HANDBOOKS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE HISTORICAL SECTION OF THE FOREIGN OFFICE.—No. 18

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GREECE

WITH THE

CYCLADES & NORTHERN SPORADES

LONDON:
PUBLISHED BY H. M. STATIONERY OFFICE.

1920

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2d ed

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EDITORIAL NOTE

In the spring of 1917 the Foreign Office, in connexion 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 inquiries 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.

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I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

GREECE

(1) Frontiers

The successive historical frontiers[1] 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 Acheloos (Aspropotamo), thus assigning parts of Aetolia and Akarnania to Turkey.

[3] See Appendix III, Treaty of London, Art. II, 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-Vlachs[1] 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:

	Greeks.	*Albanians.*	*Slavs.*	*Turks.*	*Vlachs.*	*Jews.*	*Various.*	*Total.*
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
		3,420,000

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: Gyaros (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 2½ 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

Island.	*1907.*	*1896.*	*Increase or Decrease.*
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

Island.	*1907.*	*1896.*	*Increase or Decrease.*
Halonesos	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 Piraeus.
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 Epeirote 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 mediaeval 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 mediaeval 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

races 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 Epidavros 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 Kolokotrones, 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 Kolettes; 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. Kolettes, 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 16*s.* 8*d.* 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 Piraeus; 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 Rouphos, 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 Peneios 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 'Pact 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 *vâli*. 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 'klephtic 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 Piraeus 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 Sphakiote 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 *gendarmerie* 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 carabineers in the command of the *gendarmerie* 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 Premierships, 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 Piraeus, 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 Boeotia (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 Chatalja 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 (*Διπλωματικὰ Ἔγγραφα*, 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 Castellorrizon, and those still occupied by the Italians) contingent upon the evacuation of the south

[1] *Διπλωματικὰ Ἔγγραφα*, 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 Epeirot), 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 Epeirote 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 countersignature. 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 co-operation 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 Stylis (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 (213¾ miles) with branches to Kyllene and Loutra (10 miles), an important branch from Corinth to Nauplia (40½ 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, 14½ miles), Argos–Kalamata (118 miles), and Pyrgos–Meligala (87½ 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 (37½ 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 (8½ miles) mainly used by the currant trade.

In Macedonia are three important lines that start from Salonika: (1) to Florina (118 miles) and Monastir (138½ miles), almost entirely within Greece; (2) to Nish (283 miles) and Central Europe, running within Greece as far as Ghevgeli (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:

	Passengers.	*Tons.*
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 counterbalance 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:

	Acres.
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 okes [1] being produced from the cultivated variety.

Live-stock.—The animal wealth of Old Greece is estimated at:

	Head.
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:

	Tons.	£
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 Locris, 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 Piraeus, 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 Piraeus 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 Stylis.

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:

	Average 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:

	1911.	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	50,523
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:

	Average 1908–12.	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	54,466,655

	£
Ordinary receipts	9,588,218
Extraordinary receipts	2,431,560
Loans from France, United Kingdom, and U.S.A.	30,000,000
Internal Loan	4,000,000
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 7½ per cent., in 1912 3½ 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.

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	19,484,000

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 transshipped to larger vessels either at Syra or the Piraeus.

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 Piraeus, 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:

Amorgos . .	Tobacco, cattle, olive oil, cheese, figs.
Andros . . .	Citrons, oranges, olives, onions.
Mykonos and Delos.	Barley, sheep.
Naxos . . .	Citrons, cattle, potatoes, onions.
Paros . . .	Sheep and cattle.
Pholegandros . .	Cattle.
Santorin . .	Wine and spirits, tomatoes, beans.
Siphnos . .	Olive oil, oranges and citrons.
Syra . . .	Vegetables, especially tomatoes.
Tenos . . .	Grapes, figs, melons, vegetables.
Zea . . .	Barley, valonea, wine, sheep and goats.
Skopelos . .	Wine, timber, olives, oil.
Skyros . . .	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:

Horses.	*Mules.*	*Donkeys.*	*Cattle.*	*Sheep.*
220	3,563	9,207	13,665	63,118
Goats.	*Pigs.*	*Fowls.*	*Geese, &c.*	*Beehives.*
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:

	Annual Output. Tons.
Iron—	
At *Seriphos*	168,000[1]
At *Siphnos*	30,000
At *Syra*	2,500
Emery—	
At *Naxos*	24,000
Manganese—	
At *Melos*	4,500
Sulphur—	
At *Melos*	1,000
Marble—	
At *Skyros*	3,000
At *Tenos*	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 okes[1] 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, Gavrion, Korthion, Batzi, and Stenokampia, and telephonic communication between Andros and Gavrion.

(*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.

Gavrion, 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 Gavrion.

(*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:

	Okes.
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 car 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:

	Tons.	£
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	6,877	29,288

(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:

	1911.	1912.	1913.	1914.
Exports.	£	£	£	£
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
Imports.				
Chiefly flour, rice, coffee, sugar, wood, and fish	12,808	11,547	6,831	18,710
Ships entered and cleared.				
	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 1½ 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:

Destination.	1910. *tons.*	1911. *tons.*	1912. *tons.*	1913. *tons.*
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 (3½ 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 5½ 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 Turkish [1] sailing vessels.

	1912.		1913.		1914.	
Nationality.	*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 (Hermoupolis) 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 (3cables), 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):

Imports.	*Drachmae.*
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

Exports.	*Drachmae.*
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 EXPORTS[1] FROM SYRA, 1911–14, DISTINGUISHING PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES

Country of Destination.	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 IMPORTS[1] TO SYRA, 1911–14, DISTINGUISHING PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES

Country of Origin.	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 . .	374,507	306,690	283,942	305,535

(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:

	Stock.	*Annual Production.*
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 Piraeus, Volo, and other ports.

Cables.—The island is connected by cables with Euboea 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 Piraeus, 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 1½ 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 abovementioned 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 Démogérondia.

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.

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[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° 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.

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