Albania, Italy granted shipping subsidies and made efforts to foster Italo-Albanian trade. Again, when Austria proposed to run a railway from Cattaro along the Albanian coast, Italy countered the scheme

¹ For their distribution see pp. 21-24.

by promising a large subsidy to the rival Serbian plan of a Danube-Adriatic line. In 1900 and 1901 Italy and Austria negotiated¹ about their respective interests in Albania, but the result of these negotiations has never been published.

As time went on, Italian ambitions centred more and more on the occupation of Valona as a naval base. Finally, after the outbreak of war in 1914, Italy occupied in October the island of Saseno, which dominates Valona, and then on December 25 Valona itself. She has remained in occupation of the seaport ever since. On June 3, 1917, she proclaimed the unity and independence of all Albania under her own protection, promising at the same time free institutions, a *gendarmerie*, tribunals, and Albanian schools.

Bulgaria

1. *Historical interests.*—Bulgaria's historical interests in Albania are very remote. Under the First Bulgarian Empire first southern Albania and then the whole country was subject to Tsar Samuel. Under the Second Bulgarian Empire the southern half of Albania as far as Durazzo was subject to John Asên II.

2. *Ethnological interests.*—Okhrida, the seat of the old Bulgarian Patriarchate from 1393 till its suppression in 1767, is the centre of Bulgarian influence in Western Macedonia. Since 1890 it has again become the seat of a Bulgarian bishop, who has been indefatigable in spreading his national propaganda, and has met with considerable success. How far the 'Bulgars' of Okhrida and the neighbouring districts are really of Bulgarian extraction may be open to question; but it is certain that people who call themselves Bulgars form a considerable element in the populations of

¹ Cf. *Italian Green Book*, 1915. Document 72.

Okhrida and Struga, in the district round Lake Prespa, on the eastern bank of the River Drin between Struga and Dibra, and in Dibra itself. They are also present in considerable numbers in Monastir.

Had the Treaty of San Stefano in 1878 been carried out, the western frontier of the 'Big Bulgaria', which Russia then attempted to form, would have included in her new territory the town of Dibra and the whole district surrounding the Lakes of Okhrida and Prespa, as far south as and including Koritsa. A few months later the scheme was defeated by the Treaty of Berlin.

Again in the spring of 1912 in the treaty between Bulgaria and Serbia which was the first step in the formation of the Balkan Alliance, Bulgaria laid claim to the same district. This time her hopes were foiled by the results of the Second Balkan War, ended by the Treaty of Bucarest on August 10, 1913.

Austria

Austrian interests in Albania go back to the year 1689, when she took under her protection all Albanian Roman Catholics—nearly a century earlier than Russia's protectorate over all the Sultan's Orthodox subjects secured by the Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji in 1768. This position has recently for several decades been used as a means of a vigorous Austrian propaganda.

The attitude of Austria towards the Albanian question in 1912-13 was determined mainly by the events of 1908. The three cardinal points of her policy in the Balkan peninsula have been :

1. Prevention of any union between the Serbo-Croats of her own empire and the Balkan Serbs in Montenegro, Novibazar, and Serbia.

2. Control of the eastern coast of the Adriatic as far as the Straits of Otranto

3. Control or possession of the routes to Salonika in order to secure the *Drang nach Osten*.

Austria, alarmed by the success of the Balkan allies in 1912, and backed by official Italy, promoted at the ensuing Ambassadors' Conference in London the cause of an independent Albania with its consequent denial to Serbia of a seaport on the Adriatic and to Italy, though her own ally, of the seaport of Valona. On December 20, 1912, she persuaded the Powers to accept her proposal in principle; and on May 30, 1913, by the Treaty of London an independent Albania was formally recognized. For the moment the Austrian policy was successful, as it threw an apple of discord among the Balkan allies, whose preliminary treaties in the spring of 1912 had contemplated the possibility neither of their conquest of Albania nor of the creation of a new Albanian State; and thus it was the chief cause of the Second Balkan War, the results of which were even more disappointing to Austria. She was not content to wait for the doubtful and perhaps long-deferred advantages which further intrigues in the new Albania against Montenegro and Serbia might have brought, but on July 23, 1914, launched her ultimatum to Serbia which led to the outbreak of the European War on August 1.

(3) PROPOSALS FOR EXPANSION AND DEVELOPMENT

The results of the Berlin Treaty were that in 1878 the Albanian towns of Podgoritsa and Antivari, the Albanian tribe of the Kochaï, and the semi-Albanian tribe of the Triepshi were ceded to Montenegro, that in 1880 the Albanian seaport of Dulcigno was also handed over to Montenegro, and that in 1881 the already hellenized district of Arta was assigned to Greece,

Of these cessions the Montenegrins seem to have been successful in assimilating only Podgoritsa, and to a minor extent Antivari and Dulcigno. The Kochai and Triepshi are reported to be as thoroughly Albanian as they were before the cession.

Sir Edward Grey, in describing the results of the London Conference to the House of Commons on August 12, 1913, said: ¹

The difficulty of coming to an agreement about particular frontiers [of Albania] has been very great. Every one will remember how difficult and how critical at some points were the questions raised in connexion with the settlement of the northern and north-eastern frontiers of Albania. They were settled some time ago. We have now come to an agreement for the delimitation under certain agreed conditions of the southern and south-eastern frontiers of Albania, which will complete the whole frontiers of this state. I am quite aware that, when the whole comes to be stated, it will be open on many points to a great deal of criticism from any one with local knowledge, who looks at it purely on the merits of the locality itself. It is to be borne in mind that in making that agreement the primary essential was to preserve agreement between the Great Powers themselves; and if the agreement about Albania has secured that, it has done the work which is most essential in the interests of the peace of Europe.

The actual results were the assignment of the following Albanian or semi-Albanian towns and districts:

- i. To Montenegro—
The Gruda and Hoti tribes, and the towns and districts of Gusinye, Plava, Ipek, and Jakova.
- ii. To Serbia—
Prishtina, Prizren, Kalkandelen (Tetovo), Lyuma, Dibra.
- iii. To Greece—
(a) The district between the frontier finally agreed on and the river Kalamas. (b) The whole

¹ Hansard, lvi, p. 2283.

district of Yanina and Prevesa. South of the river there were scattered Albanian communities on and near the coast as far as Parga, but Yanina and its surroundings had since the time of Ali Pasha become completely hellenized.

The case for the partition of the whole of Albania among her neighbours was best stated by the Serbian Minister, Dr. V. Georgevitch, in a pamphlet entitled, *Die Albanesen und die Grossmächte* (Leipzig, 1913). He argues that history has proved that the Albanians, though they may possibly be a distinct race, are incapable of forming a united people under a single government of their own. He relies largely on the historical claims of the Serbs—the Montenegrins, it must be remembered, are also Serbs—dating from Stephen Dushan and his predecessors, to rule over northern Albania, and lays great stress on what he calls the anachronism of setting up a tiny Moslem State among the Christian States of Europe, arguing that the large Moslem majority of the people must necessarily give to an independent Albania a Moslem character. A similar conclusion is reached by M. Rizoff, the Bulgarian ambassador in Berlin, in his preface to a publication issued there in 1917, and entitled *The Bulgarians in their historical, ethnographical, and political frontiers*. He frankly advocates assigning all Albania south of the Skumbi, including Valona, to Greece, and north-eastern and northern Albania, with access to Durazzo, to Serbia.

An independent Albania might take the form (a) of a principality, (b) of a confederation of tribes or cantons.

(a) The experiment of 1913–14 might be repeated in more favourable circumstances. In announcing the creation of an autonomous Albania by the Great Powers, Sir Edward Grey, on August 12, 1913, fore-

shadowed an International Commission of Control, whose primary duty would be to draw up the constitution and fundamental laws after an investigation of the local circumstances, a *gendarmerie* under officers selected from one of the smaller neutral Powers (Holland), and a foreign prince to be chosen by the Great Powers. Six months later the Powers guaranteed a loan of £3,000,000 to give the new state a start, of which £500,000 was advanced by Austria and Italy to Prince William of Wied, the candidate for the throne finally selected; and a small international force under an English officer was stationed at Skutari. These matters ended; no constitution ever saw the light, and Prince William himself, though he began by forming a cabinet, never governed outside Durazzo.

(b) Some publicists, more impressed by the divisions than by the unity of the Albanian race, though they admit its striking individuality, have advocated, on the analogy of Switzerland, which is a similarly mountainous country, some form of federal or cantonal government. They point to the well-marked geographical divisions of the country, the elaborate tribal organization of the northern clans, the passion for local independence, which the Albanians have manifested throughout their history, the democratic freedom of the individual, the religious differences, which do not prevent the Albanians from being Albanians first and Moslems or Christians only in the second place; the marked respect for custom and tradition. Hence they infer that some form of loose confederation, wherein local peculiarities and customs might easily be maintained, would be more in harmony with the history and genius of the Albanian people than any form of centralized government.

An additional argument in favour of their theory might be found in the fact that at the beginning of the

European War, before northern Albania was occupied by Austria and southern Albania by Italy, the country, left to itself, had fallen into six divisions corresponding with its geographical configuration, each under a regime of its own :

- (1) Scutari and its neighbourhood under a local Commission of Moslems and Christians.
- (2) The Maltsors under their local chieftains.
- (3) Mirdita under its native prince, Prenk Bib Doda.
- (4) Durazzo and its neighbourhood under its local bey, the well-known Essad Pasha.
- (5) Valona and its neighbourhood under the International Commission of Control.
- (6) The southernmost district, occupied by the Greeks.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) INTERNAL

(a) *Roads and Tracks*

ALBANIA has a coast-line of about 200 miles in length. The maximum breadth of the country is about 80 miles. Seven rivers of some importance flow through Albania into the Adriatic; of these only one, the Skumbi, has a course approximately at right angles to the coast for the whole of its length. Except for the basins of the larger rivers and for plains of some extent along the coast, the whole country is mountainous.

This description will help to explain the lack of communications in Albania; and, if the independent and quarrelsome character of the people, as well as their long submission to the Turk, is also taken into account, it is not surprising that there is not a single yard of normal gauge railway in the country, that before the European War there was no road which was of the first class throughout its length, and that there were not even second-class branch communications. Paths there were in plenty, worn by shepherds and their flocks, or by villagers going to their markets, but except on occasional stretches these were unsuitable for wheeled traffic.

There are satisfactory roads connecting Valona and Santi Quaranta with Koritsa, and Durazzo through Elbasan with Struga, and there is a cross-road from Koritsa to Struga. The two main roads are continued

into Macedonia, where they join near Monastir, through which there is a good road to Salonika. Motor lorries can now traverse the whole distance from the Adriatic to the Aegean.

The Durazzo–Struga–Monastir–Salonika road follows the course of the old Via Egnatia, passing through Kavaya and along the Skumbi Valley.

The valleys of the other rivers help towards providing communication with the interior for part of their distances, and, owing to their devious courses, supply such lateral communications as there are. The Black Drin, for instance, takes a general northerly direction from Lake Okhrida, subsequently turning west and then south, and the Voyusa runs, while in Albania, almost parallel to the coast. The road that serves Valona makes use of the Semeni valley to reach Berat, and then curves southward to the Voyusa valley, which it follows up to the Epirote frontier, where it turns sharply to the north again, thus providing extremely circuitous communication with the country east of Valona, but serving as a means of lateral communication in its southward and northward course.

(b) *Rivers*

The rivers, with the exception of the Drin and the Boyana, can only be used for floating logs and rafts, or for developing power.

The Drin, whose main stream flows into the Boyana below Lake Scutari, could be diked and used for transport for some considerable distance, beyond which the stream is too tumultuous to be controlled except by an expensive system of locks. The Boyana is a wide river, and in places deep; small ships can make use of it to enter Lake Scutari: but its depth is so variable on account of the rains and the shifting banks of mud and sand that navigation is never easy. The first

task in any attempt to control the Albanian rivers would be to initiate a scheme of canalization. This would, of course, increase their value as waterways, but, owing to the heavy cost, could only be carried out on a limited scale. A more pressing need is the construction of roads and railways.

(c) *Railways*

There are in Albania no railways of normal gauge. The Austrians have recently laid a light railway from Scutari to their lines on the Voyusa, with a branch to Berat, as well as a similar line from Durazzo to Elbasan. These should be useful on the restoration of normal conditions.

Of the schemes hitherto suggested, the most promising is one for the construction of a railway system connecting Albania with Monastir. The main line would run to Monastir from Durazzo, passing, like the road, through Kavaya, up the Skumbi valley, and through Elbasan and Struga. From Durazzo a line to Scutari would provide a section of a lateral route through Albania. In the south a line would connect Valona with Yanina in Epeiros, affording easy communication between Albania and Athens. This line would be linked with the Durazzo-Monastir railway by a branch, running probably *via* Berat to Elbasan, while another branch might run from Messiafor Khan, on the Albanian frontier, to Koritsa and Monastir. It will be seen that the route from Valona to Monastir *via* Messiafor Khan would closely follow the line of the existing road. The proposed system would provide continuous railway communication from Scutari to the Epirote frontier.

The Deutsche Bank was apparently willing to finance and work some such system, but the Turkish Government would not guarantee the 29,000 francs per kilo-

metre which was asked. The kilometric guarantee on the Monastir-Salonika railway is only 14,300 francs.

A projected line from Scutari to Prizren in Serbia would be connected with the system described, though not an integral part of it. This line would follow the valley of the Drin as far as Kukush, and would be continued eastward of Prizren to join the Ūsküb-Mitrovitsa railway.

The accomplishment of the schemes mentioned would give Albania a railway system fully adequate to its needs for some time to come. The expense, however, is a serious obstacle, especially as the lines would probably be run at a loss for many years. The attitude of the Albanians towards the Serbs is also likely to create difficulties. Though the Albanians would welcome the building of railways for purely commercial purposes, any plan that would facilitate the penetration of Albania by the Serbs would meet with strong opposition; and for this reason the construction of a line between Prizren and Scutari, which is strongly desired by Serbia, is not likely to be feasible in the near future. Durazzo should, in any case, be the starting-point of railway construction in Albania, as, apart from its natural advantages as a terminus, a line from thence to Monastir would probably be regarded by the Albanians as less dangerous than one farther north. It must be remembered also that the construction of this line would establish railway communication between the Adriatic and the Aegean. This achievement would be of immediate international importance. Not only would it be of vast economic value to Serbia and Italy, but it would provide western Europe with a new route to the east entirely free from German or Austrian control.

(d) Posts and Telegraphs

Before the war the chief towns were connected by telegraph. There were no telephones in the country. The posts depended on the arrival of Austrian and Italian steamers.

(2) EXTERNAL*(a) Ports*

There are few good harbours on the Albanian coast, and none of great importance. The trade passing through them is small, consisting for the most part of exports of surplus produce and inconsiderable imports of manufactured goods. The districts served seldom extend beyond the valley of the nearest river. There is, however, more coastal trade than might be expected, as inland lateral communications are very bad.

The principal harbours and anchorages are the following:

Boyana River.—The lower reaches of this river serve as a port for Scutari, which cannot be reached by sea-going craft. Vessels of 200 tons can proceed for some miles up the river. The anchorage off the mouth is fairly good in summer, but, except for steamers, dangerous in winter. The river might be made more useful by dredging, but the expense would be great.

San Giovanni di Medua.—The port is a small bay, $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 fathoms in depth, offering very little accommodation. In 1914 the Italians laid a cable to the port. Outside the bay, in the San Giovanni road, there is good anchorage in 11 to 12 fathoms. The roadstead is exposed to the south-west, but a gale seldom blows from that quarter.

Durazzo.—The town of Durazzo is the chief centre of trade on the coast of Albania. The anchorage is exposed to the west and south-west winds, and, as

the water is comparatively shallow, there is a heavy sea when these winds blow strongly. The approach from the west is difficult in thick weather owing to sand-banks. The harbour, however, is capable of improvement by artificial means, and its depth is pretty constant, as it is free from river-borne silt.

Valona.—The town is connected by cable with Otranto in Italy. The bay of Valona affords good shelter from all winds and is the best natural harbour on the Albanian coast. In fine weather the *scala* or landing-place of Valona can be used, but it is exposed to the north-west, from which direction a heavy sea often comes in. At Dukati there is anchorage in stiff mud with a depth of 16 fathoms, but it is some distance (about 7 miles) from Valona.

Santi Quaranta.—The bay of Santi Quaranta, which lies NE. of Corfu, is nearly two miles wide, and is sheltered from all but westerly winds. The anchorage is in the middle in sand and mud, with a depth of 15 to 16 fathoms.

Butrinto Bay.—The bay measures about a mile by 1,300 yards. There is very good anchorage in 14 to 16 fathoms.

As the Albanians cannot hope to develop their ports simultaneously, they will have to decide which of them shall first receive attention. The best anchorages are at Butrinto and Valona; but Butrinto is very far south, and Valona, though the harbour might be greatly improved, is not favourably placed in relation to the interior and can be connected with Monastir in particular only by a very circuitous route. San Giovanni di Medua is inadequate, and in any case too near the northern frontier. On the whole it seems that the Albanians should at first concentrate their energies on Durazzo. Its defects as a port are great, but some of

these can be obviated, its position is central, and its communications with the interior are better than those of any other Albanian harbour.

(b) *Winds and Tides*

In summer the winds on the Albanian coast are generally light, and there are frequent calms. Sudden squalls from the north, however, sometimes occur, and at times the Scirocco, blowing from the south, raises a heavy sea and brings rain and thick weather. In winter the northerly wind called Bora is the strongest, and, being squally, is dangerous to sailing vessels. South-east winds, which bring fog, are also common at this season.

The rise and fall of the tide off the Albanian coast is scarcely perceptible. The winds have great influence on the currents and blow the waters up and down the Adriatic; but the variation in depth seldom amounts to more than two feet. The general trend of the currents is northerly, but a strong northerly wind reverses their direction.

(c) *Shipping Lines*

There were regular steamship services between the Albanian coast and Trieste, Venice, Bari, Corfu and Constantinople. The Austrian Lloyd steamers carried most of the trade between Albania and the ports mentioned; but a Hungarian-Croatian line, the Fiume-Obotti Co., and an Italian company, the Società Anonima 'Puglia', also served the ports of north Albania, while a Greek firm, the John MacDowall Steamship Co., served those of the south. The coast-wise traffic was carried on by Greeks and Turks. The Servizi Marittimi carried the mails from Italy, the Austrian Lloyd those from Austria.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) AGRICULTURE

(a) *Products of Commercial Value*

Vegetable.—Up to the present time agriculture in Albania has been at a very low level, and this is due not so much to the infertility of the soil as to the inherent repugnance of the Albanian to labour. One of his proverbs runs: ‘The Albanian is born to fight, not to cultivate the soil.’ The Turks also have a saying: ‘To the Armenians the pen, to the Albanians the sword.’ Thus the Albanian prefers to seek his livelihood in war and in raiding the cattle of the neighbouring countries rather than in tilling the soil. Moreover, the system of land tenure offers him no inducement to exert his energies in this direction.

The agricultural districts are the coastal plains, the elevated plains south of Scutari, the regions of Tirana, Elbasan, Berat, and Delvino, and the borders of the great lakes. The districts of Prizren and Jakova, which were among the most fertile, were allotted respectively to Serbia and Montenegro in 1914.

Cereals are grown in all the agricultural areas. The principal crop is maize, which, as it yields a fairly steady return and exacts little care and labour in cultivation, is particularly suited to small properties. The beasts of burden in the country districts are exclusively fed on maize, and it also forms the foundation of the food of the peasants. A considerable portion of the crop is exported.

Wheat, which requires more care, is better suited to the larger properties, and is usually cultivated on land belonging to the beys, especially in the south,

where the dry soil and intermittent rains are favourable to its growth. The crop, although less consistent in its yield than maize, is more remunerative. The annual harvest varies from 10 to 40 bushels to the acre.

Oats and barley are cultivated in small quantities, and a little rice is grown in the region of Valona.

Peas, beans, and other leguminous products are largely grown in what used to be the Sanjak of Durazzo; of these 150–300 tons are exported annually.

A small amount of hemp is raised. Flax and cotton are also cultivated, but the crops are hardly sufficient to supply local industries.

Next to cereals, olive oil is the most important product. The trees are grouped in little woods, or less frequently planted in rows. The yield of a tree is usually $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 gallons of oil, while large trees have been known to yield as much as 15 gallons. The chief centres of olive culture are in the regions of Valona and Durazzo, each of which in good years produces some 3,000 tons. About half the total output of these districts is exported. Kroya possesses 70,000 olive trees, and they are also cultivated around Alessio, Kavaya, Elbasan, and Delvino. Many of the trees between Scutari and Valona were cut down by the Serbians during their withdrawal in 1913.

The present methods employed in the production of the oil are too primitive to admit of export on a large scale; the oil, carried in goat-skin bottles on the backs of animals, acquires a peculiar taste, and the inadequate means of transport are a further hindrance; but under better conditions this industry would be capable of considerable development.

Tobacco is cultivated in the districts of Durazzo, Kavaya, Berat, and Tepelen. The first crop is cut at the beginning of September, the second some days later, and the third, the *rieshtouk* or autumnal crop,

at the end of October. The average annual production is about 1,000 tons. The tobacco is not of the first quality, but could be improved if more care were given to the cultivation. It is almost entirely consumed in the country, and, as the Albanians did not acknowledge the authority of the Régie Ottomane, the little that was formerly exported was smuggled over the frontiers.

Fruit trees abound on the littoral, and besides the olive, include the pistachio, pomegranate, orange, lemon, almond, apple, fig, hazel-nut, wild pear, and, in the valley of Delvino, the mulberry.

The vine is cultivated, though not scientifically, at Scutari, Alessio, Tirana, Tomor, and Nimersa, and in the valley of the Skumbi as far as Elbasan. The wild vine grows on the calcareous mountains to the north-east of Scutari, and on all the mountains of southern Albania. A wine, which in colour and fire resembles that of the south of Spain, is produced on the slopes of Podrina, north of the Drin.

The wine production of the country does not suffice for local consumption; the fiscal authorities are largely responsible for this, as they forbade the importation of good grafts and imposed a tithe, not only on the average production, but also on the number of vines. The Albanian vine-dressers have neither the means nor the necessary aptitude to combat the diseases to which the plants are subject. The industry is, however, capable of considerable development, as natural conditions are particularly favourable to it.

The sumac, used by dyers and curriers, is principally cultivated by the Mirdites, and in the regions of Scutari and Durazzo; one variety, the *rhus continuus*, is grown in southern Albania. There is a certain amount of export trade in the wood and leaves.

The scodano, a plant used in dyeing, comes from the Zadrina.¹

Animal.—The economic and social conditions of the country incline the Albanians to turn their attention to cattle-raising rather than to tillage. The rich meadows of the alluvial plains afford good grazing grounds, and in the north there is abundance of excellent alpine pasturage, to which the flocks and herds are taken in summer, when, owing to the prolonged drought, pasturage elsewhere is scarce. Many tribes, but especially the Klementi and Kastrati, who dwell in the mountainous district north of Scutari, accompany their animals to these grazing grounds. This annual migration, though under existing conditions inevitable, exposes the beasts to the strain of long journeys and ailments occasioned by an unaccustomed climate. No attempt is made to counteract these disadvantages, as, even when at home, the Albanians ignore the most elementary rules of veterinary hygiene; the mountaineers have no stables, and the animals remain in the open, exposed to every kind of weather, and no provision is made for winter forage. Under these conditions it is not surprising that epizootic diseases are frequent and serious: in 1901, for instance, famine and disease caused half the lambs of the Sanjak of Durazzo to perish. The least backward region from the agricultural point of view is the extreme south; it is specially rich in cattle, and the valleys are favourable to the raising of goats and sheep.²

¹ Austrian experts, according to the *Balkan Revue* (German), were lately considering the question of promoting the cultivation of grapes, olives, cotton, tobacco, and roses (for attar). The plains, says the same authority, are fertile, but require a better system of irrigation.

² The *Balkan Revue* thinks that cattle-raising will in the future become very important in Albania. The export of wool for 1917 is stated to have been 500,000 kg., and that of silk-cocoons 50,000 kg.

The Vlachs of the Pindus region devote themselves, in particular, to the raising of buffaloes and horned cattle, in which they do a fairly large trade. Before the Balkan Wars a trade in skins and wool used to be carried on, chiefly with Italy and Austria. Scutari, Premeti, and the ports of the south were the centres of this trade.

Draught horses are bred in Scutari, and a certain number were sent to Italy, where they are employed for work in the fields.

Pig-keeping, for which the climate is favourable, is carried on with success and profit in places where the population is mostly Christian.

Poultry are seen almost everywhere, and geese especially do exceedingly well, owing to the methods used in fattening.

(b) *Methods of Cultivation*

If Albania is to-day a poor country, it is not because the soil is unfertile, but because it is insufficiently cultivated. Not only is much good land altogether neglected, but, even where agriculture is practised, the methods followed are most primitive. There is no rotation of crops, the soil is not manured, and agricultural machinery is seldom used. Most of the work is done by the women, and the farm implements are of the rudest description. Iron ploughs are unknown to the majority of the peasants, who generally use wooden ones similar to the *kolitschka* of the Serbs; a harrow mounted on wheels is also used, drawn, like the plough, by oxen or buffaloes.

Irrigation.—The rainfall is very uncertain, and it frequently happens that a whole summer will pass entirely without rain. In the north a fairly good system of irrigation is under the complete control of the local tribes; wells are sunk, and ditches dug to

carry the water down to the cultivated districts : but, as there is a great scarcity of water, the properties have to be irrigated in turn. In the south, however, the absence of any system of drainage or irrigation adds to the difficulties which must be removed before the natural wealth of Albania can be fully developed. The institution of properly organized credit societies would do much to improve the present conditions, as money is very scarce in the country.

(c) *Forests*

The important forest domain of Albania, when it can be efficiently exploited, will become one of the principal sources of wealth to the country, which, except on the swampy plains and the limestone hills, is covered with magnificent trees for a quarter of its area.

At present the forests are State owned, and the right of use is reserved to the local tribes, who only permit their own people to exploit them—if felling the most beautiful trees of the finest species without any method can be called exploitation. The forests in the districts of the Mirdites and Dukajin are fortunately inaccessible, and consequently preserved from destruction.

The principal forest trees are conifers, chestnut, and beech. The latter, however, is not found in the southern mountains, where it is replaced by the evergreen-oak. Juniper, maple, and box grow on the higher slopes of the mountains. There are now steam saw-mills at Smoktina near Valona.

(d) *Land Tenure*

In considering the question of land tenure in Albania, the country can be roughly divided into two parts, the

northern or Gheg country, and the southern or Tosk region.

The land in the south is held on the mediaeval system which generally prevails in the Balkan provinces. The bey, who in the first place received his land from the Sultan, seldom cultivates it himself, but farms it out (as chiftliks) to tenants, from whom he exacts one-half or one-third of the harvest, and an additional one-tenth which he collects in taxes on behalf of the Government. In consequence of the unsettled condition of the country and the constant disputes which arise between tenant and bey, the land is only intermittently cultivated, with little zeal or enthusiasm on the part of the tenant. When the bey cultivates the land himself, he sometimes employs hired labour, which is commonly paid at the rate of £1 a month with food, though at harvest time a special piece rate of rather less than £2 per acre is often substituted. The bey generally retains the management of woods and olive groves in his own hands.

In addition to the large estates of the beys, there are a certain number of small freehold properties, usually between 20 and 50 acres in extent, although in some cases they may be as small as one acre. Some of them owe their origin to the purchase by tenant cultivators of the land which they formerly held of a bey; others have been bought from proprietors who, having purchased land from beys, afterwards wished to dispose of portions of it. The freeholder is under no further obligation to the bey, and only has to pay the taxes to the State.

In the north, the Turkish domination was only nominal, and this fact, together with the geographical character of the country, accounts to a great extent for the different system which prevails. As Turkish authority was not recognized by the northern tribes,

attempts on the part of the Sultans to enforce Turkish tenurial arrangements were never effectual. Practically the whole of the land in the north, therefore, is held according to tribal rules, and all questions relating to the division of land are decided by the tribal authority. The divisions are, however, very small, as the bulk of the property was divided a very long time ago, and has now become the undisputed property of the different families. A large proportion of this territory is grazing ground, which is divided among the tribes.

The regulation of the irrigation is under the absolute control of the tribe, and persons working on the construction of wells and ditches are protected from the vendetta.

(2) FISHERIES

The waters of Albania are exceptionally abundant in fish, which might become an important source of revenue to the country. Fish are plentiful in the Lake of Scutari, and up to 1900 there were regular villages of fishermen's cabins, built on piles, at the south-eastern extremity of the lake, but, as these cabins interfered with the outflow of the water, the Government of Montenegro obtained their suppression. In consequence, the fishing industry greatly diminished. A kind of sardine, called *scoranza*, however, is still caught in great quantities along the borders of the lake. The fish, when smoked, is exported to the south of Italy and Provence to an annual value of from £625 to £750. This trade might become important and lucrative, if the fishing were properly organized and the fish preserved in oil. Fishing in general has been handicapped by heavy taxes.

(3) MINERALS

Very little is known concerning the mineral wealth of Albania, the hostility of the natives towards the engineers rendering extensive prospecting impossible.

The only mine that is worked at present is the bitumen mine at Selenitsa, near Valona. A French company has successfully exploited this deposit for some years, employing Vlachs and Greeks as workmen. The bitumen is found in solid form, both dull and shining, in liquid form and also as asphalt. The shining bitumen, called *romsi*, after the name of the village where it is principally found, is a remarkable product which does not exist in any other country.

The export of solid bitumen reaches 3,500 tons a year, but the cost of transport, either by land or sea, is excessive.

Asphalt is used in the country as an inferior fuel to replace charcoal, which is too costly. There is no export of asphalt.

French and German experts have discovered deposits of gold, silver, lead, iron, antimony, cinnabar, chromium, copper, coal, lignite, and petrol, but their value is not yet known. There are also indications of oil and natural gas in the Voyusa valley.¹

An English company has obtained the concession of a bed of copper to the west of Scutari, but no details of the working are available. French engineers estimate that if the course of the lower Drin were regulated, coal extracted from the district could be transported by this route alone to the value of over £200,000 a year.

Salt is obtained by evaporation, either from the seawater as at Durazzo and the mouth of the Semeni, or

¹ In addition to the minerals mentioned above, the *Balkan Revue* states that quicksilver has been discovered.

from the salt springs. The production, which is sufficient for local needs, is approximately 6,500 tons.

(4) MANUFACTURES

The manufactures of Albania are of small account, and are almost entirely consumed in the country.

In the more remote mountain regions the corn is ground by hand-mills; elsewhere water-mills predominate, but there are steam flour-mills at Nevesda and Koritsa. The total amount of flour produced does not suffice for the needs of the country.

There is a small tanning industry, carried on in the towns on primitive methods. Skins are prepared for fancy saddles, dagger sheaths, shoes, and *opankas*, or sandals worn by the peasants.

At Scutari there is a small saltpetre factory, which produces 900 tons annually; some of the output is exported to Austria.

On the borders of the Mati there are a number of illicit gunpowder factories, which used to defraud the Government of a considerable amount of revenue.

There are five brick-kilns in the country—at Durazzo, Kroya, Siak, Kavaya, and Tirana: the average annual output is about 300,000 bricks; tiles and terra-cotta vases are also made.

The Albanians are clever metal-workers. They produce silver filigree work, gold and silver ornaments, pistols inlaid with silver, and copper and tin pots. The Vlachs make a speciality of goldsmith's work and silver filigree. Scutari is the centre of the manufacture of inlaid weapons.

Spinning and weaving are domestic industries, carried on mainly by women. Considerable quantities of cotton and woollen fabrics and some silk stuffs are produced. Peasant costumes are manufactured almost exclusively in the districts of Durazzo and Kavaya.

The Mussulmans, particularly in the region of Scutari, make embroideries in cotton, silk, gold thread, and also passementerie. Dyeing is done according to old and excellent traditions.

There was a separate Albanian manufacture of cigarettes before 1914. They were inferior to the Turkish Régie products, but were sold at about the same price.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) DOMESTIC

The trade of Albania is of small account and conducted on simple lines. This is due to the physical character and political conditions of the country rather than to the nature of the inhabitants. The Albanian, though of an independent and quarrelsome disposition, is quick to learn and open to modern ideas.

The internal trade of Albania consists in the distribution of the few goods that are imported and the exchange of products of the soil and of local industries. The latter process is more complicated than might be expected, owing to the great variety of climate and soil and the inadequate means of communication. All the bigger towns are meeting-places of the inhabitants of the surrounding districts for the sale and purchase of necessaries. Except at the ports, the Albanians are dependent on such markets for goods that are not produced locally.

In towns such as Dibra and Elbasan there was in the bazaars a good deal of tinware and crockery, towels, &c., linen and cloth of a somewhat shoddy kind. Some of this was English in origin, but all came directly from Austria. The improvement of communi-

cations in the war should greatly improve and develop such commerce. There is also a constant local process of exchange of products, corn, salt, &c., between the hills and the plains. This again will increase with improved routes; e.g. Elbasan, which is relatively civilized, has now much improved communication with Struga and Dibra.

(2) FOREIGN

The chief articles of export are wool, skins, cheese, butter, oil, bitumen, olives, wood, fish, live stock, fruits, valonia, sumac, gall nuts, and rushes. The principal customer of Albania was Austria. Next came Italy, which took 25 per cent. of the exports of Scutari and 30 per cent. of those of southern Albania. The other chief purchasers of Albanian goods, in order of importance, were Turkey, Egypt, Malta, France (especially Tunis), and Montenegro.

In recent years the average value of the imports was upwards of £400,000. Their character and origin are shown below:

Austria.—Coffee (£28,000), petrol (£40,000), flour, liqueurs, beer, cotton, soap, chemicals, hardware.

Italy.—Flour, wines, liqueurs, cotton and silk stuffs, soap, dressed skins.

France.—Flour, wines, liqueurs, silks, velvets, soap, chemicals, hardware.

Germany.—Sugar (£60,000), soap, chemicals.

Turkey.—Rice and flour.

The foreign trade of Albania had been declining for many years before the European War. In 1898 the exports were valued at £480,000 and the imports at £1,400,000.

No changes were made by the Albanian Government in the tariffs and commercial treaties existing under

Turkish rule. It was agreed to allow these questions to stand over until a definite form of government had been established.

(D) FINANCE

(1) *Currency*

The old Turkish currency existed in Albania up to August 1914, and, as in Turkey, the value of the piastre varied according to the locality. Gold coins were at a high premium.

Serbian paper and Montenegrin silver found their way into the country after the beginning of the war and were naturally at a heavy discount.

Italian paper is now circulating in the Valona district, and it may be taken for granted that Austrian paper has been used in north Albania.

(2) *Banking*

The Imperial Ottoman Bank had a branch at Scutari, but this was closed in November 1915.

The Austrians and Italians opened banks at Durazzo and Valona, and the Italian Società Commerciale d'Oriente is the officially recognized bank at Valona. Money was lent by private bankers or money-changers at high rates of interest. The Turkish Banque Agricole, which in former times had branches in some districts, disappeared when Albania became autonomous. In Albania 'wealth' is of course a relative term: a flock of 500 sheep constitutes ease; one of 2,000, riches. The big landowners are wealthy in cattle and acres, but from the standpoint of western Europe even the richest Albanians are no more than well-to-do.

APPENDIX I

The following manifestoes may be taken as typical of many similar publications :

- (1) *An Address issued by the ' Central Albanian Committee ' to ' Public Opinion and the Young Turk Government ' on May 1, 1911.*

Five centuries have elapsed since Albania was first subjected to the Turkish yoke. Throughout this period of war and misery the Albanians have afforded proof of the profoundest loyalty, and by the sacrifice of their own persons have carried the glorious Turkish flag from victory to victory.

We have always shared in the successes and disasters of the Ottoman Empire, even at times when her existence depended on our sword, our courage, and our loyalty. We have never desired to claim any special privileges, and with one accord we have succeeded in living under the auspices of a patriarchal system—perhaps too little conscious of our own distinctive entity and nationality. But a disastrous period of thirty years of tyranny for the Ottoman Empire has compelled us to follow the line of national development, along which our neighbours long ago began to advance. We bravely grappled with despotism ; we lent the Young Turk movement our aid, and to us its success was due. But instead of displaying the gratitude which we had well deserved, instead of granting us the rights which the other elements in the Ottoman Empire already possess, they have attacked our most sacred rights with brutal hand and political savagery.

Prostrated by misfortune, despairing of the present and the future, we declare that our demands are as follows :

We desire :

1. That Albania be once more united in a single vilayet.
2. That our Albanian schools be supported by the State.
3. That in time of peace our soldiers may perform their military service in Albanian territory.

In view of the gravity of the present situation in Albania, and of the numerical inferiority of the Turkish elements in

Europe, and of the unjustifiable propaganda carried on by foreign agency in our country, we insist—in order to preserve our national existence—on the concession of the above privileges. In the name of all Albanians, Moslem and Christian, in the name of the innocent whose blood is being shed, in our struggle to establish the rights of the Albanian people, we address our claim to humanity and public opinion with the prayer that justice may be granted to us.

(2) *Demands of the Central Albanian Committee about the same date.*

(1) To obtain an amnesty from the [Turkish] Government for all Albanians, Moslem and Christian, who have been sentenced for political reasons.

(2) To secure the appointment by the Government of a commission formed from native Albanians to assess the damage caused by the disarmament of 1910 and to pay an indemnity in accordance with its report.

(3) To obtain official recognition of the Albanian nationality and language, together with the national alphabet [Latin letters].

(4) To obtain from the Chamber of Deputies recognition of the Albanian Society of Progress as a moral and legal individual according to the decision of the Congress of Elbasan. [In order to enable it to purchase land, hold property, &c.]

(5) To persuade the Government to bring to justice those who issued orders for the dishonour and flogging of the Albanians during the process of disarmament of 1910, as well as those who carried out these orders, and to sentence them in accordance with their deserts.

(6) To obtain from the Government the concession that education in the Government primary schools be imparted in Albanian and Turkish without discrimination.

(7) To demand from the Government that all employés of the State sent to Albania should possess a knowledge of the Albanian language.

(8) To demand from the Government that all police agents and *gendarmes* in Albania be Albanians.

(9) To secure a promise that all Albanian soldiers perform their service in Rumelia.

(10) To demand from the Government that a portion of the

taxes collected in Albania be devoted to the development of the country in providing roads, railways, bridges, hospitals, schools, &c.

(11) To have recourse to every means within the power of the nation to secure the above objects.

The emphasis laid in these documents on the demand for education to be imparted in the Albanian language is noteworthy. It implies (1) a real desire for education both among the Ghegs and Tosks, for which recent travellers supply much independent evidence; (2) a desire equally keen to compete with Turkish, Bulgarian, Greek, and Serbian propaganda, which has principally worked by the institution of numerous schools corresponding with the different nationalities concerned.

APPENDIX II

Proposed Concessions to the Insurgents and Refugees, drawn up by King Nicholas for acceptance by the Turkish Government, in August 1911.

1. Le Gouv^t Imp. Ottoman concède généreusement l'amnésie pleine et entière aux rebelles malissores. Il s'en suit que jamais et à aucune occasion ceux-ci ne seraient tenus à rendre compte ou être punis pour le fait de la révolte et des actes qui s'en sont suivis.

2. Les jeunes gens malissores inscrits aux registres de la conscription feront leur service militaire dans le vilayet de Scutari et un an à Constantinople en temps de paix et en temps de guerre extérieure ils sont tenus à se rendre où le drapeau ottoman les conviera.

3. Le caïmacan de Touzi doit être choisi parmi ceux qui posséderaient la langue albanaise et les mudirs ainsi que les conseillers municipaux doivent être choisis exclusivement parmi les Malissores. Il est bien entendu que ces fonctionnaires seront rétribués par l'État.

4. Les droits de redevance fiscale seront réglés d'après la capacité financière de la population et la perception des impôts sera remise à une époque de deux ans, afin de permettre aux Malissores de pouvoir se remettre économiquement des dommages causés par la révolte.

5. Pour tout ce qui est spécialement de la taxe sur les moutons, les Malissores y seront soumis comme les autres habitants de l'Empire, mais la perception ne se fera que d'une piastre par tête et sera perçue à partir de l'année prochaine.

6. Le Gouv^t Imp., sachant que les armes, fusils, revolvers et yatagans ont été de tout temps fidèles et inséparables compagnons des Malissores, qui, étant tous des bergers, en ont absolument besoin, en autorisera le port, exception [faite] des villes et bazars, dans l'avenir aussi, convaincu que l'usage n'en sera fait que contre les bêtes fauves ou les ennemis de l'Empire.

7. Dans sept districts (Chala, Chochi, Chkrelî, Castrati, Gruda, Hotti et Klimenti) seront érigées une ou deux écoles primaires, et la langue de l'enseignement sera l'albanais, et les maîtres d'écoles seront rétribués par l'État.

8. Les districts susmentionnés, à l'exception de Chala, Chochi, et Chkrelî, seront traversés d'une route carrossable et dotés d'autres routes pour chevaux et piétons.

9. Ces travaux seront mis en œuvre immédiatement après la rentrée des Malissores, ce qui les aiderait à se relever économiquement.

10. Il sera nommée une commission dans chacun de ces districts, qui, sous la surveillance d'un proposé du vilayet de Scutari et d'un envoyé de l'Archevêque, estimerait les maisons brûlées ou détruites par les opérations militaires.

11. Sa Majesté Imp. le Sultan ayant gracieusement mis à la disposition du Gouv^t de Scutari une somme de 10,000 livres, à laquelle le Gouv^t a ajouté une autre de 20,000 livres, qui, jointes à d'autres secours pour la reconstruction des maisons brûlées, seront effectivement attribuées à cet effet par la commission instituée d'après l'alinéa précédent, laquelle classerait en quatre catégories la valeur des immeubles pour faciliter la distribution.

12. Tous les Malissores qui ont pris part à la révolte et les familles se trouvant au Monténégro, ayant été complètement ruinés, recevront à leur rentrée 2 honums (? deunnums) du maïs et en numéraire £T1 en vue de subsister jusqu'à la prochaine récolte.

APPENDIX III

*Formation of an Independent Albania.*I. *Preliminary stages*

1. On October 8, 1912, the very day that Montenegro declared war against Turkey, the six Great Powers—Great Britain, France, Russia, Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy—presented an ultimatum at Sofia, Belgrade, Athens, and Cetinje, urging the Balkan Allies not to go to war, and warning them that, if they did, they would not be permitted to reap any ‘fruits of victory’.

2. In November, when the Serbian army was approaching the Albanian coast, Austria-Hungary warned Serbia that she would not be permitted to make any permanent occupation of an Adriatic seaport.

3. When the Greek fleet bombarded Valona on December 3, both Austria-Hungary and Italy intimated to Greece that she would not be permitted to retain Valona as a naval base.

II. *Negotiations*

On December 12 the Ambassadors’ Conference in London, on the proposal of Austria-Hungary, accepted the principle of an independent Albania, and proceeded to examine the claims of the parties interested.

(1) *The Albanian claim.*

An Albanian deputation of three members, Rassik Dino, Mehmed Konitza, and P. Nogga, representing the Provisional Albanian Government at Valona, asked for very much more territory than they could possibly have expected to get. They proposed for the new frontier a line following the then existing Montenegrin frontier to its easternmost point, and thence onwards so as to include the towns of Ipek, Mitrovitsa, Prishtina, Üsküb, and Monastir with their hinterlands, and thence on to a point south of Lake Presba, from which it turned almost due south, leaving Kastoria on the east to Greece, so as to reach the Greek frontier a little east of Metzovo. For the rest the line followed the then existing Greek frontier down to the Gulf of Arta.

In support of their claim the deputies advanced two arguments: (1) that the territory included was peopled by populations almost entirely Albanian, and (2) that the new Albania must not be so reduced in size as to endanger its future development.

(2) *The Serbian and Montenegrin claim.*

The Serbian deputies represented their claims on a map in which the frontier of the new Albania, as they would have liked to have it constituted, started from the mouth of the River Mat and then followed the line of the Drin basin on the one side and the Mat and Skumbi basins on the other as far as Lake Okhrida, assigning the whole of the lake to Serbia. From this point the line continued southwards, striking the River Voyusa at a point midway between Permeti and Klisura, whence it ran almost due west to the SE. shore of the Bay of Valona, leaving the town itself to Albania. The deputies stated that their map represented also the views of Greece and Montenegro. In detail Montenegro laid special emphasis on her claims to Scutari, which she had not yet captured, as the economical centre of the Zeta district; and to Ipek and Jakova, the former of which had been made the seat of the Serbian Patriarch in the reign of the great Stephen Dushan. In the south, with Greece owning the south half of the bay, the fine harbour of Valona would have been rendered useless to Albania. The general result would have been to reduce Albania to little more than half of its present dimensions.

(3) *The Greek claim.*

The Greek representatives, finding the Serbian map wholly unacceptable to Italy and Austria-Hungary, proposed a frontier starting from the sea farther south than in the Serbian map, which, though some 10 miles south of Valona Bay, was sufficiently generous to include within the Greek kingdom Chimara, Argyrokastro, Kolonia, and Koritsa, as well as Yanina and the rest of the old Turkish vilayet down to the Gulf of Arta—a region peopled by nearly 500,000 inhabitants, of whom, as they adduced Turkish statistics to show, 150,000 were Mussulman, and 86,000 Christians spoke Albanian and not Greek. In support of their proposal they urged (1) that the Greek possession of Corfu and of Yanina—the town was not captured till March 6, 1913—would necessitate both for strategical and economic reasons a line drawn well to the north of Argyrokastro, along difficult mountain ranges or almost inaccessible

gorges, which did as a matter of fact so separate the populations living north and south of it, that the former were commercially dependent on Valona, while the latter were wholly connected with Santi Quaranta, Yanina, and Prevesa; (2) that all the civilizing agencies in the shape of churches, schools, and hospitals were within these limits entirely Greek.

Russia supported the Slav claims of Montenegro and Serbia, France supported the Greek claims. Austria, supported by Italy and backed by Germany, brought forward a scheme of her own, having for its object (1) to include within the new frontiers as many Albanians as possible in order to keep the Serbs farther away from the Adriatic; (2) to foment new quarrels among the Balkan Allies, whose successes seemed to threaten not only her hold over the Adriatic, but her future progress towards Salonika. The Austrian scheme would have assigned Gusinye and Plava to Montenegro, but Ipek, Jakova, Prizren, Lyuma, Dibra, Okhrida, Koritsa, Metsovo, and Yanina to Albania; while Greece would have been rewarded only with a small district south of Yanina and Parga. However, after the capture of Yanina by the Greeks on March 6, 1913, both Austria and Italy consented to the new frontier being fixed a considerable distance farther to the north.

At last in April Sir Edward Grey was able to announce to the House of Commons: 'The agreement between the Powers respecting the frontiers of Albania was reached after a long and laborious diplomatic effort. It was decided that the littoral and Scutari should be Albanian, while Ipek, Prizren, Dibra, and (after much negotiation) Jakova should be excluded from Albania. This arrangement leaves a large tract of territory to be divided between Serbia and Montenegro as the fruits of victory.'

This agreement, however, extended only to the northern and north-eastern frontiers; the south and south-eastern frontiers still remained in dispute. It was not till August 12—two days after the Peace of Bucarest—that Sir Edward Grey was able to announce that an agreement had been reached for the delimitation, under certain agreed conditions, of the south and south-eastern frontiers of Albania.

A little later two commissions were sent out to settle details on the spot. The commissioners for the south produced their report in December, and it was approved and signed on December 19, 1913. The commissioners for the north reported

some months later, in June 1914. Greece disputed the justice of the decision of the Powers on the ground that the new frontiers would include in Albania 140,000 Greeks in the neighbourhood of Argyrokastro, and offered, if Argyrokastro were assigned to her, to surrender a strip of the coast line and to pay down £100,000. The Triple Alliance approved of the Greek claim and offer, but only on condition that Greece should evacuate the portion of Epeiros which had been assigned to Albania. This condition was never fulfilled.

AUTHORITIES

- ACTA ET DIPLOMATA RES ALBANIAE MEDIAE AETATIS ILLUSTRANTIA. Vienna, 1913.
- ARDAGH, J. C. : *Albania*. Intelligence Branch, Quarter-master-General's Department, 1881.
- BALDACCI, A. : *Itinerari Albanesi* in Memorie della Società geografica italiana, 1892-4-7.
- *Nel paese del Cem*, ditto, 1903.
- BARBARICH, E. : *Albania*. Rome, 1905.
- BARNES, CAPT. J. S. : *The Future of the Albanian State* in Geographical Journal, July 1918.
- BURILEANU, C. N. : *I Romeni di Albania*. Bologna, 1912.
- DURHAM, E. : *The Burden of the Balkans*. London, 1905.
- *High Albania*. London, 1909.
- *The Struggle for Scutari*. London, 1914.
- ELIOT, SIR CHARLES ('Odysseus') : *Turkey in Europe*. London, 1908.
- GALANTI, A. : *L'Albania*. Rome, 1901.
- GEORGEVITCH, DR. V. : *Die Albanesen und die Grossmächte*. Leipzig, 1913.
- GIBERT, FRÉDÉRIC : *Les Pays d'Albanie et leur Histoire*. Paris, 1914.
- GOPČEVIĆ, S. : *Oberalbanien und seine Liga*. Leipzig, 1881.
- *Das Fürstentum Albanien*. Berlin, 1914.
- HAHN, I. VON : *Albanesische Studien*. Vienna, 1853.
- *Reise d. Drin u. Wardar*, in K. Akad. d. Wiss. zu Wien, Bd. xv, xvi, 1867-9.
- HASSERT, K. : *Streifzüge in Ober-Albanien*, in Verhandlungen d. Gesellschaft für Erdkenntniss. Berlin, 1897.
- HIRT, H. A. : *Die Indogermanen*. 2 vols. Strassburg, 1905 and 1907.
- HOGARTH, D. G. : *The Nearer East*. London, 1902.
- IPPEN, TH. A. : *Skutari und die nordalbanische Küstenebene*. Sarajevo, 1907.
- *Die Gebirge des nordwestlichen Albanien*, in Abhandl. der K. K. Geographischen Gesellschaft in Wien, 1908.
- ISMAIL KEMAL BEY : *Albania and the Albanians*. in Quarterly Review, 1917.

- 'UN ITALIANO': *La Politica Estera Italiana*, 1875-1916. Bitonto. 1916.
- LAMOUCHE, L.: *La Naissance de l'État albanais*, in *La Revue politique et parlementaire*, vol. lxxx, 1914.
- LEAKE, W. M.: *Travels in Northern Greece*. 4 vols. London, 1835.
- LIEBERT, MED. DR. ERICH: *Aus dem nordalbanischen Hochgebirge*. 1909.
- LOUIS-JARAY, G.: *L'Albanie inconnue*. Paris, 1913.
- *Au jeune royaume d'Albanie*. 1914.
- MINISTÈRE [FRANÇAIS] DE LA GUERRE: *L'Albanie et le Monténégro*. Paris, 1915.
- MINISTERO DELLA GUERRA [ITALIANO]: *Albania*. Rome, 1915.
- MINISTERO DELLA MARINA. *Monografia Albanese*. Rome, 1917.
- MJEDJA, A.: *Über die Befugnisse eines Bajraktars; über die Blutrache*, in *Verhandl. d. Berliner Gesellschaft f. Anthropologie, Ethnologie und Urgeschichte*, 1901.
- MURRAY, COL. A. M.: Articles in *The World*, 1913, 1914.
- *Lecture to the Anglo-Hellenic League*, 1914.
- NOPCSA, BARON: *Das katholische Nordalbanien*, in *Földrajzi Közlemenyek*. Budapest.
- *Aus Sala und Klementi*. 1910.
- PATSCH, C.: *Das Sanschak Berat in Albanien* (Schriften der Balkankommission, antiquarische Abteilung). Vienna, 1904.
- PEACOCK, W.: *Albania*. London, 1914.
- REPORT OF DUTCH MISSION IN ALBANIA. The Hague, 1914.
- SIEBERTZ, PAUL: *Albanien und die Albanesen*. Vienna, 1910.
- STEINMETZ, KARL: *Von der Adria zum Schwarzen Drin*. 1900.
- *Ein Reise durch die Hochländergaue Oberalbaniens*. 1904.
- *Ein Vorstoss in die Nordalbanischen Alpen*. 1905.
- TOZER, H. F.: *Researches in the Highlands of Turkey*. 2 vols. London, 1869.
- WACE, A. J. B., and THOMPSON, M. S.: *The Nomads of the Balkans*. London, 1914.

* MAPS

Albania is covered by the three sheets, Scutari, Elbassan, Valona, of the War Office map on the scale of 1 : 250,000 (G.S.G.S. 2097). This map is drawn mainly from the Austrian map on the scale of 1 : 200,000, which in Albania is not based on a thorough survey. It is also covered by sheet K. 34 (Sofiya) of the International Map (G.S.G.S. 2758) published by the War Office on the scale of 1 : 1,000,000. A special map (G.S.G.S. 3693) was also issued by the War Office in connexion with this series (November 1918), on the same scale.

For historical boundaries and ethnography, see Table and Note on Maps in *The Eastern Question*, No. 15 of this series.

*HANDBOOKS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE
HISTORICAL SECTION OF THE FOREIGN OFFICE.—No. 18*

G R E E C E

WITH THE

CYCLADES & NORTHERN SPORADES

LONDON :
PUBLISHED BY H. M. STATIONERY OFFICE.

1920

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL	
<i>GREECE</i>	
(1) Frontiers	1
(2) Race and Language	
(a) Old Greece	3
Greeks	4
Albanians	5
(b) Territories acquired in 1913	6
(c) Greeks outside Greece	7
 <i>THE CYCLADES AND NORTHERN SPORADES</i>	
(1) Position and Surface	9
The Cyclades	9
The Northern Sporades (including Skyros)	12
(2) Climate	13
(3) Sanitary Conditions	13
(4) Race and Language	14
(5) Population	15
 II. POLITICAL HISTORY	
Chronological Table	17
Introduction : Historical Basis of Greek Claims	19
(1) Condition of the Greeks in 1815	22
(2) The War of Independence (1821-9)	24
Battle of Navarino	26
Capo d'Istria President	27
(3) The Creation of the Greek Kingdom (1829-33)	28
Question of Frontiers	28
Otho, King of Greece	29
(4) Bavarian Absolutism (1833-43)	31
Orthodox Church in Greece independent of Patriarchate	31
Revolution of 1843	32
(5) The Interval between the two Revolutions (1843- 1862)	33
Constitution of 1844	33

TABLE OF CONTENTS

[No. 18

	PAGE
Parties in Greece	34
Revolution of 1862: Deposition of Otho	35
(6) The Interregnum and the Cession of the Ionian Islands (1862-4)	36
George I, King of the Hellenes	37
British Protectorate of Ionian Islands	38
(7) The Cretan Question (1864-76)	40
Insurrection of 1866-8	40
Organic Statute	41
(8) The Eastern Crisis: Second Enlargement of Greece (1876-82)	42
Treaties of San Stefano and Berlin	43
Negotiations as to new Frontier	43
Thessaly and Epeiros added to Greece	43
(9) The Blockade of 1886	45
Greek opposition to Union of Bulgaria and Eastern Rumelia	45
(10) Crete and the Greco-Turkish War (1886-1897)	46
Administration of Trikoupes	46
Insurrection of 1896 in Crete	47
Greek force in Crete	48
Outbreak of Greco-Turkish War	50
Treaty of Peace. Strategic Modification of Frontier	50
(11) Cretan Autonomy (1897-1908)	51
Prince George of Greece, High Commissioner	52
Cretan Constitution of 1899	52
Evacuation of Crete by Great Powers	54
(12) Greece and Macedonia (1897-1908)	54
Parties in Greece	54
Various National Propaganda in Macedonia	56
(13) The Military League and the Advent of M. Veni- zelos (1909-12)	57
Cretan Proclamation of Union with Greece	57
Negotiations with Turkey and the Powers	60
Dissatisfaction in Greece; Military League	61
M. Venizelos invited to Athens and subse- quently made Prime Minister	63
Revision of Constitution	65

	PAGE
(14) The Two Balkan Wars (1912-13)	66
Treaties of Alliance between Balkan States	67
Victories of Greeks. Salonika occupied	68
Treaty of London	68
Epeiros Boundary Question and Dodekanese	69
Second Balkan War and Treaty of Bucarest	70
(15) The Greco-Italian Difficulty : Northern Epeiros and the Aegean Islands (1913-14)	71
 III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS	
(1) Religious	73
Organization of Greek Church	73
(a) Old Greece	73
(b) New Provinces	74
(2) Political; Form, Character, and Methods of Government	76
(3) Educational	78
Primary	78
Secondary	79
University	80
Language Question	81
 IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS	
<i>GREECE</i>	
(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION	
(1) Internal	
(a) Roads	83
(b) Rivers and Canals	83
(c) Railways	84
(2) External	
(a) Ports	86
(b) Shipping Lines	87
 (B) INDUSTRY	
(1) Labour	89
Emigration	89
(2) Agriculture	
(a) Products of Commercial Value	
Cereals	90
Wine, Currants	91
Olives	92

TABLE OF CONTENTS

[No. 18

	PAGE
Figs, Mulberries, Valonea, Tobacco	93
Cotton, Essential Oils, Live-stock	94
(b) Methods of Agriculture	94
Irrigation	95
(c) Forestry	95
(d) Land Tenure	96
(3) Fisheries	96
(4) Minerals	97
Iron, Silver-lead	97
Zinc, Magnesite, Emery	98
Copper, Sulphur, Pozzolana, Lignite, Anthra- cite, Salt, Petroleum, Marble	99
Mineral Waters	100
(5) Manufactures	100
(6) Power	102
(C) COMMERCE	
(1) Domestic	
(a) Fairs	102
(b) Organizations for promoting Commerce	103
(c) Foreign Interests	103
(d) Economic Penetration	104
(2) Foreign	
(a) Exports and Imports	105
(b) Customs and Tariffs	108
(D) FINANCE	
(1) Public Finance	109
(2) Currency	111
(3) Banking	112

CYCLADES AND NORTHERN SPORADES

GENERAL SUMMARY	114
Means of Communication	115
Industry	116
Agriculture	116
Live-stock	117
Mining	117

	PAGE
CYCLADES	
Amorgos	119
Andros	121
Kimolos	123
Kythnos (Thermia)	124
Melos (Milo)	125
Mykonos (including Great and Small Delos)	127
Naxos	129
Paros and Antiparos	132
Pholegandros (Polykandro)	133
Santorin (Thera)	134
Seriphos	137
Siphnos	138
Syra (Syros)	139
Tenos	148
Zea (Keos)	150
NORTHERN SPORADES	
Skiathos	152
Skopelos	153
Skyros	154
APPENDIX	
I. Protocol of London, 22 Mar. 1829	156
II. Protocol of London, 3 Feb. 1830	156
III. Treaty of London, 29 Mar. 1864	157
IV. Firman. Organic Regulations for Crete, 23 Aug. 1868	159
V. Firman (Pact of Halepa), 25 Oct. 1878	162
AUTHORITIES	166
MAPS	170

I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

GREECE

(1) FRONTIERS

THE successive historical frontiers¹ of Greece during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries are as follows :

1. The boundary on the mainland, as laid down by the Protocol of March 22, 1829, and the Treaty of July 21, 1832, between the three Protecting Powers (England, France, and Russia) and Turkey, ran from Armyro on the Gulf of Volo, along Mount Othrys, to the Gulf of Arta, the Pass of Makrynoros being assigned to the Greeks, and Fort Punta, opposite Preveza, to Turkey.² The islands adjoining the Morea, the island of Euboea, and ' the islands commonly called Cyclades ', including the Northern Sporades, also became part of the Greek kingdom.

2. On the accession of King George of Greece, England in 1863 ceded the Ionian Islands to Greece. It was an express stipulation that Corfu and Paxo, with their dependencies, should be neutralized.³ The seven chief Ionian Islands (which are sometimes called the Heptanesos) are Corfu, Paxo, Leukas (Santa Mavra), Cephalonia, Ithaca, Zante, and Cerigo (Cythera). Saseno, off Valona, was included among the dependencies of Corfu, but ceded to Albania in 1914.

¹ See historical map of S.E. Europe (Maps, vol. 2) in this series.

² By the Protocol of Feb. 3, 1830, it was proposed to make the western frontier of Greece the River Achelous (Aspropotamo), thus assigning parts of Aetolia and Akarnania to Turkey.

³ See Appendix III, Treaty of London, Art. 11, p. 158.

3. By the Treaty of Berlin (1878) nothing definite was decided as to the Greek frontiers, but the mediation of the Powers was offered. As a result, the new frontier was laid down on May 24, 1881, and added Thessaly and the district of Arta to Greek territory; Punta, opposite Preveza, also became Greek.

4. After the defeat of the Greeks in the war against Turkey in 1897, certain strategic modifications of the frontier in Thessaly and Epeiros were agreed to. One of them brought the Turkish frontier close to Larissa on the Peneios river (Salambrias).

5. By the Treaty of Bucarest, after the Second Balkan War in 1913, Greece acquired her present frontiers, which nearly doubled her territory and population. The frontier dividing her from Bulgarian Macedonia runs from the mouth of the Mesta upwards along that river to a point in the neighbourhood of Okjilar, then follows a line drawn in a north-westerly direction as far as just north of the Kuslar Dagh. This line then runs westwards towards the Belashitsa Mountains near Doiran. The frontier with Serbia runs from near Doiran to Lake Prespa, being so drawn as to leave Monastir to Serbia. From near Lake Prespa the frontier with Albania follows the line laid down by the South Albania Boundary Commission to a point nearly opposite the town of Corfu. Greek Macedonia, as thus delimited, includes a large proportion of non-Hellenic population,¹ and in its capital, Salonika, the Jewish element is preponderant. On the other hand, the Greeks claim that South Albania (which they call North Epeiros) includes a considerable area which is predominantly Hellenic in language and sympathy, if not in race.²

As regards the islands, Crete was formally given up by Turkey by the Treaty of London in 1913, having

¹ See *Macedonia*, No. 21 of this series.

² See *Albania*, No. 17 of this series.

already, in 1912, been admitted to union with Greece. Bulgaria expressly renounced all claim to it by the Treaty of Bucarest (1913). The fate of the other Turkish islands, as well as of Mount Athos, was reserved for the decision of the Powers. No final decision on this matter was agreed on before the outbreak of the Great War, but Imbros and Tenedos were regarded by the Powers as necessary to Turkey for the defence of the Dardanelles; Turkey also claimed Samothraki for the same reason, and refused to renounce her claim to Mitylene (Lesbos) and Khios. In spite of this, however, Thasos, Lemnos, Samothraki, Imbros, Tenedos, Aïstrate, Mytilene, Khios, Psara, Samos, Nikaria, and the other smaller islands associated with them, have become part of the Greek kingdom. The Southern Sporades (Rhodes, Kos, the Dodekanese) are still nominally Turkish, though in Italian occupation. Mount Athos (Monte Santo, Agion Oros) is a more or less autonomous religious community, but is under Greek control.

(2) RACE AND LANGUAGE

(a) *Old Greece*

The racial conditions in Old Greece, as it was before 1913, and in the territory acquired in that year by the Treaty of Bucarest, are so different that the two are here treated separately.

In Old Greece the great majority of the population, estimated in 1912 at 2,765,000, was of Greek race. The only other considerable element was Albanian; estimates of its number vary considerably, but the most trustworthy put it at about 225,000 to 250,000. There were also a certain number of Koutso-Vlachs¹ and Turks, mostly in Thessaly.

¹ A discussion of the Koutso-Vlachs will be found in *Macedonia* (p. 11) and *Rumania* (pp. 11, 76).

Greeks.—It has been a matter of dispute how far the modern inhabitants of Greece may be regarded as the actual descendants of the ancient Hellenes. It is, however, now generally admitted that the basis of the population, both on the mainland and in the islands, must be regarded as Hellenic in race as well as in language, though certain ‘barbarian’ admixtures are to be found in varying degrees in different districts. Bodies of Slavonic immigrants settled in Greece, especially in the eighth century, and have left considerable traces in the place-names of the country, but they seem to have been almost completely assimilated by the older inhabitants, without seriously affecting their racial characteristics. In several regions, especially in country districts and in the islands, it is still possible to recognize the Hellenic type of features as recorded for us in ancient sculpture, while the character of the people, though naturally affected by many centuries of foreign domination, shows a quickness and versatility that contrast with the qualities of other peoples of the Balkan peninsula, and must probably be regarded as an inheritance from their traditional ancestry. On the other hand, the Greeks found in many of the chief coast towns of the Levant are of a mixed type which probably includes strains from many of the maritime peoples of this region, and is in strong contrast with the purer type found in remote or less frequented districts.

The Greek language has had a history which corresponds to that of the Greek people. Early Greek colonists spread it along all the shores of the Mediterranean, and after the conquests of Alexander it became the common tongue of the eastern portion of the civilized world. It was the official language both of the Eastern or Orthodox Church and of the Byzantine Empire. After the capture of Constantinople by the Turks,

wandering Greek scholars carried their learning and traditions with them to Italy and western Europe, where, since the Renaissance, Greek literature and language have held a leading place in education and culture. The classical tradition, moreover, never became extinct among the Greeks who remained in the Levant ; it was preserved among the Phanariots of Constantinople, and later on in other centres such as Yanina and Odessa, leading to a classical revival in the eighteenth century by scholars such as Koraïs, which continued after the War of Independence and the formation of the new Greek kingdom. But, side by side with this learned language, there has also persisted, throughout all Greek lands, a popular tongue which has developed on lines similar to those on which the Romance languages have been derived from Latin, though preserving a closer resemblance to its original. This popular tongue varies considerably from place to place, but not so much as to make Greeks mutually unintelligible ; it is known as 'Romaic', in contrast to the classical 'Hellenic'. A bitter controversy has raged for many years between the advocates of the learned or purist Hellenic and the popular Romaic as the official and literary language. But it appears that more moderate counsels are now prevailing, and that the language of the people, purified from some unnecessary foreign words, and enriched by additions from the classical vocabulary, is likely to be recognized as the basis of Modern Greek.

Albanians.—The racial character and language of the Albanians are described in No. 17 of this series. The Albanians in Greece all belong to the southern or Tosk division. They were settled in Greece before the War of Independence, in which they took a prominent part both by land and sea ; consequently their national and patriotic sentiment towards the Greek kingdom is just

as keen as that of the Greeks themselves. Almost all the men and many of the women in Albanian villages speak Greek as well as Albanian. The Albanian dress, with its white kilt and embroidered jacket, has been adopted on the mainland as the Greek national costume, and is used as the uniform of light infantry (*evzones*). Albanians are mostly to be found in Boeotia and Attica (excluding Athens), in certain districts of the Peloponnese, in the southern part of the island of Euboea, and in the islands of Hydra, Spetsae, and Andros.

(b) *Territories acquired in 1913*

For the racial character and distribution of the population of Macedonia and the islands of the northern and eastern Aegean, see Handbooks Nos. 21 and 64. In addition, the acquisitions of 1913 included Epeiros and Crete. A rough estimate of the population of these districts may be tabulated as follows :

	<i>Greeks.</i>	<i>Albanians.</i>	<i>Slavs.</i>	<i>Turks.</i>	<i>Vlachs.</i>	<i>Jews.</i>	<i>Various.</i>	<i>Total.</i>
New territory :								
Asiatic Islands	305,000	—	—	20,000	—	—	—	325,000
Crete	275,000	—	—	35,000	—	—	—	310,000
Macedonia	250,000	—	380,000	250,000	150,000	110,000	—	1,140,000
Epeiros	163,000	63,000	—	—	11,000	—	8,000	245,000
Total for new territory	993,000	63,000	380,000	305,000	161,000	110,000	8,000	2,020,000
Old Greece	2,475,000	225,000	—	?	50,000	—	15,000	2,765,000
Total for all Greece	3,468,000	288,000	380,000	305,000	211,000	110,000	23,000	4,785,000

The above figures can only be regarded as approximate, and have probably been considerably changed in recent years; e. g. many Turks have emigrated from territory occupied by Greece, and many Greek refugees have immigrated from Turkish territory, especially into Macedonia and the Asiatic Islands. There are also considerable discrepancies between the estimates given by various authorities, e. g. as to the various racial elements in Macedonia.

(c) Greeks outside Greece

In addition to the estimated number of approximately 3,500,000 Greeks in the Greek kingdom, there are a large number of Greeks outside Greece, most of whom retain their national sympathies and interests. These may be divided into three classes :

1. The Greeks of 'unredeemed Hellas', whose aspiration it is to be included in the Greek kingdom. These are found mainly in European and Asiatic Turkey, and in the islands adjacent to Asiatic Turkey. There are also a certain number in the districts assigned to other Balkan states by the treaties of 1913.

2. Greek colonists or merchants, who, without giving up their Greek nationality, have settled in various countries all over the world, from America to India. Many of these ultimately return to live in Greece, and they have also returned in great numbers at any time of crisis, such as the Balkan Wars of 1912-13 or the Great War.

3. Greeks who have been born or become naturalized in foreign countries. Strictly speaking, these are no longer Greeks by nationality, but they have always kept up a keen interest in the affairs of Greece. Through their Representative Congress of Hellenic Communities, held in Paris in 1916, they have tried to influence political affairs in Greece, though of course they have no constitutional rights.

It is difficult to form any estimate of the numbers of the third of these classes, or to draw a definite line between those who still remain Greeks in national sentiment and those who have become assimilated to their new nationality, but a rough estimate may be made of the first two classes as follows :

Class (1)

Turkey in Asia	1,700,000
Turkey in Europe	750,000
Cyprus	219,000
Balkan States	225,000
Russia	150,000
Egypt	100,000
	————— 3,144,000

Class (2)

Western Europe	20,000
India, Africa, &c.	6,000
United States of America	250,000
	————— 276,000
	<u>3,420,000</u>

These numbers are approximately equal to those of the Greek race in Greece itself; the Paris Congress above referred to claimed to represent a total of 35 Greek communities and 4,000,000 Hellenes; but this claim was not admitted by the adherents of King Constantine, against whom the Congress was defending the Greek Constitution. The Greeks who had acquired another nationality, but took an active interest in the Congress, were probably as numerous as those retaining Greek nationality though resident at a distance from Greece.

The title of ‘King of the Hellenes’, not ‘King of Greece’, which was taken by King George in 1862, was chosen in relation to the Greek communities outside Greece, as well as to Greeks in the kingdom, and the former were actually allowed to vote, through their representatives, on the situation of 1862 and the choice of the new king.

THE CYCLADES AND NORTHERN SPORADES

(1) POSITION AND SURFACE

The Aegean Sea consists of three large basins divided by ridges which are for the most part submerged, but of which the summits rise to form the series and groups of islands which cross diagonally from Greece to Asia Minor. In the extreme south the open sea is barred by Crete. North of this is the south Aegean basin, from which rise the groups of islands known as the Cyclades (Kyklades) and Sporades, divided from each other by a strip of sea relatively free from islands. North of these groups there extends the middle Aegean basin, from which arise the coast islands of Mitylene and Khios, and also the island of Psara, on the Asiatic side; and Euboea and Skyros, off the European coast, besides several reefs and islets. North of these islands is the north Aegean basin, which is again divided into an Asiatic and a European part. The first portion contains the islands near the Dardanelles (Tenedos, Imbros, Lemnos, and Strati or Aïstrate); the second and narrower portion the group of islands known as the Northern Sporades (or Magnesian Islands), including Skiathos, Skopelos, and Halonesos (Khiliodromia). Between the north Aegean basin and the coast of Thrace rise the two Thracian islands of Thasos and Samothraki.

The islands of the Aegean here considered are (1) the Cyclades, (2) the Northern Sporades and the island of Skyros. The North Aegean islands and the islands near the Asiatic coast are treated in Handbook No. 96.

The Cyclades

Of these islands 24 possess an area of more than 9 square miles, and, including the numerous smaller islands, the Cyclades have in all an area of about 1,050 square miles.

In the ensuing description the Cyclades are arranged on topographical and bathymetric considerations into three main groups comprising six series or sub-groups numbered continuously :

- I. The northern group, three parallel series running from north-west to south-east, viz. :
 - (1) North-east series : Andros, Tenos, Mykonos, Delos, orographically the continuation of southern Euboea.
 - (2) Central series : Gyáros (Gioura), Syra (Syros).
 - (3) South-western series : Keos (Zea), Kythnos (Thermia), Seriphos (Serpho), Siphnos.

Approached from west or east the islands of the first series appear as an extended mountain chain gradually diminishing in height from north-west to south-east. Andros (area 157 square miles) is divided from Euboea by the Doro channel (over 6 miles broad, and 200 fathoms deep), and rises at its central point to about 3,200 ft. Between Andros and Tenos is a strait (To Steno) 24 fathoms deep. Tenos (area 79 square miles) is a broad rounded ridge attaining a height of 2,089 ft. To the south-east, across a broad strait, the island of Mykonos rises to a height of 1,194 ft. The islands present the steepest slope along the remarkably straight line of their south-west coasts; their north-west coasts are more richly articulated by large rounded bays. Andros is the most important island in this series, and the second largest in the Cyclades.

Syra, in the central series, has a superficial area of 31 square miles, and is the meeting-place for a good deal of trade.

The four islands on the south-western limit are fairly widely separated from each other, Keos (superficial area 67 square miles) being the nearest to Attica both in position and many other respects.

- II. (4) The central group, in which the mass of land forming the islands unites them into a closely related body comprising Naxos, Paros, and Antiparos (with the islets of Despotiko and Strongyle).

The whole group looks like a related mountain mass, and is popularly comprised under the name Paronaxia. The heights of the islands diminish from east to west : Naxos (area 173 square miles), 3,290 ft. ; Paros, 2,460 ft. ; Antiparos, 1,010 ft. The pure white marble found in Paros (superficial area 81 square miles) is famous.

III. The southern group consists of two series :

- (5) The southern diagonal series, south of (4) above, and running from west-south-west to east-north-east, comprising the small islands of Pholegandros (Polykandro), Sikinos, Nios (Ios), Herakleia (Raklia), Keros, Denusa, Amorgos, together with the islets Skhinousa, Apano Koupho, Kato Koupho, &c.
- (6) The series on the southern limit curving from west to east and comprising Melos, Kimolos, Santorin (Thera), Anaphe, together with the islets Eremomelos (Antimelos), Polinos, &c.

The extended island of Amorgos (area 50 square miles, highest alt. 2,560 ft.) is the largest of the first of these series.

The Melos group, in the last series, exhibits volcanic features, and is noted for important mining products. The mountains of Melos (area 62 square miles) reach the height of 2,538 ft.

The Thera group (combined area 30–35 square miles) are the most southerly of the Cyclades, and are chiefly of volcanic origin, although at the south-east end are mountains (alt. 1,887 ft.) of non-volcanic origin. The

islands depend almost exclusively on collected rain-water for their water-supply.

The Northern Sporades (including Skyros)

The Northern Sporades (Magnesian Islands) run from the south-eastern extreme of the Thessalian peninsula of Magnesia in a curve, with the concave side directed towards the north. The group is made up of the islands of Skiathos and Skopelos, the Eremonesia islands, Halonesos (Khiliodromia, Ikos), Xero (Xeronesi), Kyra Panagia (Pelago), Gioura, Psathoura, and a few smaller islands. They have a total superficial area of about 96 square miles.

These islands are not only of considerable strategic importance, but have always maintained a lively shipping trade, their pine-woods, better preserved than on most islands, furnishing materials for shipbuilding.

The sea trade along the east coast of Greece must pass through the islands, the harbours of some of which are important, owing to the fact that the eastern coast of northern Greece possesses practically none except the small harbour of Kymi (in Euboea).

Skiathos (area about 16 square miles, alt. 1,425 ft.) is divided from Magnesia by a channel only $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles broad, from Euboea by a strait 8 miles broad. The island is rich in woods, but only a small part of it is cultivated. Both in Skiathos and in Skopelos (area about 33 square miles) there is considerable shipping and shipbuilding industry.

Halonesos (area about 28 square miles) is one of the poorest and most isolated settlements in the archipelago; it sends wood and charcoal to Skiathos and Skopelos.

Skyros (area about 79 square miles), which has an excellent harbour, is more closely related to Euboea, 24 miles distant, than to the other islands, and rises in

relative isolation from the broad Middle Aegean basin, the nearest of the Northern Sporades group being 16 miles distant.

(2) CLIMATE

The islands are neither so hot in summer nor so cold in winter as the mainland of Greece. In the islands of the South Aegean the range between the means for the hottest and coldest months is only 26° F. (14.5° C.), as compared with 40° F. (22.2° C.) in northern Greece. The northerly winds which prevail and blow with great steadiness during the summer are most marked in the Cyclades, where over 80 per cent. of the observations made in July show northerly winds trend. In winter strong southerly winds may prevail over the Aegean Sea. The rainfall in the Cyclades is slightly greater than on the east coast of Greece, where the mean annual precipitation is only about 18 in. Violent squalls sometimes occur.

The mean monthly average temperature for four of the islands (viz. Andros, Syra, Naxos, and Santorin) ranges from 78.7° F. in July to 52.5° F. in January. The highest mean monthly maximum temperature recorded is 94.6° F. for Syra in July, the lowest being 61.7° F. for Santorin in January; the highest mean monthly minimum temperature is 69° F. for Syra in July and August, the lowest being 35° F. for Andros in January. The mean monthly rainfall for these islands ranges from 3.66 in. in December to 0.09 in. in July.

(3) SANITARY CONDITIONS

Generally speaking, these are good in the Aegean Islands, although a little malaria occurs at a few points.

(4) RACE AND LANGUAGE

The Aegean islanders are mainly of a rather pure Greek strain, and foreign influence seems, if anything, to have diminished in the last half-century. Andros has an Albanian element, which inhabits the northern and more unfruitful part of the island. The most considerable foreign influence, however, racial as well as cultural, has probably been that of the Italians. The Italian language has disappeared, but Italian proper names are common in Andros, Tenos, Mykonos, Naxos, Syra, and Santorin. The bearers of these names are usually Roman Catholics, and, though numerically inferior, often form the most enlightened and influential portion of the island population. Though otherwise assimilated to their environment, they are often, as in Tenos, of a distinct type, and sometimes can claim descent from noble Genoese and Venetian families. Venetian rule was long maintained in Tenos, and the island received more Italian elements, and has preserved more evidences of Italian culture, than any other eastern Greek island, the Roman Catholic religion having remained the faith of about one-third of the population. Syra contains about 3,000 Roman Catholics, descendants of Genoese and Venetian settlers. Nios was a Venetian (subsequently a Turkish) possession, and Italian names are found, although every one professes the Greek Orthodox faith. There is a strong Italian admixture in the population of Santorin, although the Italian language has disappeared; about 600 of the richest and most intelligent part of the population retain the Roman Catholic religion, and lead in the educational and intellectual development of the island. In Naxos the mining population are said to be Cretans, and seem to be of a dif-

ferent type from the other islanders. Here, as in a good many islands, are found relics of Turkish influence.

(5) POPULATION

In the following table the figures given are, wherever possible, those of the census returns of 1907 and 1896 respectively, with the increase or decrease between these years noted in each case :

Cyclades

<i>Island.</i>	<i>1907.</i>	<i>1896.</i>	<i>Increase or Decrease.</i>
Amorgos . . .	4,140	3,721	+419
Anaphe . . .	579	643	-64
Andros . . .	18,027	18,804	-777
Antiparos . . .	868	596	+272
Keos . . .	3,817	4,975	-1,158
Kimolos . . .	2,015	1,655	+360
Kythnos . . .	3,191	4,353	-1,162
Melos . . .	5,573	5,310	+263
Mykonos . . .	4,589	4,403	+186
Naxos . . .	16,694	15,655	+1,039
Nios . . .	2,090	2,146	-56
Paros . . .	7,623	7,740	-117
Pholegandros . . .	800	998	-198
Santorin . . .	12,109	13,617	-1,508
Seriphos . . .	4,024	3,851	+173
Siphnos . . .	3,777	4,060	-283
Sikinos . . .	627	697	-70
Syra . . .	27,350	27,759	-409
Tenos . . .	11,634	12,314	-680
Therasia . . .	679	855	-176
Total . . .	130,206	134,152	-3,946

Skyros and Northern Sporades

<i>Island.</i>	<i>1907.</i>	<i>1896.</i>	<i>Increase or Decrease.</i>
Halonisos . . .	729	594	+135
Skiathos . . .	3,387	2,781	+606
Skopelos . . .	6,520	5,298	+1,222
Skyros . . .	4,172	3,512	+660
Total . . .	14,808	12,185	+2,623

The total of the population of the above islands, according to the most recently available figures, is thus about 146,000, and the densest population (156 per square mile) is found in Tenos.

The decrease in population is to be attributed mainly to emigration, which is to be accounted for, to a considerable extent, by the growth of the Piraeus at the expense of Syra. Thus a large part of the emigration was probably merely to the Greek mainland, but a good number emigrated to America.

The decline continued between 1896 and 1907, and there has probably been no general increase since, though the figures for Amorgos, Naxos, and Seriphos have risen. Before the Great War emigration was not only considerable but increasing.

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

- About 1100 B.C.—600 B.C. Age of Greek colonization.
334–323. Campaigns of Alexander the Great.
146. Greece becomes a Roman Province.
324 A.D. Foundation of Constantinople on the site of Byzantium.
1204. Constantinople taken by Crusaders.
1205–1460. Franks on mainland of Greece.
1206–14 ; 1386–1797. Venetians in Corfu.
1453. Turks capture Constantinople.
1456–1540. Turks conquer all mainland of Greece.
1566. Turks conquer the Duchy of the Archipelago.
1571. Turks conquer Cyprus.
1645–69. Turks conquer Crete.
1685–1718. Venetians in the Morea.
1770. Unsuccessful revolt in Morea.
1797. The French succeed to Venice in the Ionian Islands.
1814. ‘ Friendly Society ’ founded in Odessa.
1815. British Protectorate over the Ionian Islands.
1817. First Ionian Constitution (Conservative).
1819. Cession of Parga.
1821–9. Greek War of Independence.
1827. Capo d’Istria elected President.
Battle of Navarino.
1830–40. Crete united with Egypt.
1831. Assassination of Capo d’Istria.
1832. Otho of Bavaria accepts the throne.
Samos made an autonomous Principality.
1833–5. The Regency.
1834. Capital moved from Nauplia to Athens.
1841. Insurrection in Crete.
1843. First Greek Revolution of ‘ September 3 ’.
1844. First Greek Constitution.
1849. Second Ionian Constitution (Radical).
1850. The Pacifico affair : first British blockade.

- 1854-7. Franco-British occupation of the Piræus.
1862. Second Greek Revolution : Otho deposed.
1863. George of Denmark becomes King of the Hellenes.
1864. Cession of the Ionian Islands.
Second Greek Constitution.
- 1866-9. Great Cretan Insurrection.
1868. Cretan Organic Statute.
1870. Creation of the Bulgarian Exarchate.
1878. The Cyprus Convention.
Protocol 13 of the Berlin Treaty invites rectification of
Greek frontier.
Pact of Halepa.
1880. Berlin Conference on the Greek frontier.
1881. Greece receives Thessaly and the district of Arta.
1886. Second blockade of Greece.
1889. Cretan Insurrection.
1896. Last Cretan Insurrection breaks out.
1897. Greco-Turkish War. Retrocession of Thessaly (except
strategic points).
- 1898-1906. Crete autonomous under Prince George of Greece.
1905. M. Venizelos at Therisso.
- 1906-11. M. Zaïmes High Commissioner in Crete.
1908. Crete proclaims union with Greece.
1909. The 'Military League' at Athens.
M. Venizelos arrives at Athens.
1910. National Assembly meets.
Oct. 18. M. Venizelos' first Premiership begins.
1911. Third Greek Constitution.
1912. First Balkan War.
1913. Assassination of King George : accession of King
Constantine.
1913. May 30. Treaty of London.
Second Balkan War.
Aug. 10. Treaty of Bucarest.
1914. Autonomous Government in Northern Epeiros.
May 17. Convention of Corfu on Northern Epirote
question.
1915. Mar. 10. M. Gounares succeeds M. Venizelos as
Premier.
June 13. General Election : Venizelist majority of 58.
Aug. 22. M. Venizelos' second Premiership begins.
Oct. 6. M. Zaïmes succeeds M. Venizelos.

1915. Nov. 7. M. Skouloudes Premier.
 Dec. 19. General Election : Venizelists abstain.
1916. June 22. M. Zaïmes again Premier.
 Sept. 16. M. Kalogeropoulos Premier.
 Oct. 10. Professor Lampros Premier.
 Oct. 10. Provisional Government established at Salonika under M. Venizelos.
 Dec. 1 and 2. Fighting at Athens : Royalist troops fire on the Allies.
1917. May 3. M. Zaïmes again Premier.
 June 12. King Constantine deposed.
 June 27. M. Venizelos' third Premiership begins.

INTRODUCTION : HISTORICAL BASIS OF GREEK CLAIMS

IN the case of the Greeks, even more than in that of any other Balkan nation, it is impossible to understand modern claims and aspirations except in relation to ancient and mediæval history. It is certainly difficult to estimate in what degree the modern Greeks may be regarded as the direct descendants of their classical predecessors ; in any case a certain admixture of foreign elements must be admitted. But there is no doubt that the traditions of ancient and mediæval glory have been the chief inspiration not only of the Greeks themselves, but also of the foreign Philhellenes who have been willing in more than one crisis to give their lives for Greece. Such devotion must be regarded as an acknowledgement of the incalculable debt of the civilized world to the art and literature, the thought and politics of ancient Greece.

During the period of their highest and most characteristic development, from the sixth to the fourth century B. C., the Greek people occupied not only the present kingdom of Greece and the Aegean Islands, but also the whole western coast of Asia Minor ; their colonies were placed on all the most important sites in Sicily and South Italy, the south of France, in the

Khalkidike, the Dardanelles and Bosphorus, and the Black Sea ; while in Cyprus and the north of Africa they held their own against Phoenician rivals. But, while a Greek from Smyrna or Marseilles, from Cyrene or Syracuse, had as much right to claim Hellenic nationality as a citizen of Athens or Sparta, there was no political bond of union, apart from the ties of a common race, religion, and language. The various Greek city-states were independent communities, which only on rare occasions, such as the Persian invasion, united against some common danger. It follows that the claim of the modern Greek kingdom on any region cannot be based, so far as classical times are concerned, on any historical arguments of rule or suzerainty, which are notions repugnant to ancient political ideals, but must depend on less easily verified considerations of race, language, and sympathies.

The outstanding event in the history of the ancient Greeks is due to their situation on the borders of Europe and Asia. It fell to them first to meet the apparently irresistible advance of one of the greatest and most powerful of the Oriental monarchies, which threatened to engulf the yet immature European ideals of individual liberty and political organization. The Greeks of the Asiatic coast had already succumbed before the Persian attack ; and it fell to the Athenians first, and later to the united Greeks, to repel the invader from European Greece at Marathon, Salamis, and Plataea, and finally to redeem the Asiatic Greeks also from his domination. The century and a half which followed saw the highest attainments of the Greeks in all branches of political, intellectual, and artistic activity.

A new phase in the great struggle of East and West followed, when the conquests of Alexander the Great made Greek language and ideas the common

heritage of the civilized world. But under his successors, and also under the Roman Empire, the political independence of Greece disappeared, to be replaced by a general respect for Greece, and above all for Athens, as the origin and centre of intellectual activity and progress. The Byzantine Empire, of which Greece naturally formed a part, showed a curious blend of Oriental, Greek, and Roman influences. Byzantium itself was a colony of the Greek city of Megara; its change of name to Constantinople has never been more than partially accepted. The language and literary traditions of the Empire were Greek, though the Latin and Greek elements were so inextricably confused in popular conception that Modern Greek is commonly known in the Levant as Romaic and the Turkish name for a Greek subject of the Ottoman Empire is 'Rum' (cf. 'Rumili' = European Turkey). So long as the Byzantine Empire lasted it was possible for the Greeks to consider themselves a sovereign people; and the Imperial dynasties were regarded by them as the champions of Hellenic civilization against the barbarians, whether Franks from the west or Turks from the east.

The claim sometimes made for the present Greek kingdom to be the successor of the Byzantine Empire depends almost entirely on language and sentiment; but its existence as a factor in modern politics is shown by the fact that the now exiled King claimed the title of Constantine XII; and an element in his popularity was the traditional prophecy that as a Constantine had lost Constantinople for the Greeks, another Constantine should win it back.

During the Byzantine age as well as later, Greece received a certain infiltration, of which the extent is much disputed, of Slavonic, Albanian, and other peoples. After the Latin capture of Constantinople in

A. D. 1204, Greece, except Epeiros, was parcelled out in feudal possessions among Frankish adventurers, mostly French or Italian, who accompanied the Fourth Crusade. It remained in this state for some 250 years, though the Greek Empire of the East, which had survived at Nicaea, soon recovered Salonika, Byzantium, and a large part of the Morea with its capital at Mistra. After the capture of Constantinople in 1453, and of Salonika in 1430 (at the time a Venetian colony), by the Turks, most of the mainland of Greece passed under Ottoman rule, though the Venetians and Genoese secured Frankish power at Nauplia and a few other places on the mainland till 1540, in the archipelago till 1566, in Cyprus till 1571, in Crete till 1669, and in the Ionian Islands till 1797. There was also a Venetian occupation of the Morea from 1685 to 1718.

During the 350 years of Turkish rule Greece itself was reduced to a miserable condition by centuries of slavery; Athens became a petty provincial town. But many Greeks, especially the Phanariots of Constantinople, attained positions of great influence and prosperity in the Ottoman dominions, and so were able to keep alive in some degree the traditions of Hellenism. These more fortunate individuals, however, were naturally not discontented with existing conditions; and the impulse to the resurrection of the nation came from elsewhere.

A premature attempt to throw off the Turkish yoke, instigated and assisted by Russia, in 1770, only led to disaster and terrible punishment; but the seed had been sown which was to bear fruit fifty years later.

(1) CONDITION OF THE GREEKS IN 1815

At the time of the settlement of Europe in 1815, the Greeks, although the most important, the most prosperous, and the least contented of all the Christian

racés beneath the rule of the Turk, possessed no corporate existence as a state. Greece was a 'geographical expression', while the Greeks, with the solitary exception of the inhabitants of Parga on the coast of Epeiros, were still, as they had been for centuries, under foreign domination—in the Ionian Islands under the protectorate of Great Britain, in the rest of the Near East under the sway of Turkey. Occupying a privileged position towards the Sultan's Slavonic and Rumanian subjects, whose ecclesiastical head was the Greek Oecumenical Patriarch at Constantinople, whose bishops and—in the case of the two Rumanian principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia—whose princes were usually Greeks, the Hellenes possessed no outward bond of national union except their Church. Like the Armenians to-day, they had no Government of their own race to which they could appeal, no place in the commonwealth of states. Individuals, like the 'primates' in the Peloponnese, a few well-to-do communities, like the rich island of Khios, the 'Nautical Islands' of Hydra, Spetsai, and Psara, the Dodekanese, or 'Twelve Islands' of the Southern Sporades, the '24 hamlets of Volo', the mountainous districts of Pindus and Olympus, and 'the Holy Mountain' of Athos, enjoyed certain privileges and a measure of autonomy. Maina, in the extreme south, was governed by a local chief, appointed for life by the Sultan with the title of *Bey*; but Athens was the Sultan's private property, although the Athenians annually elected their 'elders'; and Yanina, to which 'Greece owes the regeneration of her education', was in the grip of Ali Pasha. But even then Athens could boast an historian in the person of John Venizelos, the local schoolmaster. Moreover, the Greeks had this advantage, that, as religion and not race was then taken as the test, all the non-Hellenic

members of the Orthodox Church in the Balkan Peninsula were collectively classified as 'Greeks'. The Greek Church and the Greek race were considered as coextensive; and consequently, when Greece finally became an independent state, her statesmen naturally regarded themselves as the sole legitimate heirs of the 'Sick Man', and the Bulgars as tardy interlopers. The existence of wealthy Greek colonies abroad further increased the importance of the Hellenic element—the most intelligent, the most educated, and the richest—in the Eastern question.

(2) THE WAR OF INDEPENDENCE (1821–9)

A year before the European settlement (1815) a secret organization, known as the 'Friendly Society', had been founded at Odessa, to promote a Greek rising against Turkish rule. The leadership of this movement, declined by Count Capo d'Istria, the distinguished Corfiote who had then risen high in the Russian service, was accepted by Prince Alexander Ypselantes, whose father and grandfather had both been princes of the Danubian Principalities and who was himself a distinguished officer in the Russian army. His family connexion with the Principalities led him to begin the insurrection there rather than in Greece, on March 6, 1821; but, despite the courage of his followers in the battles of Dragasani and Skulyani, this attempt failed, and the fugitive leader died an exile in Vienna. The revolution, which broke out in the Morea barely a month after he had entered Moldavia, led, however, after a long and varied struggle, to the emancipation of Greece. The popular tradition, consecrated by official usage, dates the outbreak of the Greek War of Independence from April 6 (March 25, o.s.), 1821, when Germanos, Metropolitan of Patras, raised the sacred banner representing the death of the Virgin

in the church of the monastery of Agia Lavra near Kalavryta. In that war three phases may be traced: the first, lasting from 1821 to 1825, in which the Greeks were successful; the second, extending from the arrival of Ibrahim in the Morea in 1825, when the tide turned, down to 1827; and the third, which began with the intervention of Great Britain, France, and Russia, and which saw the last fight between Greeks and Turks in 1829. For the present purpose it is more important to indicate the political lessons than to describe the military operations of the Greek Insurrection—the massacre of Khios, the second siege of Mesolongi. Greece, as Lord Byron clearly saw, was not, as some idealists imagined, inhabited by impossible heroes, but by very human individuals, who had had the terrible disadvantage of living (except in the Ionian Islands) for centuries under the most barbarous and corrupt of Governments, the Turkish. Owing to the geographical configuration of the country and the lack of means of communication, the local jealousies of the ancient Greek Republics were renewed between the various communities of the new-born nation. It soon became clear, after the experiment, made by the Constitution of Epidaurus in 1822, of naming a Greek as President in the person of the patriotic Phanariot, Alexander Mavrokordatos, that a foreign prince was the only possible head of the new Greek state. No Greek would consent to recognize another Greek as his sovereign; and already men's eyes began to turn to the House of Saxe-Coburg. The Greek insurrection proved, too, that even in the hey-day of Metternich diplomacy could not, in the face of growing public opinion in London and other capitals, ignore the claims of the Greek people. Canning, when he succeeded Castlereagh as Foreign Secretary, by recognizing the Greeks as belligerents, realized

the theory of Locke in his treatise *Of Civil Government*, that 'the *Grecian* Christians, Descendants of the ancient Possessors of that Country, may justly cast off the *Turkish* yoke which they have so long groaned under whenever they have an opportunity to do it'. Byron in England, Fabvier in France, Santa Rosa in Italy, were the most prominent figures of that band of Philhellenes, whose representatives have been in our own time Clement Harris and Newbolt, fallen for the freedom of Epeiros, and Antonio Fratti, killed at Domokos. Greece is an example of the fact that sentiment, especially in Great Britain, is a powerful factor in politics. There are remote Greek islands and mountain-villages where the writer has heard men speak with gratitude and enthusiasm of Byron, as if he had died but yesterday.

After five years of fighting, which had latterly been complicated by the internecine struggle known as the 'War of the Primates' (or Chieftains), the Powers made on April 4, 1826, their first effective diplomatic step towards Greek Independence, when the Duke of Wellington induced the new Tsar Nicholas I to sign a protocol, with the view of obtaining for the Greeks, on payment of an annual tribute to the Porte, the exclusive right of managing their internal affairs. On July 6 of the following year, Great Britain, France, and Russia signed in London a treaty, pledging them to mediate and meanwhile to demand an immediate armistice from both parties, with the ultimate object of creating an autonomous tributary Greek state under the Sultan's suzerainty. Despite the Powers' expressed intention of taking no part in the hostilities, unforeseen circumstances led to Admiral Codrington and the three allied fleets almost annihilating the Turkish and Egyptian fleets in the Bay of Navarino on October 20, 1827—a battle described officially in

the King's speech as an 'untoward event', but for which the royal speaker did not hesitate to decorate the Admiral, who had won what Russell described as a 'glorious victory'. Never since Lepanto in 1571 had Turkey sustained such a naval disaster. Six months later, the Tsar declared war on the Sultan.

Meanwhile a National Assembly, held at Damala, the ancient Troizen, whence this third Greek Parliament takes its official name, had elected Count John Capo d'Istria President of Greece for seven years. The President arrived in January 1828, but with all his good intentions he was not the man to govern a state such as Greece after nearly seven years of warfare preceded by nearly four centuries of Turkish rule. The London protocol of March 22, 1829, (App. I) constituting Greece south of the Gulfs of Arta and Volo as an hereditary monarchy under a Christian prince, to be chosen by, but not from, the dynasties of the three protecting Powers, and under the suzerainty of the Porte, naturally meant his political extinction. The reluctance of the Sultan to cede more than the Morea and the adjacent islands, and the Turcophil inclinations of Lord Aberdeen, then Foreign Secretary, prevented this protocol being forced on Turkey; but on September 24 of the same year the War of Independence ended with a crushing Greek victory in the pass of Petra between Levadeia and Thebes. The Russian advance on Adrianople had compelled the Sultan to withdraw all his available soldiers from Greece; and the Peace of Adrianople had included his recognition of the Treaty of London and of the protocol of March 22. Greek independence was assured; it only remained to fix what form it should take.

(3) THE CREATION OF THE GREEK KINGDOM
(1829-33)

Greece, as Aberdeen long afterwards confessed, owed her escape from vassalage to complete freedom solely to the impression created by the Treaty of Adrianople. Wellington, then Prime Minister, believed the end of Turkey to be at hand; it was, therefore, useless to place Greece beneath a suzerain too feeble to defend her; on the other hand, believing that Greece would be Russophil (as Beaconsfield equally erroneously believed of Bulgaria in 1878), he was anxious that she should not be too large. It was not then foreseen that the bigger and stronger is a Balkan state, the better barrier does it become—as the late Sir William White pointed out—against the intervention of external forces. But in 1830 the British Government had not had the experience of a century of Balkan history. What it wanted was a small, independent state, and such were the two leading ideas which inspired the protocol signed by the three Powers on February 3 (App. II). There was to be a completely independent state, governed by an hereditary monarch, selected outside the reigning families of Great Britain, France, and Russia, with the title of ‘Sovereign Prince of Greece’. The frontiers of this new creation were drawn, with a characteristic disregard of geography, from the mouth of the Spercheios on the east, to that of the Acheloos on the west, thus sacrificing to Turkey the inhabitants of Akarnania and part of Aitolia, who had borne a conspicuous part in the War of Independence, with the pass of Makrynoros, the Thermopylae of the west! Yet the best expert opinion, that of Colonel Leake, the famous traveller, who knew every inch of the ground and was then in London, could have been had for the

asking, but was not asked. The arrangement included Evvoia (ancient Euboea) and the Cyclades, but, by excluding Crete, bequeathed to Europe a legacy of trouble and expense for three generations. An excellent choice of a prince was, however, made in the person of Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg (subsequently first King of the Belgians), who at first accepted, although, with statesmanlike prescience, he wrote to Aberdeen, 'that he could imagine no effectual mode of pacifying Greece without including Candia in the new state'; but afterwards he retracted his acceptance. Capo d'Istria, however, did not profit by the Prince's resignation. The discontent against him, fostered by the spirit engendered by the French Revolution of 1830, culminated when he employed the Russian fleet under Admiral Ricord against the 'constitutional committee' of Hydra, which had seized the arsenal at Poros. The Hydriote Admiral Miaoules blew up the Greek fleet rather than surrender; the President's troops sacked Poros as if it had been a Turkish city. From that moment the Greeks regarded him as a party chief, the British and French Governments as a Russian proconsul. Within two months, by deeply wounding the pride of the Mavromichalai clan—the famous Mainate family, of which Petrobey was the head—he met his death at Nauplia, on October 9, 1831, by the hands of two members of the clan, Constantine and George. Anarchy followed, and civil war broke out between the late President's brother, Agostino, the chairman of a triumvirate appointed to carry on the government, and his colleague Kolettes, who represented continental Greece, or 'Rumelia', as it was then called. At last, on February 13, 1832, the three Powers offered the crown to Prince Otho, second son of the King of Bavaria. King Louis was well known in Greece as an ardent Philhellene; and a German

professor, Thiersch, had been travelling about Greece to prepare Otho's candidature. Unlike Leopold, he was a mere boy—only seventeen—but for that very reason it was thought that he would the more easily assimilate Greek ideas, while the Regency, which would be necessary till he came of age, would have to face the difficulties, and bear the odium, of the situation. On May 7 a treaty between Bavaria and the three Powers settled the conditions of his acceptance. He was to bear the title of 'King of Greece', an independent, hereditary monarchy under their guarantee; if he died childless, his younger brother was to succeed, provided that in no case was the same person to wear the Greek and Bavarian crowns. The Powers guaranteed a loan, the King of Bavaria furnished a corps of Bavarians to organize a native army. The frontiers of Otho's kingdom, thanks to Palmerston and Sir Stratford Canning (who had seen with his own eyes the state of things in Greece), were ultimately advanced to the Gulfs of Volo and Arta, including the disputed district of Lamia. This remained the territorial extent of Greece till the union of the Ionian Islands with it in 1864. It was a Greece larger than that assigned to Leopold, but it comprised neither Samos nor Crete, both of which islands had taken part in the national struggle. Samos, organized by Kolettes, had proclaimed its independence; but it was coerced by a blockade and forcibly erected in 1832 into an autonomous Christian principality, from which Turkish troops were expressly excluded. Crete, 'the great Greek island', whose Moslem population was no less Greek than the Christians, had been united in 1830 to the Egyptian pashalik of Mehemet Ali, as a reward for his services to the Sultan. Strategically, however, the new frontier was favourable to Greece, with one exception—the retention by Turkey of the two keys

of the Gulf of Ambrakia, Preveza and the fort of Punta, the latter ceded in 1881, the former relinquished in 1912. Still Othonian Greece was manifestly incomplete. The richest portions of the Hellenic world, such as the fertile plain of Thessaly, the granary of the modern kingdom, were outside it; while diplomacy, by violating nature, left unsettled questions which were bound to agitate the young state in the years to come. But the nomination of a sovereign came as a relief to those who were weary of the anarchy which prevailed from the assassination of Capo d'Istria till within three weeks of the arrival of Otho on board a British frigate at Nauplia on February 6, 1833.

(4) BAVARIAN ABSOLUTISM (1833-43)

The Regency, which governed during Otho's minority, was not a success. The Bavarians substituted for those ancient municipal liberties, so characteristic of Greece, which even the Turks had respected, a highly centralized bureaucratic system, combined with a complicated code and a theoretical scheme of education. Even where the policy of the regents was truly Greek, e. g. their separation of the Orthodox Church within the new state from the jurisdiction of the Oecumenical Patriarch at Constantinople, and its subordination to a synod of five prelates, they were suspected as foreigners and schismatics, especially when they proceeded to suppress the smaller monasteries. This dispute lasted till 1850, when the Patriarch at last recognized the independence of the Orthodox Church in Greece; indeed, it was not till 1852 that complete peace was restored between him and the Greek Government. In 1834 the capital was removed from Nauplia to Athens, then a heap of ruins amidst which there arose majestically the ancient monuments. The great progress made by Athens and her bustling port, then represented by

three wooden huts, is a sign of the progress made by the Greek kingdom. In 1837 Otho, who had come of age in 1835, returned from a journey abroad with a new Prime Minister, another Bavarian, Herr von Rudhart, who superseded the 'Arch-Chancellor', Armansperg, and with a wife, Amalia, daughter of the Grand Duke Paul of Oldenburg. While the new minister held office for only ten months, the Queen exercised influence over Otho as long as he reigned. She possessed the energy and the high spirit which he lacked; she did not lose herself, as he did, in details, and knew how to decide rapidly. No one could doubt her ardent Greek patriotism, or her devotion to the 'Great Idea' of Greek expansion. But she was hasty in temperament, and unfortunately had no children. From the date of Rudhart's resignation all the ministries, except that of war, were held by Greeks, but the King presided over the Cabinet Councils, while a privy council of Bavarians stood between Otho and his Greek advisers. Palmerston and Peel in vain urged him to grant a constitution; but the bloodless revolution of September 3-15, 1843, effected what their advice had failed to achieve. Greek politicians had been in these early years divided into three parties, the 'British', the 'French', and the 'Russian', led respectively by Mavrokordatos, Kolettes, and Kolo-kotrones, owing to the rivalries of the three protecting Powers—an unhealthy phenomenon repeated thirty years ago in Bulgaria and Serbia, and in our own day at Durazzo during the rule of Prince William of Wied, when one party was pro-Austrian and the other pro-Italian. Two of these parties, the 'British' and the 'Russian'—Kolettes was in Paris—planned the revolution, but for different reasons: the 'British' because it wanted a constitutional monarch, the 'Russian' because it wanted an Orthodox one. The

people was indifferent, and it was necessary to have resort to the army. Two officers, Colonels Kallerges, a distinguished Cretan, and Makrygiannes, were entrusted with the work of carrying out the revolution, of which the British representative, Sir E. Lyons, was informed. Otho yielded, convened a National Assembly to draw up a constitution, and dismissed the foreigners from his service. Greece is justly proud of the date of 'September 3'—commemorated by the name of a leading street at Athens. After ten years of Bavarian despotism, she became a constitutional state without a blow. 'Great credit', wrote Aberdeen, 'is due to the Greek nation for the manner in which they appear to have universally conducted themselves on this important occasion; so different from the example afforded by countries more advanced in civilization.'

(5) THE INTERVAL BETWEEN THE TWO REVOLUTIONS (1843-62)

No Greek legislature had met for eleven years, and parliamentary government began for the Greek kingdom only in 1843. 'The National Assembly of September 3' included delegates from Crete, Thessaly, Macedonia, and Epeiros, and the Constitution of 1844, which was its work and remained in force for twenty years, created a bicameral system, consisting of a Chamber (or *Βουλή*) of not less than eighty members, elected for three years by manhood suffrage, and a Senate (*Γερουσία*) of at least twenty-seven persons of 40 years of age, whose number might be increased to half that of the deputies, nominated by the Crown for life from fourteen categories, according to the present Italian method. It was supposed that the Senate would act as a check upon the Chamber, and become a conservative force in the State. But, on

the contrary, it was the medium of the first attacks upon Otho, and provided the opposition with a permanent platform for the exposition of its views. The leading statesman of the constitutional monarchy was Kolettis; he represented 'the national party', which wore the fustanella, like himself, and despised the black-coated, Europeanized Greeks, who supported his spectacled rival, Mavrokordatos, the leader of the 'English party'. The two men's programmes were widely divergent. Mavrokordatos held that Greece should be first made a model of good government in the Near East, and that then, and then only, when she had been proved faithful in a few things, would she receive Crete, Epeiros, and Macedonia. Kolettis, on the other hand, believed the first duty of a Greek statesman to be the expansion of Greece, arguing that the additional forces, which the contracted kingdom would thereby gain, would prove the best means of its internal development. There was much to be said for both views. The 'outside Greeks', especially the Cretans and the Epeirots, have proved a great acquisition to 'old' Greece; but the drawback of a policy of expansion was that it involved the young and weak kingdom in difficulties with Turkey and Turkey's protectors, and diverted attention from internal development. In 1850 the Pacifico affair temporarily embittered Anglo-Greek relations. Palmerston's ultimatum to Greece and Sir W. Parker's blockade of the Piraeus seemed measures far beyond the deserts of the Gibraltar Jew, the *civis Romanus* of the British statesman's famous speech, on whose behalf the British Government put forth its might, especially when his claims were reduced by an international commission from £26,618 16s. 8d. to £150! A more serious difficulty arose at the time of the Crimean War, when the sympathies of Greece were naturally with Russia,

and both the King and Queen, and especially the latter, considered that it was a favourable moment for the annexation of Epeiros, Thessaly, and Macedonia. Bands were formed in Athens, but the risings in Epeiros and Thessaly failed. Turkey sent an ultimatum to Greece; from 1854 to 1857 Anglo-French troops occupied the Piræus; and Napoleon III even considered the desirability of dethroning Otho. The result of the occupation was to make Otho exceedingly popular; and his courage during the cholera epidemic increased the popularity which his martyrdom by the two Powers had conferred upon him. But the question of the succession was becoming acute, especially since the Bavarian princes were loath to change their religion, as provided by the 40th Article of the Constitution of 1844. Moreover, the Austro-Italian War of 1859, in which Otho was pro-Austrian and his people pro-Italian, diminished the King's popularity; while a new generation—the product of the University of Athens—had grown up, which was strongly democratic, and found a leader in Epaminondas Deligeorges. Simultaneously, all three protecting Powers had become hostile or indifferent to Otho's retention of the throne—Great Britain, because she suspected him of designs against both her protectorate over the Ionian Islands and the integrity of Turkey, then a maxim of British policy; France, because of the personal influence of Kallerges (the author of the revolution of 1843 and then minister in Paris) over Napoleon III; and Russia, because of her desire to see an Orthodox successor appointed. Thus a series of concomitant circumstances was hostile to Otho; plots became frequent, of which that at Nauplia early in 1862 was the most serious; and, while the royal couple was absent on a cruise round the Peloponnese, in October of that year, Deligeorges proclaimed the

deposition of the King. Otho returned to Salamis, and there, counselled by the diplomatic corps, issued his farewell proclamation to the people. If he had governed Greece less, and had had offspring, possibly his descendants might still be sitting on the throne. He died at Bamberg in 1867, interested to the last in the fortunes of Greece.

(6) THE INTERREGNUM AND THE CESSION OF THE
IONIAN ISLANDS (1862-4)

The revolution of 1862 had been as bloodless as that of 1843, but a return to the anarchy which had preceded the arrival of Otho in 1833 marked the interregnum which followed his expulsion. A provisional Government, composed of Boulgares, Admiral Kanares, and Roupfos, had been formed, and a National Assembly met, in which representatives of the Greek colonies abroad were included, while the diplomatists of the three protecting Powers searched the *Almanach de Gotha* for a king. In Greece the most popular candidate was Prince Alfred, second son of Queen Victoria, especially as the Greeks believed that, if elected, he would bring the Ionian Islands, and perhaps Thessaly and Epeiros, with him. British capital would then follow in his train, and Anglo-Saxon enterprise would soon make up for the lean years of Bavarian rule. Prince Alfred was actually proclaimed at Lamia, and popular demonstrations were organized in front of the embarrassed British Legation at Athens. But the British Government, although anxious to defeat the Russian nominee, the Duke of Leuchtenberg, nephew of the Tsar Alexander II, who was also the French candidate, refused to allow Prince Alfred to accept the Greek crown, on the ground that he then stood next to the Prince of Wales in order of succession to the British throne, and that he was heir-

presumptive to the Duchy of Saxe-Coburg (to which he, in fact, ultimately succeeded). Moreover, the protocol of February 3, 1830, had excluded members of the reigning families of the three protecting Powers from the Greek throne. Nevertheless a *plébiscite* of Greeks at home and abroad was held, when 230,016 voted for Prince Alfred, 2,400 for the Duke of Leuchtenberg, 93 for a republic, and only 6 for the Danish prince who was destined to be king. The National Assembly notified the election, but the British Government adhered to its refusal, undertaking, however, by way of compensation, to find a king, and informing the provisional Government that, if the Greeks chose a constitutional king agreeable to Great Britain, she would reward them with the Ionian Islands. After a long search, a king was found in the second son of Prince Christian of Schleswig-Holstein (a few months later Christian IX of Denmark), then a young naval lieutenant of 17. The new sovereign took the title of 'George I, King of the Hellenes' (*not* 'of Greece', like Otho), and, besides the British gift of the Ionian Islands, the three Powers each relinquished for his benefit the annual sum of £4,000 out of the sums which the Greek Government had agreed in 1860 to pay them, in accordance with the findings of the financial commission; further, Great Britain promised to advise the Ionian Government, at the moment of the union, to set aside £10,000 a year for him.

The long interregnum had produced anarchy at Athens. Personal factions divided the National Assembly; 'men of the mountain' fought against 'men of the plain', as in the French Revolution; the military took sides, and Athens, like Paris in 1830 and 1848, had her 'days of February' and 'days of July', when artillery swept Stadion Street. At last the ministers of the three Powers managed to restore

peace, and on October 30, 1863, King George arrived at Athens. Great Britain carried out her bargain, by handing over the Ionian Islands on June 2, 1864, to the envoy of the Greek Government.

The half-century's British protectorate had not been a success. Materially much had been done for the Seven Islands; and the traces of British rule may still be seen in roads and aqueducts; and down to Lord Seaton's drastic reform (1849) of the Ionian Constitution of 1817 the protectorate had given little serious trouble. The cession of Parga to Turkey in 1819 however provoked much indignation; and in recent years some natives of that Epeirote town still cherished rancour against Great Britain for this act.¹ The three currant-producing islands (Cephalonia, Ithaca, and Zante) profited greatly by the destruction of the currant-fields in the Morea during the War of Independence; but, on the other hand, that struggle and the creation of a Greek kingdom naturally stimulated the feelings of nationality and Orthodoxy among the Ionians. The Corfiote nobles were bound by interest to the protectorate; but politically the weak spot was democratic Cephalonia, where less British money was spent than in the capital at Corfu, and where the feeling between the nobles and the peasants was intense, finding vent in the insurrections of 1848-9. Seaton's grant of a free press and a Radical charter provided the Ionians with the means for airing their grievances; and the French and Russian newspapers represented the British protectorate as a species of tyranny. The 'Radicals', who mostly came from Cephalonia and Zante, lost no opportunity of advocating union with Greece; and Lombardos, a Zantiote doctor, became the chief opponent of the protectorate. A proposal to cede the

¹ In 1913 Parga was re-united to Greece.

five southern islands, but to convert Corfu and Paxo into a British colony, caused great indignation; and Gladstone was sent out in 1858 to examine the situation, and temporarily took the office of Lord High Commissioner. Gladstone found the existing system unworkable, and the Ionians the most official-ridden people in Europe. But both British and Ionians were opposed to his reforms, and his mission was a failure: local knowledge is more valuable than genius in the Near East. The War of Italian Independence, and the utterances of British ministers in favour of the Italians, naturally reacted on the Ionians. Gladstone, in the House of Commons, upheld the protectorate; but the Cabinet, of which he was a member, decided on December 8, 1862, to give up the islands. Austria, France, Prussia, and Russia agreed to a revision of the Treaty of 1815; the Ionian Assembly voted for union. By the Treaty of November 14, 1863, between Great Britain and the above-mentioned Powers, the islands were declared neutral territory, and (in deference to Austrian and Turkish fears) the fortifications of Corfu were to be destroyed. In view of Greek objections, a compromise was accepted, and embodied in the protocol of January 25, 1864, which neutralized only Corfu, Paxo, and their dependent islets. These terms were incorporated in the definite treaty of union, March 29 (App. III). In view of recent events, it may be pointed out that the islet of Saseno off Valona was one of these 'dependencies', and consequently passed in 1864 to Greece, which ceded it to the Albanian principality in 1914, at the desire of Italy.

(7) THE CRETAN QUESTION (1864-76)

Greece had thus received her first enlargement. She, likewise in 1864, received a new constitution, which lasted until 1910. This document abolished the Senate, created a single Chamber, and made parliamentarism omnipotent during the long reign of King George. On five occasions that most constitutional monarch availed himself of the privilege to form extra-parliamentary cabinets; on six he dismissed a ministry which had not been forced by the Chamber to resign. But these were exceptions to the normal working of the ministerial system; and the King was practically the crowned president of a republic, when once the disturbing influence of his unpopular Danish adviser, Count Sponneck, had been removed.

In 1866 the Cretan question became acute, and thenceforth, at frequent intervals, agitated Greek public opinion almost till the end of the reign. The 'great Greek island', conquered by Turkey from Venice in 1669, had been, at the time of the War of Independence, in the words of the British traveller, Pashley, 'the worst-governed province of the Turkish Empire'. The sole exception was the province of Sphakia, whose warlike inhabitants had only been subject to the capitation tax since 1770. It was they who began the insurrections of 1821 and 1841 (when Crete, after ten years of Egyptian rule between 1830 and 1840, which disgusted Christians and Moslems alike, was, against the wishes of the former, restored to the tender mercies of Turkey). That abortive rebellion was soon crushed, but the Christians continued to desire union with Greece; and it was seen how true a prophet Leopold of Saxe-Coburg had been when he foretold that there would be no peace till the Cretan question was settled. Another insurrection

nearly broke out in 1858, and in 1866 began the longest and most severe struggle that the island had witnessed since Venetian days. Beginning with petitions for reform, the movement soon became revolutionary; and the Cretan insurgents begged the sovereigns of the three Powers which protected Greece to grant their prayers for union.

Greece naturally sympathized with the insurgents, who proclaimed the union at Sphakia; and the heroism of the garrison of the monastery of Arkadion in blowing up the powder magazine rather than surrender profoundly stirred public opinion in Europe. Stanley suggested autonomy on the lines of the Lebanon, while the new French Foreign Minister, the Marquis de Moustier, declared that union 'was the only plan to be now adopted'. Russia likewise advocated union. The Sultan, finding that force had failed, tried conciliation; and the 'Organic Statute of 1868' was the result (App. IV). The insurrection, however, continued in desultory fashion for another year; and towards the end of 1868 Greece was on the brink of war with Turkey.

During the period between 1869 and 1876 the kingdom was mainly occupied with internal difficulties—the capture of Lord Muncaster and his party on the road from Marathon in 1870, which led to the suppression of brigandage, and the question of the Lavrion mines—the former, however, causing some unpleasantness with Great Britain, the latter some unpleasantness with France and Italy. But a much more serious blow to Hellenic interests was the creation of the Bulgarian Exarchate by Russian influence in 1870, an act which provided a new and formidable rival to the Oecumenical Patriarchate in Macedonia.

(8) THE EASTERN CRISIS : SECOND ENLARGEMENT OF GREECE (1876-82)

Alone of the Balkan States, Greece was not a belligerent during the Eastern crisis which began with the insurrection in the Herzegovina in 1875. It was not till the autumn of 1876 that a popular demonstration at Athens protested against the neglect of Hellenic rights, and urged military preparations. The outbreak of the Russo-Turkish War in 1877 strengthened this feeling, creating a situation similar to that of 1854 ; party dissensions were hushed, and a Coalition or 'Oecumenical' Government was formed under the presidency of the aged Admiral Kanares, who had no less than four ex-premiers as colleagues, and as Foreign Minister Trikoupes, the greatest statesman that modern Greece had so far produced. Trikoupes had strong British sympathies—indeed, he was nicknamed 'the Englishman'—and he declined the Russian offer to join in the fray and share in the spoils, provided that the British Government recognized the existence of 'an Hellenic question' when the time for a settlement arrived. But when the Russians, as in 1829, advanced on Adrianople, the excitement of the Greeks became intense. The populace demanded war ; Koumoundouros, the new Premier, had to satisfy public opinion by supporting insurrections in Epeiros, Thessaly, and Crete, and his Foreign Minister, Deligiannes, announced that the Government had 'resolved to occupy provisionally the Greek provinces of Turkey'. But the Russo-Turkish armistice checked this invasion, for Greece would have had to fight Turkey single-handed. The troops were stopped in time ; the movement in Epeiros was suppressed ; but that in Thessaly, where a provisional Government was formed on Pelion, lingered on till British consular intervention in May

1878 persuaded the insurgents that 'Hellenic interests' would 'not be injured by acceding to English advice'. In Crete, likewise, the mediation of the British Government induced the Porte to promise that it would, 'in concert with England, make arrangements for a new form of government'.

Thus British promises were largely responsible for keeping the Greeks quiet during the crisis of 1877-8; and Greece had a right to expect recognition of her claims as the price of her neutrality. The British action in opposing the Treaty of San Stefano, which would have been an entirely Slav settlement of an only partially Slav question, and would have ended Greek aspirations in Macedonia for the benefit of Greece's new and powerful rival, Bulgaria, was applauded in Greece, for the British Government told the Greek Cabinet that it was 'prepared to exert all its influence to prevent the absorption into a Slav State of any Greek population'. In pursuance of this pledge, Salisbury championed the admission of Greece to the Berlin Congress of 1878, the Greek delegates, Deligiannes and Rangaves, stating their views without the right of voting. Deligiannes told the Congress that, in view of the general desire for peace, Greece would be content for the time being with Crete and the Turkish provinces bordering on the Greek kingdom—an arrangement which would have been a guarantee for peace. Accordingly, the Congress (at Salisbury's suggestion) invited the Porte, in its 13th protocol, so to rectify the northern Greek frontier as to make it march with the Pencios on the east and with the Kalamas, which flows into the sea opposite the southern half of Corfu, on the west, thus ceding to Greece most of Thessaly and a part of southern Epeiros. Crete, however, was to remain Turkish, the Porte promising to apply the Organic Statute of 1868.

Cyprus, by the British occupation in virtue of the Convention of June 4, 1878, obtained a just administration, but was burdened from the outset by a ruinous annual tribute of £92,800. The rest of the Greek population of European Turkey had to be content with paper promises of 'reforms'. Moreover, Greece did not get all that she had been promised at Berlin. The Porte adopted its usual dilatory tactics; the usual 'strategic' arguments were produced against the Peneios-Kalamas line; and an 'Albanian League' made its appearance in Epeiros. The commission, which had met at Preveza, broke up; whereupon Salisbury pointed out that the frontier of 1832 had been largely responsible for brigandage, and that the disputed territory was 'rather a source of weakness than of strength to the Sultan'. At last, upon the accession of the Gladstone Cabinet in 1880, a conference of the Powers was convened at Berlin to settle the question. This body, on the proposal of the British and French delegates, conceded to Greece a frontier running from the eastern extremity of the crest of Olympus to the mouth of the Kalamas, and leaving both Yanina and Metzovo within the Greek kingdom. Athens was delighted, but the Porte rejected the proposal, and found support in the new French Foreign Minister, Barthélemy St. Hilaire. On May 24, 1881, a conference at Constantinople between Turkey and the Powers decided that Greece should receive nearly all Thessaly and that portion of Epeiros which formed the district of Arta—in all a territory of some 14,000 square kilometres. Punta, at the mouth of the Ambrakian Gulf, opposite Preveza, with the strip of Turkish territory behind it, which had been specially left to Turkey in 1832, was also ceded to Greece. The new frontier was not ideal; Granville, then Foreign Secretary, admitted that, after what happened, 'the

Greek people' had 'the amplest justification for holding that there ought to be a rectification, based on a line traversing the valley of the Kalamas and that of the Peneios'. The summit of Olympus, most typical of Greek mountains, was excluded from Greece; the citizens of Arta had to cross into Turkish territory to till their fields; and Goschen, the British delegate, saw that Greece deserved a larger share of Epeiros. But, as Greece was unprepared for war with Turkey, the settlement was perhaps the best that was then possible, for it gave to Greece the rich granary of Thessaly and the town of Arta. Even then, however, the Turks disputed the possession of the defile of Karalik-Dervend, a little north of the vale of Tempe; and it was only when a mixed commission had definitely assigned this defile to Greece that the long-drawn question of the northern frontier ended in 1882. It had cost Greece 180,000,000 dr. in loans, involving an aggregate deficit of 140,000,000 dr. and a forced paper currency, abolished by Trikoupes in 1884. Crete had to be content with a modification of the Organic Statute of 1868, the so-called 'Paet of Halepa' (App. V) (from the consular suburb of Canea, where it was signed in 1878), the high-water mark of Ottoman concessions to that distressful island, which for the next seven years had no history.

(9) THE BLOCKADE OF 1886

The union of Eastern Rumelia with Bulgaria in 1885 caused Greece to demand territorial compensation for the aggrandizement of her rival. Crete again proclaimed her union with Greece; Deligiannes, in power at Athens, reintroduced the forced paper currency, and raised a large 'patriotic loan'. The Powers, at Salisbury's suggestion, invited the bellicose Premier to disarm, adding that 'no naval attack upon

the Porte could be admitted'. Gladstone, whose Foreign Secretary was Lord Rosebery, followed his predecessor's policy; men-of-war began to arrive at Suda Bay; and on May 8, 1886, the five Powers (France restricting herself to friendly advice) proclaimed a blockade of the Greek coast, the execution of which, by the irony of fate, was entrusted to the Duke of Edinburgh, who, as Prince Alfred, had twenty-three years earlier been elected King of Greece. The Cabinet resigned, the new Ministry disarmed, and on June 7 the blockade was raised. The crisis had cost Greece further deficits of 95,000,000 dr. and a forced currency, destined to remain in circulation for many years.

(10) CRETE AND THE GRECO-TURKISH WAR
(1886-97)

A long period of repose followed, during which Trikoupes, installed in power, reduced the number of deputies, developed the railway system, strengthened the navy, and spent freely upon public works. After his death, however, the unsolved Cretan question led to war with Turkey. Crete, quieted by the presence of the European squadron in 1886, had risen again in 1889. Unlike its predecessors, however, this insurrection was not, in its inception, a quarrel between Christians and Moslems, but between two political parties, describing themselves as Liberals and Conservatives, but really only opposed in their desire to obtain, or retain, office and its spoils. But the Conservatives, defeated at the elections, introduced the magic word 'union' into the conflict, and thus converted a party issue into a religious and national struggle. Trikoupes, still in power, considering the moment inopportune, did all that he could to discourage the agitation for union, and pointed out that Crete was only a part of the general Hellenic question;

and Deligiannes, who succeeded him in 1890, pursued on this occasion his rival's pacific policy. The Sultan, on his part, having practically repealed the Pact of Halepa and followed a policy favourable to the Moslem minority for six years, during which the Assembly never met, in 1895 appointed a Christian as *váli*. The Moslem minority thereupon resolved to demonstrate the impossibility of governing Crete through a Christian, and began to murder their Christian fellow-islanders. The reappointment of a Moslem governor, instead of satisfying his co-religionists, only made matters worse, for the Moslems wanted a military governor, while the Christians desired another Christian. Such was the state of tension when the insurrection, which was to end in the practical destruction of Turkish rule over Crete, broke out. It began, May 24, 1896, with a sanguinary conflict in the streets of Canea. Too late, the Sultan revived the Pact of Halepa and promised an amnesty, a Christian governor in the person of George Berovich, who had been Prince of Samos, and the reform of the tribunals. The Christians, indeed, accepted this arrangement; but the Moslems, who derived their inspiration from the palace, regarded it as one of the usual paper reforms which they were expected to resist; and the arrival of the Turkish officer, who had been connected with the Armenian massacres at Van, encouraged their resistance. A Moslem outbreak at Canea on February 4, 1897, followed by the burning of a large part of the Christian quarter, renewed the civil war. The Christians occupied Akroteri, the 'peninsula' between Canea and Suda Bay, and proclaimed union with Greece. Among them was M. Venizelos, who had already made himself a name in Cretan politics.

Meanwhile, the news of the massacre at Canea had

caused immense excitement at Athens, where, since the last Cretan outbreak, the politicians had been mainly occupied with economic questions—the financial crisis of 1893, and the currant and currency crisis of 1894–5, when the exchange went up to 46 dr. 87 l. to the pound sterling. Trikoupes was now dead, and Deligiannes, the minister of 1885, once more in power. But even a stronger man than that clever parliamentary manager could no longer have resisted public opinion. Greece had incurred enormous expense for the maintenance of the Cretan refugees at Athens, while there were numbers of Cretans established in Greece, whose influence was naturally in favour of intervention. Prince George, the King's second son, left with a flotilla of torpedo boats to prevent the landing of Turkish reinforcements; and on February 15 a Greek force under Col. Vassos, with orders to occupy Crete in the name of King George, to restore order and to drive the Turks from the forts, landed a little to the west of Canea. The same day the admirals of the five European Powers, whose ships were then in Cretan waters, occupied the town, whence the last Turkish governor of the island had fled for ever. The insurgents on Akroteri then attacked the Turkish troops, until the admirals forced them to desist by a bombardment, which caused intense indignation at Athens and some disgust in London among those who remembered Navarino. A note of the Powers promising autonomy on condition of the withdrawal of the Greek ships and troops met with an unfavourable reply; and, though the admirals issued a proclamation of autonomy, they followed it up by a blockade of the island, and by another bombardment of the insurgents at Malaxa above Suda Bay.

The conflict between Hellenism and its hereditary foe could no longer be confined to 'the great Greek

island'. In Greece a body, called the 'National Society', forced the hand of the Government; an address from 100 British members of Parliament encouraged the masses, ignorant of the true conditions of British politics, to count upon the help of Great Britain; the King, in a speech to the people, talked of putting himself at the head of an army of 100,000 Hellenes. The secret history of the weeks immediately preceding the war is still only a matter of surmise; but the opinion is now held in Greece that King George expected the Powers to prevent hostilities at the last moment; he could then have yielded to their pressure without risking his position with his subjects. Neither he nor the Sultan wanted a war, from which the latter knew that, if successful, he would gain nothing; and at the outbreak of hostilities the Sultan was less unpopular at Athens than the German Emperor, whose officers accompanied the Turkish army, whose policy throughout had been bitterly hostile to the country of which his sister would one day be queen, and who is still held largely responsible for the war. Among the Greeks, who had had no war with Turkey since that of Independence, but who had wished to fight in 1854, in 1878, and in 1886, there was intense enthusiasm, unfortunately as yet unaccompanied by organization. Greece is a naturally democratic land where the soldier does not recognize a social superior in his officer, where the critical faculty is highly developed, and the national tactics were aptly described by the phrase 'kleptie war', while the military qualities of the Turks were then universally recognized, and their army had been schooled by German instructors. Thus, the contest was unequal, even though a band of 'Garibaldians' of various nations, under the great captain's son, Ricciotti Garibaldi, came to the aid of the Greeks.

On April 9 armed bands of the 'National Society' crossed into Macedonia; further conflicts occurred on the Thessalian frontier; and on April 17 Turkey declared war, after securing the neutrality of Bulgaria and Serbia. Thus the situation was totally different from that of 1912, and all hopes of common action by all the Balkan states were dissipated. The 'Thirty Days' War' was an almost unbroken series of Greek disasters. The Greek navy, though superior to that of the Turks, effected nothing. On land, the campaign naturally fell into two divisions, one in Thessaly, the other in Epeiros. In Epeiros the battle of Pente Pegadia (the 'Five Wells') between Arta and Yanina, where the Greeks had twice defeated the Turks in 1854, saved the latter town for the Turks. In the east Edhem Pasha, after some severe fighting on the frontier, occupied Larissa and the rest of Thessaly and threatened Lamia. A panic seized the Athenians at the news; the royal family did not dare to show itself in the streets; pictures of Col. Smolenski, who had met with some temporary success, replaced the royal portraits in the shop-windows. Then the Powers intervened; an armistice was signed on May 19 and 20 in Epeiros and Thessaly; and Col. Vassos, who had already left Crete; was followed by the rest of his men. A treaty of peace was concluded at Constantinople on December 4, which provided for the evacuation of Thessaly by the Ottoman troops, and the cession for the second time of that province to Greece, except one village and certain strategic positions, which brought the Turkish frontier very near Larissa. Greece was ordered to pay a war indemnity of £T4,000,000, and submitted to an International Commission of control over 'the collection and employment of revenues sufficient for the service of the war indemnity loan and the other national debts'. The six Powers were each repre-

sented by a delegate on this Commission ; and the Government monopolies of salt, petroleum, matches, playing-cards, cigarette paper, and Naxian emery, the tobacco and stamp dues, and the import duties collected at the Piræus and four other ports were ear-marked for its disposal. In the following year the Turkish troops left Thessaly, and with them almost all the remaining Moslem landowners.

(11) CRETAN AUTONOMY (1897-1908)

The Cretan question continued to vex the diplomatists. Eighteen months were spent in the search for a governor. A Swiss federal councillor, a Luxemburg colonel, a Montenegrin minister were in turn proposed. Meanwhile, Germany, followed by Austria, had retired from the European concert on the Cretan question ; and the forces of the four other Powers, supported by their fleets under the command of the Italian Admiral Canevaro, had occupied the coast-towns—the British Candia, the Russians Rethymne (Retimo), the French Sitia and the islet of Spinalonga, the Italians Hierapetra, and all four Canea. In these places the Moslems were herded, while the Christians held the open country. An attack upon the British in the harbour of Candia and the murder of their vice-consul on September 6, 1898, hastened a settlement of the Cretan question. Admiral Noel's energy achieved what diplomacy had long striven to attain ; the ringleaders were hanged ; and two months after the affray at Candia the last detachment of Turkish troops left the island. The fort on the islet in Suda Bay was thenceforth the only point occupied by Ottoman soldiers. On November 26 the representatives of the four protecting Powers at last met at the palace at Athens, and offered to Prince George of Greece the

post of their High Commissioner in Crete for three years, under the suzerainty of the Sultan. Each Power promised to advance £40,000 for the initial expenses of the new administration. Their offer, due to the influence of the Tsar Nicholas II (whose life Prince George had saved in Japan), was accepted; and on December 21 the Greek Prince landed at Suda. Five days later the admirals left; and, though the troops of the four Powers still remained, the High Commissioner was the sole responsible authority in the island. The representatives of these Powers in Rome, under the presidency of Admiral Canevaro, who had become Italian Foreign Minister, formed a standing committee, before which the affairs of the island were discussed. The Prince's appointment, originally made for three years, lasted for nearly eight; and for the first five Crete remained tranquil. Naturally popular with the Christians, he endeavoured to reassure the Moslems; and, if he made a pilgrimage to the historic monastery of Arkadion, he also visited the chief mosque at Canea. Even the Sphakiot chiefs were induced to give up their weapons. A mixed commission, under the chairmanship of Dr. Sphakianakes, was appointed for the purpose of drawing up a constitution; and in 1899 the first Assembly of Autonomous Crete, composed of 138 Christians and 50 Moslems, met to examine its draft. In accordance with this constitution, as definitely accepted, the Prince appointed five 'Councillors' (one a Moslem), while he was allowed to nominate ten members of the Chamber of Deputies, a body, otherwise elected biennially, which was to meet every year. Dr. Sphakianakes, who had played so prominent a part in the emancipation of his country, then retired into private life. 'For the first time for 1,900 years, since the Roman conquest by Metellus,' wrote an enthusi-

astic Athenian journal, 'Crete possesses a completely autonomous Government.'

The departure of the British from Candia gave a further impetus to the Moslem emigration, which was encouraged by the Sultan; and the census of 1900 showed that the Moslems had dwindled to one-ninth of the population, and that they were mainly confined to the three chief towns. A Cretan *gendarmérie* officered by Italians, a Cretan flag, postage-stamps, and small coins, were further steps towards independence. Prince George, however, provoked discord by his growing autocratic tendencies. He dismissed M. Venizelos, the ablest of his Councillors; his desire to control the election of mayors and the censorship of the press led to difficulties with the Assembly; and early in 1904 discontent became rife. A crisis was reached when, in 1905, the Opposition took to the mountains, and established its headquarters at Therisso, declaring itself a provisional National Assembly, and proclaiming union with Greece. Winter forced the insurgents to surrender to the consuls; and next summer Prince George, weary of Cretan politics, resigned, despite a petition of many deputies in his favour. Thereupon the four Powers entrusted to King George the selection of a new High Commissioner. His choice in September, 1906, fell upon M. Alexander Zaïmes, the most conservative and most silent of Greek statesmen, who had been Premier at the time of the conclusion of peace in 1898. Little more was heard of Crete under his sway. The Powers, while peace reigned, allowed the island to become more and more hellenized. Thus Greek officers out of active service replaced the Italian carabinieri in the command of the *gendarmérie* and were summoned to organize the militia. As soon as those two bodies should have been formed, order restored, and the safety of the

Moslems assured, the international troops were to be gradually withdrawn. Accordingly, on May 11, 1908, in answer to an appeal from M. Zaïmes, who showed that their conditions had been obeyed, the Powers announced that the evacuation of the island would begin that summer and be concluded within a year from the departure of the first detachment, which took place on July 29. Such was the condition of the island when on October 7, 1908, the news of the annexation of Bosnia and Bulgarian independence once more provoked the proclamation of union with Greece.

(12) GREECE AND MACEDONIA (1897-1908)

Greek internal politics were comparatively uneventful during the eleven years which followed the evacuation of Thessaly. It was the calm between two periods of excitement. After M. Zaïmes had settled the various questions arising out of the war, Theotokes, a former lieutenant of Trikoupes, became Prime Minister in 1899, being the first Ionian Islander to hold this office. His four Premier-ships, two of them unusually long, altogether filled up a large portion of this period. His first resignation, towards the close of 1901, was due to popular indignation at a translation of the Gospels into a very vernacular form of Greek, which caused a fatal riot among the students of the University and an attack upon two newspaper offices. The incident was instructive, as showing the importance attached by the Greeks to the original text of the New Testament, which they justly regard as one of the most valuable portions of their national heritage. A similar agitation arose in 1903, when M. Ralles, then in office, was forced by the students and one of the professors to stop the performances of the *Oresteia* of Aeschylus, because certain

phrases in the version of M. Soteriades did not please the purists. Disturbances, arising out of another difficult question, that of the currants, cut short the second Theotokes administration in 1903; and two years later the hand of an assassin removed Deligiannes from the stage of Greek politics, where he had so long played a leading part. The crime was not due to political motives, but to the suppression of gambling-hells at the orders of the veteran statesman, the 'grandfather', as he was popularly called, of public life. His death had the effect of splitting the so-called 'National party', of which he had been the chief, into two sections, one following M. Ralles, the other Mavromichales; with the natural result that Theotokes, at the head of an united party, attained and kept the Premiership for more than three and a half years till July, 1909. During his long administration the second celebration of the revived Olympic Games at Athens in 1906, in the presence of King Edward VII, brought together the representatives of the whole Hellenic world as well as of other nationalities. A year later the census proved the great development of Athens and the Piraeus, and the remarkable growth of Volo since it had been united with Greece. But the figures of some country districts showed that emigration to the United States—a phenomenon non-existent before 1891—was responsible for the large decrease in the excess of males over females, which had been a marked feature in Greece as in other Balkan states. To the remittances of these emigrants is partly due the great reduction in the rate of exchange, which from 46 dr. 87 l. to the pound sterling at the time of the currant crisis of December 1894–January 1895, has now been reduced practically to par (i. e. 25 dr. to the pound).¹ To their

¹ This was the usual exchange before the war. It has varied since between 23 and 24 dr.

return to their own country may be traced in due course of time the permeation of new ideas. Already the traveller is startled by being addressed in English with a strong American accent in remote villages of the Morea and at the discovery that one-fifth of the population of a town in central Greece has emigrated.

During this period, while the Cretan question was dormant, the still more complex Macedonian question, in which Greece was likewise keenly interested, had become acute. Art. XXIII of the Berlin Treaty, which had promised to this portion of the Turkish Empire an organization similar to that which had failed to satisfy the Cretans, had, like the law of 1880 for provincial reforms, remained a dead letter. Meanwhile, Macedonia, the 'promised land' of every Balkan nationality, had become the battle-ground of rival races, churches, and schools, where the Turk maintained his supremacy by playing off one nationality against the other. The history of the attempts to solve this question is narrated elsewhere.¹ Suffice it to say, that, so far as Greece was concerned, her position in Macedonia, first seriously menaced by the creation of the Bulgarian Exarchate in 1870, and further threatened by the Treaty of San Stefano (which, if abortive, remained the programme of the Bulgarians), had been attacked in another quarter by the Koutso-Vlach, or 'Macedonian Rumanian' propaganda, started by Apostolos Margarites. Whenever, as in 1897, Greece was troublesome to the Porte, Bulgarians and Rumanians were the favoured races. Whenever the Koutso-Vlach propaganda was relaxed, the Latin and Greek races of the Near East fraternized. But this state of things ended in 1905, when the Rumanian ministry obtained from the Porte the recognition of the Koutso-Vlachs as a separate

¹ See *Macedonia*, No. 21 in this series.

nationality, with the right of using their own language in their churches and schools. Anti-Greek riots took place in Rumania; and diplomatic relations between the two countries, already interrupted between 1892 and 1896 owing to the fact that the Rumanian courts had declared illegal the legacies of the brothers Zappa, the founders of the Zappeion at Athens, were again broken off for several years. But by far the most dangerous enemy of the Greek was the Bulgar, and it had not been forgotten how Stambuloff had betrayed to the Porte in 1891 Trikoupes' confidential proposal for common action against Turkey, such as that ultimately effected by M. Venizelos in 1912. The irruption of Greek irregular bands into Macedonia in 1904, and the subsequent struggles and intrigues between Greeks, Bulgarians, Serbs, and Koutso-Vlachs, are described elsewhere.¹ The Turkish Revolution of 1908 appeared for the moment to put an end to this state of things. But the Greeks were justly suspicious from the outset; only 18 Hellenes sat in the new Turkish Parliament; and the proclamation of the union of Crete with Greece on October 7, 1908, nearly led to a fresh Greco-Turkish war.

(13) THE MILITARY LEAGUE AND THE ADVENT OF M. VENIZELOS (1909-12)

At the moment of the proclamation of union, M. Zaïmes was absent from the island, to which he never returned. The proclamation had been signed by the three Christian councillors; and an extraordinary session of the Chamber was at once held for the purpose of ratifying their action and of appointing an Executive Committee of five persons, of which M. Michelidakes was president and M. Venizelos a member, to carry on the government provisionally in

¹ See *Macedonia* No. 21 in this series.

the name of the King of the Hellenes, until his officials should have taken it over. The Greek Constitution was adopted; Cretan stamps were surcharged with the word *Hellas*; the official note-paper was headed 'Kingdom of Greece'; the civil servants took the oath to King George; appeals from the insular courts were sent to Athens. The Greek Government, however, of which Theotokes was then head, declared that it was extraneous to the events which had occurred in Crete, and made no reply to the Cretans. The attitude of the Powers was very encouraging. When, on October 28, the official communication of the four protecting Powers was made, its tone gave satisfaction alike at Canea and at Athens. They considered the union as dependent upon their assent, but 'none the less they would not be averse from regarding with goodwill the discussion of this question with Turkey, if order be maintained in the island and if the security of the Moslem population be assured'. Meanwhile, they authorized their consuls to enter into 'administrative' relations with the provisional Government.

The latter took every care that the two conditions of the Powers should be fulfilled, although the Moslems, stimulated from outside, sought to provoke difficulties and then presented complaints, which the consuls dismissed as futile. But the delay, as months wore on, became embarrassing to both the provisional authorities in Crete and to the Cabinet of Athens, where public opinion fretted at the postponement of a definite solution and the Premier thought that he detected a consequent feeling against the Crown. Matters became worse when, after the suppression of the counter-revolution in Turkey, the military party became predominant, and sought to divert attention from the mistakes committed by the 'Young' Turks

at home, by picking a quarrel with Greece. As the nationalist spirit in Turkey became stronger, the Turkish demands increased. First, the Porte asked for the postponement of the promised withdrawal of the international troops; next it sought the suppression of various concessions, made by the Powers to the Cretans, and desired to establish a sort of limited autonomy, or, in other words, to set the clock back to the time previous to 1898. Then it expressed the wish to send a *stationnaire* to Cretan waters. While the Powers negatived these proposals, and announced their intention of maintaining the *status quo* and of 'concerning themselves with goodwill in the Cretan question', Theotokes, on July 17, 1909, felt compelled to resign, in order to prevent a threatening demonstration against his attitude towards Crete. M. Ralles, his successor, a politician popular at Constantinople, was at once placed in the difficulty which had prevented him from accepting office three months earlier. He wanted to dissolve Parliament, but the threat of the Cretans to elect deputies to the new Greek Chamber would, he knew, be regarded by Turkey as an unfriendly act; he would, therefore, find himself in the dilemma of either excluding the Cretan representatives or of risking a war with Turkey by admitting them—a dilemma solved by the tact and firmness of M. Venizelos in June 1912. M. Ralles, therefore, decided to postpone the dissolution till the following year, and assured the Turkish minister in Athens of his intention to 're-establish good relations with Turkey' and 'as regards Crete, to accept loyally the decisions of the Powers'.

But events in Crete provided the Turkish military party with a further pretext for demands upon Greece. On July 26, in accordance with their promises, the four Powers withdrew the rest of their troops from the

island. As soon as they were gone, the Cretans hoisted in the place of the Cretan emblem a Greek flag on the bastion of the fort at the entrance of the port of Canea. Warlike demonstrations in Turkey ensued; and on August 6 the Turkish Government ordered its minister in Athens to demand from M. Ralles a written disavowal of the Cretan agitation for union and a further repudiation of any such design on his part; in case of delay in replying to this peremptory note, Naby Bey was to leave Athens. At the same time preparations were made for sending a Turkish fleet to Karpathos, or even Suda, while a boycott of Greek goods began in Turkish ports. Three days later, M. Ralles replied that 'Crete being in deposit in the hands of the protecting Powers, the Greek Government can only leave the solution to them and conform itself with their decision'. He repeated that Greece would continue to observe her 'correct' attitude, and added that not a single Greek officer was at that moment on Turkish territory, for those in Crete had left the Greek army. This reply being considered unsatisfactory by the Porte, a further note was presented to M. Ralles on August 13, complaining of the presence of Greek officers in disguise in Macedonia, observing that 'Greece had nothing to do' with the Cretan question, and that, 'as the attitude of the Greek Government in foreign affairs had not been beyond reproach', a further 'clear and frank declaration' was desired. Greece at this appealed to the Powers to prevent war; and on the 18th M. Ralles again replied to Turkey, reiterating the intention of his Government to conform to their decision and to abstain from encouraging any Cretan agitation. Meanwhile, in Crete the executive committee, finding itself unable to secure the removal of the offending flag, in face of the general opposition, resigned, whereupon the Chamber nominated three

local magistrates as a provisional Government. At last, as no Christian Cretan could be found to haul down the flag, the Powers each landed a company of marines, who, amidst perfect order, on August 18 cut down the flagstaff. A part of it is now preserved in the Museum of the Historical Society at Athens, together with the last Turkish flag that floated over the battlements of Canea and with fragments of the shells fired by the fleets of the Powers at Akroteri, as memorials of the Cretan question. The Powers on the same day drily pointed out to the Porte that both the Cretan and the Macedonian questions were matters of European concern. The Porte then disclaimed bellicose intentions towards Greece, and all fear of war was dissipated.

But the humiliation which Greece had undergone produced a strong feeling of disgust in that country. For some time past the conviction had been growing that the national interests had been sacrificed to the exigencies of party politics. Even so early as May 1909, the young officers had begun to form a 'Military League', which, being at the moment the only organized political force in Greece, made itself the organ of the people in its struggle against the politicians. As M. Ralles refused to accept a note embodying their proposals, the officers composing the league, over 500 in number, marched out of Athens on the night of August 27/28, and formed a camp at Goudi, under the leadership of Colonel Zorbas, a distinguished officer. All efforts to break up the league failed; two officers, who tried to seduce the cavalry from their allegiance to that organization, were arrested; and the mayor was sent in vain to parley with the chiefs. M. Ralles resigned, and Mavromichales on August 29 became Prime Minister under the control of the league. The leaguers then returned to Athens, and issued a manifesto, demand-

ing radical reforms, and more especially the reorganization of the army and navy, the exclusion of the royal princes from their military commands, and the bestowal of the two Ministries of War and Marine upon officers. The former of these posts was conferred upon Colonel Lapathiotes, a member of the league, whose chief at the same time protested its devotion to the Crown. Popular demonstrations in different provincial centres expressed support of the league's programme; and the trade guilds of the capital appealed to the people to support it as the best means of ending 'political corruption'. There was, however, a strong opposition in the Chamber, which manifested itself when the Government, at the bidding of the league, proposed the removal of the princes from their commands. The league threatened to occupy the legislative building by force; but the intervention of the King, who desired his sons to resign their commissions, anticipated this act of violence. On the morrow the Chamber passed the Bills for their removal, and for the abolition of the Crown Prince's post of commander-in-chief, together with twenty-three other measures, without debate.

The success of the Military League emboldened the junior naval officers to demand the removal of many of their seniors, and the readmission of a sub-lieutenant, who had been punished for insubordination during the war of 1897. On the refusal of the Government, Commander Typaldos, the leader of this second agitation, seized the naval station at Salamis, and, with the aid of three small vessels, resolved to show fight. The engagement lasted less than half an hour, and cost only six lives; the Government was victorious, and Typaldos and his supporters were sentenced to prison but subsequently pardoned. The league became more and more exacting. Its repre-

sentative in the Cabinet plainly told the deputies that they were there only to obey its orders ; and, although Colonel Zorbas ordered the dismissal of this unparliamentary minister, two officers of the league shortly afterwards appeared in the Chamber, and demanded the immediate adoption of the Budget with twenty-seven other Bills, and the recall of the Greek representatives from four European capitals. The Chamber, coerced by the knowledge that the troops were under arms, accepted these demands, and 160 laws were added to the statute-book in fifty-five hours ! Still the league was not satisfied, and it insisted upon the dismissal of the Minister of the Interior, who had incurred its displeasure.

At this moment a new and powerful figure arrived upon the stage of Greek politics. Several officers of the league had made in Crete the acquaintance of M. Venizelos, the Cretan chief. Long before the birth of the league, M. Zaïmes had prophesied that, if M. Venizelos could be induced to collaborate with the royal family, he would become the saviour of Greece. The league accordingly invited the Cretan politician to Athens as its political adviser ; and from his arrival the marvellous regeneration of the country is usually dated. No better choice could have been made, for the new-comer's strength lay in his great force of character, his complete detachment from the old parties, and the independence of mind which made him refuse to flatter the people. He saw that the anomalous state of affairs could not continue ; he therefore proposed the summons of a National Assembly to revise the Constitution. The politicians accepted this proposal, on condition that, as a corollary, the league should be dissolved ; the King, after some hesitation at the convocation of a National Assembly without the elaborate forms provided by the Con-

stitution, reluctantly consented. A veteran lieutenant of Trikoupes, M. Stephen Dragoumes, accordingly became Premier at the end of January 1910, with General (as he had now become) Zorbas as his Minister of War, and with a mandate to summon the proposed Assembly. The league stifled all expressions of public opinion hostile to this plan; the Chamber passed the necessary Bill, and, after 'purging' the university, ended its labours. The league thereupon, in a manifesto to the nation, declared the interference of the army in politics to be over, and announced its own dissolution.

The National Assembly, composed of 358 deputies, was opened on September 14. Among those elected were M. Venizelos and four other Cretans; and the Porte at once protested against their election. M. Venizelos and one of his colleagues were, however, technically Greek subjects; and they accordingly entered the Assembly, resigning their positions in Crete, where M. Venizelos was then chief of the provisional Government, while the other three patriotically declined the seats offered them, so as not to embarrass the Greeks. The Assembly was at once divided by the question whether it was a constituent or only a revisionary body. The difficulty was too great for M. Dragoumes, who resigned; and on October 18 the King took the bold step of appointing as Prime Minister the famous Cretan, hitherto chiefly known at the palace as the opponent of his son. Of the many services rendered by King George to Greece this was not the least. From that moment he gave his whole confidence to his first minister, who immediately pronounced in favour of the revision of the non-fundamental articles of the Constitution. Five days later, however, the abstention of the old parties and the advocates of a constituent Assembly left him without

a quorum on a vote of confidence. His prompt resignation provoked a mass meeting, organized by the trade guilds and the university, in his favour; and, on his advice, the King dissolved the Assembly. The appeal to the country, in which the leaders of the old parties refused to participate, gave M. Venizelos an overwhelming majority. The officers were ordered to devote themselves exclusively to their profession; the elect of the nation was dictator. No Greek statesman had ever been so popular, or wielded such authority.

The 'Second Revisionary National Assembly', which met on January 21, 1911, adopted the revised Constitution on June 11. After a vehement discussion an addition was made to Article 2, forbidding the translation of the Scriptures without the consent of the Church in Greece and the Oecumenical Patriarch. Elementary education, declared compulsory, was to be provided gratis by the State. The expropriation of large proprietors for purposes of public utility was defined, with special reference to the sale of the large estates and the creation of a peasant proprietary in Thessaly. The quorum of the Chamber was reduced to one-third of all its members; parliamentary vacancies were not, unless very numerous, to be filled in the last year of a legislature; military men were declared ineligible as deputies; election petitions were transferred from the Chamber to a special tribunal; the pay of members was fixed at 1,000 dr. every three months (except those resident in Athens or the Piræus, who received 800 dr.); and frequent absence without leave was to involve the deduction of 20 dr. per sitting. The Council of State was revived; public officials, with few exceptions, obtained security of tenure; and the official language was declared to be that in which the constitution was drawn up. The Assembly further passed a Bill creating the post of Inspector-General of the Army, despite

the opposition of General Zorbas, and thus restoring the Crown Prince to his military command. With the close of this National Assembly the normal state of things returned; and at the general election for an ordinary Chamber, on March 25, 1912, M. Venizelos obtained the support of 150 out of 181 members. All the deputies from Attica and Bocotia (where M. Ralles, the once powerful *Atticarch*, was defeated) were Venizelists; north of the Isthmus every member but one belonged to the Premier's party; while even in Corfu, the stronghold of Theotokes, a Venizelist headed the poll. Once again the Cretans elected deputies, 69 in number, to the Chamber. But the Premier declared that he would resign rather than allow them to take their seats, as Greece needed a period of repose, in order to reorganize her army and her internal administration; and such was his influence, that he prevented those of them who had eluded the ships of the Powers from entering the Chamber, which he then adjourned till October. Meanwhile, he had been quietly working to promote a better understanding with the other Balkan states. Despite a fresh Greco-Rumanian incident at the Piraeus, he renewed diplomatic relations with Rumania in 1911; Bulgarian students visited Athens; the Greek Crown Prince visited Sofia; and the bases of an agreement were laid between those two former rivals, Greece and Bulgaria.

(14) THE TWO BALKAN WARS (1912-13)

So early as April, 1911, the Greek Premier, with the approval of King George, who was the only other Greek statesman in the original secret, had cautiously sent to Sofia a proposal for a Greco-Bulgarian defensive alliance against Turkey, in case of an attack upon either of the contracting parties, and for common action in defence of the Ottoman Christians. Simultaneously, private

letters to King Ferdinand and M. Geshoff, his Premier, urged the need, and pointed out the future possibilities, of this agreement. For months, however, Bulgarian caution and distrust delayed the acceptance of the Greek offer. It was only on May 29, 1912, that the Greco-Bulgarian treaty of alliance was signed at Sofia.¹ It pledged both parties to mutual aid, should either be attacked by Turkey, to secure 'the peaceful co-existence' of the Greek and Bulgarian populations of Turkey, and to co-operate in securing the rights of those nationalities. It was to remain in force for three years, and, unless denounced six months previous to that date, was to be considered as automatically renewed. Its contents were to be kept secret. An annexe provided that, in the event of a Greco-Turkish war arising out of the admission of Cretan deputies to the Greek Parliament, Bulgaria should merely preserve a benevolent neutrality.

The events of the two Balkan Wars of 1912-13 are too fresh to need recapitulation in detail. Greece showed that she was no longer the Greece of 1897. On October 14, 1912, M. Venizelos admitted the Cretan deputies to the Chamber, and four days later—against the inclinations of King George, who bowed, however, to the opinion of his minister, as a constitutional king—declared war on Turkey. The Greeks obtained a victory at Sarantaporon in Southern Macedonia on October 22, took Preveza, Metsovo, and Khimara in Epeiros, hoisted their flag over Mt. Athos, and prevented the Turkish fleet from leaving the Dardanelles and the Turkish transports from crossing the Aegean. They also took possession of most of the Turkish islands in the Aegean, including Mytilene and Khios, but not of the Southern Sporades (the so-called 'Dodekanese'), which had been

¹ For the full text of this treaty see Appendix XIII to *Eastern Question*, No. 15 of this series.

occupied by the Italians during the Libyan War—an event which caused much apprehension among the Greeks, who regarded these islands as part of their national claim in case of the dismemberment of the Turkish Empire. Samos declared its union with Greece; Crete, whither M. Dragoumes was sent as General Administrator, furnished volunteers to the national cause. A two days' struggle (November 1–2) at Yenitsa, by the Vardar, ended in another Greek victory; and on November 8, the festival of its patron St. Demetrios, the Crown Prince anticipated the Bulgarians by entering Salonika and ending the Turkish domination of 482 years over that city. Even after her three Allies had signed the armistice at Çatalja on December 3, Greece continued hostilities, although participating in the Balkan Conference, which met in London on December 16. Outside the Dardanelles the Greeks defeated the Turkish fleet; in Epeiros they took Parga, ceded under such tragic circumstances to Turkey in 1819. On March 6, 1913, Yanina, Turkish since 1430, surrendered to the Crown Prince; a little later a Greek force officially occupied Samos, and a Greek army entered Argyrokastron. But in the midst of these triumphs, on March 18, King George's assassination at Salonika threw the whole Hellenic world into mourning. His loss has since proved to be a disaster not only for Greece, but for ourselves, for, had that wise and constitutional monarch lived, Greece and the Entente Powers would have been spared the disgrace and the uncertainties of 1915–17. King George, as he showed in his political testament, realized his son's autocratic and obstinate character.

The Treaty of London, which ended the war of the Balkan Allies against Turkey, was at last signed on May 30, 1913. The Sultan ceded to them all the Turkish territories west of the Enos-Midia line, except

Albania (the settlement of this last being confided to the Great Powers, as was the fate of all the Ottoman islands of the Aegean and that of Mt. Athos), and further ceded Crete. It left the germs of future difficulties; for Austria and Italy, mutually jealous of each other in the Adriatic, were yet united in opposing the Serbian claims to the north of Albania and the Greek claims to the south. Whereas originally Signor Giolitti had merely warned Greece not to occupy Valona, the Italian Foreign Minister, the Marchese di San Giuliano, now put forward the contention that the Greek frontier in Epeiros must be moved back as far south as Cape Stylos (opposite the town of Corfu), instead of starting, as M. Venizelos had proposed in his memorial to the London Conference, from the little bay of Grammata, so as to include Khimara. Italo-Greek relations, excellent up to the occupation of Rhodes, Kos, and the islands in the Lower Aegean (commonly known as 'the Dodekanese') by the Italians in the summer of 1912 during the Libyan War, thus became strained. The Greeks maintained that, had the islands not been so occupied, their fleet could easily have taken them, as it took Khios and Mytilene. The Italians urged that there were still Turkish soldiers in Libya, and that the islands, or, at least, Rhodes and Stampalia, must be retained.

Meanwhile the Balkan allies had fallen out between themselves over the spoils of war. The mutual jealousies of Bulgaria on the one side and Greece and Serbia on the other were unscrupulously fomented by Austria, who saw with dismay the Serbian victory and her own consequent exclusion from the Balkans. During the war the Bulgarians had grudged the Greeks the possession of Salonika, although M. Venizelos was at that time willing to allow them to retain Kavalla. Even before the Treaty of London was

signed, armed conflicts had taken place between the Greeks and Bulgarians in Macedonia. On June 30 the Second Balkan War began by simultaneous Bulgarian attacks on the Serbs and on the Greeks, with the object of separating the two allies, who on June 1 had signed the treaty of alliance (accompanied by a military convention ¹), which King Constantine subsequently violated during the European War. The Greek General Staff then ordered the Bulgarian troops still jointly garrisoning Salonika to lay down their arms, and leave it within two hours. Their refusal was followed by a siege of the houses which they occupied. Next day a general advance of the Greek army, commanded by the King in person, began. A three days' battle at Kilkish ended on July 4 in a complete defeat of the Bulgarians; Montenegro and Rumania entered the field against them, while the Turks took the opportunity to recover Adrianople. Meanwhile both Greeks and Serbians continued to advance. The Greeks took Doiran and Strumnitsa, and entered Serres, while their navy took Kavalla and sent up a detachment to Drama. The Bulgars retreated after burning Serres and perpetrating massacres at Nigrita, Doxaton, and Drama. These outrages inflamed the Greeks, who hailed the future betrayer of Roupel as a second 'Basil the Bulgar-slayer'. The Greeks had further successes, and Macedonia, with a large strip of the Thracian coast, including Dedeagach, Makri, and Porto Lagos, was in the hands of the victors. Then, at King Ferdinand's request, King Charles of Rumania intervened with his allies, and a peace conference met on July 30 at Bucarest.

The chief difficulty was the Bulgarian frontage on the Aegean. The Greeks at first claimed that the

¹ Text of both in the Greek White Book (*Διπλωματικά Έγγραφα*, 1913-17, pp. 6-21, and French tr., pp. 7-21).

Greco-Bulgarian sea frontier should be 3 kilometres east of Makri, while the Bulgarians proposed to push it back as far as the Gulf of Orphano, thus including Drama and Kavalla within Bulgarian territory. The real controversy was over Kavalla, the importance and wealth of which, owing to its famous tobacco-plantations, was obvious. King Constantine, supported by the German Emperor (who on August 4, 1914, did not fail to remind him of the fact ¹), insisted upon its retention; indeed, ethnologically, the town itself contained few Bulgarians. The Treaty of Bucarest on August 10 made the mouth of the Mesta the eastern frontier of Greece, thus securing for her Kavalla, but leaving Xanthi to Bulgaria. Greece and Serbia had already agreed to the partition of their conquests, and on November 14 a treaty of peace was signed between Greece and Turkey.

(15) THE GRECO-ITALIAN DIFFICULTY: NORTHERN EPEIROS AND THE AEGEAN ISLANDS (1913-14)

The two questions of Albania and the Aegean Islands remained to be settled by the Great Powers, who had appointed two commissions to delimitate the frontiers of the new Albanian state. The Southern Commission assigned to it part of northern Epeiros, including Santi Quaranta, Khimara, Delvinon, Premete, Argyrokastron, and Koritsa, captured by the Greeks during the First Balkan War, together with the islet of Saseno in the Bay of Valona, which had belonged to Greece since 1864. A note of the Powers, presented at Athens on February 13, 1914, made the definite recognition of Greek sovereignty over the captured islands (except Tenedos, Imbros, and Castellorizon, and those still occupied by the Italians) contingent upon the evacuation of the south

¹ Διπλωματικά Έγγραφα, p. 45, and French tr., p. 45.

of the new Albanian principality by the Greek forces. The northern Epeirots, however, declared themselves autonomous, and formed a Government, of which M. Zographos, an ex-Minister of Foreign Affairs, was President, and his nephew, M. Karapanos (likewise an Epeiros), was Foreign Secretary. While they fixed their residence, first at Argyrokastron and then at the village of Georgoutsates, Colonel Spyromelios, the 'captain' of Khimara, held his native mountains against the Albanians. Although the Greek troops evacuated northern Epeiros before the end of April, fighting between the Albanians and the autonomous forces continued. At the desire of Prince William of Wied (who had landed at Durazzo as Prince of Albania on March 7), a conference between the autonomous Government, the Albanians, and the representatives of the Powers was held at Corfu, where, on May 17, a convention was signed, entrusting the administration of the two provinces of Argyrokastron and Koritsa to the International Commission of Control for Albania. An annexe contained the demands of the Khimariotes for the maintenance of their ancient privileges, including the use of their own banner. On July 1 the Powers approved the Corfu Convention. About the same time, the Italian Foreign Minister told the British Ambassador in Rome, that in the autumn, when all was quiet, Italy would evacuate the Aegean Islands. But ere that time arrived, the Great War thrust the Epeiros and Aegean questions into the background.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) RELIGIOUS

THE organization of the Greek Church is at present in a transitional state, since there has not yet been time or opportunity to adapt or to modify its Constitution, as suited to the country before 1912, to meet the requirements of a population nearly twice as numerous and less homogeneous.

According to the revised Constitution of 1911,

‘the religion prevailing in Greece is the religion of the Orthodox Eastern Church. Toleration is extended to all other recognized forms of worship; their services may be held freely and will enjoy the protection of law. Proselytism and all other activities detrimental to the prevailing religion are forbidden.’

In Old Greece.—In Greece before the Balkan Wars about 97·5 per cent. of the population belonged to the Greek Orthodox Church; less than 1 per cent. were Roman Catholic—mainly in the islands; other smaller bodies were Jews, Mohammedans, and Protestants. The Orthodox were divided into 32 dioceses under one Metropolitan (of Athens), six archbishops, and 25 bishops. The Orthodox Church of Greece is stated by the Constitution of 1911 to be

‘indissolubly united in matters of dogma with the Great Church of Constantinople, and all other Orthodox Christian Churches. . . . It is, however, autocephalous, exercising its sovereign rights independently of every other Church, and its governing body is a Synod of Bishops.’

The parochial clergy (including priests and deacons) numbered 5,670 in 1898; the number has probably decreased since then, as for some years past the bishops have been slow to ordain fresh priests. This is in

pursuance of a policy of raising the social and intellectual standard of the clergy. Until recently this was unsatisfactory, since little educational qualification was required and the priest drew no regular salary, but had to supplement his scanty perquisites by farming or other pursuits. A fund for ecclesiastics was established in 1910, and receives steadily increasing contributions towards securing a regular salary for parochial clergy; and since the accession of the new Metropolitan of Athens (1918) no candidate is eligible for ordination unless he has a diploma of a theological school, of which four now exist in Greece. Parish priests must be married, and are not, as a rule, eligible to the higher offices of the Church, which are filled from the monastic or celibate orders. Before the Balkan Wars there were 167 monasteries for men in Greece, with 1,743 monks, and 10 for women, with 225 nuns.

The Roman Catholic Church has three archbishops in Greece, at Athens, Corfu, and Naxos, and three bishops. The total number of Roman Catholics before 1912 was 23,261.

The spiritual heads (Muftis) of the Mohammedan communities, both in Old and New Greece, receive a contribution from the State.

New Provinces.—The addition of Macedonia, Epeiros, Crete, and the Asiatic Islands to Greece has seriously affected the religious conditions of the State. In the new provinces there were about 18 per cent. of Moslems and 5 per cent. of Jews—the latter mainly in Salonika. Of the 76 per cent. who belonged to the Orthodox Church a considerable proportion in Macedonia acknowledged the Bulgarian Exarch and were subject to Exarchist bishops; while others, the Koutso-Vlachs, were claimed by the Rumanian Church. The Vlachs were recognized by the Turks in 1905 as forming a separate ‘Millet’, or religious nationality, and had schools and churches

of their own. On the other hand, those who belonged to the Greek Church were under the Oecumenical Patriarch at Constantinople. The relation of these to the Greek autocephalous Church in Greece is not finally established, nor has any complete administrative assimilation taken place. The new provinces added 42 dioceses, bringing the total number to 74. There were in Greece during the War, instead of a single Synod, two Synods working independently at Athens and Salonika—as well as the independent Metropolitan of Crete. On the foundation of the Greek kingdom, and again after the acquisition of the Ionian Islands, in 1866, and after that of Thessaly, in 1881, the Greek Church in the districts concerned was detached from the jurisdiction of the Patriarch of Constantinople. These precedents may be followed in the present case, but the opinion is held in some ecclesiastical circles that it would be undesirable to break off completely the connexion between the new provinces and the Oecumenical Patriarchate, and that a better solution would be to make the relations of the Church of Old Greece with the Patriarchate closer, and thus strengthen the position of that centre of Orthodoxy.

A mixed commission of clergy and laymen was established in 1914 'for revising and collating ecclesiastical legislation', and published 'a Draft of a Constitution for the Orthodox Church of Greece'. By this draft the members of the Synod which administers the Greek Church were increased from six to twelve, the dioceses were remodelled and reduced from 74 to 46, the powers of the Royal Commissioner to the Synod were defined so as to obviate friction, and various other reforms were indicated. But further action has been delayed by the Great War.

Additional confusion has been caused by the dissension between the two provisional Synods, that of

Athens, under the influence of the ex-King Constantine, having excommunicated and cursed M. Venizelos, while that of the new provinces, meeting at Salonika, upheld the Venizelist Provisional Government. After the deposition of Constantine, the Metropolitan of Athens and other members of the Synod were relegated to monasteries; and the unusual step was taken of appointing as his successor the Bishop of Kition, who belonged to the distinct autocephalous Church of Cyprus. The new Metropolitan, Meletios Metaxakis, is undertaking vigorous reforms.

(2) POLITICAL ; FORM, CHARACTER, AND METHODS OF GOVERNMENT

Greece is a constitutional monarchy, hereditary in the male line or, in case of its extinction, in the female. It has a written Constitution which dates from October 29, 1864, and was revised in 1911, though not in its essential provisions. Legislative power belongs to the King and the Single Chamber of 313 deputies elected for four years by manhood suffrage. Candidates for election must have attained their 25th year, and voters their 21st. Voting is secret, and the same system prevails as in France, of list voting by 'Nomos'. No Royal Act is valid without a ministerial counter-signature. The Chamber of Deputies or 'Boule' is not sovereign in the technical English sense, as its powers are limited by the necessity of observing the provisions of the written Constitution. It has, however, been decided recently that non-essential articles of the Constitution may be altered by a two-thirds majority of the Boule. It is probable that an Assembly will be called after the War to revise or redraft the Constitution.

The system of local administration in Greece is

founded on the principle of decentralization. It is carried on by a representative of the people, under the supervision of a higher administrative authority. For purposes of administration, the kingdom is divided into *Nomoi* or provinces, each under a 'Nomarch' appointed by the Central Government. These *Nomoi* are subdivided into communes or *Demoi*—the intermediary division into Eparchies or cantons has now been abolished. In communes over a certain size (i. e. chief towns of provinces and other towns of over 10,000 inhabitants) the administration is in the hands of a Demarch and a 'Demotic' Council elected by direct universal suffrage. In smaller communes there is only a Communal Council, also elected by direct universal suffrage. These Communal Councils, or the Demarchs (where they exist), with the approval of the Demotic Council, arrange the Budget of the Commune. This Budget is purely local, and embraces the expenses of the upkeep of the communal roads, communal education, street lighting, &c. It should be noted, however, that in Athens there are several State roads for which the State is directly responsible. The Communal Budget must be submitted for approval to the Nomarch; if he rejects it, there is a final appeal to the Minister of the Interior. After the Balkan Wars four general administrations were set up in Macedonia, Epeiros, Crete, and the islands of the archipelago, receiving general instructions from the Central Government in Athens, but otherwise enjoying a large measure of independence. Owing to the disturbances of the Great War this abnormal arrangement has held good up to the present.

(3) EDUCATIONAL

The statistics available deal only with the establishments of Old Greece before the Balkan Wars; these are therefore given first.

Three classes of schools are recognized by the Ministry of Public Instruction—Demotic or Primary, Hellenic or Intermediary, and Gymnasia or Superior schools.

Primary education is by law gratuitous and obligatory for all. The expenses were formerly met by the communes, assisted where necessary by the State. A recent law has, however, shifted the burden from the communes to the State, the communes now having only to provide suitable school buildings. In 1910–11 there were 3,550 demotic or ‘communal’ schools (1,306 for boys, 681 for girls, 1,563—in rural districts—open to both sexes), attended by 160,901 boys and 72,263 girls. The staff of these schools consisted of 26 inspectors and 4,602 teachers, male and female; the annual expenditure on them amounted to 7,559,359 drachmae. There is in every province (*Nomos*) a committee of surveillance for communal education, composed of the Nomarch, an inspector of communal schools, a local Gymnasiarch, a Judge and a Delegate of the Communal Teachers (*Demodidaskaloi*). This committee has disciplinary powers over communal teachers, and has the initiative in proposing their appointment, dismissal, or transfer. Its proposals are sent to the Supreme Council for Education in Athens, which transmits them to the Minister for Education, who can veto any proposal but has no right of initiative.

Besides these communal schools, there were in 1910–11 128 primary schools kept by private persons and attended by 11,990 children, bringing the total number of children receiving a primary education to

245,154, representing 9·31 per cent. of the total population. There was thus roughly one primary school for every 715 inhabitants. Communal teachers go through a three years' course at some training school (*Didaskaleion*). There is a central 'École normale'—founded by Marasli—at Athens, with minor training schools modelled on it and subordinated to it at Trikkala, Corfu, &c.

Secondary education is given in the 'Hellenic Schools' and Gymnasia. A complete Hellenic school has three forms, and a complete gymnasium four. A recent law provides for the abolition of Hellenic schools, whose place is to be filled by giving communal schools and gymnasia six forms each; but this enactment has not yet come into full operation. Hitherto the number of forms in communal schools has varied from one to six.

In 1910–11 there were 275 complete and 7 incomplete Hellenic schools, with 900 teachers, attended by 22,296 boys and 1,037 girls, representing 0·89 per cent. of the total population. The annual expenditure on them amounted to 2,503,960 drachmae. The initiative in appointing, dismissing, and transferring teachers in the Hellenic schools and gymnasia lies with the Supreme Council for Education in Athens, whose proposals are subject to the veto of the Minister of Education, as in the case of the communal teachers.

In 1910–11 there were 40 gymnasia with 251 teachers, attended by 5,197 boys and 104 girls, representing 0·2 per cent. of the total population. The annual expenditure amounted to 1,066,460 drachmae. The expenses in the case of those Hellenic schools and gymnasia are met by the State. Secondary teachers are trained at the École Normale for secondary education in Athens. There are two Écoles Normales for women at Athens and Corfu, with subordinate estab-

lishments at Trikkala and Patras. There were also, in 1910–11, 41 private schools giving a secondary education, attended by 1,605 boys and 732 girls.

Besides the above, there were three theological colleges, with 25 teachers and 127 pupils; six commercial schools, with 46 teachers and 366 pupils; a private *Realschule* (the *Varvakeion Lykeion*), with 28 teachers and 350 pupils; an *École Normale* for gymnastics, a shooting school, &c. Most of these are maintained by the income of private bequests. The total number of secondary schools was thus 379, and the total number of boys and girls receiving a secondary education, 31,751, representing 1·21 per cent. of the total population.

University.—With regard to higher education, there is a university at Athens, technically divided into two—the National and the Capodistrian—comprising different faculties of a single academic whole, but governed by a single Convocation. In 1910–11 the staff consisted of 155 professors and lecturers, and there were 3,358 students, 800 of whom came from abroad, mostly from Turkey. The annual expenditure amounted to 395,080 drachmae. The National University receives a subsidy from the State; the Capodistrian lives on the income of the Domboli bequest. There are five faculties presided over by a Proctor (*Kosmetor*). The professors of each faculty propose the appointments for vacant posts to the Minister for Education, who has a veto but no right of initiative. All the faculties have seminars (*Phrontisteria*) attached to them. Clinical work in the Medical Faculties is done in the municipal and other hospitals of Athens. The course extends over four years. There are annual examinations, and candidates who fail to pass in these cannot proceed to the next year's work.

There is a Polytechnic in Athens divided into schools of agriculture, engineering, and fine arts.

Recent developments include the foundation of a Technical College, of night schools for workmen, supported by the various labour federations, and an excellent evening school for poor children, which works under the auspices of the Literary Society 'Parnassus'.

There are now in actual working two schools of agriculture, at Larissa and Salonika. A high school of agriculture at Athens and four elementary schools of agriculture have also been planned.

For the new provinces acquired in 1913 no exact figures are available; there are said to be 23 gymnasia, and other schools are probably in proportion. Numerous schools existed in these districts before their annexation to Greece, subsidized to a great extent by the rival Balkan nationalities. Their administration under Greece had probably not yet been fully organized before the Great War; but the whole kingdom, old and new, has been divided into twelve districts, with a chief inspector of education at each centre, and also a doctor with control over all schools in his district. There are 31 inspectors of elementary education in the new provinces. Much has been done for education by the generous endowments of rich Greeks, both in Greece itself and in Greek-speaking districts outside it, where the founding of schools has always been an important element in national propaganda.

The language question has given rise to much dissension and controversy among Greek educationalists. Until recently the purist or 'Hellenic' tendency prevailed among schoolmasters, and the pupils were taught ancient Greek grammar in a simplified form, to the exclusion of the popular or 'demotic' tongue, which was regarded as illiterate or dialectical. But the party in favour of recognizing this 'demotic' or Romaic language has increased in strength and influence; and a momentous decision was taken by the

Venizelist Government, on its transference to Athens after the deposition of King Constantine, that henceforth the grammar of the popular tongue should be taught in elementary schools, and that it should be used as the medium of instruction. The influence of this decision on the development and standardization of the language of the people should be very great; but at first there are bound to be considerable difficulties in carrying it out. Other drastic reforms in public education, from the demotic schools up to the University, have now been undertaken by the Government, which is fully aware of their deficiencies, and calls on the whole scholastic profession for its cooperation in remedying them. Part of the scheme is the organization of efficient secondary schools, with the assistance of English, French, and American teachers; it is proposed also that the experiment of Public Schools of the English type should be tried.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

GREECE

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) INTERNAL

(a) Roads

THE roads in Greece used to be very bad, and in many of the remoter parts are still indifferent. But between 1867 and 1913, 145,000,000 drachmae were spent upon roads; 5,709 km. of roads had been made, of which 2,423 km. had been constructed since 1893. In the Peloponnese roads are, with few exceptions, still so poor that motor-cars are not in use, and the importation of bicycles is of very modest proportions.

In Macedonia the war has made a great difference, as a number of admirable roads have been constructed for military purposes near Salonika.

A law of August 1917 provides for the construction of 3,205 km. of roads, of which 1,287 are to be in the newly-acquired territories.

(b) Rivers and Canals

In the old kingdom of Greece there are no rivers of much importance, the only ones which have a considerable volume of water throughout the year being those of Akarnania. The rivers of Macedonia, the Vardar and Struma, are of greater importance for purposes of irrigation and water-power, and their canalization would bring about the additional advantage that malaria would be driven from the marshes through which they flow.

There are two canals of comparatively recent construction. The Corinth canal was completed in 1893

at a cost of £2,800,000. Its total length is 6,300 metres, its breadth 24·60 metres at the water-line, and its depth 8 metres. Over 3,000 sailing vessels and steamships pass through it every year, and it is open to the vessels of all nations, provided that their draught does not exceed 20 ft. 6 in. The currents of the canal are much affected by wind. A canal was made during the British occupation between Levkas and the mainland, and enlarged in 1903 to a breadth of 15 metres and a depth of 5 metres.

(c) *Railways*

There has been a great deal of recent railway construction both in the old kingdom and in Macedonia, where several strategic railways have been made. The most important event has been the completion of the Hellenic Railway from Larissa, *via* Papapouli and Plati, to Salonika in 1916. This is throughout of standard gauge (1·44 metres). It will assist the development of Greece to an enormous extent, because it links it up with the rest of the Continent. It may be noted that, whereas Switzerland is said to derive about £12,000,000 a year from visitors, Greece makes only £400,000, owing partly to the absence of land communication. Furthermore this railway will shorten the sea-route to India by 324 miles (or about 30 hours), if the Piraeus takes the place of Brindisi; it will also greatly increase communication with Egypt. From Athens to Larissa is 274 miles, and from thence to Salonika is 101½. A branch line of the same gauge runs to Lamia (3 miles) and Styliis (13 miles), and a shorter one to Khalkis.

The other railway systems in Old Greece are as follows:

(1) Athens to the Piraeus, of standard gauge, a double line worked by electricity (6·2 miles).

(2) The Piraeus–Athens and Peloponnese Railway (1 metre gauge), of which the main line goes to Patras and Pyrgos ($213\frac{3}{4}$ miles) with branches to Kyllene and Loutra (10 miles), an important branch from Corinth to Nauplia ($40\frac{1}{2}$ miles), and an extension from Pyrgos to Olympia (13 miles). The company that works this system also works three lines belonging to the State, viz. Diakofto–Kalavryta (0.75 metre gauge, partly a rack and pinion line, $14\frac{1}{2}$ miles), Argos–Kalamata (118 miles), and Pyrgos–Meligala ($87\frac{1}{2}$ miles). A line is under construction from Olympia to Leontari, and thence to Gytheion.

(3) The Attica Railway (1 metre gauge) goes from Athens to Laurion with a branch to Kephissia and the quarries of Pentelikon (altogether 41 miles).

(4) The Thessalian Railway (1 metre gauge) starts from Volo, one branch going from Velestino (11 miles) to Larissa ($37\frac{1}{2}$ miles), the other from the same place to Kalabaka (100 miles), whence lines are projected to Koshani, Sorovich, and Yanina.

(5) The North-west Railway (1 metre gauge) starts from Kryoneri, connected by ferry with Patras, and goes (37 miles) to Agrinion; it has been proposed to extend this line to Arta, but it has not yet been decided from what point the extension will start.

(6) The Pyrgos–Katakolo line (1 metre gauge) is a short line ($8\frac{1}{2}$ miles) mainly used by the currant trade.

In Macedonia are three important lines that start from Salonika: (1) to Florina (118 miles) and Monastir ($138\frac{1}{2}$ miles), almost entirely within Greece; (2) to Nish (283 miles) and Central Europe, running within Greece as far as Ghevveli (48 miles); (3) to Dedeagach (276 miles) and Constantinople, a strategic railway purposely constructed at some distance from the sea, running within Greece for about 200 miles. Another line is projected across Khalkidike to Angista,

Two other important projects are being considered:— one is a line which will leave Larissa, and going *via* Turnovo in Thessaly and Diskati will join the Salonika–Monastir line, meeting it at Verria (about 50 miles from Salonika); another projected line will cross Epeiros from east to west, uniting the Aegean with the Ionian Sea.

The figures for passenger and goods traffic in 1910 were :

	<i>Passengers.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
Athens–Piraeus Railway	4,900,000	60,000
Piraeus–Athens–Peloponnese Railway	2,000,000	312,000
Attica Railway	804,000	20,000
Thessalian Railway	555,000	100,000
Hellenic Railway (up to Larissa)	420,000	65,000
North-west Railway	195,000	23,800
Pyrgos–Katakolo	90,000	—
Total	8,964,000	580,800

The high proportion of passenger to goods traffic should be noted; most Greek merchandise is borne by sea. In the same year the Serbian railways, with little more than half the mileage, carried 2,500,000 passengers, but 864,000 tons of goods.

(2) EXTERNAL

(a) Ports

The chief ports on the mainland are the Piraeus, Salonika, Patras, Kalamata, Volo, Preveza, and Kavalla. To these must be added on the islands Corfu and Argostoli (in the Ionian Islands), and Syra (the chief port of the Cyclades).

The Piraeus has become the fourth port of the Mediterranean, ranking in importance after Marseilles, Naples, and Genoa, but surpassing Trieste in the amount of its tonnage. The harbour has been greatly improved by the removal of a reef, and considerable extensions have

been made in recent years. It is the great distributing centre for imports in continental Greece, as Syra is for those in the Cyclades. Its exports are largely mineral.

Salonika is the principal port for Macedonia and the greater part of Serbia; by far the greater part of their imports, and, with the exception of tobacco, nearly all their exports, pass through it. The accommodation of the port must be increased and the commercial quarter of the city enlarged, if it is to avail itself of the great opportunities that have come to it.

Patras is above all the place of export of currants, but it has also become the chief centre of emigration in the Levant. *Kalamata* is the place of export of figs.

Volo is the door to Thessaly, and the place of export of the minerals (especially chrome ore) and live-stock of that country. The harbour was rendered safe by a great breakwater in 1910. *Preveza* is the chief port of north-western Greece, and its importance should be considerably increased with the extension of Greek possessions in Epeiros. It is important for trade with Italy. *Kavalla* is the natural outlet for the produce of Macedonia east of the Struma. Its chief export is tobacco. It is necessary to construct a breakwater, but it will be difficult and expensive as the water is very deep.

(b) Shipping Lines

Besides numerous Greek lines, of which the most important are the Compagnie Hellénique de Navigation Transatlantique and the National Steam Navigation Company, which do great business in taking emigrants to America, the following lines of other nations called regularly at Greek ports before the war:

British: Bell's Orient Line; W. Johnston & Co.; Westcott & Laurance; Ellerman Lines.

French: Messageries Maritimes; Fraissinet et Cie.

Italian : Società di Navigazione Generale Italiana ; Compagnia Marittima Italiana ; Società Nazionale Italiana di Servizi Marittimi.

German : Deutsche Levante Linie ; A. C. de Freitas.

Belgian : A. Deppe.

Dutch : Koninklijke Nederlandsche Stoomboot-Maatschappij.

Austrian : Austrian Lloyd Steam Navigation Co.

Swedish : Svensk Levant Linje ; Axel Broström & Son.

Russian : Russian Steam Navigation & Trading Company.

Danish : Forenede Dampskibsselskab.

Egyptian : Khedivial Mail Steamship Co.

American : Archipelago American Steamship Co.

Rumanian : Rumanian State Maritime Service.

There has been great lack of direct communication between Greece and the United Kingdom. The only regular British line to the Piraeus was the Johnston Line, but this was not available for return cargo, as the owners found it more profitable to send their ships on to the Black Sea, there to load with grain. Before the War it was customary to send goods to Rotterdam or Antwerp and to have them shipped from there to Greek ports by the Deutsche Levante Line. The other main route was by the Messageries Maritimes from Marseilles, and, as a good deal of pilfering went on in that port, many protests were raised. It is of the utmost importance that, if trade relations between this country and Greece are to improve, there should be increased direct communication.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) LABOUR

The Greek labourer is thrifty, abstemious, and intelligent, and his work in the mines has been usually very satisfactory. Labour was very cheap in Greece, but its cost has risen 25 per cent. to 50 per cent. It has become very scarce, and in many districts is unprocurable. Even before 1912 it was menacingly short, and although the rate of wages was extraordinarily high for the Balkans, it was difficult to get in the harvest in Macedonia and Thessaly.

Emigration.—Emigration to the United States has reached alarming proportions, although the Greek Government put obstacles in its way, such as the law which debars from emigration all who have not served in the army. The numbers rose from 12,144 in 1905 to 45,881 in 1914. The Balkan Wars brought many of these emigrants back to Greece, but most of them returned to America, and many persuaded their friends to join them. The country gains by the remittances which these emigrants send from America to their friends in Greece, amounting to between £1,500,000 and £2,000,000 a year, but this does not counter-balance the loss of so many able-bodied men from a country which is already under-populated. The chief reasons for emigration seem to be the high cost of living owing to taxation, and in the northern parts insufficient protection for person and property. The annexation of Macedonia by Greece will lead to further displacements of population.

In the absence of men to work the land, much of the work is done by women, while gangs of Albanians cross the frontier, and after working in the vineyards and elsewhere, return home with their earnings. There is a large floating population of refugees from Turkey

in the north who could help to develop the great agricultural possibilities of Macedonia.

(2) AGRICULTURE

(a) *Products of Commercial Value*

The Ministry of National Economy reported in 1914 that of the area of Old Greece 24 per cent. is cultivable. It is roughly divided as follows :

	<i>Acres.</i>
Cereals (about half the land is fallow each year) .	3,000,000
Vineyards	300,000
Currant vines	140,000
Olive groves	250,000
Fruit trees	125,000
Tobacco	30,000

The value of the annual production of the chief crops is thus estimated :

	£
Wheat	3,400,000
Barley and oats	600,000
Maize	280,000
Wine (and must)	1,800,000
Currants	2,100,000
Oil and olives	1,600,000
Figs	220,000
Tobacco	400,000
Cotton	80,000
Total	10,480,000

Cereals grow best in Thessaly and Macedonia ; Thessaly might supply the whole of Greece with wheat but for the poor methods of cultivation. In Macedonia cultivation is declining ; the district used to produce over 500,000 tons of cereals, but at the beginning of the War yielded only 100,000 tons. With a sense of greater security and the investment of capital in agricultural improvements, the output should be vastly greater. Rice is grown in Macedonia and in the plains of Elis, Boeotia, Marathon, and Mesolongi.

Wine is produced in most parts of Greece and in many of the islands. The Greek wines are of four classes : (1) the ordinary red and white, resined to make it keep, and only consumed locally ; (2) dark red wines for blending, chiefly produced in Euboea, Corfu, and Santorin ; (3) dry red and white wine from grapes and also fresh currants, chiefly exported, produced about Eleusis, Kalamata, Patras, Pyrgos, &c. ; (4) sweet dessert and muscatel wines, used also for medicinal purposes, produced in Cephalonia, Zante, Patras, Messenia, &c. The best wines are grown in the vineyards of the German 'Achaia Co.' at Gutland, near Patras, at Marathon, and at Deceleia in Attica on the royal estates.

The wines of Crete, being very alcoholic, are used for fortifying the weaker qualities of France and Germany.

There are three companies for wine-making at Patras, but scarcely any Greek wine is exported to the United Kingdom, though it is up to the standard of the medium qualities of French, Spanish, and Italian wines. Two products should be noted : (1) *raki*, distilled from the refuse of the vats, a spirit which resembles Kirschwasser, but is not so strong, and (2) condensed must, a great deal of which is exported to the United Kingdom.

The most important crop of Greece is *Currants*, which are grown especially in the Peloponnese and the Ionian Islands, but currant-growers have suffered very badly from over-production ; the normal annual production is about 170,000 or 180,000 tons, but the world's annual consumption rarely exceeds 120,000 tons. Consequently a good season which spoilt the market was dreaded as much as a bad one which spoilt the crops. Various expedients were adopted to save the currant industry from ruin. A 'retention' law forbade the export of more than a certain amount of currants.

In 1899 a Currant Bank was founded which received the money derived from the sale of 'retention currants' that might not be exported, and it was by law enjoined to make loans at a small rate of interest to all currant-growers either in cash or its equivalent in sulphate of copper and sulphur (to ward off various pests to which the currant vine is liable). The Currant Bank did not last for long, but in 1905 there was established the 'Privileged Company' to protect the currant trade. This pays the State £80,000 annually under the head of export duty, and offers all growers at the opening of the season a fixed price of 115 drachmae per 1,000 Venetian lb.¹ whatever the quality of their fruit, and at the end of the season pays a price varying from 115 dr. to 145 dr., according to the quality, for the unexported currants (as a rule 35 per cent. of the currants from the Peloponnese and 40 per cent. of those of the Ionian Islands are debarred from exportation). In return for this and for the warehousing of the currants, the company receives 7 dr. on every 1,000 lb. and can dispose of the whole retained amount, which must not be exported as fresh currants. Some of the retained currants are used for making wine and spirits: one ton of dried currants will produce 3 tons of wine of 9 degrees of alcoholic strength, and about 600 lb. will give 100 litres of brandy. The total currant crop was 161,000 tons in 1912, and 151,450 tons in 1913.

The prohibition of further plantation of currants under the charter of the Privileged Company has stimulated the cultivation of *Sultanas*. They are especially successful in Corinthia and Argolis.

Olive-Groves were cut down ruthlessly to make way for currants, at a time when France was purchasing these at a very high price. Now that a period of over-production of currants has followed, the Greeks are

¹ 1 lb. great Venetian = 1.025 lb. avoirdupois.

replanting olives, but, as it takes 50 years for an olive tree to reach full bearing, the present generation will not secure the advantage. Olives and olive oil are largely consumed by the Greeks. A large black olive, which grows principally at Amphissa, is shipped in great quantities to Turkey, Egypt, and Russia, where it is esteemed as a condiment. A large number of olives are shipped to the United States for the use of Greek emigrants. It should be remembered that on the average in two out of every five years there is a bad olive-crop.

Of other fruit *Figs* are grown especially in Messenia and the Cyclades; Greek figs have been mostly exported to Austria-Hungary, North Germany, Turkey, and Russia; the quality is too poor for the British market. Kalamata is the chief port for exporting them. *Mulberries* are largely grown for sericulture, but this industry had greatly declined: fifty years ago the production of silk amounted to about 2,450 tons, but now does not exceed 700 tons. The chief reasons for this reduction are Japanese competition and the use of artificial silk. The Greek Government has decided among other things to provide for (1) mulberry-tree plantations, (2) instruction in sericulture, (3) organization on an extensive scale of associations for silk cultivation. Other important fruits are *Almonds*, *Oranges*, and *Citrons*. There is a considerable export of citrons in brine, especially from the Cyclades.

Valonea is important in the islands and on the mainland, especially in Akarnania; but there has been a decline since substitutes for it for tanning purposes have been discovered. It is expensive to produce owing to the price of labour in picking it from the trees and freeing it from the acorns.

Tobacco is very largely grown in Macedonia, and also prospers in Aitolia and Akarnania, which export largely

to Rotterdam, Hamburg, and Egypt. It has been planted experimentally in recent years in many of the islands. Some opium is grown in Macedonia.

Cotton is grown principally near Levadeia in Boeotia. In Macedonia it used to be more grown than it is now, as the fall in its price led many peasants to abandon its cultivation for tobacco planting.

There are said to be great possibilities for the extraction of *Essential Oils* from both wild and cultivated plants. The oil at present most produced is oil of turpentine, of which 2,500,000 kg. are made yearly. The aniseed industry is also successful; some 500,000 or 600,000 oke¹ being produced from the cultivated variety.

Live-stock.—The animal wealth of Old Greece is estimated at :

	<i>Head.</i>
Horses	160,000
Mules	88,000
Donkeys	140,000
Oxen	400,000
Swine	80,000
Goats	3,000,000
Sheep	4,000,000

Throughout Greece there are mountain areas where sheep and goats flourish, which might carry larger flocks and herds than they do. Cattle are used mainly for draught purposes and yield little milk. Horses are docile, hardy, and sure-footed. In south Macedonia there are a few buffaloes, and along the north shore of the Gulf of Corinth are some camels; they are bred at Lamia. Cattle-raising is carried on mostly in Thessaly; a large number of sheep, lambs, and calves are constantly shipped from Volo to the Piraeus.

(b) *Methods of Agriculture*

In many parts of Greece the methods and implements of agriculture are very primitive. There is little use of

¹ 1 oke = 2 $\frac{3}{4}$ lb.

manure or scientific rotation of crops, but much ingenuity is shown, especially in the islands, in terracing land for cultivation in the barren parts. In Thessaly the wooden ploughs used differ little from those of more than 2,000 years ago. But there has been recently an increasing demand for improved machinery. Agricultural stations have been established in various parts of the country for the better instruction of the people and have yielded satisfactory results.

Irrigation.—Most of the rivers of Greece are dry during the summer, and much must be done, if sufficient use is to be made of irrigation. The Greek Government is engaging a British engineer for irrigation to undertake surveys of the districts where such work seems likely to be remunerative.

The drainage of Lake Copais in Boeotia, which has given a large fertile area for agriculture, will be followed by the drainage of the Struma and Vardar valleys in Macedonia.

(c) *Forestry*

About 2,500,000 acres are covered by forests in Greece. Their annual production is worth about £600,000. The most productive forests stretch from the Pindus range to the Gulf of Corinth, and in southern Epeiros there are others well worth exploiting. Most of the forests are State property; they were handed over in 1911 to the Ministry of Agriculture, Commerce, and National Economy. A school of forestry at Vythine in the Peloponnese educates a large proportion of the inspectors, superintendents, and foresters, who look after the forests. The trees have been deliberately destroyed, first by the Turks when they left the liberated country, and since then by the shepherds, who start forest fires in order to acquire new pasturage. The trees especially used in afforestation are the Scotch fir and Austrian pine.

(d) Land Tenure

Peasant proprietorship is almost universal in the Peloponnese; elsewhere it is gradually replacing the *métayer* system, under which large estates are held, the cultivator paying as rent to the proprietor one-third or one-half of the gross produce. Holdings vary considerably in size; in many parts they are too small, in others, especially Thessaly, they are too large for the labour and capital available, and are consequently unremunerative. The Greek, as a rule, likes to farm his own land, and according to his own method.

(3) FISHERIES

The supply of fish near Greece is diminishing for various reasons, the chief of which are (1) the absence of any close season for fishing, (2) the adoption of improved methods of fishing, (3) the great increase of sailing trawlers, (4) the use of dynamite, which is frequent, though illegal. The Greeks are naturally fond of fish, eat it a great deal, and are ready to give a good price for it, but salt fish has to take the place of fresh fish because of their diminishing supplies. At Preveza there is an inexhaustible supply of shellfish in the shallows that adjoin the strait.

Of rivers and lakes the best for fish are the Peneios, the Lake of Yanina, the Lake of Kastoria, and the Lake of Okhrida, the last being especially famous for its salmon-trout.

There are several sponge fisheries off the coast of Greece. In the islands of the Dodekanese sponge-fishing is normally the main occupation of the inhabitants. The prohibition of sponge-fishing there by the Italians has driven many of the sponge-fishers into Greek islands.

(4) MINERALS

The development of mining in Greece dates from the Mining Law of 1861, from which year to 1882 the Government granted several hundred concessions. From 1882 to 1898 no further concessions were made, but from the latter year, when the Zaïmes ministry was in power, an ever-increasing number has been granted. The minerals of Greece consist of various iron ores (hematite, mica, loadstone, spar), manganese, chrome, zinc (calamine and blende), silver-lead, nickel, lignite, magnesite, emery, sulphur, and others. The figures for output and value of some of the more important minerals in 1912 were as follows :

	<i>Tons.</i>	£
Iron	431,632	147,183
Manganese-iron	14,311	5,392
Silver-lead	12,893	7,831
Zinc	4,288	8,282
Manganese	8,082	3,487
Nickel	15,111	21,167
Chrome	6,310	9,001
Magnesite	29,078	21,964
Emery ¹	8,268	32,633
Iron pyrites	29,767	21,660

Iron Ores are worked at Grammatikon (near Marathon), and in several of the islands (Siphnos, Seriphos). Not enough capital has been sunk in exploiting this metal. *Manganese-iron* is among the minerals worked at Lavrion. *Silver-lead* is the most important of the products of the mining district of Lavrion. The chief companies established there are (1) La Compagnie française des Mines de Laurium, constituted in 1875 with a capital of £520,000, and (2) the Greek Metallurgical Company with a capital of £1,180,000. These

• ¹ See below, p. 131, for recent increase.

companies gain profit not only from the unexhausted mineral wealth of the region, but from the refuse of the ancient mines and smelting works of that locality. *Zinc*, besides being found at Lavrion, appears in the form of calamine or blende in Antiparos and elsewhere. *Manganese* is only found in small quantities in Greece, which cannot easily compete with Caucasia; the chief places for its production are Grammatikon and Melos. *Nickel* is chiefly found in Loeris, where a new mining company has made large profits on a small capital. *Chrome* is found in several parts of Euboea, Boeotia, Locris, and above all Thessaly, which exports a great deal through Volo to Philadelphia and Belgium. *Magnesite* is of much greater importance. The best comes from Euboea, where it is worked by two companies: (1) the British Petrified Company (since 1897), in the mines belonging to the monastery of Galataki, near Limni, and (2) the Société des Travaux Publics Communaux, a Greek company, which works its own mines at Mantudi and at Limni. The British quarries are worked on the surface, the Greek quarries underground, as the surface vein has been exhausted. Other magnesite mines are in Khalkidike, at Thebes, and at Perakhori, near Corinth. Magnesite is exported to the United Kingdom, France, Germany, Belgium, and the United States. It is used for making or lining metallurgical furnaces for the manufacture of Bessemer steel, and for various purposes by contractors.

The *Emery* of Naxos is one of the most important of Greek products; the very best quality is produced in Naxos, where it is worked by the inhabitants under Government supervision; stringent provisions secure that the standard shall be kept up to the highest level and none but the best be exported as such. The sale of Naxos emery is one of the sources of revenue for the International Finance Committee for the payment

of the public debt of Greece. The success of the mining in that island, therefore, is of great importance to a number of French and British bondholders, who have a direct interest in preventing the recurrence of such events as the strike in 1913, which very seriously reduced the output. Syra is the depot for the export of emery.

Of other minerals *Copper Ore* is worked in Limogardi, *Sulphur* in Melos, *Pozzolana* in Santorin, and *Lignite* in several parts, the chief being Kymi in Euboea and Oropos in Attica. There are also unworked veins of lignite at Lamia, Tripolitza, Megara, on the south side of the Gulf of Corinth, in the country between Patras and Pyrgos, and in some of the islands. A superior lignite has been discovered near Trikkala and Kalabaka in Thessaly, but the deposit is of uncertain extent. Before the war there was no great demand for lignite in Greece, as it is not an industrial country, and is in too southerly a latitude to require a great consumption of domestic fuel. Such lignite as is used is generally mixed with British coal. During the war the demand has increased. There is said to be *Anthracite* near Salonika.

Salt, which is obtained especially at Volo, is a Government monopoly; there are large deposits of it, which belong to the Government, but it is insufficient for the needs of the country, which requires a great deal, especially for the preservation of olives. *Petroleum* is another Government monopoly; there are petroleum wells at Keri in Zante.

The mineral, however, for which Greece was most reputed in ancient times is *Marble*; it is likely to be in great demand again after the War. The quarries of Pentelikon in Attica are the source whence Athens was built. They are among the quarries worked by the Marmor Company, Ltd., founded in 1896, with a nominal

capital of £300,000; it also works the quarries of Skyros, the old quarries of Seigel and Kloebe in Tenos (where it was once thought that the original Rosso Antico had been discovered), the Seigel and Kloebe quarries in Laconia, and many others which are worked intermittently. Other marble quarries include the Styra quarries of coloured marble in Euboea, which are owned partly by the Marmor Company and partly by a British private owner, and the quarries of the original Verde Antico, found between Larissa and the vale of Tempe, which are worked by the Verde Antico Marble Company of London.

There are *Mineral Baths* at Kyllene, Hypate, Platystomos, Lipsos (Aidepsos), Methana, Kaiapha, Thermopylae, Loutraki, near Corinth, and in the island of Kythnos (hence called Thermia).

(5) MANUFACTURES

The absence of coal in Greece has prevented its development as an industrial country, and in relation to its area and population the manufactures are of no great significance. In Old Greece in 1918 it was computed that there are 1,591 industrial enterprises, employing 26,797 workmen. Of these 829 employ 2,481 men, while 500 enterprises employ from 6 to 25 men, forming a total of 6,475. There are 222 large undertakings, i. e. each employing more than 26 men, with a total of 17,841. These figures imply considerable progress. In New Greece there are 1,213 establishments, employing 36,124 men. It has 188 small enterprises, employing 3,579 men, 743 medium enterprises, employing 8,845, and 282 large ones, employing 23,700. It may be noted, therefore, that New Greece has fewer enterprises, but that they are on a larger scale than those of Old Greece. The small establish-

ments are mainly concerned with food; the large ones with food, spinning, weaving, and chemicals.

The only manufacturing centres of any note are, on the mainland, the Piræus, Athens, and Salonika, and on the islands, Corfu and Syra, and even in these the industries are very miscellaneous, and there is none outstanding. In 1915 the Piræus contained 27 wine and liqueur distilleries, 15 steam flour-mills, 13 soap and sulphur oil factories, 12 engineering and iron works, 8 factories of macaroni, &c., 7 cotton-mills, 7 weaving-mills, and 66 other industrial establishments, including shipbuilding yards of importance. In 1908 the industries of Athens were 25 printing works, 15 tanneries, 15 bookbinding establishments, 12 confectionery factories, 10 carriage-building works, 9 chemical factories, 8 lithographers' works, and 91 other industrial establishments. Salonika possesses among other industries cotton-mills, woollen-mills, breweries, a 'raki' distillery, tanneries, and manufactories of leather goods, steam flour-mills, soap factories, and iron foundries.

The only industries in most towns of Greece are distilling, flour-milling, tanning, and in some cases the manufacture of olive oil and soap. Besides these may be mentioned in Old Greece silk-spinning in Sparta, Patras, and Kalamata, hosiery and tapestry in Tripolitza, woollens in Zante and Volo, yarn in Volo and Syra, barrels in Patras, loukoumi and formerly gunpowder in Syra, pyrene oil, straw hats, and umbrellas in Corfu. In Macedonia the tobacco industry employs more hands than any other, but textiles are manufactured in Drama, Nyaousta, Serres, and Vodena. In Epeiros Yanina manufactures gold embroideries and silk.

Cotton is of some importance in the industrial life of Greece. The chief centre of the industry is the Levadeia district in Boeotia, where there are 15 ginning-

mills (13 in Levadeia itself), which in 1913 dealt with over 3,500,000 okes of seed-cotton, whereas some 2,000,000 okes were sent to the Piraeus to be ginned there. The total number of cotton-mills in Greece was 17, having in operation 73,898 spindles and 1,160 looms; among other places there are mills in Trikkala, Larissa, and Styliis.

Throughout Greece home industries are of importance. There are numerous looms both in the old kingdom and in the new territories, where women make their own clothes, carpets, &c.

(6) POWER

Despite the intermittent character of many of the streams there is a considerable amount of water-power available in Greece, especially in Epeiros and Macedonia. In South Epeiros the great waterfall of the River Theamis would be admirable for the production of electricity; another arm of the same river already provides the motive-power for several mills and a blanket factory. In Macedonia the Struma is a swift river, and could be used for the generation of electricity.

After the War considerable development of water-power is contemplated, especially in Macedonia, Thessaly, and Epeiros, where at present there is nothing more than small mills.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) DOMESTIC

(a) *Fairs*

The internal trade of Greece is mainly concentrated in the fairs connected with the principal church festivals, which last as a rule from 3 to 10 days.

(b) Organizations for promoting Commerce

There are Greek Chambers of Commerce at Athens, Syra, Kalamata, Patras, Nauplia, and Volo. In Athens there is also a French Chamber of Commerce. Under Turkish rule there was a Chamber of Commerce at Salonika, but it was dissolved on the Greek occupation of the town. Since the beginning of the war in Macedonia there have been two new associations in Salonika: (1) the Bureau Commercial, founded by the French, and (2) the Direction Économique Militaire Serbe, the special object of which is to prevent any one Power from securing a dangerous monopoly of commercial power in Macedonia.

(c) Foreign Interests

A certain amount of foreign capital is invested in Greece, and several of the principal businesses are in the hands of foreigners. But there are influences which restrict free investment. The circumstances of the country, both political and financial, have not been such as to inspire confidence.

Considerable jealousy and distrust of foreigners is shown by the inhabitants; the Greeks are anxious to obtain foreign capital, but refuse supervision of its use by foreign lenders. Furthermore the delay which applicants, for mining concessions especially, have to experience is a considerable deterrent; the Government often keeps them in suspense for years; between 1898 and 1902 the Government had applications for about 1,000 concessions, and granted only 50.

Of the foreign businesses other than banks in the country the most important are the Marmor Company, Limited, a British company (established 1896, capital £300,000) which works most of the principal marble quarries; the Compagnie française des Mines de Laurium,

a French company (established 1875, capital £520,000) which works some of the important silver-lead mines at Lavrion; and the British Petrified Company, which works the magnesite mines belonging to the monastery of Galataki, near Limni, in Euboea. The London Oil Development Company has obtained a concession for working petroleum wells at Keri in Zante.

(d) *Economic Penetration*

Despite the number of businesses in Greece worked by British and French capital, there is little systematic pushing of trade interests by Great Britain and France. Neither the Ionian Bank, a British institution, nor the Bank of Athens, in which France is largely interested, pushes trade interests in the way in which German banks have been accustomed to push them in the East. On the other hand, the Schimmelpfeng Institute, which was undoubtedly an instrument of the German spy system, derived much of its strength from the support of British firms who found that they could obtain from it more detailed information than the banks could give. We have allowed German direction even of our own businesses to some extent; so Fels & Co., in Corfu, were agents for some British firms (e.g. the Ellerman, Leyland, and Star Lines).

The German consuls push German trade by putting the local small importers into direct relations with German export houses, while they notify to these how much credit should be given in each case. There were a large number of German and Austrian commercial travellers in Greece before the War, and by studying Greek tastes, giving easy terms of credit, speaking the language, and making their catalogues intelligible to Greek customers, they were threatening the leading place which this country had hitherto held in Greek commerce.

In Macedonia, when it was in Turkish hands, the Austrians were able to push their trade not only by the zeal of their agents but by the aid of Turkish political influence.

(2) FOREIGN

(a) *Exports and Imports*

The foreign trade of Greece is almost entirely sea-borne. No railway, before 1916, linked up the old kingdom of Greece with the Continent. In Macedonia alone railways connected Greek territory with foreign lands, a circumstance which contributed considerably to the predominant position held by Austria-Hungary in Macedonian trade. The imports both of Old and New Greece considerably exceed the exports. For Old Greece the average of the imports for the years 1908-12 was about £6,270,000. In 1913 it was about £7,110,000; in 1914, £7,140,000; in 1915, £6,820,000. For New Greece the figures since its annexation are in 1914 £5,609,000; in 1915, £4,752,000. The average of the exports from Old Greece for the same years (1908-12) was £5,150,000. In 1913 it was about £4,700,000; in 1914 it was £4,880,000; in 1915 it was £5,684,000. For New Greece the figures were in 1914 £2,262,000; in 1915, £3,050,000.

Before the War, grain was imported chiefly from Russia; during the War it has come mainly from the United States. Next in importance came minerals, of which about 70 per cent. is coal, which came exclusively from the United Kingdom. Textiles are of considerable importance, and imports from the United Kingdom constitute about half the whole amount. Tools and machinery came largely from the Central Empires, as did some amount of textiles. The figures for the principal imports of Old Greece were as follows :

	1911. £	1912. £	1913. £
Agricultural products	2,249,976	1,593,187	1,900,899
Minerals and ores	1,144,370	971,393	1,235,255
Minerals manufactured	279,053	293,454	234,659
Textiles	819,736	789,470	726,805
Forest products	501,025	586,078	536,038
Sugar products	248,025	316,377	342,921
Medicines and chemicals	352,355	311,547	376,572
Fishery products	315,901	309,773	421,177

The distribution of the import trade of Old Greece among the chief countries was as follows :

	<i>Average</i> 1908-12. £	1913. £	1914. £
From United Kingdom	1,440,000	1,700,000	1,910,000
„ Russia	1,140,000	1,410,000	1,070,000
„ Austria-Hungary	850,000	1,160,000	1,220,000
„ Germany	540,000	530,000	550,000
„ France	390,000	420,000	440,000

In the first year of war the United States leapt to the first place with £2,940,000. Russia and Germany wholly lost their position, and Italy became fifth with £70,000. In New Greece the distribution of the import trade was as follows :

	1914.	1915.
From Austria-Hungary	1,131,000	513,000
„ United Kingdom	690,000	488,000
„ Germany	554,000	53,000
„ France	487,000	383,000
„ Italy	486,000	420,000
„ Turkey	420,000	154,000
„ U.S.A.	291,000	1,498,000

The chief exports of Greece are agricultural products (especially currants, olives, figs, tobacco), minerals (the chief being lead, zinc, hematite, emery, and manganese), wines and spirits. Among the exports to the United Kingdom are currants and other dried raisins, valonea,

sponges, and minerals ; the United States take currants, tobacco, cheese, skins, and olives, an increasing proportion of Greek trade being with Greek emigrants who have settled in America ; France takes among other things raw silks and wines ; Egypt, cheese, tobacco, olives, olive oil, and cement ; Holland, currants, figs, tobacco, and calamine ; Italy, a very large number of commodities, including about two-thirds of the olive oil and half the resin exported. Before the War Germany took a good deal of the tobacco and currant crop ; Austria-Hungary took tobacco, figs, and skins, as well as many other things.

The figures for the principal exports of Old Greece were as follows :

	<u>1911.</u>	1912.	1913.
	£	£	£
Agricultural products	3,023,931	2,819,934	2,365,255
Minerals and ores	964,898	935,929	812,188
Minerals manufactured	32,594	35,499	10,994
Oils and oleaginous products	376,833	840,738	352,946
Wines and spirits	729,928	679,205	859,195
Animal products	219,348	228,643	183,227
Forest products	163,553	131,292	79,081
Medicines and chemicals	44,447	66,717	59,523
Fishery products	36,992	20,156	15,635
Manufactured articles of various materials	22,545	19,166	12,003

The distribution of the export trade of Old Greece among the chief countries was as follows :

	<u>Average</u> <u>1908-12.</u>	1913.	1914.	1915.
	£	£	£	£
To United Kingdom	1,160,000	1,138,000	1,510,000	1,903,000
„ France	540,000	544,000	382,000	475,000
„ Germany	530,000	487,000	316,000	269
„ Austria-Hungary	520,000	511,000	221,000	7,000
„ U.S.A.	408,000	370,000	693,000	619,000
„ Holland	400,000	380,000	371,000	801,000
„ Italy	360,000	151,000	477,000	601,000

In New Greece the distribution was :

	1914.	1915.
	£	£
To United Kingdom	282,000	321,000
„ France	87,000	199,000
„ Germany	90,000	10,000
„ Austria-Hungary	114,000	2,000
„ U.S.A.	481,000	380,000
„ Holland	2,000	252,000
„ Italy	534,000	796,000
„ Egypt	170,000	346,000
„ Serbia	64,000	304,000
„ Turkey	116,000	146,000
„ Rumania	71,000	125,000

Crete imports from the United Kingdom principally Manchester goods and woollen stuffs and cloths ; its chief exports are olive oil, raisins, carobs, soap, wine, olive kernel oil, cedrates, goatskins, oranges, valonea, and locust beans.

(b) *Customs and Tariffs*

The customs duties of Greece are very heavy. There is no duty on coal, sulphate of copper, bar and sheet iron, but heavy duties are levied on a vast number of commodities, even where no local productions are being protected. In the case of textiles a duty of more than 100 per cent *ad valorem* is levied on fine woollen goods, and of more than 70 per cent. on silks and sacking. Food taxes are high. The duty on wheat amounts to between 30 and 40 per cent. *ad valorem*, that on coffee to 70 per cent. ; on butter a duty of 8*d.* per lb. is levied, and on tea a duty of 1*s.* 8*d.* per lb. The method of collection is anomalous. Duty is charged by weight, where it might have been expected to be levied *ad valorem* ; thus, on furniture and lamps the duties are imposed by weight irrespective of value.

The receipts from customs, which constitute about

30 per cent. of the total revenue, were for the old kingdom of Greece:

	£
1910	1,761,195
1911	1,835,485
1912	1,587,570

Many duties have been automatically increased by 45 per cent. since the appreciation of the paper currency, for they were calculated on the basis of 1 dr. gold = 1.45 dr. paper currency, a distinction which is unreal since the exchange has stood at par:

The inclusion in the kingdom of Greece of the islands off the Asiatic coast has broken down one fiscal barrier, but it may create a new one which will be equally embarrassing owing to the close trade relations between those islands and the Turkish coast of Asia.

(D) FINANCE

(1) PUBLIC FINANCE

Greek budgets do not give a very clear idea of Greek finances. The system of account-keeping, which is said to date from the time of King Otho, is misleading. Fictitious receipts are included, while important items of extraordinary expenditure, such as railway construction, are frequently omitted; and no clear distinction is made between ordinary expenditure and such extraordinary expenditure as is included in the accounts. It is stated that recent reforms introduced by the present Minister of Finance have effected a great improvement. The debt of Greece increased alarmingly till 1897, when an International Finance Commission was established. Certain revenues were assigned to the payment of debt to foreign bondholders, most of whom were French and British; these revenues were furnished by the receipts from six Government mono-

polies (salt, petroleum, matches, playing cards, tobacco, and cigarette papers), together with stamp duties, the sale of Naxos emery, and the customs duties levied at the Piraeus, Lavrion, Patras, Volo, and Corfu. The consequence was that the Greek debt was steadily reduced by redemption of bonds, and the surplus of the revenues thus assigned increased from 18,000,000 dr. in 1905 to 35,000,000 dr. (£1,400,000) in 1916, and became available for other State purposes. Owing to the wars a further loan of £20,000,000 was issued in 1914, to the service of which was assigned not only the above-mentioned surplus, but new duties on rice and sugar and the custom-house receipts of Salonika and Kavalla. At the end of 1917 the Total Consolidated and Floating Public Debt stood at £74,645,987, of which about £30,000,000 is administered by the Greek Government and £44,000,000 by the International Finance Commission, which has been able, out of the revenue assigned to it, to pay a balance to the Greek Government varying from £721,166 in 1917 to £1,371,763 in 1915.

The chief items of revenue are import duties, stamps, duties on tobacco and spirits, post office receipts, house-tax, licences, some of the Government monopolies (such as petroleum), and currants. The taxes on income from land and houses, or from professions, commerce, and industry, are levied by various methods of assessment in different districts. State domains bring in a considerable revenue; the State owns valuable properties, but many have been allowed to lie fallow or have been let on very easy terms.

The budget for 1918 was estimated as follows:

	£
Ordinary expenditure	11,851,233
Extraordinary expenditure	42,615,422
Total	<u>54,466,655</u>

	£
Ordinary receipts	9,588,218
Extraordinary receipts	2,431,560
Loans from France, United Kingdom, and U.S.A.	30,000,000
Internal Loan	<u>4,000,000</u>
Total	46,019,778

It was claimed, however, that the deficit of £8,446,877, which is here disclosed, is only apparent, as items had been included in the expenditure which had not been taken into account in previous budgets; it was therefore contended that there would be a real surplus of £151,001.

(2) CURRENCY

The monetary unit is the drachma (= 1 franc), which is divided into 100 lepta. The currency consists of paper notes of 5, 10, 25, 100, 500, and 1,000 drachmae, silver coins of 25 and 50 lepta, and of 1, 2, and 5 drachmae, nickel coins of 5, 10, and 20 lepta, and copper coins of 1, 2, 5, and 10 lepta. Exchange is now at par, and only varies from a maximum of 25·20 dr. to a minimum of 25 dr. for the £. During the War the exchange went to 23–24 dr.

Owing to a series of forced paper currencies, the drachma had become greatly depreciated; when it was attempted to give it more value by restricting the issue of paper currency, there was no sufficient amount left of any satisfactory medium of exchange. Up to 1910 Greece was a member of the Latin Union, but its silver coinage was accumulating in the treasuries of the other members of the Union, owing to the suspension of the right of the holders of Treasury and bank notes, which were then legal tender, to convert them into specie at their option. The great improvement in the value of paper currency came from the system of M. Valaoritis, Governor of the National Bank. Since his scheme came into operation, the

paper currency has stood at par. Greece has retired from the Latin Union, though apparently without having formally denounced it.

The war has led to the issue of fresh paper currency. Against the book-credits of 750,000,000 drachmae granted under the Paris agreement of 1917 by France, Great Britain, and the United States, the National Bank of Greece has issued notes for 372,000,000 drachmae, and in January 1918 the Greek Government decided to issue on its own account 30,000,000 dr. in notes of 1 and 2 dr. each against funds held abroad, and has already issued 2,000,000 dr. The total note issue in Greece in the autumn of 1918 was 1,012,000,000 drachmae. The Government hopes to issue Treasury Bills at a maximum rate of 6 per cent. for periods of a few months as an inducement to people with deposits at low rates of interest to take them up; as they will be paid for with banknotes, there would be no fear of depreciation or inflation, since a corresponding amount of notes would be withdrawn from circulation.

The enhanced value of the paper currency has entailed some disadvantage, especially to the exporter. For instance, before the equalization of the two currencies the labour and expense of extracting minerals and placing them on board ship was paid for in paper currency, but when the mineral was sold the price was paid in gold, which the shippers converted into paper currency, realizing in the process a profit of 60 or 70 per cent.

(3) BANKING

1. The most important bank in Greece is the *National Bank of Greece*, established in 1841, with head-quarters in Athens, and 46 branches. It has a capital of £800,000 and pays a dividend of 20 per cent. It is a private institution, but under the supervision of the Govern-

ment. It has the right of issuing currency notes. Its activities are very wide, as it engages in industrial and commercial transactions like the German banks in the East. It has been able to come to the help of the Government on several occasions.

2. The *Ionian Bank* is a British institution, incorporated in 1839, with a capital paid up of £315,000 in £5 shares. Its dividend is 5 per cent. Its head-quarters are in London, and its operations are chiefly in the Ionian Islands, but it also has branches in Athens, the Piraeus, Patras, Tripolitza, and Nauplia. It is still entitled to issue currency notes till 1920.

3. The *Bank of Athens*, established in 1893, has a capital of £2,400,000. Its head-quarters are in Athens, and it has 20 branches. Its operations are confined to banking. The largest shareholders are in France, the chief being the Union Parisienne. The bank was reorganized in 1913, and a French director now practically has the management of it, and another Frenchman has been appointed general inspector. Its dividend varies very much. In 1910 it was 9 per cent., in 1911 $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., in 1912 $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

4. The *Banque d'Orient* was established in 1904. It has a capital of £1,000,000. It is closely connected with the National Bank of Greece, and conducts similar operations. Its dividend varies considerably. In 1910 it was 7·2 per cent., in 1911 5·2 per cent., in 1912 4 per cent.

5. The *Commercial Bank of Greece* is established at Athens, the Piraeus, Preveza, several towns of the Peloponnese (Argos, Nauplia, Patras, Pylos, Pyrgos), and some of the islands.

6. The *Popular Bank of Athens* is established at Athens, the Piraeus, and Salonika.

Other important banks have several branches in particular localities, such as the *Bank of Salonika* and

the *Banque Impériale Ottomane* in Macedonia and the *Bank of Crete* in Crete. The last-named issues currency notes. Besides these there are some 78 private banks throughout Old and New Greece, including 12 each in Athens and Salonika.

X On December 1, 1911, according to official balance sheets, the following amounts were deposited :

	£
National Bank	6,660,000
Ionian Bank	1,720,000
Bank of Athens	5,840,000
Banque d'Orient	1,320,000
Commercial Bank	480,000
Private Savings Banks	264,000
Deposited with various bankers in Greece	3,200,000
Total	<u>19,484,000</u>

CYCLADES AND NORTHERN SPORADES

GENERAL SUMMARY ¹

An estimate of the economic value of the Cyclades and Northern Sporades is rendered difficult by the fact that these islands do not constitute a separate economic entity, being bound up in many ways with the economic life of Greece as a whole, and also by the fact that there do not exist reliable statistics of the production and trade of the islands—a matter in which Greece compares unfavourably with other countries whose independent existence is of much more recent date. Various reasons for this state of affairs are given : probably it is due to the fact that the Greeks were never able to concentrate their energies on the consolidation and

¹ The islands are dealt with individually below, pp. 119 *seqq.*

improvement of a kingdom, so long as it did not include the minimum to which they considered themselves justly entitled; and much of the time which might usefully have been spent on the improvement of internal conditions has been wasted on dreams of extension, which they were only able at last to realize in 1913. Further, matters have not been improved by the system, only recently superseded, under which each change of Government involved a change of the subordinate officials, thus rendering a consistent policy in departmental matters difficult of attainment. Also the Greek's practical ability has been directed rather to the improvement of his private fortune than to the improvement of the financial and economic position of his country.

In this report the economic conditions of these islands are first dealt with collectively; afterwards more detailed particulars are given of the more important of them separately.

MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

A large proportion of the area of the Cyclades and Northern Sporades is of a barren and mountainous or hilly nature: the opportunities for agriculture are restricted, though care is taken with irrigation and some attention is paid to the rotation of crops. There are no good roads except on Syra and one short one on Naxos; indeed roads are hardly necessary, and in many islands they could only be constructed at an expense which could not be justified. The islands are very small, Naxos, the largest, being the only one which exceeds in area the English county of Rutland, and in most instances the distance to the sea is so short that transport by pack-mule, the universal method, is a convenient and very ready means of carrying goods.

In fact, the sea furnishes the only means of communication among the islands.

While each island necessarily has its harbour, and many of these harbours are excellent, there are at the most two ports in the Cyclades, Syra and Zea, which can be considered as commercial ports. Of these Syra alone is of any importance in the foreign trade of the islands, and even there the facilities for dealing with cargo are small. The other harbours are mostly used by small vessels which trade between the islands, and such goods as are destined for foreign ports are transhipped to larger vessels either at Syra or the Piræus.

All the important islands have either direct or indirect means of communication by cable with the mainland and thus with the outside world, and the small Greek steamers running between the Piræus, Syra, and the islands provide a regular means of communication for persons desirous of visiting the islands for any purpose.

INDUSTRY

The main industries of the islands are agriculture, cattle-rearing, and mining, and in Syra alone have branches of manufacture been developed to any extent: particulars of these are given under Syra.

Agriculture.—Most of the systems of agriculture and the implements used are primitive, any extensive development being as a general rule rendered unprofitable by the lack of water in the islands, and by the fact that the configuration of the ground, in those places where the lack of water is less serious, does not lend itself to the employment of modern agricultural machinery. The plains and valleys are cultivated, and many of the mountain-sides are terraced for growing corn and vines. Fruit, vegetables, and tobacco are grown abundantly, the cultivation of the latter being

of recent date. The following islands normally have a surplus of agricultural produce available for export :

<i>Amorgos</i>	.	.	Tobacco, cattle, olive oil, cheese, figs.
<i>Andros</i>	.	.	Citrons, oranges, olives, onions.
<i>Mykonos and Delos</i>	.	.	Barley, sheep.
<i>Naxos</i>	.	.	Citrons, cattle, potatoes, onions.
<i>Paros</i>	.	.	Sheep and cattle.
<i>Pholegandros</i>	.	.	Cattle.
<i>Santorin</i>	.	.	Wine and spirits, tomatoes, beans.
<i>Siphnos</i>	.	.	Olive oil, oranges and citrons.
<i>Syra</i>	.	.	Vegetables, especially tomatoes.
<i>Tenos</i>	.	.	Grapes, figs, melons, vegetables.
<i>Zea</i>	.	.	Barley, valonea, wine, sheep and goats.
<i>Skopelos</i>	.	.	Wine, timber, olives, oil.
<i>Skyros</i>	.	.	Wine, wheat, oranges, citrons, sheep and goats.

Of these the bulk is consumed in the other islands or is sent to the Piraeus, and only tobacco, valonea, and citrons in brine are sent abroad in any quantity, being shipped for foreign ports from Syra.

With the exception of Skiathos in the Northern Sporades the islands are chiefly bare, and forestry as an industry is unknown.

Live-stock.—Statistics for 1912 give the following figures for the Cyclades :

<i>Horses.</i>	<i>Mules.</i>	<i>Donkeys.</i>	<i>Cattle.</i>	<i>Sheep.</i>
220	3,563	9,207	13,665	63,118
<i>Goats.</i>	<i>Pigs.</i>	<i>Fowls.</i>	<i>Geese. &c.</i>	<i>Beehives.</i>
62,093	9,093	57,257	1,447	10,321

Mining.—Geologists state that important deposits of the following minerals are to be found on the islands : iron, lead, copper, zinc (calamine), manganese, magnesite, sulphur, emery, and marble. At various times the majority of the known deposits have been worked, many of the workings being of ancient date. To-day only the following minerals are being worked :

	<i>Annual Output.</i>
	Tons.
<i>Iron—</i>	
At <i>Seriphos</i>	168,000 ¹
At <i>Siphnos</i>	30,000
At <i>Syra</i>	2,500
<i>Emery—</i>	
At <i>Naxos</i>	24,000
<i>Manganese—</i>	
At <i>Melos</i>	4,500
<i>Sulphur—</i>	
At <i>Melos</i>	1,000
<i>Marble—</i>	
At <i>Skyros</i>	3,000
At <i>Tenos</i>	2,500

There is also an export of volcanic cement from Santorin, and of millstones, gypsum, and building stone from other islands.

The absence of any important iron industry in Greece, owing to some extent to the insufficiency of suitable fuel in the country, makes the mining industry dependent on low freights or on a very flourishing condition of the iron industry. In view of the extensive deposits of iron ore in the Cyclades, it is surprising that no effort has as yet been made to establish smelters at some convenient point in the islands or on the coast of Greece.

Possibly some such development may follow upon the exploitation of the coal resources of Greece and Turkey; in the latter country the War has brought about a marked change.

The marble quarrying industry was not in a very good condition before the War, and has been badly hit by it. Most of the important deposits are in the hands of an English company, Grecian Marbles (Marmor), Ltd., which exports marble to all parts of the world. Apart from the quarries at Pentelikon in Attica, whence the largest part of the company's output is

¹ This was probably considerably increased in 1918.

obtained, marble is quarried regularly at Skyros and Tenos and occasionally at Naxos. The quarries at Paros are now nearing exhaustion.

The wages paid in the mining industry are from 5 to 7 drachmae (5 to 7 francs) per day for skilled, and from 3.50 to 4.50 drachmae for unskilled labour. These wages have been very largely increased in 1917-18, in connexion with the general rise of prices.

CYCLADES

AMORGOS

(A) COMMUNICATIONS

(a) *Roads*.—The island has no good roads; such as exist are stony and very irregular. Communication between different parts of the island is therefore very difficult, and is made by mules, of which there are about 75, or by donkeys. There are rough roads from Port Vathy to Khora (Amorgos), from Khora to Aigiali, from Khora to Arkessini, and from Port Vathy to Arkessini.

(b) *Telegraph*.—Port Vathy, Khora, and Aigiali are connected by telegraph.

(c) *Ports*.—There are three good anchorages, Port Vathy, Aigiali, and Kaloterion Bay.

Port Vathy, on the west coast of the island, is a safe little harbour with good holding ground on soft mud. There are no facilities for landing cargo.

Aigiali, on the west coast, is safe except in north-west winds. It affords plenty of room. The best anchorage is on the north side.

Kaloterion Bay, between the islet of Nikuria and the north-west coast of the island, provides a wide anchorage for vessels in deep water with good holding ground. There are no facilities for landing cargo, nor

is there any accommodation ashore. It is only a refuge in bad weather.

The island is visited regularly by Greek coasting steamers.

(d) *Cables*.—There is cable communication with Santorin and Naxos, and an intermittent service *via* Naxos to Syra.

(B) INDUSTRY

The population of Amorgos is about 4,500. The chief occupation of the inhabitants is the cultivation and still more the smuggling of tobacco, and a good number of women and girls are employed in the two tobacco factories at Port Vathy from September to April. The island also produces corn, olives, figs, cotton, and a little wine. A large proportion of the male population are sailors, and there are a good many fishermen. Amorgos men are in general request as masons and builders: their rough stone-walling is excellent. Their reputation as smugglers and cattle thieves is less enviable.

(C) COMMERCE

(a) *Imports*.—The island of Amorgos imports most articles necessary for existence, even wheat, the production of which is not sufficient to last for more than four months.

(b) *Exports*.—The articles exported are:

Tobacco, the chief product of the island, to the extent of 30,000–80,000 okes¹ yearly.

Cattle, sheep, goats, and pigs.

Olive oil, cheese, and dried figs in small quantities.

¹ 1 oke = $2\frac{3}{4}$ lb.

ANDROS

(A) COMMUNICATIONS

(a) *Roads*.—The only road on the island is that from Andros town to Menitas. All other communication is by mule-tracks, which are very rough and are dangerous in bad weather.

There were in the island 116 mules and 821 donkeys at the last animal census.

There are no carts.

(b) *Telegraph and Telephone*.—There is telegraphic communication between Andros, Gavrión, Korthion, Batzi, and Stenokampia, and telephonic communication between Andros and Gavrión.

(c) *Ports*.—*Andros*, or *Kastro*, on the north-east side of the island, though not the safest, is in all respects the best harbour for loading and discharging cargo. The depth of water inside the jetty is 24 feet; steamers up to 6,000 tons can enter the port. There is a pier 200 yards long, but there are no wharves or cranes; unloading and loading is done by means of boats, the limit being about 100 tons per day. In fine weather discharging can be done on the town side of the harbour (at Plakoura), but during the strong north-east gales that frequently occur during the winter months this is impossible, and discharging is done on the inside of the lighthouse jetty or breakwater on the opposite shore.

Korthion, on the east side of the island, has a depth of water of 15–20 feet. Steamers up to 1,600 tons can anchor there. The harbour is rather more sheltered from the north-east gales than that of Andros. Loading and discharging are done by means of boats, the limit being about 80 tons a day.

Gavrión, on the west side of the island, is well protected from all sides except the south, and is the

best and safest harbour of the island. Ships up to 6,000 tons can enter the harbour, which has a depth of 7-9 fathoms. There are no facilities for handling cargo, which must be loaded and discharged by means of boats.

Coasting steamers call frequently at Kastro and Gavriou.

(d) *Cables*.—There are cables to Euboea and Tenos and telephones to Tenos and Syra.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) *Agriculture*.—The island possesses two streams, which do not become dry in summer.

The annual production is approximately as follows :

	<i>Okes.</i>
Onions	242,000
Barley	618,000
Maize	3,500
Other corn	6,000
Beans	4,800
Lemons	25,000,000
Oranges and mandarines	10,000,000

Andros also produces figs, excellent honey, and a little silk. It has to rely on imports for flour, since the local grain production is barely sufficient for feeding the animals. The island is noted for cattle-breeding, and its draught oxen are famous.

(2) *Minerals*.—The island contains manganese and iron ores, but the mines have not been worked for some years.

(3) *Shipping*.—About 40 per cent. of the male population are sailors, and a fleet of about 40 steamers, totalling over 120,000 tons register, is owned by capitalists in the island, and registered there for sentimental reasons, as the whole clan Embirikos is Andriote in origin. In 1907 a company was formed to run large steamers from Greece to America with the object of

capturing the passenger trade of emigrants to the United States and to share in the increasing trade with that country. This company was doing considerable business before the War, and during the War has resisted the efforts of the Government to include it in ordinary shipping control.

(C) COMMERCE

The exports consist chiefly of citrons, other articles of export being oranges, olives, olive oil, &c., which go mainly to Turkey and Russia; fruit preserves, onions, and potatoes are exported to England and other countries. The imports are confined to the necessaries of life and to the luxuries required for the summer residences of the shipowning millionaires.

KIMOLOS

(A) COMMUNICATIONS

(a) *Roads*.—The roads are very rough country roads. All transport is done by means of mules and donkeys, each family having its own. There is no wheeled transport in the island.

(b) *Ports*.—*St. Georgios* (Agios Georgios). This is the only 'harbour' in Kimolos. It lies on the south side, and is named after the island which protects the entrance. The harbour itself is small; the water varies in depth from 7 to almost 12 fathoms. Large ships can anchor a little to the north at Bogazi between the islands of Kimolos and Polinos. There are no landing facilities.

Agios Minas, a small bay on the east coast of the island, facing south-east, with a greatest depth of 6 fathoms, and width of opening about 130 yards, broadening out to 300, affords good shelter to sailing craft in winter gales from the west, north-west, and

north. There is a small pier 104 feet in length by 4 feet wide.

Kimolos has no wharves or other conveniences for handling cargo.

Communication with the mainland, &c., is by sailing craft and the weekly mail steamer. There are ten caiques belonging to the island.

(c) *Cables*.—There is cable communication from Kimolos town to the island of Melos and thence to Siphnos, Syra, and beyond.

(B) INDUSTRY

The chief industry of the island is shipping. In addition to this, wheat, barley, pulse, wine, and oil are produced in small quantities. Sponge-fishing has at times been carried on near the island.

Kimolos is stated to be rich in minerals, notably silver-lead, zinc, kaolin, fuller's earth (called in ancient times Kimolian earth), manganese and iron ores, but no serious steps have yet been taken to exploit them. In Roman times it possessed silver mines.

A small amount of soft stone is quarried and exported to the Piraeus and other ports of Greece for building purposes.

KYTHNOS (THERMIA)

(A) COMMUNICATIONS

(a) *Roads*.—There are no roads, the two villages on the island, Thermia and Sillaka, being connected with each other and with the ports by rough tracks. Transport is done by means of pack-mules or donkeys.

(b) *Telegraph*.—The two villages are connected by telegraph.

(c) *Ports*.—*Port Irene*, on the east coast, is the harbour most used, but is not a safe harbour for large vessels. With the exception of an aerial rope-way used

for loading iron ore, there are no facilities for handling cargo. The hot baths from which the island takes its alternative name of Thermia are at this harbour, but are much out of repair. The waters are stated to be efficacious for rheumatic and scrofulous complaints.

Coasting steamers call three times a week at Port Irene.

Port St. Stephanos, on the east coast of the island, lies south-west of Cape St. John. The harbour faces south and contains a good anchorage in 5–20 fathoms. This port is used for loading iron ore, when the mines in the neighbourhood are worked, and is reported to have a light railway leading to it from the mines.

(*d*) *Cables*.—Kythnos is connected by cable with Seriphos and also with the mainland *via* Keos.

(B) INDUSTRY

Kythnos produces corn, barley, wine, cheese, wax, and honey, and has upon it some pigs, goats, and sheep. Its mules, which are said to be excellent, are exported. The only industry of any importance in the island is the mining of iron ore from two mines near Port St. Stephanos and from a third mine near Port Irene. The mines have apparently not been worked very recently.

MELOS (MILO)

(A) COMMUNICATIONS

(*a*) *Roads*.—A road, partly metalled, runs north-east from Adamas, but is not available for wheeled traffic for any distance. Transport is done by mules.

(*b*) *Telegraph*.—There is a telegraph between Plaka and Adamas.

(*c*) *Ports*.—The port of the island is Adamas, which is situated on its north-west side. The village is on the north side of a large inlet extending to the south-east,

with a breadth of a mile at the entrance and widening to 2 miles at its head. The bay affords accommodation for a large number of vessels, and is much frequented by vessels going east when they are unable to proceed owing to gales from the north or north-east, but it is exposed to north and north-west winds, and small craft have to anchor off the village under a lee shore. There is good anchorage in 10–25 fathoms. There is a narrow jetty 400 yards long, but the water is too shallow alongside for large vessels to use it, and loading and unloading are done from boats.

Coasting steamers call regularly at Plaka.

(d) *Cables*.—Melos is connected by cable with Siphnos, and thence with the rest of the world.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) *Agriculture*.—The valleys and low grounds are extremely fertile and produce corn, oil, wine, oranges, and other fruit, and some cotton. No agricultural produce is exported, as a large portion of the male population is engaged in mining and quarrying, and the produce grown is not sufficient for the needs of the inhabitants.

A good kind of donkey is bred in the island, and there is good pasturage for cattle.

(2) *Minerals*.—The island produces and exports sulphur, manganese, millstones, and a little gypsum. Salt, alum, and china clay are also found. The manganese is found chiefly near Cape Pharkovani, where there is an ore-dressing plant with a 30-h.p. engine, and a narrow-gauge railway from the mine to a small pier, from which the ore is loaded. There are several hot springs, one of which is frequented by people suffering from scrofulous complaints.

The following are recent figures of exports :

	1904.	1905.	1906.	1909.	1910.	1911.	1912.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Sulphur	3,882	3,000	6,402	—	—	—	—
Manganese	7,764	7,000	11,266	6,529	200	220	980
Gypsum	194	121	109	40	80	146	150
Millstones	1,323	1,250	6,547	890	1,200	784	1,000

The manganese is chiefly exported to England ; gypsum, sulphur, and millstones to Greece and Turkey. The sulphur is inferior to that of Sicily as a preventive of vine disease, since it contains a large percentage of earth.

There are no other exports. The only imports are the necessaries of life.

MYKONOS

(including Great and Small Delos)

(A) COMMUNICATIONS

(a) *Roads*.—The roads are steep and impracticable for any kind of cart, and only serve as means of communication between the different small farms and to Ano Meria.

No carts or any other kind of ear are found in the island. 50 mules and about 200 donkeys serve as means of transport.

(b) *Ports*.—*Port Mykonos* (Kamenaki), on the west side of the island, is protected by a breakwater of 200 yards in length and 4 yards in breadth, constructed of granite, which serves also as a pier for the sailing vessels. The depth alongside is 12 feet at most, owing to the irregular placing of the blocks. Steamers anchor in the centre of the harbour. Not far from the breakwater there is a small wharf for the use of the rowing-boats and fishing craft. The port is a trading centre of some importance.

No crane or other means of handling cargo exists in the island.

In addition to the port of Mykonos there are three other landing-places, viz. the bay of Orno, which is used as an anchorage for sailing vessels during rough weather, the port of Meria, where fishing craft and sailing vessels sometimes anchor, and the small bay of Torlou (13 fathoms), where steamers can anchor during rough weather.

There is a regular service of coasting steamers.

(c) *Telegraphic and telephonic communications.*—Mykonos is connected by cable with Syra through Tenos, and by telephone with Great and Small Delos.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) *Agriculture.*—Mykonos is for the most part rocky, and huge blocks of granite are strewn over the hills, but patches of cultivated ground are to be found throughout the island. The principal products are barley, beans, hay, lambs and sheep, poultry, eggs, and potatoes. There are about 25 windmills used for grinding the barley, a large proportion of which is exported to different islands.

The following is an estimate of the annual production of Mykonos and Delos :

Barley	20,000 bushels
Beans	30,000 okes
Potatoes	5,000 „
Onions	8,000 „

(2) *Minerals.*—There are deposits of silver-lead and manganese ores in the island, and at one time the silver-lead deposits at Ano Meria were worked by a French company, and produced annually about 30,000–40,000 tons of ore containing a high percentage of silver. The quality of the ore recovered deteriorated after a few years' working, and ultimately the enterprise was abandoned. The manganese ore is stated to contain a large

percentage of silica. It is exported chiefly to Great Britain and Belgium.

(3) *Shipping, &c.*—About 50 per cent. of the male population are sailors, and there are about 30 sailing vessels varying from 10 to 60 tons belonging to the island. It is stated that the fishing industry is of importance.

NAXOS

(A) COMMUNICATIONS

(a) *Roads.*—There is only one carriage road, that between Naxia and Sangri, 10 km. in length. The usual rough mule-tracks are the only communications between the different villages.

Transport is nearly all done by pack-animals. The approximate number of mules is about 680, and there are about 3,000 donkeys. The owners of the emery mines possess 6 small one-horse carts, which are used for the transport of emery from Sangri to Naxia; most of the emery, however, goes to Moutsouna on the west coast, close below the mines.

(b) *Telegraph.*—There is telegraphic communication between the town of Naxia and the following villages: Sangri, Tripodes, Apeiranthos, Vothri, and Komiaki.

(c) *Ports.*—Naxos port has an unfinished breakwater with 7–10 fathoms immediately within it, but the water shoals in front of the town. It is safe in all weather for small vessels, but large steamers cannot ride at anchor in shore. (The sailing directories and Admiralty chart are obsolete.) In Prokopi Bay, which lies south of the most western point of the island, an anchorage, which is protected from the north, is considered safer, but large vessels cannot use it in winter, as the storms veer to south and south-west. There are safe anchorages on the south side of the island.

Coasting steamers visit the island regularly.

(d) *Cables*.—Naxos is in cable communication with Paros, Nios, and Amorgos.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) *Agriculture*.—Naxos is the largest and most fertile of the Cyclades, but, owing to the more profitable occupation of mining emery, does not produce sufficient for the needs of the inhabitants.

The island produces olives, oranges, pomegranates, figs, and lemons in the valleys which are well watered. The barley grown is only sufficient for 6 months' local consumption. The cultivation of potatoes and onions has been greatly stimulated by the military demands of Salonika, and the lack of cereals and foreign flour in the Piraeus. As much as 2,000,000 okes of potatoes were exported in 1918.

(2) *Minerals*.—Besides emery-mining there is some intermittent quarrying of marble, granite, and serpentine. The emery is a Government monopoly, and the peasants look upon the right to mine it as their own hereditary privilege. The State does not exercise any effective control over the mining, confining its supervision to the inspection and approval of the quality of the mineral offered for export, with the result that considerable waste takes place at the mines. Some of the best emery is abandoned, and some is covered over with rubbish. Under the French military control in 1918 the state of things has much improved. The deposits are stated by De Launay to contain not less than 5,000,000 tons varying from 5 to 50 metres in thickness. The hardness of the mineral is such that blasting is the only way by which it can be mined. The chief centres of mining are Apeiranthos and Koronis. The industry employs about 1,000 workmen. The yearly output was formerly about 8,000 tons, but since

1914 it has increased to about 15,000 tons, and was expected to amount to 24,000 in 1918. The demand for emery has been greatly stimulated by the development of metallurgical industry in the United States. The cost of the emery exported is increased by the fact that any that is found on arrival at Syra to be of inferior quality is destroyed, though it has been paid for by the Government. The revenue derived from the sale of Naxos emery is allocated to the International Finance Commission.

The number of metric tons of Naxos emery exported from Syra in the years 1910-14, and the value in pounds sterling, were as follows :

1910.	1911.	1912.	1913.	1914.
12,589	9,863	7,687	1,140	6,877
£53,620	£42,016	£32,749	£6,130	£29,288

The extremely low figures in 1913 were due to the mines being closed by reason of strikes.

The export of emery in 1914 was thus distributed :

	<i>Tons.</i>	£
U.S.A.	3,723	15,860
United Kingdom	1,300 ¹	5,538
Holland	1,120	4,771
Germany	542	2,309
Italy	110	469
Tunis	62	256
Austria-Hungary	20	85
Total	<u>6,877</u>	<u>29,288</u>

(C) COMMERCE

The annual exports, in addition to the emery, are approximately :

3,500 cattle and 1,000 barrels or 200,000 okes of citrons.

¹ There were also exported to the United Kingdom 38 tons of ground emery (valued at £380) produced by the local grinding factory. The export of ground emery is exceptional.

A large number of oranges and mandarines are exported to Syra and Athens. The emery produced from the mines was, until recently, transported to the Government depot in Syra in small sailing vessels, but steamers are now used.

PAROS AND ANTIPAROS

(A) COMMUNICATIONS

(a) *Roads*.—There are no roads in the island ; rough mule-tracks form the sole internal means of communication.

(b) *Ports*.—*Paroikia*, a town of about 2,700 inhabitants on the north-west coast, has an anchorage in 6–14 fathoms of water on mud, but this is not suitable for big ships and is uncomfortable in a west wind. The best berth lies north of the town of *Paroikia* at the head of the bay, where there are two small piers. There is a dangerous reef in the middle.

Naussa, at the north end of the island, lies at the head of a bay of that name, and is one of the best ports of the Cyclades, being large enough to contain a considerable number of ships in 4–7 fathoms of water ; near the shore the water is shallow. There are no facilities for handling cargo. The town at the head of the bay has about 1,300 inhabitants, and it is stated to be unhealthy. The port has a bad entrance, and is an unsuitable harbour in a north wind.

Despotiko (between the island of that name and *Antiparos*) is a safe anchorage in 2–10 fathoms of water, but is of no value commercially.

Coasting steamers call regularly at *Paros*. Big vessels keep clear of it.

(c) *Cables*.—*Paros* is connected by cable with *Syra*, *Siphnos*, and *Naxos*.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) *Agriculture*.—The island is fertile, but imperfectly cultivated. It has very few trees. Wine, barley and wheat, citrons, honey, and cheese are produced, and large quantities of potatoes have been grown in 1917 and 1918. The best wine is a heavy, sweet kind that will keep. There are a considerable number of sheep, oxen, goats, and donkeys.

(2) *Minerals*.—The marble quarries have been famous since ancient times. The surface marble has all been quarried long ago, and to-day the works are underground. The best quarries are in the neighbourhood of Paroikia. In recent years little work has been done, and the small railway, which was formerly used to bring marble down to the port of Paroikia, has now been sold and removed. Magnesite and pyrolusite have been found in Paros. There are considerable deposits of iron ore in Antiparos, but these have not been regularly worked; a little calamine has been mined there intermittently.

PHOLEGANDROS (POLYKANDRO)

(A) COMMUNICATIONS

(a) *Roads*.—The 'ports' are connected with the villages by means of rough and narrow roads. Mules and donkeys, of which there are about 120 in the island, are used for transporting goods. The best and most frequented road is that leading from Karavostasi port to the two villages.

(b) *Ports*.—There are two ports, Karavostasi and Angali, at which steamers can load and discharge their cargoes.

Karavostasi, on the east coast of the island, is the best and most convenient port. There is a lighthouse at the entrance to the bay. The depth of the water varies

from 5 to 16 fathoms near the small pier. Loading and unloading is done by small boats. The harbour is not safe in any winds but south-west, west, and north-west. The entrance is not easy to make in bad weather.

Angali lies on the south coast. Small steamers can shelter here from northerly gales. The waters are clear, and vary in depth from 5 to 20 fathoms. Loading and discharging are done by means of small boats; there are no conveniences for handling cargo, and only one or two huts in sight. Coasting steamers call regularly at the island.

(c) *Telegraphic and telephonic communication.*—Pholegandros is connected by telegraph and telephone with Sikinos and Ios.

(B) INDUSTRY

The island produces annually about 2,500 kg. of wheat, about 9,000 kg. of barley, and a very little pulse. A small quantity of oil and vegetables is produced for home consumption only, and a fair amount of cream cheese (*misithra*) is made in the spring, most of which is consumed locally. None of these products, however, suffices for the needs of the inhabitants.

Some sheep and cattle are raised. Cattle are exported to the adjoining islands to the value of 9,000–15,000 drachmae per annum. Pholegandros abounds in game. There are no manufactures.

SANTORIN (THERA)

(A) COMMUNICATIONS

(a) *Roads.*—There are no roads worthy of the name. The usual mule-tracks form the only internal means of communication. The town communicates with the port by a stone staircase 800 feet down the cliff.

(b) *Ports.*—There is no good port; the island is

semicircular in shape, and is part of the crater of a submarine volcano, which has been active at various times from 197 B. C. down to A. D. 1894. The circle is completed by the smaller island of Therasia with entrances 1-1½ miles wide to the north and south-west. The island is 'steep-to' except on the east side. There are three landing-places—one below the town of Thera in the centre of the west coast of the island, with a depth of 100 fathoms in shore, and giving very fair shelter in bad weather, a second at Athenous Bay about two miles farther south, and a third near the north end below Epano Meria village. There is frequent communication with all the islands by means of Greek and Turkish steamers.

(c) *Cables*.—The island is connected by cable with the islands of Nios (for Syra and beyond) and Anaphe.

(B) INDUSTRY

The inhabitants are industrious and comparatively prosperous.

(1) *Agriculture*.—The soil, which in most parts of the island consists of decomposed pumice-stone, is fertile and carefully cultivated, more especially in the southern and south-eastern parts of the island. The chief branch of agriculture is the cultivation of vines for the production of wine, which forms the chief item on the export list. The wine produced is white or red, and is known as Malmsey or Malvoisy, a claret of good quality which will keep. There is also a muscat wine (like a Madeira) which mostly went to Russia before the war. Some cotton, corn, beans, and tomatoes are grown. Preserved tomatoes are exported, and this branch of trade is on the increase. The tomato paste is in great demand throughout the Levant.

(2) *Minerals*.—A considerable quantity of volcanic cement (*pozzolana*) is shipped in normal years, and the

mining and preparation of this forms an important industry. It is obtained also from the neighbouring island of Therasia. It is much in request for hydraulic works. It is exported to Great Britain, Rumania, Austria, Turkey, Malta, and Egypt.

A small quantity of pumice-stone is shipped in normal years.

(3) *Shipping*.—A few vessels and a number of small craft belong to the island. These usually shelter in the creeks of Kaimeni, the volcanic island in the middle of the bay. A mineral spring flows into a creek here, and is extraordinarily efficacious in cleaning copper-sheathed vessels from fouling. The process only takes 3–4 days.

(C) COMMERCE

Annexed are figures (approximate only) of the trade and shipping of the island from 1911 to 1914 taken from British Consular Reports :

	<i>Exports.</i>			
	1911.	1912.	1913.	1914.
	£	£	£	£
Wine	30,500	27,517	29,500	31,628
Cement	6,541	6,770	4,267	5,099
Tomato paste	3,521	4,920	8,016	9,012
Beans	2,414	2,698	3,212	4,016
Tartar	1,147	1,156	555	686
Cognac	680	652	414	506
Pumice-stone	634	800	160	960
Miscellaneous	—	48	424	103
Total exports	45,437	44,561	46,548	52,010
	<i>Imports.</i>			
Chiefly flour, rice, coffee, sugar, wood, and fish	12,808	11,547	6,831	18,710
	<i>Ships entered and cleared.</i>			
	513	433	348	433

(D) FINANCE

Banking.—The National Bank of Greece has a branch in the island.

SERIPHOS

(A) COMMUNICATIONS

There are no roads.

(a) *Telegraph*.—The towns of Seriphos and Livadion are connected by telegraph.

(b) *Ports*.—The old port is *Livadion (Livadhi)*, on the south-east side of the island, at the head of a small inlet which runs north for about $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles and is nearly one-third of a mile wide. The water is deep, but at the head of the port an anchorage with a depth of 8–12 fathoms on sand and weed is good in any weather. There is a small loading-berth with a minimum depth of 21 feet, which is used for loading iron ore: the rate of loading is about 570 tons per day. There is safe anchorage for about four steamers at one time. Besides this a small creek on the south-west coast, surrounded by iron-mines, holds one steamer at a time, and is safe except in south-west and west winds. It has a Decauville railway and shoots for direct loading. There is an open bay on the south coast, where there are iron-mines; it is safe for fairly large steamers except in south and south-west winds. The island is regularly visited by Greek coasting steamers.

(c) *Cables*.—The port of Livadion is connected by cable with the islands of Kythnos and Siphnos.

(B) INDUSTRY

The island has no rivers and is generally sterile. A small amount of corn, wine, and onions is produced, but it is insufficient for the needs of the inhabitants, and many of the necessaries of life are imported. The bulk of the male population are either employed in the iron-ore mines or are sailors. The mines are in the hands of a French company. The annexed particulars

of the export of iron ore from Seriphos from 1910 to 1913 are obtained from British Consular Reports:

<i>Destination.</i>	1910. <i>tons.</i>	1911. <i>tons.</i>	1912. <i>tons.</i>	1913. <i>tons.</i>
Austria	37,780	52,200	41,550	44,060
France	—	6,400	—	—
Germany	4,350	28,350	38,160	30,400
United Kingdom	107,170	91,105	80,630	85,060
United States	9,560	6,400	—	9,200
Total	158,860	184,455	160,340	168,720

Magnesite has been found on the island, but is not worked.

SIPHNOS

(A) COMMUNICATIONS

(a) *Transport.*—There are no roads in the island. The only means of transport is by animals, for the irregularity of the ground does not permit the use of carts. The island has 110 mules (according to the conscription catalogue) and about 200 donkeys.

(b) *Telephone.*—The capital of the island, Apollonia (Stavro), is connected by telephone with the villages of Artemon, Kamara, and Kastro.

(c) *Ports.*—Kamara, a narrow inlet on the west side of the island, one hour distant from the capital, is the most important harbour of the island, but can only accommodate four small steamers at one time, and these should remain at all times under steam. In this harbour there exists one small breakwater about 30 yards long and about 4 yards in width. There are Decauville tracks for direct loading from the iron-mines.

There are five other anchorages on the island, but these have no value, as they are exposed to all weathers, and nothing whatever has been done to provide any protection.

Coasting steamers call at the island once a week.

(d) *Cables.*—Siphnos is connected by telegraph from

Kastro with Seriphos (and so with Athens), Melos, and Paros, and by telephone with Kimolos, and thence with Melos.

(B) INDUSTRY

The inhabitants, who numbered 3,777 in 1907, are described as industrious. The climate is healthy and the soil fertile and well watered, and some agriculture is carried on. The following are the chief products:

Olive oil	About 150,000	okes	annually
Barley	60,000	„	„
Peas	25,000	„	„
Figs	20,000	„	„
Grapes	100,000	„	„
Potatoes	10,000	„	„
Onions	20,000	„	„
Oranges and citrons	200,000	pieces	..

The island also produces cattle and poultry.

There are iron-mines in the north of the island, at which about 200 workmen are employed, and which are being actively worked at the present time. There was an output of 13,302 tons of iron, and 3,939 tons of manganese iron in 1914. There were also gold-mines in ancient times.

In addition there are small industries in rough pottery, and in the manufacture of straw hats of a primitive kind. Many Siphniotes work abroad as cooks and restaurant-keepers.

(C) COMMERCE

Olive oil, oranges and citrons, straw hats, pottery, and iron ore are exported.

SYRA (SYROS)

(A) COMMUNICATIONS

(a) *Roads.*—Syra possesses three roads, one connecting the harbour of Hermoupolis and the town of Syra with Della Grazia, having branches to various

country resorts, another going north along the east coast, and a third west to Episkopi ($3\frac{1}{2}$ km.). The roads are not, however, of any great value commercially.

There are no railways, and the streams in the island are of no commercial value.

(b) *Telegraph*.—There is telegraphic communication between Hermoupolis, Syra, St. Georgios, and Poseidonia.

(c) *Ports*.—The port of Syra, which is also called Hermoupolis, on the east side of the island, lies at the head of a small bay. It is protected on the north side by a small peninsula projecting south, which has been prolonged by a mole 430 yards in length. The depth at the entrance is from 14 to 19 fathoms, and alongside the mole from 5 to 14 fathoms. Steamers of 20-ft. draught can lie at the head of the harbour; larger vessels must anchor farther out. A low quay with numerous warehouses extends round the head of the harbour and has a maximum depth of $5\frac{1}{2}$ feet alongside. There are also several wooden piers, but cargoes are loaded and discharged by means of lighters. The harbour craft consist of 1 tug and about 60 lighters ranging from 10 to 160 tons. On the quay are 1 steam-crane and 5 hand-cranes. The Compagnie des Forges et Chantiers de Syra is equipped with up-to-date machinery and can effect important repairs to hulls and machinery under the supervision of a Lloyd's surveyor, and also possesses two hydraulic slips, of which one is capable of taking vessels up to 2,500 tons and the other small craft up to 600 tons. This yard has done much useful work for patrol vessels during the war and is now thoroughly organized. The town is modern in style, possesses some paved streets, a handsome square, and two hospitals, and is lighted by electricity.

All the important European countries have Consular

representatives resident at the town, and there is a Lloyd's agent.

(d) *Shipping*.—Annexed are approximate statistics showing the share of some of the chief European countries in the total shipping of the port of Syra for the period 1912–14. In 1912 there was a total of 1,967 vessels with a tonnage of 1,069,207 tons; in 1913 a total of 1,673 with a tonnage of 860,992 tons; in 1914 a total of 1,932 with a tonnage of 821,746 tons. The totals include a very large number of Greek steamers and small Greek and Turkish¹ sailing vessels.

Nationality.	1912.		1913.		1914.	
	No. of Vessels.	Tonnage.	No. of Vessels.	Tonnage.	No. of Vessels.	Tonnage.
British . . .	92	163,236	64	111,184	60	110,871
Austro-Hungarian	83	146,249	77	133,874	32	61,208
French . . .	36	71,925	4	7,693	1	1,447
Italian ² . . .	37	10,644	57	22,774	142	18,548
German . . .	25	40,791	11	21,551	17	29,843
Dutch . . .	1	1,456	2	1,731	2	3,010

Founded in 1821 by refugees from Khios, Syra (Her-moupolis) was during the nineteenth century a port of the first importance in the eastern Mediterranean, and served as the emporium for a large proportion of the trade not only of the Aegean Islands, but also of Greece proper and the eastern Mediterranean. In recent years, however, the port of the Piraeus has risen in importance to such an extent that it has now taken the place of Syra, and the trade of the latter port has consequently shown a steady decline. There are, however, still a large number of lines engaged in the trade of the eastern Mediterranean which call regularly at Syra. The following are the most important:

The *Cunard Line* from Liverpool to Patras, Corfu,

¹ i. e. Greek-owned vessels registered at Smyrna, Mytilene, Rhodes, Samos, &c.

² Including sailing vessels.

and the eastern Mediterranean, calling monthly at Syra.

The *Moss Line* from Liverpool *via* Gibraltar, Malta, and Syra, to the Black Sea, calling monthly.

The *Ellerman Line*, fortnightly from Liverpool to Syra, Smyrna, and Constantinople.

The *Messageries Maritimes*, fortnightly from Marseilles to Patras, Syra, Salonika, and the Black Sea.

The *Deutsche Levante Linie*, monthly from Hamburg and Rotterdam to Malta, Syra, and Syrian ports.

The *Austrian Lloyd Steam Navigation Company*, fortnightly from Trieste *via* Corfu, Patras, and Syra to the Black Sea.

In addition there are many Smyrna and Constantinople steamers, engaged in the island trade, which call at Hermoupolis with cargo for trans-shipment and take goods destined for the Aegean Islands coming from more distant ports, and a similar trade is done by the vessels owned locally. Greek steamers maintain communication with the Piraeus and with the other Cyclades, and a line of steamers from Smyrna (Greek owned and under the American flag before the War) calls twice a week.

(e) *Cable and Wireless Communication*.—There are cables of the Eastern Telegraph Co. between Syra and the following places: Egypt, Malta, the Piraeus (3 cables), Crete, Kythnos, Khios (2), Paros, and Tenos. There is also a wireless station (installed by the Greek Government in 1913) near the port of Hermoupolis which is capable of communicating with Salonika, Tenedos, and Lemnos.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) *Agriculture*.—The agriculture of Syra is of increasing commercial importance. There is a large cultivation of vegetables, especially of tomatoes and egg-plant, in places remote from the town, which is on

the dry east side of the island. Vegetables from Syra reach the early market of Athens, and travel as far as Marseilles, Constantinople, and Egypt. A certain amount of the necessaries of life is produced, the tillage being largely in the hands of women, but the production of the island is supplemented by large imports of meat, corn, &c., from other islands and from the Black Sea. The methods of agriculture employed have hitherto been primitive, but are improving rapidly. Agriculture is handicapped by the extreme scarcity of water, which is a characteristic of the Cyclades, and in many islands renders it necessary for the inhabitants to husband the rainfall with great care.

(2) *Shipping, Shipbuilding, &c.*—No statistics are available to show what proportion of the population is engaged in the shipping industry, but, in addition to numerous sailing-vessels, there are registered at the port 49 steamers of a total tonnage of 114,000, 22 of which are over 2,000 tons. Upwards of £1,000,000 is invested in the shipping industry, and there are two important lines which make Hermoupolis their headquarters, viz. the Société Hellénique de Navigation à Vapeur and the Nea Hellenike Atmoploia.

Shipbuilding is conducted on a small scale, the vessels built being all wooden sailing-ships of not more than 300 tons register. When times are good, as many as 20 vessels are built in a year. The wood used is imported mainly from Constantinople and Volo.

The ship-repairing industry, carried out by the Compagnie des Forges et Chantiers de Syra, has already been noticed. About 100 men are employed by this company.

(3) *Textiles.*—There are 8 important cotton-mills in the island, which employ altogether about 3,000 hands, chiefly women and girls, and consume from 1,200 to 1,500 tons of raw cotton annually. In addition

there are several small mills engaged in the same manufacture. The cotton is imported mainly from America, though Greek, Turkish, and, above all, Cyprus cotton has in recent years been introduced with satisfactory results. The manufactures, which are of a rough, simple kind, and are sold in Syra and the Greek kingdom, consist of rough heavy cloth, towels, prints, and handkerchiefs.

(4) *Leather*.—This industry was formerly one of considerable importance, but in recent years it has suffered from competition which has grown up in Greece and Turkey. There are eleven tanneries (all at Hermoupolis), which do a steady business. The hides are imported from America; the finished goods are sold locally and in Greece.

(5) *Gunpowder*.—A factory owned by the Société Hellénique de Poudreries et Produits chimiques, equipped with up-to-date machinery and drawing its raw materials from Genoa and Hamburg, was established at Azolimnos, about 6 miles from Syra. It is capable of an output of one ton per diem, but has not been working for some time.

(6) *Minerals*.—A certain amount of mining has been done at some of the five iron-ore mines on the island, two of which are leased to an Austrian company. Difficulties arise, however, in regard to titles, and only insignificant quantities of the mineral have been exported, the average for the period 1904–13 being under 3,000 tons per annum. The mines were not worked in 1912–14, and have fallen into disrepair.

(7) *Other industries* include a flour-mill, a macaroni factory, an emery-crushing factory, a rope factory, some distilleries, a vegetable oil factory, a glass factory, and the manufacture of furniture, tobacco, and confectionery—the Turkish delight (loukoumi) manufactured in Syra is famous throughout the Aegean. In addition,

the selection and packing of citrons in brine (in which there is a considerable trade) is done at Syra, the citrons being imported chiefly from Crete and Naxos.

(C) COMMERCE

Owing to the lack of trustworthy statistics for the commerce of the Cyclades it is difficult to arrive at any safe estimate of the value of their trade. None of the returns, moreover, give any particulars of the quantity and value of the imports and exports of the different articles of commerce, so that it is impossible to gauge accurately how far any particular branch of trade is increasing. Annexed are tables giving the total estimated export and import trade of Syra for the period 1911-14, and showing the principal foreign countries engaged in trade with it. It must not, however, be assumed that the figures given represent the trade of the island of Syra alone, as a considerable part of the merchandise exported and imported through Syra comes from or is destined for the other islands of the Cyclades, and also other islands of the Aegean. It is more correct, therefore, to look upon the figures as a rough guide to the trade of the Cyclades as a whole. It will be seen that the United Kingdom has always had and still holds the bulk of the import trade (averaging over 40 per cent. of the trade for the period), and also a large share in the export trade.

The principal imports are coal, hides, grain, cotton, textiles, chemicals, tissues, salt fish, iron, sugar, and coffee. The principal exports to foreign countries are Naxos emery, citrons in brine, iron ore, tobacco, vegetables, and confectionery. There is also a large export to Greece of cotton yarns and cloth, leather, vegetables, and loukoumi (Turkish delight). Of the imports Great Britain has almost a monopoly in the

supply of coal; hides are imported from Great Britain, India, the United States and France, textiles from Great Britain, France, and Italy, grain from Russia and the United States, chemicals from Great Britain, Germany, and Austria, tissues from Belgium, Austria, Germany, France, and Italy, iron and hardware from Great Britain, Belgium, Germany, and Austria, sugar from Austria, and coffee from France. Of the exports Great Britain takes iron ore, emery, citrons in brine, wine, tobacco, sponges, vegetable oil, and fruit; the United States, emery and citrons in brine, and the other countries chiefly emery and iron ore.

There is a Chamber of Commerce in Syra.

The following table shows the trade of Syra in 1911 with foreign countries (including the recent acquisitions of the Greek kingdom):

<i>Imports.</i>	<i>Drachmae.</i>
Agricultural products	1,019,556
Animal products (meat, cheese, hides, eggs)	1,243,955
Chemical products	292,880
Firewood and other forestry products	159,192
Fishery products	229,627
Furniture and objects made of wood	8,220
Glass and pottery manufactures	59,325
Hempen and straw goods	110,667
Leather and leather goods	30,074
Living animals	14,470
Machinery. &c.	192,035
Minerals unworked (including coal)	2,804,034
Musical and scientific instruments	4,550
Oils and oleaginous products	5,849
Paper, printed books, &c.	57,049
Sugar and confectionery	159,832
Timber	158,909
Tissues	1,561,979
Vegetable dyes and tanning materials	150,762
Wines, spirits, &c.	3,468
Miscellaneous	44,296
Total	8,310,729

<i>Exports.</i>	<i>Drachmae.</i>
Agricultural products	1,032,306
Animal products	80,450
Chemical products	502,282
Confectionery (loukoumi)	146,137
Emery	1,101,708
Iron	3,778,200
Leather and leather goods	7,864
Machinery, &c.	6,100
Marble	18,632
Tissues	52,510
Wines and spirits	2,100
Miscellaneous	3,000
Total	6,731,289

VALUES OF EXPORTS¹ FROM SYRA, 1911-14, DISTINGUISHING
PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES

<i>Country of Destination.</i>	1911.	1912.	1913.	1914.
	£	£	£	£
United Kingdom	11,411	8,061	7,403	8,003
Austria-Hungary	5,613	7,410	6,807	5,606
Bulgaria	1,205	1,409	—	1,148
Egypt	3,029	3,406	4,809	3,529
France	9,606	11,216	9,809	8,817
Germany	5,813	4,831	5,010	3,217
Italy	4,685	5,089	5,809	5,008
Malta (for orders)	13,027	17,435	17,606	19,230
Russia	169	1,429	514	1,209
Turkey	5,260	3,417	—	1,021
United States	9,605	10,206	9,806	10,006
Other Countries	10,118	3,731	7,303	897
Total	79,541	77,640	74,876	67,691

¹ Exports of iron ore and emery are not included in the figures.

VALUES OF IMPORTS¹ TO SYRA, 1911-14, DISTINGUISHING
PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES

<i>Country of Origin.</i>	1911.	1912.	1913.	1914.
	£	£	£	£
United Kingdom	180,882	146,162	152,610	142,009
Austria-Hungary	27,009	29,805	29,689	29,609
Bulgaria	4,726	6,005	1,230	4,410
Egypt	2,807	1,646	1,450	10,006
France	34,807	31,402	33,086	34,006
Germany	23,809	19,009	16,687	18,009
Italy	8,407	11,207	12,629	13,604
Rumania	128	170	86	494
Russia	16,706	15,231	7,223	8,826
Turkey	25,112	8,205	1,409	4,806
United States	31,205	24,034	13,150	23,634
Other countries	18,909	13,814	14,693	16,122
Total	<u>374,507</u>	<u>306,690</u>	<u>283,942</u>	<u>305,535</u>

(D) FINANCE

Banking.—The following large banks have branches at Syra: the National Bank of Greece, the Bank of Athens, the Ionian Bank, and the Commercial Bank of Greece. There are also four small banks established there.

TENOS

(A) COMMUNICATIONS

(a) *Roads.*—There are no roads on the island, but only very rough mule-tracks.

(b) *Ports.*—Tenos (or St. Nicolas) on the south-west side of the island has two breakwaters, which afford protection in all except westerly winds. The entrance to the harbour is about a cable wide, and the depth varies from 1½ to 5 fathoms. It is not suitable for large vessels. There is frequent steamer communication with Syra, Andros, and the other Cyclades.

Port Panormos, on the north-east side of the island, possesses a secure anchorage for small vessels. The

¹ Coal from the United Kingdom is not included in these figures.

marble obtained from the large quarries in the neighbourhood is loaded from a small port south-east of this harbour, where there are two jetties each equipped with a crane.

(c) *Cables*.—The island is connected by cable with Andros, Syra, and Mykonos.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) *Agriculture*.—A considerable amount of barley is grown, as well as fruit and vegetables, and two kinds of wine are produced. Tobacco has been recently introduced. Some silk is also produced and is manufactured locally into stockings, &c. It is stated that grapes, figs, melons, and vegetables are exported, but no statistics are available. The inhabitants have a good reputation for industry. Small terraced fields cover the hill-sides everywhere except in the extreme north-west and on the north-east coast. Barley and vines are grown in these fields, and large numbers of fig-trees are planted along the terrace-walls. Horses, mules, and oxen are raised; the mules are excellent.

(2) *Marble Quarrying*.—The marble quarries of Tenos are important. They are owned and worked by an English company, Grecian Marble (Marmor), Ltd., and marble of all kinds, black, white, and green, is obtained. The machinery is up to date, including helicoidal wire-sawing plant, driving engines, cranes, and a light railway. The company ceased working during the War; before the War about 2,500 tons of marble were exported annually in the shape of slabs, tombstones, &c., and about 200 workmen were employed in the quarries. There are also several small quarries, owned by private individuals, still being worked to a small extent.

The annual religious festival and fair, held at Tenos on March 25/April 7, the Annunciation and Independence Day, is of great political and commercial importance.

ZEA (KEOS)

(A) COMMUNICATIONS

(a) *Roads*.—The only road runs from Livadia to Zea, with a branch to Voulgaria. It is not suitable for wheel traffic, as at the steep ascent it is made in low broad steps. Elsewhere there are only footpaths, but most of these can be negotiated by the native mules and donkeys. There are 150 mules, 280 donkeys, and 17 horses on the island.

(b) *Ports*.—Zea has only one ‘all weather’ port, St. Nicolas (Agios Nikolaos), situated at the north-west extremity of the island. This port is exceptionally well protected, is roomy, and has a good holding bottom throughout. The harbour is from 12 to 19 fathoms in depth and possesses a good stone quay of a length of over 300 yards, to which large caiques are able to moor stern on with a single plank-length of gangway ashore. Laden lighters can lie alongside, with, at most, a gang-plank ashore.

The harbour also has a small slip-way with cradle capable of hauling up a lighter. There is a custom-house in the southern part of the port.

The Zea coaling station, a private enterprise, now formed into a limited liability company, has its depot at the port. Before the outbreak of the War, this company was flourishing and developing, and possesses about 20 lighters of 40–80 tons, two unroofed coal depots of stone construction, workmen’s houses, chemists’ office, manager’s house, and a stone pier, about 84 feet long by 42 feet broad, in fair repair. The depth at the pier-head is about $1\frac{1}{2}$ –2 fathoms. There are also two wooden piers, rather weak now but capable of easy repair. Coal is loaded by baskets

from lighters. The company also owns a well of water with pump and a pipe running out to sea on a light pier to a depth of about 1 fathom.

In addition to the small Greek sailing vessels which trade between the different islands and the mainland, a considerable amount of shipping of all nations visits the port, chiefly in order to get bunker-coal. In 1914, besides 76 Greek vessels, 173 foreign vessels called for bunker-coal and orders. In normal times there is a regular steamship service twice a week between the island, the Piraeus, and Syra.

The island possesses five caiques of 17–40 tons.

A Lloyd's sub-agent is stationed at the port.

(c) *Cables*.—Zea is connected with the mainland by a cable from Ergasteria to St. Nicolas. There is also a cable to Kythnos.

The company which owns the coal depot manages a signalling station at the harbour.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) *Agriculture*.—The island is fertile, wooded (mainly with valonea oaks) and well watered. Its annual production is as follows :

Valonea	About	250 tons
Barley	„	750 „
Potatoes	„	12 „
Onions	„	12 „
Almonds	„	36 „
Honey	„	7 „
Wine	„	5,300 gallons

Valonea, barley, and almonds are exported. About 1,375 tons of charcoal are produced each year, and some is exported.

The production of live animals is as follows :

	<i>Stock.</i>	<i>Annual Production.</i>
Sheep	400	(Lambs) 1,000
Goats	200	(Kids) 500
Pigs	300	200
Cattle	200	(Calves) 50
Horses	17	
Mules	150	
Donkeys	280	

There is a considerable export of sheep and goats.

(2) *Minerals*.—The island contains deposits of silver-lead, iron, and manganese, but these are not worked.

(C) COMMERCE

The external trade of the island for the period 1904–13 averaged approximately £13,100 in imports, and £12,900 in exports. The export trade shows a steady decrease over the period.

NORTHERN SPORADES

The only islands of any importance are Skiathos, Skopelos, and Skyros.

SKIATHOS

(A) COMMUNICATIONS

The island is mountainous and there are no roads.

Ports.—The only harbour is Skiathos Harbour, on the south-east side of the island. It is safe in any weather and affords good anchorage on mud in 11 fathoms. There is a mole for landing on the east side of the harbour opposite to the town.

There is regular steamer communication with the Piræus, Volo, and other ports.

Cables.—The island is connected by cables with Eubœa and also with Skopelos.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) *Agriculture*.—The island is rich in woods, and the hills are covered with evergreen foliage. Barley and the olive and vine are cultivated to a slight extent, and a small quantity of good wine is made. Silk of good quality is also produced.

(2) *Shipping*.—Almost the entire population is engaged in seafaring pursuits, and a few small vessels are built annually. The island possesses a fine fleet of sailing vessels.

There are no exports or imports of any consequence.

SKOPELOS

(A) COMMUNICATIONS

There are no roads in the island.

Ports.—There are no good ports in Skopelos. In summer vessels lie off the town in Skopelos Bay, on the north-east side of the island, where a satisfactory berth in 7–10 fathoms of water can be obtained. This anchorage is unsafe in winter.

There is regular communication with the Piræus, Volo, and other ports.

Cables.—Skopelos is connected with the mainland by cable through Skiathos.

(B) INDUSTRY

The majority of the inhabitants are sailors and many go abroad as shipbuilders, but a considerable amount of agriculture is carried on, and the island is fertile and well cultivated. It used to be much more extensively forested. The chief products are oil, grapes, citrons, and other fruit, including more northerly fruit like plums and pears. Considerable quantities

of light red wines are exported to Constantinople and Black Sea ports. There is some timber-cutting and building of small sailing vessels.

(C) COMMERCE

In 1911 the imports were estimated at £2,532, the exports (the chief item being olives and oil) at £4,000. In 1913 a slight export of tobacco had begun.

SKYROS

(A) COMMUNICATIONS

(a) *Roads*.—There is one good road on the island, leading from the marble quarries to the port of Pefko, where marble is loaded. Otherwise the means of communication consist of mule-tracks, and pack-mules are the only means of transport.

(b) *Ports*.—*Port Trebuki* (Tristomon), on the south-east side of the island, lies in a bay $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles in width and nearly the same in length, with good anchorage in deep water.

Pefko, on the west coast north of Valaxa Island, is used chiefly for loading marble. There is a good quay equipped with a 20-ton crane with deep water alongside, and cargoes can be loaded direct into ocean-going steamers.

Skyros.—There is an anchorage below the town (on the east coast of the island) in 12 fathoms of water. There is no good port here.

Steamers running between the Piraeus, Volo, and Salonika call regularly at Skyros.

The Deutsche Levante steamers used to call monthly on their way from Batum to Hamburg.

(c) *Cables*.—The island is connected by telegraph with Euboea, and thus with the rest of the world.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) *Agriculture*.—The northern part of the island, though mountainous, is cultivated, and vines and corn are grown on the hill-sides and also in the plains. The island is stated to produce the best wheat grown in the archipelago. Wine, corn, honey, oranges, lemons, and madder are exported in considerable quantities. Also the island carries a large flock of sheep and goats, and there is a considerable export trade in these.

(2) *Marble Quarrying*.—The marble quarries are important, employing about 250 men and exporting about 3,000 tons of marble per annum. The quarries are equipped with up-to-date machinery.

APPENDIX

I. PROTOCOL OF LONDON, 22 MAR. 1829

(ENGLAND, FRANCE, RUSSIA)

Suzerainty of the Porte.

Greece shall enjoy, under the Suzerainty of the Porte, the internal administration best calculated to guarantee the religious and commercial liberty, as well as the prosperity and the repose, which it is desired to assure to it.

With this view, that administration shall be assimilated, as much as possible, to monarchical forms, and shall be confided to a Christian Chief or Prince, whose authority shall be hereditary, in the order of primogeniture.

In no case can that Chief be chosen among the Princes of the families reigning in the three States of the Powers who signed the Treaty of 6th July, 1827; and the first choice shall be effected in concert between the three Courts and the Ottoman Porte.

In order to mark the relations of Vassalage on the part of Greece towards the Ottoman Empire, it shall be agreed that besides the payment of the annual Tribute, every Chief of Greece, when the hereditary authority shall have devolved upon him, shall receive his investiture from the Porte, and shall pay to it a supplementary year's Tribute upon his accession to power.

In case of the extinction of the reigning branch, the Porte shall participate in the choice of the new Chief, in the same manner as it took part in the choice of the first.

II. PROTOCOL OF LONDON, 3 FEB. 1830

(ENGLAND, FRANCE, RUSSIA)

§ 1. Greece shall form an Independent State, and shall enjoy all the rights, political, administrative, and commercial, attached to complete Independence.

§ 3. The Greek Government shall be Monarchical, and hereditary according to the order of primogeniture. It shall be confided to a Prince, who shall not be capable of being chosen

from among those of the families reigning in the States that signed the Treaty of the 6th July, 1827, and who shall bear the title of Sovereign Prince of Greece. The choice of that Prince shall form the object of subsequent communications and stipulations.

§ 8. Each of the 3 Courts shall retain the power, secured to it by Article VI of the Treaty of the 6th July, 1827, of guaranteeing the whole of the foregoing arrangements and Articles. The Acts of Guarantee, if there be any, shall be drawn up separately; the operation and effects of these different Acts shall become, in conformity with the above-mentioned Article, the object of further stipulations on the part of the High Powers. No troops belonging to one of the Contracting Powers shall be allowed to enter the territory of the new Greek State, without the consent of the two other Courts who signed the Treaty.

III. TREATY OF LONDON. 29 MAR. 1864

(ENGLAND, FRANCE, RUSSIA, GREECE)

ART. I. Her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, desiring to realise the wish expressed by the Legislative Assembly of the United States of the Ionian Islands, that those Islands should be united to Greece, has consented, on the conditions hereinafter specified, to renounce the Protectorate over the Islands of Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, Santa Maura, Ithaca, Cerigo, and Paxo, with their Dependencies, which, in virtue of the Treaty signed at Paris on the 5th November, 1815, by the Plenipotentiaries of Great Britain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia, were constituted a single Free and Independent State, under the denomination of 'the United States of the Ionian Islands', placed under the immediate and exclusive Protection of His Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, his heirs and successors.

In consequence, Her Britannic Majesty, His Majesty the Emperor of the French, and His Majesty the Emperor of All the Russias, in their character of signing parties to the Convention of the 7th May, 1832, recognise such Union, and declare that Greece, within the Limits determined by the arrangement concluded at Constantinople between the Courts of Great Britain, France, and Russia, and the Ottoman Porte,

on the 21st July, 1832, including the Ionian Islands, shall from a Monarchical, Independent, and Constitutional State, under the Sovereignty of His Majesty King George, and under the Guarantee of the 3 Courts.

ART. II. The Courts of Great Britain, France, and Russia, in their character of Guaranteeing Powers of Greece, declare, with the assent of the Courts of Austria and Prussia, that the Islands of Corfu and Paxo, as well as their Dependencies, shall, after their Union to the Hellenic Kingdom, enjoy the advantages of perpetual Neutrality.

His Majesty the King of the Hellenes engages, on his part, to maintain such Neutrality.

ART. IV. The Union of the United States of the Ionian Islands to the Kingdom of Greece shall in no wise invalidate the principles established by the existing legislation of those Islands with regard to Freedom of Worship and Religious Toleration : accordingly the Rights and Immunities established in matters of Religion by Chapters I and V of the Constitutional Charter of the United States of the Ionian Islands, and specifically the recognition of the Orthodox Greek Church as the Dominant Religion in those Islands ; the entire Liberty of Worship granted to the Established Church of the Protecting Power ; and the perfect Toleration promised to other Christian communions shall, after the Union, be maintained in their full force and effect.

The special Protection guaranteed to the Roman Catholic Church, as well as the advantages of which that Church is actually in possession, shall be equally maintained ; and the subjects belonging to that communion shall enjoy in the Ionian Islands the same Freedom of Worship which is recognised in their favour by the Protocol of the 3rd February, 1830.

The principle of entire Civil and Political Equality between subjects belonging to different Creeds, established in Greece by the same Protocol, shall be likewise in force in the Ionian Islands.

ART. V. The Legislative Assembly of the United States of the Ionian Islands has decreed by a Resolution passed on the 7/19th October, 1863, that the sum of £10,000 sterling a year shall be appropriated, in monthly payments, to the augmentation of the Civil List of His Majesty the King of the Hellenes so as to constitute the first charge upon the revenue of the Ionian Islands, unless provision be made for such payment,

according to the constitutional forms, out of the revenues of the Kingdom of Greece.

In consequence, His Majesty the King of the Hellenes engages to carry that Decree duly into execution.

ART. VI. Her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, His Majesty the Emperor of the French, and His Majesty the Emperor of All the Russias, agree to relinquish in favour of His Majesty King George I, each £4,000 sterling a year, out of the sums which the Greek Treasury has engaged to pay annually to each of them in virtue of the arrangement concluded at Athens by the Greek Government, with the concurrence of the Greek Chambers, in the month of June, 1860.

It is expressly understood that these 3 sums, forming a total of £12,000 sterling annually, shall be destined to constitute a Personal Dotation of His Majesty King George I, in addition to the Civil List fixed by the Law of the State. The Accession of His Majesty to the Hellenic Throne shall not otherwise involve any change in the financial engagements which Greece has contracted by Article XII of the Convention of 7th May, 1832, towards the Powers Guarantees of the Loan, nor in the execution of the engagement taken by the Hellenic Government in the month of June, 1860, upon the representation of the 3 Courts.

IV. FIRMAN. ORGANIC REGULATIONS FOR CRETE. 23 Aug. 1868

1. The General Administration of the Island of Crete shall be entrusted to a Vali (Governor-General) appointed by His Imperial Majesty the Sultan, and the command of the Imperial fortresses, as well as of the troops of the island, to a Commander-in-Chief.

2. The appointments of Vali and Commander-in-Chief shall be independent the one from the other: His Imperial Majesty the Sultan shall, however, have the power of uniting, in case of necessity, the duties of Vali to those of the Commander-in-Chief.

3. The Vali governs the island in conformity with the laws of the Empire, and the separate regulations relating to the island.

The Vali shall be appointed by two Councillors appointed by

Imperial Ordinance and chosen, the one from among the Mussulman functionaries, and the other from among the Christian functionaries of the Empire.

4. The island shall be divided into as many Sandjaks or districts as may be found necessary. These districts shall be administered by Mutessarifs (Governors) chosen from among the functionaries of the Imperial Government : the Governors shall be half Mussulman and half Christian. The Mussulman Governors shall be assisted by Christian Mouavins (Deputies), and the Christian Governors by Mussulman Mouavins, both appointed by the Imperial Government.

5. The Sandjaks shall be divided into Kazas (Cantons), and the Kazas shall be governed by Caimacams (Sub-Governors) chosen and appointed by the Sublime Porte, and taken as occasion requires from among the Mussulman or Christian functionaries of the Imperial Government. These Caimacams shall be assisted by Mouavins in accordance with the above-mentioned rules.

6. The administration of the finances shall be entrusted, for the general Government, to a Defterdar (Director), for each Sandjak to a Mouassébedji (Sub-Director), and for each Kaza to a Mal-Mudiri. These several offices shall be entrusted according to circumstances to Mussulman and Christian functionaries.

7. There shall be a Council of Administration attached to the Governor-General, as well as to each of the Governors and Sub-Governors. The Council of Administration of the Central Government shall be presided over by the Governor-General, and shall have for its members the two Councillors, the Chief of the Magistrates (Mufettichi-Hukkian), the Greek Metropolitan, the Defterdar (Director of Finances), the Mektoubdjis (Directors of Correspondence), and six other members, three Mussulman and three Christian, elected by their respective communities.

The official correspondence in the island being in two languages, it shall be entrusted to two Mektoubdjis for the Governor-General, and to two Bachkiatibs (Directors of Correspondence) for each Sandjak.

8. The Administrative Council of each Mixed Sandjak shall be composed, under the Presidency of the Governor, of the Mouavin. Judge, Bishop, Mouassébedji, Directors of Correspondence, and six members, three Christian and three Mussul-

man, elected by the population. In the Sandjaks exclusively Christian, the Council shall be composed always, under the Presidency of the Governor-General, of the Mouavin, Bishop, Mouassébedji, Directors of Correspondence, and six Christian members, elected by the population.

The preceding rules shall also apply to the Councils of Administration of the Kazas.

9. Civil and military tribunals shall be appointed at the seat of the Government and in the Sandjaks and Kazas.

The tribunals at the seat of the Government and in the Mixed Sandjaks and Kazas shall be composed of Mussulman and Christian members chosen by the people. In Sandjaks and Kazas exclusively Christian, those tribunals shall be composed of Christians only.

10. There shall be at the seat of the Government and in each Mixed Sandjak a Religious Mussulman Tribunal for the trial of Mussulmans. Each commune shall have a Council of Elders and each Sandjak a Démogérontie or Council of Elders for each of the Mussulman and Christian Communities.

The members of those Councils will be elected by their constituents.

11. All civil, criminal, and commercial suits between Christians and Mussulmans, and all other mixed differences, shall be judged by the Mixed Civil and Commercial Tribunals. Special regulations will define the competency and attributions of the Religious Mussulman Tribunals, and of the Démogérontia.

12. A Council-General shall be established at the seat of Government, elected by the population, in which each Kaza shall be represented by two Delegates; every exclusively Mussulman Kaza will send Mussulman Delegates to the Council-General; the same shall be observed towards the exclusively Christian Kazas; and every Mixed Kaza shall be represented by a Mussulman Delegate.

A special regulation will determine the manner in which those Delegates shall be elected. The duties of the Council, which will assemble once a year, will consist of questions relating to works of public utility, such as the development of the means of communication, the formation of banks, and everything tending to improve agriculture, commerce, and industry, and measures for spreading public instruction in all matters of general usefulness. The Imperial Government will

set apart, out of the revenues of the islands, funds for the payment of such local improvements as may be proposed by the General Council, and approved and decreed by the Sublime Porte. Those funds will be placed under the control of the Council-General.

13. The inhabitants having always been exempt from the direct tax which all the other provinces of the Empire pay to the State, there shall only be levied in the island the tithe, the duty exempting from military service, the duties on wines and spirits, the Customs dues and the duties on salt and tobacco, charged as a compensation for the reduction of Customs dues, and certain other duties paid by the inhabitants of the island, as well as in other parts of the Empire, and the reduction of which is now under revision.

No other contribution shall be levied in the island.

14. The Council-General shall be entrusted with the examination of the necessary measures for carrying out the collection of the whole of the revenues of the State, and giving to the population of the island facilities and advantages for the payment of the tithes and military tax. The Imperial Government will take measures for the application of those improvements in accordance with the wishes which the Council-General express in the matter.

We have finally invested with our sanction the following Regulations, founded on the bases described in the Organic Regulation; they relate to the Judicial and Administrative Organizations, and to the Finances of the island.

V. FIRMAN (PACT OF HALEPA), 25 OCT. 1878

ART. I. The Special Statute of the Island of Crete is in force as heretofore (Appendix IV). Certain provisions only of this Statute shall be modified and completed as hereinafter stated.

The Constitution shall not annul the provisions of this Statute.

ART. II. The Governor-General is named in accordance with the Organic Statute of the Island of Crete. The duration of his functions shall be for five years.

ART. III. The General Assembly shall be composed of eighty members, of whom forty-nine shall be Christians and thirty-one Mussulmans.

ART. IV. The annual Session of the General Assembly shall last forty days as heretofore. Nevertheless, if the Assembly cannot terminate the labours of this year within that time, the first Session may be prolonged for twenty days in addition.

The sittings shall be public.

In order to supplement the deficiencies which exist in the Ottoman legislation now in force, the General Assembly shall have the right immediately to draw up a Code of Civil and Criminal Procedure and a Communal Statute, which are still wanting, and to submit them to the approval of the Sublime Porte, who will sanction them if they do not interfere with the rights of the Imperial Government, and if they are not contrary to the principles which govern the Ottoman laws and regulations.

If it be subsequently necessary to make modifications of a nature to supply deficiencies in regulations which are now in force and are demanded by requirements of purely local interests, the General Assembly shall have the right to submit, for the approval of the Sublime Porte, the modifications decided upon by a majority of two-thirds.

The vote of the majority of two-thirds will only be applicable in the case provided for by the preceding paragraph.

ART. V. The number of Christian Kaïmakams shall exceed that of the Mussulman Kaïmakams, according to the requirements of the localities.

ART. VI. The formation of the Administrative Councils shall take place as heretofore. Nevertheless, for the future, no Government official shall be a member of them with the exception of the Governor-General, the Governors, and the Kaïmakams, who will preside as a matter of right.

ART. VII. The judicial power shall be distinct and separate from the executive.

The composition of the Tribunals shall be the same as heretofore. Nevertheless, the Assembly may submit, for the approval of the Sublime Porte, a project of reorganization which, while being more economical, will insure a better administration of justice.

ART. VIII. The Governor-General shall henceforth have an Adviser, who shall be a Christian if the Vali be a Mussulman, and a Mussulman if the Vali be a Christian.

ART. IX. The general correspondence of the vilayet, as also

the *procès-verbaux* and 'mazbatas' of the Tribunals and Councils, shall be drawn up in two languages. But as in general the Mussulman and Christian inhabitants of the island speak Greek, the deliberations of the General Assembly and the Tribunals shall take place in that language.

ART. X. All officials other than the Vali shall be nominated subject to the laws and regulations in force. Natives, however, having the required qualities shall have the preference.

ART. XI. Should the General Assembly have to establish a new method of assessing the tithes, of such a nature as to protect more completely the interests of the Treasury and those of the population at the same time, they must submit it to the sanction of the Government.

ART. XII. The Imperial Government, in conformity with the Regulations, shall accept natives, whether Mussulman or Christian, who may offer themselves for the formation of the gendarmerie of the island, and shall only have recourse to other inhabitants of the Empire in the event of an insufficiency of native candidates. The Chief of the Gendarmerie (Aalaï Beyi) shall be designated by the Sublime Porte. As for the other officers, they shall be chosen by the local authorities from among the Mussulmans and Christians, conformably to the law, and their nomination shall be submitted to the sanction of the Imperial Government.

A pension fund shall be established for the officers and soldiers of the gendarmerie, and a special Regulation shall be drawn up on the subject.

ART. XIII. There shall be economy in the expenditure. The following items shall not be inserted in the budget of the island:—

The cost of the regular army, the customs duties, the taxes on salt and tobacco, as also the receipts and expenditure on account of the 'vacouf' lands, which, being entered in the budget of the vilayet, are now administered by the local authorities, and which shall henceforth be administered separately.

After the cost of the local administration has been deducted from the remainder of the revenue, the surplus shall be divided in equal parts between the Imperial Exchequer and works of public utility, which shall be determined by the General Assembly in the following order:—

1. Houses of detention.
2. Schools.

3. Hospitals.

4. Harbours and roads.

The Assembly shall have the right of examining whether the receipts and expenses have been applied according to the provisions of the budget for the year. In the event of these revenues not covering the expenditure, and if, after the employment of every administrative measure, it shall be found impossible to augment the receipts and to pay the salaries, the Imperial Government will give to the administration of the island a sum of money not exceeding half of the revenue derived from the import duties of the current financial year, to make good the deficit in the salaries.

ART. XIV. Paper money shall not be current in the island. The salaries of the officials shall be paid in specie.

ART. XV. It shall be lawful for the inhabitants of the island to found literary societies, printing presses, and to publish newspapers in conformity with the laws and regulations of the Empire.

ART. XVI. If Ministerial Ordinances are transmitted contrary to the independence of the Tribunals, to the laws in force, and to the Organic Statute of the island, these Ordinances shall not be put into execution.

Special Provision.

The inhabitants shall be permitted to keep their arms, but no one shall have the right to carry them without the permission of the authorities.

AUTHORITIES

HISTORICAL

- BECKER, G. *La guerre contemporaine dans les Balkans*, 1897. Paris, 1899.
- BLAQUIÈRE, E. *The Greek Revolution ; its Origin and Progress*. London, 1824.
- *Narration of a Second Visit to Greece*. London, 1825.
- *Letters from Greece*. London, 1828.
- BYRON, LORD. *The Works of Lord Byron. Letters and Journals*. Ed. R. E. Prothero. Vol. vi. London, 1904.
- CASSAVETTI, D. J. *Hellas and the Balkan Wars*. London, 1914.
- CHERBULIEZ, A. *Correspondance du Comte Capodistrias*. 4 vols. Genève, 1839.
- CHRISTMAS, WALTER. *Kong Georg I Prins af Danmark*. Copenhagen, 1913. English Ed., 'The Life of King George of Greece'. London, 1914.
- CHURCH, E. M. *Sir Richard Church in Italy and Greece*. Edinburgh, 1895.
- CONSTANTINE, H.R.H. CROWN PRINCE. *Ἐκθεσις τῆς Ἀ. Β. Ὑψηλότητος τοῦ Διαδόχου ἐπὶ τῶν πεπραγμένων τοῦ στρατοῦ Θεσσαλίας κατὰ τὴν ἐκστρατείαν*, 1897. *Ἐν Ἀθήναις*, 1898.
- DEBIDOUR, A. *Le Général Fabvier, sa vie militaire et politique*. Paris, 1904.
- DESCHAMPS, G. *La Grèce d'aujourd'hui*. 2^e édition. Paris, 1897.
- Διπλωματικὰ Ἔγγραφα.*
- (1) *Διπλωματικὰ ἔγγραφα ἀφορῶντα εἰς τὸν ἐλληνοτουρκικὸν πόλεμον τοῦ 1897*. Ἀθήναι, 1897.
 - (2) *Documents diplomatiques. (Livre blanc hellénique.) Conflit Gréco-turc. Avril–Septembre 1897*. Athènes, 1897.
 - (3) *Μετὰφρασις τῶν κυριωτέρων ὑπομνημάτων, δι' ὧν ἡ Ἑλληνικὴ Κυβέρνησις προσέφυγεν εἰς τὴν διαιτησίαν τῶν ἐν Κων/πόλει πρεσβευτῶν τῶν 6 Μ. Δυνάμεων*. Ἀθήναι, 1901.
 - (4) *Ἔγγραφα Ἑλληνορουμανικῆς διαφορᾶς*. Ἀθήναι, 1906.

- (5) *Διπλωματικά έγγραφα*, 1913–17; 'Ελληνοσερβική Συνθήκη Συμμαχίας. Εισβολή Γερμανοβουλγάρων εἰς Μακεδονίαν. 'Εν Ἀθήναις. 1917. French tr., 'Documents diplomatiques, 1913–1917. Traité d'Alliance gréco-serbe. Invasion germano-bulgare en Macédoine.' Athènes, 1917.

FAIRCHILD, H. P. Greek Immigration to the United States. New Haven, 1911.

FINLAY, G. A History of Greece. Ed. by H. F. Tozer. Vols. vi, vii. Oxford, 1877.

GORDON, T. History of the Greek Revolution. 2 vols. London, 1832.

HOMOLLE, TH., HOUSSAYE, H., &c. La Grèce. Paris, 1908. English tr. 'Greece in Evolution.' London, 1909.

ISAMBERT, G. L'Indépendance grecque et l'Europe. Paris, 1900.

JEBB, SIR R. C. Two lectures on Modern Greece. London, 1901.

KEROFILAS, C. Un Homme d'État. E. Venizelos. Sa Vie—Son Œuvre. Paris, 1915. English tr., 'Eleftherios Venizelos'. London, 1915.

KYRIAKIDES, E. K. 'Ιστορία τοῦ συγχρόνου 'Ελληνισμοῦ. 1832–1892. 2 vols. 'Εν Ἀθήναις, 1892–4.

MILLER, W. Greek Life in Town and Country. London, 1905.

NEVINSON, H. W. Scenes in the Thirty Days' War between Greece and Turkey, 1897. London, 1898.

PHILARETOS, G. N. Σύνταγμα τῆς 'Ελλάδος. 'Εν Ἀθήναις, 1889.

PUAUX, R. The Sorrows of Epirus. London, 1918.

ROSE, W. K. With the Greeks in Thessaly. London, 1897.

RUMBOLD, SIR H. Recollections of a Diplomatist. Vol. II. London, 1902.

— Final Recollections of a Diplomatist. London, 1905.

THOUVENEL, L. La Grèce du Roi Othon. [1845–50.] Paris, 1890.

TRIKOUPES, SP. 'Ιστορία τῆς 'Ελληνικῆς ἐπαναστάσεως. Ἐκδοσις τρίτη. 4 vols. 'Εν Ἀθήναις, 1888.

VELLAY, C. L'Irrédentisme hellénique. Paris, 1913.

VENIZELOS, E. 'Αγόρευσις ἐπὶ τοῦ πολιτικοῦ ζητήματος (10–13 Ἀγούστου, 1917). 'Εν Ἀθήναις, 1917. French tr., 'Cinq ans d'histoire grecque, 1912–1917'. Paris et Nancy, 1917.

THE IONIAN ISLANDS (before the Union)

- ANSTED, D. F. The Ionian Islands in the year 1863. London, 1863.
- BOWEN, SIR G. F. The Ionian Islands under British Protection. London, 1850.
- CHIOTES, P. *Ἱστορία τοῦ Ἰονίου Κράτους ἀπὸ συστάσεως αὐτοῦ μέχρις ἐνώσεως (ἔτη 1815–1864)*. 2 vols. *Ἐν Ζακύνθῳ*, 1874–7.
- Depositions and Proceedings relative to the Events which occurred in Cephalonia in the Year 1849. Corfu (no date).
- LENORMANT, F. La question ionienne devant l'Europe. Paris, 1859.
- Le gouvernement des Îles Ioniennes. Lettre à Lord John Russell. Paris, 1861.
- MANESSES, N. B. Le tre costituzioni (1800, 1803, 1817). Corfù, 1849.
- MAVROGIANNES, G. E. *Ἱστορία τῶν Ἰονίων νήσων*. 2 vols. *Ἐν Ἀθήναις*. 1889.
- MORLEY, J. (VISCOUNT). The Life of William Ewart Gladstone. Vol. 1. London, 1903.
- XENOS, S. East and West, a Diplomatic History of the Annexation of the Ionian Islands to the Kingdom of Greece. London, 1865.

CRETE

- BALLOT, J. Histoire de l'Insurrection Crétoise. Paris, 1868.
- BÉRARD, V. Les Affaires de Crète. 2^e éd. Paris, 1900.
- FREESE, J. H. A Short Popular History of Crete. London, 1897.
- PASHLEY, R. Travels in Crete. London, 1837.
- PSILAKES, B. *Ἱστορία τῆς Κρήτης, ἀπὸ τῆς ἀπωτάτης ἀρχαιότητος μέχρι τῶν καθ' ἡμᾶς χρόνων*. Τόμ. Γ'. *Ἐν Χανίοις*, 1901–10.
- SPRATT, ADMIRAL T. A. B. Travels and Researches in Crete. 2 vols. London, 1865.
- STILLMAN, W. The Cretan Insurrection of 1866–7–8. New York, 1874.

SAMOS (since 1832)

- BLANCARD, T. Les Mavroyéni. Histoire d'Orient. Vol. ii, pp. 523–621. Paris, 1909.

AEGEAN ISLANDS

STÉPHANOPOLI, J. Z. *Les Îles de l'Égée. Leurs privilèges.* Athènes, 1912.

All the most important treaties to 1881 are most conveniently found in Holland's *European Concert in the Eastern Question*: those on the Ionian Islands in Stefanos Xenos, *East and West*.

GREEK TREATIES SINCE 1881

1897. Treaty of Constantinople (for retrocession of Thessaly). [C. 8851.] Turkey No. 2 (1898), pp. 341-52 (with map).

1913. (May 30). Treaty of London (ending first Balkan War). *Revue politique et parlementaire*, vol. lxxvi, 545-6 (June, 1913).¹

1913 (Aug. 10). Treaty of Bucarest (ending second Balkan War). *Livre vert roumain.* (Bucarest, 1913).¹

ECONOMIC

Diplomatic and Consular Reports :

Trade of Crete ; Trade of the Cyclades ; Trade of the Ionian Islands ; Trade and Commerce of Morea, Aetolia, and Acarnania (Patras Consular District) ; Trade and Agriculture of Piraeus and district ; Trade of Consular District of Smyrna ; Trade and Agriculture of Thessaly ; Mineral resources of Greece (1902) ; Trade and Finances of Greece. Foreign Office. Miscellaneous series. Report on the Emery district of Naxos. 1895.

Mediterranean Pilot. Vol. iv. Fourth edition. London, 1908. Report on Ways of Communication in Greece supplied by Greek Legation. 1918.

Special Report from Athens to the Foreign Office. 1918.

BAEDEKER, C. *Guide to Greece.* 4th edition. Leipzig, 1909.

Ιγγλέση, Ν. Γ. 'Οδηγὸς τῆς Ἑλλάδος. Τόμος Β'. Athens, 1916.

LEFEUVRE-MÉAULLE, H. *La Grèce économique et financière.* Paris, 1916.

MARTIN, P. F. *Greece of the Twentieth Century.* London, 1913.

MURRAY, J. *Guide to Greece.* 7th edition. London, 1905.

SERGEANT, L. *Greece in the Nineteenth Century.* London, 1897.

¹ The full text of the last two Treaties is given in the Appendix to No. 15, *Eastern Question*.

MAPS

Sheets of the War Office map of the Balkan States and Asia Minor, on the scale of 1 : 250,000 (G.S.G.S. 2097), cover Northern Greece and the Aegean Islands north of latitude $39^{\circ} 45'$ north and east of longitude 26° east, and include the islands of Lemnos, Mytilene, and Khios.

A map of Attica in ten sheets, on the scale of 1 : 100,000, by E. Curtius and J. A. Kiepert, was published in Berlin between 1883 and 1894; and there are two War Office sheets (G.S.G.S. 2832) of part of Attica on the same scale which were prepared mainly from this map.

Greece is covered by Sheet J.34 (Athenai) of the International Map published by the War Office (G.S.G.S. 2758), on the scale of 1 : 1,000,000; and the Island by Sheet J.35 (Izmir) of the same.

INDEX TO VOL. III.

[The figures in heavy type give the number of the book referred to, those in lighter type the page.]

A.

- Abdoul Kadir Bey (1829), **15** 68.
 Abdul Aziz, Sultan (1861-76), **16**.
 36, 61, **17**, 36; deposition, 1876,
16, 38.
 Abdul Hamid I, **16**, 18.
 Abdul Hamid II, Sultan, **15**, 35,
16, 51, 71, 103, 107; accession,
 1876, **16**, 38; administration of,
16, 42-50; Albanian policy, **17**,
 24-5, 41-2, 54-5; dissolution of
 Parliament and suspension of
 Constitution, 1877, **16**, 39; re-
 sponsibility for inadequacy of
 postal arrangements, **16**, 70;
 deposition, 1909, **15**, 38, **16**, 50,
17, 42.
 Abdul Mejid, Sultan (1839-61), **16**.
 29, 43; reforms of, **16**, 30, 32,
 34-5, 142 7; death, 1861, **16**, 36.
 Aberdeen, Lord, British Foreign
 Secretary, **18**, 27, 28, 29, 33.
 Abruzzi "Region," Albanians in,
17, 26.
 Acarnania, **17**, 25.
 Achaea, Albanians in, **17**, 25.
 Achaia Company, **18**, 91.
 Acheloos (Aspropotamo) river,
18, 1 note, 28.
 Acre, capture by Anglo-Austrian
 Fleet, **16**, 29-30.
 Acrocerania, **17**, 3.
 Acroceranian Mountains, **17**, 17.
 Acroceranian Promontory, **17**, 32.
 Adabazar, railway, **16**, 66, 67.
 Adamas Island, communications,
18, 125; port, **18**, 125 6.
 Adana, cession demanded by Me-
 hemet Ali Pasha, **16**, 29.
 Administration:
 Albania, Greek, **17**, 64.
 Crete, **16**, 41 2; constitution of
 1899, **18**, 52; Firman, 1868,
 18, 159 62; Pact of Halepa,
 1878, **18**, 162 5.
 Greece, **18**, 76 7; under Bavar-
 ians, **18**, 31 3; Constitution
 of 1844, **18**, 33 4; Constitu-
 tion of 1864, **18**, 40; Constitu-
 tion granted, 1843, **18**, 33;
 Constitution of 1911, **18**, 65,
 73; National Assembly, 1910,
 18, 63-5; Second Revisionary
 National Assembly, 1911, **18**,
 65.

Administration—cont.

- Turkey, under Abdul Hamid II,
16 42 3; Constitution of 1876,
 abrogation of, **16**, 47 8; restora-
 tion of, **16**, 47; Firman, Sept. 10,
 1876, **16**, 148 50; Firman and
 Hat-i-Humayun, 1856, **16**, 34,
 142 7; Hat-i-Sherif of Gulbané
 (Tanzimat), 3 Nov., 1839, **16**,
 139 42; reforms, of Selim III,
16, 26-8, of Mahmud II, **16**,
 28, of Abdul Mejid, **16**, 30 1,
 34-5, 142 7; unreformed
 system, **16**, 24-5.
 Administration de Navigation à
 Vapeur Ottomane, **16**, 83.
 Adrianople, **15**, 26, 43, 45, **16**, 4,
 62; agriculture near, **16**, 89;
 capture by Bulgarians, 1913, **15**,
 40, **16**, 54; Dumnahis, **16**, 7;
 military centre and market for
 crops, **16**, 107; population and
 races, **15**, 160, **16**, 8, 9, 107;
 railway, **16**, 64; recovery by
 Turks, 1913, **15**, 42, **16**, 55 **18**
 70; road, **16**, 59; Russian ad-
 vances on, **18**, 27, 42; Russians
 in, 1878, **16**, 38-9; Treaty of,
 1829, **15**, 17, 54, 62, 68 71, 161,
16, 23, 24, **18**, 27, 28; Turks'
 capital, 1365, **15**, 7; Turkish
 headquarters, 1371, **16**, 14.
 Adrianople vilayet, **16**, 1; popula-
 tion, **16**, 8.
 Adriatic, **17**, 67, 68, 74, 76; Serbian
 railway scheme, **15**, 37.
 Aegean Islands, **15** 11 **16**, 54, 77,
 87; Greek occupation, 1912, **15**,
 40, **18**, 67; Greek retention, 1913,
15, 41 2; Italian occupation, **18**,
 72; population, **15**, 159.
 Aegean Sea, **15**, 39, **16**, 4, 5, 33, **17**,
 74, 76, **18**, 13, 69; Austrian
 railway scheme, **15**, 37; basins,
18, 9; Turkish defeats in, **15**, 19.
 Aetolia (Mitolia), **17**, 25, **18**, 1 note,
 28; tobacco cultivation, **18**, 93 4.
 Afion-Kara Hissary, opium from,
16, 106.
 Africa, North, Greek colonisation,
 6th 4th century B.C., **18**, 29.
 Agia Lavra, monastery, **18**, 25.
 Agion Oros, *see* Athos, Mount.
 Agios Georgios, *see* St. Georgios.
 Agios Minas, port, **13**, 123-4.
 Agios Nikolaos, *see* St. Nicolas.

- Agostino, **18**, 29.
- Agricultural products, imports and exports, **16**, 90, **18**, 106, 107, 147, 147.
- Agriculture, Albania, **17**, 80-7; Cyclades and Northern Sporades, **18**, 116-7, 122, 124, 125, 126, 128, 130, 133, 134, 135, 137, 139, 142-3, 149, 151, 153, 155; Greece, **18**, 90-6 schools **18**, 81; Turkey, **16**, 89-97.
- Agrinion, railway, **18**, 85.
- Ahmed I, Sultan (1603-17), **16**, 25.
- Ahmed Réchid Bey, **15**, 132.
- Ahmed Riza Bey, **16**, 48.
- Aidepsos, *see* Lipsos.
- Aigiale, **18**, 119.
- Aistrate (Strati) island, **18**, 3, 9.
- Aitolia, *see* Aetolia.
- Ak Dere river, **16**, 3.
- Akarnania, **18**, 1 note, 28; rivers, **18**, 83; tobacco cultivation, **18**, 93; valonea, **18**, 93.
- Akhtebolu, kaza of, population, **16**, 9.
- Akkerman, Convention of, 1826, **15**, 18, 53, 54, 161, **16**, 23, 24.
- Akroteri, **18**, 61; insurrection and union with Greece proclaimed, 1897, **18**, 47, 48.
- Albania, *see also* Contents, **17**; **15**, 11, **18**, 69; constitution as autonomous principality, **15**, 42; and Crimean War, **15**, 21; delimitation of boundaries, **18**, 71; Greek frontier, **18**, 2; national sentiment, **15** 44-5; provisions of Treaty of London, 1913, **15**, 41, 133; racial question, **15**, 50; Saseno Island ceded to, 1914, **18**, 1; Serbian railway scheme, **15**, 37; South, *see* Epeiros, North; state of, at beginning of 19th century, **15**, 14; table of treaties affecting boundaries, **15**, 161; Venetian conquests in, **15**, 9; Vlachs in, **15**, 13, 158; Young Turk Revolution, 1908, **16**, 47.
- Albanian Coast, Serbian claim to port on, 1912, **16**, 54.
- Albanian language, **17**, 7-8, **18**, 25, 26, 55, 62, 63.
- Albanian League, **15**, 30, 34, 44-5, **17**, 30, 39, 40-1, **18**, 44.
- Albanians (Skipetars), **17**, 7, 8, **18**, 21; in Andros Island, **18**, 14; in Balkan peninsula, **15**, 159; characteristics, &c., **17**, 7-8; distribution of, in 1912, **17**, 24-6; in Greece, **18**, 3, 5-6 89; in Italy and Sicily, **17**, 65; in Macedonia,
- Albanians—*cont.*
15, 32; in Turkey, **16**, 50; Young Turks' Turanian policy, **16** 51;
- Alem Dagh Forest, **16**, 61.
- Alessio, **17**, 3, 28; highlands of, population, **17**, 15; Montenegro and Serbian claim to, 1913, **17**, 60; Serbians at, 1912, **17**, 48, 62; Venetian settlement, 14-15th century, **17**, 65; viticulture, **17**, 82.
- Alessio district, olive culture, **17**, 81.
- Alexander, **15**, 4-5, **18**, 4.
- Alexander the Great, conquests of, 356 B.C., **18**, 20-1.
- Alexander I, Emperor of Russia (1801-25), **16**, 20; Treaty of Tilsit, 1807, **16**, 21.
- Alexander II, Emperor of Russia (1855-81), **16**, 32, **18**, 36.
- Alexander I, King of Rumania (Prince Cuza) (1859-66), **15**, 24, **16**, 35, 36.
- Alexander, Prince, of Battenberg, elected first Prince of Bulgaria, 1879, **15**, 30; abdication, 1886, **15**, 31.
- Alexandria, **16**, 29, 87; shipping services with, **16**, 86.
- Alfred, Prince, *see* Edinburgh, Duke of.
- Algiers, seized by French, 1830, **16**, 29.
- Ali Pasha of Yanina, **15**, 15, **17**, 18, 19, 33, 41, 58, 62, 70, **18**, 23; career, **17**, 28-29, 34-5, 36; Greek schools opened in Yanina, **17**, 55; revolt against Sultan Mahmud II, **15**, 18, **16**, 23.
- Almonds, **18**, 151.
- Alum, **18**, 126.
- Amalia, wife of King Otho of Greece, **18**, 32.
- Ambrakia, Gulf of, **18**, 31, 44.
- Amiens, Peace of, 1802, **15**, 11, **16**, 20.
- Amorgos island, **18**, 11; agriculture, **18**, 117; area and height, **18**, 11; cables, **18**, 130; commerce and industry, **18**, 120; communications, **18**, 119-2; population, **18**, 15, 16, 120; ports, **18**, 119-20.
- Amphissa, olive cultivation, **18**, 93.
- Anaphe island, **18**, 11; cable, **18**, 135; population, **18**, 15.
- Anatolia, **15**, 49; peasants, gold demanded in payment for crops, and hoarded, **16**, 133.

- Anatolian railway, **16**, 61, 80, 105, 106, 124.
- Anatolian Railway Company, **16**, 63, 66-8, 69-70, 112, 135.
- Anatolian settlers, in Macedonia, **15**, 32.
- Andrássy, Count Julius (1878), **15**, 95.
- Andros (Kastro), **18**, 138, 139.
- Andros island, **18**, 10; agriculture, **18**, 117, 122; Albanians in, **17**, 25, **18**, 6; cable, **18**, 149; climate, **18**, 13; commerce, **18**, 123; communications, **18**, 121-2, 148; minerals, **18**, 122; population, **18**, 14, 15; ports, **18**, 121-2; shipping, **18**, 122-3.
- Andros (Kastro) port, **18**, 121, 122.
- Angali, port, **18**, 133, 134.
- Angista, railway, **18**, 85.
- Angora, battle of, 1402, **16**, 14; railway, **16**, 66, 67, 68.
- Angora district, mohair from, **16**, 106.
- Animal products, export and import, **18**, 107, 146, 147.
- Aniseed industry, **18**, 94.
- Anjou, Sicilian kings of, rule in Central Albania, 1271-1378, **17**, 27.
- Ano Meria, **18**, 127; silver lead deposits, **18**, 128.
- Anthracite, **18**, 99.
- Antimelos, *see* Eremomelos.
- Antimony, **17**, 88.
- Antiparos island (*see also* Paros), **18**, 132-3; height, **18**, 11; population, **18**, 15; zinc, **18**, 97.
- Antivari, acquisition by Montenegro, 1878, **15**, 28, **17**, 59, 68, 69; Allied Fleet at, 1913, **17**, 50; occupied by Montenegro, **15**, 26; Venetian settlement, **17**, 28, 65.
- Antivari town and district, Albanians in, **17**, 24.
- Antwerp, **18**, 88; shipping service with, **16**, 87, 88.
- Apano islet, **18**, 11.
- Apeiranthos, **18**, 129; emery mining, **18**, 130.
- Apiculture, **18**, 117, 122, 125, 133, 151, 155.
- Apollonia (Stavro), capital of Siphnos, **18**, 138.
- Apponyi, Count (1871), **15**, 81.
- Apulia "Region," Albanians in, **17**, 26.
- Arabi rebellion, Egypt, **16**, 42.
- Arabia, conquered by Sultan Selim, 1517, **16**, 15; recovered by Turkey from Mehemet Ali, **15**, 19.
- Arabs, revolt, **16**, 58; in Turkey, **16**, 50.
- Arbi tribe, **17**, 19.
- Aradia, Southern, Albanians in, **17**, 25.
- Archipelago American Steamship Company, **18**, 88.
- Ardar river, **16**, 4.
- Ardahan, **15**, 29, cession to Russia, 1878, **16**, 39, 40; Convention of Cyprus *re*, 1878, **16**, 41.
- Argolis, Albanians in, **17**, 25; sultana cultivation, **18**, 92.
- Argos, railway, **18**, 85.
- Argostoli, port, **18**, 86.
- Argyrokastró, (Argyrokastron) **15**, 42, **17**, 20, 98, 100, **18**, 72; assigned to Albania, **18**, 71; entered by Greeks, 1913, **18**, 68; population, **17**, 22; seized by Turks, *e.* 1420, **17**, 28.
- Argyrokastró district, **17**, 1, 63, 64; population, **17**, 23.
- Argyrokastron province, administration entrusted to International Commission of Control for Albania, 1914, **17**, 64, **18**, 72.
- Arkadion, monastery, **18**, 41, 52.
- Arkessini, roads, **18**, 119.
- Armanberg, **18**, 32.
- Armenia, administration of Abdul Hamid II, **16**, 43-4; annexed by Sultan Selim, 1514-16, **16**, 15.
- Armenians, massacres, **16**, 44; provisions of Treaties of San Stefano and Berlin, 1878, **15**, 29, **16**, 39, 40; in Turkey, **15**, 160, **16**, 7, 9, 50, 104, 106.
- Armstrong's, agreement with Turkish Government, 1913, **16**, 78.
- Armyro, **18**, 1.
- Arslan Bey, rising, 1829, **17**, 29.
- Arta, **15**, 29, **17**, 48; history, **17**, 28.
- Arta district, acquisition by Greece, 1881, **17**, 30, 63, 68, **18**, 2, 44, 45.
- Arta, gulf of, **15**, 17, **17**, 97, **18**, 1, 27, 30.
- Artemon, **18**, 138.
- Arumani, *see* Vlachs.
- Asia Minor, **15**, 11; Greek colonisation, 6th-4th century B.C., **18**, 19; ports, **16**, 86, 87; risings in, **16**, 30; Seljuk Turks and Mongol invasions, **16**, 13, 14; trade with, **16**, 102, 104, 105.
- Asiatic islands, population, **18**, 6; religions, **18**, 74.
- Asphalt, **17**, 88.
- Aspropotamo river, *see* Acheloos.
- Athenous Bay, **18**, 135.

Athens, **17**, 64, **18**, 21, 36, 55; Albanians in, **18**, 6; banks, **16**, 134, **18**, 104, 112, 113, 114; capital removed to, 1834, **18**, 34; Chambers of Commerce, **18**, 103; Cretan refugees, **18**, 48; demonstration, 1876, **18**, 42; Ecoles normales, **18**, 79; Greek Synod, **18**, 75, 75-6; industries, **18**, 101; Metropolitan of, **18**, 73, 74, 76; "Military League" at, 1909, **18**, 61-2; Museum of the Historical Society, **18**, 61; Olympic games, 1906, **18**, 55; Polytechnic, &c., **18**, 80-1; position in 1815, **18**, 23; railways, **17**, 75, **18**, 84, 85, 86; result of Turkish rule, **18**, 22; risings, **18**, 37; Roman Catholic archbishopric, **18**, 74; trade with, **18**, 143; University, **18**, 80; M. Venizelos at, 1909, **18**, 63; Zappeion, **18**, 57.

Athos, Mount (Monte Santo, Agion Oros), **18**, 3, 23, 69; Greek flag hoisted, 1912, **18**, 67.

Atta, proposed railway, **18**, 85.

Attica, Albanians in, **17**, 25, **18**, 6; general election, 1912, **18**, 66; railway, **18**, 85, 86; Tosk colony in, 1358, **17**, 28.

Austerlitz, battle of, **16**, 21.

Austria-Hungary, agreement with Turkey, 1909, **16**, 47; alliances with Russia, **16**, 17, 19; annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, 1908, **15**, 36-7, 48, **16**, 47, **17**, 42; and autonomous Albania, **17**, 49; Balkan railway scheme, **15**, 37; and Balkan Wars, **16**, 54, **17**, 49, 97, **18**, 69, 71; and Balkans, **15**, 10-11, 12, 19; Chamber of Commerce in Turkey, **16**, 109; Conference in London, 1912, **17**, 97-9; co-operation with other Powers for security of the Straits, 1840, **15**, 55-6; and Crimean question, **18**, 51; and Crimean War, **15**, 20, 21, **16**, 31-2; and the Danube question, **15**, 62, 63, 64, 65; economic penetration, Macedonia, **18**, 105; forces withdrawn from Sanjak of Novibazar, 1908, **15**, 36-7, **16**, 47; Government, schools in Albania under protection of, **17**, 54, 55; and Greece, **15**, 33; interest in Oriental Railway, **16**, 65; interests in Albania, **17**, 67-8; and Ionian Islands, **18**, 39; obstacle to Montenegrin development, **17**, 60; and Macedonian reforms, **15**,

Austria-Hungary—*con.*

34; occupation and administration of Bosnia and Herzegovina, **16**, 40; post offices in Turkey, **16**, 70-1; protection of Roman Catholics in Turkey, **15**, 8, 9; relations with Turkey, **16**, 16-7, 23; and revolt of Mehemet Ali Pasha, **16**, 29-30; and Russo-Greek War, 1897, **15**, 33; and Russo-Turkish War, **16**, 39; secret convention with Serbia, 1881, **16**, 41; shipping, Albania, **17**, 79, Constantinople, **16**, 83, 86, Greek ports, **18**, 88, Syra, **18**, 141; "Straits Convention," 1841, **15**, 56; trade, **16**, 69, **17**, 84, 89, 90, 91, **18**, 93, 106, 107, 108, 120-7, 131, 136, 138, 146, 147, 148; Treaty of Paris, 1856, **15**, 21-3, 75-8; Venetian possessions on Dalmatian coast acquired by, 1797, **15**, 11; war with Italy, 1859, **18**, 35; war with Turkey, **16**, 19; withdrawal from Balkans, 1739, **15**, 10.

Austrian capital in Turkey, **16**, 137.

Austrian Lloyd Steam Navigation Company, **15**, 142, **16**, 82, 83, 86, 88, 105, **17**, 79, **18**, 88.

Austrians, **16**, 44.

Azerbaijan, ceded to Persia, **16**, 17;

- part of, occupied by Sultan Murad III, 1586, **16**, 15.

Azolimnos, gunpowder factory, **18**, 144.

Azov, fort, history, **15**, 52, 93, **16**, 15, 16, 17.

Azov (Zabache), Sea of, Russia forbidden to maintain or build fleet, &c., on, 1739, **15**, 52.

B.

Baba Eski, railway, **16**, 65; road, **16**, 59.

Bacău, Magyar settlements near, **15**, 160.

Bagdad, British occupation, **16**, 58; conquered by Murad IV, 1638, **16**, 15; railway project, **16**, 66.

Balkan Alliance, formation of, **15**, 38-40.

Balkan League, **17**, 47.

Balkan States (Balkan Peninsula), affairs of, 1866-77, **16**, 36-8; conquest by Turks, **15**, 7; Franks in, **15**, 6; nationalities in, **15**, 157-60, **18**, 7-8; Slav invasion, **15**, 6.

- Balkan Wars, 1912-13, **15**, 40-1, 42-3, 45-6, 46, **16**, 9, 52-6, **17**, 30, 48-5, 62, 67, 68, 97, **18**, 7, 66-71.
- Balsha family, **17**, 28, 60.
- Bank of Athens, **16**, 134, **18**, 104, 113, 114.
- Banking, Albania, **17**, 92; Greece, **18**, 112-4, 136; Turkey, **16**, 133-6.
- Banque des Chemins de fer Orientaux, **16**, 65, 80, 103, 137.
- Banque de Salonique, **16**, 134.
- Banque de Turquie pour favoriser le Commerce et l'Industrie, **16**, 134.
- Banque Impériale Ottomane, **18**, 114.
- Banque d'Orient, **18**, 113, 114.
- Bardo, Treaty of, **16**, 42.
- Bari, steamship service with, **17**, 79.
- Barley, cultivation, **16**, 90, 91, **17**, 81, **18**, 90, 122, 124, 125, 128, 130, 134, 139, 149, 151, 153; exports, **16**, 122.
- Barrel making, **18**, 101.
- Basil II, Byzantine Emperor ("Basil the Bulgar-slayer"), **15**, 6, 46, **17**, 27.
- Basileuta "Region," Albanians in, **17**, 26.
- Batak, atrocities, **16**, 37.
- Batum, **15**, 29, **16**, 87, **18**, 154; cession to Russia, 1878, **16**, 39, 40; Convention of Cyprus *re*, 1878, **16**, 41; fortified and closed by Russia, 1886, **15**, 59.
- Batzaria Effendi (1913), **15**, 132.
- Batzia, **18**, 121.
- Bavaria, absolutism in Greece, 1833-43, **18**, 31-3; and the Danube question, **15**, 64.
- Bayazid, cession to Russia, 1878, **16**, 39; restored to Turkey, 1878, **16**, 40.
- Bayezid I, Sultan, taken prisoner by Tamerlane, 1402, **16**, 14.
- Beaconsfield, Earl of, **15**, 95, **18**, 28.
- Beans, cultivation, **18**, 122, 128, 135; exports, **16**, 122, **18**, 136.
- Beer, import, **17**, 91.
- Beikos, road, **16**, 61.
- Beirut, *see* Beyrut.
- Belashitsa mountains, **18**, 2; region north of, assigned to Bulgaria 1913, **15**, 41.
- Belgium, shipping in Greek ports, **18**, 88; trade with, **16**, 121, 125, 126, **18**, 98, 129, 146.
- Belgrade, **16**, 36, 38; ceded by Turkey, 1718, **16**, 16; Janissary rule, **16**, 22; Metropolitan of, **15**, 16; Treaty of, 1739, **15**, 9,
- Belgrade—*cont.*
10, 52, **16**, 16, 17; violence of Turkish soldiery, **16**, 35; withdrawal of Turkish garrison, 1867, **15**, 24.
- Bell's Orient Line, **18**, 87.
- Belova, railway, **16**, 64.
- Bender, **15**, 67.
- Benghazi, seizure by Italy, 1911, **16**, 52.
- Berane, occupied by Montenegrins, 1912, **17**, 48.
- Berat, **17**, 28, 34, 47; light railway, **17**, 75; population, **17**, 22; railway scheme, **17**, 75; road, **17**, 4, 74.
- Berat district, agriculture, **17**, 80, 81.
- Berisha, the, *hairak* of, **17**, 15.
- Berlin, Conference, 1880, **18**, 44; Congress of, 1878, **16**, 40, **17**, 40, 63, **18**, 43-4; Ottoman Embassy established by Selim III, **16**, 27; Treaty of, 1878, **15**, 16, 22, 26-30, 37, 58, 59, 161, **16**, 40-1, 43, 46, 47, 53, **17**, 38, 59, 67, 68, **18**, 2, 56, provisions, **15**, 95-114.
- Bernstorff-Stinterberg, Count (1871), **15**, 81.
- Berovich, George, proposed as Governor of Crete, 1896, **18**, 47.
- Beshik Tash, **16**, 78.
- Besika Bay, British Fleet at, **16**, 38.
- Bessarabia, acquisition by Russia, 1812, **15**, 13, **16**, 22; assignment of southern portion to Moldavia, 1856, **15**, 23, 64, **16**, 32, and subsequent restoration, 1878, **15**, 27, 64, 111; population, **15**, 158, 160; Rumanians, sentiment of, **15**, 48; Russian invasion, 1809, **16**, 22.
- Beyrut (Beirut, Beyrout), **16**, 86; bank, **16**, 134; capture by Anglo-Austrian Fleet, **16**, 29-30; foreign post offices, **16**, 71.
- Bib Doda, hereditary chief of the Roman Catholic Mirdites, **17**, 36.
- Bimersa, viticulture, **17**, 82.
- Bismarck, Prince (1878), **15**, 95.
- Bitlis vilayet, **16**, 44.
- Bituchi, Albanian tribe, **17**, 15.
- Bitumen, export, **17**, 91; mine, **17**, 88.
- Biyelepolye, occupied by Montenegrins, 1912, **17**, 48.
- Black Driu River, **17**, 3, 74.
- Black Sea, **15**, 20, **16**, 15, 62, 63, 77; British and French Fleets in, 1854, **15**, 56; claim to navigation of, renounced by Russia, 1739,

Black Sea—*cont.*

- 16, 17; freedom of navigation, 15, 18, 54, 16, 23, 32, 75, to Russian ships, 15, 10; Greek colonisation, 6th–4th century, B.C., 18, 20; land between Silistria and, acquisition by Rumania, 1878, 15, 27, 111; navigation, 16, 24; neutralisation of, 1856, 15, 23, 57, 75, 16, 32, 36, articles of Treaty of Paris abrogated, 15, 57–8, 16, 37, Russian denunciation, 1870, 15, 57; north coast between the Dniester and the Bug, acquisition of, by Russia, 16, 19, occupied by Russians, 16, 18, Russian claims, 1739, 15, 10, Russian control acquired, 1774, 15, 10; north east coast, places on, ceded to Russia, 1774, 16, 18; ports, 16, 86, 87; privileges to French commercial flag, 1802, 16, 20, privileges to Russian ships, 1774, 1779, 16, 18, 19; provisions of Treaty of Adrianople, 1829, 15, 70; provisions of Treaty of London, 1871, 15, 81–2; Russian note, 1870, 15, 78–81; Russian rights in, 15, 52–3; Russian warship on, 17th century, 16, 17; shipping services, 15, 142; traffic in Constantinople, 16, 82, 83, 84, 85; Treaty of 1809 between Turkey and Great Britain, 15, 54.
- Bleichröder, S., German banking firm, 16, 106–7.
- Bœotia, Albanians in, 17, 25, 18, 6; cotton cultivation, 18, 94; general election, 1912, 18, 66; minerals, 18, 98; rice, 18, 90; Tosk colony in, 1358, 17, 28.
- Bogazi, anchorage, 18, 123.
- Boletin, Isa, 17, 59; rising under, 1909, 17, 44.
- Bolu, railway, 16, 66, 67.
- Bookbinding, 18, 101.
- Boot making, 16, 103.
- Bora, 17, 5, 79.
- Borgo Erizzo, Albanians at, 17, 26.
- Bosnia, 16, 41; Albanians in, 17, 26; annexation by Austria, 1908, 15, 36–7, 16, 47, 17, 42; insurrection, 1875, 16, 37; North, strip of, ceded by Turkey, 1718, 16, 16, restored to Turkey, 1739, 16, 16; occupation and administration by Austria-Hungary, provisions of Treaty of Berlin, 1878, 15, 29, 104, 16, 40; Serbian interests, 15, 32.
- Bosphorus, 16, 8; British and Russian exchange of views, 1877, 15, 58; closure, to foreign but not to Russian war ships, 15, 53, 55, to warships, 15, 19, 23, 54, 56, 57, 57–8, 73, 75, 81–2; Convention of the Straits, 1841, 16, 30; co-operation for security of, 1840, 15, 55–6; dimensions, services, &c., 16, 62–4; free navigation, to merchant ships, 15, 54, 70, 93, to Russian ships, 15, 52–3; future of, 15, 60–1; Greek colonisation 6th–4th centuries B.C., 18, 20; opening of, to warships, 16, 37; provisions of Treaty of San Stefano and Berlin, 1878, 15, 59, exceptions allowed, 15, 60; ports, 16, 78–80; question, 15, 52–61; roads to places on, 16, 61; Russian fleet in, 1833, 16, 29; shipping formalities, 16, 73–4; sovereignty restored to Turkey, 1809, 16, 21.
- Bostandji, road, 16, 61.
- Boulgares, —, member of Greek Provisional Government, 1862, 18, 36.
- Bourqueney, Baron de, 15, 73, 74, 78.
- Bouteneff, A., 15, 71.
- Boyana river, 17, 2, 3, 40; anchorage, &c., 17, 77; navigation, and need for canalisation, 17, 75–6; silting up of, 17, 3.
- Braila, 15, 64, 65, 67.
- Brass and copper ware, industry, 16, 103.
- Bremen, shipping service with, 16, 87.
- Breslau, acquisition by Turkey, 16, 57.
- Brick kilns, 17, 89.
- British Colony, Turkey, 16, 14.
- British Petrified Company, 18, 98, 104.
- Brogie, Duc de, 15, 81.
- Broström, Axel, & Son, 18, 88.
- Broussa, railway, 16, 124.
- Brunnow, Baron de, 15, 73, 74, 78, 81.
- Brusa, 16, 29; taken by Orkhan, 1326, 16, 14.
- Bucarest, Albanians in, 17, 26; Magyar settlements round, 15, 160; Peace Conference, 1913, 18, 70; Peace of, 1885, 17, 31; Treaty of, 1812, 15, 13, 16, 62, 161, 16, 22, 23; Treaty of, 1913, 15, 41–2, 45, 46, 134–7, 161, 16, 55, 56, 17, 67, 18, 2, 3, 71; Treaty of, 1918, 15, 65, 161,

- Budapest, surrender by Turks to Austria, 1686, **16**, 16.
- Budua, Venetian settlement, 14-15th century, **17**, 65.
- Buffaloes, **17**, 84, **18**, 94.
- Bug river, **15**, 62, **16**, 19.
- Building industry, **18**, 120.
- Building stone, **17**, 118, **18**, 124.
- Bujoni, the, bairak of, **17**, 15.
- Bukovina, national sentiment, **15**, 48-9; Rumanians in, **12**, 158.
- Bulair, **16**, 2.
- Bulgaria, **15**, 37, **16**, 4, 47, 58, **17**, 28; and Albania, **17**, 47; Albanians in, **17**, 26; annexation of Eastern Rumelia, and proclamation of Prince Ferdinand as Tsar, 1908, **16**, 47; Balkan Wars, 1912-3, **15**, 40-1, **16**, 53-5, **18**, 68, 69-71; and the Danube question, **15**, 65; Exarchate, **15**, 24-5, **17**, 36-7, **18**, 41, 56; independence proclaimed, 1908, **15**, 36, **17**, 42; influences in Macedonia, **15**, 32; interests in Albania, **17**, 66-7; military convention with Greece, 1912, **15**, 38, 129-32; military convention with Serbia, 1912, **15**, 38, 119-27; national sentiment, **15**, 45-6; neutrality in Greco-Turkish War, 1897, **18**, 50; neutrality in Russo-Greek War, 1897, **15**, 33; Patriarchate, abolished by Turks, 1393, **15**, 7; provisions of Treaties of San Stefano and Berlin, 1878, **15**, 26-7, 85-8, 95-100, **16**, 39, 40; relations with Greece, **18**, 66; relations with Rumanians, **15**, 35; relations with Turkey before the war, **16**, 56; rising, 1875, 1876, **16**, 37, and subsequent atrocities, **15**, 25; state of, at beginning of 19th century, **15**, 13-4; table of treaties affecting boundaries, **15**, 161; territorial acquisitions, 1915, **15**, 43; territorial results of Balkan Wars, **15**, 42-3; trade with, **16**, 69, 98, 102, 125, **18**, 147, 148; Treaty of Alliance with Greece, 1912, **15**, 38, 127-9, **18**, 66 7; Treaty of Alliance with Serbia, and secret annexe, 1912, **15**, 38-9, 115-9, **16**, 53; treaty with Turkey, 1913, **15**, 42, 138-54; union with Eastern Rumelia, 1885, **15**, 30-1, 45, **16**, 42, 44, **18**, 45; war with Serbia and Greece, 1913, **16**, 55.
- Bulgarian language, **16**, 7.
- Bulgarian Macedonia, Greek frontier, **18**, 2.
- Bulgars (Bulgarians) in Albania, **17**, 24, 66-7; Balkan peninsula, **15**, 157-8; emigration from Turkey, **16**, 108; invasion of Albania, **16**, 27, 31; invasion of Balkan peninsula, 610, **15**, 1, 6; massacres in Macedonia, **16**, 44-5; struggle with Greeks, **16**, 37; in Turkey, **16**, 7, 8, 9, expulsion on outbreak of Balkan War, **16**, 9.
- Buljeri, Albanian clan, **17**, 15.
- Bülöw, Baron de (1841), **15**, 73.
- Bülöw, Prince (1878), **15**, 95.
- Bunar-Hissar, road, **16**, 60.
- Buol Schauenstein, Count (1856), **15**, 74, 76.
- Burgas, **15**, 159.
- Burgas, kaza of, population, **16**, 9.
- Burney, Admiral, at Antivari, 1913, **17**, 50.
- Bushat pashas of Scutari, **17**, 16, 33.
- Butrinto, harbour, **17**, 3; seizure from Venice by Ali Pasha, 1797, **17**, 29, 34.
- Butrinto Bay, anchorage, **17**, 78.
- Butter, customs duties, **18**, 108; export, **17**, 91.
- Buyuk Chekmeje, Bay of, **16**, 60.
- Buyuk Chekmeje Lagoon, **16**, 2, 59, 60.
- Buyuk Chekmeje lake, fisheries, **16**, 97.
- Buyuk Halkali, school of forestry, **16**, 90-1.
- Buyukdere, roads, **16**, 60.
- Buyukdere Bay, roadstead and anchorage, **16**, 79.
- Byron, Lord, **18**, 25, 26.
- Byzantine Empire, **15**, 5, **18**, 21.
- Byzantium, **18**, 21.

C.

- Cables, Cyclades and Northern Sporades, **18**, 116, 120, 122, 124, 125, 128, 130, 132, 135, 137, 138-9, 142, 149, 151, 151-2, 153, 154.
- Cadorna, Chevalier (1871), **15**, 81.
- Calabria "Region," Albanians in, **17**, 26.
- Calamine, *see also* Zinc; export, **18**, 107.
- Camel breeding, **18**, 94.
- Campo Formio, Treaty of 1797, **15**, 11, **16**, 20, **17**, 60.

- Canals, Greece, **18**, 83-4.
 Canary seed, and exports, **16**, 90, 122.
 Candia, attack on British in harbour and murder of vice-consul, 1898, **18**, 51; British officers and men, massacre by Mussulmans, 1897, **16**, 46; conquered by Turkey, 1669, **16**, 16; occupation by British, 1897-8, **18**, 51, 52.
 Canea, **16**, 53, **18**, 45; allied occupation, 1897-8, **18**, 48, 51, 52; Greek flag hoisted at entrance of port, 1909, **18**, 60, cut down by Allied marines, **18**, 61; insurrection, 1896, **18**, 47; massacre of Christians, 1897, **16**, 45, **18**, 47, 47-8; mosque, **18**, 52.
 Canevaro, Admiral, and Cretan question, **18**, 51, 52.
 Canning, Sir Stratford, English Foreign Secretary, **18**, 25, 30.
 Capitulations, **16**, 14-15, 31, 70-1, 109-10, 136; abolition, **16**, 57, 71.
 Capo d'Istria, Count John, Greek President, 1827-31, **15**, 17, **18**, 24, 27, 29; assassination, **18**, 29, 31.
 Cappadocians, **16**, 14.
 Carathéodory Pasha (1878), **15**, 95.
 Carobs, export, **18**, 108.
 Carol, Prince, of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, elected King of Rumania, 1866, **15**, 24.
 Carpets, trade in, **16**, 107, 119, 122, 124.
 Carriage-building, **18**, 101.
 Cassel, Sir Ernest, National Bank of Turkey formed by, 1909, **16**, 133-4.
 Castellorizon island, **18**, 71.
 Castlereagh, Lord, **18**, 25; and Balkan question, **15**, 12.
 Castrati district, schools, **17**, 96.
 Castriotis George, *see* Skanderbeg.
 Catania province, Albanians in, **17**, 26.
 Catherine, Empress, progress to the Crimea, 1787, **16**, 19; relations with Turkey, **15**, 10-11, **16**, 18, 19.
 Catholic Christians, Albania, **17**, 23.
 Cattaro, **17**, 60, 65; history, **15**, 12, **16**, 21.
 Cattle, **16**, 89, **17**, 83, 84, **18**, 94, 117, 120, 122, 126, 131, 133, 134, 139, 149, 152.
 Caucasian tribes, Turkish suzerainty renounced, 1774, **16**, 18.
 Caviare making, **16**, 97.
 Cavour, Count (1856), **15**, 74.
 Cedrates, export, **18**, 108.
 Celts, invasion of Albania, **17**, 31.
 Cement industry, **16**, 102, **18**, 136.
 Central Albanian Committee, **17**, 47, demands of, **17**, 93-5.
 Cephallonia island, cession to Greece by England, 1864, **18**, 1, 157-9; currant cultivation, **18**, 38; insurrections, 1848-9, **18**, 38; wine industry, **18**, 91.
 Cereals, **16**, 89, **17**, 80, **18**, 90, 122, 125; trade, **16**, 74, 106, 108.
 Cerigo (Cythera) island, cession to Greece by England, **18**, 1, 157-9.
 Chaighzi, fighting at, 1913, **16**, 54.
 Chala district, schools, **17**, 96.
 Chams, Albanian tribe, **17**, 19.
 Chanak, **16**, 3, 74.
 Charcoal making, **16**, 89.
 Charkeui, **16**, 54.
 Charles, King of Rumania, and Balkan war, **18**, 70.
 Charles, Prince, of Hohenzollern, **16**, 36.
 Chatalja, armistice, 1912, **16**, 53, **18**, 68.
 Chatalja lines, **16**, 2, 4, 60; Bulgarian advance to, 1912, **15**, 40.
 Chatalja Peninsula, **16**, 1.
 Chatalja Promontory, **16**, 3.
 Chatalja vilayet, **16**, 1: population, **16**, 8.
 Cheese, industry, **17**, 91, **18**, 107, 120, 125, 133, 134.
 Chekib Effendi (1841), **15**, 73.
 Chemical products, export and import, **18**, 146, 147.
 Chemicals, import and export, **17**, 91, **18**, 106, 107, 145, 146; industry, **18**, 101.
 Chereti, the, Bairak of, **17**, 15.
 Cheshme, Russian defeat of Turkish Navy off, 1770, **16**, 18.
 Chile, road, **16**, 61.
 Chimara, **17**, 98.
 China clay, **18**, 126.
 Chios, Turks in, **15**, 159.
 Chkrelis district, schools, **17**, 96.
 Chochi district, schools, **17**, 96.
 Choczim, **15**, 67.
 Cholera, **16**, 6, **18**, 35.
 Chorlu, population, **16**, 108; roads, **16**, 59, 60.
 Chorlu, kaza of, population, **16**, 9.
 Christesco, Col. C. (1913), **15**, 134.
 Christian IX, King of Denmark, **18**, 37.
 Christians, Turkey, massacres, &c., **16**, 108.

- Chrome, **18**, 97, 98.
 Chrome ore, export, **18**, 87.
 Chromium, **17**, 88.
 Cigarette manufacture, **17**, 90.
 Cilicia, **16**, 44.
 Cilicians, **16**, 14.
 Cinnabar, **17**, 88.
 Circassian fortresses, cession to Russia, **16**, 23.
 Circassians, **16**, 39; in Turkey, **16**, 7.
 Citrons in brine, industry and export, **18**, 145, 146.
 Clarendon, Earl of, **15**, 20, 74, 76.
 Climate, Albania, **17**, 5-6; Cyclades and Northern Sporades, **18**, 13; Turkey, **16**, 4-5.
 Cloth, export, **18**, 145.
 Coal, **17**, 88, import, **16**, 127, **18**, 105, 145, 146; trade, Turkey, **16**, 105-6, 110.
 Coanda, Gen. C. (1913), **15**, 134.
 Cocoa, imports, **16**, 127.
 Code Napoléon, **16**, 43.
 Codrington, Admiral, defeat of Turkish and Egyptian Fleets, **1827**, **18**, 26-7.
 Coffee, imports, **16**, 127, **17**, 91, **18**, 108, 136, 145, 146.
 Cognac, export, **18**, 136.
 Commerce, Albania, **17**, 90-2; Cyclades and Northern Sporades, **18**, 123, 127, 131-2, 136, 139, 145-8, 152; Greece, **18**, 102-5; Turkey, **16**, 104-17.
 Commercial Bank of Greece, **18**, 113, 114, 148.
 Commercial organisations, **16**, 109, **18**, 103.
 Commercial Treaties, Turkey, **16**, 128-9.
 Committee of Union and Progress, **15**, 36, **16**, 50, **17**, 43, 58; rule of, **16**, 50-2.
 Comnenus, Michael, "Despotate of Epeiros" founded, 1204, **17**, 27.
 Compagnia Marittima Italiana, **18**, 88.
 Compagnie des Eaux de Constantinople (Derkos Water Company) **16**, 137.
 Compagnie des Eaux de Scutari et Haïdar Pasha, **16**, 137.
 Compagnie française des Mines de Laurium, **18**, 97, 103-4.
 Compagnie Hellénique de Navigation Transatlantique, **18**, 87.
 Compagnie de Navigation Chirket-Hairie (Bosphorus Steam Navigation Company), **16**, 63.
 Confectionery, import, **16**, 127, **18**, 146; industry, **18**, 101, 144, 145, 147.
 Constantine, Emperor, **15**, 3.
 Constantine XI, **15**, 46.
 Constantine, King, **15**, 46, **16**, 54, **18**, 8, 68, 70, 76, 82; Balkan war, **18**, 70-1; claim to title of Constantine XI, **18**, 21; resignation of Military Command when Crown Prince, **18**, 62; restored, 1866, **18**, 66.
 Constantinople, **15**, 11, 19, 159, **16**, 2, 3, 4, 17, 26, 37, **17**, 45, **18**, 4, 5, Albanian troops, mutiny, 1909, **17**, 30, 42; banks, **16**, 134, 135; British bank, need for, **16**, 137-8; British Fleet off, 1807, **15**, 53; capture by Crusaders, 1204, **18**, 21-2; capture by Turks, 1453, **15**, 7, **16**, 14, **18**, 22; as centre of Byzantine Empire, **15**, 5; climate, **16**, 5; Conference, 1881, **18**, 44; Conference of Ambassadors, 1885, **15**, 31; Convention, 1881, **15**, 29; electric lighting, **16**, 103; European Conference, 1876, **15**, 25, **16**, 38; export trade, **16**, 124; foreign firms and companies, **16**, 110; future of, **15**, 50-1 60; Great Church of, relations of Greek Church with, **18**, 73; Greek Oecumenical Patriarch, **15**, 14, 15, 24, 32, **17**, 17, 36-7, 62, **18**, 23, 31, 75, execution, **16**, 23; Greeks in, **15**, 15; industries and commerce, **16**, 102, 103, 104, 105, 106; intrigues and revolts of the Janissaries, **16**, 15; mail services, **16**, 71-2; Latin Emperor, 1204, **15**, 1, 6; Metropolitan railway, **16**, 68; Ministry of Agriculture, Mines and Forests, **16**, 98; Patriarch of, **15**, 5; Peace of, 1700, **15**, 52; Peace of, 1897, **16**, 46; Phanariots of, **18**, 5, 22; population and races, **15**, 160, **16**, 7, 8, 9; ports, **16**, 74-8; poverty of population, **16**, 119; quarantine precautions, **16**, 5; railways **16**, 64, 65, **18**, 85; recovered by Greeks, 1261, **15**, 6, **18**, 22; revolution against Young Turks, **15**, 38; rising, **16**, 21, 27, 50; roads, **16**, 59-60; Russian Embassy established, 1774, **15**, 10; Russian squadron off, 1833, **15**, 55; St. Sophia, **16**, 7; sanitary conditions, **16**, 5-6; shipping, **15**, 142, **16**, 64, 80-7, **17**,

Constantinople—*cont.*

- 79; Société Anonyme Ottomane des Quais, Docks, et Entrepôts, **16**, 75, 76, 77; telegraphs and telephones, **16**, 72; trade with, **18**, 143; tramways, **16**, 103, 137; Treaties of, 1784, **16**, 19, 1798, **15**, 53, **16**, 20, 1809, **15**, 18, 54, **16**, 21-2, 1858, **15**, 161, 1881, **15**, 161, 1886, **15**, 161, 1897, **15**, 161, **18**, 50, 1913, **15**, 138-54, 161, **16**, 1; Young Turk revolution, 1908, **15**, 36; wireless, **16**, 73.
- Constantinople district, exports and imports, **16**, 122, 123, 124, 127.
- Constantinople vilayet, **16**, 1; agriculture, **16**, 90-1; forests, **16**, 92; land tenure, **16**, 93-5; population, **16**, 8; roads, **16**, 60-1.
- Constanza, acquisition by Rumania, **15**, 48; shipping service with, **16**, 87; telegraph line, **16**, 72.
- Constanza Orient Express, **16**, 71, 88.
- Copais Lake, drainage, **18**, 95.
- Copper, **16**, 101, **17**, 88, **18**, 99, 117.
- Corfu island, **17**, 3, 98, **18**, 43, 86; British protectorate, renunciation, 1864, **18**, 157; Conference and Convention, 1914, **15**, 42, **17**, 64, **18**, 72; customs duties, **18**, 110; general election, 1912, **18**, 66; industries, **18**, 101; neutralisation of, 1864, **18**, 1, 39, 158; port, **18**, 86; Roman Catholic archbishopric, **18**, 74; steamship service with, **17**, 79, **18**, 141, 142; wine industry, **18**, 91.
- Corfu, town, **18**, 2; training schools at, **18**, 79.
- Corinth, Albanians in, **17**, 25; railway, **18**, 85.
- Corinth canal, **18**, 83-4.
- Corinth, gulf of, **15**, 6; forests between Pindus range and, **18**, 95; south side, lignite, **18**, 99.
- Corinthia, sultana cultivation, **18**, 92.
- Corn, **18**, 120, 126, 135, 137, 155.
- Corti, Comte, **15**, 95, **17**, 39.
- Cossacks, fisheries at lakes of Buyuk, Chekmeje, and Kuchuk Chekmeje let to, **16**, 97.
- Cotton, cultivation, **17**, 81, **18**, 90, 94, 120, 126, 135; import, **16**, 127, **17**, 91, **18**, 143-4, 145; industry, **16**, 102, **17**, 89, **18**, 101-2, 120, 143-4.
- Courtgi & Co., **16**, 82.
- Cowley, Lord (1856), **15**, 74, 76.
- Craiova, Banat of, ceded by Turkey, 1718, **16**, 16; restored to Turkey, 1739, **16**, 16.
- Crawford, Sir Richard, Turkish Custom House administration reorganised by, 1909, **16**, 129.
- Crédit Lyonnais, **16**, 134.
- Cretans, Naxos Island, **18**, 14-15.
- Crete, **15**, 17, 46, **16**, 29, 40, **18**, 9, 29, 34, 43; acquisition by Turkey, 1913, **18**, 2-3; administration, **16**, 45-6, **18**, 43, 77, 159-62; affairs of, **16**, 36; autonomy, 1897-1908, **18**, 51-4; bank, **18**, 114; blockade and bombardment by admirals of Five Powers, 1897, **18**, 48; cables, **18**, 142; captured by Turks, 1669, **15**, 7; cession by Turkey, 1913, **15**, 40-1, **16**, 55; delegates sent to National Assembly of, 1843, **18**, 33; deputies admitted to the Greek Chamber, 1912, **16**, 53, **18**, 67, elected to Chamber, but not allowed to take seats, 1912, **18**, 66; under Franks till 1669, **18**, 22; Greek expedition to, 1897, **16**, 45; and Greco-Turkish wars, 1886-97, 1912, **18**, 46, 68; history, **18**, 30; incipient rebellion, **16**, 39; insurrections, **15**, 33, **16**, 30-1, **18**, 42, 46, 47; Metropolitan of, **18**, 75; Pact of Halepa, 1878, **16**, 41-2, 45; population, **18**, 6; provisional Government, **18**, 57-8, 61; question, 1864-76, **18**, 40-1; recovered by Turkey from Mehemet Ali, **15**, 19, **16**, 30; religions, **18**, 74; retained by Greece, **15**, 41-2; Turkish offer of, to England, 1853, **15**, 19-20; Turks in, **15**, 159; union with Greece, demand for, **15**, 33, proclamations of, **15**, 36, **16**, 36, 51, **17**, 42, **18**, 45, 54, 57-8, 1912, **18**, 3; wine industry, **18**, 91; withdrawal of troops of the Powers, 1909, **18**, 59-60.
- Crime, Albania, **17**, 13-4.
- Crimea, annexed by Mohammed II, 1456, **16**, 15; independence recognised, 1774, **16**, 18; Khan, Russian nominee recognised, 1779, **16**, 19; occupation by Russians, **16**, 18, 19; Russian annexation, 1783, **15**, 10, **16**, 19; Russian invasion, 1736, **16**, 17.
- Crimean war, **15**, 19-21, **18**, 34-5.
- Croatia, ceded by Turkey, 1699, **16**, 16.

- Cronstadt, defeat of Turkish Navy, 1770, **16**, **18**.
- Crusade, Fourth, 1204, **15**, **1**, **6**; **18**, **22**.
- Cultivation methods, **16**, **90**, **92**, **17**, **84**, **18**, **94-5**.
- Cunard Line, **16**, **86**, **18**, **141-2**.
- Currant crisis, 1894-5, **18**, **55**.
- Currant cultivation, **18**, **90**, **91-2**; export, **18**, **87**.
- Currency, Albania, **17**, **92**; Greece, **18**, **111-2**; Turkey, **16**, **129-33**.
- Customs and tariffs, Greece, **18**, **108-9**; Turkey, **16**, **128-9**.
- Cuza, Prince, *see* Alexander I., King of Rumania.
- Cyclades, **18**, **9-16**, **29**; fig cultivation, **18**, **93**; fruit industry, **18**, **93**.
- Cyprus, banks, **16**, **133**; British occupation, **18**, **44**; captured by Turks, 1571, **15**, **7**; Church of, **18**, **76**; Convention of, 1878, **16**, **40-1**, **43**; under Franks till 1571, **18**, **22**; Greek colonisation, 6th-4th century, B.C., **18**, **20**; Greeks in, **18**, **8**; provisions of Convention of Constantinople, **15**, **29**.
- Cyrenaica, **16**, **52**.
- Cythera, *see* Cerigo.
- Czartoriski, Prince, **15**, **12**.
- D.
- Dacia, conquest by Trajan, 106, **15**, **1**, **5**.
- Dalmatia, Venetian conquests in, **15**, **9**; acquisition by Austria, 1797, **17**, **60**.
- Danala, National Assembly, 1827, **18**, **27**.
- Damascus, British occupation, **16**, **58**; massacres of Christians, 1860, **16**, **35**.
- Dancev, Dr. Stojan, **15**, **132**.
- Danilo II, Prince, of Montenegro, **17**, **36**.
- Danube river, **15**, **6**, **20**, **27**, **16**, **14**, **18**; crossed by Russians, 1809, **16**, **22**; Delta, cession to Moldavia, 1856, **16**, **32**; European (International) Commission, **15**, **64-5**, **65**, **16**, **32**, **37**; freedom of navigation, 1856, **16**, **32**; improvement of navigation and levy of tax for, **15**, **65**; international commerce, **15**, **63**; mixed commission, **15**, **65**; navigation, provisions of Treaty of Adrianople, 1829, **15**, **68**; question, **15**, **62-5**; Riparian Commission, **15**, **64**.
- Danube-Adriatic railway scheme, **17**, **66**.
- Danube vilayet, Bulgarian Exarchate, **16**, **37**.
- Danubian principalities, **15**, **11**; **16**, **31**; Greek invasion, 1821, **15**, **16**; Russia recognised as protector. of, 1826, **15**, **18**; Russian invasions, **15**, **17**, **20**, **16**, **31**; Turkish authority, restriction, 1779, **16**, **18-9**; union of, 1859, **16**, **35**.
- Dardanelles, Straits, **15**, **11**, **16**, **2-3**, **40**, **58**, **18**, **3**; British and Russian exchange of views, 1877, **15**, **58**; closed, 1841, **15**, **19**; closure to men-of-war, **15**, **18**, **23**, **53**, **54**, **56**, **57**, **57-8**, **73**, **75**, **81-2**, **16**, **30**; co-operation for security of, 1840, **15**, **55-6**; forcing of, by British Fleet, 1807, **15**, **53**, **16**, **21**; free navigation to merchant ships, **15**, **18**, **54**, **93**; free navigation to Russian ships, **15**, **52-3**, **70**, **16**, **20**; French commercial flag allowed to traverse, 1802, **16**, **20**; future of, **15**, **60-1**; German control, **16**, **56**; *Goeben* and *Breslau* in, **16**, **57**; Greek colonisation, 6th-4th century, B.C., **18**, **19**, **20**; internationalisation, **16**, **21-2**, **33**; navigation, **16**, **23**, **24**; opening of, to warships, **16**, **37**, to Russian warships, 1833, **15**, **18**, **53**, **55**, **72**; provisions of Treaty of San Stephano and Berlin, 1878, **15**, **59**, exceptions allowed, **15**, **60**; question, **15**, **52-61**; shipping formalities, **16**, **73-4**; Treaty of the, 1809, **15**, **54**, **16**, **21-2**.
- Decleia, viticulture, **18**, **91**.
- Dedeagach, capture by Greeks, 1913, **18**, **70**; railway, **18**, **85**.
- Deligeorges, Epaminondas, **18**, **35**, **35-6**.
- Deligiannes, Greek Foreign Minister (1877), **18**, **42**; assassination, 1905, **18**, **55**; Cretan policy, **18**, **47**; delegate to Berlin Congress, 1878, **18**, **43**; financial measures, **18**, **45**; ministry, **18**, **48**.
- Della Grazia, **18**, **139**.
- Delos island, **18**, **10**, *see also* Mykonos and Delos.
- Delvino, **17**, **19**, **34**.
- Delvino district, agriculture and fruit growing, **17**, **80**, **81**, **82**.
- Delvinon, assigned to Albania, **18**, **71**.
- Denmark, shipping in Greek ports, **18**, **88**.

- Denusa island, **18**, 11.
 Deppc, A., **18**, 88.
 Derby, Lord, correspondence with Count Shuvaloff, 1877, *re* Straits, **15**, 58.
 Derekeui, road, **16**, 59.
 Derkos, lake of, **16**, 2, 20; lignite mine near, **16**, 101.
 Derkos Water Company, **16**, 137.
 Despotiko, anchorage, **18**, 132.
 Desprez, M. F. H. (1878), **15**, 95.
 Deutsche Bank, **16**, 66, 97, 135-6, 137, **17**, 75; work in Turkey, **16**, 112-7.
 Deutsche Levante Linie, **15**, 142, **16**, 87, 88, 104, **18**, 88, 154.
 Deutsche Orient Bank, **16**, 63, 68, 103, 134-5; work in Turkey, **16**, 112.
 Devoli river, **17**, 4.
 Diakofto, railway, **18**, 85.
 Diarbekr vilayet, **16**, 44.
 Dibra, **17**, 91, 99; Albanians in, **17**, 25; assigned to Serbia, 1913, **17**, 69; Bulgars in, **17**, 67; commerce, **17**, 90; Malzia of, **17**, 15; occupied by Serbians, **17**, 48.
 Dibra, sanjak of, **17**, 1.
 Dino, Rassik, Albanian deputy at Ambassadors' Conference in London, 1912, **17**, 97.
 Diskati, railway project, **18**, 86.
 Dissesco, C. G. (1913), **15**, 134.
 Distilleries, **18**, 101, 144.
 Dniester river, **15**, 13, 62; western boundary of Russia extended to, 1792, **15**, 11, **16**, 19.
 Dobruja, **15**, 41, 43, 158, **16**, 40; acquisition by Rumania, **15**, 27, 41, 48, 64, 111; population, **15**, 160.
 Dodate family, **17**, 20.
 Dodekanese islands (Southern Sporades), **18**, 23, 67; Italian occupation, **15**, 40, 42-3, **16**, 52, **18**, 3, 67-8, 69; sponge-fishing, **18**, 96.
 Doiran, **18**, 2; capture by Greeks 1913, **18**, 70.
 Domboli bequest, Athens University, **18**, 80.
 Domokos, **18**, 25; battle of, 1897, **16**, 46.
 Donkeys, **18**, 94, 117, 121, 126, 133, 152.
 Doro Channel, **18**, 10.
 Doxaton, massacres by Bulgars, 1913, **18**, 70.
 Dragasani, battle of, **18**, 24.
 Dragoumes, Stephen, Greek Premier, 1910, **18**, 64; General Administrator, Crete, 1912, **18**, 68.
 Drama, **18**, 71; Greek detachment at, **18**, 70; massacres by Bulgars, 1913, **18**, 70; textile industry, **18**, 101.
Drang nach Osten, **17**, 68.
 Dresdner Bank, **16**, 134.
 Drin, lower, coal, **17**, 88.
 Drin river, *see also* Black Drin and White Drin, **17**, 15, 36, 74, 98; Bulgars on, **17**, 67; system, **17**, 3-4.
 Drin valley, railway scheme, **17**, 76.
 Drinassa, the, **17**, 3.
 Duckworth, Admiral, Dardanelles forced by, 1807, **15**, 53, **16**, 21.
 Dukajin, Alexander, reputed author of the "Kamun i Leks Dukajinit," 15th century, **17**, 13.
 Dukajin, Albanian tribe, **17**, 15, 28.
 Dukajin, district of the, forests, **17**, 85.
 Dukati, anchorage, **17**, 78.
 Dulcigno, **15**, 159; Albanians in, **17**, 24; assigned to Montenegro, **16**, 41, **17**, 30, 40, 59, 60, 68, 69; given up to Montenegro, 1878, but recovered, 1880, **15**, 28; occupied by Montenegro, **15**, 26; Venetian settlement, **17**, 28, 65.
 Dunmehs, Jews professing Islam, **16**, 7.
 Durazzo, **15**, 48, **17**, 3, 28, 49, 59, 70, **18**, 32; banks, **17**, 93; industries, **17**, 89; light railway, **17**, 75; marched on by insurgents, August, 1914, **17**, 52; merchant families of Vlach origin, **17**, 22; occupied by Serbians and Montenegrins, 1912, **15**, 40, **17**, 48, 62; population, **17**, 22; port, **17**, 77-8, 78-9; railway scheme, **17**, 75, 76; rainfall, **17**, 6; road, **17**, 73, 74; salt production, **17**, 88; sanitary conditions, **17**, 6; seized by Normans, 1081, **17**, 27; Senate of Central Albania set up by, **17**, 50; siege by Essad Pasha's partisans, June 1914, **17**, 51; Venetian settlement, **17**, 28, 65; Prince William of Wied at, 1914, **15**, 42, **17**, 30, 51, 71.
 Durazzo district, **17**, 72; agriculture, &c., **17**, 81, 82.
 Durazzo province, **17**, 27.
 Durazzo sanjak, sheep, **17**, 83.
 Dushmani, the, bairak of, **17**, 15.
 Dyeing, **17**, 90.
 Dyrrachium, *see* Durazzo.

E.

- Eastern Telegraph Company, **16**, 72, **18**, 142.
- Edhem Pasha, war with Greece, 1897, **18**, 50.
- Edinburgh, Duke of (Prince Alfred), blockade of Greece, 1886, **18**, 46; as candidate for Greek crown, but not allowed by British Government, **18**, 36-7.
- Education, Albania, **17**, 54-5, language, **17**, 54, 55, Turkish concessions, **17**, 45-6, 96, Turkish policy and Albanian demands, **17**, 44, 45, 54-5, 93, 95; Greece, **18**, 78-82, elementary, declared compulsory and provided free, 1911, **18**, 65, language question, **18**, 81-2, reform scheme, **18**, 82; Turkey, **16**, 144, 149.
- Edward VII, King of England, at Athens, 1906, **18**, 55; meeting with Nicholas II at Reval, 1908, **16**, 45.
- Eggs, **18**, 128; export, **16**, 124.
- Egypt, **15**, 11; banks, **16**, 133; British occupation, 1881, **16**, 42; conquered by Sultan Selim, 1517, **16**, 15; Greeks in, **18**, 8; Napoleon in, **15**, 11; shipping in Greek ports, **18**, 88; Sultan's possession of, recognised by France, 1802, **16**, 20; telegraphic communication with, **18**, 142; trade with, **16**, 125, **17**, 91, **18**, 93, 94, 107, 136, 143, 147, 148; Turkish offer of, to England, 1853, **15**, 19-20; hereditary Viceroyship given to Mehemet Ali Pasha, **16**, 30.
- Egyptian Fleet, defeat in Bay of Navarino, 1827, **18**, 26-7.
- Elbasan, **17**, 3, 4; branch of League of "Skipetars" at, **17**, 39; commerce, **17**, 90, 91; Congress of, **17**, 94; light railway, **17**, 75; occupied by Serbians, **17**, 48; population, **17**, 22; railway scheme, **17**, 75; road, **17**, 73; seat of Central Albanian Committee, **17**, 47.
- Elbasan district, agriculture, &c., **17**, 80, 81, 82.
- Elbasan, sanjak of, **17**, 1.
- Electric and water-power, **18**, 102.
- Eleusis, wine industry, **18**, 91.
- Eliot, Sir Charles, quoted, **17**, 56.
- Elis, rice, **18**, 90.
- Elizabeth, Queen, of Rumania, **17**, 51.
- Ellerman Line, **15**, 142, **16**, 86, **18**, 87, 104.
- Embirikoi Clan, **18**, 122.
- Embroidery industry, **17**, 90, **18**, 101.
- Emery, **17**, 117, 118, 130 1, 132, **18**, 97, 98-9; exports, **16**, 122, **18**, 145, 146, 147.
- Emery-crushing factory, **18**, 144.
- Emigration, Albania, **17**, 22-4; Crete, **18**, 53; Cyclades, **18**, 16; Greece, **18**, 55, 87, 89; Turkey, **16**, 9, 10.
- Engineering, **18**, 101.
- England, *see* Great Britain.
- Enos, **15**, 45, **16**, 55, **18**, 68.
- Enteric, **17**, 6.
- Enver Pasha, and Balkan war, **16**, 54, 55; war in Benghazi, **16**, 52, and Young Turk revolution, **16**, 47.
- Epano Meria village, **18**, 135.
- Epeiros, **15**, 21, **16**, 39, **17**, 29, 34, 37, **18**, 2, 22, 26, 34, 69; administration, **18**, 77; Albanian League, **18**, 44; assignment to Greece, 1881, **15**, 29; delegates sent to National Assembly of, 1843, **18**, 33; Despotate of, founded, 1204, **17**, 27; Greco-Turkish war, 1897, **18**, 50; insurrections, **18**, 35, 42; language, **17**, 25; population, **15**, 159, **17**, 25, **18**, 6; railway project, **18**, 86; religions, **18**, 74; water power, **18**, 102.
- Epeiros, North (South Albania), **17**, 1, 64, **18**, 2; declaration of autonomy, 1914, **18**, 72; Greek propaganda and autonomous Provisional Government, **15**, 42; part of, assigned to Albania, **18**, 71; Vlachs in, **15**, 13.
- Epeiros, Southern, cession of part to Greece, **18**, 43, 44; forests, **18**, 95.
- Epídavros, Constitution of, 1822, **18**, 25.
- Epirote, **17**, 74.
- Episkopi, **18**, 140.
- Epizootic diseases, **17**, 83.
- Erenomelos (Antimelos) islet, **18**, 11.
- Eremonesia islands, **18**, 12.
- Erenkeui, model vineyards, **16**, 91.
- Erturt, **15**, 11.
- Ergasteria, **18**, 151.
- Ergene river, **16**, 2.
- Ergene Su river, **16**, 1, 4.
- Ermenikeui, roads, **16**, 61

- Ertoğrul, Ottoman invasion of Asia Minor under, 13th century, **16**, 14.
 Erzerum, **16**, 118; Treaty of, 1735, **16**, 17.
 Erzerum, vilayet of, **16**, 44.
 Eski-Chcir, railway, **16**, 66, 67, 68.
 Essad Pasha, **17**, 59, 72; arrest by Austrian Partisans and escape into Italy, **17**, 51; created a General by Prince William of Wied, **17**, 51; crown of Albania offered to Prince William of Wied, Feb. 1914, **17**, 51; defence of Scutari, 1912, **17**, 48, surrender, 1913, **17**, 50; inter-tribal feud between partisans of Ismail Kemal and, **17**, 51; Minister of War, **17**, 51; Senate of Central Albania set up by, 1913, **17**, 50.
 Essential oils, industry, **18**, 94.
 Esterhazy, Prince (1841), **15**, 73.
 Euboea island, **18**, 9, 152, 154; Albanians in, **17**, 25, **18**, 6; cables, **18**, 122; minerals, **18**, 98, 99; wine industry, **18**, 91.
 Euboea, Southern, **18**, 10, 12.
 Eumer Pasha, attempt to devastate Crete, **16**, 36.
 Evvoia (Ancient Euboea), **18**, 29.
 Exodactylos, Capt. A. (1913), **15**, 134.
 Exports and imports, Albania, **17**, 91-2; Greece, **18**, 105-8; Turkey, **16**, 118-27.
- F.**
- Fabvier, **18**, 26.
 Fairs, **18**, 102.
 Far East, **16**, 87.
 Farinaceous and leguminous products, imports, **16**, 127.
 Fels & Co., Corfu, **18**, 104.
 Ferdinand, King of Bulgaria, **15**, 138; elected King of Bulgaria, 1887, **15**, 31; proclamation as Tsar of the Bulgarians, 1908, **15**, 36, **16**, 47; alliance with Greece, 1912, **18**, 66-7; alliance with Serbia, 1912, **15**, 115; Balkan war, **18**, 70.
 Ferizovich, Young Turk movement at, 1908, **17**, 42.
 Ferzi Akhmet Pasha (1833), **15**, 71.
 Fethi Bey, Colonel, war in Tripoli, **16**, 52.
 F'ever, **17**, 6.
 Figs, **18**, 90, 93; exports, **16**, 122, **18**, 87.
 Finance, Albania, **17**, 92; Greece, **18**, 109-11; Turkey, **16**, 119, 129-33.
 Fish, import and export, **17**, 91, **18**, 136.
 Fisheries, Albania, **17**, 87; Greece, **18**, 96, 129; Turkey, **16**, 97-8.
 Fishery products, imports and exports, **18**, 106, 107, 146.
 Fitcheff, Gen., **15**, 124, 125, 126, 127, 134.
 Fiume, Albanians in, **17**, 26.
 Fiume-Obotto Company, **17**, 79.
 Flax cultivation, **17**, 81.
 Florina, railway, **18**, 85.
 Florio Rubattino Line, **16**, 82.
 Flour, import, **16**, 102, **17**, 91, **18**, 122, 136.
 Flour milling and grinding, **16**, 102, **17**, 89, **18**, 101, 144.
 Food, customs duties, **18**, 108.
 Forened Dampskibsselskab, **18**, 88.
 Forest products, imports and exports, **18**, 106, 107, 146.
 Forestry, Albania, **17**, 85; Greece, **18**, 95; Turkey, **16**, 91-2.
 Fraissinet et Cie, **16**, 82, 83, 87, **18**, 87.
 France, Algiers seized by, 1830, **16**, 29; alliance with Turkey, 1535, **15**, 8; and Austrian annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, **15**, 37; and Balkan War, **17**, 97; capital in Turkey, **16**, 137; Chamber of Commerce in Turkey, **16**, 109; Conference in London, 1912, **17**, 97-9; and the Cretan question, **16**, 36, **18**, 41, 51-2, 54, 58-61; and Crimean War, **15**, 19, 20, 21, **16**, 31-2; and the Danube question, **15**, 64; expedition to the Lebanon, 1860, **16**, 35-6; fleet in Black Sea, 1854, **15**, 56; and Greece, **15**, 16-7, **18**, 24, 33, **18**, 1, 28, 29, 35, 36, 37, 44, 46, 111, 156, 156-7; Greek colonization, 6th-4th century B.C., **18**, 19; and Greek War of Independence, **18**, 25, 26; and Holy Places, **15**, 8, 10, 22, **16**, 31; and Ionian Islands, **18**, 39; and Macedonian reforms, **16**, 45; mail service with, **16**, 71; occupation of Tunis, 1881, **16**, 42; post offices in Turkey, **16**, 70-1; protection of Christians in Turkey, **15**, 8;

France—*cont.*

- revolution, 1830, **18**, 29; revolution, **15**, 12, **16**, 19, 22; and Russo-Turkish war, **16**, 18; scheme for partition of Turkish territory, **15**, 11 2; shipping, Constantinople, **16**, 82, 83, 87, Greek ports, **18**, 87, Syra, **18**, 141; " Straits Convention," 1841, **15**, 56; trade with, **16**, 90, 105, 120-7, **17**, 91, **18**, 91, 98, 106, 107, 108, 138, 146, 147, 148; Treaty of Paris, 1856, **15**, 21-3, 75-8; and Turkey, **16**, 20, 20-1, 23, 30; war with Germany, 1870, **15**, 23, **16**, 37; and Young Turks, **16**, 52.
- Francis I of France, alliance with Turkey, 1535, **15**, 8.
- Franciscan priests, Albania, **17**, 53, 55.
- Franks, in the Balkans, 13th century, **15**, 6; conquest of Constantinople, **18**, 22; rule over Greece, **18**, 21-2; settlers in Turkey, **15**, 7.
- Fratricide, Turkey, **16**, 25.
- Fratti, Antonio, **18**, 26.
- Frederick the Great, **16**, 18.
- Freitas, A. C. de, **18**, 88.
- French colony, Turkey, **16**, 14.
- French language, **16**, 7.
- Frey, Dr. Julius, **16**, 80, 137.
- " Friendly Society," the, Odessa, 1814, **18**, 34.
- Fruit, cultivation, **16**, 91, **17**, 82, 91, **18**, 90, 93, 116, 117, 120, 122, 126, 130, 139, 149, 153, 155; export, **18**, 106, 107, 108, 123, 131 2, 139, 146.
- Fuller's earth, **18**, 124.
- Furniture making, **18**, 144.
- Furniture and wooden goods, import, **18**, 146.

G.

- Galata, **16**, 8, 63, 75, 76, 77; bridge, **16**, 103, 134; Financial Bourse, **16**, 107; foreign post offices, **16**, 70 1; railway, **16**, 68; road, **16**, 60; Russo-Greek Church, **15**, 67; telephone service, **16**, 73; trams, **16**, 103.
- Galataki monastery, magnesite mines, **18**, 98, 104.
- Gulatz, **15**, 64.

- Gall nuts, export, **17**, 91.
- Gallipoli, **15**, 58, **16**, 90, 107, **16**, 2-3; Armenians in, **16**, 9; captured by Suleiman, 1357, **16**, 14; cotton spinning mill, **16**, 102; population, **16**, 108; road, **16**, 59.
- Game, **18**, 134.
- Ganos, naphtha beds between Sharkeui and, **16**, 101-2.
- Garibaldi, Ricciotti, leader of band of " Garibaldians " assisting Greeks, **18**, 49.
- Gas, natural, **17**, 88.
- Gashi, Albanian tribe, **17**, 15.
- Gavrion, communications, **18**, 121, 122; port, **18**, 121 2.
- Gebze, **16**, 61; vineyards formerly, **16**, 91.
- Geese, **17**, 84, **18**, 117.
- General merchandise, import, **16**, 74.
- Gennadius, J., **15**, 132.
- Genoa, imports from, **18**, 144.
- Genoese Latin colony, Turkey, **16**, 14.
- George, King of the Hellenes, **15**, 24, **18**, 1, 8, 37, 38, 40; alliance with Bulgaria, 1912, **18**, 66-7; appointment of M. Venizelos as Prime Minister, 1910, **18**, 64; Balkan war, **18**, 70; and the " Military " League, **18**, 62; war with Turkey, **18**, 47-51, 67; assassination, 1913, **15**, 40, **16**, 54, **18**, 68.
- George, Prince, of Greece, **16**, 45; expedition to Crete, 1897, High Commissioner of Crete, 1897-1906, **15**, 33, **16**, 46, **18**, 52 3.
- Georgevitch, Dr. V., Serbian Minister, case for partition of Albania, **17**, 70.
- Georgia, ceded to Persia, 1735, **16**, 17.
- Georgoutsates, **18**, 72.
- German colonies, Balkan peninsula, **15**, 160.
- German language, **16**, 7.
- German officers, Turkey, **16**, 46, 108.
- German Ost-Europäische Telegraphen-Gesellschaft, **16**, 72.
- Germanos, Metropolitan of Patras, **18**, 24 5.
- Germans, in Transylvania, **15**, 160.
- Germany, **15**, 19; and Austrian annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, **15**, 37; and Austro-

Germany—*cont.*

Russo-Turkish War, **16**, 19; and Balkan Wars, **16**, 54, **17**, 97; capital in Turkey, **16**, 137; commercial treaty with Turkey, **16**, 128-9; Conference in London, 1912, **17**, 99; co-operation with other Powers for security of the Straits, 1840, **15**, 55-6; and Cretan question, **18**, 51; and Crimean War, **15**, 20, 21; and the Danube question, **15**, 64; economic penetration, Greece, **18**, 104, Turkey, **16**, 111-7; firms and companies in Turkey, **16**, 110; and Greece, **15**, 33; interest in Anatolian railway, **16**, 66; interest in Oriental Railway, **16**, 65, 68; and Ionian Islands, **18**, 39; post offices in Turkey, **16**, 70-1; relations with Turkey, 1913-14, **16**, 56; and revolt of Mehemet Ali Pasha, **16**, 29-30; and Russo-Turkish War, **16**, 18; shipping, in Constantinople, **16**, 82, 83, 87, in Greek ports, **18**, 88. "Straits Convention," 1841, **15**, 56, Syra, **18**, 141; trade with, **16**, 69, 105, 111, 120-7, **17**, 91, **18**, 91, 93, 94, 98, 106, 107, 108, 131, 138, 146, 147, 148; Treaty of Paris, 1856, **15**, 21-3, 75-7; Turkish loans raised in, 1910, **16**, 52; war with France, 1870, **15**, 23, **16**, 37.

Geumluk, old waterway to Lake of Isnik, **16**, 138.

Gevgeli (Ghevgeli), **15**, 41; railway, **18**, 85.

Ghegaria, **17**, 31.

Ghegs, religion, social conditions, &c., **17**, 9-17, 54.

Gibraltar, **15**, 142, **16**, 86.

Giolitti, Signor, **18**, 69.

Gioura island, *see* Gyaros.

Gipsies, Albania, **17**, 24; Turkey, **16**, 7.

Girgenti province, Albanians in, **17**, 26.

Gladstone, Rt. Hon. W. E., **18**, 44; as Lord High Commissioner, Ionian Islands, **18**, 39; policy *re* Greece, **18**, 46.

Glasgow, shipping service with, **16**, 86.

Glass industry, **18**, 144, 146.

Glossa, Cape, **17**, 2, 4.

Goats, **16**, 89, **17**, 83, **18**, 94, 117, 120, 125, 133, 152, 155.

Goeben, acquisition by Turkey, **16**, 57; visit to Constantinople, June 1914, **16**, 56.

Gold, **17**, 88; formerly, **18**, 139.

Golden Horn, The, **16**, 3, 6, 60, 63, 65, 75, 77.

Goldsmiths and silversmiths work, **17**, 89.

Golein, Mount, **15**, 39, 118.

Gopčević, **17**, 23.

Gortchakoff, Prince, **15**, 78, 95.

Goschen, Viscount, British delegate to Conference in Constantinople, 1881, **18**, 45.

Goths, invasion of Albania, **17**, 27.

Goudi, camp of Military League, 1909, **18**, 61.

Grain, import, **18**, 105, 145, 146.

Grammata, Bay of, **18**, 69.

Grammatikon, minerals, **18**, 97, 98.

Granite, **18**, 128, 130.

Granville, Earl, **15**, 81; and Greek boundary, **18**, 44-5.

Great Britain, and Austrian annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, **15**, 37; and Austro-Russo-Turkish War, **16**, 19; and Balkan War, **16**, 54, **17**, 97; blockade of Greece, 1886, **18**, 46; capital in Turkey, **16**, 137; capitulations from Turkey, **15**, 8; Chamber of Commerce in Turkey, **16**, 109; commercial treaties with Turkey, **16**, 128; Convention of Cyprus, 1878, **16**, 40-1, 43; co-operation with other Powers for security of the Straits, 1840, **15**, 55-6; and the Cretan question, **16**, 36, **18**, 41, 51-2, 54; Crimean War, **15**, 19-21, **16**, 31-2, **18**, 58-61; and the Danube question, **15**, 63, 64; firms and companies in Turkey, **16**, 110; Fleet, in Black Sea, 1854, **15**, 56, forcing of the Dardanelles, 1807, **15**, 53; and Greece, **15**, 16-7, 24, 33, **18**, 1, 28, 42-3, 44-5, 111, 156, 157; and Greek War of Independence, **18**, 25, 26; interests in Turkey, **16**, 102; intervention in Balkan affairs, **15**, 9; Ionian Islands, protectorate, **15**, 12, **18**, 38-9; and Macedonian reforms, **16**, 45; mail service with, **16**, 71; occupation of Egypt, 1881, **16**, 42; post offices, Turkey, **16**, 70-1; relations with Greece, Pacifico affair, 1850, **18**, 34; and revolt of Mehemet Ali Pasha, **16**, 29-30; and Russo-Turkish War, **16**, 18,

Great Britain—*cont.*

21, 38, 39; shipping, in Constantinople, **16**, 81, 82, 83, 86, 88-9, in Greek ports, **18**, 87, Syra, **18**, 141; "Straits Convention," 1841, **15**, 56; trade with, **16**, 104, 105, 106, 111, 119, 120-6, **18**, 91, 105, 106, 107, 108, 123, 129, 131, 136, 138, 145, 146, 147, 148; Treaty of Constantinople adhered to, by, 1799, **16**, 20; Treaty of Paris, 1856, **15**, 21-3, 75-8; and Turkey, **15**, 29, 54, **16**, 21-2, 23; and union of Bulgaria and Eastern Rumelia, 1885, **15**, 30; and Young Turks, **16**, 52.

Grecian Marbles (Marmor), Ltd., **18**, 99-100, 103, 118, 149.

Greece, *see also* **18** Contents: **15**, 11, 24, **16**, 31; acquisitions of territory, **16**, 41, **17**, 40, 69-70; and Albania, **17**, 47, 62-4; Albanians in, **15**, 14, 15, 159, **17**, 25; attempted annexation by Persians, **15**, 4; autonomy under Prince George, 1898, **15**, 33; Balkan Wars, **15**, 40-1, **16**, 53-5, **17**, 30, 48-9, 49, 97, **18**, 67, 67-71; cession of Ionian Islands to, 1864, **17**, 4; Chamber of Commerce in Turkey, **16**, 109; claims, 1914, **17**, 100; claims to territory, **17**, 18, 98-9; Convention at Constantinople, 1881, *re* frontiers, **15**, 29; and Crete, *see under* Crete; and Crimean War, **15**, 20-1; guarantee of territory by Britain, France and Russia, 1863, **15**, 24; insurrection, 1821, and recognition of independence, 1829, **16**, 23-4; international blockade of, 1885, **17**, 31; and Macedonia, **15**, 32, 35; military convention with Bulgaria, 1912, **15**, 38, 129-32; national sentiment, **15**, 46; neutrality of, in Russo-Turkish War, 1877-8, **15**, 26; occupation of Albania, **17**, 64; rectification of boundary, **16**, 40; relations with Rumanians and Serbians, **15**, 35; relations with Turkey, before the war, **16**, 56; rise of, as independent State, **15**, 16-8; shipping, Albania, **17**, 79, in Constantinople, **16**, 81, 82, 83; state of, at beginning of 19th century, **15**, 15; struggle with Bulgars, **16**, 37; table of treaties affecting boundaries, **15**, 161; territorial

Greece—*cont.*

results of Balkan Wars, **15**, 42-3; trade with, **16**, 98, **18**, 124, 127, 145; Treaty of Alliance with Bulgaria, 1912, **15**, 38, 127-9, **18**, 66-7; and union of Bulgaria and Eastern Rumelia, 1885, **15**, 31; War of Liberation, 1830, **15**, 14, **17**, 36; war with Turkey, 1897, **15**, 33, **16**, 46, **17**, 40.

Greek Archipelago, Venetian withdrawal from, **15**, 9.

Greek bands, Albania, **17**, 51, 64; Macedonia, **15**, 35.

Greek Church, organisation, **18**, 73-4, 75-6.

Greek dialect, **17**, 26.

Greek or Greek-speaking Christians, Albania, **17**, 23.

Greek Imperial Dynasty, Constantinople recovered by, 1261, **15**, 6.

Greek language, **15**, 14, **16**, 6-7, **17**, 8, 18, 25, **18**, 4-5, 81-2.

Greek Metallurgical Company, **18**, 97.

Greek Orthodox Church, **18**, 31, 73, 74.

Greeks, in Albania, **17**, 24; Balkan Peninsula, **15**, 159; in Greece, **18**, 3, 4-5, 6; outside Greece, **15**, 15, **18**, 7-8; Thrace, deportation, June 1914, **16**, 108; traders in Constantinople, **16**, 104, 106; in Turkey, **16**, 6-7, 8-9, 10, 50, emigration after 1913, **16**, 9.

Grey, Sir Edward, 1913, **16**, 54, **17**, 69, 70-1, 99.

Gruda, Albanian tribe, **17**, 15, 24, revolt, **17**, 47; territory of, assigned to Montenegro, 1913, **17**, 60, 69.

Gruda district, schools, **17**, 96.

Güéhoff, I. E. (1912), **15**, 115.

Gulhané, Decree of, 1839, **16**, 30.

Gunpowder, illicit factories, **17**, 89; industry, **18**, 101, 144.

Gusinye, **17**, 99; assigned to Montenegro, 1913, **17**, 60, 69; proposed cession to Montenegro, 1878-9, and Albanian opposition, **17**, 30, 38, 39-40, 59; occupied by Montenegrins, 1912, **17**, 48.

Gusinye town and district, Albanian, **17**, 24.

Gutland, viticulture, **18**, 91.

Gwinner, A. von, **16**, 80, 112.

Gyaros (Gionra) Island, **18**, 10, 12.

Gypsum, **17**, 118, 126, 127.

Gythieion, railway, **18**, 85.

H.

Hademkeui, road, **16**, 60.
 Hadji Adil Bey, Turkish Minister of the Interior (1912), **17**, 46.
 Hadji Mehmet Akiff Reis Effendi (1833), **15**, 71.
 Hahn, — von, **17**, 25.
 Haidar Pasha, **16**, 61, 79, 85, 88, 105, 106, 118; munitions explosion, 1917, **16**, 66–7; port, **16**, 80; railway, **16**, 66, 67, 68; shipping service, **16**, 63, 64.
 Hairobolu, population, **16**, 108.
 Hairobolu, kaza of, population, **16**, 9.
 Halepa, Pact of, 1878, **16**, 41–2, 45, **18**, 45, 47, 162–5.
 Halil Bey (1913), **15**, 138.
 Halonesos (Khiliodrömia, Ikos) island, **18**, 9, 12; area, **18**, 12; population, **18**, 15; trade, **18**, 12.
 Hamburg, **18**, 142, 154; imports, from, **18**, 144; shipping services with, **16**, 87, 88, **18**, 142, 154.
 Hamidie, railway, **16**, 66.
 Hardware, import, **17**, 91, **18**, 146.
 Harris, Clement, **18**, 26.
 Hartmann, President of the Deutsche Bank and the Constantinople Metropolitan Railway, **16**, 68.
 Hatzfeldt, Count (1856), **15**, 74.
 Hay, **18**, 128.
 Haymerle, Baron de (1878), **15**, 95.
 Hejaz, the, sacred cities of, Caliphate claimed by Sultan of Turkey, 1520, **15**, 7.
 Helfferich, Dr. K., **16**, 80, 112, 137.
 Hellenic railway, **18**, 84, 86.
 Hemp, **17**, 81.
 Hempen and straw goods, import, **18**, 146.
 Heptanesos islands, *see* Ionian.
 Heraclea, **16**, 106.
 Herakleia (Raklia) Island, **18**, 11.
 Hereke, carpet school and factory, **16**, 107.
 Hermoupolis, *see* Syra.
 Herzegovina, **16**, 150, **17**, 13; annexation by Austria, **15**, 36–7, 48, **16**, 47, **17**, 42; insurrections, 1862, 1875, **15**, 25, **16**, 35, 37, **18**, 42; occupation and administration by Austria-Hungary, provisions of Treaty of Berlin, 1878, **15**, 29, 104, **16**, 40; Serbian interest, **15**, 32; Turkish offer of, to Montenegro, **15**, 21.

Hides, exports and imports, **16**, 122, 127, **18**, 145, 146.
 Hierapetra, occupation by Italians, 1897–8, **18**, 51, 52.
 Hilmi Pasha, as Inspector-General of Macedonia, **15**, 34.
 Hirsch, Baron, **16**, 64, 65, 137.
 Hohenlohe-Schillingsfürst, Prince (1878), **15**, 95.
 Holland, and Austro-Russo-Turkish war, **16**, 19; intervention in Balkan affairs, **15**, 9; proposed organisation by, of gendarmerie for Albania, **17**, 50, 71; Queen of, **17**, 51; shipping, in Greek ports, **18**, 88, Syra, **18**, 141; trade with, **18**, 94, 107, 131.
 Honey, *see* Apiculture.
 Horse breeding, **17**, 84, **18**, 94, 117, 149, 152.
 Hosrew Mehemet Pasha (1833), **15**, 71.
 Hot baths and springs, **18**, 125, 126.
 Hoti tribe, **17**, 15, 24; territory of, assigned to Montenegro, 1913, **17**, 60, 69.
 Hotti district, schools, **17**, 96.
 Hübner, Baron de (1856), **15**, 74, 76.
 Hull, shipping service with, **16**, 68.
 Hungary, *see also* Austria-Hungary, ceded by Turkey, 1699, **16**, 16; Turks' invasions and conquests, **15**, 8, **16**, 14, 15.
 Husein Pasha, Vali of Scutari, **17**, 39.
 Husein Riza Pasha, defence of Scutari, 1912, **17**, 48.
 Hussein Hilmi Pasha, High Commissioner in Macedonia, **16**, 45; and Young Turk Revolution, **16**, 47.
 Hydra island, **18**, 23; Albanians in, **17**, 25, **18**, 6; "Constitutional Committee," **18**, 29.
 Hypate, mineral baths, **18**, 100.

I.

Ibalya, the, bairak of, **17**, 15.
 Ibrahim of Berat, defeated by Ali Pasha, **17**, 34.
 Ibrahim Munis (1774), **15**, 67.
 Ibrahim Pasha, leader of Turco-Egyptian troops in the Morea, **16**, 24, **18**, 25.
 Ignatieff (Ignatiew), Count N., **15**, 82, **16**, 36.

Ihmsen & Co., 16, 110.
 Ikos, *see* Halonesos.
 Illyrian language, 17, 8.
 Illyrians, 17, 7.
 Imbros island, 18, 3, 9, 71.
 Immigration, Turkey, 16, 9.
 Imperial Ottoman Bank, 16, 106, 133, 135, 136, 17, 92.
 India, Greeks in, 18, 7, 8; trade with, 18, 121, 125, 126, 146.
 Ionesco, Take (1913), 15, 134.
 Ionian Bank, 18, 104, 113, 114, 148.
 Ionian Islands, acquisition of, by French, 1797, 16, 20, withdrawal from, 16, 20; British cession to Greece, 15, 24, 17, 4, 18, 1, 37, 38, 157-9; as British protectorate, 15, 12, 18, 23, 38-9; currant cultivation, 18, 91-2; under Franks till 1797, 18, 22; Greek occupation, 15, 9; independent State, 1800, 15, 12; secured by Napoleon, 1797, 15, 11; surrendered by Russia to Turkey, 1807, 16, 21.
 Ios Island, *see* Nios.
 Ipek (Pech), 17, 28, 97, 99; meeting of Albanian notables, 1899, 15, 34, 17, 40-1; Montenegrin claim to, 1912, 17, 98; occupied by Montenegrins, 1912, 17, 48.
 Ipek district, assigned to Montenegro, 1913, 17, 60, 69.
 Ipek, sanjak of, 17, 1.
 Ipek town and district, Albanian, 17, 24.
 Irene, port, 18, 124-5.
 Iron, 17, 88, 18, 97, 117, 118, 122, 124, 125, 133, 137-8, 139, 144, 152; export, 18, 145, 146, 147; import, 18, 145, 146.
 Iron Gates, the, 15, 65.
 Iron pyrites, 18, 97.
 Iron works, 18, 101.
 Irrigation, 16, 91, 17, 84-5, 18, 95.
 Ishtip, assigned to Bulgaria, 1912, 15, 39.
 Isker, the, population between the Timok and, 15, 158.
 Ismail (Khedive, 1863-9), 17, 26.
 Ismail Kemal Bey, 17, 59; intertribal feud between partisans of Essad Pasha and, 17, 51; Congress of Albanian notables summoned by, 1912, 17, 49; President of Albanian Provisional Government, 17, 49, 58.
 Ismid, 16, 78; railway, 16, 67.
 Ismid, gulf of, 16, 61.
 Isnik (Nicaea), lake of, old waterway to Geumluk, 16, 138.

Istranja, 16, 8.
 Istranja mountains, 16, 1, 2, 3, 89.
 Italian language, 17, 55, 65, 18, 14.
 Italian paper money, in Albania, 17, 92.
 Italian Società Commerciale d'Oriente, 17, 92.
 Italians, in Albania, 17, 24; Cyclades, 18, 4.
 Italy, and Aegean Islands, 18, 72; Albanian colonies, 17, 26; Albanians in, 17, 65; and Balkan Wars, 16, 54, 17, 97, 18, 69; Chamber of Commerce in Turkey, 16, 109; claim to protect missionaries in Turkey, 15, 8; commercial treaties with Turkey, 16, 128; Conference in London, 1912, 17, 97-9; and the Cretan question, 18, 41, 51-2, 53, 54, 58-61; and Eastern question, 15, 20; and Macedonian reforms, 16, 45; occupation of the Southern Sporades, 1912, 15, 42-3, 18, 67-8, 69; post offices in Turkey, 16, 70-1; relations with Albania, 17, 65-6; shipping, Albania, 17, 79, Constantinople, 16, 82, 83, 87, Greek ports, 18, 88, Syra, 18, 141; South, Greek colonisation, 6th-4th century B.C., 18, 19; trade with, 16, 120-7, 17, 84, 87, 91, 18, 87, 146, 147, 148; war with Austria, 1859, 18, 35; war with Turkey, 15, 39-40, 60, 16, 52, 17, 46, 18, 106, 107, 108, 131.
 Ithaca island, British protectorate, renunciation, 1864, 18, 157; cession to Greece by England, 18, 1, 157-9; currant cultivation, 18, 38.
 Ivantehof, Dr. S. (1913), 15, 134.

J.

Jakova, 15, 159, 17, 99; Montenegrin claim to, 1912, 17, 98; Serbs and Montenegrins at, 1912, 17, 48.
 Jakova, depression of, 17, 3.
 Jakova district, assigned to Montenegro, 17, 60, 69, 80.
 Jakova highlands, population, 17, 15.
 Jakova town and district, Albanian, 17, 24.

- Janissaries, Corps of, **15**, 7, 14, **16**, 15-16, 21, 27, 28, **17**, 33; extermination, 1826, **15**, 18; Serbian insurrection against, 1804, **15**, 16.
- Jassy, Treaty of, 1792, **15**, 11, 62, **16**, 19.
- Jenghiz Khan, **16**, 14, 58.
- Jerusalem, British occupation, **16**, 58; Holy places, **15**, 8, 9.
- Jesuit priests, Albania, **17**, 53, 55.
- Jews, in Balkan peninsula, **15**, 160; in Constantinople, **16**, 104, 106; in Greece, **18**, 6, 73, 74; in Salonika, **18**, 2; in Turkey, **16**, 7.
- Jisr Mustafa Pasha, **16**, 4.
- John Asën II, sovereignty over southern half of Albania, **17**, 66.
- Johnston Line, **18**, 88.
- Johnston, W., & Co., **18**, 87.
- Joseph II, alliance with Russia, **16**, 19.
- Justinian, Emperor, **17**, 27.
- K.**
- Kabashi, the, bairak of, **17**, 15.
- Kadikœi, railway, **16**, 65; shipping service, **16**, 63; telephones, **16**, 73.
- Kaiapha, mineral baths, **18**, 100.
- Kaimeni, **18**, 136.
- Kalabaka, lignite near, **18**, 99; railway, **18**, 85;
- Kalafatovitch, Lt.-Col. D. (1913), **15**, 134.
- Kalamas river, **17**, 25, 63, 69, **18**, 43, 44, 45.
- Kalamata, Chamber of Commerce, **18**, 103; port, **18**, 87, 93; railway, **18**, 85; silk spinning, **18**, 101; wine industry, **18**, 91.
- Kalavryta, **18**, 25; railway, **18**, 85.
- Kalkandelen (Tetovo), Albanians at, **17**, 25; assigned to Serbia, 1913, **17**, 69.
- Kallerges, Colonel, Greek Minister in Paris, **18**, 35; and Greek revolution, 1843, **18**, 33.
- Kaloterion Bay, anchorage, **18**, 119-20.
- Kamara, port, **18**, 138.
- Kamenaki port, *see* Mykonos.
- Kanares, Admiral, member of Greek Provisional Government, 1862, **18**, 36; Ministry of, 1877, **18**, 42.
- Kaolin, **18**, 124.
- Kara Burnu, road, **16**, 60.
- Kara George, Serbian insurrection under, 1804, **15**, 16.
- Karageorgevich dynasty, **15**, 16.
- Kara Mahmud Pasha of Scutari (1770), **17**, 29.
- Kara Su river, **16**, 3.
- Karakeui bridge, **16**, 75, 76.
- Karalik-Dervend, defile, assignment to Greece, **18**, 45.
- Karapanos, M., Foreign Secretary of Northern Epeiros, 1914, **18**, 72.
- Karavostasi, port, **18**, 133-4.
- Karlowitz, **17**, 24; Treaty of, 1699, **15**, 9, **16**, 16.
- Károlyi, Count (1878), **15**, 95.
- Karpathos, **18**, 60.
- Kars, **15**, 29; captured by Russians, 1855, **16**, 32; cession to Russia, 1878, **16**, 39, 40; Convention of Cyprus *re*, 1878, **16**, 41.
- Kassim Pasha, **16**, 6.
- Kasskœi, **16**, 6.
- Kastoria, **17**, 97.
- Kastoria lake, fish, **18**, 96.
- Kastrati tribe, **17**, 15; cattle-raising, **17**, 83.
- Kastriotis, George, *see* Skanderbeg.
- Kastro, *see* Andros.
- Katakolo, railway, **18**, 85, 86.
- Kato Koupho Islet, **18**, 11.
- Kaufmann, O., Director of the Société du Port de Haidar Pasha, **16**, 80.
- Kaulla, A. von, Member of the Banque des Chemins de fer Orientaux, **16**, 137.
- Kavak, **16**, 2, 74; health office, **16**, 79.
- Kavak Bay (Majar Bay), quarantine station, **16**, 5, 79.
- Kavalla, **15**, 26, 46, **18**, 69; acquisition by Greece, 1913, **15**, 41, **18**, 71; customs duties, **18**, 110; deportation of Greeks of Thrace to, June 1914, **16**, 108; port, **18**, 87; taken by Greek Navy, 1913, **18**, 70.
- Kavaya, industries, **17**, 89; railway scheme, **17**, 75; road, **17**, 74.
- Kavaya district, olive and tobacco cultivation, **17**, 81.
- Keos Island, *see* Zea.
- Kephissai, railway, **18**, 85.
- Keri, petroleum wells, **18**, 99, 104.
- Keros Island, **18**, 11.
- Keshan, annual fair, **16**, 108; centre of telegraph system, **16**, 107-8; lignite seams, **16**, 101; Moslem immigrants round, **16**, 9; population, **16**, 108; railway, **16**, 65, 101; roads, **16**, 59-60.

- Koshan district, 16, 108; agriculture, 16, 90.
- Khalkidike, the, 15, 26, 159; Greek colonisation, 6th-4th century B.C., 18, 19-20; magnesite mines, 13, 98; railway, 18, 85.
- Khalkis, railway, 18, 84.
- Kharput vilayet, 16, 44.
- Khedivial Mail Steamship Company, 16, 81, 82, 83, 86, 88, 18, 88.
- Khilodromia, *see* Halonesos.
- Khimara, 17, 1, 64, 18, 69; ancient privileges confirmed, 1914, 17, 64; assigned to Albania, 13, 71; capture by Greeks, 1912, 18, 67; Christians of, massacre, 17, 34; refusal to pay Turkish taxes, 17, 56-7; population, 17, 23; tribal organisation, &c., 17, 17, 19.
- Khimariotes, 17, 32; demands of, 1914, 18, 72.
- Khios Island, 18, 9, 23, 141; cables, 18, 112; massacre, 18, 25; taken possession of, by Greeks, 1912, 18, 67; Turkish claim to, 18, 3.
- Khora, 18, 119.
- Khursid Pasha, 17, 35.
- Kilia mouth of the Danube, 15, 27, 62, 63, 64, 65, 111, 16, 22.
- Kiliote family, 17, 20.
- Kilid Bahr, 16, 3.
- Kilkish, battle, 1913, 18, 70.
- Kimolos Island, 18, 11, 139; communications, 18, 123-4; industries, 18, 124; minerals, 18, 124; population, 18, 15; ports, 18, 123-4.
- Kirk Kilisse, 16, 2; agriculture round, 16, 89-90; Armenians in, 16, 9; Bulgarians in, 16, 9; capture by Bulgarians, 1912, 16, 53; roads, 16, 59, 60.
- Kirk Kilisse district, retrocession by Bulgaria to Turkey, 1913, 16, 55.
- Kition, Bishop of, 18, 76.
- Klementi tribe, 17, 15; cattle-raising, 17, 83.
- Kliment district, schools, 17, 96.
- Klisura, 17, 98; captured by Greek bands, July 1914, 17, 51.
- Kloebe, marble quarries, 18, 100.
- Kochai (Kuchi) tribe, 17, 24; annexation by Montenegro, 1880, 17, 59, 68, 69.
- Kolettis, leader of Greek "National Party," 18, 29, 30, 32, 34.
- Kolokotronis, 18, 32.
- Kolonia, 17, 98.
- Komiaki, 18, 129.
- Konia, railway, 16, 66, 67, 68.
- Konie, 16, 29.
- Koninklijke Nederlandsche Stoomboot-Maatschappij, 18, 88.
- Koprülü (Veles), 15, 159; Albanians at, 17, 25.
- Koraïs, Greek classical revival under, 18, 5.
- Koritsa (Korche), 15, 26, 42, 17, 4, 98, 99; assigned to Albania, 18, 71; captured by Greek bands, July 1914, 17, 51; flour mills, 17, 89; Greek rule favoured by, 17, 64; Greeks attacked by Albanians, March 1914, 17, 51; occupied by Greeks, 1912, 17, 48; population, 17, 22; railway scheme, 17, 75; roads, 17, 73; school, 17, 54; seat of Central Albanian Committee, 17, 47.
- Koritsa, district, 17, 1, 64; population, 17, 23.
- Koritsa province, administration entrusted to International Commission of Control for Albania, 1914, 17, 64, 18, 72.
- Koritsa-Ersek Road, Vlachs on, 17, 22.
- Koronis, emery mining, 18, 130.
- Korithion, port, 18, 121; telegraphs, 18, 121.
- Kos Island, in Italian occupation, 15, 42-3, 16, 52, 18, 3, 69.
- Koshani, railway, 18, 85.
- Kosovo, 15, 159, 17, 39; battle of, 1389, 15, 7, 16, 14.
- Kosovo Albanians, and Balkan war, 17, 47.
- Kosovo district, 17, 40, 59; revolts, 16, 46-7, 17, 30, 41, 44; Serb invasion, 17, 50.
- Kosovo plain, Albanians in, 17, 24.
- Kosovo vilayet, 17, 1; formed, 1865, 17, 29, 36.
- Koumoundouros, Greek premier, 18, 42.
- Koumia, Treaty of, 1880, 15, 161.
- Koupho Islet, 18, 11.
- Koutso-Vlachs, 15, 13, 158; in Greece, 18, 3, 6; national propaganda, 15, 32, 18, 56; recognition as separate nationality, 1905, 18, 56-7; religion, 18, 74, 75.
- Kozani, Turkish district north of, 15, 160.
- Krasniichi, Albanian tribe, 17, 15.
- Kratovo, Albanians near, 17, 25.
- Kričpost, Russian warship, on the Black Sea, 17th century, 16, 17.

- Kriva Palanka, **15**, 39, 118.
 Kroya, **17**, 15, 28; brickkiln, **17**, 89; history, **17**, 28; olive culture, **17**, 81; population, **17**, 22.
 Krúchez, Albanian clan, **17**, 15.
 Kryoneri, railway, **18**, 85.
 Kuban, the, Russian annexation recognised, 1784, **16**, 19.
 Kuchi, *see* Kochai.
 Kuchuk Chekmeje, railway, **16**, 64.
 Kuchuk Chekmeje lake, **16**, 59; fisheries, **16**, 97.
 Kuchuk Kainarji, Treaty of, 1774, **15**, 10, 20, 52-3, 62, 67, **16**, 18, 19, 30, 31, 33, **17**, 67.
 Kuchuk Said Pasha, Chief Secretary, **16**, 47.
 Kühlmann, Otto von, Member of the Banque des Chemins de fer Orientaux, **16**, 137.
 Kukulsh, **17**, 3; railway scheme, **17**, 76.
 Kuleli Burgas, railway, **16**, 64.
 Kum Kapu, **16**, 85, 88.
 Kumanavo, Albanians near, **17**, 25; assigned to Serbia, 1912, **15**, 39; battle of, 1912, **16**, 53, **17**, 48.
 Kurds, **16**, 7, 39.
 Kurshumlye district, cession to Serbia, 1878, **17**, 38.
 Kursumlye, Albanians in, **17**, 24.
 Kuru Dag, forests, **16**, 92.
 Kuru Range, **16**, 1.
 Kuslar Dag, the, **18**, 2.
 Kyklades Islands, *see* Cyclades.
 Kyllene, mineral baths, **18**, 100; railway, **18**, 85.
 Kymi, harbour, **18**, 12; lignite, **18**, 99.
 Kyra Panagia (Pelago) Island, **18**, 12.
 Kythnos (Thermia) Island, **18**, 10, 124, 125; agriculture, **18**, 125; cable, **18**, 137, 142, 151; communications, **18**, 124, 125; industries, **18**, 125; mineral baths, **18**, 100; population, **18**, 15; ports, **18**, 124-5.
- L**
- Labour, supply, Greece, **18**, 89.
 Labovo, patriarchal system in, **17**, 20-1.
 Laconia, **17**, 25; marble quarries, **18**, 100.
 Laex, General, capture of Azof, 1736, **16**, 17.
 Lamia, **18**, 36; camel breeding, **18**, 94; included in Greece, 1832, **18**, 30; lignite, **18**, 99; railway, **18**, 84.
 Land tenure, Albania, **17**, 85-7; Greece, **18**, 96; Turkey, **16**, 92-7.
 Language, Albania, Greece, **18**, 4-5; Turkey, **16**, 6-7.
 Lapathiotis, Colonel, Greek Minister of War, 1909, **18**, 62.
 Larissa, **15**, 33, **18**, 2; agricultural school, **18**, 81; cotton mills, **18**, 102; marble quarries between Vale of Tempe and, **18**, 100; occupied by Turks, 1897, **18**, 50; railways, **18**, 84, 85, 86.
 Launay, Comte de (1878), **15**, 95.
 Launay, M. de, **18**, 130.
 Laurion railway, **18**, 85.
 Lausanne, Treaty of, 1912, **15**, 40, **16**, 52.
 Lavrion, customs duties **18**, 110; minerals, **18**, 97, 98, 104; mines question, **18**, 41.
 Lead, **16**, 122, **17**, 88, **18**, 117.
 Leake, Colonel, **18**, 28.
 Leander's Tower Roadstead (Scutari Anchorage), **16**, 79.
 Leather, export and import, **16**, 127, 146, **18**, 145, 147; industry, **18**, 101, 144.
 Leavadeia, **18**, 27.
 Lebanon, the, affairs of, 1860-4, **16**, 35-6; risings in, **16**, 39.
 Lemnos Island, **16**, 56, **18**, 3, 9; wireless communication with, **18**, 142.
 Leontari, railway, **18**, 85.
 Leopold, Prince, of Saxe-Coburg, **18**, 30; on the Cretan question, **18**, 29, 40; throne of Greece offered to, but refused, **18**, 29.
 Lepanto (Naupactus), battle of, 1571, **16**, 15, **18**, 27; Pasha of, **17**, 34.
 Lesbos, *see* Mitylene.
 Lenchtenberg, Duke of, candidate to Greek throne, **18**, 36, 37.
 Leukas, British protectorate, renunciation, 1864, **18**, 157.
 Leukas Island (Santa Mavra), cession to Greece by England, **18**, 1, 157-9.
 Levadeia, cotton cultivation and industry, **18**, 94, 101-2.
 Levant, Convention of London for the Pacification of, 1840, **15**, 55; Orthodox Christians in, Russian

Levant—*cont.*

claim to protectorate over, **15**, **19**; Russian, French and British Fleets in, **15**, **16-7**.
 Levantines, **16**, **7**.
 Levkas, canal between mainland and, **18**, **84**.
 Leyland Line, **18**, **104**.
 Liaps, Albanian tribe, **17**, **19**.
 Libyan war, 1912, **15**, **39**, **16**, **52**, **18**, **68**, **69**.
 Lichnowsky, Prince, **16**, **54**.
 Lignite, **16**, **101**, **17**, **88**, **18**, **99**.
 Limni, magnesite mines, **18**, **98**.
 Limogardi, copper ore, **18**, **99**.
 Linseed cultivation, **16**, **91**.
 Lipsos (Aidepsos), mineral baths, **18**, **100**.
 Liqueurs, import, **17**, **91**.
 Lithography, **18**, **101**.
 Livadia, **18**, **150**.
 Livadion (Livadhi), **18**, **137**; port, **18**, **137**.
 Liverpool, shipping services with, **16**, **86**, **18**, **141**, **142**.
 Livestock export and import, **17**, **91**, **18**, **87**, **146**; industry, Albania, **17**, **83-4**; Cyclades and Northern Sporades, **18**, **117**, **120**, **121**, **122**, **125**, **126**, **128**, **133**, **134**, **139**, **149**, **152**, **155**; Greece, **18**, **94**; Turkey, **16**, **89**.
 Locke, **18**, **26**.
 Loeris, minerals, **18**, **98**.
 Locust beans, export, **18**, **108**.
 Lombardos, Dr., opponent of British protectorate of Ionian Islands, **18**, **38**.
 London, Ambassadors' Conference, 1912, 1913, **16**, **53**, **17**, **24**, **68**, **69**, **97-100**; Conference, 1871, **16**, **37**; Convention, 1840, **15**, **55**, **16**, **29**; Convention, 1841, **15**, **49**, **56**; Convention, 1883, **15**, **65**; Ottoman Embassy established by Selim III, **16**, **27**; Protocol, 1829, **18**, **27**, **156**; Protocol, 1830, **15**, **17**; shipping services with, **16**, **86**, **87**; Treaties of, 1827, **16**, **23**; 1864, **15**, **161**, **18**, **157-9**; 1871, **15**, **23**, **57**, **16**, **40**, **1913**, **15**, **40-1**, **45**, **132-3**, **161**, **16**, **55**, **17**, **1**, **30**, **50**, **59**, **60**, **68**, **97-100**, **18**, **2-3**, **68-9**.
 London Oil Development Company, **18**, **104**.
 Louis, King of Bavaria, **18**, **29-30**.
 Louis XV, **16**, **17**.
 Loukoumi, *see* Turkish Delight.
 Loutra, railway, **18**, **85**.

Loutraki, mineral baths, **18**, **100**.
 Lower Mesopotamia, conquered by Murad IV, 1638, **16**, **15**.
 Lule Burgas, battle of, 1912, **16**, **53**; population, **16**, **108**.
 Lyons, Sir E., British representative at Athens (1843), **18**, **33**.
 Lyuma, **17**, **99**; Albanians in, **17**, **25**; assigned to Serbia, 1913, **17**, **69**; revolt against Turks, 1909, **17**, **44**.

M.

Macaroni-making, **18**, **101**, **144**.
 MacDowall, John, Steamship Company, **17**, **79**.
 Macedonia, **15**, **21**, **26**, **16**, **40**, **17**, **37**, **74**, **18**, **34**, **35**, **89**, **90**; administration, **16**, **44-5**, **18**, **77**; agriculture, **18**, **89**, **90**; Albanian League and, **17**, **41**; Albanians in, **17**, **25**; attempted annexation by Persians, **15**, **4**; Austrian trade in, **18**, **105**; buffaloes, **18**, **94**; Bulgarian propaganda, **15**, **45**; cotton cultivation, **18**, **94**; delegates sent to National Assembly of 1843, **18**, **33**; Greek successes, 1913, **18**, **70**; industries, **18**, **101**; irruption of Greek irregular bands into, 1904, **18**, **57**; Jews in, **15**, **160**; labour, **18**, **89**; national sentiment, **15**, **46-7**; opium cultivation, **18**, **94**; population, **18**, **6**; provisions of Treaty of Berlin, 1878, **15**, **28-9**; provisions of Treaty of Bucharest, 1913, **15**, **41**; racial question, **15**, **50**; railways, **18**, **85**; reform projects, **15**, **33-5**; religions, **18**, **74**; rivers, **18**, **83**; roads, **18**, **83**; Slav invasion, 577, **15**, **1**, **6**; tobacco cultivation, **18**, **93**; Vlachs in, **15**, **158**; water-power, **18**, **102**; Young Turk movement, **15**, **36**, **49**, **16**, **46-7**, **49**.
 Macedonian question, **15**, **31-3**, **18**, **56-7**.
 Machines, imports, **16**, **127**.
 Maclay and McIntyre, **16**, **86**.
 Madjarov, M., **15**, **132**.
 Magnesia, **18**, **12**.
 Maguesian Islands, *see* Sporades, Northern.
 Magnesite, **18**, **97**, **98**, **104**, **117**, **133**, **138**.
 Magyar settlements, Balkan peninsula, **15**, **160**.
 Mahmoud Pasha (1913), **15**, **138**.

- Mahmud II, Sultan (1808-39), **16**, 29, 35, 143, **17**, 29, 33, 35; accession, 1808, **16**, 28; reforms, **15**, 18, **16**, 24, 28; revolt of Ali Pasha of Janina against, **16**, 23; Russian ultimatum to, 1826, **16**, 23.
- Mahomet, Bushat Pasha of Scutari, c. 1760, **17**, 28, 33.
- Mahomet II, *see* Mahmoud.
- Mahommed (Mohammed) V, Sultan, accession, 1909, **16**, 50, **17**, 43.
- Mahsoussie Steamship Company, **16**, 63-4, 82.
- Maina, **18**, 23.
- Mainate family, **18**, 29.
- Maioresco, T., **15**, 134.
- Maize, cultivation, **16**, 90, **17**, 80, **18**, 90, 122.
- Majar Bay, *see* Kavak Bay.
- Makri, **18**, 71; capture by Greeks, 1913, **18**, 70.
- Makrygiannes, Colonel, and Greek revolution, 1843, **18**, 33.
- Makrynoros, Pass of, **18**, 28; assigned to Greece, 1832, **18**, 1.
- Malaria, **16**, 5, **17**, 6, **18**, 13.
- Malaxa, insurrection, 1897, **18**, 48.
- Malgara, population, **16**, 108; roads, **16**, 59-60.
- Malgara district, agriculture, **16**, 90.
- Malizi, the, bairak of, **17**, 15.
- Malta, **15**, 142, **16**, 86; besieged by Turkish admiral, 1565, **16**, 15; conquest by French, **16**, 20; exports to, **18**, 147; telegraphic communication with, **16**, 142; trade with, **17**, 91, **18**, 136.
- Maltsor tribes, Albania, **17**, 10-5, 29, 32, 36, 38, 72; and Balkan War, **17**, 47; declaration in favour of local autonomy, 1913, **17**, 46; revolt against Turks, and concessions received, **17**, 30, 45-6, 95-6.
- Malzia of Dibra, **17**, 15.
- Malzia Jakovs, **17**, 15.
- Malzia Leshs, **17**, 15.
- Malzia e Mathe tribes, **17**, 15; revolt, against Turks, 1911, **17**, 44.
- Manatia, Albanian clan, **17**, 15.
- Manchester, Calico Printers' Association, **16**, 105.
- Manchester goods, import, **18**, 108.
- Manganese, **18**, 97, 98, 117, 118, 122, 124, 126, 127, 128-9, 139, 152.
- Manganese iron, **18**, 97.
- Manteuffel, Baron de (1856), **15**, 74.
- Mantudi, magnesite mines, **18**, 98.
- Manufactures, Albania, **17**, 89-90; Greece, **18**, 100-2;
- Marasli, Ecole normale at Athens founded by, **18**, 79.
- Marathon, **18**, 41, battle of, **18**, 20; rice, **18**, 90; viticulture, **18**, 91.
- Marble, **17**, 117, 118, 118-9, 133, 149, 155, **18**, 11, 99-100, 103, 119; export, **18**, 147.
- Margarites, Apostolos, **18**, 56.
- Marghiloman, A., **15**, 134.
- Maritsa delta, **16**, 3.
- Maritsa river, **15**, 42, 43, **16**, 2, 56; navigation, **16**, 62; system, **16**, 4.
- Market gardening, **16**, 91.
- Marmor Company, Ltd., *see* Grecian Marbles (Marmor), Ltd.
- Marmora, Sea of, **16**, 2, 3, 8, 62, 63, 77; fields of investment, **16**, 138; fisheries, **16**, 98; ports, trade, **16**, 105, 106.
- Marmora tower, **16**, 3.
- Maronite Christians, the Lebanon, and Damascus massacres, 1860, **16**, 35.
- Marseilles, **15**, 142, **16**, 87, **18**, 88, 143.
- Mat, river, **17**, 15, 60, 98.
- Matanovitch, J. (1913), **15**, 134.
- Mati, the, illicit gunpowder factories on borders of, **17**, 89.
- Matia district, feudal organisation, **17**, 15.
- Mavrokordatos, Alexander, Greek President, 1822, **15**, 17, **18**, 25, 32; leader of Greek "English Party," **18**, 34.
- Mavromichalari clan, **18**, 29.
- Mavromichales, M., Greek Prime Minister, 1909, **18**, 55, 61.
- Mavropotamo river, **17**, 19.
- Mecca, holy places, conquered by Sultan Selim, 1517, **16**, 15.
- Medicines, imports and exports, **18**, 106, 107.
- Medina, holy places, conquered by Sultan Selim, 1517, **16**, 15.
- Mediterranean, shipping, **16**, 86; traffic at Constantinople, **16**, 82, 83, 84.
- Megara, **18**, 21; Albanians in, **17**, 25; lignite, **18**, 99.
- Mehemed Ali Pasha (1878), **15**, 95.
- Mehemet Ali of Egypt, **15**, 16, 55, **17**, 26, **18**, 30; revolt, **15**, 18, 19, **16**, 28-9.
- Mehemed Djemil Bey (1856), **15**, 74.
- Mehmed, Konitza, Albanian deputy at Ambassadors' Conference in London, 1912, **17**, 97.

- Meligala railway, **18**, 85.
- Melos (Milo) island, **18**, 11; agriculture, **18**, 126; area and height, **18**, 11; cable, **18**, 139; communications, **18**, 124, 125, 126; minerals, **18**, 11, 97, 99, 118, 126-7; population, **18**, 15; ports, **18**, 125-6.
- Menitas, road, **18**, 121.
- Menshikoff, Prince, mission to Constantinople, **15**, 19.
- Meria, port, **18**, 128.
- Merturi, the, bairak of, **17**, 15.
- Mesolongi, rice, **18**, 90; siege, **18**, 25.
- Messageries Maritimes, **15**, 142, 16, 82, 83, 87, **18**, 87, 88.
- Messenia, **17**, 25; fig cultivation, **18**, 93; wine industry, **18**, 91.
- Messiafor Khan, railway scheme, **17**, 75.
- Mesta river, **18**, 2, 71; region on east of, assigned to Bulgaria, 1913, **15**, 41.
- Metal working, **17**, 89.
- Metals and other manufactures, imports, **16**, 127.
- Metaxakis, Meletios, Metropolitan of Athens, **18**, 76.
- Metellus, Crete conquered by, **18**, 52.
- Methana, mineral baths, **18**, 100.
- Metsovo, **17**, 40, 97, 99, **18**, 44; capture by Greeks, 1912, **18**, 67.
- Metternich, Prince, **18**, 25.
- Miaoules, Admiral, **18**, 29.
- Michael the Brave (1593-1601), **15**, 48.
- Michantsuliate family, **17**, 21.
- Michelidakis, M., President of Cretan Executive Committee, 1908, **18**, 57.
- Midhat Pasha, appointment as Grand Vizier, 1876, **16**, 38; constitution of, **16**, 38, 46, 47-8; fall of, 1877, **36**, 38.
- Midia, **15**, 45, **16**, 55, **18**, 68.
- Midia, kaza of, population, **16**, 9.
- "Military League," Greece, 1909, **18**, 61-4.
- Millstones, **17**, 118, 126, 127.
- Milo island, *see* Melos.
- Milosh Obrenovich, Prince of Serbia, **15**, 16, **16**, 23.
- Milovanovitch, M. (1912), **15**, 115.
- Mineral baths, **18**, 100.
- Mineral spring, **18**, 136.
- Minerals, Albania, **17**, 88-9; Cyclades and Northern Sporades, **18**, 117-9, 122, 124, 125, 126-7, 128-9, 130-1, 133, 135-6, 137-8.
- Minerals—*cont.*
 139, 144, 149, 152, 155; Greece, **18**, 97-100; imports and exports, **18**, 87, 106, 107, 146; Turkey, **16**, 98-102.
- Mining laws, Turkey, **16**, 98-100.
- Mirdita, **17**, 9, 11, 59, 60, 72; revolt against Turks, 1911, **17**, 45; schools, **17**, 55; Serbian invasion, 1912, **17**, 48, 50.
- Mirdites tribe, **15**, 29, **17**, 32, 38; and Crimean War, **15**, 21; revolt against Turks, 1912, **17**, 46; sumac cultivation by, **17**, 82.
- Mirdites district, forests, **17**, 85.
- Mitchich, Jivotine (1912), **15**, 126.
- Mitrovitsa, **15**, 28, **17**, 97; Albanians near, **17**, 24, 26; railway, **17**, 76; Russian consul, murdered by Albanians, 1903, **17**, 30, 41.
- Mitylene (Lesbos) Island, **16**, 56, **18**, 9, 69; taken possession of, by Greeks, 1912, **18**, 67; Turkish claim to, **18**, 3; Turks in, **15**, 159.
- Miyatovich, Serbian Minister for Foreign Affairs, secret convention with Austria, 1881, **16**, 41.
- Mohaacs, battle of, 1526, **16**, 15.
- Mohair trade, **16**, 106, 122.
- Mohammed II, **16**, 14-15, 25; Constantinople captured by, 1453, **16**, 14.
- Mohammed V, Sultan, *see* Mahommed.
- Mohammedans, *see* Moslems.
- Moldavia, **16**, 31, **18**, 23; cessions to, 1856, **16**, 32; and Crimean War, **15**, 21; occupied by Russians, **16**, 18; provisions of Treaty of Adrianople, 1829, **15**, 6, 8-9; provisions of Treaty of Paris, 1856, **15**, 22-3, 76; restored to Turkey, 1812, **16**, 22; Russian invasions, **16**, 21, 22; Russian note *re*, 1870, **15**, 79; Russian protectorate, **15**, 17-8; state of, at beginning of 19th century, **15**, 12-3; status in Treaty of Paris, 1856, **16**, 32-3; union with Wallachia under Alexander I, 1859, **15**, 24.
- Monasteries, Greece, **18**, 74.
- Monastir, **15**, 26, **17**, 3, 97, **18**, 2; acquisition by Serbia, 1913, **15**, 41; Albanians in, **17**, 25; assigned to Bulgaria, 1912, **15**, 39, 45; battle of, 1912, **16**, 53; Bulgars in, **17**, 67; captured by Serbians, 1912, **15**, 40, **17**, 48; railways, **17**, 75-6, **18**, 85; roads, **17**, 74.

- Monastir district, **17**, 40.
 Monastir vilayet, **17**, 1; formed, 1865, **17**, 29, 36.
 Mongol invasion of Asia Minor, 13th century, **16**, 13-4.
 Montenegrin silver, in Albania, **17**, 92.
 Montenegro, **15**, 38, **16**, 31, **17**, 1, 13, 15, 67; acquisitions of territory from Albania, **17**, 30, 38, 39-40, 59-61, 68-9; and Albania, **17**, 44-5, 46, 47; Albanians in, **17**, 24; and Austrian annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, **15**, 37; Balkan Wars, 1912-3, **15**, 40-1, **16**, 53-5, **17**, 30, 48, 49, 50, **18**, 70; claims to territory, 1912, **17**, 98; and Crimean War, **15**, 21; Dulcigno ceded to, 1881, **16**, 47; national sentiment, **15**, 47; provisions of Treaties of San Stefano and Berlin, 1878, **15**, 28, 82-4, 104-7, **16**, 40; recognition of not being vassal of Turkey, 1799, 1878, **17**, 37 note; Russian relations with, **15**, 9; and Russo-Turkish War, 1877-8, **15**, 26; state at beginning of 19th century, **15**, 12; table of treaties affecting boundaries, **15**, 161; territorial results of Balkan Wars, **15**, 42-3; trade with, **17**, 91; Turkish invasion, 1862, **16**, 35; war with Turkey, **15**, 25, **16**, 37, 38, **17**, 29, 38.
 Moracha valley, Albanians in, **17**, 24.
 Morava basin, Albanians in, **17**, 24.
 Morava valley, **15**, 28, 84, 108.
 Morea, **18**, 22, 27, 38; Greek insurrections, **15**, 10, 16, 17, **16**, 23-4, **18**, 24, 25; Venetian occupation, 1685-1718, **18**, 22; Venetian withdrawal from, **15**, 9.
 Morier, Sir R., **15**, 59.
 Moslems, Albania, **15**, 14, **17**, 23, 32, 53, 57; Bulgaria, **15**, 13; emigration from Crete, **18**, 53; among the Ghegs, **17**, 9; Greece, **18**, 73, 74; immigration from Bulgaria into Turkey, **16**, 9; in Macedonia, **15**, 47; Serbia, **15**, 14; among the Tosks, **17**, 17-8.
 Moss Line, **16**, 86, **18**, 142.
 Mouhammed Amin Aala Pasha (1856), **15**, 74.
 Mostier, Marquis de, French Foreign Minister, **18**, 41.
 Moutsouna, **18**, 129.
 Mudania, **16**, 138.
 Mukhtar Pasha of Lepanto, **17**, 34.
 Mulberry cultivation, **18**, 93.
 Mules, **18**, 94, 117, 121, 125, 149, 152.
 Muncaster, Lord, capture of, in Crete, 1870, **18**, 41.
 Mundania, railway, **16**, 124.
 Münnich, Marshal, Russian general, invasion of the Crimea, 1736, **16**, 17.
 Murad, Sultan (1431), **17**, 28.
 Murad III, Sultan, **16**, 15.
 Murad IV, Sultan, **16**, 15.
 Murad V, Sultan, accession, May, 1876, abdication, August 1876, **16**, 38.
 Muradli, road, **16**, 60.
 Mürssteg Programme, **15**, 34, **16**, 45.
 Musaki family, **17**, 28.
 Musical and scientific instruments, import, **18**, 146.
 Mussulmen merchants, Constantinople, **16**, 104.
 Mustafa Pasha Bushati, **15**, 15; Council of Ten set up at Scutari, 1856, **17**, 29, 35-6; rising, 1829, and surrender to Grand Vizier, 1831, **17**, 29, 33, 35.
 Mustafa of Delvino, defeated by Ali Pasha, **17**, 34.
 Mustapha III, Sultan, war with Russia, 1768, **16**, 18.
 Mustapha IV, Sultan (1807), **16**, 21, 27; assassination, **16**, 28.
 Musurus Pasha (1871), **15**, 81.
 Muzakya plain, Vlach shepherds in, **17**, 22.
 Mykonos and Delos Island, **18**, 10; agriculture, **18**, 117, 128; cable, **18**, 149; communications, **18**, 127, 128; fishing, **18**, 129; height, **18**, 10; minerals, **18**, 128-9; population, **18**, 14, 15; ports, **18**, 127-8.
 Mykonos (Kamenaki) port, **18**, 127.
 Mytilene, *see* Mitylene.

N.

- Naby Bey, Turkish representative in Athens (1909), **18**, 60.
 Nadir Shah of Persia, attack on Turkey and acquisitions, **16**, 17.
 Naphtha beds, **16**, 101-2.
 Naples, shipping service with, **16**, 87.
 Napoleon I, **15**, 11-12, **16**, 20-1, 22, **17**, 29, 65.

- Napoleon III, **15**, **20**, **18**, **35**; and Crimean War, 1854-6, **16**, **31-2**.
 Natchévitch, M. (1913), **15**, **138**.
 National Bank of Greece, **18**, **112-3**, **114**, **136**, **148**.
 National Bank of Turkey, **16**, **103** note, **133-4**.
 National Steam Navigation Company, **18**, **87**.
 Nationalbank für Deutschland, **16**, **135**.
 Naupaetus, *see* Lepanto.
 Nauplia, **18**, **29**, **31**; banks, **18**, **113**; Chamber of Commerce, **18**, **103**; under Franks till 1540, **18**, **22**; plot against the King, 1862, **18**, **35**; railway, **18**, **85**.
 Naussa, port, **18**, **132**.
 Navarino, **18**, **48**.
 Navarino, Bay of, defeat of Turkish and Egyptian fleets in, 1827, **15**, **17**, **16**, **24**, **18**, **26-7**.
 Naxia, **18**, **129**.
 Naxos Island, agriculture, **18**, **117**, **130**; area and height, **18**, **11**; cables, **18**, **120**, **130**, **132**; climate, **18**, **13**; commerce, **18**, **131-2**; communications, **18**, **29-30**, **115**; minerals, **18**, **98-9**, **118**, **119**, **130-1**; population, **18**, **14**, **14-5**, **15**, **16**; ports, **18**, **129**; Roman Catholic Archbishopric, **18**, **74**.
 Naxos port, **18**, **129**.
 Nazim, Dr., **16**, **48**.
 Nazim Pasha, assassination, 1913, **16**, **54**.
 Nea Hellenike Atmoploia, **18**, **143**.
 Nelidow, A. (1878), **15**, **82**.
 Neumann, Baron de (1841), **15**, **73**.
 Nevesda, flour mills, **17**, **89**.
 Newbolt, **18**, **26**.
 Newcastle, shipping service with, **16**, **87**.
 Nezib, battle of, 1839, **16**, **29**.
 Niazi, and Young Turk revolution, **16**, **47**.
 Nicaea, **15**, **6**, **16**, **14**, **18**, **22**.
 Nicaea, *see* Isnik.
 Nicholas, Grand Duke, at San Stefano, **16**, **39**.
 Nicholas, King, of Montenegro, and Albanian revolt, **17**, **45**, **95-6**.
 Nicholas, Prince, of Montenegro, war with Turkey, 1876, **17**, **38**.
 Nicholas I, Tsar, **16**, **32**, and Greek independence, **18**, **26**; ultimatum to Turkey, 1826, **16**, **23**.
 Nicholas II, Tsar, and Cretan question, **18**, **52**; meeting with Edward VII at Reval, 1908, **16**, **45**.
 Nickel, **18**, **97**, **98**.
 Nicopolis, province of, **17**, **27**.
 Nigrita, fighting at, 1913, **16**, **54**; massacres by Bulgars, 1913, **18**, **70**.
 Nikaï, the, bairak of, **17**, **15**.
 Nikaria Island, **18**, **3**.
 Niképhorof, A. (1912), **15**, **115**.
 Nikolitch, A., **15**, **132**.
 Nikopolis, battle of, 1396, **16**, **14**.
 Nikuria Islet, **18**, **119**.
 Nile, battle of the, 1801, **15**, **11**.
 Nios (Ios) Island, **18**, **11**; cables, **18**, **130**, **134**; population, **18**, **14**, **15**.
 Nish, **16**, **37**; capture by Serbia, **15**, **26**; railway, **18**, **85**.
 Nish district, **15**, **28**, **108**; cession to Serbia, 1878, **16**, **40**.
 Noel, Admiral, measures at Candia, 1898, **18**, **51**.
 Nogga, P., Albanian deputy at Ambassadors' Conference in London, 1912, **17**, **97**.
 Norddeutscher Lloyd, **16**, **87**.
 Normans, Durazzo seized by, 1081, **17**, **27**.
 North-West railway, **18**, **85**, **86**.
 Novakovitch, Stojan, **15**, **132**.
 Novibazar, sanjak of, **15**, **28**, **84**, **17**, **67**; Albanians in, **17**, **24**, **25**; Austrian forces withdrawn, 1908, **15**, **36-7**; Austrian railway scheme, **15**, **37**; Austro-Hungarian garrisons, **16**, **40**; evacuation by Austria, 1909, **16**, **47**; occupied by Serbians, 1912, **15**, **40**; provisions of Treaty of Berlin, 1878, **15**, **29**, **104**; provisions of Treaty of Bucarest, 1913, **15**, **41**.
 Novorossisk, **16**, **87**.
 Nyaousta, textile industry, **18**, **101**.

O.

- Oats, cultivation, **16**, **90**, **91**, **17**, **81**, **18**, **90**.
 Obrenovich dynasty, **15**, **16**.
 O'Connor, Sir Nicholas, British Ambassador to the Porte, mining law reforms due to, **16**, **98-9**.
 Odessa, **18**, **5**; "Friendly Society," 1814, **18**, **24**; Greek rising, 1821, **18**, **23**; Greeks in, **15**, **15**; shipping services with, **16**, **87**.

- Odesso-Indo telegraph line, **16**, 72.
 Oesterreichische Kreditanstalt, **16**, 106, 135.
 Oil, **17**, 88, **18**, 99, 104, 124, 126, 134, 153, 154; export, **16**, 124, **17**, 91.
 Oil, olive, *see* Olives.
 Oils and fats, imports, **16**, 127.
 Oils and oleaginous products, import, **18**, 145.
 Oils, vegetable, *see* Vegetable oils.
 Okhrida, **15**, 26, 39, 86, 157; assigned to Bulgaria, 1912, **15**, 39, 45; Bulgarian bishops, **15**, 32; as centre of Bulgarian influence, **17**, 66; occupied by Serbians, **17**, 48.
 Okhrida district, Albanians in, and Bulgarians, **17**, 25.
 Okhrida lake, **17**, 3, 4, 38, 74, 98; district, population, **17**, 24; fish, **18**, 96; Young Turk movement near, 1908, **17**, 42.
 Okjilar, **18**, 2.
 Ok-Meidan heights, wireless station, **16**, 73.
 Oksakoff mouth of the Danube, **15**, 65.
 Old Seraglio port, **16**, 75.
 Oldenburg, Grand Duke Paul of, **18**, 32.
 Oleaginous products, exports, **18**, 107.
 Olives and olive oil, **16**, 91, **17**, 81, **18**, 90, 92-3, 93, 101, 120, 123, 139, 153, 154; exports, **16**, 122, 124, **17**, 91, **18**, 107, 108, 120.
 Olympia railways, **18**, 85.
 Olympus, mount, **18**, 23, 44, 45.
 Opium trade, **16**, 106, 122.
 Ores, exports, **16**, 122.
 Oriental Railway, **16**, 59, 60, 64-5, 68-9, 85, 137, 138.
 Orkhan, Brusa taken by, 1326, **16**, 14.
 Orloff, Count Alexis (1829) (1833), **15**, 68, 71.
 Orloff, Count (1856), **15**, 74.
 Orno Bay, anchorage, **18**, 128.
 Oropos, lignite, **18**, 99.
 Oroshi, burnt by Turks, 1880, **17**, 40; district round, population, **17**, 15.
 Orphano, Gulf of, **18**, 71.
 Orthodox Christians, Albania, **15**, 53, 57, **17**, 23, 24, 64; Albanian colonists in Italy, **17**, 26; among the Ghegs, **17**, 9; Levant, Russian claim to protectorate over, **15**, 19; among the Tosks, **17**, 17-8; Turkey, Russian protection, **15**, 8, 10; Vlachs, **17**, 22.
 Orthodox Church, Greece, *see* Greek Orthodox Church.
 Osman, Sultan, **15**, 7, **16**, 14.
 Osman Nizamy Pasha, **15**, 132.
 Ostend, **16**, 71.
 Otho, Prince, of Bavaria, King of Greece, 1832-62, **15**, 17, **18**, 29-30, 31, 32-6, 109; deposition, **15**, 24, **18**, 35-6; death, 1867, **18**, 36.
 Othrys, Mount, **18**, 1.
 Otranto, **17**, 78.
 Otranto "Region," Albanians in, **17**, 26.
 Otranto, Straits of, **17**, 67.
 Otto of Bavaria, *see* Otho.
 Ottoman Empire, decline of, **15**, 8-9.
 Ottomans, invasion of Asia Minor, 13th century, **16**, 14.
 Oubril, M. P. d' (1878), **15**, 95.
- ### P.
- Pachitch, N. P. (1913), **15**, 134.
 Pacho Bey, attempted murder of, by Ali Pasha, 1820, **17**, 34-5.
 Pacifico affair, 1850, **18**, 34.
 Pahlen, Count F., (1829), **15**, 68.
 Palermo province, Albanians in, **17**, 26.
 Palestine, Holy Places, French privileges, **15**, 8, 10, 22; protection of Russian pilgrims, **15**, 10.
 Pali, Capt. C. (1913), **15**, 134.
 Palmerston, Viscount, **15**, 73, **18**, 30, 32; and Greece, **18**, 32; and Pacifico affair, 1850, **18**, 34.
 Panas, D., (1913), **15**, 134.
 Panderma, **16**, 138; railway, **16**, 124.
 Panhellenic Company, **16**, 82.
 Panormos, port, **18**, 148-9.
 Papapouli, railway, **18**, 84.
 Papayanni Line, **16**, 86.
 Paper, printed books, &c., import, **18**, 146.
 Paquet, N., & Cie, **16**, 87.
 Parga, **17**, 25, 70, 99, **18**, 23; British cession of, to Turkey, 1819, **18**, 38; capture by Greeks, **18**, 68; reunited to Greece, 1913, **18**, 38 note; former Venetian settlement, **17**, 65.
 Paris, **16**, 71; Ottoman Embassy established by Selim III, **17**, 27; Peace Congress, 1856, **16**, 32; Representative Congress of Hellenic Communities, 1916, **18**, 7, 8; Treaty of, 1815, **15**, 161; Treaty

- Paris—*cont.*
of, 1856, **15**, 21-3, 64, 75-8, 161, **16**, 32-3, 35, 37, 40; Treaty of, 1857, **15**, 161.
- Parker, Sir W., blockade of the Piræus, 1850, **18**, 34.
- Paroikia, marble quarries near, **18**, 133; port, **18**, 132.
- Paros (and Antiparos) Island, agriculture, **18**, 133; Albanians in, **17**, 25; area and height, **18**, 11; cables, **18**, 139, 139, 142; communications, **18**, 132; livestock, **18**, 117; minerals, **18**, 11, 133; ports, **18**, 132.
- Pashley, **18**, 40.
- Passarowitz, Commercial Treaty of, 1718, **15**, 9, 52, **16**, 16.
- Patras, **16**, 86; banks, **18**, 113; Chamber of Commerce, **18**, 103; customs duties, **18**, 110; industries, **18**, 101; lignite between Pyrgos and, **18**, 99; port, **18**, 87; railway, **18**, 85; shipping service, **15**, 142, **18**, 141; training school, **18**, 80; wine industry, **18**, 91.
- Patriarchal organisation among the Tosks, **17**, 19-21, 54.
- Paul, Emperor of Russia, alliance with Turkey, 1798, **16**, 20.
- Pavla river, **17**, 19.
- Pavlo Keui, railway, **16**, 65, 101.
- Pavlovitch, I, **15**, 132.
- Paxo Island, neutralisation of, 1864, **18**, 1, 39, 157, 158.
- Paya, obtained by Ali Pasha, 1814, **17**, 29.
- Peas, &c., exports, **16**, 122, **18**, 139.
- Peas, beans, &c., **17**, 81.
- Peasant costumes manufacture, **17**, 89.
- Peasant proprietorship, the Peloponnese, **18**, 96.
- Pech, *see* Ipek.
- Peel, Sir R., and Greece, **18**, 32.
- Peiko, port, **18**, 154.
- Pelago Island, *see* Kyra Panagia.
- Pelion, Provisional Government formed on, 1877, **18**, 42.
- Peloponnese, **18**, 23; currant cultivation, **18**, 91-2; peasant proprietorship, **18**, 96; railway, **18**, 85, 86; roads, **18**, 83.
- Peloponnesus, Pasha of, **17**, 34.
- Pendik, railway, **16**, 66.
- Pencios (Salambrios) river, **18**, 2, 43, 44; fish, **18**, 96.
- Pentelikon, marble quarries, **18**, 99-100, 118-119; railway, **18**, 85.
- Pente Pegadia, battle of, 1854, **18**, 50; battle of, 1897, **18**, 50; seized by Greeks, 1912, **17**, 48.
- Pera, **16**, 8; bank, **16**, 136; foreign post offices, **16**, 71; railway, **16**, 68; road, **16**, 60; telephones, **16**, 73.
- Perakhorî, magnesite mines, **18**, 98. Permeti, **17**, 98.
- Persia, North-West, occupation by Sultan Selim, 1514-15, **16**, 15.
- Persian carpet trade, **16**, 107.
- Persians, **16**, 7; attempted annexations in Balkans, **15**, 4; in Turkey, **16**, 7.
- Peter the Great (1682-1725), **16**, 16-7, 33.
- Peter I, King of Serbia, alliance with Bulgaria, 1912, **15**, 115.
- Petra, Pass of, Greek victory, 1829, **18**, 27.
- Petrobey, head of the Mainato family, **18**, 29.
- Petrol, **17**, 88; import, **17**, 91.
- Petroleum, *see* Oil.
- Phanariots of Constantinople, **18**, 5, 22.
- Pharkovani, Cape, manganese, **18**, 126.
- Philippopolis, revolution, 1885, **15**, 30.
- Phillips, Colonel, Scutari handed over to, by Montenegrins, 1913, **17**, 50.
- Phocis, Albanians in, **17**, 25.
- Pholegandros (Polykandro) Island, **18**, 11; agriculture, **18**, 134; communications, **18**, 133, 134; livestock, **18**, 117, 134; population, **18**, 15; ports, **18**, 133-4.
- Phrygians, **16**, 14.
- Phylloxera, ravages of, **16**, 91.
- Pig-keeping, **17**, 84, **18**, 94, 117, 120, 125, 152.
- Pindus range, **18**, 23; forests between Gulf of Corinth and, **18**, 95; Koutso-Vlachs on, **15**, 13, 158, **17**, 21-2.
- Pindus region, buffalo and cattle industry, **17**, 84.
- Piræus, the, **16**, 87, **18**, 16, 51, 55, 66, 88, 94, 116, 124, 152, 153, 154; Anglo-French occupation, 1854-7, **15**, 21, **18**, 35; banks, **18**, 113; British blockade, 1850, **18**, 34; customs duties, **18**, 110; industries, **18**, 101; port, **18**, 86-7, 141; railways, **18**, 84, 85, 86; steamship service, **18**, 151; telegraphic communication with, **18**, 142.

- Pirot, **15**, **26**, **16**, **37**; capture by Serbia, **15**, **26**; cession to Serbia, **1878**, **15**, **28**, **16**, **40**; district round, population, **15**, **158**.
- Pitt, William (the younger), **15**, **11**.
- Plaka, **18**, **125**.
- Plataea, battle of, **18**, **20**.
- Plati, railway, **18**, **84**.
- Platystomos, mineral baths, **18**, **100**.
- Plava district, **17**, **99**; assigned to Montenegro, **1913**, **17**, **60**, **69**; proposed cession to Montenegro, and Albanian opposition, **1878-9**, **17**, **30**, **38**, **39-40**, **59**, **60**; occupied by Montenegrins, **1912**, **17**, **48**.
- Plava town and district, Albanian, **17**, **24**.
- Plevlje, occupied by Montenegrins, **1912**, **17**, **48**.
- Plevna, fall of, **15**, **26**.
- Podgoritsa, acquisition by Montenegro, **1878**, **17**, **59**, **61**, **68**, **69**.
- Podgoritsa town and district, Albanians in, **17**, **24**.
- Podolia, cession to Turkey, **1672**, **16**, **16**; ceded by Turkey, **1699**, **16**, **16**.
- Podrina, slopes, viticulture, **17**, **82**.
- Poland, **16**, **17**, **18**; King of, Podolia ceded to Turkey, **1672**, **16**, **16**; first partition, **16**, **18**.
- Polinos Islet, **18**, **11**, **123**.
- Political conditions, *see also* Administration; Albania, **17**, **53-4**; Greece, **18**, **76-7**.
- Politis, N. (**1913**), **15**, **134**.
- Polykandros Island, *see* Pholegandros.
- Pomaks (Moslems of Bulgar origin) in Turkey, **16**, **7**.
- Popovitch, J., **15**, **132**.
- Popular Bank of Athens, **18**, **113**.
- Population, Albania, **17**, **22-4**; Cyclades and Northern Sporades, **18**, **15-6**; Greece, **18**, **6**; Turkey, **16**, **8-10**.
- Poros, sack of, **1830**, **18**, **29**.
- Port Said, **16**, **87**.
- Porto Lagos, capture by Greeks, **1913**, **18**, **70**.
- Ports, Albania, **17**, **77-9**; Cyclades and Northern Sporades, **18**, **116**, **119-20**, **121-2**, **123-4**, **124-5**, **127-8**, **129**, **132**, **133-4**, **134-5**, **137**, **138**, **140**, **148-9**, **150-1**, **152**, **153**, **154**; Greece, **18**, **86-7**; Turkey, **16**, **73-88**.
- Poseidonia, **18**, **140**.
- Posts, telegraphs and telephones, Albania, **17**, **77**, **78**, **79**; Greece, **18**, **119**, **120**, **122**, **124**, **128**, **129**, **137**, **138**, **140**, **154**; Turkey, **16**, **70-3**, **107-8**.
- Potatoes, **18**, **130**, **133**, **151**; export, **18**, **123**, **139**.
- Pottery industry, **18**, **139**.
- Pottery manufactures, import, **18**, **146**.
- Poultry, **17**, **84**, **18**, **117**, **128**, **139**.
- Poutnik, General R. (**1912**), **15**, **115**, **124**, **125**, **127**.
- Pozzolana, **18**, **99**.
- Premete, Premeti, assigned to Albania, **18**, **71**; trade, **17**, **84**.
- Prenk Bib Doda, hereditary chief of the Roman Catholic Mirdites, **17**, **30**, **36**, **38**, **39**, **40**, **59**, **72**.
- Prespa Lake, **17**, **38**, **97**, **18**, **2**; Bulgars round, **17**, **67**.
- Prevesa, **17**, **3**, **99**, **18**, **44**; bank, **18**, **113**; capture by Greeks, **1912**, **18**, **67**; ceded, **1881**, **18**, **31**; port, **18**, **87**; seized by Greeks, **1912**, **17**, **48**; seizure from Venice by Ali Pasha, **1797**, **17**, **29**, **34**.
- Prevesa district, assigned to Greece, **1913**, **17**, **69**, **70**.
- Prilep, Albanians at, **17**, **25**.
- Princes Islands, shipping line, **16**, **63**, **76**.
- Prinkipo, British Fleet at, **16**, **39**.
- Printing, **18**, **101**.
- Prishtina, **17**, **97**; Albanians round, **17**, **24**; assigned to Serbia, **1913**, **17**, **69**; seizure by Moslem Albanians of Kosovo, **1912**, **17**, **30**, **46**.
- Prishtina, sanjak of, **17**, **1**.
- Prizren, **17**, **99**; assigned to Montenegro, **1914**, **17**, **80**; assigned to Serbia, **1913**, **17**, **69**; branch of League of "Skipetars" at, **17**, **39**; depression of, **17**, **3**; occupied by Serbians, **1912**, **17**, **48**; railway scheme, **17**, **76**.
- Prizren, sanjak of, **17**, **1**.
- Prokopi Bay, **18**, **129**.
- Prokuplje, Albanians in, **17**, **24**.
- Protestants, Greece, **18**, **73**.
- Provence, smoked fish export to, **17**, **87**.
- Prussia, *see* Germany.
- Pruth river, **15**, **13**, **62**, **68**; crossed by Russian Army, **1828**, **16**, **24**; Russian frontier advanced to, **1812**, **16**, **22**; Treaty of, **1711**, **15**, **52**, **16**, **17**.
- Psamatia, **16**, **65**.

- Pamatia, Bay of, **16**, 85.
 Psara Island, **18**, 3, 9, 23.
 Psathoura Island, **18**, 12.
 Puka, the, bairak of, **17**, 15.
 Pulati, the, bairak of, **17**, 15.
 Pulati district, tribal feud, **17**, 14.
 Pulse cultivation, **18**, 124, 134.
 Pumice stone, **18**, 135, 136.
 Punta, added to Greece, 1881, **18**, 2, 44.
 Punta Fort, assigned to Turkey, 1832, **18**, 1; relinquished, 1912, **18**, 31.
 Pylos, bank, **18**, 113.
 Pyrene oil-making, **18**, 101.
 Pyrgos, bank, **18**, 113; lignite between Patras and, **18**, 99; railways, **18**, 85, 86; wine industry, **18**, 91.
 Pyrolusite, **18**, 133.
- Q.**
- Quarries, **16**, 100.
 Quicksilver, **17**, 88 note.
- R.**
- Radef, S. (1913), **15**, 134.
 Radoslavoff, Dr., Bulgarian Minister, **16**, 55-6.
 Railways, Albania, **17**, 75-6; Balkans, rival schemes, **15**, 37; Greece, **18**, 84-6; Turkey, **16**, 64-70.
 Raisins, exports, **16**, 122.
 Raki distilling, **18**, 91, 101.
 Rakkia Island, *see* Herakleia.
 Ralles, M., Cretan Prime Minister (1903), **18**, 54, 55; and Cretan question, **18**, 59, 60; defeated in general election, 1912, **18**, 66; and "Military League," **18**, 61.
 Rangaves, Greek delegate to Berlin Congress, 1878, **18**, 43.
 Red Sea Ports, **16**, 87.
 Régie Ottomane des Tabacs de l'Empire Ottoman, **16**, 102, 106-7, 123, **17**, 82.
 Religion, Albania, **17**, 32, 52, 53, 57-8; of Ghegs, **17**, 9-10; Greece, **18**, 73-6; Turkey, provisions of Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji, 1774, **15**, 67.
 Repnin, Prince Nicolas, **15**, 67.
 Reshad Effendi, *see* Mohammed V.
 Reshid Pasha, Grand Vizier, **17**, 19, 29, 33, 35.
 Resin, export, **18**, 107.
 Resmi Achmet Effendi (1774), **15**, 67.
 Rethymne (Retimo), occupation by Russians, 1897-8, **18**, 51, 52.
 Reval, **16**, 45.
 Rezvaya Chai, river, **16**, 2, 3.
 Rhodes Island, captured by Turks, 1522, **15**, 7; Italian occupation, 1912, **15**, 42-3, **16**, 52, **18**, 3, 69.
 Rhodope, territory east of, Bulgarian claim recognised by Serbia, 1912, **15**, 39, 118.
 Rice, cultivation, **17**, 81, **18**, 90; import, **17**, 91, **18**, 136.
 Riekiners Linie, **16**, 87.
 Ricord, Admiral, **18**, 29.
 Ristitch, M. G. (1913), **15**, 134.
 Rivers, Albania, **17**, 3-4, 74; Greece, **18**, 83; Turkey, **16**, 3, 62.
 Rizoff, M., Bulgarian ambassador in Berlin, case for partition of Albania, **17**, 70.
 Roads, Albania, **17**, 73-4; Cyclades and Northern Sporades, **18**, 115, 119, 121, 123, 124, 125, 127, 129, 132, 133, 134, 139-40, 148, 150, 154; Greece, **18**, 83; Turkey, **16**, 59-61.
 Rodosto, **16**, 3, 8; Armenians in, **16**, 9; captured by Suleiman, 1357, **16**, 14; exports, **16**, 90; lignite mines, **16**, 101; population, **16**, 108; port, **16**, 74; roads, **16**, 60.
 Rodosto district, agriculture, **16**, 90.
 Rodosto, kaza of, population, **16**, 9.
 Romaic, **18**, 5.
 Roman Catholics, Albanians, **17**, 53, 57; Albanian colonists in Italy, **17**, 26; Cyclades, **18**, 14; among the Ghegs, **17**, 9; Greece, **18**, 73, 74; Turkey, Austrian protection, **15**, 8, 9.
 Roman colonists, beyond the Danube, **15**, 5.
 Roman Empire, Albania under, **17**, 27.
 Romance language, **15**, 13, **17**, 8, 22.
 Romani, *see* Vlachs.
 Romans, invasion of Albania, **17**, 31.
 Rope factory, **18**, 144.
 Rosebery, Lord, **15**, 59, **18**, 46.
 Rosso Antico, **18**, 100.
 Rotterdam, **16**, 88, **18**, 88, 142.
 Roupel, **18**, 70.
 Roupfos, member of Greek Provisional Government, 1862, **18**, 36.
 Rudhart, Herr von, Prime Minister of Greece, 1837, **18**, 32.

- Rumania, **15**, 23-4; Balkan Wars, **15**, 41, **16**, 55, **18**, 70; and the Danube question, **15**, 64, 65; formation of united state of, 1859, **15**, 24; anti-Greek riots, **18**, 57; independence recognised, 1878, **16**, 39, 40; Jews in, **15**, 160; military convention with Russia, 1877, **16**, 38; national sentiment, **15**, 48-9; population, **15**, 160; proclaimed a kingdom, 1881, **15**, 30, **16**, 41; provisions of Treaties of San Stefano and Berlin, 1878, **15**, 27, 85, 110-1; relations with Bulgarians and Greeks, **15**, 35; relations with Greece, rupture of, **18**, 57, 1911, **18**, 66; and Russo-Turkish war, 1877-8, **15**, 26; shipping, in Constantinople, **16**, 97, in Greek ports, **18**, 88; table of treaties affecting boundaries, **15**, 161; territorial results of Balkan war, **15**, 42-3; trade with, **16**, 98, **18**, 136, 148.
- Rumanian nationality, foundation of, **15**, 5.
- Rumanian State Maritime Service, **16**, 87, 88, **18**, 88.
- Rumanians, Balkan peninsula, **15**, 158.
- Runeli Kavak, copper mine, **16**, 101.
- Rumelia, **17**, 34, 45, 94; Vali of, **17**, 29.
- Rumelia, Eastern, **16**, 40; annexation by Bulgaria, 1908, **16**, 47; provisions of Treaty of Berlin, 1878, **15**, 27, 100-3; union with Bulgaria, 1885, **15**, 39-1, 45, **16**, 42, 44, **18**, 45.
- Rushes, export, **17**, 91.
- Russell, Lord Odo (1878), **15**, 95.
- Russell, **18**, 27.
- Russia, **15**, 17, 18-9, **18**, 22; alliances with Austria, **16**, 17, 19; annexation of Bessarabia, 1812, **15**, 13; and Austrian annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, **15**, 37; Balkan railway scheme, **15**, 37; and Balkan War, **17**, 97; and the Balkans, **15**, 9-10; Conference in London, 1912, **17**, 97-9; co-operation with other Powers for security of the Straits, 1840, **15**, 55-6; and the Cretan question, **16**, 36, **18**, 41, 51-2, 54, 58-61; Crimean War, **15**, 19-21, **16**, 31-2; and the Danube question, **15**, 62, 63, 64; denunciation of neutrality of Black Sea, 1870, **15**, 57; and Greece, **15**, 16-7, 24, 33, 35, 36, 37, **18**, 1, 28, 29, 156, 157; and Greek War of Independence, **18**, 25, 26; Greeks in, **18**, 8; invasion of Danubian provinces, **15**, 17; and Ionian Islands, **18**, 39; and Macedonia, **15**, 34, **16**, 44; merchant ships, free navigation in Turkish waters, Treaty of 1826, **15**, 54; military convention with Rumania, 1877, **16**, 38; and Moldavia and Wallachia, **15**, 13; occupation of Azof, 1774, **16**, 15; policy of, 1700-1856, **16**, 33; post offices in Turkey, **16**, 70-1; protection of Orthodox Christians in Turkey, **15**, 8, 10; and revolt of Mehemet Ali Pasha, **16**, 29-30; rights in Black Sea, **15**, 52-3; and Russo-Greek War, 1897, **15**, 33; shipping, in Constantinople, **16**, 82, 83, 87, in Greek ports, **18**, 88; "Straits Convention," 1841, **15**, 56; trade with, **16**, 120-7, **18**, 93, 105, 106, 123, 135, 146, 147, 148; Treaty of Paris, 1756, **15**, 21-3, 75-7; and Turkey, **15**, 10-1, 11-12, **16**, 16-9, 20-1, 23-4; and Turko-Montenegrin War, **16**, 38; and union of Bulgaria and Eastern Rumelia, 1885, **15**, 30; wars with Turkey, **15**, 25-6, **16**, 21, 22, 38-9, **17**, 38-9, **18**, 27, 42; warships, Straits opened to, **15**, 53, 55; and Young Turks, **16**, 52.
- Russian colonies, Balkan peninsula, **15**, 160.
- Russian Steam Navigation and Trading Company, **16**, 82, 83, 87, **18**, 88.
- Russian Volunteer Fleet Association, **16**, 87.
- Rye, cultivation, **16**, 90.

S.

- Saddlery-making, **16**, 103.
- Sadik Effendi (1829), **15**, 68.
- Sadoullah Bey (1878), **15**, 82, 95.
- Safvet Pasha (1878), **15**, 82.
- St. George mouth, river Danube, **15**, 62, 63.
- St. Georgios (Agios Georgios) Island, harbour, **18**, 123, 140.
- St. Hilaire, Barthélemy, French Foreign Minister, **18**, 44.
- St. John, Cape, **18**, 125.

- St. Nicolas, *see* Tenos.
- St. Nicolas (Agios Nikolacs), port, **18**, 150-1.
- St. Stephanos, Port, **18**, 125.
- Saint-Vallier, Comte de (1878), **15**, 95.
- Salambrios river, *see* Penejos.
- Salamis, **18**, 36; battle of, **18**, 20; naval station, seizure by Commander Typaldos, 1909, **18**, 62.
- Salamis Island, Albanians in, **17**, 25.
- Salisbury, Marquess of, **15**, 59, 95; British delegate to European Conference at Constantinople, 1876, **16**, 38; and Greece, **18**, 43, 44, 45-6.
- Salonika, **15**, 26, 34, 41, **16**, 54, 108, **17**, 68, **18**, 69, 70; acquisition by Greece, 1913, **15**, 41; agricultural school, **18**, 81; anthracite near, **18**, 99; assassination of French and German Consuls, 1876, **16**, 37; Austrian railway scheme, **15**, 37; banks, **16**, 134, **18**, 113, 114; capture by Greeks, 1912, **15**, 40, 45, **16**, 53, **18**, 68; capture by Turks, 1430, **15**, 7, **18**, 22; commercial organisations, **18**, 103; customs duties, **18**, 110; foreign post offices, **16**, 71; Greek Synod, **18**, 75, 76; industries, **18**, 101; Jewish community, **15**, 32, 160, **18**, 2, 74; port, **18**, 87; pronunciamiento, 1908, **16**, 47; railways, **16**, 64, **17**, 76, **18**, 84, 85, 86; recovered from Franks by Greeks, **18**, 22; roads, **17**, 74, **18**, 83; Serbian extra-territorial enclave, **15**, 41, 51; shipping service, **15**, 142; threatened by Albanians, 1912, **17**, 47; wireless communication with, **18**, 142; and Young Turk movement, 1908, **15**, 36.
- Salt, **17**, 88-9, **18**, 99, 126.
- Salt fish, import, **18**, 145.
- Saltpetre factory, **17**, 89.
- Samandra, road, **16**, 61.
- Samos Island, **18**, 3; erected into autonomous principality, 1832, **18**, 30; independence proclaimed, **18**, 30; occupied by Greeks, 1913, **18**, 68; union with Greece declared, 1912, **18**, 68.
- Samothraki Island, **18**, 9; Turkish claim to, **18**, 3.
- Samsun, **16**, 87.
- Samuel, Tsar, sovereignty over Albania, **17**, 66.
- San Giovanni di Medua, **15**, 48; Montenegrin and Serbian claim to, 1913, **17**, 60; occupied by Montenegrins, 1912, **17**, 48; port, **17**, 77; seized by Serbians, 1912, **15**, 40; Venetian settlement, 14-15th century, **17**, 65.
- San Giuliano, Marchese di, Italian Foreign Minister, and Greece, **18**, 69.
- San Stefano, Grand Duke Nicholas at, **16**, 39; Treaty of, 1878, **15**, 25, 9, 44, 45, 59, 82, 95, 161, **16**, 39, 40, **17**, 38, 67, **18**, 43, 56.
- Sanders, General Liman von, **16**, 56, 73.
- Sangri, **18**, 129.
- Sanitary conditions, Albania, **17**, 6; Cyclades and Northern Sporades, **18**, 13; Turkey, **16**, 5-6.
- Santa Mavra Island, *see* Leukas.
- Santa Rosa, **18**, 26.
- Santa Quaranta, **17**, 99; assigned to Albania, **18**, 71; harbour, **17**, 3; road, **17**, 73.
- Santa Quaranta, Bay of, anchorage, **17**, 78.
- Santa Quaranta district, **17**, 64.
- Santo, Monte, *see* Athos, Mount.
- Santorin (Thera) Island, **18**, 11, 135; agriculture, **18**, 117, 135; area, height, &c., **18**, 11; bank, **18**, 136; cables, **18**, 120, 135; climate, **18**, 13; commerce, **18**, 136; communications, **18**, 134; minerals, **18**, 99, 118, 135-6; population, **18**, 14, 15; ports, **18**, 134-5; wine industry, **18**, 90.
- Sarantaporon, battle of, 1912, **18**, 67.
- Sardinia, and Crimean war, **15**, 20, 21; and the Danube question, **15**, 61; Treaty of Paris, 1856, **15**, 21-3, 75-7.
- Saseno Islet, acquired by Greece, 1864, **18**, 39; ceded to Albania, 1914, **17**, 4, **18**, 1, 39, 71; Italian occupation, Oct. 1914, **17**, 66; transfer to Greece and neutralisation, 1864, **17**, 4.
- Sasun massacres, 1894, **16**, 44.
- Saxoff, General (1913), **15**, 138.
- Schaffhausen'scher Bankverein, A., **16**, 134, 135.
- Schinnelpfeng Institute, **18**, 104.
- Schouvaloff, *see* Shuva'off.
- Schrader, K., **16**, 80, 137.
- Schweizerische Kreditanstalt, **16**, 65, 137.
- Scio Island, **16**, 56.

- Seirocco, 17, 5, 79.
- Seodano cultivation, 17, 83.
- Scutari (Skodra), 15, 42, 16, 8, 17, 2, 39, 77, 99; Albanian defence against Montenegrins, 1912, 17, 48; Archbishop of, 17, 47; bank, 17, 92; Bushat Pashas of, 17, 16, 33; College and seminary, 17, 55; copper bed near, 17, 88; Council of Ten, 1856, 17, 35-6; ferry, 16, 75; headquarters of the League of "Skipetars," 17, 39; history, 17, 28; horse breeding, 17, 84; industries, 17, 89, 90; international force stationed at, 1913, 17, 71; light railway, 17, 75; Malsor chiefs' meeting declaring for local autonomy, 1913, 17, 46; Montenegrin claims to, 17, 60, 98; population, 17, 22; railway schemes, 17, 75, 76; religion, 17, 9; roads, 16, 60, 61; siege of, 1912, 15, 40, 17, 49, 50, surrender, 15, 40, 17, 30, 50, handed over to international landing force, May 1913, 17, 50; sold to Venetians, 1394, 17, 60; surrendered by Montenegro, 15, 41; telephones, 16, 73; threatened rising, 1856, 17, 35; trade, 17, 84; Venetian settlement, 17, 28; vineyards formerly, 16, 91; viticulture, 17, 82;
- Scutari district, administration, 17, 72; sumac cultivation, 17, 82.
- Seutari, lake of, 17, 3, 4, 74; district between sea and, assigned to Montenegro, 1913, 17, 60; fisheries, 17, 87.
- Seutari vilayet, 17, 1; formed, 1865, 17, 29, 36.
- Seaton, Lord, Ionian Constitution reformed, 1849, 18, 38.
- Sebaeddin, Prince, 16, 48.
- Sebastiani, General, French representative, in Turkey, 15, 53, 16, 21.
- Sebastopol, 16, 19; fall of, 1855, 16, 32.
- Sedd el-Bahr, 16, 2.
- Seeds, 16, 90; export, 16, 74.
- Seigel, marble quarries, 18, 100.
- Selenitsa, bitumen mine, 17, 88.
- Selim, Sultan, "the Grim" (1512-20), 16, 35; annexations and conquests, 16, 15.
- Selim III, Sultan (1789-1807), administrative reforms, 16, 24, 26-8; alliance with Russia, 1798, Selim III—*cont.*
- 16, 20; deposition, 1807, 16, 21, 27; assassination, 16, 27-8.
- Seljuk Turks, 15; 7, invasion of Asia Minor, 16, 13-4.
- Semeni river, 17, 22; salt production, 17, 88.
- Semeni valley, 17, 4; road, 17, 4, 74.
- Seraglio point, 16, 3, 65.
- Serai, agriculture round, 16, 89-90; road, 16, 60.
- Serbia, acquisitions of territory, 17, 38, 69; and Albania, 17, 47; Albanians in, 17, 24-5; and Austrian annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, 15, 37; Austrian gains in, restored to Turkey, 1739, 16, 16; Balkan wars, 1912-3, 15, 40-1, 16, 53-5, 17, 48, 49, 50, 97, 18, 69-71; claims to territory, 17, 60, 61-2, 98; and Crimean war, 15, 21; and the Danube question, 15, 65; erection of semi-autonomous principality, 1817, 17, 36; Greek frontier, 18, 2; independence recognised, 1878, 16, 39, 40; as independent State, rise of, 15, 15-6; invasion of Albania, 7th century, 17, 61; kingdom of, under Stephen Dushan, 15, 1, 6; military convention with Bulgaria, 1912, 15, 38, 119-27; national sentiment, 15, 47-8; neutrality in Greco-Turkish war, 1897, 18, 50; neutrality in Russo-Greek war, 1897, 15, 33; Prince, title of King, 1882, 15, 30; provisions of Treaty of Adrianople, 1829, 15, 69; provisions of Treaty of Paris, 1856, 15, 23, 77; provisions of Treaties of San Stefano and Berlin, 1878, 15, 27-8, 84-5, 107-10; railway scheme, 15, 37; relations with Greeks, 15, 35; revolt against Turkish rule, 1812-33, 16, 22-3; Rumanians in, 15, 158; and Russo-Turkish war, 1877-8, 15, 26; secret convention with Austria, 1881, 16, 41; state of, at beginning of 19th century, 15, 14; table of treaties affecting boundaries, 15, 161; territorial results of Balkan wars, 15, 42-3; Treaty of Alliance with Bulgaria, and secret annexe, 1912, 15, 38-9, 115-9, 16, 53; Turkish garrisons, withdrawal, 1867, 15, 24,

Serbia—*cont.*

16, 36; and union of Bulgaria and Eastern Rumelia, 1885, 15, 31; wars with Turkey, 15, 25, 16, 37, 38.

Serbian immigrants, Austria, 16th century, 15, 9.

Serbian paper money, in Albania, 17, 92.

Serbo-Croatian Slavs, Turkey, 16, 7.

Serbs, Balkan peninsula, 15, 157-8; defeat by Turks, 1389, 15, 7; invasion, 610, 15, 1, 6, of Albania, 17, 31; invasion of Balkan peninsula, 610, 15, 1, 6; Russia recognised as protector of, 1826, 15, 18.

Seres, 15, 159.

Sereth, Magyar settlements on, 15, 160.

Sericulture, 18, 93.

Seriphos (Serpho) island, 18, 10; agriculture, 18, 137; cable, 18, 125, 137; communications, 18, 137; minerals, 18, 97, 118, 137-8; population, 18, 15, 16; ports, 18, 137.

Seriphos town, 18, 137.

Serpentine, 18, 130.

Serpents, Isle of, 15, 64.

Serpho island, *see* Seriphos.

Serres, entered by Greeks, 1913, and burnt by Bulgarians, 18, 70; textile industry, 18, 101.

Servizi Marittimi, 17, 79.

Sesame, 16, 91.

Seven Towers (Yedi Kule), Constantinople, 16, 65, 85, 88.

Shala tribe, revolt, 17, 47.

Shala and Shoshi, the, bairak of, 17, 15.

Shar Mountains, 15, 157; Serbian claim to region north and west of, recognised by Bulgaria, 1912, 15, 39, 118.

Sharkui, naphtha beds between Ganos and, 16, 101-2.

Sheep, 16, 89, 17, 83, 18, 94, 117, 120, 125, 128, 133, 134, 152, 156.

Shipbuilding and repairing, 18, 12, 101, 140, 143, 154.

Shipka, Russians in, 16, 38.

Shipping, Albania, 17, 79; Constantinople, 16, 86-7, 88-9; Cyclades and Northern Sporades, 18, 116, 120, 122, 124, 126, 130, 132, 134, 135, 136, 141-2, 143, 152, 153, 154; Greece, 18, 87-8.

Shkreli, Albanian tribes, 17, 15.

Shumla, occupied by Russians, 1812, 16, 22.

Shuvaloff, Count, 18, 95; correspondence with Lord Derby *re* Straits, 1877, 15, 58.

Sicily, Albanian colonies, 17, 26; Albanians in, 17, 65; Greek colonisation, 6th-4th century, B.C., 18, 19; Tosks in, 1431, 17, 28.

Sikinos Island, 18, 11; population, 18, 15.

Silehdar Poda, rising, 1829, 17, 29.

Silica, 18, 129.

Silistria, land between Black Sea and, acquisition by Rumania, 1878, 15, 27, 111; occupied by Russians, 1812, 16, 22.

Silivri, 16, 8; annual fair, 16, 108; centre of cereals trade, 16, 108; population, 16, 108; road, 16, 59.

Silk, 18, 122, 149, 153; import, 17, 91, 18, 107; industry, 17, 89, 18, 101.

Silk-cocoons export, 17, 83 note.

Silks, customs duties, 18, 108.

Sillaka, 18, 124.

Silver, 17, 88, 18, 124.

Silver lead, 18, 97, 97-8, 104, 124, 128, 152.

Simeon, Bulgar Tsar (893-927), 15, 1, 6, 17, 27.

Siphos island, 18, 10; agriculture, 18, 117, 139; cables, 18, 124, 126, 132, 137, 138-9; commerce, 18, 139; communications, 18, 138; industries, 18, 139; minerals, 18, 97, 118, 139; population, 18, 15; ports, 18, 138.

Sirkidji, railway, 16, 65.

Sitia, occupation by French, 1897, 18, 51, 52.

Sivas vilayet, 16, 44.

Skanderbeg (George Castriotis or Kastriotis), 15, 14-5, 17, 26, 49, 53; career, 17, 28; defence of Albania against Turks, 17, 28.

Skhinousa Islet, 18, 11.

Skhupetars, *see* Albanians.

Skiathos island, 18, 9, 12; agriculture, 18, 153; area and height, 18, 12; communications, 18, 152; industry, 18, 12; population, 18, 15; ports, 18, 152.

Skins, import and export, 16, 124, 127, 17, 91, 18, 107, 108.

Skins and sheep guts industry, 16, 102-3.

Skipetars, *see* Albanians.

Skodra, *see* Scutari.

- Skopelos island, **18**, 9, 12, 152; agriculture, **18**, 117, 153; commerce and industry, **18**, 12, 153-4; communications, **18**, 153; population, **18**, 15; ports, **18**, 153.
- Skoplye, *see* Uskub.
- Skouloudis, E., **15**, 132.
- Skulyani, battle of, **18**, 24.
- Skumbi basin, **17**, 98.
- Skumbi river, **17**, 2, 3, 8, 19, 30, 31, 53, 70, 73.
- Skumbi valley, railway scheme, **17**, 75; road, **17**, 74; viticulture, **17**, 82.
- Skyros Island, **18**, 12-13, 19; agriculture and livestock, **18**, 117, 155; area, **18**, 12; communications, **18**, 154; marble, **18**, 100, 119, 155; population, **18**, 15; ports, **18**, 154.
- Slav language, **17**, 8.
- Slav nationalities, foundation of, **15**, 5-6.
- Slavonia, ceded by Turkey, 1699, **16**, 16.
- Slavonic, **15**, 157.
- Slavs, **18**, 21; in Greece, **18**, 6; immigrants, Greece, 8th century, **18**, 4; invasion of Balkans, 6th century, **15**, 1, 6; sovereignty over North Albania, 636-1360, **17**, 27.
- Slivnitsa, battle of, 1885, **15**, 31.
- Sobieski, Col. K. (1913), **15**, 134.
- Smoktina, saw mills, **17**, 85.
- Smolenski, Col., war with Turkey, 1897, **18**, 50.
- Smuggling, Amorgos, **18**, 120.
- Smyrna, **16**, 86; bank, **16**, 134; foreign post offices, **16**, 71; shipping service, **15**, 142.
- Soap, import and export, **17**, 91, **18**, 107.
- Soap making, **18**, 101.
- Sobieski, John, siege of Vienna raised by, 1683, **16**, 15.
- Società Anonima "Puglia," **17**, 79.
- Società Italiana di Servizi Marittimi, **16**, 83.
- Società Marittima Italiana, **16**, 83.
- Società di Navigazione Generale Italiana, **18**, 88.
- Società Nazionale di Servizi Marittimi, **16**, 87, **18**, 88.
- Société Anonyme Ottomane de Bâteaux de la Corne d'Or, **16**, 63.
- Société Anonyme Ottomane des Docks et Ateliers du Haut Bosphore, **16**, 77.
- Société Anonyme Ottomane de Fabrication de Fils et d'Etoffes en Coton et en Laine, **16**, 102.
- Société Commerciale Orientale, **16**, 134.
- Société Hellénique de Navigation à Vapeur, **18**, 143.
- Société Hellénique de Poudreries et Produits chimiques, **18**, 144.
- Société Impériale Ottomane Co-intéressée de Docks, Arsenaux et Constructions Navales, **16**, 78.
- Société du Port de Haidar Pasha, **16**, 80.
- Société des Travaux Publics Communaux, **18**, 98.
- Sofia, **18**, 66; and Macedonia, **15**, 35; Macedonian Committee, 1899, **15**, 33; Treaty of, 1912, **15**, 161.
- Soma railway, **16**, 124.
- Sorovich, railway, **18**, 85.
- Soteriades, M., **18**, 55.
- Southern Slavs, defeat by Turks, 1389, **16**, 14.
- Spalajkovitch, Dr. M. (1913), **15**, 134.
- Spanish language, **16**, 7.
- Sparta, silk spinning, **18**, 101; Tosk colony in, 1358, **17**, 28.
- Spercheios river, **18**, 28.
- Spercheus valley, Albanians in, **17**, 25.
- Spetsae Island, **18**, 23; Albanians in, **18**, 6.
- Spezzia Island, Albanians in, **17**, 25.
- Sphakia province, insurrections, **18**, 40, 41.
- Sphakianakes, Dr., Chairman of mixed commission appointed to draw up constitution for Crete, **18**, 52.
- Spices, import, **16**, 127.
- Spinalonga Islet, occupation by French, 1897-8, **18**, 51, 52.
- Spinning, **17**, 89.
- Spizza (Spica), given up by Montenegro, 1878, **15**, 28; incorporation by Austria, 1878, **17**, 60; occupied by Montenegro, **15**, 26.
- Sponge fisheries, **18**, 96, 124.
- Sponges, export, **18**, 106-7, 146.
- Sponneck, Count, **18**, 40.
- Sporades, Northern (Magnesian Islands), **18**, 9-16.
- Sporades, Southern (*see* Dodekanese).
- Spuzh town and district, Albanians in, **17**, 24.

Spyromelios, Colonel, **18**, 72.
 Stambouloff, S.N., **15**, 30-1, 32, **18**, 57; assassination, 1895, **15**, 31.
 Stambul, **15**, 44, **16**, 3, 8, 75, 76, 77, 85; bazaars, **16**, 104; bridge, **16**, 103, 134; carpet trade, **16**, 107; foreign post offices, **16**, 70, 71; Grand Bazaar, **16**, 107; road, **16**, 60; telephones, **16**, 73; trams, **16**, 103; wireless station, **16**, 73.
 Stampalia Island, Italian occupation, 1912, **18**, 69.
 Stanciof, Lt.-Col. (1913), **15**, 134.
 Stanley, **18**, 41.
 Star Line, **18**, 104.
 Stavro, *see* Apollonia.
 Stenia, port, **16**, 77-8.
 Stenokampia, **18**, 121.
 Stephen Dushan, King (1331-55), **15**, 1, 6, 47, **17**, 27, 60, 61, 70, 98.
 Stratford de Redcliffe, Lord, **15**, 19.
 Strati, *see* Aistrate.
 Straw hat industry, **18**, 101, 139.
 Streit, G., **15**, 132.
 Struga, **17**, 91, assigned to Serbia, 1912, **15**, 39; Bulgars in, **17**, 67; railway scheme, **17**, 75; roads, **17**, 73, 74.
 Struna river, **15**, 157; **18**, 83; territory east of, Bulgarian claim recognised by Serbia, 1912, **15**, 39, 118; water power, **18**, 102.
 Struma valley, drainage, **18**, 95; Turkish settlements, **15**, 159.
 Strumitsa, capture by Greeks, 1913, **18**, 70.
 Styliis, cotton mills, **18**, 102; railway, **18**, 84.
 Stylos, Cape, **18**, 69.
 Styra, marble quarries, **18**, 100.
 Suda, **18**, 60.
 Suda Bay, **18**, 47, 51; British men-of-war in, 1886, **18**, 46.
 Suez Canal, **15**, 4.
 Sugar, import, **16**, 127, **17**, 91, **18**, 136, 145, 146.
 Sugar products, import, **18**, 106.
 Suleiman, Gallipoli and Rodosto captured, 1357, **16**, 14.
 Suleiman the Magnificent, Sultan (1520-66), **16**, 15.
 Suli, capture and destruction by Ali Pasha, 1803, **17**, 29, 34.
 Sulina mouth of the Danube, **15**, 63.
 Suliote League, **17**, 34.
 Sulphur, **17**, 117, 118, 126, 127, **18**, 99.
 Sulphur oil factories, **18**, 101.
 Sultanas, cultivation, **18**, 92.

Sumac cultivation, **17**, 82; export, **17**, 91.
 Sunnite sect, **17**, 9.
 Sussulu, river, **16**, 138.
 Svensk Levant Linje, **18**, 88.
 Swansea, shipping service with, **16**, 87.
 Sweden, shipping in Greek ports, **18**, 88; war with Russia, 1710, **16**, 17.
 Sweet Waters, valley of the, **16**, 60, 101.
 Syra (Syros) Island, **16**, 86, **18**, 10, 99; agriculture, **18**, 142-3; area, **18**, 10; banks, **18**, 148; cables and wireless, **16**, 72, **18**, 120, 124, 128, 132, 142, 149; Chamber of Commerce, **18**, 103, 146; climate, **18**, 13; commerce, **18**, 145-8; communications, **18**, 115, 122, 139-42, 148; emery export, **18**, 131; industries, **18**, 101, 143-5; minerals, **18**, 118; population, **18**, 14, 15, 16; ports, **18**, 140; shipping, **18**, 141-2, 151; vegetables, **18**, 117.
 Syra (Hermoupolis), **18**, 139, 140, 141; industries, **18**, 144; port, **18**, 86, 87, 116, 140, 141-2.
 Syra town, **18**, 139, 140.
 Syria, **16**, 11; conquered by Sultan Selim, 1517, **16**, 15; holy places, French claims to custody and dispute *re*, **15**, 19; invasion by Mehemet Ali Pasha, **16**, 29, ceded to Mehemet Ali Pasha, **16**, 29; recovery from Mehemet Ali Pasha, **15**, 19, **16**, 30; risings in, **16**, 30.

T.

Tabriz, occupied by Sultan Murad III, 1586, **16**, 15.
 Taganrog, **16**, 18.
 Talaat Bey, 1913, **15**, 138.
 Talaat Pasha, **16**, 55.
 Tamerlane, **16**, 14, 58.
 Tanneries, **17**, 89, **18**, 101.
 Tartar, export, **18**, 136.
 Tartar colonies, Balkan peninsula, **15**, 160.
 Tartar irruption, 1402, **16**, 14.
 Taurus, crossed by Mehemet Ali Pasha, **16**, 29.
 Tea, import, **16**, 127.
 Tefkur Dagh, **16**, 1, 2; forests, **16**, 92.
 Telegraphs and telephones, *see* Posts, &c.

- Temesvar, banat of, ceded by Turkey, 1718, **16**, 16.
 Tempe, vale of, **18**, 45; marble quarries between Larissa and, **18**, 100.
 Tenedos island, **18**, 3, 9, 71; telegraph and wireless, **16**, 72, **18**, 142.
 Tenos island, **18**, 10; agriculture, **18**, 117, 149; area and height, **18**, 10; cable, **18**, 142; communications, **18**, 122, 128, 148-9; marble, **18**, 100, 118, 149; population, **18**, 15, 16; ports, **18**, 148-9.
 Tenos (St. Nicolas) port, **18**, 148; annual festival and fair, **18**, 149.
 Tepelen, **17**, 19, 28, 33, 34.
 Tepelen, captured by Greek bands, July, 1914, **17**, 51.
 Tepelen district, tobacco cultivation, **17**, 81.
 Tetcvo, *see* Kalkandelen.
 Textiles, imports, **16**, 127, **18**, 105, 106, 108, 145, 146; industries, **18**, 101.
 Thasos, island, **18**, 3, 9; cession to Mehemet Ali Pasha, **16**, 30.
 Theamis river, waterfall, **18**, 102.
 Thebes, **18**, 27; magnesite mines, **18**, 98.
 Theotokes, M., **18**, 66; Cretan Prime Minister, 1899, **18**, 54, 55; and Cretan question, **18**, 58, 59.
 Thera Island, *see* Santorin.
 Therasia Island, **18**, 135; population, **18**, 15.
 Therisso, Provisional National Assembly, 1905, **18**, 53.
 Thermopylae, mineral baths, **18**, 100.
 Thermania Island, *see* Kythnos.
 Thessalian railway, **18**, 85, 86.
 Thessaly, **15**, 21, 33, **16**, 39, **17**, 34, **18**, 31; agriculture, **18**, 89, 90, 95; cattle raising, **18**, 94; cession of part, to Greece, 1881, 1897, **15**, 29, **16**, 41, **18**, 2, 43, 44, 45, 50; creation of peasant proprietary, 1911, **18**, 65; delegates sent to National Assembly of 1843, **18**, 33; frontier modifications in, **18**, 2; Greco-Turkish War, 1897, **18**, 50; insurrection, **18**, 35, 42-3; labour, **18**, 89; minerals, **18**, 98, 99; population, **15**, 159; races in, **18**, 3; Turkish evacuation, 1898, **18**, 51; Vlachs in, **15**, 13; water-power, **18**, 102.
 Thiersch, Professor, **18**, 30.
 Thopia family, **17**, 28.
 Thrace, **17**, 37; agriculture, **16**, 89-90; attempted annexation by Persians, **15**, 4; fields of investment, **16**, 138; forests, **16**, 92; Greeks, deportations, 1914, **16**, 108; land tenure, **16**, 95; roads, **16**, 59-60; trade with, **16**, 104; Turkish manœuvres, **16**, 52; Turkish population, **15**, 160; West, Young Turks in, **16**, 55, restoration to Bulgaria, 1913, **16**, 55.
 Thracians, **17**, 7.
 Tilsit, Treaty, 1807, **15**, 11, **16**, 21.
 Timber, import, **18**, 146; industry, **17**, 85.
 Timok, the, population between the Isker and, **15**, 158.
 Tirana, **17**, 48, 59; brick kiln, **17**, 89; population, **17**, 22; viticulture, **17**, 82.
 Tirana district, agriculture, **17**, 80.
 Tirmovojik, road, **16**, 59.
 Tissues, import and export, **18**, 145, 146, 147.
 To Steno, Strait, **18**, 10.
 Tobacco cultivation and industry, **16**, 101, 106-7, **17**, 81-2, **18**, 90, 93-4, 101, 116-7, 117, 120, 144, 149, 154; export, **16**, 123-4, **18**, 87, 107, 145, 146.
 Tocheff, M. (1913), **15**, 138.
 Tomatoes and tomato paste, **18**, 135, 136.
 Tomor, viticulture, **17**, 82.
 Tomor, Mount, Vlach shepherds on, **17**, 22, 24.
 Tonchef, D. (1913), **15**, 134.
 Tools and machinery, imports, **18**, 105.
 Tophane, **16**, 75; Convention of, 1885, **15**, 31.
 Toplana, the, bairak of, **17**, 15.
 Toplana district, tribal feuds, **17**, 14.
 Toplitsa valley, Albanians in, **17**, 24.
 Torgut Shevket Pasha, attempt to suppress revolt in Albania, 1911, **17**, 44.
 Torlou Bay, anchorage, **18**, 128.
 Toskeria, **17**, 31.
 Tosks, religion, social conditions, &c., **17**, 17-21.
 Touzi, Caimacan de, **17**, 95.
 Trajan, conquest of Dacia, 106, **15**, 1, 5.

- Transylvania, ceded by Turkey, 1699, **16**; population, **15**, 160; problem, **15**, 50; Rumanians in, **15**, 158; Rumanians, national sentiment, **15**, 48.
- Trebizon, **16**, 87.
- Trebizond district, exports and imports, **16**, 122, 123, 124, 127.
- Trebuki port (Tristomon), **18**, 1, 54.
- Tribal organisation, among Albanian Malsors (mountaineers), **17**, 10-6; Ghegs, **17**, 54.
- Triepshi tribe, **17**, 24; annexation by Montenegro, 1880, **17**, 59, 68, 69.
- Trieste, shipping service with, **16**, 86, **17**, 79.
- Trikkala, cotton mills, **18**, 102; lignite near, **18**, 99; training schools at, **18**, 79, 80.
- Trikoupes, Greek Minister, **18**, 42, 45, 46, 48, 57, 64.
- Triple Alliance, **16**, 19.
- Tripodes, **18**, 129.
- Tripoli, banks, **16**, 133; seizure by Italy, 1911, **16**, 52.
- Tripolitza, bank, **18**, 113; industries, **18**, 101; lignite, **18**, 99.
- Tristomon, *see* Trebuki.
- Trnovo, Bulgarian patriarchate, abolition, 1393, **15**, 24; capital of Bulgarian Empire, **15**, 6; captured by Turks, 1393, **15**, 7.
- Troizen, *see* Damala.
- Tsarskoé Sélo, Russian Note of, 1870, **15**, 78-81.
- Tsheper, patriarchal system, **17**, 21.
- Tsintsari, *see* Vlachs.
- Tunis, French occupation, 1881, **16**, 42; trade with, **18**, 131.
- Tunja river, **16**, 4.
- Turkey, *see also* Contents; Albanian relations with, **16**, 57-8; Albanians in, **17**, 26; and Austrian annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, **15**, 37; and Balkan War, **15**, 10-1, **17**, 49, **18**, 67-71; capitulations, **15**, 8, 10; cessions to Greece, **18**, 43, 44-5; Christians in, protection of, **15**, 8, 9, 10; co-operation with other Powers for security of the Straits, 1840, **15**, 55-6; Cretan question, **18**, 40-1, 47, 59-61; Crimean war, **15**, 19-21; and the Danube question, **15**, 62, 64; Fleet, defeat in Bay of Navarino, 1827, **18**, 26-7; French alliance with, 1535, **15**, 8; frontiers with Greece, **18**, 1-2; Greeks in, **18**, 8; loss of territory, **17**, 40; revolution, 1908, **18**, 57; rule, in Albania, **17**, 28-30, over Greece, **18**, 22; Russo-French scheme for partition of, 1808, **15**, 11-2; "Straits Convention," 1841, **15**, 56; Sultan's bodyguard, Albanians as, **15**, 11, **17**, 33, 57; suzerainty over Albania, **17**, 31-7; table of treaties affecting boundaries, **15**, 161; territorial result of Balkan wars, **15**, 42-3; trade with **17**, 91; **18**, 93, 106, 123, 127, 136, 147, 148; Treaty with Bulgaria, 1913, **15**, 42, 138-54; Treaty with Great Britain, 1809, **15**, 54; Treaty of Paris, **15**, 21-3, 75-8; wars with Greece, **15**, 33, **17**, 40, **18**, 2, 47-51; war with Italy, **15**, 39-40, **17**, 46; war with Montenegro, 1876, **17**, 29, 38; war with Russia, 1877-8, **17**, 38-9; war with Serbia and Montenegro, **15**, 25.
- Turkey in Asia, Greeks in, **18**, 8.
- Turkish Banque Agricole, **17**, 92.
- Turkish currency, in Albania, **17**, 92.
- Turkish delight (loukoumi), **18**, 101, 144, 145, 147.
- Turkish influence, Cyclades, **18**, 15.
- Turkish language, **16**, 6, 13, **17**, 8.
- Turks, Aegean Islands, **15**, 159; Albania, **17**, 24; Balkan peninsula, **15**, 159-60; entry into Europe, **15**, 7; Greece, **18**, 3, 6; invasion of Albania, **17**, 31; Macedonia, **15**, 32, 47; national sentiment, **15**, 49; Thessaly, **15**, 159; Turkey, **16**, 6, 9, 10.
- Turnovo, railway project, **18**, 86.
- Turpentine, oil of, **18**, 94.
- Typaldos, Commander, Naval demands under, 1909, **18**, 62.
- Typhoid, **16**, 5-6.

Ulm, battle of, **16**, 21.

Umbrella-making, **18**, 101.

Ungarische Kreditbank, **16**, 135.

Union Ottomane, Société pour
Entreprises Electriques en Orient,
16, 103.

United Kingdom, *see* Great Britain.
U.S.A., Albanians in, **17**, 26; emigration to, **16**, 10, **17**, 22-3, **18**, 89, 55; Government, school at

U.S.A.—*cont.*

- Koritsa under protection of, **17**, 54; and Greece, **18**, 111; Greeks in, **18**, 7, 8; interests in Turkey, **16**, 102-3; mail service with, **16**, 71; rights to merchant ships in Dardanelles and Black Sea, 1830, **16**, 24; shipping service from Greece, **18**, 122-3; shipping in Greek ports, **18**, 88; trade with, **16**, 119, 121-6, **18**, 93, 98, 105, 106, 107, 108, 131, 114, 146, 147, 148.
- Unkiar Skelessi, Treaty of, 1833, **15**, 18-9, 55, 71-3, **16**, 29.
- Ural-Altai group of languages, **16**, 6.
- Usküb (Skoplye), **15**, 6, 26, 47, **17**, 42, 97; Albanians round, **17**, 25; assigned to Serbia, 1912, **15**, 39; Bulgarian bishops, **15**, 32; captured by Serbians, 1912, **15**, 40; occupation by Albanians, 1912, **17**, 30, 47; railway, **17**, 76.
- Uzun Köprü, **16**, 4, 107; population, **16**, 108; road, **16**, 59.

V.

- Valaoritis, M., Governor of the National Bank, Greece, **18**, 111.
- Valaxa Island, **18**, 154.
- Valona, **15**, 42, **17**, 2, 3, 59, 68, 70, 98, 99, **18**, 69; anchorage, **17**, 78; banks, **17**, 92; bombarded by Greek Fleet, 1912, **17**, 48, 97; climate, **17**, 5, 6; Congress of Albanian notables, Nov. 1912, **17**, 49; harbour, **17**, 4; international commission of control at, 1913, **17**, 50, 72; Italian occupation, **15**, 50, **17**, 66; population, **17**, 22; provisional government, **17**, 58; railway schemes, **17**, 75; road, **17**, 4, 73, 74; seized by insurgents, August 1914, **17**, 52.
- Valona, Bay of, **17**, 98.
- Valona district, agriculture and olive culture, **17**, 81; Italian paper money, **17**, 91.
- Valona, lagoon zone of, sanitary conditions, **17**, 6.
- Valonea, **18**, 93, 117, 151; exports, **16**, 122, **17**, 91, **18**, 106, 108.
- Van, Armenian massacres, **18**, 47.
- Van vilayet, **16**, 44.
- Vardar river, **18**, 83; Upper, Albanians on, **17**, 25.
- Vardar valley, **16**, 54; drainage, **18**, 95; provisions of Treaty of Bucarest, 1913, **15**, 41, 135; Turkish settlements, **15**, 159.
- Varna, **15**, 159, 160.
- Vassos, Colonel, **18**, 59; expedition to Crete, 1897, **16**, 45, **18**, 48.
- Vathy, Port, roads, **18**, 119, 120.
- Vegetable dyes and tanning materials, **18**, 146.
- Vegetable oil, export, **18**, 146; factory, **18**, 144.
- Vegetables, **18**, 116, 122, 128, 130, 134, 142-3, 149; export, **18**, 123, 145.
- Veles, *see* Koprülü.
- Velestino, railway, **18**, 85.
- Veli Bey of Yanina, rising, 1829, **17**, 29.
- Veli, Pasha of the Greek Peloponnesus, **17**, 34.
- Vellay, M., **17**, 23.
- Velvets, import, **17**, 91.
- Velya, Albanian clan, **17**, 15.
- Venetian Colony, Turkey, **16**, 14.
- Venice, **15**, 9; loss of possessions on Dalmatian coast, 1797, **15**, 11; relations with Byzantine Empire, **15**, 7; rule, Tenos Island, **18**, 14; Scutari sold to, 1394, **17**, 69; seizure of towns from, by Ali Pasha, **17**, 29, 34; shipping service with, **16**, 87; steamship service with, **17**, 79.
- Venizelos, E., **15**, 46, 134, **16**, 53, **18**, 57, 69; appointment as Prime Minister, 1910, **18**, 64, resignation, appeal to country, and return, **18**, 64-5; at Athens, 1909, **18**, 63; attitude of Greek Synods towards, **18**, 76; and Cretan question, **18**, 47, 57, 59, 67; dismissed by Prince George (Cretan High Commissioner), **18**, 53; and education, **18**, 81-2; election, 1912, **18**, 66; memorial to London Conference, **18**, 69; Member of National Assembly, 1910, **18**, 64; summoned to Greece, **15**, 38.
- Venizelos, John (1815), **18**, 23.
- Verde Antico Marble Company of London, **18**, 100.
- Verde Antico, quarries, **18**, 100.
- Vergennes, French ambassador at Constantinople., **16**, 18.
- Verria, railway project, **18**, 86.
- Vesniteh, Milenko, **15**, 132.
- Vessels, imports, **16**, 127.
- Via Egnatia, **17**, 3, 74.

Vickers, agreement with Turkish Government, 1913, **16**, 78.
 Victoria, Queen, **18**, 36.
 Vienna, **15**, 8, **16**, 71; Albanians in, **17**, 26; besieged by Suleiman the Magnificent, 1529, **16**, 15; Conference, 1755, **15**, 56; Congress of, **15**, 12, 63, **16**, 22, 23; Ottoman Embassy established by Selim III, **16**, 27; Treaty of, 1735, **16**, 17; Turkish siege of, 1683, **16**, 15.
 Villa-Marina, Marquis de (1856), **15**, 74.
 Villeneuve, Marquis de, French ambassador at Constantinople, **16**, 17.
 Viticulture and wine industry, **16**, 89-90, 90-1, 91, **17**, 82, **18**, 90, 91, 101, 120, 124, 125, 126, 133, 135, 136, 137, 149, 151, 153-4, 155.
 Vize, agriculture round, **16**, 89-90; Moslem settlement east of, **16**, 9; road, **16**, 60.
 Vize, Kaza of, population, **16**, 9.
 Vlachs, *see also* Koutso Vlachs; Albania, **17**, 23-4, 24; educational and religious freedom, **17**, 65; social conditions, &c., **17**, 21-2; Thessaly, **15**, 159.
 Voïnovitch, Comte L. de, **15**, 132.
 Vodana, textile industry, **18**, 101.
 Volcanic cement, **17**, 118, **18**, 135-6.
 Volcanoes, **18**, 135.
 Volo, **18**, 94, 95, 152, 153, 154; Chamber of Commerce, **18**, 103; customs duties, **18**, 110; development since union with Greece, **18**, 55; hamlets of, **18**, 23; industries, **18**, 101; port, **18**, 87; railway, **18**, 85; salt deposits, **18**, 99.
 Volo, gulf of, **15**, 17, **18**, 1, 27, 30.
 Vonitsa, seizure from Venice by Ali Pasha, 1797, **17**, 29, 31.
 Vothri, **18**, 129.
 Voukotch, Gen. Janko (1913), **15**, 134.
 Voulgaria, **18**, 150.
 Voyusa river, **17**, 2, 19, 20, 74, 98; light railway from Scutari, **17**, 75.
 Voyusa valley, **17**, 1; oil and natural gas, **17**, 88; road, **17**, 4, 74.
 Vranja, **15**, 26; capture by Serbia, **15**, 26.
 Vranja district, assigned to Serbia, 1878, **15**, 28; cession to Serbia, 1878, **16**, 40, **17**, 38; population, **15**, 158.
 Vythine, school of forestry, **18**, 95.

W.

Waddington, M. W. H. (1878), **15**, 95.
 Wages, mining, **18**, 119.
 Walewski, Count Colonna (1856), **15**, 74, 78.
 Wallachia, **18**, 23; and Crimean War, **15**, 24; occupied by Russians, **16**, 18; provisions of Treaty of Adrianople, 1829, **15**, 68-9; provisions of Treaty of Paris, 1856, **15**, 22-3, 76; Russian invasion, 1809, **16**, 22, restored to Turkey, 1812, **16**, 22; Russian Note, 1870, **15**, 79; Russian protectorate, **15**, 17-8; state of, at beginning of 19th century, **15**, 12-3; status in Treaty of Paris, 1856, **16**, 32-3; tribute exacted from, by Mohammed II, 1456, **16**, 15; union with Moldavia under Alexander I, 1859, **15**, 24.
 Wallachians, colony in Constantinople, **16**, 7.
 Water power, Turkey, **16**, 104.
 Water supply, scarcity, Cyclades, **18**, 143.
 Wax, **18**, 125.
 Weaving, **17**, 89, **18**, 102.
 Wellington, Duke of, Greek policy, **18**, 26, 28.
 Westcott and Laurance, **16**, 86, **18**, 87.
 Wheat, cultivation, **16**, 90, **17**, 80-1, **18**, 90, 124, 133, 134, 155; imports, **18**, 108, 120.
 White, Sir William, British ambassador at Constantinople, **15**, 39, **18**, 20.
 White Drin river, **17**, 3.
 Whittall, J. W., and Co., **16**, 110.
 Wiener Bankverein, **16**, 65, 134, 135, 137.
 William, Prince, of Wied, Mpret of Albania, 1914, **17**, 30, 42, 51-2, 59, 71, **18**, 32, 72.
 Wilson Line, **16**, 86.
 Wine industry, *see* Viticulture.
 Wines, export and import, **17**, 91, **18**, 107, 108, 146, 147.
 Wines, spirits, &c., import and export, **18**, 146.
 Wireless, **18**, 142.
 Women, position of, among Ghegs, **17**, 16.
 Wood, export and import, **17**, 91, **18**, 136.
 Wool, exports, **16**, 122, 124, **17**, 83 note, 91.

Woolen industry, **17**, 89, **18**, 101.
 Woolen stuffs and cloths, import, **18**, 108.
 Woollen and worsted tissues, import, **16**, 127.
 Württemberg, and the Danube question, **15**, 64.

X.

Xanthi, **18**, 71.
 Xero (Xeronesi) Island, **18**, 12.

Y.

Yaila range, **16**, 1.
 Yanina, **15**, 15, 18, **17**, 18, 34, 39, 40, 98, 99, **18**, 5, 23, 44; capture by Greeks, 1913, **15**, 40, **16**, 54, **17**, 30, 40, 49, **18**, 68; district, assigned to Greece, 1913, **17**, 69-70; as centre of Greek educational and literary activity, **15**, 14, **17**, 55; history, **17**, 28, 29; industries, **18**, 101; railway, **17**, 75, **18**, 85; road, **17**, 4; siege of, 1821-2, **17**, 35.
 Yanina lake, fish, **18**, 96.
 Yanina vilayet, **17**, 1; formed, 1865, **17**, 29, 36.
 Yedi Kule, *see* Seven Towers.
 Yenishehr, capital of the Ottoman Turks, 13th century, **16**, 14.
 Yenitsa, **15**, 26; battle, 1912, **18**, 68.
 Young Turk movement, **15**, 35-6, 45, 49, **16**, 46-50, **17**, 30, 41-3.
 Young Turks, Albanian revolt against, and concessions obtained, **17**, 30, 43-6, 58, 93-5, 95-6; war aims, **16**, 57-8.
 Ypselantes, Prince Alexander, Greek rising under, 1821, **18**, 23; invasion of the Danubian provinces, 1821, **15**, 16.

Z.

Zabache, Sea of, *see* Azov.
 Zabalkansky, Diebitch, Count (1829), **15**, 68.
 Zadrina, the, seoduno cultivation, **17**, 83.
 Zaimes, Alexander, High Commissioner in Crete, 1906, **16**, 46, **18**, 53-4, 54; Cretan Prime Minister, **18**, 57; ministry, **18**, 97; on M. Venizelos, **18**, 63.
 Zander, Dr. K., director of the Société du Port de Haidar Pasha, **16**, 80.
 Zante Island, cession to Greece by England, **18**, 1, 157-9; currant cultivation, **18**, 38; wine industry, **18**, 91; woollen industry, **18**, 101.
 Zappa Brothers, founders of the Zappeion at Athens, **18**, 57.
 Zara, Albanians near, **17**, 26.
 Zea (Keos) Island, agriculture, **18**, 117, 151; area, **18**, 10; cable, **18**, 125; commerce, **18**, 152; communications, **18**, 150-1; live-stock, **18**, 117, 152; minerals, **18**, 152; population, **18**, 15; ports, **18**, 150-1.
 Zeaport, **18**, 116.
 Zeta valley, Albanians in, **17**, 24.
 Zhablyak town and district, Albanians in, **17**, 24.
 Zine, **18**, 97, 98, 117, 124, 133.
 Zingari, *see* Vlachs.
 Zographos, M., President of Northern Epeiros, 1914, **18**, 72.
 Zorbas, General, **18**, 65; and Greek "Military League," **18**, 61, 62; General, Greek Minister of War, 1910, **18**, 64.
 Zounguldak, **16**, 118.
 Zürich, **16**, 65, 103, 137.



3 1158 00491 5798

D
6
G79p
v.3

UC SOUTHERN REGIONAL LIBRARY FACILITY



AA 000 871 758 9

