

HANDBOOKS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE  
HISTORICAL SECTION OF THE FOREIGN OFFICE.—No. 16

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# TURKEY IN EUROPE

LONDON :

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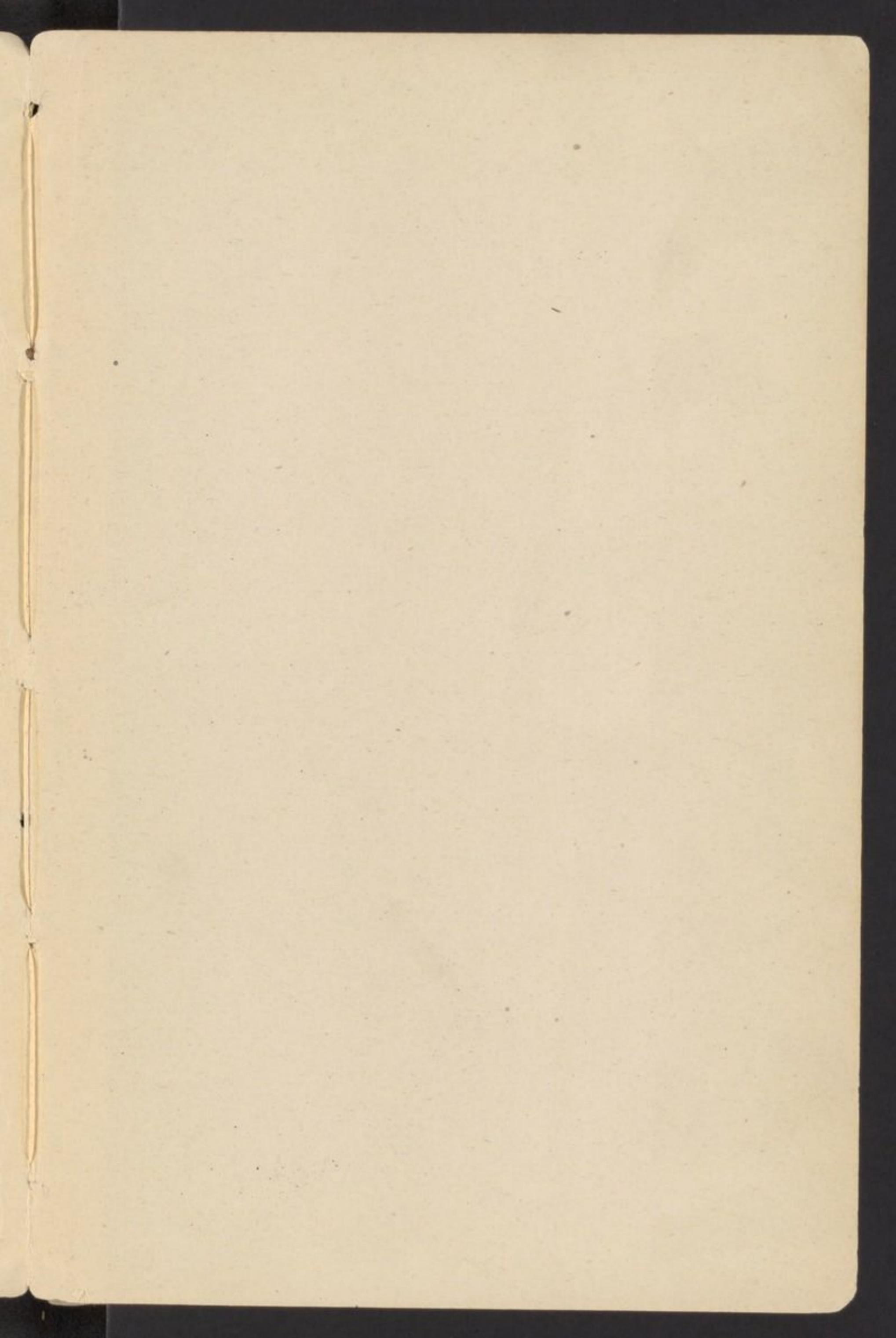


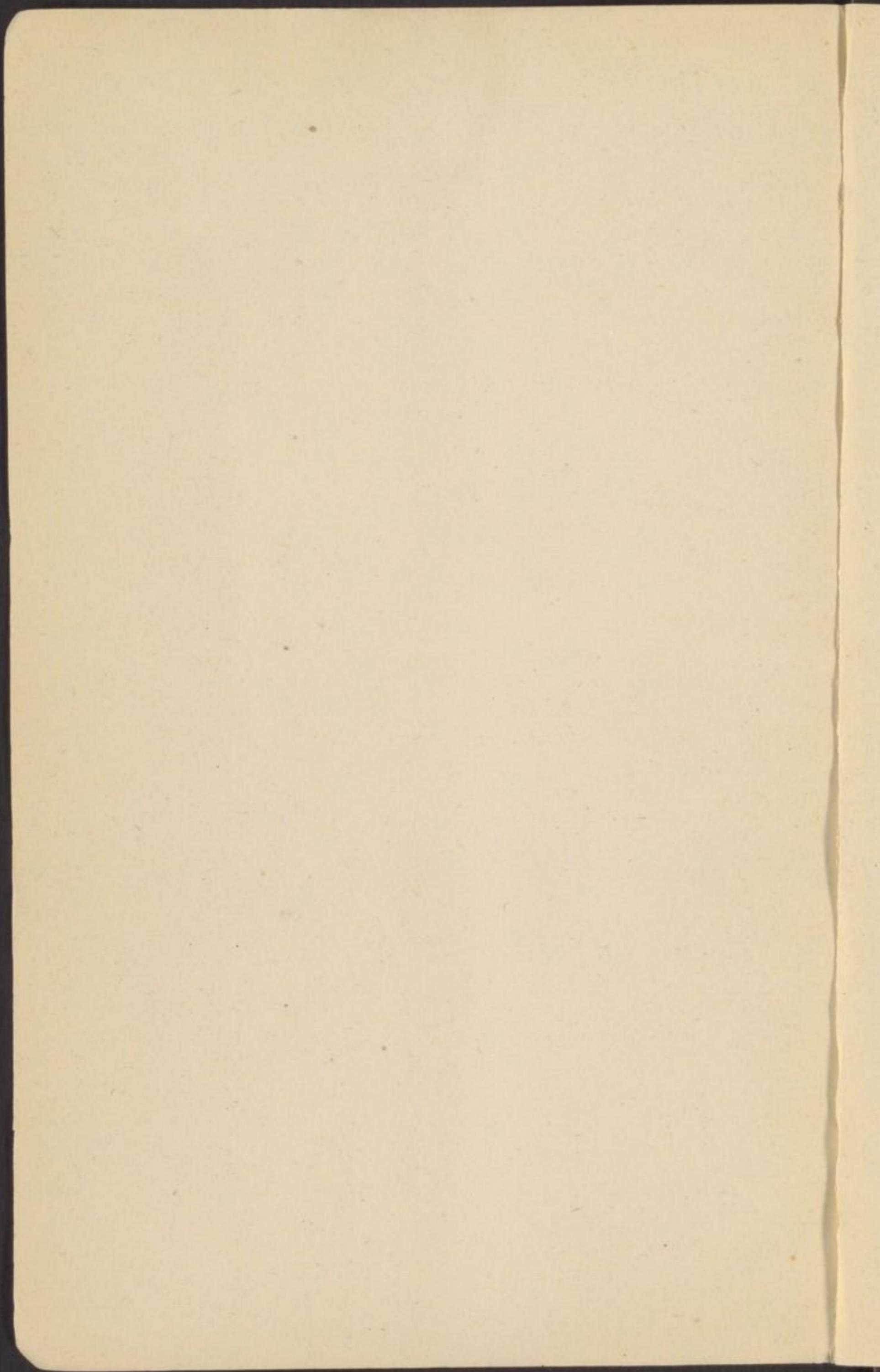
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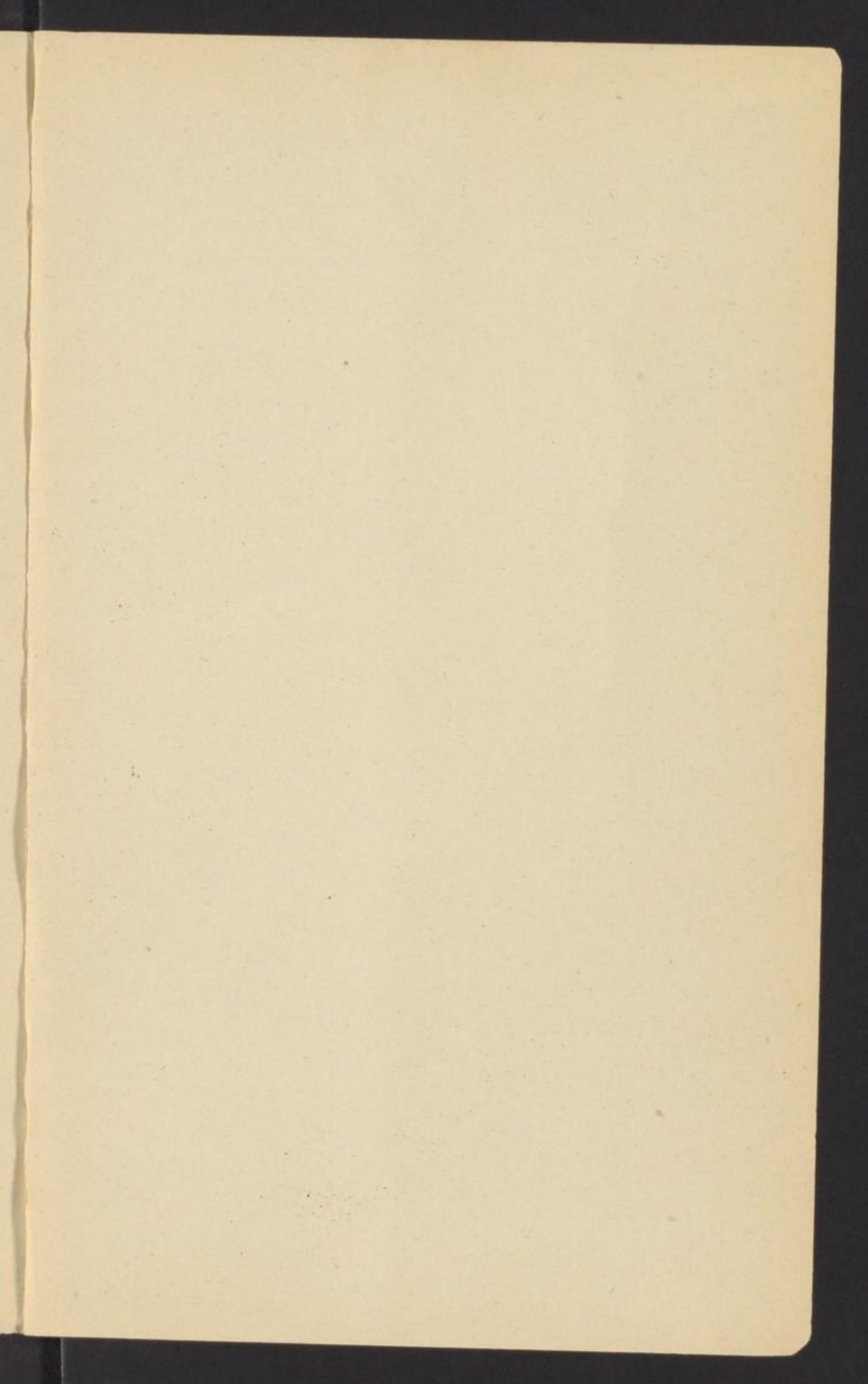


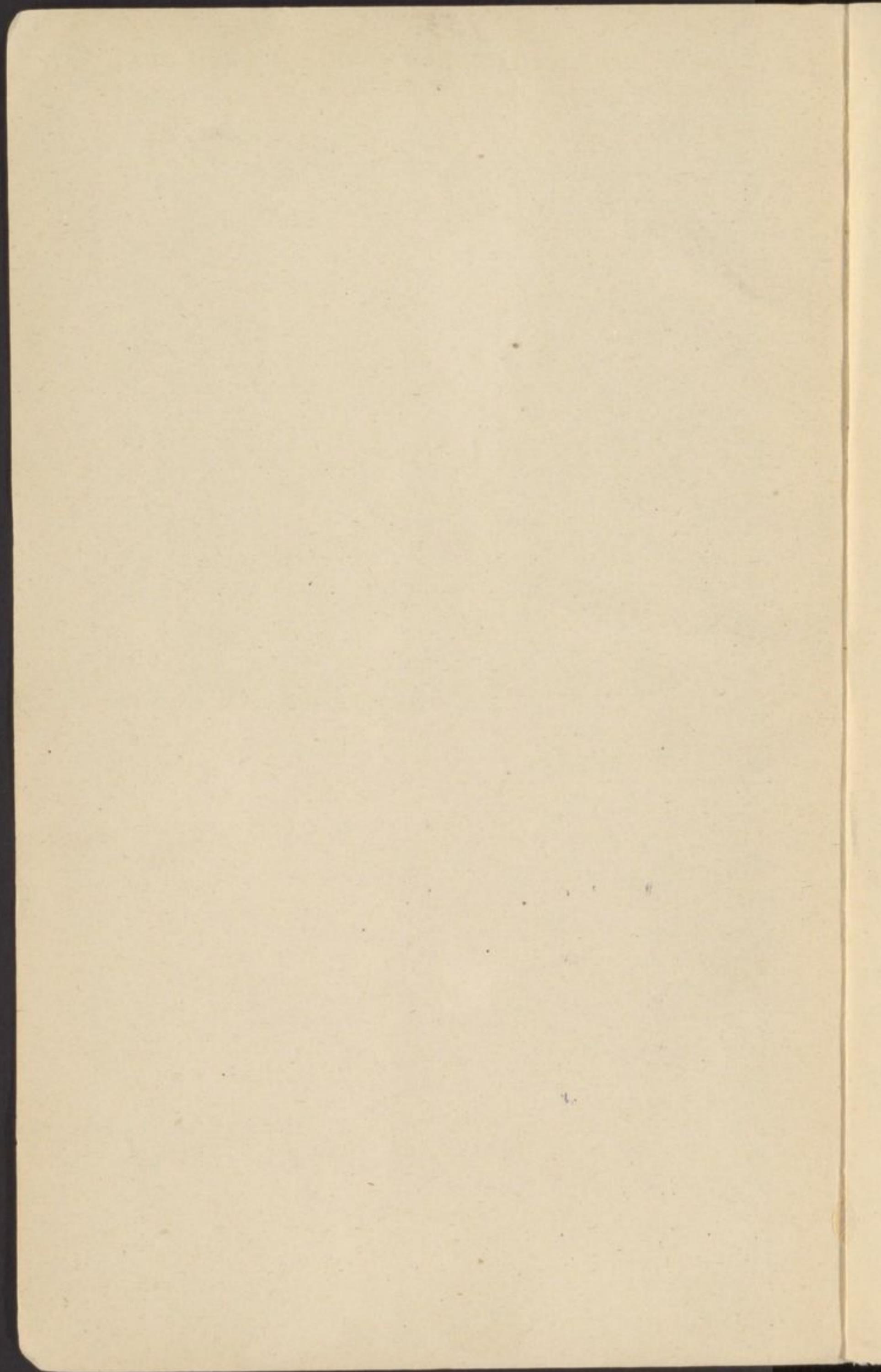
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HANDBOOKS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE  
HISTORICAL SECTION OF THE <sup>Gr. Brit.</sup> FOREIGN OFFICE.—No. 16

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# TURKEY IN EUROPE

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LONDON:  
PUBLISHED BY H. M. STATIONERY OFFICE.

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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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<sup>1</sup> For an account of the Ottoman Public Debt, the Turkish war budgets, and general taxation, see *Anatolia*, No. 59 of this series.

## I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

### (1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

TURKEY in Europe,<sup>1</sup> with an area of some 11,000 square miles, lies between 40° and 42° 10' north latitude and 26° and 29° 10' east longitude. The land boundary between Turkey and Bulgaria was determined by the Treaty of Constantinople in 1913. It was, however, subsequently modified by an agreement of 1915, and it is understood that yet later negotiations took place. Elsewhere the sea is the boundary.

### (2) SURFACE, COASTS, AND RIVER SYSTEM

#### *Surface*

The region falls into three natural divisions: in the north-east the backbone of the Istranja Dagħ runs down into the Chatalja peninsula; in the south-west is the hilly country comprising the Yaila, Kuru, and Tekfur Dagħ ranges, with its extension in the peninsula of Gallipoli; while between the two lie the central plateau and the valley of the Ergene Su. The whole is bounded on the west by the marshy line of

<sup>1</sup> Turkey in Europe comprises the vilayets of Adrianople and Chatalja, together with about one-third of that of Constantinople, the remainder being on the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus. The following geographical description deals with the European territory alone. Economically, however, the Constantinople vilayet has to be considered as a whole, and the Asiatic portion is therefore included in section III, Economic Conditions. It extends some 40 miles east of Scutari, but offers no remarkable geographical features.

the Maritsa, on the north for the most part by a not very noticeable line of hills and the lower course of the Rezvaya Chai.

The Istranja Dagh consists of a long range of wooded hills, whose highest summits rise to somewhat over 3,000 ft. The valleys are deep and well watered, but sparsely inhabited, and roads and tracks are few. The hills sink almost to sea-level in the neighbourhood of Chatalja between the Lake of Derkos near the Black Sea coast and the Buyuk Chekmeje lagoon on the Sea of Marmora. Eastwards the ground rises again to heights of 400 to 700 ft., which carry the forts of the famous Chatalja lines. The surface of the peninsula is open and undulating in the south, while the northern side is higher and wooded. There is some cultivation in the valleys. The city of Constantinople stands at the extreme south-eastern point, eight or ten miles beyond the forest area and protected by a line of low hills.

The central plateau, bounded on the south by the Ergene, is bare and treeless, and furrowed by a regular succession of streams flowing from the north and east. Oxen and sheep find grazing here, and vines and cereals grow round the villages. On the northern edge of this district lies Kirk Kilisse, at its western extremity Adrianople.

The south-western hills do not rise much over 2,000 ft. It is the Tekfur range that is continued in the Gallipoli Peninsula. This from Kavak in the north-east to Sedd el-Bahr at the south-western extremity is 53 miles long. At its narrowest part, south-west of Bulair, it is 3 miles broad; its greatest breadth is 11 to 12 miles. The peninsula is divided from Asia Minor by the Straits of the Dardanelles, which are about 35 miles long, and have an average breadth of 2 miles. At their broadest, just within the entrance,

they are nearly  $4\frac{1}{2}$  miles across; at the narrows, between Kilid Bahr and Chanak, only about 1,400 yds. The interior of the peninsula is a hilly country of chalk and sandstone, cut into ravines by the winter streams. There are many hills of 400 to 600 ft., but no greater heights. The peninsula is sparsely populated, but by no means inhospitable. The valleys have very steep sides, with flat and marshy bottoms. Corn and some cotton are grown.

### *Coasts*

The Maritsa delta is flat and swampy, and the Aegean coast lies for the most part low, though the interior is hilly. The European shore of the Dardanelles is generally high, and, almost without exception, steep-to, these characteristics continuing along the north-western side of the Sea of Marmora to the neighbourhood of Rodosto. Thence to Constantinople the coast is flat and in part broken by lakes or lagoons. The old sea and land walls of Constantinople meet at Marmora tower, which marks the south-western angle of Stambul, whence the sea walls stretch to Seraglio Point, a distance of 3 miles. The Golden Horn extends inland first in a north-westerly direction, then north and north-east, and forms the port of Constantinople. Its length is 4 miles, its breadth 400 to 1,200 yds. The Black Sea shore of the Chatalja promontory is again low-lying, with a large lake which is almost a lagoon; farther north the coast becomes more hilly.

### *River System*

The rivers which flow from the Istranja range north-east into the Black Sea and south into the Sea of Marmora are of little importance, with the exception of the Rezvaya Chai, which for over 30 miles forms the northern frontier, and the Kara Su and Ak Dere, which

constitute part of the defences known as the Chatalja lines. Thus the Thracian river system is practically confined to the Maritsa and its tributaries.

The Maritsa, from near Jisr Mustafa Pasha to its northern mouth about 5 miles from Enos, forms the western frontier of Turkey as defined in 1913. From Adrianople to the sea, a distance of 90 miles, it has a fall of some 130 ft. only, and flows through marshy meadows and plains, while near the sea occur extensive alluvial deposits and the stream divides into several branches, forming swamps and lagoons. The Maritsa is only fordable in very dry seasons.

Near Adrianople the Maritsa is joined from the north by the Tunja and by the Arda from the west. Both streams enter Turkish territory at a distance of about 30 miles from the town. When the Maritsa floods, the Tunja is liable to inundate its banks for 12 miles above the confluence. In dry seasons fords are frequent.

At a point 25 miles north-east of Enos the Maritsa is joined by the Ergene Su, which drains the central Thracian plateau. This river flows through a wide, flat-bottomed valley, which in summer is good meadow land, but becomes marshy in winter. It is fordable above Uzun Köprü, at certain regular crossings, and has a number of rough bridges.

The valleys of the Ergene and Maritsa are the natural lines of communication between central Thrace and Constantinople on the one hand, and the Aegean and the interior of Bulgaria on the other, and carry the present lines of railway.

### (3) CLIMATE

The coastal belt enjoys a temperate climate; the inland parts have a continental type of climate with a wide range of temperature and less winter rainfall.

Southerly winds are frequent, though northerly predominate. Periods of clear, calm, and cold weather often coincide with northerly and north-easterly gales in the Aegean Sea. January is the month of the heaviest rainfall, though November and December are not far behind. In April the approach of the summer dry season makes itself felt. In June, July, and August the monthly rainfall is often below an inch. Indeed, in some places these months are almost rainless; in others, however, local thunderstorms with heavy rainfall occur. At Constantinople the monthly records are as follow:

	<i>Highest.</i>	<i>Lowest.</i>
Mean temperature	73° F. (23° C.) Aug.	41° F. (5° C.) Jan.-Feb.
Mean daily extremes . . . .	82° F. (28° C.) July, Aug.	36° F. (2° C.), Feb.
Mean humidity . . . .	53 % Aug.	74 % Dec., Jan.
Mean rainfall . . . .	1.06 in. (27 mm.) July	4.80 (122 mm.) Dec.

#### (4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

Malaria is prevalent wherever there are watercourses. Quarantine precautions are officially observed at Constantinople. Kavah Bay is the official quarantine station. The Moslem population manifest great dislike to the regulations, and do their best to avoid carrying them out.

Constantinople is generally considered a healthy city. There exist, however, no regular sanitary arrangements, such as proper drainage by canalization. Owing to the city being built largely on hills, there is a rough natural drainage. Each house has a cesspool, and the soil being generally a crumbly schist, there is considerable ground-absorption therefrom.

Very few strangers escape one or another form of

typhoid in the course of a few years' residence in Constantinople, but natives appear to be virtually immune. Cholera occurs in most years, but is rarely serious, not being as a rule of the true Asiatic type. The parts of the city situated on the Golden Horn, especially the quarters of Kassim Pasha and Hassköi, are the most unhealthy spots in the capital.

#### (5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

Divided according to religious affinities, the population falls into three main groups, Mohammedans, Christians, and Jews; but each of these groups is broken up into different sects and includes individuals of different nationality. Living together has tended to efface national characteristics, but it has not produced a common type. Turks, Greeks, Armenians, and Jews are the races found everywhere.

The Turks, who are to be classed as originally of Mongol stock, speak a language belonging to the Ural-Altaic group, in which both nominal and verbal forms are built up by the addition of suffixes, and hard and soft vowels cannot occur in the same word. Turkish is distinguished from the other languages of this group by a more developed system of inflexion, a free use of possessive affixes, and a more thoroughly agglutinative character. As they advanced west from their original home in central Asia, the Turks gradually lost their primitive Mongol type, and to-day, through intermarriage with women of white races, have more Semitic and Aryan than Mongol blood, and may be regarded as belonging rather to the Caucasian than the yellow race.

The Greeks are the most intelligent race in this region, and possess the greatest wealth and commercial power. They divide with the Armenians the commercial activities of the country. There is a distinct

Constantinopolitan dialect of modern Greek, but the language of educated Greeks is taught in the schools and spoken by many.

The Armenians belong to the Indo-Iranic group of the Aryan stock, and are racially akin to the Persians and Kurds. Several of the facial characteristics of the Armenians are distinctly Semitic, and they share many of the mental characteristics of the Jew.

The Jews found in this region are mostly descendants of those who came from Spain towards the end of the fifteenth century: they have preserved the Spanish language in a corrupt form for use among themselves, although most speak French and some speak German. Many of the Ottoman Jews are said to present a very low type, and, although many are wealthy, the condition of the greater number is very miserable. The Jews were always, on the whole, the part of the population least hostile to strangers. Certain Jews, particularly at Adrianople, profess Islam while secretly practising the rites of Judaism; these are known as Dunmehs.

There are also a certain number of Serbo-Croatian Slavs in this region, but very few Bulgarians remained after 1913. There are, however, some Pomaks, Moslems of Bulgar origin, who generally use the Bulgarian language. Gipsies exist in large numbers. Persians have a quarter near the mosque of Saint Sophia. There are some Circassians. In Constantinople there is a large colony of Wallachians. There are also in Turkey representatives of many European peoples, the descendants of families settled for a long time in the East, who form the curious mixed race known as Levantines. These have lost most of the qualities of their original nation and often cannot speak its language.

## (6) POPULATION

*Distribution*

The city of Constantinople comprises Stambul, Pera, and Galata, together with Scutari on the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus. The suburbs of these towns extend along both shores of the Bosphorus and the European and Asiatic shores of the Sea of Marmora. The only other considerable town of European Turkey is Adrianople.

An estimate made in 1916 gives the following particulars regarding area and population :

<i>Administrative Divisions.</i>	<i>Area (square miles).</i>	<i>Population (total).</i>	<i>Population per square mile.</i>
Constantinople <sup>1</sup>	1,505	1,203,000	799
Chatalja .	733	78,000	106
Adrianople .	8,644	610,000	70
	10,882	1,891,000	174

The same estimate gives the approximate population of the city of Constantinople as 1,000,000, and of the city of Adrianople as 83,000. It is, however, extremely difficult to secure accurate statistics ; probably the population of the administrative district of Constantinople is nearly 1,225,000, and the city with its suburbs may have rather more than a million inhabitants. The population of Adrianople is probably about 80,000.

Before the Balkan Wars the triangle of land between Constantinople, Silivri, and Istranja had a population in which were about equal numbers of Turks and Greeks, with settlements of Bulgarians. This triangle was surrounded by a belt, largely inhabited by Greeks, which stretched from Constantinople round the coast of the Bosphorus and the Black Sea, and from Silivri to Rodosto on the Sea of Marmora. This Greek zone

<sup>1</sup> The vilayet of Constantinople, of which about two-thirds lie on the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus.

varied in width, and was linked up by occasional patches with a mass of Greek population extending south-east of Adrianople. The centre of the country was mainly Turkish, while to the north Bulgarians occupied Adrianople and the district east of that city. In the *kazas* (districts) of Vize, Lule Burgas, Chorlu, and Hairobolu the Turks formed 55 to 78 per cent. of the population. In the towns, however, the Turks were less numerous than the Greeks, forming little more than a third of the population. The *kazas* of Akhtebolu and Midia had few if any Turks. In the rest of the country the proportion of Turks varied from 21 to 40 per cent. The proportion of Greeks along the coast was over 50 per cent., except in the *kaza* of Rodosto, where, however, they peopled the maritime towns. Although only 26 per cent. of the total population as a whole, they formed a third of the urban population. The Armenians were found principally in the large towns: 200,000 in Constantinople, 9,000 in Adrianople, 1,000 to 2,000 at Rodosto, Gallipoli, and Kirk Kilisse respectively.

On the outbreak of the Balkan War, practically all the Bulgarian population was driven out. At Adrianople and Kirk Kilisse, indeed, many of the Bulgarian townsfolk were allowed to remain, but here also probably about 60,000 were either massacred or compelled to emigrate. The Greek population, which is estimated by good French authorities to have been 700,000 to 800,000 in 1913, emigrated or were expelled in large numbers—100,000 may have left before August 1914. The void made by these emigrations was filled, to some extent, by Moslem immigrants from the lost provinces. Large numbers of Moslem immigrants from Bulgaria settled round Rodosto and Keshan, while settlements were also made east of Vize.

*Movement*

No figures can be given regarding birth and death rates; but the Turks are not a prolific race and infant mortality is high among them. The Turkish population has shown a tendency to decrease. The Greek increase in numbers rapidly, families of 8 to 10 not being uncommon.

A certain amount of emigration to the United States has taken place. In 1914 there were 8,199 emigrants to that country as against 2,528 returning thence; in 1915 the numbers were 1,008 and 164 respectively.

## II. POLITICAL HISTORY

### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 1245 (*circa*). Mongol invasion of Asia Minor.
1300. Foundation of Ottoman Empire.
1326. Conquest of Brusa by Orkhan.
1357. Capture of Gallipoli and Rodosto by Suleiman.
1389. Victory over Southern Slavs at Kosovo.
1396. Victory over Hungarians at Nikopolis.
1402. Defeat of Turks by Tamerlane at Angora.
1453. Fall of Constantinople.
- 1512-20. Selim I.
1517. Conquest of Syria, Egypt, and Arabia.
- 1520-66. Suleiman I the Magnificent.
1526. Victory over Hungarians at Mohacs.
1529. Siege of Vienna.
1571. Defeat of Turks in battle of Lepanto.
1669. Capture of Candia.
1672. Cession of Podolia to Turkey.
1686. Austrians capture Budapest.
1699. Treaty of Karlowitz.
1711. Peace of the Pruth.
1718. Treaty of Passarowitz.
1735. Treaty of Vienna between Russia and Austria.
1739. Treaty of Belgrade.
1770. Turkish navy annihilated by Russia off Cheshme.
1774. Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji.
1784. Treaty of Constantinople. Crimea and Kuban annexed to Russia.
- 1787-91. War against Austria and Russia.
- 1789-1807. Selim III.
1792. Peace of Jassy.
1797. Treaty of Campo Formio between France and Austria.
1798. Treaty of Constantinople ; alliance with Russia.
1799. Adherence of Great Britain to Treaty of Constantinople.
1802. Turkey makes peace with France.

1807. Admiral Duckworth forces the Dardanelles.  
Deposition of Selim III.  
Treaty of Tilsit.
- 1808-39. Mahmud II.
1809. Treaty of Constantinople (Dardanelles) with Great Britain.
1812. Treaty of Bucarest with Russia.
1817. Milosh recognized as paramount chief in Serbia.
1821. Greek insurrection.
1826. Convention of Akkerman: Destruction of Janissaries.
1827. Treaty of London. Battle of Navarino.
1829. Treaty of Adrianople.
1830. Capture of Algiers by the French.
1831. Revolt of Mehemet Ali.
1833. Treaty of Unkiar Skelessi.
- 1839-61. Abdul Mejid.
1839. Hat-i-Sheriff of Gulhané (Law of the Tanzimat).
1840. Convention of London.
1841. Convention of the Straits.
- 1853-6. Crimean War.
1854. England and France declare war on Russia.
1856. Treaty of Paris. Hat-i-Humayun.
1859. Union of Danubian Principalities under Prince Cuza.
1861. First Charter of the Lebanon.
- 1861-76. Abdul Aziz.
1862. Turkish invasion of Montenegro.
1864. New Statute of the Lebanon.
1866. Deposition of Prince Cuza.
1867. Withdrawal of Turkish troops from Serbia.
1868. Organic Regulations for Crete.
1870. Creation of Bulgarian Exarchate.
1871. Conference in London.
1875. Revolt in Herzegovina.
1876. Deposition of Abdul Aziz. Abdication of Murad V.  
Accession of Abdul Hamid II. New Constitution drafted  
by Midhat Pasha.
1878. Constitution suspended by Abdul Hamid.  
Treaty of San Stefano. Congress of Berlin. Pact of  
Halepa.
1881. Rumania proclaimed a kingdom.
1885. Union of Eastern Rumelia with Bulgaria.

1889. Insurrection in Crete.  
1897. Turkey declares war on Greece.  
1908. Young Turk Revolution.  
Austria annexes Bosnia and Herzegovina.  
1909. Treaty with Austria. Independence of Bulgaria recognized.  
Deposition of Abdul Hamid.  
1911. Italian seizure of Tripoli and Benghazi.  
1912. Treaty of Lausanne. Serbo-Bulgarian Treaty.  
1913. Turkey signs Treaty of Peace in London.  
Final peace between Turkey and Bulgaria.

### (1) INTRODUCTION

'TURKEY' is, in a way, a misnomer. Turkey is not a country inhabited mainly by Turks, as Italy is inhabited by Italians, England by Englishmen, Spain by Spaniards, &c. As 'Austria' is frequently used to connote a congeries of non-Austrian races held together by a dynastic system, so Turkey, or the Ottoman Empire, stands for a number of non-Turkish races held together by the militarist and theocratic dynastic system of the Ottoman Sultanate. The Turkish language has no word for 'Turkey', which would properly be Turkestan, as Arabistan stands for Arabia. Under the old regime the official title of Turkey was 'the exalted State', while the Arabic expression for 'Ottoman lands' was used to connote the Ottoman Empire. The Young Turks have endeavoured to popularize the Levantine form, i. e. 'Turkia'.

### (2) DEVELOPMENT OF OTTOMAN EMPIRE

*Turkish Domination of Asia Minor.*—The Turks, or Turanians, coming originally from Mongolia, spread westwards through Turkestan and North Persia, until, in the tenth century, the Seljuk Turks entered Asia Minor, already largely Mohammedan, as an organized military force such as had been unknown for centuries

in those regions, and rapidly absorbed and moulded Phrygians, Cappadocians, Cilicians, and other indigenous elements into a Turki and Islamic State. In the early part of the thirteenth century the Mongol invasion, under Jenghiz Khan, destroyed the vitality of the Seljuk Turks, who, later on in the same century, welcomed the assistance of the new Turanian arrivals, the Ottoman Turks of some 400 tents.

The Ottomans, under their leader Ertogrul, were given as fiefs the march-lands south of Nicaea, the limit of Byzantine sovereignty in North-west Asia Minor, with Yenishehr as their capital. Osman succeeded Ertogrul in 1288, and on the extinction of the Seljuk Kingdom in 1300 assumed the style and title of Sultan. Orkhan took Brusa in 1326; and in 1357 Suleiman captured Gallipoli and Rodosto, thus extending Turkish sway into Europe. Adrianople became the Turkish head-quarters in 1371; and by the victories over the Southern Slavs at Kosovo in 1389, and over the Hungarians at Nikopolis in 1396, the Turkish boundary was carried to the Danube.

*Extension of Power in Europe and Asia.*—After the Tatar irruption of 1402, when the Ottoman Sultan, Bayezid I, was taken prisoner by Tamerlane at the battle of Angora, the Turkish dominion was consolidated up to the vicinity of Constantinople, which fell to Mohammed II in 1453. The conqueror, on succeeding to the Byzantine Emperors, adopted to a large extent the Court forms and the State machinery of the latter. He conferred on the Greek Patriarch the privilege of administering the affairs of the Orthodox Christian community, while he confirmed the existing extra-territorial rights of the Venetian and Genoese Latin colonies. Subsequent rights granted to French, British, and other Western nations were confirmed by the Capitulations, which were unilaterally abolished by

the Young Turks before their entry into the war in 1914. In 1456 Mohammed forced Wallachia to pay tribute, and annexed the Crimea and adjoining coast, thus converting the Black Sea into a Turkish lake, a character which it retained until the Russian occupation of Azof in 1774. Sultan Selim, 'the Grim' (1512-20), annexed Armenia and occupied parts of North-west Persia in 1514-16, and in 1517 conquered Syria, Egypt, and Arabia with the holy places of Mecca and Medina, making himself *de facto* Caliph.

His successor, Suleiman the Magnificent (1520-66), conquered Hungary after his victory at Mohacs in 1526, and besieged Vienna in 1529; his admiral laid siege to Malta in 1565. Failure in these two latter enterprises indicated the high-water mark of Turkish progress westward, for Turkish naval power declined after the defeat at Lepanto in 1571; and the second siege of Vienna in 1683, raised by the Pole, John Sobieski, was a flash in the pan. In Asia Sultan Murad III occupied Tabriz and half the Persian province of Azerbaijan in 1586; and in 1638 Murad IV effected the final conquest of Bagdad and Lower Mesopotamia.

*Janissaries.*—The kernel of the military system which enabled Turkey to effect these rapid conquests was the Corps of Janissaries, composed of forcibly Islamized Christians, and raised by 'the human tribute' levied by press-gangs every five years from the newly-acquired Christian territories. They gradually acquired the position of a privileged and all-powerful military caste, who were constantly clamouring for more pay and favours, or to be led on fresh expeditions likely to satisfy their cravings for booty. While they thus extended the limits of Turkey's dominions, their intrigues and revolts at Constantinople, where they constituted a Praetorian Guard, weakened the Empire at its heart's centre. They were mixed up in the

seraglio intrigues and factions, which brought about frequent changes of Sultan in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Down to about 1600 the Ottoman succession had been from father to eldest son, but, as the Sultan had become also Caliph, and an infant could not be Caliph, the order of succession was altered, and the Sultanate passed to the eldest male of the House of Osman—a system which led to frequent dynastic trouble, caused by ambitious princes who angled for the support of the Janissaries.

### (3) RELATIONS WITH AUSTRIA AND RUSSIA

Though Candia, in Crete, was conquered in 1669, and Podolia was ceded to Turkey by the King of Poland in 1672, the period of decline had already set in. Budapest was surrendered to Austria in 1686; and by the Treaty of Karlowitz, in 1699, Turkey ceded Transylvania, nearly all Hungary, Slavonia, Croatia, and Podolia. By the Treaty of Passarowitz, in 1718, Austria acquired the Banat of Temesvar, the Banat of Craiova in Western Wallachia, Belgrade with adjoining territory, and a strip of North Bosnia; though by the Treaty of Belgrade, in 1739, the Banat of Craiova and the Austrian gains in Serbia and Bosnia were restored to Turkey.

In the meantime, in addition to the Austrian opponent from the north-west, a new antagonist had appeared in the north-east. Russia, or Muscovy, having thrown off the Tatar yoke, found herself in conflict with the Tatars south of the Grand Duchy of Moscow; and Peter the Great (1682–1725), after his vigorous re-creation of Russia, turned his attention to the south with the determination of opening up access to the Black Sea and, through the Straits, to the southern waters of the Mediterranean. In 1696 he took possession of Azof, and shortly afterwards placed

the first Russian warship, the *Kriépost*, on the Black Sea. In 1710, when he was engaged in hostilities with Sweden, Turkey attacked and surrounded his armies, compelling him to sign the Peace of the Pruth in July 1711, whereby he had to restore Azof, to refrain from interfering in Polish affairs, and to surrender the privilege of having an ambassador or envoy at Constantinople.

In August 1726 Russia and Austria concluded a treaty of alliance for mutual aid in the event of a Turkish war; and, having come to an understanding as regards Poland, they entered into the Treaty of Vienna in 1735, rendering possible a concerted attack on Turkey. Russia's objects were, on her southern border, to stop the plundering of Tatar hordes subject to Turkish rule, and to acquire the Crimea and the right for her war-ships and merchantmen to pass the Straits of Constantinople. The Russian general, Marshal Münich, invaded the Crimea (1736), while his colleague, General Lacy, an Irishman in the service of Russia, besieged and captured Azof. The Austrian operations against the Turks were not successful; and, aided by the skilful diplomacy of Louis XV's astute Ambassador at Constantinople, the Marquis de Villeneuve, Turkey induced Austria to conclude a separate peace at Belgrade (1739); whereupon Russia, menaced by Sweden, followed suit, and made peace on the terms proposed by Villeneuve, restoring her conquests, abandoning Azof and its district, and renouncing the claim to navigate the Black Sea. At the outset of the war, however, Nadir Shah of Persia, with Russian aid, had attacked Turkey and forced her, in 1735, to sign the Treaty of Erzerum, by which Georgia and Azerbaijan were ceded to Persia.

After an interlude of about a quarter of a century, during which Europe was occupied with the Austrian

succession, Sultan Mustapha III, alarmed at the agreement come to by Catherine and Frederick the Great regarding the disposal of the Polish throne, and encouraged by the French Ambassador Vergennes, declared war on Russia in October 1768. The Russians occupied Moldavia and Wallachia, the Crimea, and the northern coast of the Black Sea from the Danube to Taganrog; while their Cronstadt fleet, largely officered by Englishmen, annihilated the Turkish navy off Cheshme in July 1770. The European Powers became alarmed. England feared that Russia might secure the passage of the Straits; Prussia was afraid of being drawn into conflict with Austria; while France felt uneasy at having urged Turkey into a war which brought disasters instead of the expected triumph over Russia. The first partition of Poland quieted Prussia, while England was involved in her difficulties with the American colonies. Although it was internal troubles which induced the Empress Catherine to conclude the Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji in 1774, by this treaty Sultan Abdul Hamid I recognized the independence of the Crimea, renounced Turkish suzerainty over the Caucasian tribes, and ceded several places on the north-east coast of the Black Sea, which Russian ships were allowed to navigate freely; Russia also obtained a guarantee on which she afterwards based a claim to the right of protecting the Orthodox Christian subjects of the Porte, then treated as *rayas* or the property of the Moslem Turkish State, and suffering from a variety of disabilities.

Russia soon found that her liberty of navigation in the Black Sea was dependent on the will of the Sultan, who was swayed to and fro by the jealous machinations of rival ambassadors, and was preparing to renew hostilities; but in 1779, by the mediation of the French Ambassador, a convention was agreed to, amplifying

the privileges of navigation in the Black Sea, restricting Turkish authority in the Danubian provinces, and recognizing a Russian nominee as Khan of the Crimea.

A defensive alliance having been concluded with Joseph II of Austria in 1781, Russian troops proceeded to occupy the Crimea ; and in January 1784 Turkey, by the Treaty of Constantinople, recognized the annexation by Russia of the Crimea and the Kuban. The Empress Catherine, now full of the idea of re-establishing a Greek Empire at Constantinople, undertook in 1787 a progress to the Crimea, where, at Sebastopol, she reviewed a powerful navy. The Russian representative submitted fresh demands to the Porte, which retorted with a counter-proposal for the restoration of the Crimea. Meeting with a negative reply, the Sultan threw the Ambassador into prison, and, relying on the support of England and Prussia, declared war on Russia. Austria joined Russia ; and in the campaign of 1789 Turkey suffered severe defeats, but was saved by the confusion in the Austrian dominions and by the intervention of the Triple Alliance of Great Britain, Prussia, and Holland. Though plans for proceeding against Constantinople were elaborated, Catherine, anxious to prosecute her Polish policy while Austria and Prussia were occupied with France, concluded the Peace of Jassy (January 9, 1792), which confirmed the Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji, extended the western boundary of Russia to the Dniester, and gave to Russia all the Black Sea coast between that river and the Bug. The preoccupation caused in Europe by the French Revolution and the death of the Empress Catherine in 1796 gave Turkey a respite when she seemed on the point of collapse.

## (4) NAPOLEONIC ERA

The Treaty of Campo Formio (October 1797) gave the Ionian Islands to the French; and Bonaparte, after the conquest of Malta, undertook his Egyptian expedition. The Sultan Selim III appealed to the Russian Emperor Paul for assistance. This was agreed to in the Treaty of Constantinople (December 23, 1798), which constituted a defensive and offensive alliance for eight years, and also provided for the free passage of Russian war-ships through the Straits, while closing them to the naval flag of other countries. By the combined action of the Russo-Turkish fleets, the French were obliged to withdraw from the Ionian Islands.

In 1799 England had adhered to the Treaty of Constantinople; but in 1800 Russia formulated a scheme for partitioning the Ottoman Empire between Austria, Prussia, France, and herself, to the exclusion of England, whose Indian possessions were to be invaded. Shortly afterwards the Emperor Paul was assassinated; and his successor, Alexander I, was in favour of friendship with England and of the maintenance of a Turkey considered impotent to do harm to Russia.

After the Peace of Amiens between England and France (March 25, 1802), Turkey made a treaty with France on June 25, 1802, whereby the Sultan's possession of Egypt and all its territories was recognized, and the French commercial flag was entitled to traverse the Straits and navigate the Black Sea.

In 1805 the Porte proposed a renewal of the treaty of 1798. The Russians agreed, but insisted on the insertion of a clause whereby the Straits were to be closed to the naval flag of other nations, while open to the Russian, and were to be defended by the contracting parties in case any other armed ship attempted to enter, thus endorsing the principle that the two States

which bordered the Black Sea should have joint exclusive use of its exit so far as ships of war were concerned. This treaty of 1805 was to have lasted for a period of nine years. Napoleon, however, after his victories at Ulm and Austerlitz, sent General Sebastiani on a special embassy to Turkey to urge a repudiation of the alliance and the firm retention of the Danubian provinces. Sebastiani further insisted on a renewal of the old restrictions against the passage of Russian ships through the Straits, and induced the Porte to urge this demand upon the Russians and to interfere, contrary to the Convention of 1779, in the affairs of the Danubian provinces. Russian forces invaded Moldavia, whereupon Turkey dismissed the Russian Ambassador and declared war.

Russia, being in conflict with Napoleon in Prussia, received the support of England, whose fleet, under Admiral Duckworth, forced the Dardanelles on February 19, 1807, but was compelled to withdraw. Disorders, however, broke out in the Turkish capital. The Janissaries deposed Sultan Selim, and placed Mustapha IV on the throne. Napoleon took advantage of this revolution to conclude the Treaty of Tilsit, by which Alexander surrendered Cattaro and the Ionian Islands; he also initiated discussions with the Russian Emperor for the partition of Turkey to the exclusion of England. Turkey took alarm, and turned to England, who concluded the Treaty of Constantinople (also styled the Treaty of the Dardanelles) of January 5, 1809, stipulating that Great Britain should observe 'the ancient rule of the Ottoman Empire', which the Porte undertook to apply to all Powers, whereby warships of every flag were prohibited from entering the Straits, the exclusive right of sovereignty over the Dardanelles and Bosphorus being thus restored to Turkey, though Great Britain alone was a party to

the contract. The treaty was thus a partial internationalization of the Straits.

Relying on British support, Turkey now renewed hostilities against Russia (March 1809). The Russians overran Bessarabia, Moldavia, and Wallachia, crossed the Danube, occupied Silistria and Shumla (1812), and were preparing to march on Constantinople, when, menaced by Napoleon's preparations for the invasion of Russia, the Tsar agreed to the Treaty of Bucarest (May 16, 1812), which restored Moldavia and Wallachia to Turkish suzerainty, gave Bessarabia to Russia, and advanced the Russian frontier to the Pruth and the Kilia branch of the Danube, but omitted any mention of the Straits.

The Congress of Vienna was based on the idea of an equilibrium in Europe, which excluded Turkey, thus giving the latter the possibility of adopting a policy of playing off one Power, or group of Powers, against another—a policy which was to be the key-note of Ottoman diplomacy for a century.

#### (5) BALKAN STATES, 1812-33

*Serbia.*—The agitation which Russia encouraged among the Orthodox subjects of the Porte, and the echoes of the ideas of freedom of the French Revolution, added to the discontent caused by the injustices and abuses of the central and still more the provincial Turkish regime, led to a ferment among the subject races of the Balkan Peninsula. The extreme severity of the local Janissary rule at Belgrade had provoked an anti-Janissary rising among the Serbs in the beginning of the nineteenth century. The anti-Janissary rising developed into a rebellion against the Sultan's authority; and Russians and Serbs fought on the same side in the war which was terminated by the

Treaty of Bucarest in 1812. At the Congress of Vienna Russia effected an arrangement between Turks and Serbs, which conferred on the latter a certain measure of autonomy; and in 1817 Milosh was recognized as paramount chief in Serbia. It was not till 1833, after the Treaty of Adrianople (1829), that the Turks were compelled, under pressure of the Egyptian rebellion, to carry out the stipulations of the Convention of Akkerman, renewing those of the Treaty of Bucarest of 1812, to the effect that Serbia, while paying a tribute, should have complete internal autonomy under the suzerainty of the Sultan, and that, except the garrisons of the fortresses, no Turks were to live in Serbia.

*Greece.*—The revolt of Ali Pasha of Janina against Sultan Mahmud II set fire to a train which led to the Greek insurrection of March 1821, which the Turks endeavoured to repress by the sternest methods. The massacres of Greeks and the execution of the Greek Patriarch of Constantinople produced a violent anti-Turkish movement in Russia, which led to a breach of relations; but, on the mediation of Great Britain and Austria, Turkey agreed to evacuate the Principalities and to observe the existing rights of the commercial flag of foreign Powers to navigate the Straits. The Ottoman Government having failed to fulfil its engagements with Russia, the new Tsar, Nicholas I, sent an ultimatum (March 7, 1826) to Sultan Mahmud, who agreed to the Convention of Akkerman, conceding the evacuation of the Principalities, the cession to Russia of certain Circassian fortresses, and the unrestricted enjoyment by the Russian commercial flag of liberty of navigation in all Ottoman waters.

By the Treaty of London, July 6, 1827, Great Britain, Russia, and France agreed to intervene in the matter of the Greek insurrection, which was being stamped out

in the Morea by Turco-Egyptian troops under Ibrahim Pasha, with accompaniments of massacres and burnings. On the sinking of the Ottoman fleet by the Allied squadrons in the Bay of Navarino, the Porte proclaimed a Holy War and declared the Convention of Akkerman null and void. The Russian army crossed the Pruth on May 6, 1828, and, after defeating the Turks, compelled them to sign the Peace of Adrianople (September 14, 1829), recognizing the independence of Greece, the practical independence of the Danubian Principalities, and Russian treaty rights of freedom of navigation in the Straits and the Black Sea, while according similar rights 'to all merchant ships of Powers who are at peace with the Sublime Porte'. In 1830 this right was extended to the United States of America.

#### (6) TURKISH ADMINISTRATION

*The Unreformed System.*—The succession of military disasters and territorial amputations which Turkey had suffered during the eighteenth century led Sultan Selim III (1789–1807) to attempt, and Sultan Mahmud II (1808–39) to carry out, a series of drastic, if not revolutionary, changes in the Turkish system of government. To understand the nature of these changes, some notice or sketch of the structure of the Ottoman State may be helpful, if not necessary. The head, or apex, of that State was the Sultan, in whom were vested absolute and autocratic powers, limited only by the undefined obligation not to transgress the prescriptions of the Koran and of the Sunnah or traditional sayings of the Prophet Mohammed, as interpreted by the Chief Mufti. The Sultan had unquestioned power of life and death over his subjects. By ancient custom the Sultan obtained the decree or Fetva of the Mufti as sanction to any important

political act ; and instances occurred where the refusal of the Mufti led to the abandonment of the sovereign's contemplated project, while, on some occasions, the Sultan has dismissed the Mufti from office and replaced him by a more pliant instrument. On the other hand, any body of malcontents who had secured the support of the Janissaries or of the soldiery and obtained a decree of the Mufti declaring that the Sultan was a breaker of the divine law, a tyrant and unfit to govern, could dethrone the sovereign, provided the successor was a male of the House of Osman.

As regards the Imperial House, Mohammed II, the Conqueror, had legalized Imperial fratricide by his ordinance : 'The majority of my jurists have pronounced that those of my illustrious descendants who ascend the throne may put their brothers to death in order to secure the repose of the world. It will be their duty to act accordingly.' In the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries the practice was frequent where a Sultan had real or fancied fears that a brother was conspiring against him. Down to Sultan Ahmed I (1603-17) the succession was from father to son ; but, during the latter reign, it was transferred to the eldest male of the House of Osman, the intention being to avoid the possibility of an infant Caliph.

The basis of the State was military, being divided into pashaliks and sanjaks (banners), each of which had to supply a fixed number of soldiers for the Sultan's wars. A portion of conquered territory was converted into military fiefs, called Timars and Ziamets, granted to distinguished soldiers on condition that they furnished an armed horseman for every 3,000 aspres of revenue. The fiefs were generally hereditary in the male line, and in the course of time hereditary descent grew into a right. Down to the eighteenth century the high personal abilities of the Sultans, the existence of

the Janissary force, and the Mohammedan religion, which elevated the Sultan and maintained a feeling of equality between all his Moslem subjects, prevented the growth of such a feudal aristocracy as existed in Europe; but, during the period of decline in the eighteenth century, the local fief-holders grew into such an aristocracy at the expense of the Central Government and of the local populations, and were generally styled Dere Beys, or Lords of the Valley.

The Ottoman Empire was divided into twenty-six eyalets, which were in turn divided into 163 livas or sanjaks, while each liva was subdivided into cazas, and each caza into nahiyes or cantonal districts. The eyalets were of great size, like the districts of British India, and were presided over by Pashas of three tails with the rank of Vizier. Seventy-two livas had, as Governors, Pashas of two tails. In general the appointments to these, as to the eyalets, were annual, and were subject to payments of large sums to the palace and Porte officials, the Pasha recouping himself by exactions from the local populations during his tenure of office, which he at times got renewed by offering to the venal Ministers at Constantinople a larger bribe than that tendered by his would-be successor. Most of the sub-Governors similarly obtained their nominations by bribery, and endeavoured to enrich themselves by their exactions from those whose welfare was entrusted to their charge. The general result was that the capital swarmed with intriguing place-hunters, and the provinces were impoverished by hordes of predatory bureaucrats, an evil which increased in intensity as the Empire shrunk in size during the eighteenth century.

*Reforms of Selim III.*—Sultan Selim III was forced by his defeats and the continued curtailment of his Empire to introduce reforms based on the institu-

tions of the West. When he came to the throne the Sultan's authority was scarcely recognized, even in name, over vast tracts of his Empire, while official insubordination and local tyranny had reduced the people, and especially the Christians, to the lowest depths of misery. The Dere Beys had become practically independent, and misruled their fiefs with the same system of tyranny, peculation, and chaos as obtained in the rest of the Ottoman dominions.

Selim's projected reforms were: (1) the introduction of Western military methods on the French model to replace the Janissaries; (2) the abolition of the feudal system through the resumption by the sovereign, on the death of their holders, of the Timars and Ziamets, whose revenues were thenceforth to be paid into the Central Treasury and appropriated to the upkeep of the new military force; (3) the appointments of Governors of eyalets and livas to be for the term of three years, renewable where a Governor had given satisfaction to the governed; (4) the abolition of tax-farming, and collection of the revenue by officers of the Imperial Treasury; (5) restriction of the power of the Grand Vizier by compelling him to consult a divan of twelve superior Ministers on all important measures; and (6) the spread of education among all classes of Ottoman subjects. He further established Ottoman Embassies at London, Paris, Vienna, and Berlin, but not at St. Petersburg.

The attempt to introduce a new military system, called the 'Nizam Jedid', and the other progressive tendencies of the Sultan aroused religious fanaticism and the hatred of all vested interests under the existing regime. In 1807 the Janissaries, armed with a Fetva of the Mufti, invaded the palace and deposed Selim, putting Mustapha IV on the throne. An attempt to restore Selim led to his assassination

and that of Mustapha IV; and Mahmud II, the sole surviving male of the House of Osman, became Sultan in 1808. The new Sultan issued an Imperial edict solemnly cursing and renouncing all infidel customs and innovations, while the old system and its abuses were re-established more firmly than ever.

*Reforms of Mahmud II.*—Sultan Mahmud, who had been carefully schooled in the necessity for reform by his father, Selim III, bided his time, improved his artillery corps, and in 1826 obtained a decree of the Mufti for the introduction of the Nizam Jedid. The Janissaries essayed revolt, but were mowed down by the Sultan's artillery and exterminated, both in the capital and the provinces. Mahmud then formed a regular force of 40,000 men, clothed, armed, and disciplined on the European system, and proceeded to expand this force into an army of 250,000 men. He took away the power of life and death from the Pashas in the provinces, and abolished the Court of Confiscations, a body which dealt with the forfeiture to the Crown of the property of all persons banished or condemned to death, and which had become a sink of delation. He redressed the worst abuses of the Vakufs (or pious foundations) by placing their revenues under State administration, and suppressed the Timars and Ziamets, as also the feudal nobility, or Dere Beys, but not without severe struggles and frequent insurrections. He further regularized the system of taxation, and dealt drastically with its most glaring abuses, especially in connexion with the Kharaj, or capitation tax. He ruthlessly cut down sinecures, both in the palace and in the State organism, while he reformed the Imperial household, and particularly the system of education of the princes.

(7) REVOLT OF MEHEMET ALI AND ACTION OF THE  
POWERS

These reforms, being of a revolutionary character, convulsed the Empire, and seriously affected the Ottoman dominions in Asia and Africa. In 1830 the French seized Algiers, which had acknowledged Ottoman suzerainty since 1519. In 1831 the Albanian Mehemet Ali Pasha, Viceroy of Egypt, not content with Crete, assigned to him for his services in combating the Greek insurrection, revolted against the Sultan, overran Syria, crossed the Taurus, and advanced north of Konie. He demanded the cession of Syria and Adana, threatening to occupy Brusa. Sultan Mahmud, failing to get support from England or France, appealed for help to the Tsar, whose fleet entered the Bosphorus in February 1833. Mahmud compounded with Mehemet Ali Pasha by ceding Syria to him, and at Unkiar Skelessi concluded with the Russians, on July 8, 1833, a treaty of mutual alliance and assistance. Russia pledged herself to provide troops for the Sultan in case of need; and the Sultan, in case of Russia's need, undertook to close the Dardanelles to the warships of all nations. In 1839 Mahmud determined to eject his vassal from Syria, but his army was annihilated at the battle of Nezib a few days before the Sultan's death on July 1.

The new Sultan, Abdul Mejid (1839-61), saw his fleet go over to the Egyptians at Alexandria, and was about to come to terms with his vassal when Great Britain, Austria, Russia, and Prussia, declaring that the matter was of European concern, concluded the Convention of London on July 15, 1840, pledging themselves to force the Egyptian Viceroy to accept the terms arranged by them with the Sultan. An Anglo-Austrian fleet captured Beirut and Acre, compelling

the Egyptian forces to retire on Egypt. It was arranged that Mehemet Ali Pasha should renounce Crete, Syria, and the Holy Places, and be given the hereditary Viceroyship of Egypt, with the island of Thasos as an apanage of the Khedivate.

On July 13, 1841, France, England, Russia, Prussia, Austria, and Turkey signed at London the 'Convention of the Straits', which closed the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles, so long as the Porte was at peace, to the vessels of war of all foreign Powers.

(8) REFORMS OF ABDUL MEJID : (i) DECREE OF  
GULHANÉ

Sultan Abdul Mejid, on reaching the throne, resolved to continue the reforms initiated by his predecessor ; and, with a view to cutting the ground from under the Russian claim to intervention on behalf of Orthodox Turkish subjects, based on the Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji (1774), he proclaimed a charter of reforms on November 3, 1839, known as the Decree of Gulhané.<sup>1</sup> The lives, property, and honour of all his subjects, irrespective of race or creed, were guaranteed ; the incidence of taxation was determined and its collection regulated ; while the European system of recruiting was introduced for Moslems. Despite the apparent goodwill of the Sultan, the new measures encountered serious opposition, especially from holders of the dominant creed, who succeeded in rendering them nugatory to a great extent. Spasmodic attempts to introduce the 'reforms' led to risings and troubles of various kinds in Asia Minor, Syria, and the Lebanon ; while in 1843 the discontent of the Cretans at the return of the Turks on the departure of the Egyptian

<sup>1</sup> See Appendix I, p. 139.

troops led to an insurrectionary movement for union with Greece.

The revolutionary movement of 1848 in Europe was not without its echoes in Greece and the Danubian Principalities, while minor wars with Montenegro were only brought to a close in 1853.

#### (9) CRIMEAN WAR

By the Capitulations of 1535, 1673, and 1740, the custody of the Holy Places had been entrusted to the French Catholics, but, owing to the anti-clerical policy of France since her revolution, the Greek Orthodox Church had acquired some of the French rights. The matter came to a point in 1853, when the Emperor Napoleon III championed the Catholics against Russia, the protector of the Orthodox. Russia demanded also an addition to the Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji, placing the Orthodox Church entirely under her protection. This the Sultan, on the advice of the British Ambassador, refused, whereupon Russian troops advanced in July 1853 into the Danubian Principalities. The Porte demanded their evacuation within fifteen days, and declared war against Russia on October 23; while, a day earlier, the British fleet entered the Dardanelles. Great Britain formally declared war, jointly with France, in March 1854. In June Austria also summoned the Tsar to evacuate the Principalities. Though Russia withdrew her forces, the war was prosecuted in the Crimea without conclusive military results until 1855, when preliminary peace *pourparlers* were initiated.

Great Britain, France, and Austria laid down 'the four points', viz.: (1) the cessation of the Russian protectorate over Moldavia and Wallachia, and the application of a collective guarantee of the Powers to the Danubian Principalities; (2) the freedom of navigation of the Danube; (3) the revision of the treaty of

July 13, 1841, so as to terminate Russian preponderance in the Black Sea ; and (4) the abandonment of Russia's claim to protect the Orthodox subjects of the Sultan. On March 2 the Emperor Nicholas I died, and was succeeded by his son, Alexander II. The peace *pourparlers* failed. Sebastopol fell on September 9, and the Russians captured Kars on November 28.

On the mediation of Austria a Peace Congress met at Paris on February 25, 1856, and an agreement was rapidly concluded. By the Treaty of Paris Russia ceded to Moldavia, then under Turkish suzerainty, the southern part of Bessarabia and the delta of the Danube, thus partly undoing her annexations of 1812 ; the mouths of the Danube were put under the authority of an International Commission ; the navigation of the Danube and the Black Sea was declared free, subject only to necessary police and sanitary regulations ; the Black Sea was neutralized, and its waters and ports were closed to the navies both of the riverain States and of any other Power ; Turkey was admitted to the privilege of participation in the public law and the Concert of Europe ; while the other signatories undertook ' to respect the independence and the territorial integrity of the Ottoman Empire ', guaranteed ' in common the strict observance of this engagement ', and promised to ' consider every act calculated to do injury thereto as a question of general interest '. Other clauses of the treaty provided for the welfare of the Sultan's Christian subjects. ' Abdul Mejid communicated to the other high contracting parties the Firman of February 18, which had proclaimed the liberty of worship and the civil equality of all Ottoman subjects, admitted Christians to military service, and reorganized the fiscal system. In return, the Powers disclaimed any right to collective or separate intervention between the Sultan and his subjects, while the Principalities of

Wallachia and Moldavia were to enjoy, under Turkish suzerainty and the guarantee of the Powers, their previous privileges with a reformed administrative statute.

(10) POLICY OF RUSSIA, 1700-1856

An analysis of Turco-Russian relations during the previous century and a half, i. e. from the latter years of Peter the Great's reign, shows that Russia's policy was mainly directed to opening or controlling the Straits exit to the Aegean Sea; and that, partly to this end, she used the politico-religious lever of securing redress for the genuine religious and civil grievances of the Orthodox and mainly Slav subjects of the Turco-Islamic Ottoman State; while her constant endeavour was to deal directly with Turkey and eliminate other and generally hostile interference. The Treaty of Paris undid her work of the eighty years which had elapsed since the Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji; and, while forbidding her to exercise the sovereign right of having a naval force in her own Black Sea ports and waters, internationalized both the regime of the Straits and the protection of the Christian subjects of the Porte. For, although the Powers disclaimed the right of interfering on their behalf, the communication of the Firman on the subject by the Porte to the Powers admitted by implication foreign interest in the matter, while the embodiment in the treaty of the clauses concerning the Straits *pro tanto* diminished or impaired the sovereign powers of Turkey. Turkey, in compensation, was admitted to the Concert of Europe, and gained a reinforced status for playing off the other Powers against Russia. The settled policy of Russia thus sustained a conspicuous defeat; and it was to be anticipated that she would seize the first opportunity for modifying or annulling the conditions of the peace.

## (11) REFORMS OF ABDUL MEJID.

## (ii) HAT-I-HUMAYUN

This Firman (1856) of religious and civil equality encountered strenuous opposition from the reactionary elements in the bureaucracy and among the Moslem Turks. Regulations and laws were multiplied, but they remained, as in the case of the reforms of Gulhané of 1839, *in toto* or in part a dead letter.

The Firman of Abdul Mejid of 1856<sup>1</sup> is generally known as the 'Hat-i-Humayun', and in it the Sultan undertook to maintain the franchises and securities given by the Hat-i-Sheriff of Gulhané to all classes of his subjects without distinction of race or religion. It contained numerous directions for the summoning of local councils of each Christian community for local self-government, for ensuring free exercise of religion, for providing mixed tribunals in matters where the litigants were of different religious persuasions, i. e. Moslem and Christian, for raising contingents of Christian troops, and for numerous improvements in the administration of legal and of commercial matters.

The rock upon which these schemes of reform, like their precursors and successors, were shipwrecked was the inability of the Turco-Moslem, who dominated by the sword, to accord equality before the law or in his administration to the subject Christian and non-Turk races, who were potentially his superiors in culture, economics, and modern progress. He felt that equality meant the eventual submersion of his dominant militarist caste; and, though he partially, if reluctantly, admitted his backwardness and the necessity of progress, he was determined not to give equal opportunity to his subject races and creeds.

<sup>1</sup> See Appendix II, p. 65.

Hence, although the Crimean War gained Turkey a respite of twenty years, no adequate improvement was registered during that period. The Sultan, while steadily refusing equality to his subject races, retarded their progress and relapsed into his archaic system of rule, punctuated by massacres of the complaining Christian elements in Crete, the Balkans, or Asia Minor.

Twice during Ottoman history, i. e. under Sultan Selim (1512–20) and Sultan Mahmud II (1808–39), State discussions took place as to the advisability, permissibility, and expediency, according to Koranic law, of exterminating and forcibly Islamizing the entire Christian population of the Empire. On both occasions the decision, on the grounds of expediency, was against such drastic measures. But on several occasions the imposition of reforms by external Christian agency was followed by partial or extensive massacres of the Christian population. It was left to the twentieth-century Young Turks to carry out in all but its entirety a policy which Sultan Selim the Grim and his Chief Mufti had rejected in the sixteenth century.

#### (12) AFFAIRS IN THE PROVINCES, 1856–77

*Danubian Principalities.*—The new regime, prescribed by the Treaty of Paris (1856) for the Danubian Principalities, resulted in a personal union under Prince Cuza in 1859. In 1862 an insurrection in Herzegovina led to a Turkish invasion of Montenegro, while the violence of the Turkish soldiery in Belgrade occasioned disorders in Serbia.

*Lebanon.*—In 1860 trouble occurred among the Maronite Christians of the Lebanon, against whom the Turks excited the Druses. Extensive massacres of Christians took place in the Lebanon and at Damascus; whereupon the French sent an expedition. The Sultan,

frightened at this foreign intervention, had a number of the Druses executed; but the Powers, led by France, insisted on the grant of autonomy to the Lebanon, under a Christian Governor, appointed by the Porte with the sanction of the Powers. Some of the defects in the hastily drafted Statute of 1861 were remedied by that of September 6, 1864. Meanwhile, in 1861, Sultan Abdul Mejid died, and was succeeded by his brother, Abdul Aziz. The new Sultan found the exchequer embarrassed and the policy of progress and reform unfulfilled, while the Balkans, the Lebanon, and Crete were seething with unrest.

*Crete.*—The Cretans had been demanding the execution of the reforms promised by the Firman or Hat-i-Humayun of 1856; and, failing to obtain satisfaction, they proclaimed their union with Greece, after petitioning Great Britain, France, and Russia. The attempt of a Turkish army under Eumer Pasha to devastate the island and exterminate its Christian inhabitants provoked the intervention of the Powers; whereupon the Sultan reversed his policy and tried conciliation, granting the Cretans the 'Organic Regulations' of 1868<sup>1</sup>, which became the law of the island for ten years.

*Balkan States, 1866-77.*—In 1866 Prince Cuza of Rumania was deposed by a *coup d'état*; and Prince Charles of Hohenzollern was chosen in his place, the Porte being finally persuaded to recognize him. In the following year an agitation in Serbia against the presence of Turkish garrisons led to their withdrawal under pressure from the Powers, though it was arranged that the Turkish flag should continue to float over the fortress of Belgrade.

In 1870 the Porte, influenced by the Russian Ambassador, Ignatieff, and the anti-Greek bias then prevalent

<sup>1</sup> See *Greece*, No. 18 of this series, Appendix IV.

owing to the Cretan and other difficulties with the Greeks, created the Bulgarian Exarchate for the 'vilayet of the Danube', including Nish and Pirot. The Greek Patriarch pronounced this autocephalous Bulgarian Church to be schismatic; and a bitter struggle began in the Balkans between Greek and Bulgar.

Availing herself of the Franco-German War, Russia announced in a circular of October 31, 1870, that she would no longer be bound by the Black Sea clauses of the Treaty of Paris. Great Britain protested that one party to a treaty could not declare its conditions to be no longer binding without the consent of the other parties; accordingly, at a conference in London in March 1871, the articles regarding the neutralization of the Black Sea were abrogated. The principle of closing the Straits was maintained, but the Sultan was allowed to open the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus in time of peace to the fleets of his friends and allies if necessary in order to secure the execution of the stipulations of the Treaty of Paris of 1856. The European Commission of the Danube was prolonged for twelve years, and the works already created there were neutralized, subject to the right of the Porte to send vessels of war into the river.

In Herzegovina in 1875, as in Crete in 1866, the non-application of the Firman of 1856 and the extortions of the local Turks led to an insurrection which the Turkish forces tried to stifle by ruthless methods. The insurrection spread to Bosnia, and forced Montenegro and Serbia to go to war with Turkey. A similar insurrection in Southern Bulgaria resulted in the atrocities of Batak; while in May 1876 the French and German Consuls were assassinated in Salonika. The Nationalist (i. e. Young Turk) party in Constantinople raised the cry of 'Turkey for the Turks', while

several thousand *softas* (theological students) forced the Sultan to appoint Midhat Pasha as Grand Vizier. The Sultan Abdul Aziz was deposed, and replaced by Murad V on May 30, 1876. On August 31 he was forced to abdicate in his turn, owing to his feebleness of mind and character; and his brother Abdul Hamid II was called to the throne. The Turkish Government had just declared a partial repudiation of its foreign debt; and the new Sultan found his European provinces ablaze with insurrection and wars proceeding with two vassals. The Turkish forces, however, defeated the Serbs, and were advancing on Belgrade, when Russia intervened and brought about peace in March 1877, leaving Serbian territory undiminished. The Turks were less successful against the Montenegrins.

(13) RUSSO-TURKISH WAR; TREATY OF SAN  
STEFANO

The British Fleet had arrived at Besika Bay; and, while a European Conference, with Lord Salisbury as British delegate, was sitting at Constantinople endeavouring to find in reforms a solution for the Balkan imbroglio, a Constitution, drafted for the whole empire by Midhat Pasha, was suddenly proclaimed on December 23, 1876;<sup>1</sup> and the Turks argued that, as the greater included the less, the *raison d'être* of the Conference had disappeared. They declined further discussion; and the Conference was dissolved in January 1877. Midhat Pasha fell, and his Parliament was impotent. Russia concluded a military convention with Rumania, and on April 24 her troops crossed the European and Asiatic frontiers of Turkey. When the Russians held Shipka, Serbia again declared war, while Montenegro prosecuted hostilities with renewed vigour and success. The Russians entered Adrianople in

<sup>1</sup> See Appendix III, p. 71.

January 1878, and an armistice was concluded on January 31.

As the Russians seemed to be approaching Constantinople, Great Britain took alarm; and Austria, although promised Bosnia and Herzegovina at Reichstadt on July 8, 1876, as the price of her neutrality, began also to move. When the Russian Grand Duke Nicholas established his head-quarters at San Stefano, a portion of the British fleet from Besika Bay moved up to Prinkipo, ten miles from the Turkish capital. In the general confusion (February 14) Abdul Hamid dissolved his Parliament and suspended the Constitution, which remained in abeyance till July 24, 1908.

The Greeks had hesitated to enter the war, but an insurrection broke out in Thessaly. It was ended by the British Consuls promising that 'Hellenic interests would not be injured by acceding to English advice', and proposing the separate administration of Thessaly and Epeiros, proposals which the Turks accepted. An incipient rebellion in Crete was similarly terminated.

The Treaty of San Stefano, of March 3, 1878,<sup>1</sup> besides creating a 'big Bulgaria', recognized the independence of Rumania and Serbia, and provided for the application of the Cretan Organic Law of 1868 to Epeiros, Thessaly, and the other parts of Turkey in Europe; while by Article 16 Turkey engaged 'to carry into effect without further delay the improvements and reforms demanded by local requirements in the provinces inhabited by Armenians, and to guarantee their security from Kurds and Circassians'. In Asia, Kars, Ardahan, Bayazid, and Batum were to be ceded to Russia in lieu of a portion of the war indemnity.

<sup>1</sup> See *Eastern Question*, No. 15 of this series, Appendix IX.

## (14) TREATY OF BERLIN

The Western Powers, however, demanded and insisted on a revision of the Treaty of San Stefano. At the Congress of Berlin,<sup>1</sup> which met on June 13, it was decided that the 'big Bulgaria' should be divided into three parts: (1) a Bulgarian Principality, under Turkish suzerainty, between the Balkan Mountains and the Danube; (2) Eastern Rumelia, an autonomous province, under a Turkish Governor-General; and (3) the Macedonian portion, which was restored to Turkish administration with the proviso that it should be governed according to the principles of the Cretan Statute of 1868; also that Rumania should receive her independence and a large part of the Dobruja in lieu of southern Bessarabia, retroceded to Russia; that Serbia should be independent, and be given the districts of Vrania, Nish, and Pirot, while Montenegro should receive territory which doubled her size; that Bosnia and Herzegovina were to be 'occupied and administered by Austria-Hungary', to whom was also given the right to keep garrisons in the Sanjak of Novibazar; and that Greece should be accorded a rectification of boundary, while Crete should remain Turkish, with a stricter enforcement of the Statute of 1868.

Such were the provisions of the Treaty of Berlin, so far as it affected Europe. In Asia the Porte ceded Kars, Ardahan, and Batum as a 'free port, essentially commercial', while the Bayazid district was restored to Turkey. Article 61 repeated the stipulation as to Armenians made by Article 16 of the Treaty of San Stefano. Periodical statements on this matter were to be made to the Powers, who would superintend their application. A special responsibility for the protection of the Armenians devolved on Great Britain

<sup>1</sup> See *Eastern Question*, No. 15 of this series, Appendix X.

in virtue of the Cyprus Convention, which had been signed on June 4.<sup>1</sup> By it Great Britain engaged to join the Sultan in the defence of his Asiatic dominions against any further Russian attack; and the Sultan, in return, undertook 'to introduce the necessary reforms' there, in consultation with his ally. In order to enable the latter to fulfil her engagement, he assigned to her 'the island of Cyprus to be occupied and administered by' her 'as a place of arms' in the Levant, on payment of an annual tribute calculated by the average surplus of the previous five years, and on the understanding that a Russian evacuation of Kars, Ardahan, and Batum should be followed by a British evacuation of Cyprus.

The Treaty of Berlin reaffirmed the Treaties of Paris (1856) and of London of March 30, 1871, in matters affecting the Straits.

#### (15) AFFAIRS IN THE PROVINCES, 1878-85

In 1881 Rumania was proclaimed a kingdom; Dulcigno was handed over to Montenegro in lieu of Albanian districts assigned to her by the Treaty of Berlin; and Miyatovich, the Serbian Minister for Foreign Affairs, signed a secret convention with Austria, promising to discourage Serbian agitation in Bosnia, on condition that Austria should support Serbian pretensions 'in the direction of the Vardar valley', i. e. in Macedonia; while Greece, with the assistance of the Powers, gained the plain of Thessaly.

Crete had to content herself with a modification of the Organic Law of 1868 in the form of a new charter, called the Pact of Halepa,<sup>2</sup> of October 1878, providing that the Governor-General should hold office for five years; that a General Assembly, composed of 49 Chris-

<sup>1</sup> See *Cyprus*, No. 65 of this series, Appendix I.

<sup>2</sup> See *Greece*, No. 18 of this series, Appendix V.

tians and 31 Mussulmans, should sit for 40, or at most 60, days in the year ; that Greek should be the language of both the Assembly and the law courts ; and that, after defraying the cost of local administration from the revenues of the island, the surplus should be divided in equal shares between the Porte and the houses of detention, schools, hospitals, harbours, and roads of Crete.

In 1885 Eastern Rumelia declared itself united to Bulgaria ; and Great Britain prevailed on Sultan Abdul Hamid to acquiesce in the change.

In 1881 France had occupied Tunis, where, by the Treaty of Bardo, she had recognized the shadow of Turkish suzerainty ; and in the same year Great Britain occupied Egypt as a result of the disorders caused by the Arabi rebellion.

#### (16) ADMINISTRATION OF ABDUL HAMID II

Abdul Hamid II (1876–1909) had not succeeded to a bed of roses. The partial repudiation of the foreign debt by his predecessor and a disastrous war had produced financial chaos, with a depreciated paper currency, while the foreign bondholders clamoured for payment. He was eventually forced (1881) to assign six sources of revenue to the service of the national debt, and to hand over their collection to the Public Debt Administration, managed by European representatives, besides finding additional revenue to meet the Russian war indemnity payable in annual instalments of £T360,000. He adhered steadily to his engagements in the matter throughout his long reign, during which Turkish stock rose from the nominal price of about £T20 to £T94 at the time of his deposition. By such old-world methods as refraining from borrowing, by paying the officials only six months' salary out of the twelve, and replacing the deficit by

a lavish bestowal of decorations and favours, he managed to live, so to speak, from hand to mouth.

He began his reign as a democratic sovereign who went amongst his subjects and was accessible to them ; but, after a serious attempt of the Liberal or Young Turks to dethrone him, he began to seclude himself in his palace, and to tighten the screw of what gradually grew into an autocratic and despotic regime. He soon began to look upon his personal rule as essential to the preservation of his State, and to rely on an elaborate system of secret police to combat the secret societies which were plotting to overthrow him.

While he did much for Moslem education and the opening of schools all over the Empire, his customs officers had stringent orders to prevent the entry of 'seditious' literature ; and a rigorous censorship dealt similarly with the press. He extended his rule and authority into vast tracts of his Asiatic dominions, where heretofore the Sultan's name and writ were unknown or ignored. He likewise appropriated lands and even districts, whose revenues were paid into his Civil List.

In the essential branch of the administration of justice, his father, Sultan Abdul Mejid, had, in pursuance of the Firman of 1856, attempted to introduce the *Code Napoléon* and to reconcile it with the Islamic Code. The experiment had been far from a success.

*Armenia.*—In addition to his long-drawn struggle with the holders of advanced liberal views, he found an analogous legacy in the Macedo-Bulgarian and Armenian reform problems of Articles 23 and 61 of the Treaty of Berlin. In the case of the Armenians, the Sultan feared that they might become a second Bulgaria, a fear that was shared by the Tsar. England's efforts to carry out her obligations under Article 61 and the Cyprus Convention encountered

evasions and an undercurrent of obstinate resistance. Armenian agitation was answered by redoubled repressive measures, which, in their turn, provoked the Armenian extremists to adopt revolutionary methods. The Sasun massacres of 1894 roused the British Government to a serious effort to enforce the long-delayed reforms. When the Sultan's Firman was issued under pressure in 1895 wholesale massacres occurred, causing the death of about 100,000 Armenians. There was a parallel Young Turk movement, especially in the capital, which the Sultan, feeling that his throne and the State were imperilled, vigorously repressed by deporting to Asia Minor some 6,000 *softas*. It was, perhaps, significant that the Young Turk organ in Paris approved of Abdul Hamid's treatment of the Armenians. The only tangible gain, so far as the Armenians were concerned, was to have the vague wording of 'provinces inhabited by the Armenians' geographically defined as the six vilayets of Erzerum, Van, Bitlis, Kharput, Diarbekr, and Sivas, with some administrative sub-districts in Cilicia or Lesser Armenia. During the remaining years of the Sultan's reign wholesale massacres were avoided, but replaced by a ruthless process of elimination in detail.

*Macedonia.*—In Macedonia events had occurred on similar but more violent lines. The non-execution of Article 23 of the Treaty of Berlin led to an agitation by the Bulgarians—an agitation which was intensified after the union of Eastern Rumelia with Bulgaria. The Turks and Austrians played off the Greeks and Serbs against the Bulgarians, while Russian agents were also actively anti-Bulgarian. Political assassinations became the order of the day; and the country was turned into a charnel-house. In 1903 a Bulgarian rising was repressed in a ruthless manner, hundreds of villages being sacked or burnt and thousands of

Bulgarians massacred or forced to flee into Bulgaria. Austria and Russia grew alarmed ; and, after agreeing on the Mürzsteg programme, used their joint influence to induce the Sultan to execute Article 23 by introducing some features of the Cretan Organic Law of 1868. Hussein Hilmi Pasha, descended from a Greek convert to Islam in the island of Mitylene, was sent to Macedonia as High Commissioner. Great Britain, Italy, and France began to interest themselves in the ' reforms ' ; but the High Commissioner showed consummate skill in playing off the different parties, both native and foreign, while the Sultan, when pressed, proved obdurate. The result was that the situation went from bad to worse. The meeting of King Edward VII and the Emperor Nicholas II at Reval in June 1908 roused apprehension among the Turks.

*Crete.*—The condition of Crete was tolerably quiet until 1889, when a fresh insurrection, arising from a strife of rival parties, occurred. The Porte sent troops ; and a Firman of November 24 virtually repealed the Pact of Halepa. This created widespread disappointment and unrest, which continued until 1895, when a Governor was appointed. The Moslem minority resented this, and by the violence of their methods procured his recall. In 1896 a fresh revolt took place ; and the Sultan, urged by the Powers, revived the Pact of Halepa, while European Commissions were dispatched to reorganize the gendarmerie and the Courts of Justice. On February 4, 1897, the Mussulmans at Canea started a massacre of Christians and burnt the Christian quarter. This caused intense excitement in Athens. Prince George was dispatched with a Greek flotilla to prevent Turkish reinforcements reaching Crete, while Colonel Vassos, with a Greek force, was sent to occupy the island in the name of the King of Greece, and the ships of the five Powers landed men to occupy Canea.

Conflicts occurred on the Thessalian frontier ; and on April 17 Turkey declared war on Greece. Accompanied by German officers, the Turkish army, after initial successes, defeated the Greeks at Domokos on May 17. The Powers intervened. The Peace of Constantinople gave Turkey a rectification of frontier and £T4,000,000 as war indemnity. The insurrection continued in Crete, whose ports were held by European detachments. On September 6 the Mussulmans at Candia massacred some British officers and men, with the result that all Turkish troops were forcibly ejected from the island, and Prince George of Greece was appointed by the Powers as High Commissioner in Crete for three years, under the suzerainty of the Sultan. He remained nearly eight years. In 1906 Prince George retired, and was succeeded by M. Zaimis.

#### (17) THE YOUNG TURK REVOLUTION

The Powers were beginning to withdraw their troops in July 1908, when the Young Turk revolution started in the Near East. This upheaval had the most serious effects throughout the Balkan Peninsula, while its ultimate results involved practically the whole world. The Turks' traditional policy had pivoted on the belief that their safety lay in the antagonism between England and Russia. They got the impression that the two sovereigns had arrived at decisions which virtually meant the amputation of the Ottoman European provinces restored to them by the Treaty of Berlin ; and this at a moment when Crete was about to be definitely lost to them by the evacuation of the international garrisons. The Young Turks resolved to act in Macedonia, professing to believe that the impending disasters were due solely to the evils of Abdul Hamid's despotism, and that salvation lay in reviving Midhat Pasha's Constitution of 1876 and

overthrowing the Sultan. By inculcating these ideas into the bolder spirits in the army in Macedonia and Albania, they won over a group of young officers, like Enver and Niazi, and also secured the compliance of Hussein Hilmi Pasha. Through them they brought about at Salonika the revolution, or rather *pronunciamiento*, of July 1908, and demanded the revival of the Constitution of 1876. The Sultan knew that the choice lay between civil war, with an inevitable Bulgarian invasion, and acceptance of the demands of the Committee and soldiers. He decided, against the advice of some of the more timid of his Ministers, who suggested half-measures, to issue a decree restoring the Constitution in its entirety; and, as it went forth with all the prestige of his name, it was accepted by the Mohammedan masses.

The Young Turks threatened to invite Bosnia and Herzegovina to send deputies to their Chamber, while there was also wild talk of regaining lost territory up to the Danube; and Austria proclaimed the annexation of the two provinces, which she occupied in virtue of the Treaty of Berlin; while on October 5 Bulgaria annexed Eastern Rumelia and proclaimed Prince Ferdinand Tsar of the Bulgarians. After some international commotion, an agreement with Austria was signed on February 26, 1909, by which Turkey was paid £T2,500,000 and Austria evacuated the Sanjak of Novibazar. Composition was made with Bulgaria by Russia forgoing forty annual instalments of the 1878 war indemnity.

The Constitution of 1876, known as Midhat Pasha's Constitution, had been abrogated by Abdul Hamid II, on the advice of his Chief Secretary, Kuchuk Said Pasha, on the grounds that it was too advanced for the country, half of which was in the tribal state; that, as a result of the declared bankruptcy of the

State and the ensuing financial chaos, Parliament was unable to carry out its main function of dealing with the Budget ; and that, in view of the low standard of education, the medley of races, and the babel of tongues represented in the Assembly, useful deliberations were impossible, while it would only become a seed-plot of racial misunderstandings and strife, entailing, perhaps, the disruption of the Ottoman Empire. To the adherents of Midhat Pasha and the Liberals it was purely a question between autocracy and a ' liberal regime ', for which they secretly agitated all through Abdul Hamid's reign. Many of them, such as Ahmed Riza Bey, Dr. Nazim, Prince Sebaeddin, and others, had been forced to live abroad, mainly in Paris and Switzerland, where they had imbibed advanced ideas, gained many foreign sympathizers, and endeavoured to take advantage of the Sultan's internal and external difficulties, chief among which were the Cretan and Macedonian imbroglios. The Young Turks used the same methods as the Russian revolutionaries, viz. impregnating with their ideas and capturing an important section of the army. The ' revolution ' was thus military rather than popular ; and, when its leaders had got the power into their hands, they found themselves obliged to reckon with the more violent instincts of the Turkish soldiery. At the outset they proceeded to curtail the constitutional powers of the sovereign, and to transfer to themselves the supreme direction of the army and navy. The Sultan-Caliph, in fact, became a cipher or puppet in the hands of the Committee of Union and Progress.

The contributory causes to the success of the Young Turk *coup* of July 1908 were, briefly, the following. A younger generation had grown up and forgotten the disasters and troubles of 1875-8. The ' intellectuals '—not unlike the Russian *intelligentsia* of the Cadet party—who were the product of Abdul Hamid's schools,

were impatient of the slow methods of intellectual advancement permitted by his system, while the international financier and the concessionnaire, desirous to quicken and cheapen the means of access to the Ottoman Empire, were naturally opposed to a regime which put obstacles in the way of developing or exploiting the riches of its vast territories. An increasing number of the younger officers owed their training to Germany, and did not fail to contrast that country's rapid progress with the backwardness and semi-decay of their own. Abdul Hamid, too, was growing old. He was then 66, while the thirty odd years of self-imposed seclusion and the strain of hard work and responsibility entailed by his autocratic system of rule had made him really much older. In 1906 he had become afflicted with an incurable internal malady, which often for considerable periods incapacitated him from directing the affairs of State, with the result that the administrative machine became clogged and strained almost to breaking-point. One of the prominent Young Turks, indeed, averred that, but for the Sultan's physical break-down, their revolution would have been impossible. Macedonia, too, was the region where external pressure for reforms and internal opposition to their introduction had produced a condition of maximum tension and preparedness for violent changes or desperate remedies.

Abdul Hamid's ever-tightening despotism had, in fact, become an anachronism; and the new dispensation had been greeted with effusion by all—Bulgarians, Armenians, Jews, Arabs, Greeks, Albanians, and Turks; while public opinion in Western countries also welcomed it with enthusiasm. Extraordinary scenes of fraternization took place; and the Sultan's popularity was momentarily unbounded. This latter feature seemed, however, to be exceedingly displeasing to the

Extreme section of the Committee of Union and Progress, which now partially emerged into the open ; and when, in April 1909, a semi-military movement, directed apparently against these Extremists, took place in Constantinople, their adherents in the Macedonian army marched their forces on the capital and dethroned Abdul Hamid, who had refused to order the Constantinople garrison to offer resistance. The ex-Sultan was placed in confinement at Salonika until the outbreak of the First Balkan War in October 1912. He was succeeded by his brother Reshad Effendi under the style of Mohammed V. The dethronement of Abdul Hamid, whose prestige among the Moslem masses, accumulated during his long reign of thirty-three years, was enormous, sent a convulsive shock through the Empire, and indisposed large sections of the Turks to the new regime. Suspicion of those who had engineered these events and hostility towards them was most marked among the moderate 'Liberals' of the capital and towns—the Albanians, Arabs, Armenians, and Greeks.

#### (18) RULE OF THE COMMITTEE OF UNION AND PROGRESS

The Committee of Union and Progress established a terror administered by a junta of unknown officers, who by decree of a secret court martial proceeded, without any formalities or judicial procedure, to proscribe, deport, or otherwise remove as dangerous or suspect their political opponents. They found, in fact, that, as they were in a minority and had to rule against the consent of the governed, a terrorist regime was a necessity. Consequently, martial law, established in the capital in 1909, had to be maintained during the succeeding years, and has continued throughout the present war. Confronted with the same

difficulties as Abdul Hamid had experienced in 1876, they had to decide on the fundamental obstacle to all Turkish reform, the inequality between Moslem and Christian and between Turk and non-Turk. The more violent spirits decided to substitute force for statesmanship, and to adopt the policy of turkification by armed force, while the non-Turkish races were bluntly told in the official organ of the new regime that the Ottoman Empire consisted of 'a dominant race and dominated races', i. e. the Turks and the non-Turks. Turkification really spelt Pan-Turanianism, though at the outset it was to be observed that the Committee of Union and Progress contained or attracted representatives of Indian, Egyptian, Tunisian, Moroccan, Persian, Caucasian, Central Asian, Siberian, Astrakhan, and even Polish Moslems.

The Young Turks started their Turanian policy with the Albanians, who were ordered to adopt the Turkish language and script under penalty of the bastinado. The clansmen revolted, and saw the Young Turk armies invade their country and burn or wreck their houses and villages. They naturally became disaffected to the regime to whose installation they had so powerfully contributed. The Arabs, Kurds, and Armenians next felt the heavy Turkish hand of the new rulers; while the Greeks were commercially hit by a boycott started against them on account of the action of the Cretans in again proclaiming union with Greece and hoisting the Greek flag at Canea. Turkey threatened war with Greece, whereupon an international landing party cut down the flagstaff at Canea, and Turkey was told that the Cretan question was a matter of European concern.

In addition to turkification, the Young Turks also proceeded openly to adopt and foster the Pan-Islamic policy of Abdul Hamid, a course which inevitably

brought them into antagonism with France, Great Britain, and Russia; and, as the militarist element was predominant in the Committee, while Germany's influence was paramount in the Turkish army, the new regime began to show tendencies of approximation towards the Central European Powers and of alienation from the Anglo-French *Entente*, whose association with Russia provoked their distrust. In 1910 loans were raised in Germany and their proceeds devoted to armaments, both naval and military, and not to roads and schools, as the *Entente* Powers had expected from the professedly liberal and progressive new regime.

#### (19) CONFLICT WITH ITALY

In the spring of 1911 Pan-Islamism brought Young Turkey into serious conflict with the Italians in the Red Sea and in the African Tripolitana; and in October of that year the Italian Government forced matters by seizing Tripoli and Benghazi. The Turks, under Colonel Fethi Bey in Tripoli and Enver Pasha in Benghazi, maintained a resistance until October 18, 1912, when, by the Treaty of Lausanne, the Italians agreed to give up—immediately after the Turkish evacuation of Libya—Rhodes, Kos, and the other islands of the Dodekanese, occupied by them in April and May 1912. As Turkish agents kept up a guerrilla warfare in Cyrenaica, the Italians continued to occupy the islands.

#### (20) BALKAN WARS, 1912-13

Meanwhile the Balkan States, menaced by the effects of turkification and the provocative language and deeds of Turkey, which held manœuvres in Thrace, had composed their differences in face of the common

enemy, the Serbo-Bulgarian Treaty of February 29, 1912, being the keystone of these arrangements. On October 8 Montenegro declared war, and met with considerable success. On October 13 Bulgaria, Serbia, and Greece sent identic notes to the mandatory Powers and to Turkey, demanding the administrative autonomy of the European provinces (as provided by Article 23 of the Treaty of Berlin), the frontiers of which were to be redrawn on ethnographic lines, with Swiss or Belgian Governors ; provincial elective Assemblies ; the reorganization of the gendarmerie ; freedom of education ; a local militia ; the application of reforms under the direction of an equal number of Christian and Moslem councillors and under the supervision, not only of the Ambassadors of the Powers, but also of the Ministers of the Balkan States at Constantinople ; and the immediate demobilization of the Ottoman army. Turkey recalled her representatives from Belgrade and Sofia, and on October 17 declared war on Serbia and Bulgaria. Next day Greece declared war on Turkey, after Venizelos had, on the 14th, admitted the Cretan deputies to the Chamber.

On October 24 the Bulgarians captured Kirk Kilisse, and soon afterwards won the five days' battle of Lule Burgas. The Serbs routed the Turks at Kumanovo and at Monastir ; while, on November 8, the Young Turk officers brought about the surrender of Salonika to the Greeks, when the Bulgars were close by, the calculation being that the town and the manner of its surrender would prove an apple of discord between Greek and Bulgarian. On December 3 an armistice was signed at Chatalja by Turkey and the three Slav States, while Greece continued hostilities. A Conference of all five was arranged, and met at St. James's Palace, London, on December 16, while a meeting of the Ambassadors of the Great Powers was held, under

the presidency of Sir Edward Grey. The Turks, bent on splitting the Balkan Allies, put forward obviously inadmissible demands, and adopted dilatory tactics, while Italy and Austria, backed by Germany and a section of public opinion in England, opposed the Serbian claim to a port on the Albanian coast—a course which, as pointed out by Prince Lichnowsky in his recently-published memoirs, forced Serbia to look southward to the Vardar Valley, and was thus the indirect cause of the Serbo-Bulgarian cleavage, and consequently of the Second Balkan War.

On January 17, 1913, the Powers sent a note to the Porte, advising the cession of Adrianople to the Balkan States, and inviting the Turkish Government to entrust to Europe the settlement of the Aegean Islands question. On January 22 a Grand Council at Constantinople practically agreed to the cession; but on the following day Enver Pasha, who had returned from Benghazi, brought off a *coup d'état* at the Porte, where the Generalissimo, Nazim Pasha, was assassinated. On January 29 the Balkan delegates declared the *pour-parlers* at an end, and on February 3 the armistice ended, and the war was renewed. Enver Pasha commanded an expedition, which, landing at Charkeui, on the Marmora coast, was to have effected a junction with the Gallipoli army and to have advanced to the relief of Adrianople. Both forces were defeated in detail by the Bulgars with heavy loss; and on March 26 Adrianople was taken by storm by the Bulgarian besieging forces, aided by Serbian heavy artillery.

On March 6 King George of Greece was assassinated at Salonika, while Yanina had fallen to the Greeks. The new King, Constantine, concentrated his forces in the Salonika district, as if directed against the Bulgarians. Skirmishes took place between the two armies at Chaiaghzi and Nigrita.

On May 30 Turkey signed in London a treaty of peace drafted by the Ambassadors' Conference, by which she ceded to the Balkan Allies all the territory lying to the north-west of a line between Enos and Midia, as also the island of Crete. On June 29 the Bulgarians attacked the Serbs and Greeks, who, with the assistance of Montenegro and Rumania, defeated them and drove them back on Sofia. The Turks, despite their assurances that they would not violate the Treaty of London, advanced under the command of Enver Pasha and retook Adrianople from the weak Bulgarian garrison; and Bulgaria, after the Treaty of Bucarest, by which she had to surrender further territory to Rumania, Serbia, and Greece, was compelled to send delegates to Constantinople to conclude a final peace with Turkey (September 16/29, 1913), retroceding to the latter the Adrianople and Kirk Kilisse district north of the Enos-Midia line.

The Young Turks had also occupied Western Thrace with bands of irregulars, who had massacred the local villagers and set up the 'Independent Government of Gumuljina'; but they restored this territory to Bulgaria on the condition that its inhabitants, who were mainly Mohammedan, should receive equal political rights with the rest of Bulgaria. By this show of generosity and magnanimity they established a contrast between the terms they imposed on Bulgaria and the harsher conditions exacted from her at Bucarest by her whilom allies. The fourteen Moslem deputies returned by Western Thrace practically held the balance in the Bulgarian Sobranye; and, as Talaat Pasha comes from that district, he virtually controlled the destinies of the Bulgarian Ministry of Dr. Radoslavoff. The inner meaning of the transaction only became apparent when Turkey had entered the world-war in November 1914, and when, during the Gallipoli opera-

tions, the fate of the Straits and of the Turkish capital, with the enormous Russian and other issues dependent thereon, rested with the Radoslavoff majority in the Bulgarian Chamber.

(21) RELATIONS WITH THE POWERS, 1913-14

Towards the end of 1913 the *Entente* diplomatic circles in Constantinople were stirred by the announcement that Turkey had handed over the executive command of her capital and the Dardanelles to the German General Liman von Sanders. The appointment appeared to indicate the existence of a secret military convention with Germany. Russia protested vigorously, but Britain and France were inclined to attach less importance to an event the full significance of which was subsequently to be revealed.

Turkey refused to accept the award of the Powers concerning the Greek islands of Lemnos, Mitylene, Scio, &c., purchased two battleships in England, and was apparently preparing for a war with Greece, while endeavouring to secure the co-operation of Bulgaria by holding out to the latter the prospect of securing the possession of Macedonia as the result of joint action. Whether Bulgaria was actually bound by any definite instrument has not yet (October 1918) transpired; but the general result of Turkey's dealings with Bulgaria was to give the policy of the latter country a Turco-German orientation, especially as the *Entente* Powers had championed the cause of Serbia, Greece, and Rumania as embodied in the Treaty of Bucarest. In 1915 Turkey for similar reasons ceded to Bulgaria the Maritza railway strip, when Serbia had refused the cession of territory in Bulgaria's favour advised but not enforced by the *Entente*.

The *Goeben* visited Constantinople in June 1914; and when, in July, Germany declared war on Russia

and the world-war supervened, Turkey at once ordered a general mobilization, a course which was obviously unnecessary in view of the guarantees which the *Entente* Powers offered to give her. A further indication of her policy was the 'acquisition' of the *Goeben* and *Breslau* to replace the two Turkish war-ships which Great Britain had requisitioned on the outbreak of war. Turkey allowed them to enter the Dardanelles under the German flag, thus violating the international treaties governing the Straits, and shortly afterwards abolished the Capitulations and foreign post offices in the Ottoman Empire.

#### (22) YOUNG TURK WAR AIMS

The underlying ideas which drove the Young Turks to provoke a war with the British Empire, Russia, and France are set forth in the circular sent out by them to the provinces on the day following the declaration of war between Turkey and the Triple *Entente* Powers. After an allusion to Russia's secular resolve to destroy Turkey, it suggested that England and France, owing to their 'grabbing' policy in India, Egypt, Tunis, Algeria, Morocco, &c., had become the implacable foes of Turkey and Islam, while Turco-German interests coincided 'in an anti-Slav brotherhood'. It went on :

'Are we to remain idle while our natural allies are at war with Russia—our sworn, irreconcilable, and eternal enemy? Will not victory for the Triple *Entente* be to us a sentence of death? We must not forget that our participation in the world-war would not take place solely to defend ourselves against threatened ruin; it would also represent something far nearer to our hearts—the vindication of our national ideal. The national ideal of our nation and people leads us, on the one hand, towards the destruction of the Muscovite enemy, in order to obtain thereby a natural frontier to our Empire, which should include and unite all branches of our race. On the other hand, our religious principles urge us to free the

Mohammedan world from the power of the unbelievers, and to give independence to the followers of Mahomet.'

These were the Young Turk war aims, i. e. Pan-Turanianism and Pan-Islamism; and, by entering the war and closing the Dardanelles, the Young Turks hold, and perhaps rightly, that they were the main factor in bringing about the defeat and collapse of Russia, which opened up to them the prospect of establishing Pan-Turanianism in the Caucasus, Persia, and Central Asia. The Pan-Islamic aim has so far been checked by the revolt of the Arabs, and by the British occupation of Baghdad, Jerusalem, and Damascus; while Zionism is also a movement which seriously embarrasses their plans. With the destruction of the Russian Empire and the extermination of the Armenians, together with the partial elimination of the Greek and Lebanese Christian elements, the Young Turks believed that the roots of all interference with them would have been removed; and, as they calculated that at the end of the world-war Germany would be exhausted, they expected to emerge from the war a relatively stronger and healthier Power than if they had remained neutral. They hoped to attain, by direct or indirect means, the withdrawal of the British from Mesopotamia and Palestine, a success which would have left them free to deal with the Arab revolt; while they calculated that a revolution in Bulgaria would give them the opportunity of easily regaining their old position in Europe. Had the Young Turk ideal of repeating under modern conditions the Turanian conquests of Jenghiz Khan and Tamerlane been realized, Aryan civilization, which Russia has introduced into enormous tracts of Central Asia, and which Great Britain has developed in India, might eventually have been seriously jeopardized.

### III. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

#### (A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

##### (1) INTERNAL

###### (a) Roads

*Thrace.*—Few metalled roads exist in Thrace, and some of these have only been completed since the beginning of the Balkan Wars. The majority have a width of 26 ft., with metalling for 20 ft.

Of metalled roads, the main road from Constantinople to Adrianople has been largely superseded by the Oriental Railway, but it is still of military importance, and has been reconstructed for that reason. On leaving Constantinople, the road runs near the coast, crossing the entrances of the Kuchuk Chekmeje lake and the lagoon of Buyuk Chekmeje, until it reaches Silivri. Thence it strikes across country to Chorlu, Lule Burgas, and Baba Eski, where it meets a metalled branch road, constructed for military purposes, which runs to Kirk Kilisse, Derekeui, and Tirnovojik. The main road goes direct from Baba Eski to Adrianople. About five miles from Adrianople it is joined by a metalled road from Kirk Kilisse, which was also constructed for military purposes.

In the south-west there exists a further system of metalled military roads. The first starts from Uzun Köprü on the Oriental Railway, and runs south to Keshan and thence to Gallipoli. Another, from Keshan

to Malgara, has recently been completed; and similar roads lead from Malgara to Rodosto, and from Rodosto to Muradli, which is a station on the Oriental Railway.

There is also a military road behind the Chatalja lines, which form the land defences of Constantinople. The southern part, which was not constructed till 1913, starts at the coast on the eastern side of the bay of Buyuk Chekmeje, skirts the eastern shore of the lagoon of Buyuk Chekmeje, and from thence runs to Hademkeui on the railway. Hademkeui is a military depot and staff head-quarters. Thence the road continues at the back of the Chatalja fortifications until it reaches Lake Derkos and Kara Burnu on the Black Sea.

Towards the northern end of the Chatalja lines, the military road is joined by an ordinary road, not metalled, leading to Pera and Constantinople. This runs south-east, crosses the Valley of the Sweet Waters at the end of the Golden Horn, and leads to Pera, Galata, and Stambul.

There is also an old road, not metalled, which leads from Kirk Kilisse to Bunar-Hissar, Vize, Serai, and Chorlu, which is on the Oriental Railway.

All other roads are at best well-worn tracks, only passable for native carts and ox-wagons, generally winding along the summits of the hills or high ground, inches deep in dust during the summer, and full of deep mud holes in the winter.

*Vilayet of Constantinople.*—Few metalled roads exist in the vilayet of Constantinople. In the city itself and in Scutari the main roads have been paved, during the last generation, with granite blocks, which have been found an enormous improvement on the old system of paving.

Apart from the first stretch of the road to Adrianople, which lies within the vilayet, there are various metalled roads leading from Pera to Buyukdere on the Bosphorus and other villages. These roads run parallel

to the Bosphorus. There is no metalled road leading away from the Bosphorus to the interior or to the Black Sea coast.

On the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus, with the exception of roads leading along the shore and from Scutari to various villages on the Straits, the only metalled road runs from Scutari to the village of Ermenikeui in the forest of Alem Dagh. This road was originally built by Sultan Abdul Aziz to lead to a shooting lodge in the woods. In 1911 it was decided to connect it with a road starting from Chile on the Black Sea. This plan formed part of a scheme in the hands of a French group of concessionnaires. Its completion was interrupted by the Balkan Wars, although it was nearly finished. It is believed that another metalled road has been constructed during the present war leading from Beikos on the Bosphorus to Ermenikeui, and thence to Samandra and on towards Gebze in the Gulf of Ismid. This road would be for purely military use, so that troops arriving by rail from the interior would detrain at Gebze and march to Beikos for the northern end of the Bosphorus, instead of detraining at Haidar Pasha, and proceeding thence by steamer up the Bosphorus.

A metalled road, some seven miles in length, leads from Scutari to Bostandji. This, with its branches, owes its existence to the efforts of the Anatolian Railway to develop its suburban service.

An old caravan route called the Baghdad road leaves Scutari and passes along the shores of the Sea of Marmora towards Ismid, but it is no longer used, being partly cut into by the Anatolian Railway, which follows the same line. This road is simply a dusty, uneven track in summer, and a sea of mud in winter, like the roads, whether on the European or Asiatic side, leading to the inland villages.

*(b) Waterways*

*Rivers.* With the exception of the Maritza, which is now the boundary between Bulgaria and Turkey from above Adrianople to the sea, there are no navigable streams in European Turkey or the vilayet of Constantinople. The Maritza is navigable as far as Adrianople for small flat-bottomed boats at all seasons, and for larger boats up to 30 tons from about October to June. Its average depth is from 7 to 10 feet; its bed is sandy; and as no attempt is made to keep the river in its bed, it continually changes its course, splitting up into small channels. It has a current of about two knots. There are no rapids, and the river is only fordable in a very dry season.

*The Straits of the Bosphorus,* commonly called the Bosphorus, divide the vilayet of Constantinople into two parts. The European side is generally spoken of in Turkish as the Rumelian side, and the Asiatic side as the Anatolian. The length of the Straits is about 16 nautical miles. At the Marmora entrance the width is about 3,200 yards, and at the Black Sea entrance about 4,000 yards. The narrowest point is between Rumeli-Hissar and Anatoli-Hissar, where the width is only 1,200 yards. The average depth of the Bosphorus is over 30 fathoms, the greatest depth (53 fathoms) being found at its narrowest parts. The water is deep quite close to the shores, which from end to end rise sharply and steeply to small hills intersected with deep ravines.

The main or constant current runs from the Black Sea to the Sea of Marmora. Its surface speed varies, but a normal current is between two and three knots an hour, except at certain points and in the narrow part, where it increases in speed. With strong northerly winds the current runs down to the Sea of Marmora at

from five to six knots an hour. Sometimes a surface current runs up from the Sea of Marmora to the Black Sea, but only after a prevalence of southerly winds. The northerly winds and current leave backwaters and eddies in the bays and behind the points of the Bosphorus, but the southerly current leaves no backwater. The entrance to the Bosphorus from the Black Sea is fully exposed to the north-west, north, and north-east winds, and is a somewhat difficult place for mariners to make in misty or stormy weather, owing to the current and the difficulty of finding the entrance.

The passenger service of the Bosphorus is in the hands of a Turkish Société Anonyme called the 'Compagnie de Navigation Chirket-Hairie' (Bosphorus Steam Navigation Co.), which has been granted a monopoly of this traffic. The company is a purely Turkish one in the sense that only Turkish subjects are capable of holding shares. The capital is £T200,000 (£182,000) divided into 40,000 shares of £T5 each. The company owns a good many boats, and its service is very creditably carried out. The steamers start from alongside the Galata bridge.

There is another company called the 'Société Anonyme Ottomane de Bateaux de la Corne d'Or', which has a concession for the passenger service of the Golden Horn. This company was formed in 1910 to take over the then existing service. Although its shareholders are under the terms of the concession to be Ottoman subjects, it is in reality owned and controlled by the Deutsche Orient Bank through Ottoman subjects who are its nominees.

The Mahsoussie Steamship Company, which is a Government-owned concern, runs steamers to the Princes Islands and the Asiatic coast of the Marmora, including Kadikeui and Haidar Pasha. The Deutsche Bank, through the Anatolian Railway Company, ad-

vanced to the Mahsoussie Company the necessary funds for the building of three steamers in Germany for the passenger and luggage service between Constantinople and the railway terminus at Haidar Pasha port. The Germans were not able, however, to obtain a definite concession for the working of these boats as part of the railway system, although they tried hard to obtain the privilege.

(c) *Railways*

(i) *Systems, Routes, Relations to Government, Finance, &c.*

*The Oriental Railway (Société Anonyme des Chemins de fer Orientaux).*—Since 1913 this company has become entirely a Turkish Société Anonyme. Its original concession dated from 1872, when it was granted the right to build about 1,000 kilometres of line: (1) from Constantinople to old Bulgaria, and (2) from Salonica to the Serbian frontier. Up to 1889 the line was not open beyond Belova, 240 kilometres beyond Adrianople, but in that year it was joined up with the Bulgarian lines, and so gave direct railway communication between Constantinople and central and western Europe. The gauge is 4 ft. 8½ in. The length of the line to Adrianople is 318 kilometres (198 miles). The distance by road is only about 148 miles. From Kuleli Burgas, on the Maritza, the line now runs in Bulgarian territory, so that its length in Turkey is only 280 kilometres (174 miles). The railway was built by the group controlled by Baron Hirsch. It was badly constructed, and sharp curves are numerous, as the slightest gradients were avoided whenever possible. In consequence trains can only travel at a very slow pace. The track is single, except between Constantinople and Kuchuk Chekmeje. The doubling of this part was

begun in 1911, but owing to the Balkan Wars was still unfinished in August 1914.

At Constantinople the railway enters the city close to the sea by the Seven Towers (Yedi Kule), where the company has its depots and workshops. The line skirts the sea shore just within the old sea walls, and comes round Seraglio Point to the shore of the Golden Horn, where its terminus is at Sirkidji, close to the sea. The railway is cramped for room at this station, and has great need of facilities for sidings at a more convenient place. The company has consequently favoured the construction of an artificial port on the Marmora side of Stambul, which would allow it to have sidings at Yedi Kule and Psamatia (*see* Ports).

Near Baba Eski, 143 miles from Constantinople, there is a branch line to Kirk Kilisse, opened to traffic in 1912; its length is 50 kilometres ( $31\frac{1}{2}$  miles). This line is of military importance.

It was reported in November 1917 that a line (probably of narrow gauge) was in course of construction from Pavlo Keui, 250 kilometres (156 miles) from Constantinople, to Keshan. This line was complete from Pavlo Keui to Kadikeui, a village which is a little more than half-way to Keshan, and work was reported to be well advanced on the remainder of the track. Its object was, no doubt, to transport coal from the coal mine in the valley north of Keshan.

The controlling interest in the Oriental Railway is in the hands of Austrians and Germans. The bulk of the share capital is held by the Banque des Chemins de fer Orientaux, a Swiss company formed in Zürich by the Deutsche Bank, the Schweizerische Kreditanstalt, and the Wiener Bankverein for the purpose, amongst others, of taking over the 88,000 shares of the company belonging to the late Baron Hirsch.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> See below, p. 137.

The *Anatolian Railway Company* (*Société des Chemins de fer d'Anatolie*) is a Turkish *Société Anonyme*, but the majority of its shares are in German hands. It has its terminus at Haidar Pasha, a suburb of Scutari. The railway station and sidings are on the property of the Haidar Pasha Port and Quay Company (*Société Anonyme Ottomane du Port de Haidar Pasha*) near the entrance of the Bosphorus.

The Anatolian Railway Company was originally formed with the object of building a line to Bagdad<sup>1</sup> through Angora. The term of the original concession was for 99 years dating from 1889. By a subsequent arrangement, all the company's concessions were to run for 99 years as from 1903. The line to Angora was opened in 1892, but the plan of extending it to Bagdad was abandoned about 1893, and the company obtained a concession for the extension of its line from Eski-Cheir to Konia, a distance of 276 miles. This section was completed in 1896. Konia is the starting-point of the Bagdad railway, constructed by a company technically distinct from the Anatolian Railway Company, but really under the same control.

In 1898 the Anatolian Railway Company obtained a further concession for the construction of a branch line from Hamidie station (on the Haidar Pasha-Eski-Cheir line) to the city of Adabazar, about 6 miles distant. In 1911 a concession was obtained for an extension of the Adabazar branch to Bolu. Work was begun in 1912.

The track is single throughout the system, except between Haidar Pasha and Pendik, the doubling of which, begun in 1912, was not complete in 1914. The gauge is 4 ft. 8½ in. The metals are laid on transverse iron sleepers and well ballasted.

In September 1917 the terminus and warehouses

<sup>1</sup> See, for further details, *Mesopotamia*, No. 63 in this series.

at Haidar Pasha were destroyed by an explosion of munitions stored in the station, the damage being estimated at £160,000.

The capital of the company is controlled by the Deutsche Bank and its group, and amounts to £5,400,000, divided into shares of £20 each. 10,000 shares are fully paid up, 125,000 have £12 called up, and 135,000 have £5 called up. The shares are to 'Bearer', and are subject to redemption at the rate of about 100 a year. Those drawn participate in surplus dividends in excess of 5 per cent. per annum. The amount outstanding in 1914 was £5,318,000. There have been various issues of debentures, amounting in all to some £8,800,000.

An annual gross revenue is guaranteed by the Turkish Government. For the Haidar Pasha–Ismid section ( $57\frac{1}{4}$  miles) this is calculated at the rate of 10,300 fr. per kilometre (£659 a mile). From Ismid to Angora (302 miles) the rate is 15,000 fr. per kilometre (£960 a mile). For the section Eski-Cheir–Konie the Government has undertaken to pay yearly such an amount, not exceeding £T296·31 per kilometre (£434 a mile), as may be necessary to bring the gross traffic receipts up to £T604 per kilometre (£885 a mile). If the receipts on any of these lines amount to more than the sum guaranteed, the Government is to receive 25 per cent. of the excess. Special tithes of certain provinces were assigned to the Ottoman Public Debt as security for the payment of these guarantees. The Adabazar–Bolu branch is guaranteed at the same rate as the Ismid–Angora section. In this case, however, the security is an annual charge of £140,000 on the receipts of the Constantinople Customs House. This sum is paid in half-yearly instalments into the Deutsche Bank, which pays interest and refunds any sum not required for the guarantee.

The railway system had so developed the country through which it passed that in 1912 the company had no need to call on the Government in respect of the Haidar Pasha—Angora and Eski-Cheir—Konia sections. On the contrary, the Government in that year received from the excess profits of the Haidar Pasha—Angora line £36,000, and from those of the Eski-Cheir—Konia line £4,000. Since then the returns of the company have always been in excess of the amount guaranteed. The *Berliner Tageblatt* of July 6, 1917, states that in 1916 the Turkish Government's share of excess profits was £180,000. It must be remembered, however, that the company's receipts in 1916 must have been derived mainly from military traffic.

*Metropolitan Railway of Constantinople.*—From Galata to Pera at Constantinople, there is a short underground cable railway originally called the 'Chemin de fer Métropolitain de Constantinople entre Galata et Péra'. The concession was formerly in British hands, but on its renewal in 1911 it passed under the control of the Deutsche Orient Bank, whose president, Dr. Hartmann, is also president of the railway company. The railway was acquired with the ostensible object of working it in conjunction with the tramways of Constantinople, also under German control. The company is a Turkish Société Anonyme, with a capital of £250,000, divided into 12,500 shares of £20 each, fully called up.

(ii) *Adequacy to economic needs*

The Oriental Railway is the main trunk line from the Near East to central and western Europe. From the standpoint of Turkish commerce, however, it is much less important than the Anatolian Railway. The region through which it passes is thinly populated and on the whole unfertile; it was moreover traversed

by the Russian armies in 1878 and by the Bulgarians in 1912. The fertile districts near the Marmora coast export their products by sea. It is not likely that the line will ever be much used for the carriage to central and western Europe of raw materials produced in Asia Minor, as it is cheaper to send such goods by sea, especially in view of the inconvenience of transshipment at Constantinople. On the other hand, the line carries many goods imported into Turkey from Germany, Austria, and Bulgaria. Through rates for such goods were already fixed before the war, and efforts will doubtless be made to secure still more favourable terms for the trade of central Europe. The traffic of the railway would probably be largely increased by the construction of the proposed port on the Marmora side of Stambul (see p. 85).

As for the Anatolian Railway, there can be no doubt that it has a great future before it. The opening of further branches and extensions would soon make it necessary to double the existing track in order to cope with the traffic. It must be remembered that the interior of Asia Minor has neither roads nor navigable rivers. In former times the peasant cultivated enough for his needs and no more. It may be true that he is naturally indolent, but a more important cause of his want of enterprise was the impossibility of disposing of his surplus produce. In the districts traversed by the railway, this obstacle has been removed, and of late years the Anatolian peasant has shown that he is quick to learn and ready to use his opportunities. The railway has also mitigated the danger of famine, formerly very serious, as it is now possible for the products of a prosperous region to be sent to parts where the harvest has failed. A striking indication of the benefits conferred by the railway is given by the returns of the tithes collected by the

Ottoman Public Debt, which in certain parts near the line yield five or six times the amount collected before the railway was built. It is not that the population has appreciably increased; on the contrary, the inhabitants of districts near the railway are always the first to be mobilized in time of war.

(d) *Posts, Telegraphs, &c.*

Until the revolution in 1908 no local post existed in Turkey for the delivery of letters, although post-cards were allowed to be sent, for the reason that any one could read them. The inadequacy of the postal arrangements was due to the Sultan Abdul Hamid, who feared communication by letter amongst his subjects. The post for the interior of Turkey was badly managed during his reign, and the officials were corrupt and dishonest. Not only was every letter for the interior opened and censored, but a huge system of robbery went on, especially of notes or money-orders arriving from the United States. For this abuse there was no redress.

Even after the revolution only post-cards were allowed locally, but in the period shortly before the war matters had vastly improved, and mails were being received and dispatched with regularity, though the honesty of the employees still left much to be desired. The great improvement which took place was in dealing with mails for abroad, and was largely owing to the desire of the Turks to compete with the foreign post offices.

*Foreign Post Offices.*—Under the Capitulations, various European Powers maintained their own post offices in Constantinople. There were six of these foreign post offices—the British, with a head office at Galata and a branch office at Stambul, and the German, Austrian, French, Italian and Russian, each with

a head office at Galata and branch offices at Pera and Stambul. There were also letter boxes at various clubs, hotels, restaurants, shipping offices, and shops, which were cleared twice daily. The foreign post offices were for the use of foreigners only, no Turk being allowed to use them; they did not accept letters for the local post, or forward letters from abroad into the interior of the country; they had, however, branch post offices in the principal ports of the Turkish Empire, such as Smyrna, Salonika, and Beyrout.

The foreign post office privilege had always been a very thorny question with the Turks, and from the later years of Abdul Hamid's reign until the abrogation of the Capitulations the difficulty was acute. With the beginning of the European War the Turks seized the opportunity to withdraw the privilege. On September 8, 1914, the Young Turks notified the foreign embassies of the abrogation of the Capitulations as from October 1, 1914, and from that date the foreign post offices were closed.

*Mails.*—Mails from Europe arrived at Constantinople (i) once a day by the train from Vienna called the 'Conventional', (ii) three times a week by the 'Orient' Express from Ostend and Paris, *via* Vienna. Both these services brought mails from England, France, and other European countries (with the exception of Italy, Spain, Portugal and Russia), and also American mails *via* England. The bags were taken over at the Constantinople railway station by the employees of the respective foreign post offices. American mails were handed over to the Turkish authorities for distribution. (iii) Mails from Europe also arrived by the 'Constanza' Express and the Rumanian State steamers twice a week. Mails for departure by rail left Constantinople by the same routes and with the same frequency as the incoming mails. Great competition existed between

the foreign post offices for the conveyance of parcels.

*Telegraphs.*—The Ottoman service of telegraphs is under the Ministry of Post and Telegraphs at Constantinople, and is fairly complete throughout the Empire. There is a local service for Constantinople and its suburbs at the low rate of 5*d.* for twenty words.

The Ottoman telegraph service accepts telegrams for abroad for transmission over its lines at a slightly lower rate than the various foreign lines in communication with Constantinople. Of the latter, the Eastern Telegraph Company owns the Odessa–Indo line and the Tenedos–Syra line, and the German Ost-Europäische Telegraphen-Gesellschaft owns the Constanza line. The latter cable communicates direct with Constanza, and it is advertised that ‘all telegrams are transmitted direct from Pera to Berlin’, from whence they are dispatched to their destination. All telegrams have to be submitted to the censorship, and until very recently all messages in code were refused except for the diplomatic service of the various Powers. Subsequently one or two well-recognized codes were allowed to be used. The administration of the Turkish telegraph service, with the exception of its local Constantinople service, has always been fairly efficient.

*Telephones.*—Before 1911 no public telephone system existed in Turkey, although after 1908 the Government itself instituted its own telephones between the various Departments of State and public offices. A concession was granted for the term of 30 years on May 6, 1911, for the purpose of constructing and operating a general telephone system in Constantinople and its suburbs. In accordance with the terms of the concession, the ‘Société Anonyme Ottomane des Téléphones de Constantinople’ was incorporated under Turkish law. The group forming the company was an

Anglo-French one, but British interests predominated. There were clauses in the convention by which the Government from the tenth year onwards had the option of buying the system at a premium, but if the concession was not bought out by the Government at the expiry of the 30 years, the term became extended for another 10 years. The Turkish Government receives a royalty of 15 per cent. of the gross telephone revenue. The capital is £450,000 in shares of £5 each, of which £250,000 has been subscribed and paid up.

The telephone service in Pera, Galata, and Stambul was opened to the public in 1913, and shortly afterwards extended to Scutari and Kadikeui. The prospects of the company appeared to be excellent, as up to the time of the war the returns were most satisfactory and far surpassed all preliminary calculations.

*Wireless.*—No wireless system existed in Constantinople until 1913, when wireless telegraphy was introduced into the army under the direction of General Liman von Sanders and other German officers engaged in the reorganization of the Turkish military forces. A central station was then set up at the War Office in Stambul. Shortly after the beginning of the war, but before the entry of Turkey, a wireless installation was set up at the Ok-Meidan, the heights above the Admiralty in the Golden Horn, not far from Pera. This was under military control and German direction.

## (2) EXTERNAL

### (a) Ports and Roadsteads

(i) *Accommodation.*—Approach to Constantinople and the Marmora coast of Thrace has been much hampered by the formalities required by the Turkish Government. No ship may pass through the Dardanelles or the Bosphorus without authorization by firman. The necessary documents have to be

obtained at Chanak by ships from the Mediterranean, and at Kavak by ships from the Black Sea, and they are of course issued only after inspection of ships' papers. Not only is considerable delay thus caused, but ships have to wait under somewhat dangerous conditions, which are a source of many accidents. Further inconvenience is occasioned by the rule that permission to enter the Dardanelles is not granted between sunset and sunrise, so that vessels arriving at the entrance at night have to wait outside, whatever the weather. At night, moreover, no ship may leave the Dardanelles except by special permission. Before the war, however, some of the disadvantages which formerly arose from the regulations had been mitigated, mainly through the exertions of the British Consulate; it was, for example, no longer necessary for ships' officers to go ashore at Chanak and Kavak, the Government officials coming alongside.

### *Thrace*

Rodosto is the only considerable port in Thrace. It has no harbour, but only an open roadstead, exposed to east and south-east winds. Rodosto exports cereals and seeds, which are brought down in summer by the peasants of the interior. Its exports amount to over £300,000 a year, and its imports, consisting of general merchandise, to £700,000. Before the war the population was mostly Christian, and had been subjected to much ill treatment during and after the Balkan Wars.

### *Constantinople*

Constantinople is by its situation an admirable seaport, but full advantage has not been taken of its natural facilities, owing to the indolence and carelessness of the Turkish Government. The port proper

is divided into three sections—the Outer Port, the Commercial Port, and the Inner Port or Port of War.

The *Outer Port* lies between the entrance of the Golden Horn and the first bridge, known as the Karakeui bridge. Its width at the eastern end, from Old Seraglio Point on the Stambul side to Topkhane on the Galata side, is about 1,300 yds., and at the bridge end nearly 600 yds. The water is deep, varying from 22 fathoms on the Stambul side to 19 on the Galata side. The current, which sets westward on the Stambul side and eastward on the Galata side, is at times dangerous, but not often. Though vessels of the greatest draught can use the Outer Port, the space is somewhat cramped for manœuvring.

The Outer Port is buoyed for merchant steamers only, the various sets of buoys being generally allotted to the regular lines, which load and discharge cargoes with the assistance of barges, lighters, and pontoons.

On the Stambul side, from the Scutari ferry to the bridge, is the quay constructed by the Société Anonyme Ottomane des Quais, Docks, et Entrepôts de Constantinople. The length of the quay is about 400 yds., and behind it is the principal Customs House, with its depots, bonded warehouses, &c. This quay is generally used only for loading and discharging cargo. Though the water is deep enough for steamers to come alongside, the length of the quay is not sufficient to permit them to do so in normal circumstances. In consequence they generally have their sterns moored to the quay and their bows to buoys, using lighters and pontoons for transferring cargo.

On the Galata side, the quays extend for a length of about 800 yds., from the end of the so-called Arsenal quay to the bridge. The Galata Customs House, with

its dependent buildings, lies between the centre of the quays and the Arsenal. Vessels come alongside, and these quays are therefore used especially by mail and passenger steamers.

From the Karakeui bridge start the local steamers for the Bosphorus, the Princes Islands, and elsewhere. These are purely passenger services.

The Société Anonyme Ottomane des Quais, Docks, et Entrepôts de Constantinople was established under imperial concession in 1891, with a capital of £720,000. It was originally controlled by a French group, but a few years ago His Majesty's Government became interested in it, and it may now be described as an Anglo-French concern, though the management is still chiefly French.

The insufficiency of the facilities for shipping in the Outer Port has often been a subject of remonstrance on the part of foreign Governments. In 1913 the question was submitted to a commission of inquiry presided over by the Ministry of Commerce. Foreign merchants, shipping agents, and the foreign Chambers of Commerce were invited to give evidence. The subject of lighters, which had been a fruitful source of grievances, was discussed, and certain recommendations were made for the extension of the quays and the building of new warehouses. Little or nothing, however, had been done before the outbreak of war.

The *Port of Commerce* lies between the two bridges over the Golden Horn. A clear passage is kept down the centre of the Outer Port for ships bound for the Port of Commerce, and the Karakeui bridge, which is a floating bridge, opens for the passage of vessels.

The Port of Commerce varies in length from 1,100 to 1,200 yds., the Stambul side being longer than the Galata side. Its breadth, which varies little, is between 500 and 600 yds. In depth it is adequate for the

largest ships, but as the only quays are privately owned, few steamers enter except for discharging coal or undergoing minor repairs. The Port of Commerce, however, is largely used by small sailing-craft, which arrive from the Black Sea, the Sea of Marmora, and the Aegean Islands with local produce, and both shores are generally lined with such craft. As a rule, there are also many lighters, barges, and pontoons in this section of the port, waiting their turn at the Customs or at the ships in the Outer Port.

The *Inner Port* or *Port of War* extends from the inner or second bridge to the limit of navigation in the Golden Horn. The floating bridge at the entrance opens to admit the passage of ships. The greatest width of the Inner Port is 800 yds., and for about a mile from the bridge the water is deep.

On the Stambul side there are no quays properly so called, but along the shore there are a certain number of warehouses which use small craft for purposes of transport.

On the Galata side are the Admiralty works, the Ministry of Marine, the naval docks, slips, &c. The centre and northern side of the Inner Port is reserved for Turkish war-ships and Government vessels. At the bridge end there are three dry docks, two of which are generally available for any ships requiring repairs. The third is commonly reserved for the Turkish navy, but is on occasion used by other vessels. These are the only dry docks in the Turkish Empire.

In 1911 a local group of capitalists obtained a concession for the construction of a floating dock, with workshops and repairing plant, at the small port or bay of Stenia in the Bosphorus, some eight miles from Constantinople, and a company called the *Société Anonyme Ottomane des Docks et Ateliers du Haut Bosphore* was formed with a capital of £160,000. In

1913 the first dock, built by a British firm, was opened ; it is 490 ft. long and 95 ft. broad, and has a lifting capacity of 8,500 tons. From the first it was in continual use. A project was then formed for bringing the Stenia dock and those in the Golden Horn under one control, and on December 2, 1913, an agreement was concluded between the Turkish Government and the Armstrong and Vickers group for the formation of a company to be known as the Société Impériale Ottomane Co-intéressée de Docks, Arsenaux et Constructions Navales. This company, which acquired control of the Stenia dock, was to take over and reorganize the dockyards in the Golden Horn, and to construct at Ismid a floating dock of a capacity of 32,000 tons, and building and repairing yards for the navy. The term of the concession was thirty years. The board was composed of five British and four Turkish directors. The capital consisted of £200,000 in ordinary nominative shares, three-fifths of which were to be held by the Turkish Government, and £50,000 in privileged shares, to be held by the British group. The company was empowered to issue £1,100,000 5½ per cent. debentures, and the charges on these and on the privileged shares were secured, in case of insufficient profits, on the tithes of the province of Sivas, administered by the Ottoman Public Debt. Surplus profits were to be divided in the proportion of 40 per cent. to the shareholders and 60 per cent. to the Turkish Government.

### *The Bosphorus*

Outside the entrance of the Golden Horn there is a roadstead or anchorage, which extends northwards on the European side of the Bosphorus as far as Beshik Tash. It is about a mile in length, and about one-third of the Bosphorus in width. The anchorage is

fairly good as regards wind and holding, but at times it is very dangerous by reason of the currents. Near the shore the waters are generally dead, or with a slight northerly current, whereas farther out the current is the normal one of the Bosphorus, setting towards the Sea of Marmora. On a change of wind or weather, the currents vary in a most bewildering and dangerous way, and at such times many collisions occur. The roadstead is considered to be outside the port of Constantinople, and no port or buoy dues are charged. It is used by war-ships of foreign Powers, but principally by merchant vessels making a short stay in order to coal, take in provisions, or receive instructions.

At Buyukdere Bay, on the European side of the Bosphorus, about 12 miles from Constantinople, there is a fairly good roadstead and anchorage, well sheltered and almost free from currents. It is used by small steamers and sailing vessels. At Buyukdere there are repairing works and a gridiron slip for craft of small tonnage.

On the Asiatic side, almost opposite Buyukdere, is Majar Bay, more commonly known as Kavak Bay, where ships from the Black Sea have to show their papers and obtain firmans permitting them to pass through the Straits. There is also a health office at Kavak, and the bay is an anchorage for ships in quarantine. The currents are dangerous, and collisions are frequent.

At the southern entrance of the Bosphorus, under the Asiatic shore, is Leander's Tower Roadstead, commonly called the Scutari Anchorage. It is an open roadstead extending from just below Leander's Tower to a point almost opposite the British Cemetery at Haidar Pasha. Anchorage is good, and under normal conditions there is little current. The roadstead is exposed to south and south-west winds, but these

seldom blow strongly. It is chiefly used by steamers stopping at Constantinople for a few hours only, or waiting a favourable opportunity for entering the port.

On the Asiatic side of the southern entrance of the Bosphorus is Haidar Pasha Port. The port is artificial, formed by quays built out from the land; it has two large grain silos near the quays, and modern appliances. It is, however, already too small for its traffic; and the breakwater, which is about 650 yards long, running parallel with the coast, is clearly too short and too near the shore.

At Haidar Pasha is the terminus of the Anatolian Railway, which has the exclusive use of the port. The port is nominally owned, under imperial concession, by a Turkish Société Anonyme called the Société du Port de Haidar Pasha. This company was formed by nominees of the Anatolian Railway Company, and its shares are under the control of the Banque des Chemins de fer Orientaux (see p. 137). The president is K. Schrader, the vice-president A. von Gwinner, and among the directors are Dr. Julius Frey, Dr. K. Helfferich, O. Kaufmann, and Dr. K. Zander. The capital is £320,000. Only the debentures are on the market. The concession was granted for the same term as those of the Anatolian and Bagdad Railways. For some time before the war, the company offered preferential terms to German and Austrian steamers with general cargo for trans-shipment to the railway, and preferential through rates for goods from Germany and Austria.

(ii) *Statistics of Inward and Outward Tonnage.*—In the text and tables under this head (see Tables I–IV), the term Port of Constantinople must be understood as covering not only the port proper, in the Golden Horn, but also the port of Haidar Pasha and the anchorages near the entrance of the Golden Horn and off Scutari.

The statistics given in the tables indicated show clearly that at present the port of Constantinople owes its prosperity not so much to its intrinsic advantages as to its position in relation to the Black Sea. In 1913 Constantinople was the final destination of only about 10 per cent. of the ships arriving there from the Mediterranean and 17 per cent. of those arriving from the Black Sea. Of the rest a few discharged cargo at Constantinople, but the great majority left after exhibiting and receiving necessary papers, or, at most, taking in coal or provisions. In considering the statistical tables, it must of course be remembered that most of the ships sailing to or from the Black Sea are counted twice.

What has just been said applies equally to British shipping. Indeed, Constantinople was the final destination of only 8 per cent. of the British ships that entered the port from the Mediterranean in 1913, and but for the ships of the Khedivial Line, which sail from Egypt, the proportion would have been only 3.5 per cent. It is worthy of remark that less than 2.5 per cent. of the British ships sailing for the Black Sea arrived at Constantinople with cargo on board. The rest were in ballast, having discharged their cargo—probably coal—at Mediterranean ports, and were generally going to the Black Sea for a shipment of grain.

It is to be noted that 1913 was an abnormal year owing to the Balkan Wars, Greek shipping being specially affected. Unfortunately, complete statistics for the three previous years are not available.

TABLE I

## ARRIVALS AND CLEARANCES AT CONSTANTINOPE IN 1904 (EXCLUDING SAILING AND SMALL COASTING VESSELS)

	Arrived from and cleared for the Mediterranean.		Arrived from the Mediterranean and cleared for the Black Sea.		Arrived from the Black Sea and cleared for the Mediterranean.		Arrived from and cleared for the Black Sea.	
	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.
<i>Regular Mail Steamship Services:</i>								
British: Khedivial Mail Steamship Company	55	77,296	1	2,106	1	2,106	—	—
Austro-Hungarian: Austrian Lloyd Steam Navigation Company	86	119,095	139	204,886	141	208,780	7	9,410
French: Messageries Maritimes	45	91,326	44	75,196	45	76,907	—	—
" Fraissinet & Cie	8	10,951	16	22,651	17	23,572	—	—
Greek: Panhellenic Company	—	—	55	53,699	56	54,591	—	—
Italian: Florio Rubattino Line	5	8,140	113	192,510	112	190,901	—	—
Russian: Russian Steam Navigation and Trading Co.	—	—	158	265,129	155	259,657	114	82,581
Turkish: Mahsoussie Steamship Company	23	25,883	36	27,112	18	17,495	49	39,986
" Courtgi & Co.	79	23,245	35	16,506	33	12,492	39	29,034
<i>Other vessels:</i>								
British	92	141,388	1,897	3,536,718	1,894	3,530,497	1	1,203
Austro-Hungarian	1	1,995	188	350,715	187	350,132	17	9,820
German	11	28,815	155	241,905	153	240,904	1	1,389
Greek	191	45,798	915	1,092,554	910	1,097,013	18	10,432
Italian	8	8,397	236	356,001	236	356,157	—	—
Other nations	124	60,699	441	594,256	427	605,556	249	181,034
<i>Total.</i>	728	643,028	4,429	7,031,944	4,385	7,026,760	495	364,889

Total number of arrivals and clearances, 10,037; tonnage, 15,066,621.

TABLE II

ARRIVALS AND CLEARANCES AT CONSTANTINOPE IN 1913 (EXCLUDING SAILING AND SMALL COASTING VESSELS)

	Arrived from and cleared for the Mediterranean.		Arrived from the Mediterranean and cleared for the Black Sea.		Arrived from the Black Sea and cleared for the Mediterranean.		Arrived from and cleared for the Black Sea.	
	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.
<i>Regular Mail Steamship Services:</i>								
British: Khedivial Mail Steamship Company	82	163,634	—	—	—	—	—	—
Austro-Hungarian: Lloyd Steam Company	24	54,827	146	303,783	145	301,931	1	2,358
French: Messageries Maritimes	49	111,626	51	120,639	51	120,639	—	—
" Fraissinet & Cie	6	7,399	23	38,154	22	36,486	—	—
Italian: Società Italiana	—	—	8	16,011	8	15,086	—	—
" Società Italiana di Servizi Marittimi	25	32,594	61	100,251	63	103,291	—	—
Russian: Russian Navigation and Trading Co.	4	12,505	156	343,610	153	335,264	133	103,129
Turkish: Administration de Navigation à Vapeur Ottomane	19	39,337	—	—	—	—	185	230,087
<i>Other vessels:</i>								
British	58	82,647	1,521	3,175,307	1,504	3,172,443	20	6,108
Austro-Hungarian	16	13,449	308	660,410	306	659,503	32	20,567
German	23	9,004	217	430,216	213	426,898	6	11,084
Greek	10	5,694	319	496,790	317	495,857	5	2,706
Italian	8	11,157	392	618,409	388	616,185	8	3,600
Russian	2	658	277	389,337	257	375,263	85	48,724
Other nations	129	91,974	662	881,607	670	953,392	348	287,984
<i>Total.</i>	455	636,505	4,141	7,574,524	4,097	7,612,238	823	716,347

Total number of arrivals and clearances, 9,516; tonnage, 16,539,614.

TABLE III

## BRITISH AND OTHER SHIPS CALLING AT CONSTANTINOPLE FROM 1904 TO 1913

Flag.	No. of ships.	Tonnage.	Arrived from and cleared for the Mediterranean.	No. of ships.	Tonnage.	Arrived from the Mediterranean and cleared for the Black Sea.	No. of ships.	Tonnage.	Arrived from the Black Sea and cleared for the Mediterranean.	No. of ships.	Tonnage.	Arrived from and cleared for the Black Sea.	No. of ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Percentage of British shipping to the whole.
1904																	
British	147	218,684	1,898	1,895	3,538,824	1,736	1,783	3,532,603	1	1,203	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
All others	581	424,344	2,531	2,490	3,493,120	2,622	2,555	3,494,157	494	363,686	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1905																	
British	149	233,162	1,742	1,736	3,287,031	1,736	1,783	3,275,390	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
All others	553	452,563	2,647	2,622	3,650,956	2,622	2,555	3,638,540	347	248,038	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1906																	
British	138	229,534	1,785	1,783	3,492,360	1,783	1,783	3,484,066	5	2,110	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
All others	552	421,895	2,575	2,555	3,622,355	2,575	2,555	3,606,386	476	337,686	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1907																	
British	158	263,403	1,693	1,693	3,325,776	1,693	1,693	3,332,141	38	11,800	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
All others	664	427,685	2,453	2,411	3,491,706	2,453	2,411	3,473,616	520	368,558	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1908																	
British	144	252,268	1,310	1,296	2,569,587	1,296	1,296	2,563,671	37	13,507	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
All others	739	507,101	2,173	2,155	3,228,182	2,173	2,155	3,202,049	619	420,705	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1909																	
British	157	270,310	1,645	1,640	3,318,239	1,645	1,640	3,311,437	12	5,272	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
All others	684	540,397	2,657	2,578	3,800,235	2,657	2,578	3,868,059	703	442,381	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1910-12.	Figures not available.																
1913																	
British	140	246,281	1,521	1,504	3,175,307	1,521	1,504	3,172,443	20	6,108	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
All others	315	390,224	2,620	2,593	4,399,217	2,620	2,593	4,439,674	803	710,239	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

(iii) *Districts served.*—The importance of Constantinople as a port of call for ships engaged in the Black Sea trade has already been emphasized. Moreover, most of the imports and exports of Thrace, the Marmora basin, and the interior of Asia Minor pass through the port of Constantinople, where they are either discharged or shipped. Strictly speaking, however, Constantinople's relation to these regions is rather that of a distributing centre than that of a port. It is true that many consignments arrive at Haidar Pasha for immediate trans-shipment to the Anatolian Railway, but most goods arriving at Constantinople are consigned to firms there, and are forwarded, whether to other parts of Turkey or to foreign countries, only after sale—sometimes repeated sale—in the local market.

(iv) *Adequacy to economic needs: possibilities of development.*—It has already been pointed out that the ports and roadsteads at and near Constantinople are in many respects inadequate. There is reason to believe that shortly before the war the Oriental Railway contemplated the construction of a new port on the Marmora side of Stambul, where the railway runs very near the sea. Nothing definite had been decided when war broke out, but since then, it appears, various schemes have been drafted. The port, as generally conceived, would extend from Kum Kapu to Yedi Kule, and would be protected by a breakwater or series of breakwaters enclosing the Bay of Psamatia. There are no serious physical obstacles. The waters near the shore are not affected by the main current down the Bosphorus. The bottom shelves gradually. The harbour would be exposed only to south and south-west winds, which seldom blow with great force.

The accomplishment of this project would be of immense advantage to the railway. At present it

TABLE IV

## PRINCIPAL STEAMSHIP LINES SAILING TO OR CALLING AT CONSTANTINOPLE (1913)

<i>Nationality and name of line.</i>	<i>Loading port.</i>	<i>Frequency of service.</i>	<i>Outward ports of call.</i>
<i>British:</i> Ellerman Line	Liverpool	Weekly	Gibraltar, Malta, Corfu, Patras, Syra, Smyrna, Constantinople, and Black Sea ports.
Papayanni Line	Liverpool	Weekly	Gibraltar, Malta, Corfu, Patras, Syra, Smyrna, Constantinople, and Black Sea ports.
Westcott & Laurance Line	London	Fortnightly	Constantinople.
Wilson Line	Hull	Fortnightly	Constantinople and Russian Black Sea ports.
Cunard Line	Liverpool	Weekly	Mediterranean ports, Constantinople, and Black Sea ports.
Moss Line	Liverpool	Weekly	Mediterranean ports, Constantinople, and Black Sea ports.
Maclay & McIntyre Khedivial Mail Steamship Co.	Glasgow Alexandria	Monthly Weekly (mail and passenger service)	Constantinople and Russian Black Sea ports.
Khedivial Mail Steamship Co.	Alexandria	Fortnightly (cargo service)	Constantinople.
<i>Austro-Hungarian:</i> Austrian Lloyd Steam Navigation Company	Trieste	Frequently, almost daily	Beyrut, Asia Minor ports, Constantinople. Constantinople and Black Sea ports.

<i>French:</i> Messageries Maritimes Messageries Maritimes	Marseilles London	Weekly Fortnightly	Constantinople, Marseilles, Constantinople, and Turkish Black Sea ports.
Fraissinet & Cie N. Paquet & Cie	Marseilles Marseilles	Fortnightly Weekly	Constantinople and Black Sea ports. Constantinople, Samsun, Trebizond, Batum, and Novorossisk.
<i>German:</i> Norddeutscher Lloyd Deutsche Levante Linie	Marseilles Hamburg Bremen	Weekly Weekly Fortnightly	Constantinople and Black Sea ports.
"	Antwerp	Every ten days	"
"	Newcastle	Monthly	"
"	Swansea	Once or twice a month	"
Rickmers Linie	Hamburg	Fortnightly	"
<i>Italian:</i> Società Nazionale di Servizi Marittimi	Naples Venice	Twice weekly Twice weekly	Constantinople and Black Sea ports.
"			"
<i>Rumanian:</i> Rumanian State Maritime Service	Constanza	Frequently, almost daily	Constantinople, Piraeus, Alexandria.
<i>Russian:</i> Russian Steam Navigation and Trading Company Russian Volunteer Fleet Association	Odessa Odessa	Several times weekly Twice monthly	Constantinople, Aegean Islands, Mediter- ranean ports of Asia Minor, Alexandria, &c. Constantinople, Port Said, Red Sea ports, and the Far East.

suffers from lack of space both at its terminus and at Yedi Kule, where its works are situated. Moreover, the trans-shipment of goods from the terminus to Haidar Pasha is difficult, currents making the passage dangerous. These disadvantages would be obviated by the new port. Extensive sidings and quays could be constructed at Kum Kapu; the distance from thence to Haidar Pasha would be no greater than it is from the terminus, and the crossing would be much easier. The scheme will certainly be pushed by the Germans and Austrians, as the traffic of the Oriental Railway consists mainly of their goods.

#### (b) *Shipping Lines*

In Table IV is given a list of the principal shipping lines normally sailing to or calling at Constantinople.

Apart from the Rumanian State Service, which is mainly for mails and passengers sailing in connexion with the Constanza Orient Express, the most important line is the Deutsche Levante Linie, which has made great progress in recent years. Its steamers are willing to call at any small port or roadstead for cargo, and although advertised to sail at fixed times, they will always wait beyond the stated time rather than miss cargo. The line also undertakes, at through rates, the trans-shipment at Antwerp, Rotterdam, or Hamburg of cargo for the United Kingdom. Shipment by this line has consequently become very popular. The Austrian Lloyd, though granting facilities for cargo, is chiefly concerned with mail and passenger traffic.

Of the British lines, the Khedivial Mail Steamship Co., which is really an Egyptian concern, is prosperous and energetic. The other British companies have held their own fairly well, but their services are the same as they were twenty years ago, they work on hard-and-fast methods, and apparently make no effort to

accommodate themselves to local conditions or to secure the traffic of the smaller ports. One explanation of this want of enterprise is that, being entirely private concerns, they cannot afford to run risks which subsidized companies are willing to face.

## (B) INDUSTRY

### (1) AGRICULTURE

#### (a) *Products*

Thrace consists of a series of plateaux descending gradually from the Istranja Mountains in the north-east to the Aegean and the Sea of Marmora. It may be roughly divided into two parts by a line from Constantinople to Adrianople.

In the north-eastern part the population is sparse, and large tracts of land are uncultivated and bare. This is partly due to the wars of 1877 and 1912, and partly to the wasteful cutting of the scanty timber. At best, however, this region, which is furrowed by innumerable streams, is more fitted for pasture than for cultivation, and in normal times sent many cattle, sheep, and goats to the Constantinople market. Much of the country is covered with oak scrub, which the villagers cut every ten or twelve years in the most thoughtless way for the purpose of making charcoal. Most of this goes to Constantinople, where charcoal made from oak commands a ready sale.

Near Adrianople, however, the land is suitable for agriculture and fairly well cultivated. Certain other districts are naturally fertile, especially round Kirk Kilisse, Vize, and Serai. Considerable quantities of grain could be grown in these parts, but as a rule only sufficient for local needs is produced, transport being difficult and brigandage prevalent. In these places,

where the inhabitants were mostly Christian, a good deal of wine was produced. Much of this was exported, some of it going to France for 'coupage'.

Before the Balkan Wars, the south-western half of Thrace was much the more prosperous. The soil is generally better than in the north-east, and except in the hills it is free from scrub. In the Keshan, Malgara, and Rodosto districts, it is particularly fertile. The chief products are wheat, barley, maize (especially along the Ergene and Maritza rivers), rye, oats, canary and other seeds. The methods of cultivation, though generally antiquated and wasteful, are somewhat less primitive than those followed in other parts of Turkey. One cause of this is that certain districts and villages, although Vakuf property (see below, p. 93), were under the Civil List or the Mother Sultana. The cultivators of such property were well protected and encouraged to use modern implements. The country was comparatively peaceful, and there are several good roads to the sea. Surplus produce was consequently sent to Rodosto, Gallipoli, or other ports, whence it was exported. In normal times Rodosto exported to Constantinople and western Europe grain to the value of £320,000 a year, besides other agricultural commodities such as seeds, beans, and onions.

Unfortunately, south-west Thrace suffered badly during the Balkan Wars, being overrun alternately by the Bulgarians and the Turks. Since then the Christian inhabitants, who were numerous and enterprising, have been subjected to further oppression; and it is feared that few of them are left to-day. Even under favourable conditions, it will take years for this region to recover its prosperity.

In the vilayet of Constantinople a certain amount of wheat and barley is grown near the Sea of Marmora and the European shore of the Bosphorus. There are

a few vineyards, and in the suburbs of Constantinople many market gardens.

On the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus the soil is very fertile, especially in the valleys, but much of it is rendered unproductive by the careless cutting of trees and the uprooting of shrubs for fuel. The villagers grow barley, rye, oats, sesame, linseed, and chick-peas, and along the Marmora coast, olives, walnut-trees, fruit-trees, and vines. Almost the whole of the produce is consumed locally.

Formerly the entire coast from Scutari to Gebze was covered with vineyards, but within the last twenty-five years these have been almost totally ruined by the phylloxera. Some years after the appearance of the disease, the Council of the Ottoman Public Debt, which administered the revenues from wines and spirits, began a systematic attempt to stem the evil. Model vineyards were started at Erenkeui, and American vines were distributed to the peasants. Generally, however, the expense of replanting is more than the peasant can afford. A certain amount of land near villages has been replanted with vines, and the Government has consented to remit several years' taxation on such land. Application for this benefit, however, has to be made by the cultivator, who is apt to be discouraged by the dilatory methods of Turkish Government departments. Grain is now largely grown in place of the vines.

#### (b) *Irrigation*

There is no irrigation except in the market gardens round the capital. The water for this is drawn from wells.

#### (c) *Forestry*

There is a Ministry of Agriculture, Mines, and Forestry. At Buyuk Halkali, near Kuchuk Chekmeje,

there was a school of forestry, established by the State, but this was said to be conducted mainly for the benefit of those in charge of it. It is not known whether it still exists.

In north-east Thrace the forests mostly consist of small and ill-grown trees. The south-west, though on the whole less thickly wooded, has pine forests of some value on the Tefkur Dagh and Kuru Dagh. In the vilayet of Constantinople there are extensive forests, and these are carefully preserved, mainly because they contain the reservoirs or 'bends', one of the chief sources of the water-supply. On the Asiatic side, however, much unauthorized cutting takes place.

#### (d) *Methods of Cultivation*

These are in general most primitive. Ploughing is commonly done with the one-handed plough used in Biblical times. The ground is not deeply ploughed or dug, and manure is used only in some of the villages inhabited by *Muhajirs* or immigrants from the lost provinces of Europe. Sowing and reaping are done by hand. The grain is threshed on floors in the open air by means of a large sledge studded with rough flints, which is dragged round and round over the corn. The wind is used for winnowing. The grain is very seldom screened, even when intended for sowing, the effect on succeeding crops being lamentable.

#### (e) *Land Tenure*

By a law of June 1867, all foreigners may individually possess land under the same conditions as Ottoman subjects, and on all questions touching real property they are amenable to Ottoman tribunals. No foreign corporation, however, may hold real property in its own name. The new law of 1913, extending the former laws, allows certain Turkish companies (legal persons)

to hold real property, but these are either recognized State institutions or Turkish Sociétés Anonymes existing under the sanction and approval of the Government, which have obtained special permission to acquire property; the property must, moreover, be situate within towns and villages. The same restriction exists as to the creation of mortgages in favour of Turkish Sociétés Anonymes.

There are in Turkish law five classes of real property which may be mentioned, viz. *Mulk*, *Vakuf* or *Mevkufe*, *Mirie* or *Erazi Emirie*, *Metruke* and *Mewat*.

*Mulk* is land which is possessed freely and unre-servedly by the owner, with actual and legal powers of disposition over it, as with a chattel.

*Vakuf* is land, the ownership of which belongs by right to an institution according to the statutes of the religious law and the deed of foundation (or gift), whilst the rights of use and disposal are in the hands of private persons. Of *Vakuf* lands, two main kinds are distinguishable—those which are devoted to such objects of public utility as mosques, schools, libraries, fountains, &c., and those which are a source of profit or income to the institutions from which they are leased.

*Mirie* is land owned by the State, the use and disposal of which, however, are in the hands of private persons.

*Metruke* and *Mewat* need nothing more than mention; the former is land which serves for general use (for example, public roads, places for prayer, pasture grounds, &c.); the latter is waste land, neither built upon nor cultivable (rocky hills, &c.).

The bulk of the land in Constantinople and the towns generally comes under one of the first two heads.

Until the promulgation of the laws of 1913, *Vakuf* property, especially in towns, was of little value as

an investment or from an economic point of view. The great disadvantages which marked its tenure and which rendered it entirely different from Mulk were, first, that it was charged with a *ghedik* or ground-rent, besides the Government dues, and, secondly, that only the children living at the time of the decease of the holder could inherit—no other heirs were recognized. In Mulk an unlimited class of persons could inherit. In recent years, however, against increased payment of the *ghedik* or a form of commutation, the class of persons entitled to inherit Vakuf had been slightly increased.

Great importance is paid to the registration of sales of property and of the succession of heirs, as such registration before the proper authority (the Land Department) constitutes the formal evidence of title. Nevertheless, on account of the elaborate laws of succession, property sometimes becomes involved in bewildering complications of title; for, although its acquisition and the registration of ownership is a simple matter, yet it is sometimes almost impossible to negotiate a sale or transfer, owing to the refusal of consent on the part of the owners of some undivided shares, or even to the impossibility of ascertaining all the interests concerned.

*Mirie* lands, the property of the State, are, generally speaking, agricultural or pastoral lands lying outside the towns, and may be divided into three classes: (1) Land, usually adjacent to cities or towns, which has lost its original character of village-land, but is still under cultivation, and is not allowed to be converted to modern industrial or building purposes except by imperial licence. Such 'unconverted' land, which is bought and sold by the *deunum* (1,100 square yards) for trifling sums, often lies contiguous to 'converted' land selling by the *arshin* (30 square inches)

at fifty times the value; and the spectacle is thus presented of overcrowded and insanitary suburbs lying side by side with open fields devoid of habitation and put to no profitable use. This is especially the case outside Constantinople, although the advantages of 'conversion' of such land is clearly evidenced by the prosperity of the suburban area on the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus, which the Anatolian Railway Company 'converted' under the terms of its concession.

(2) Lands known as *Tchiftliks*, which may be described generally as farms. These are lands granted by the State to individuals and held by them as private property under *tapou* (title of grant from the State). Such lands may have originally been feudal lands or village lands, in either case recovered by the State and now re-granted. The existing owners, especially in Thrace and the vilayet of Constantinople, often farm out such land on the *métayer* system, but this method of tenure leads to every kind of friction between the owner and *ténant*. Indeed it is hardly possible to imagine worse tenurial conditions than under the *tchiftlik* system as in force in Turkey, where the owners exploit the tenants and are tricked by them in return, and where absentee landlordism is generally the rule, owing either to the poverty of the owners or to the universal brigandage, which makes their capital insecure. It has also to be remembered that the Government services draw largely upon the landed class, and owners are consequently compelled to live in the capital, or, if in the army, away from their estates.

(3) The lands of the village communities. The village land within certain ordinarily well-defined boundaries is called the *Mera*, or common property of the village, over which each villager has equal rights of fuel, water, pasturage, and cultivation of waste. The land of a village community usually comprises (a) the village itself, where each villager on

building his house takes out a title-deed registering his ownership ; (b) the cultivated land which a villager or his forefathers have taken up out of the common land and cultivated. For this also registration can be obtained, carrying with it right of inheritance, &c. ; but, if such land is left fallow for more than three years, others can take it up ; (c) *Tchai* or meadow, through which water flows, and over which the community has rights of pasture. This cannot be cultivated or appropriated, though the village mosque sometimes has rights over the produce ; (d) the woodland, which is also common property, except where parts have been planted by villagers ; (e) the grazing land, which is the balance of the common land. Sometimes several villages have pasturage in common.

The system of common lands in Turkey, although possessing some advantages, e. g. co-operative protection against brigandage, is nevertheless cumbersome and inconvenient, and, considering the indolent nature and habits of the peasantry, must be pronounced economically bad.

Early in the year 1913 the Young Turks prepared six provisional laws dealing with real property, which were consolidated and promulgated under date April 13, 1913 ; but these enactments were not submitted to, or ratified by, the Turkish Parliament, and as far as is known up to December 1916, they were still only provisional. The objects of the enactments were undoubtedly to facilitate the registration of ownership and enjoyment, to extend the class of persons entitled to inherit, and to provide means for the mortgage of property with a view to the economic development of the country, so that real property could be effectively used as a security for the raising of money and for commercial purposes.

These new laws, although purporting to effect several

serious and radical reforms connected with real property, are vague and unworkable as regards several of the most important points, such, for instance, as mortgages. They might be said to have been issued tentatively by the extremists of the Young Turkish party, in order to test the feeling of the religious section of the population, as some of the conditions of the new laws tend to destroy certain rights of the Ministry of Pious Foundations, at the same time doing away with the jurisdiction of the Religious Courts, and favouring the civil jurisdiction. It was not known what opposition the changes would raise, and for this reason the laws were not submitted to Parliament. As a consequence, they were only partially in operation during the interval preceding Turkey's entry into the war.

## (2) FISHERIES

The revenues arising from the issue of licences for fishing, the letting of fisheries, and the tax on all fish caught, are collected by the Council of the Ottoman Public Debt. The sums derived from Constantinople and neighbourhood are administered by the Council, but those derived from other parts of the Empire are applied to the charges on a loan made in 1888 by the Deutsche Bank.

Few fisheries exist in Thrace or in the vilayet of Constantinople. There are fisheries at the lakes of Buyuk Chekmeje and Kuchuk Chekmeje; these are let to Cossacks, who originally came from the Volga, and who are expert fishermen. The catch is mostly freshwater fish, but in the short rivers leading from the lakes to the sea quantities of grey mullet are taken, especially in the spawning season. These are sold in Constantinople, dried or fresh, according to the time of year. Red caviare is made from their spawn.

Of fish which migrate from the Black Sea to the Sea of Marmora through the Bosphorus, the most common are tunny, sword-fish, bass, rock turbot, and red and grey mullet. In the winter large shoals of *scombri*, small mackerel, and of *palamut*, large horse mackerel, generally appear, but there are years when none of these are caught. Fishing on a large scale is carried on at the north end of the Bosphorus and all round the Sea of Marmora. The apparatus used is called *taliani*, and consists of a long net leading from the shore to a trap or bag, into which the shoals following the coast are diverted. The principal fish thus taken are *scombri* and *palamut*; in winter these are exported fresh, but in spring the former are dried and the latter pickled before export. Sardines are plentiful in some seasons, and are generally sold fresh.

In 1910-11 dried, salted, or pickled fish to the value of £122,000 was exported from Constantinople, mainly to Bulgaria, Rumania, and Greece. There is no canning industry.

### (3) MINING

#### (a) *Mining Laws*

Mines and quarries are treated separately under Turkish law. All matters, however, relating to such undertakings are within the competence of the Ministry of Agriculture, Mines, and Forests at Constantinople. There is a department of this Ministry in each vilayet.

The most recent mining law is dated March 26, 1906. It applies equally to Ottoman subjects and to foreigners. The revision of the old mining law was in great measure due to the late Sir Nicholas O'Connor, His Majesty's Ambassador to the Porte, who insisted on certain reforms as one of the conditions of the

consent of His Majesty's Government to the increase of the customs from 8 per cent. to 11 per cent.

The law makes a distinction between mines and minerals, defining mines as underground deposits, and minerals as metals or materials which appear in an irregular manner on the surface, such as iron ore, pyritic earth, scoriae, peat, &c. The adoption of certain scientific methods of working is insisted on in the case of mines, but otherwise the two classes are treated alike.

These mines or minerals can only be possessed and worked regularly by virtue of an imperial firman of concession. The concession is transferable by sale, cession, or inheritance, and the term is from 40 to 99 years. The law precludes the holding of mines by foreign companies, but this restriction can easily be circumvented.

For the purpose of prospecting, a permit is necessary. Any person discovering a mine can make a formal application to the local department of the Ministry of Mines. The application is registered, and, if no objection is raised, a permit is granted in due course. The permit fixes the extent of the district within which it is valid, and the nature of the mine or metal sought for. It is transferable by sale, cession, or inheritance, but the formal transfer must be made through the Ministry of Mines. Under a prospecting permit, a mine may be developed and worked, and samples exported of a limited quantity of its produce.

The grant of a prospecting permit should be followed within the year by an application for the concession of the mine under imperial firman. The application is registered, and an announcement is made in the official gazette or local paper giving particulars of the concession sought. If no objection is raised, the application is granted within six months by the Ministry of

Mines, and referred to the Council of State, and the Council of Ministers should issue the imperial firman within twelve months.

The holder of the concession must work the mine according to the methods of scientific mining engineering, and must appoint a responsible representative with whom the Ministry of Mines can communicate. Work must be begun within two years from the date of the firman, otherwise the Ministry may give notice that unless work is begun within six months the concession may be cancelled.

Two kinds of taxes are levied. One (*redevance fixe*) is a fixed tax on the surface area of the concession at the rate of 10 piastres (1s. 8d.) yearly for each *djereb* (10,000 square metres). The second (*redevance proportionnelle*) is a royalty on the material extracted. It varies from 1 per cent. to 5 per cent. on materials worked from shafts and galleries and found in veins, and from 10 per cent. to 20 per cent. on other materials. In assessing the tax, the cost of working and of transport abroad is deducted from the value of the output. If the concession is on private or 'Vakuf' property, 80 per cent. of the royalty goes to the owner or the 'Vakuf'.

The law works fairly well, and, once a concession is obtained, little trouble is encountered. Before 1906 the issue of the firman was often long delayed on various pretexts, but under the present law the representatives of foreign Governments are able, after a certain term, to press the Ottoman Government for the grant of the concession.

*Quarries.*—In order to work a quarry, it is necessary to obtain a prospecting permit, as in the case of a mine. The permit, however, gives full powers to develop the quarry, and no concession by imperial firman is necessary. Permits for quarries run for a period not exceeding 25 years.

*(b) Mineral Output*

In the vilayet of Constantinople there are no mines which are worked. A promising copper mine, belonging to a British subject, existed near Rumeli Kavak on the European side of the Bosphorus, but owing to the construction of fortifications close by, it was shut down.

There is a lignite mine just outside the north-west corner of the vilayet at Kara Burnu, near the Lake of Derkos. This mine has only been worked since the outbreak of war. Its produce is brought down to Constantinople by a light tram line, which for some distance follows the Valley of the Sweet Waters. Its output is of inferior quality, and has to be mixed with other coal, if used for other purposes than domestic heating. In August 1917 it was producing 70-80 tons a day, all sold in Constantinople.

At Keshan in Thrace there are lignite seams which yield steam coal of excellent quality. Its calorific power is stated to be only slightly inferior to that of Bebside (Newcastle) coal, and it burns no more quickly and creates little more smoke. The concession belongs to an Englishman, but before the war little work was done, the output being sold to local mills. During the war, however, the output has risen to 80 tons a day, with the prospect of a further increase; and a narrow-gauge railway is being built from Pavlo Keui, on the Oriental Railway, to Keshan, most probably with a view to exploiting this coal deposit.

Lignite mines also exist near Rodosto, on the Sea of Marmora. These were not worked before the war, but it appears that they are now being exploited. The output is shipped to Constantinople. The coal resembles that found at Keshan.

In the region between Ganos and Sharkeui, on the

Sea of Marmora, there are several naphtha beds for which concessions or permits of exploration have been granted. The productive area is said to be about 15 miles long and 3 miles broad. At one place, near Sharkeui, a boring  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in. in diameter and 300 ft. in depth gave about 2 tons in 24 hours. The naphtha yielded 10 per cent. of paraffin.

No detailed statistics are published which distinguish between the Thracian mines and those of the whole Turkish Empire.

#### (4) OTHER INDUSTRIES

Apart from agriculture and mining, there are few industries worth mentioning. A certain amount of wheat is milled at Constantinople, but nearly all flour of the better class is imported.

The Régie Ottomane des Tabacs de l'Empire Ottoman has its head-quarters at Constantinople, where it possesses several large depots and factories for the manipulation of tobacco and the making of cigarettes.

There is a cotton-spinning mill at Constantinople and another at Gallipoli. That at Constantinople is owned by the Société Anonyme Ottomane de Fabrication de Fils et d'Étoffes en Coton et en Laine, which exists under an imperial firman of concession. This company spins yarns, which are mostly sold locally for re-sale in the interior, though some are sent direct to Asia Minor and Bulgaria. The company was originally formed by a combine of Manchester and local merchants. It is still under the control of British shareholders, though the Manchester group retain only a small interest in it.

Near Constantinople there are two cement factories, both of which were working successfully at the outbreak of war.

There is in the capital an American-British combine

dealing in light skins and sheep guts. The pelts are dressed and pickled, and then exported to the United States.

In Constantinople there are many small craftsmen who make boots, saddlery, brass and copper ware, and other articles sold in the bazaars for local consumption.

Electricity was scarcely used in Turkey during the reign of Abdul Hamid, who, it is said, thought that dynamo and dynamite were identical! Private installations for electric lighting were not unknown in Constantinople during the latter years of his rule, but it was impossible to secure any concession for producing electricity for public use. After the revolution of 1908, however, the Constantinople tramways were bought up by a German combination, called the Union Ottomane, Société pour Entreprises Électriques en Orient, domiciled at Zürich and working through the Deutsche Orient Bank. This combination, which is somewhat similar in character, and probably in composition, to the Banque des Chemins de fer Orientaux, obtained authority to construct many new lines, to run trams over the new bridge between Galata and Stambul,<sup>1</sup> and to work the system by electricity. Subsequently they secured concessions to supply the whole of Constantinople with electric light and power, though it was not till the spring of 1914 that their efforts were finally successful. The total value of these various concessions is of course very great.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> This bridge was constructed by a German group. It was paid for by a loan obtained by the Prefecture of the city from the National Bank of Turkey, an Anglo-Turkish concern. This loan was secured on the bridge tolls.

<sup>2</sup> The combination was formed in July 1909, with a capital of 12,000,000 francs. The president, vice-president, and principal directors are those of the Banque des Chemins de fer Orientaux.

## (5) WATER-POWER

Where streams exist, water-power is used by millers, but their methods are crude. In most cases the supply of water is irregular, and many mills can work only in autumn and winter.

## (C) COMMERCE

## (1) DOMESTIC

*(a) Principal Branches of Trade*

Constantinople cannot be called a great commercial city. It is to be noted that the majority of the population live at the expense of the Government, being either employees of the civil, military, or naval authorities, or members of one of the numerous *Medresse* or theological schools, or dependants of the mosques.

There are very few Mussulman merchants of any importance, and these are generally dependent on the services of native Greeks or Armenians for the conduct of their business. There are, of course, a certain number of Mussulman shopkeepers and retailers, mainly in the Stambul bazaars.

The business of the city consists of two main branches: (1) Dealing in and distributing foreign manufactured goods; (2) Collecting and dealing in goods, mostly raw material, for export to foreign markets.

(1) The trade in manufactured foreign goods is mostly in the hands of Greeks, Armenians, and Jews, either native or under foreign protection. These effect their purchases in foreign markets either directly, or through agents or commercial travellers, or (especially in the case of Manchester and Bradford goods) through their own houses in England. The goods are sold to merchants who come from Thrace, Asia Minor, and

the coasts of the Sea of Marmora, and buy either on sample or from stock. It is, however, advisable for the Constantinople merchant to have the season's goods ready for the buyers, whose purchases, being determined largely by the nature of the harvest in their own districts, are commonly put off till the last moment. Punctual delivery of goods by foreign firms is therefore of the greatest importance.

In normal times most of the trade in British textiles is done through agents in England or through the English houses of native firms. On the other hand, firms in other countries rely principally on their agents and travellers in Constantinople itself. In other words, the Constantinople merchant has to go to the British market for his goods, whereas goods from other countries are brought to him. The consequence is that, although more textiles are imported from England than from any other country, a great deal of British trade has been captured by rival nations. The Calico Printers' Association of Manchester, however, which has branches in Turkey, has done good work in checking this process. British textiles bought on sample at Constantinople used, as a rule, to be consigned to that port and thence forwarded to the purchaser. Within the last few years, however, British steamship lines had resumed through sailings to Black Sea ports, and goods destined for districts served by these were commonly sent direct. German and French textiles bought on sample had for long been generally consigned to the purchaser, owing to the frequency of boats for the Black Sea and the facilities for trans-shipment to the Anatolian Railway afforded by ships of the Austrian Lloyd and the Deutsche Levante Linie, which called at Haidar Pasha quay.

Constantinople has an important trade in coal,

which is sold to ships calling at the port, to the Turkish Navy, and to the railways, as well as for private consumption. The supplying of ships with bunker coal was mostly in the hands of British firms till the outbreak of war. The coal sold at Constantinople came principally from the United Kingdom and the mines in the region of Heraclea, on the Black Sea coast of Asia Minor. In 1913 Constantinople obtained about 180,000 tons from Great Britain, and about 300,000 tons from Turkish coalfields.

(2) The collection of Turkish produce for export is largely done by foreign firms at Constantinople, but native Greeks, Armenians, and Jews have also a considerable share of this business. Purchases are generally made through agents in the towns of Asia Minor, but the goods bought are commonly sent to Constantinople, where they are often sold and re-sold several times before being exported to foreign countries. Certain goods, however, such as silk and canary seed, are usually shipped to western Europe from ports on the Asiatic and European coasts of the Sea of Marmora.

Of special importance is the trade in cereals, most of which come by the Anatolian Railway to Haidar Pasha, where there are two silos. The Marmora ports, however, also have a considerable export trade in these products. Other commodities in which much business is done are opium, which comes largely from Afion-Kara Hissar, and mohair, which comes from the Angora district.

The tobacco trade is in the hands of the Régie Ottomane des Tabacs de l'Empire Ottoman, which has its head-quarters at Constantinople. This company was formed in 1883 by the groups associated with the Imperial Ottoman Bank, the Oesterreichische Kreditanstalt, and the German banking firm of S. Bleichröder. The capital was £4,000,000, of which £1,600,000 was called

up. The company was granted the monopoly of dealing in tobacco in the Ottoman Empire for the term of thirty years, paying in return to the Ottoman Public Debt £T750,000 a year. In 1913-14 it obtained the renewal of its rights with certain extensions, and the annual payment was raised to £T800,000.

There is considerable traffic in Oriental carpets. At Hereke, on the Gulf of Ismid, there is a large Government school and factory where Turkey carpets are made, these being sold at Constantinople. Persian carpets are also bought in large quantities. These are consigned to the bonded warehouses of the Turkish Customs at Stambul, where they are inspected and bought by foreign dealers. Antique carpets—Turkey and Persian—are in great demand.

As for markets, there are no recognized Exchanges where merchants can meet to transact business, Abdul Hamid having regarded such institutions with suspicion. There is, however, the Financial Bourse at Galata, where dealings and operations in stocks and shares take place. Markets for the retail of goods for local consumption are numerous; the most noteworthy is the Grand Bazaar in Stambul.

#### (b) *Towns, Markets, Fairs*

*Adrianople.*—Adrianople, capital of the vilayet of that name, has always been an important military centre. The town is a market for the crops of the neighbourhood, but it is not of great commercial importance. Before the war the population, stated to be 110,000, was mostly Christian. It is impossible to estimate the present population, but in all probability it is mainly Mussulman.

*Keshan.*—The town is on the main road from Uzun Keupru to Gallipoli, and is an important centre of the

Turkish telegraph system. The district is very fertile and contains a valuable coalfield (see p. 111). An annual fair, which lasted a week, used to be held in the town at the end of August. The population before the war was 29,000, mostly Christians. During and after the Balkan Wars the inhabitants suffered greatly at the hands of both Bulgarians and Turks.

*Silivri.*—On the Sea of Marmora, between Rodosto and Constantinople. The road from Constantinople to Adrianople passes through the town. Silivri is a centre of the trade in cereals, and used to have a big September fair lasting a week. The population consisted chiefly of Greeks, but in June 1914 these were expelled at a few hours' notice, and deported to Kavalla.

Other towns are Rodosto (see p. 90), Chorlu, Lule Burgas, Hairobolu, Uzun Köprü, Malgara, and Gallipoli. In most of these places the majority of the inhabitants were Christian subjects of the Porte, but since 1912 the disturbance of the population has been such that it is doubtful if there are many Christians left in the whole of Thrace. Most of the Bulgarian inhabitants accompanied the Bulgarian armies when these withdrew in 1913; and the Christians that remained were freely robbed and massacred by the Turks, especially in the interior. The German staff at Constantinople, which was reorganizing the Turkish army, then asserted that the Greeks in Thrace were so many enemies and spies within the Turkish defences, and urged their forcible removal. Accordingly a systematic policy of expulsion was adopted, multitudes of Greeks being sent by sea to Salonika and Kavalla, and others emigrating by land through Bulgaria. The deportations were in full swing when war broke out in 1914. The economic results will be disastrous.

(c) *Organizations to promote Trade and Commerce.*

There are no purely Turkish organizations which promote trade and commerce. The so-called Turkish Chamber of Commerce has never done so, its functions up to 1908 being limited to the endorsement of certificates of origin and the certification of other documents, while it was sometimes used by the Government to play off against the foreign Chambers of Commerce when they recommended unacceptable measures. Since the revolution the Turkish Chamber has gradually become more important, having been requested to study certain commercial questions, such as the improvement of the accommodation and facilities of the port of Constantinople.

The principal foreign Chambers of Commerce were the British, Austrian, French, Greek, and Italian. There was also an international Chamber of Commerce, called the 'Union Permanente'. This was composed of two or three members of each of the foreign Chambers, with the addition of one or two delegates nominated by the several legations of the smaller Powers which had no Chamber of their own. The Germans also nominated their delegates. The Union Permanente dealt with questions affecting foreign subjects, and took up matters referred to it by individual Chambers or by the embassies. Its principal object was to secure uniformity of policy on subjects concerning foreign commerce in general.

(d) *Foreign Firms and Companies*

Owing to the system of Capitulations, there existed many purely foreign firms and companies carrying on business in Constantinople. These were under the jurisdiction of the nations to which they respectively

belonged. Lawsuits between firms of different nationalities were decided in the court of the defendant's nation; those between foreign firms and Turkish subjects by the Turkish Mixed Tribunals. By the abrogation of the Capitulations in September 1914, the privileges of foreign firms and companies were overridden. The 'Law concerning the residence of foreigners in Turkey' came into force in January 1916.

The chief shipping companies had regular agents at Constantinople, and were in a class by themselves. A number of foreign insurance companies had agencies or branch offices at Constantinople. Except in the marine insurance business, British companies were the most numerous. They had a high reputation, though this had suffered somewhat through the unscrupulous methods of certain small and untrustworthy firms, and latterly some of the better-known concerns had run their Constantinople business at a loss. In other spheres of business, there were numerous foreign firms, some of them being British companies, registered under the British Companies Acts, whose head-quarters were at Constantinople. The trade in coal was mainly in the hands of British firms. Among foreign merchants, British firms took the lead, J. W. Whittall & Co. being the most important mercantile house. Ihmsen & Co. were the chief German firm; other German firms in the export and import trade were not of much note, being mostly commission agents who did a small business with their own capital, a class which has greatly increased in late years. British trade, however, had been losing ground for some time in face of German competition. (For foreign banking houses, see below, p. 134.)

*(e) Methods of Economic Penetration*

The best example of economic penetration is afforded by the methods of Germany, especially during the last few years previous to the war.

In 1900 the exports of Germany to Turkey were £583,000; in 1911 they were £4,636,000. In 1900 the exports of the United Kingdom to Turkey were £7,364,900; in 1911 they were £9,000,000. The British share of the import trade of Turkey had thus fallen from 35 per cent. to 22½ per cent. The British figures for 1911 were, moreover, exceptionally high; they fell again in 1912 and 1913 by over a million.

The capture of commerce by the Germans in the Near East was due to their own activity on the one hand and British inactivity on the other. On the one side there was a thorough and continuous effort to capture the Turkish import trade, which was backed by German diplomatic and consular influence, and furthered by the offer of commercial facilities and financial assistance. To these must be added the careful conduct of the German merchant, and his capacity to meet the wishes of the client in regard to the quality of the goods and the form best suited to the necessities of the country and customer. On the other side we have to note the absence of diplomatic and consular influence as well as of commercial and financial aid, while the somewhat crude methods of English commerce and the generally careless, 'take-it-or-leave-it' style of the British merchant, together with his reluctance to study the nature of the article wanted, the requirements of the country and the wants of the customer, placed him at a further disadvantage.

When the German Emperor and his advisers determined to capture the country, they meant to capture

it commercially as well as politically. The Kaiser's diplomatists directed the Foreign Office in Berlin on commercial matters, and had the Deutsche Bank at their beck and call. The Deutsche Bank was barely second to the German Embassy. Each worked with the other, and all worked together with Berlin. Immediately the order went forth, the Deutsche Bank began its work in Turkey, at first through the medium of the Anatolian Railway Company and subsequently as a separate establishment. It was soon followed by other German and controlled banks, such as the Deutsche Orient Bank, which was opened in January 1906. The Deutsche Bank in Turkey, both before and after its establishment as a separate concern, was continually receiving visits from its Berlin managers, amongst them Dr. K. Helfferich and A. von Gwinner; and the German Ambassador, with the whole German diplomatic staff in Constantinople, was there to carry out the bank's policy. The Deutsche Bank, when finally established at Constantinople as a bank in 1906, was a complete institution perfectly organized. It got hold of every specialist and expert it thought might be useful for the furtherance of big railway, dock, drainage, mining and other schemes. This was Germany's method of peaceful penetration. *Haute finance* made full use of the Embassy. Its projects, whether they had a purely political or a quasi-political object in view, were initiated, elaborated and put into operation, subject only to the approval of the authorities in Berlin.

So much for the *haute politique* and *haute finance* of Germany's enterprises in Turkey. The Deutsche Bank, through the Embassy and its consulates, did its best to develop trade and commerce; and the consular service was actively employed in the national interest. The Vice-Consul and even the Consul-General were not above

paying personal visits to the smallest firm or the humblest person of any nationality to glean information, and to find out all about trade and everything connected with it. They collated the reports of the Chambers of Commerce and the British blue books, and established at the Deutsche Bank in Berlin a sample room and a library, where German merchants could ascertain all that was to be known about the products of the country and its requirements.

Successful business concerns carried on by subjects of other nationalities in the Near East were marked down by the Consuls, and their methods inquired into. If the Consuls could not get the information wanted, they approached one of the German or German-controlled banks, and with their assistance the system adopted by the concern in question was soon found out. To attain this object, the banks would approach such businesses, offering high interest on accounts current, facilities for overdrawing, and other financial advantages. The acceptance or even provisional entertainment of such offers enabled the bank to make a careful study of the resources of their clients, their manner of business, the character of their customers, in short the whole inside of their affairs, with the result that one day either a German competitor would appear on the market under the auspices of the bank, or German participation in the concern would be suggested. If this were accepted, then in a short time the principals would be bought out, or the firm would be compelled to come to some arrangement with the German competitor, as otherwise a cut-throat competition would ensue, which, in the circumstances, would probably entail ruin.

Several times a year the German Government promoted excursions of German exporters and importers, and invited merchants to take advantage of them.

Enterprising merchants visited Turkey in hundreds by special trains at special rates. They were well looked after and taken round the country, each group being conducted by appropriate agents, and the requirements of the country and the kinds of article required were explained to them. They were introduced to native merchants, and generally given every facility for finding out what would sell and the special requirements of local markets; and, when they left, each visitor had acquired valuable knowledge about the conditions of his special trade. They were pleased, above all, because they knew that the German Government, with its whole machinery, including the banks, was behind them. As a result, they did better business on their return; they talked about it, and their countrymen followed them.

The Deutsche Bank and its connexions, and, for the matter of that, other German banks, may be compared to a big cobweb, of which the centre is in Germany, with immense threads stretching out all over the world with criss-cross network. If a merchant wished to do business, the bank would find him an agent in the country. The agent would, of course, be some one, probably a German or Austrian, recommended by the local branch, and, if he were a native agent, he would be promised the bank's financial support if he would bring over his clientèle or portfolio of customers to the German merchant and throw over his British houses. The parties, that is, merchant and customer, would soon be in communication through the agent. Or, again, if the German merchant wished to be financed, that would be easy. The bank's idea of the merchant's dealing with the customer would be so much against the invoice and bill of lading, so much by a three months' bill, and the balance in a six months' bill, or some such term, perhaps of longer date. The

bank would even offer to take charge of the whole matter from first to last, and, if the merchant desired, they would finance him up to 70 per cent. or 80 per cent. of the amount, against the bank's receiving the bills of lading or other securities.

If the German merchant were the creditor pure and simple, the local buyer might give trouble; he would in all likelihood pay the amount of cash against the bills of lading of the goods, in order to get possession of them, but he might refuse to meet the first bill or the second on the ground that the goods were not up to sample, or on one of the thousand and one pretexts open to a debtor, when his creditor is many hundred miles away in another country. But, once the transaction got into the hands of the bank, a powerful bank on the spot, the debtor would need a very good excuse to refuse to honour his bill of exchange on presentation for payment by the bank. If his claim were genuine, it would be attended to by the bank with firmness and justice to all parties: otherwise he would incur the risk of a lawsuit, with all the influence of the bank, Embassy, and Consulate against him, and would be faced with the cutting-off of his credit, and the impossibility of doing trade with Germany or even with other countries, as he would be placed on the black list of all the banks. The customer could, however, in most circumstances, if he really required it, obtain a renewal of one or more of his bills, but in return he would have to give further orders or make other concessions. Meanwhile the manufacturer would get his money and set out to secure further orders and to provide further merchandise for the customer, perhaps with the encouragement of the bank, but always under its advice and protection, and with the aid of its agent.

It is not necessary to draw comparisons between this system and that of British banks. The nearest

approach to the German system is that, when the British merchant gives credit to oversea customers, he sends the drafts or bills of exchange for acceptance or presentation through his own bank, say, at Bradford, which hands them to some other institution in London, which in turn hands them to the agency of a foreign bank, and later they are presented. If the bills are paid, well and good; otherwise they are probably referred for instructions, or they are protested and returned to England, and weeks or months are lost over disputes, probably ending with a lawsuit, in which the manufacturer is at a great disadvantage. In such a case, the merchant, hundreds of miles distant from his customer, is to a great extent dependent on his agent. The bank's action is a pure banking action, a mechanical form; and, although it may not suit the customer to have his bills protested, yet he will put forward a sufficient excuse at the time of 'protest' in order to cover himself as against the bank, and the bank has no further interest in the matter. The agent, too, may not be quite straightforward; and there is no bank to control him as a German bank controls agents recommended by itself.

The Germans have also applied their characteristic methods to the export trade from Turkey. A merchant in Turkey wants to export his goods to Germany, America, or elsewhere. He applies to the German bank on the spot. Inquiries are made in Berlin respecting the article, the most likely market, &c.; and a customer is soon found, or the articles are forwarded 'on commission' or 'on consignment' to the bank or some agent of the bank, generally a German. The bank offers, against shipment and the bills of lading, to advance so much per cent. on the goods and takes charge of the affair; the merchant has the best part of his outlay back, and so matters progress. In such

a transaction the position is one of mutual profit, with security and confidence for the native or local merchant, as well as for the German or other foreign merchant. The bank has the matter under control, not only the security of the financial part, but the many questions that arise before the final closing of the whole transaction—freight, insurance, question of short delivery, brokerage, samples, storage, &c.

The difference between the success achieved by projects supported by the German commercial organization, and that achieved by schemes with only private support, is enormous. German influence, political and other, has been able to obtain concessions for railways, for the construction of harbours, docks, drainage systems, bridges, quays, mines, tramways, gas and electricity works, and has facilitated the raising of loans for these purposes. The exploitation of the concessions confers benefits on the country concerned, by bringing in capital and employing labour; while home industry profits largely, for the materials are mostly brought from Germany in German bottoms, and with them come German skilled workmen and others who require supplies from Germany. Trade inevitably follows. Such is the German system of economic penetration, not only in Turkey, but throughout the world.

## (2) FOREIGN

*(a) Exports and Imports*

In regard to the annexed tables of statistics, certain considerations must be borne in mind.

In 1909 the Turkish Custom House administration underwent a radical change. The returns after that date were given in greater detail and were more accurate than those previously published. Complete returns, however, are only available for the year 1910-11. In 1911-12 Turkey was at war with Italy, and although statistics for that year were published in 1914, certain of the details which had been given for 1910-11 were omitted. No figures for 1912-13 have been published by the Turkish authorities.

In comparing Table V with Table VI and Table IX with Table X, it must be remembered that the Turkish financial year runs from March 1/14 to February 28/March 13. This partly accounts for the discrepancies in the figures. A further cause of these is the low state of Turkish official morality, many goods being clandestinely admitted without paying duty.

The figures in Tables VIII and XIII are largely vitiated by the inclusion of the returns for Haidar Pasha in a general total for the Marmora and Dardanelles ports and the Black Sea port of Zounguldak. By far the greater part of this total would be accounted for by the trade of Haidar Pasha. The figures for Erzerum and the Black Sea ports are given because nearly all the foreign trade of these places passes through the Bosphorus. In estimating the proportion borne by the trade of Constantinople to that of the whole Turkish Empire, it must be noted that the returns quoted refer to a time when the Empire included several provinces since lost.

A comparison of Tables V and IX shows that the

value of Turkey's imports greatly exceeds that of her exports. Even if the figures for tobacco be added to those of Table V, the fact remains that in 1910-11 the excess amounted to £15,000,000 and in 1911-12 to £12,000,000. In 1906 a British consular report drew attention to the adverse balance of trade, and gave statistics showing that since 1880 the total balance against Turkey was £210,000,000. It was then suggested that the Custom House returns were carelessly drawn up and the values of the exports under-estimated. Since 1909, however, the returns have been carefully prepared, and nevertheless show that the adverse balance is real and has increased. It is thought that the agricultural exports may still be undervalued by £2,500,000, and there is no doubt that the carpets exported to the United States fetch much higher prices than those indicated by the official Turkish figures. Turkish emigrants in America, it is also pointed out, send back considerable sums every year, and money is left in the country by tourists and pilgrims; but such sources of income must be relatively unimportant.

Military and railway material is largely paid for out of loans; but, as from 1881 to 1912 the nominal capital of the Turkish Public Debt increased by only £29,000,000, very little of the total excess of imports can have been met from such sources. When all is said, no adequate explanation has yet been found. It may, however, be noted that in 1880 the population of Constantinople and other large Turkish towns was very wealthy, and, as is usual in the East, their riches consisted principally in jewellery and precious stones. At present, however, the same population is very poor, and it is known that year by year they have to dispose of a great part of their valuables in order to live.

TABLE V.<sup>1</sup>  
EXPORTS FROM TURKEY (EUROPEAN AND ASIATIC)  
(Compiled from the Turkish Customs House Returns)

Destination.	1900-1.		1905-6.		1908-9.		1910-11.		1911-12.	
	£	Per cent.								
United Kingdom	5,025,800	38	5,608,800	32½	4,670,200	28	4,882,000	24	5,363,636	24½
France	3,933,400	29	4,262,600	24½	3,303,200	20	4,003,000	20	4,181,818	19
Austria-Hungary	1,329,200	10	1,893,800	11	2,252,500	13½	1,994,000	10	3,090,909	14
Germany	534,300	4½	1,087,800	6	1,045,400	6	1,190,000	6	1,363,637	6
Italy	440,600	3½	882,500	5	915,400	5½	1,344,000	6½	454,546	2½
Russia	412,900	3	526,200	3	522,600	3	828,000	4	818,181	3½
Other countries	1,530,400	12	3,168,300	18	4,053,400	24	5,831,000	29	6,630,000	30
<i>Total.</i>	13,206,600		17,430,000		16,762,700		20,072,000		21,902,727	

<sup>1</sup> Tobacco exports are not included in this table.

TABLE VI  
EXPORTS FROM TURKEY (EUROPEAN AND ASIATIC)

(Compiled from the Trade Returns of each country)

Country.	1907.	1908.	1909.	1910.	1911.	1912.	1913.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
United Kingdom	5,798,000	5,002,000	5,092,000	4,599,000	5,514,000	6,409,000	5,417,000
France	4,766,000	3,538,000	3,942,000	3,845,000	4,062,000	4,045,000	3,746,000
United States <sup>1</sup>	2,876,000	2,100,000	3,024,000	3,127,000	4,106,000	4,274,000	4,614,000
Germany	2,716,000	2,337,000 <sup>2</sup>	2,817,000	3,317,000 <sup>2</sup>	3,447,000	3,817,000	3,638,000
Italy	2,413,000	2,191,000	2,857,000	2,284,000	2,168,000	888,000	2,324,000
Austria-Hungary	1,745,000	1,718,000	1,829,000	2,166,000	2,513,000	3,049,000	2,820,000
Russia	762,000	787,000	931,000	1,144,000	1,080,000	1,711,000	1,946,000
Belgium	1,053,000	645,000	538,000	870,000	855,000	986,000	1,114,000
British India	383,000	449,000	378,000	424,000	417,000	380,000	385,000

<sup>1</sup> Turkish goods destined for the United States are seldom shipped direct, and for the most part, therefore, are classed by the Turkish Custom House authorities as exports to the countries to which they are first sent.

<sup>2</sup> It is impossible to account satisfactorily for the discrepancy between these figures and the corresponding ones in Table V, even if allowance be made for the fact that certain goods returned as going to Austria were really destined for Germany.

TABLE VII

PRINCIPAL TURKISH EXPORTS TO THE UNITED KINGDOM IN  
1911-12 AS COMPARED WITH THE TOTAL EXPORTS

(Compiled from the Turkish Customs House Returns)

<i>Commodity.</i>	<i>Exports to United Kingdom.</i>		<i>Total exports.</i>	
	<i>Weight. Tons.</i>	<i>Value. £</i>	<i>Weight. Tons.</i>	<i>Value. £</i>
Barley . . . . .	203,943	1,090,000	259,193	1,396,000
Beans, peas, &c. . . . .	14,018	97,000	50,965	355,000
Canary seed . . . . .	3,363	39,000	10,030	113,000
Carpets . . . . .	1,104	455,000	4,319	1,809,000
Emery . . . . .	9,910	32,000	31,330	111,000
Figs . . . . .	13,207	330,000	28,314	553,000
Hides, &c. . . . .	898	69,000	9,435	769,000
Lead ore . . . . .	4,395	62,000	11,841	162,000
Mohair . . . . .	4,138	563,000	4,383	595,000
Olive oil . . . . .	1,025	44,000	10,963	487,000
Opium . . . . .	183	412,000	306	692,000
Ores, other than lead . . . . .	4,550	33,000	117,065	188,000
Raisins . . . . .	12,621	643,000	40,700	1,740,000
Valonia . . . . .	18,815	167,000	41,137	364,000
Wool . . . . .	3,512	186,000	13,699	761,000

TABLE VIII

## EXPORTS OF VARIOUS DISTRICTS

1910-11

(Compiled from Turkish Customs House Returns)

<i>Customs House.</i>	<i>Value of exports.</i>	
	£	£
Constantinople :		
Stambul and Galata . . . . .	1,993,000	
Haidar Pasha, Marmora and Dardanelles ports, and Zounguldak . . . . .	2,316,000	4,309,000
Trebizond . . . . .	168,000	
Erzerum, Kerassund, Samsun, and Ineboli . . . . .	1,486,000	1,654,000
Districts lost in the Italian and Balkan wars (excluding Porto Lagos and Aegean Islands) . . . . .		2,638,000
Other districts (Smyrna, Alexandretta, Beyrut, Bagdad, &c.) . . . . .		12,471,000
<i>Total</i> . . . . .		20,072,000

According to the Turkish Customs Returns the exports from Constantinople and its dependencies in 1911-12 amounted to £5,909,000; those from Trebizond and its dependencies to £1,636,000. Exports from the whole Turkish Empire amounted to £21,902,727.

The figures for the districts since lost cannot be estimated with any approach to exactness.

There are no statistics showing the value of the several commodities exported through Constantinople and its dependencies. The chief of these are cereals (especially wheat and barley from Anatolia), canary seed and linseed, skins, mohair, opium, and boracite.

*Tobacco Exports.*—The export of tobacco is controlled by the Régie Ottomane des Tabacs, not by the Turkish Customs, whose returns do not include figures for this commodity.

In 1910-11 the exports of tobacco amounted to 61,495,571 kilogrammes of manufactured tobacco and cigarettes, and 24,758,196 kilogrammes of leaf tobacco, the total value being £2,584,090. Of the leaf tobacco upwards of 13,000,000 kilogrammes were exported from provinces or ports which Turkey has since lost, and, while exact figures are not available, it is estimated that more than half the manufactured tobacco came originally from the same districts. The principal purchasers of Turkish tobacco in that year were:

	<i>Kilogrammes.</i>
Austria-Hungary . . . . .	16,531,541
Germany . . . . .	13,789,771
France . . . . .	12,470,801
United Kingdom . . . . .	10,566,656
Egypt . . . . .	5,914,917
America . . . . .	5,770,556

It is, however, certain that more tobacco than is indicated by these figures eventually found its way to America, Turkish exports to the United States,

owing to the lack of direct steamship services, being generally shipped first to some other country, usually England.

In 1911-12 the export of tobacco greatly increased, reaching a value of £5,840,909. For this year, however, it is not possible to give the weight of the exports or their destinations.

*Expanding branches of Export Trade.*—Every branch of the export trade of Constantinople was expanding during the last few years before the war. The trade in cereals was growing with remarkable rapidity, owing to the Anatolian Railway. The railway was also bringing to Constantinople new and important classes of goods for export. Of these, eggs and skins deserve special mention. The narrow-gauge railway from Mundania, on the Sea of Marmora, to Broussa, has likewise greatly developed the trade of the district it serves. The line brings down silk, cereals, wool, carpets, opium, oil, and other goods, which mostly go to Constantinople before being exported. Similarly, the opening in 1912 of the railway from the Marmora port of Panderma to Soma has opened up districts rich in minerals, cereals, opium, and silk, most of which will be sent to the Constantinople market. (For further particulars of the regions traversed by these railways, see *Anatolia*, No. 59 of this series.)

According to the Turkish Customs Returns the imports of Constantinople and its dependencies in 1911-12 amounted to £15,363,000; those of Trebizond and its dependencies to £2,272,000. The imports of the whole Turkish Empire amounted to £39,880,000.

The figures for the districts since lost have been very incompletely published.

TABLE IX  
IMPORTS INTO TURKEY (EUROPEAN AND ASIATIC)

(Compiled from the Turkish Customs House Returns)

Country of origin.	1900-1.	Per cent.	1905-6.	Per cent.	1908-9.	Per cent.	1910-11.	Per cent.	1911-12.	Per cent.
	£		£		£		£		£	
United Kingdom	7,365,000	35	9,739,000	35	8,557,000	30	7,709,000	20	9,000,000	22½
Austria <sup>1</sup>	3,993,000	19	5,773,000	21	3,705,000	13	6,957,000	17½	6,182,000	15½
France	2,448,000	11½	2,365,000	8	3,064,000	10	3,572,000	9¼	3,545,000	9
Russia	1,846,000	9	1,613,000	6	2,267,000	8	2,543,000	6½	2,727,000	7
Italy	1,209,000	6	2,167,000	7	2,228,000	8	3,316,000	8½	2,182,000	5½
Germany <sup>1</sup>	583,000	2½	1,174,000	4½	1,760,000	6	3,542,000	9¼	4,636,000	11½
Bulgaria							1,820,000	4¾	1,272,000	3¼
British India							1,760,000	4½	—	
Belgium	3,680,000	17	4,960,000	18½	6,993,000	25	1,518,000	4	1,818,000	4½
Egypt							1,058,000	2¾	—	
United States							589,000	1½	1,090,000	2¾
Other countries							4,303,000	11¼	7,428,000	18½
<i>Total</i>	21,124,000		27,791,000		28,574,000		38,687,000		39,880,000	

<sup>1</sup> The returns for Germany and Austria are admittedly mixed, many German goods imported *via* Trieste being classed as Austrian. Imports of railway and war material from Germany are not included in this table.

<sup>2</sup> American goods destined for Turkey are generally sent through some other European country. It is consequently impossible to give an accurate estimate of the value of Turkey's imports from the United States of America. It is much higher than is indicated by the figures quoted.

TABLE X  
IMPORTS INTO TURKEY (EUROPEAN AND ASIATIC)

(Compiled from the Trade Returns of each country)

Country.	1907.	1908.	1909.	1910.	1911.	1912.	1913.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
United Kingdom:							
British Produce	7,494,000	6,949,000	7,564,000	8,570,000	9,396,000	8,040,000	7,705,000
Foreign & Colonial Produce	260,000	195,000	176,000	194,000	262,000	214,000	246,000
Austria-Hungary	4,495,000	3,386,000	3,779,000	5,294,000	5,221,000	5,480,000	4,223,000
Germany	4,017,000	3,151,000	3,880,000	5,157,000	5,550,000	5,548,000	4,838,000
Italy	2,930,000	2,686,000	3,163,000	4,305,000	3,820,000	261,000	3,767,000
France	2,319,000	2,580,000	2,733,000	2,917,000	3,250,000	3,479,000	3,330,000
Russia	2,039,000	2,403,000	2,922,000	2,941,000	3,545,000	3,180,000	3,777,000
Belgium	1,257,000	932,000	1,146,000	1,430,000	1,572,000	1,758,000	1,413,000
British India:							
Indian Produce	1,327,000	1,187,000	1,367,000	1,411,000	1,594,000	1,554,000	1,855,000
Foreign Produce	194,000	171,000	157,000	145,000	129,000	142,000	174,000
United States	398,000	431,000	598,000	515,000	916,000	661,000	756,000

TABLE XI

PRINCIPAL IMPORTS INTO TURKEY FROM VARIOUS  
COUNTRIES

(Compiled from the Turkish Customs House Returns)

Country.	Commodity.	1910-11.	1911-12.
		£	£
Austria-Hungary	Sugar and sweets	2,340,000	1,573,000
	Textiles	1,746,000	1,900,000
France . . .	Metals and other manufactures	319,000	354,000
	Farinaceous and leguminous products	351,000	
	Hides, skins, and leather	363,000	
Germany . . .	Textiles	932,000	
	Textiles	1,125,000	1,364,000
	Machines, vessels	316,000	500,000
Italy . . .	Metals and other manufactures	681,000	1,318,000
	Farinaceous and leguminous products	413,000	
	Coffee, cocoa, tea, and spices	112,000	
Russia . . .	Textiles	2,091,000	
	Farinaceous and leguminous products	901,000	
	Sugar and sweets	249,000	
	Oils and fats	628,000	

TABLE XII

PRINCIPAL IMPORTS INTO TURKEY FROM THE UNITED  
KINGDOM, 1910-12

Goods.	1910.	1911.	1912.
	£	£	£
Cotton piece goods . . . . .	4,617,951	5,416,362	4,564,650
Cotton yarns . . . . .	383,324	437,341	588,218
Woollen and worsted tissues . . . . .	881,046	634,956	496,797
Metals . . . . .	405,514	464,487	216,689
Machinery . . . . .	284,017	375,274	315,148
Coal . . . . .	309,763	322,601	249,522

TABLE XIII

## IMPORTS OF VARIOUS DISTRICTS IN 1910-11

(Compiled from the Turkish Customs House Returns)

Customs House.	Imports.	
	£	£
Constantinople :		
Stambul and Galata . . . . .	12,181,000	
Haidar Pasha, Marmora and Dardanelles ports, and Zounguldak . . . . .	1,280,000	13,461,000
Trebizond . . . . .	868,000	
Erzerum, Kerassund, Samsun, and Ineboli . . . . .	1,514,000	2,382,000
Districts lost in the Italian and Balkan Wars (excluding Porto Lagos and Aegean Islands) . . . . .		7,080,000
Other districts (Smyrna, Alexandretta, Beirut, Bagdad, &c.) . . . . .		22,844,000
		<u>45,767,000</u>

(b) *Commercial Treaties ; Customs and Tariffs*

In view of the peculiar relations subsisting between Turkey and the Powers, it is impossible to treat the Turkish customs separately from commercial treaties.

About 1861 Turkey signed commercial treaties with all the Great Powers. The treaties with the United Kingdom and Italy were liable to denunciation by the Turks after seven years, the others after twenty-eight years. Each treaty contained the most-favoured-nation clause.

At the end of seven years the Porte denounced the treaties with the United Kingdom and Italy ; but these Powers still claimed the advantages of the most-favoured-nation clause, and in practice their position remained as before. In 1890 the other treaties expired. Difficulties arose owing to the Turkish argument that the commercial treaties abrogated the Capitulations, a view which the Powers refused to accept. In consequence, the terms of the old treaties remained provisionally in force pending the conclusion of a new arrangement. But in 1890 Turkey signed a commercial treaty with Germany (Aug. 26), which was prolonged, together with the convention of 1917 (see below), by an exchange of notes on May 2, 1914.

Under the treaties there was an *ad valorem* duty of 8 per cent. on all imports, the value of which was calculated on their current price in the local market. In 1903, however, the Turkish Government asked for a change of this system, and long negotiations took place with the Powers, who demanded various reforms and concessions in return for consent to the Turkish proposals. Finally, in 1906, it was agreed that a uniform *ad valorem* duty of 11 per cent. should be imposed, on condition of the improvement of the Customs administration, the modification of the mining law, and other reforms. The increase, which was to hold good for seven years, came into force in July

1907. It was a purely fiscal measure, with no protective influence on any Turkish industry.

About the same time, the Powers consented to an extension of the Stamp Law. The Turkish Government thereupon introduced into its Custom House procedure so many new formalities, all requiring stamps, that in effect the import duty was raised to 13 per cent., and merchants made their calculations accordingly.

In 1909 the Custom House administration was thoroughly reorganized by Sir Richard Crawford. Many valuable reforms were made, and importers had to furnish written declarations of all goods consigned to them, supported by invoices signed by the sellers.

In 1910 the Turkish Government sought to raise the duty to 15 per cent., but the Powers would not agree. Sir Richard Crawford then drew up a scheme whereby food-stuffs and certain raw materials would pay 8 per cent., partly-manufactured goods 12 per cent., and manufactured goods 16 per cent. and upwards. Negotiations regarding this were still in progress at the outbreak of the European war.

In March 1916 a new Turkish tariff was formally adopted, and in September of the same year it came into force. Its most important feature is the introduction of the weight-tariff system in place of the *ad valorem* system. It is evident that the new scheme has been drawn up under German influence. It is in fact known that Turkey signed a commercial treaty with Germany during the war.

## (D) FINANCE

### (1) CURRENCY

The unit is the Turkish pound (£T), usually called *lira*, which before the war had the nominal value of 100 gold piastres, and in practice the value of 107-108

silver piastres. The gold piastre was a sub-unit of value having no existence as a coin. The Turkish pound is worth 18s. 2d., English currency.

There were gold coins of the value of  $\frac{1}{4}$ ,  $\frac{1}{2}$ , 1,  $2\frac{1}{2}$  and 5 £T; silver coins of 1, 2, 5, 10, and 20 piastres; nickel coins of  $\frac{1}{8}$ ,  $\frac{1}{4}$ ,  $\frac{1}{2}$ , and 1 piastre. These nickel coins were introduced in 1911 to replace the debased coinage known as *metallik*.

When exchanged for silver coins of the larger denominations, the Turkish pound was estimated at  $107\frac{1}{2}$  or 108 silver piastres, according to the rate of the day. Small change being at a premium in Constantinople, a few piastres less would be given if small coins were asked for. The 20-piastre piece, called *medjedie*, was accepted and paid by the Government as worth 19 gold piastres. Payments made to the Government in Turkish pounds (gold) or in £T5 notes of the Imperial Ottoman Bank were calculated at the rate of 102.6 gold piastres to the Turkish pound.

Before the war, notes of £T5, £T10, and higher values were issued by the Imperial Ottoman Bank and circulated in Constantinople at their face value. Outside the capital they were at a discount.

Turkish currency has recently been very unstable. On April 14, 1916, the Government promulgated a provisional law with the object of reforming it. The law is a short one, with only eight articles, and is specially aimed at making the piastre the sole monetary unit and in doing away with the 'conventional' value of the piastre created by custom and usage in different parts of the Empire. The following are the principal clauses:

Article 1. The basis of the monetary system in the Ottoman Empire is the gold piece. The piastre is the monetary unit.

Article 2. The piastre is in nickel, and its value is

40 paras. The fractions of a piastre, in 20, 10, and 5 paras, are also nickel. The coins of 2, 5, 10, and 20 piastres are in silver, and those of 25, 50, 100, 250, and 500 piastres are in gold.

Article 3. The value, composition, and weight of the coins with legal currency are to be as follows :

	<i>Value.</i> <i>Paras.</i>	<i>Weight in</i> <i>grammes.</i>	<i>Alloy.</i>	
Nickel .	5	1.75	} Pure.	
	10	2.65		
	20	4		
	40	6		
<i>Piastres.</i>				
Silver .	2	2.40	} 17 : 83.	
	5	6.14		
	10	12.27		
	20	24.55		
<i>Piastres. Liras.</i>				
Gold .	25	$\frac{1}{4}$	1.80	} 84 : 916.
	50	$\frac{1}{2}$	3.60	
	100	1	7.21	
	250	$2\frac{1}{2}$	18.04	
	500	5	36.08	

Article 4. Silver is legal tender up to 300 piastres, and nickel up to 50 piastres.

Article 5. The different rates (*cours de monnaies*) existing by custom and usage in various parts of the Empire are abolished; and any transactions at a higher or lower rate than the present fixed legal value are forbidden, and will be punished in accordance with the penal laws.

Article 6. Speculations tending to create variations of the legal value are forbidden; any offender will be punished in accordance with the penal laws and his business will be closed for three months.

Since the passing of this provisional law, it would appear that the Ottoman Government has somewhat varied its terms, perhaps being forced to do so owing

to the scarcity of the necessary nickel. The authorities decided to re-issue the debased coinage (*metallik* and *altilik*) which was withdrawn from circulation in 1910 and 1911, but which, it seems, was not destroyed. This amounts to about 10,000,000 piastres (about £90,000) in pieces of 10, 20, 50, and 100 paras. It was also decided to mint 6,000,000 (about £56,000) of one-piastre pieces in nickel and 50,000,000 (about £450,000) of piastres and fractional parts of a piastre, containing an alloy of three parts of copper and one of nickel. As, however, Germany has substituted zinc for its nickel coinage, it seems unlikely that Turkey could obtain the necessary metal for this scheme.

The problem of the coinage is complicated by the position of paper money. In August 1914 the Imperial Ottoman Bank began the issue of £T1 notes. Nominally these notes are still the equivalent of one Turkish pound in gold, and the bank and Government departments accept and pay the £T1 note at this rate. The issue of notes, however, has become very great, in consequence of the loans from the German Government, and now amounts to over £T134,000,000. Silver and nickel coins have gone out of circulation, and the Government has issued paper for 1, 2, 5, 10, 20, 25, and 50 piastres. Although the paper money is issued on German Treasury notes deposited with the administration of the Ottoman Public Debt, and undertaking is given that it will be exchanged for gold after the war, the public has lost confidence in it. One Turkish pound in gold, it is said, can be exchanged for four £T1 notes. Cheques on London, payable after the conclusion of peace, can be disposed of at from 75 per cent. to 80 per cent. above their face value. Exchange for remittance in francs from Constantinople to Switzerland is at the rate of frs. 13·20 against £T1.

When, in August 1917, a loan from Germany was arranged, the Turks stipulated that of the total sum of £T56,500,000, £T3,500,000 should be paid in gold and silver, £T3,000,000 in marks, and the remainder in German Treasury bonds. It appears that Germans in Turkish employ insisted on receiving part of their salaries in gold and silver. Every gold pound paid them could be surreptitiously exchanged for four £T1 notes, which could be converted into German money at the rate of 20 marks against £T1.

A further reason for the unsatisfactory state of Turkish currency is that for some years before the war the peasants, especially in Anatolia, demanded gold in payment for their crops, and refused the silver medjedie, which they had formerly favoured. The gold was generally hoarded ; and in 1912 it was estimated that within the past few years a million and a half in gold had in this way disappeared from circulation.

## (2) BANKING

### (a) *Turkish Banks*

The leading bank in Turkey is the *Imperial Ottoman Bank*, formed by an Anglo-French group, and established under an imperial firman granted in 1863, with a capital of £10,000,000. Its head-quarters are at Constantinople. Of late years it has greatly extended its operations in the Turkish Empire, and it now has over seventy agencies and sub-agencies, including those in Cyprus, Tripoli, and Egypt. The bank has always been in close touch with the Ottoman Government, which it has supplied with loans and advances, and it had almost a monopoly of banking business until the creation of the *Banque de Salonique*.

*National Bank of Turkey*.—This is a British-Turkish undertaking, formed in 1909 by Sir Ernest Cassel

under imperial firman, with a capital of £1,000,000. Its objects were both commercial and semi-political. It was this bank that advanced the money for the building of the new bridge between Stambul and Galata.

The *Banque de Salonique* was founded in 1888 under an imperial concession, with a capital of frs. 20,000,000. It is a Jewish concern, with an important Austro-Hungarian element in its management. It does considerable business at Constantinople, Smyrna, and Beyrut; but, apart from this, its principal sphere of operations is Salonika and the European provinces lost to Turkey in 1913.

Several Turkish banks were created by imperial firman after the revolution, but they are of small importance. Among them may be mentioned the *Banque de Turquie pour favoriser le Commerce et l'Industrie* and the *Société Commerciale Orientale*.

#### (b) Foreign Banks

*Banque d'Athènes*.—This is the most influential of the Greek banks operating in Turkey. It has an important business with Greek subjects of the Porte, especially through its agencies in seaport towns. Its business is purely commercial.

*Crédit Lyonnais*.—This bank operates chiefly at Constantinople. It concerns itself strictly with commercial and banking business.

*Wiener Bankverein*.—This bank's branch in Constantinople was opened in 1906. Although interested only in banking and commercial operations, it is closely connected with the leading German banks.

*Deutsche Orient Bank*.—A German undertaking for the furtherance of German interests, established at Constantinople in 1906. It was founded by the Dresdner Bank, the A. Schaffhausen'scher Bankverein,

and the Nationalbank für Deutschland. In October 1916, the A. Schaffhausen'scher Bankverein withdrew from the syndicate, after selling its holdings to the Deutsche Bank; and the syndicate was joined by the Oesterreichische Kreditanstalt, the Wiener Bankverein, and the Ungarische Kreditbank. The Deutsche Orient Bank was in consequence reconstituted. According to the *Frankfurter Zeitung* of October 19, 1916, it will in future concern itself mainly with the financing of official and public enterprises of economic importance, while retaining its existing commercial and banking interests.

*Deutsche Bank.*—This bank's branch in Constantinople was opened in 1906, but for several years previously it had worked through the Anatolian Railway Company. The part played by the bank in the economic penetration of Turkey by Germany has been described above (see p. 112).

On the establishment of German and Austrian banks in Turkey, great competition arose for the capture of the banking business of Constantinople and the adjacent regions; and in consequence the rival banks vied with one another in giving unprecedented facilities to the public. The rate of exchange on European markets became much more steady and the discounting of private paper easier. The German banks paid a high rate of interest, not only on deposit, but also on current accounts, granting on the latter  $3\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., whereas the Imperial Ottoman Bank had given 1 per cent. The purchase of securities was undertaken by the banks, and coupons were cashed free of charge. Intending purchasers of securities were enabled to pay for them by instalments. Clients were also allowed to make large overdrafts, once the bank was satisfied with their methods of conducting business; the German banks charged 5 per cent. on an overdraft, whereas the Imperial Ottoman Bank had charged

6 per cent., and the overdrafts it allowed were small. The German banks were also ready to take over in their own name, for a very small charge, the collection of debts owed by Turkish Government departments for supplies of goods, and through their influence were thus able to get for local merchants money which would otherwise have been paid only after long delay. The Imperial Ottoman Bank, which had long held a commanding position, and the other banks, had in self-defence to adopt the methods of their German competitors. The Imperial Ottoman Bank, for instance, established a private safe deposit at its Pera agency, though its example was at once followed by the Deutsche Bank. Advances on goods, bills of lading and securities became much more common, the German banks specializing in such business in order to capture trade. (For the more commercial side of their activities, see above, p. 111.)

### (3) INFLUENCE OF FOREIGN CAPITAL

Owing largely to the Capitulations, the influence of foreign capital in public works and enterprises in Turkey has been very great; and this notwithstanding the stipulation, always made of late years when a concession was granted for an enterprise of public importance, that the company to be formed should be a Turkish Société Anonyme. The group obtaining the concession have invariably retained a majority of the votes attached to the share capital, placing only a limited number of shares on the market, and issuing to the public debentures which carry no voting power. Such companies, controlled as they are by foreign interests, have continually and successfully invoked the assistance of foreign embassies. There is in fact very little Turkish capital in any of them.

The most important of the undertakings of foreign capital have already been mentioned ; and it has been shown that those in Constantinople and Thrace are mostly under German control.

The Compagnie des Eaux de Constantinople (Derkos Water Company) is under French control, and the Constantinople Quay Company under Franco-British control, but all the railways, the Constantinople tramways, with associated undertakings, the port of Haidar Pasha, and the Compagnie des Eaux de Scutari et Haidar Pasha are German or Austro-German concerns.

The close connexion between these enterprises and the German banks, especially the Deutsche Bank, has already been pointed out, but another bond of union between the German undertakings in Turkey is the Banque des Chemins de fer Orientaux. This was founded at Zürich in 1890 by the Wiener Bankverein, the Deutsche Bank, and the Schweizerische Kreditanstalt. Its main business was defined as 'all kinds of financial operations relating to the construction and working of railways or other permanent concerns for the development of traffic in the East'. Another of its objects was to take over the interests of Baron Hirsch in the Oriental Railway. The nominal capital of the bank is frs. 50,000,000. There is a big general board, and an inner committee, among the members of which are Dr. Julius Frey, Dr. K. Helfferich, A. von Kaulla, Otto von Kühlmann, and K. Schrader. The bank is connected with all German and German-controlled enterprises in Turkey ; and the names of the directors mentioned appear over and over again on the boards of such concerns.

#### (4) PRINCIPAL FIELDS OF INVESTMENT

There is great need for a purely British bank at Constantinople, with agencies in the interior ; this

should conduct business on the lines followed by the foreign banks already operating in Turkey, and should not be fettered by British banking traditions. Apart from this, however, there are few promising opportunities for capital in Constantinople and Thrace, the best fields being already occupied. The construction of narrow-gauge railways in Thrace would develop the country and increase the security and prosperity of the peasant, but the advantages of such an undertaking would be felt mainly by the Oriental Railway Company.

In and around the Sea of Marmora, however, there are several attractive openings for capital, which would naturally be exploited by companies with their headquarters at Constantinople. A service of steamers for the local traffic of the sea is much needed. Considerable profits might also be derived from a line of small steamers running between Panderma and Mudania and Constantinople. A great quantity of raw material is produced in the country near the Sea of Marmora, and most of the products of the Asiatic coast are sent to Constantinople, but at present there are only a few bad steamers running.

A project which has been discussed is the opening up of the old waterway from Geumluk, on the Sea of Marmora, to the lake of Isnik (Nicea). It is claimed that this would drain and render healthy a malarious and thinly-populated region of great natural resources. Similar results, it is thought, would be obtained by rendering navigable the River Sussulu, between Panderma and Mudania, and draining the adjacent country. (For further particulars of these schemes, see *Anatolia*, No. 59 of this series.)

## APPENDIX

## I

HAT-I-SHERIFF OF GULHANÉ (TANZIMAT),  
NOVEMBER 3, 1839

All the world knows that in the first days of the Ottoman Monarchy the glorious precepts of the Koran and the Laws of the Empire were always honoured. The Empire in consequence increased in strength and greatness, and all her subjects, without exception, had risen in the highest degree to ease and prosperity. In the last 150 years a succession of accidents and divers causes have arisen which have brought about a disregard for the sacred code of laws, and the regulations flowing therefrom, and the former strength and prosperity have changed into weakness and poverty : an Empire, in fact, loses all its stability so soon as it ceases to observe its laws.

These considerations are ever present to our mind ; and, ever since the day of our advent to the throne, the thought of the public weal, of the improvement of the state of the Provinces, and of relief to the peoples, has not ceased to engage it. If, therefore, the geographical position of the Ottoman Provinces, the fertility of the soil, the aptitude and intelligence of the inhabitants are considered, the conviction will remain that, by striving to find efficacious means, the result, which by the help of God we hope to attain, can be obtained within a few years. Full of confidence, therefore, in the help of the Most High, assisted by the intercession of our Prophet, we deem it right to seek by new institutions to give to the Provinces composing the Ottoman Empire the benefit of a good Administration.

These institutions must be principally carried out under three heads, which are : (1) The guarantees ensuring to our subjects perfect security for life, honour, and fortune. (2) A regular system of assessing and levying taxes. (3) An equally regular system for the levy of troops and the duration of their service. . . . .

As to the regular and fixed assessment of the taxes, it is very important to settle that matter, for the State which is forced to incur many expenses for the defence of its territory cannot

obtain the money necessary for its armies and other services except by means of contributions levied on its subjects. Although, thanks be to God, our Empire has for some time past been delivered from the scourge of Monopolies, falsely considered in times of war as a source of revenue, a fatal custom still exists, although it can only have disastrous consequences ; it is that of venal concessions, known under the name of 'Iltizam'. Under that name the civil and financial administration of a locality is delivered over to the passions of a single man ; that is to say, sometimes to the iron grasp of the most violent and avaricious passions, for if that contractor is not a good man he will only look to his own advantage.

It is therefore necessary that henceforth each member of the Ottoman Society should be taxed for a quota of a fixed tax, according to his fortune and his means, and that it should be impossible that anything more could be exacted from him. It is also necessary that special laws should fix and limit the expenses of our land and sea forces.

Although, as we have said, the defence of the country is an important matter, and that it is the duty of all the inhabitants to furnish soldiers for that object, it has become necessary to establish laws to regulate the contingent to be furnished by each locality, according to the necessity of the time, and to reduce the term of military service to four or five years. For it is at the same time doing an injustice and giving a mortal blow to agriculture and to industry to take, without consideration to the respective population of the localities, in the one more, in the other less, men than they can furnish ; it is also reducing the soldiers to despair, and contributing to the depopulation of the country, by keeping them all their lives in the service.

In short, without the several laws, the necessity for which has just been described, there can be neither strength, nor riches, nor happiness, nor tranquillity for the Empire ; it must, on the contrary, look for them in the existence of these new laws.

From henceforth, therefore, the cause of every accused person shall be publicly judged in accordance with our Divine Law, after inquiry and examination, and so long as a regular judgement shall not have been pronounced, no one can, secretly or publicly, put another to death by poison or in any other manner.

No one shall be allowed to attack the honour of any other person whatever.

Each one shall possess his property of every kind, and shall dispose of it in all freedom, without let or hindrance from any person whatever ; thus, for example, the innocent heirs of a criminal shall not be deprived of their legal rights, and the property of the criminal shall not be confiscated.

These Imperial concessions shall extend to all our subjects, of whatever religion or sect they may be ; they shall enjoy them without exception. We therefore grant perfect security to the inhabitants of our Empire, in their lives, their honour, and their fortunes, as they are secured to them by the sacred text of our law.

As for the other points, as they must be settled with the assistance of enlightened opinions, our Council of Justice (increased by new members, as shall be found necessary), to whom shall be joined, on certain days which we shall determine, our Ministers and the Notabilities of the Empire, shall assemble, in order to frame laws regulating the security of life and fortune and the assessment of the taxes. Each one in those assemblies shall freely deliver his ideas and give his advice.

The laws regulating the military service shall be discussed by a Military Council, holding its sittings at the Palace of the Seraskier.

As soon as a law shall be passed, in order to be for ever valid, it shall be presented to us ; we shall give it our approval, which we will write with our Imperial sign manual.

As the object of these institutions is solely for the purpose of reviving religion, government, the nation, and the Empire, we engage not to do anything which is contrary thereto. In testimony of our promise, we will, after having deposited them in the Hall containing the glorious mantle of the Prophet, in the presence of all the Ulemas and the Grandees of the Empire, make Oath in the name of God, and shall afterwards cause the Oath to be taken by the Ulemas and the Grandees of the Empire.

After that, those from among the Ulemas or the Grandees of the Empire, or any other persons whatsoever, who shall infringe these institutions, shall undergo, without respect of rank, position, and influence, the punishment corresponding to his crime, after having been well authenticated. A Penal Code shall be compiled to that effect.

As all the public servants of the Empire receive a suitable salary, and that the salaries of those whose duties have not, up to the present time, been sufficiently remunerated are to be fixed, a rigorous law shall be passed against the traffic of favouritism and of appointments (*richvet*), which the Divine Law reprobates, and which is one of the principal causes of the decay of the Empire.

The above dispositions being an alteration and a complete renewal of ancient customs, this Imperial Rescript shall be published at Constantinople, and in all places of our Empire, and shall be officially communicated to all the Ambassadors of the friendly Powers resident at Constantinople, that they may be witnesses to the granting of these institutions, which, should it please God, shall last for ever. . . .

## II

FIRMAN AND HAT-I-HUMAYUN (SULTAN OF  
TURKEY), FEBRUARY 18, 1856

The guarantees promised on our part by the Hat-i-Humayun of Gulhané,<sup>1</sup> and in conformity with the Tanzimat, to all the subjects of my Empire, without distinction of classes or of religion, for the security of their persons and property and the preservation of their honour, are to-day confirmed and consolidated, and efficacious measures shall be taken in order that they may have their full and entire effect.

All the privileges and spiritual immunities granted by my ancestors *ab antiquo*, and at subsequent dates, to all Christian communities or other non-Mussulman persuasions established in my Empire under my protection, shall be confirmed and maintained.

Every Christian or other non-Mussulman community shall be bound, within a fixed period, and with the concurrence of a Commission composed *ad hoc* of members of its own body, to proceed, with my high approbation and under the inspection of my Sublime Porte, to examine into its actual immunities and privileges, and to discuss and submit to my Sublime Porte the reforms required by the progress of civilization and of the age. The powers conceded to the Christian Patriarchs and Bishops

<sup>1</sup> Generally known as the Hat-i-Sheriff of Gulhané. See above I, p. 139

by the Sultan Mahomet II and his successors shall be made to harmonize with the new position which my generous and beneficent intentions ensure to these communities.

The principle of nominating the Patriarchs for life, after the revision of the rules of election now in force, shall be exactly carried out, conformably to the tenor of their Firmans of Investiture.

The Patriarchs, Metropolitans, Archbishops, Bishops, and Rabbins shall take an oath on their entrance into office according to a form agreed upon in common by my Sublime Porte and the spiritual heads of the different religious communities. The ecclesiastical dues, of whatever sort or nature they be, shall be abolished and replaced by fixed revenues of the Patriarchs and heads of communities, and by the allocation of allowances and salaries equitably proportioned to the importance, the rank, and the dignity of the different members of the clergy.

The property, real or personal, of the different Christian ecclesiastics shall remain intact; the temporal administration of the Christian or other non-Mussulman communities shall, however, be placed under the safeguard of an Assembly to be chosen from among the members, both ecclesiastics and laymen, of the said communities.

In the towns, small boroughs, and villages, where the whole population is of the same religion, no obstacle shall be offered to the repair, according to their original plan, of buildings set apart for religious worship, for schools, for hospitals, and for cemeteries.

The plans of these different buildings, in case of their new erection, must, after having been approved by the Patriarchs or heads of communities, be submitted to my Sublime Porte, which will approve of them by my Imperial order, or make known its observations upon them within a certain time.

Each sect, in localities where there are no other religious denominations, shall be free from every species of restraint as regards the public exercise of its religion.

In the towns, small boroughs, and villages where different sects are mingled together, each community, inhabiting a distinct quarter, shall, by conforming to the above-mentioned ordinances, have equal power to repair and improve its churches, its hospitals, its schools, and its cemeteries. When there is a question of the erection of new buildings, the neces-

sary authority must be asked for through the medium of the Patriarchs and the heads of communities from my Sublime Porte, which will pronounce a Sovereign decision according that authority, except in the case of administrative obstacles. The intervention of the administrative authority in all measures of this nature will be entirely gratuitous. My Sublime Porte will take energetic measures to ensure to each sect, whatever be the number of its adherents, entire freedom in the exercise of its religion.

Every distinction or designation tending to make any class whatever of the subjects of my Empire inferior to another class, on account of their religion, language, or race, shall be for ever effaced from the Administrative Protocol. The laws shall be put in force against the use of any injurious or offensive term, either among private individuals or on the part of the authorities.

As all forms of religion are and shall be freely professed in my dominions, no subject of my Empire shall be hindered in the exercise of the religion that he professes, nor shall be in any way annoyed on this account. No one shall be compelled to change their religion.

The nomination and choice of all functionaries and other employés of my Empire being wholly dependent upon my Sovereign will, all the subjects of my Empire, without distinction of nationality, shall be admissible to public employments, and qualified to fill them according to their capacity and merit, and conformably with rules to be generally applied.

All the subjects of my Empire, without distinction, shall be received into the Civil and Military Schools of the Government, if they otherwise satisfy the conditions as to age and examination which are specified in the organic regulations of the said schools. Moreover, every community is authorized to establish Public Schools of Science, Art, and Industry. Only the method of instruction and the choice of professors in schools of this class shall be under the control of a Mixed Council of Public Instruction, the members of which shall be named by my Sovereign command.

All commercial, correctional, and criminal suits between Mussulmans and Christian or other non-Mussulman subjects, or between Christians or other non-Mussulmans of different sects, shall be referred to mixed tribunals.

The proceedings of these tribunals shall be public : the parties shall be confronted, and shall produce their witnesses, whose testimony shall be received, without distinction, upon an oath taken according to the religious law of each sect.

Suits relating to civil affairs shall continue to be publicly tried, according to the laws and regulations, before the Mixed Provincial Councils, in the presence of the Governor and Judge of the place. Special civil proceedings, such as those relating to successions or others of that kind, between subjects of the same Christian or other non-Mussulman faith, may, at the request of the parties, be sent before the Councils of the Patriarchs or of the communities.

Penal, correctional, and commercial laws, and rules of procedure for the mixed tribunals shall be drawn up as soon as possible, and formed into a Code. Translations of them shall be published in all the languages current in the Empire.

Proceedings shall be taken, with as little delay as possible, for the reform of the penitentiary system as applied to houses of detention, punishment, or correction, and other establishments of like nature, so as to reconcile the rights of humanity with those of justice. Corporal punishment shall not be administered, even in the prisons, except in conformity with the disciplinary regulations established by my Sublime Porte, and everything that resembles torture shall be entirely abolished.

Infractions of the law in this particular shall be severely repressed, and shall, besides, entail, as of right, the punishment, in conformity with the Civil Code, of the authorities who may order and of the agents who may commit them.

The organization of the police in the capital, in the provincial towns, and in the rural districts shall be revised in such a manner as to give to all the peaceable subjects of my Empire the strongest guarantees for the safety both of their persons and property.

The equality of taxes entailing equality of burdens, as equality of duties entails that of rights, Christian subjects, and those of other non-Mussulman sects, as it has been already decided, shall, as well as Mussulmans, be subject to the obligations of the Law of Recruitment. The principle of obtaining substitutes, or of purchasing exemption, shall be admitted. A complete law shall be published, with as little delay as

possible, respecting the admission into and service in the army of Christian and other non-Mussulman subjects.

Proceedings shall be taken for a reform in the constitution of the Provincial and Communal Councils, in order to ensure fairness in the choice of the deputies of the Mussulman, Christian, and other communities, and freedom of voting in the councils. My Sublime Porte will take into consideration the adoption of the most effectual means for ascertaining exactly and for controlling the result of the deliberations and of the decisions arrived at.

As the laws regulating the purchase, sale, and disposal of real property are common to all the subjects of my Empire, it shall be lawful for foreigners to possess landed property in my dominions, conforming themselves to the laws and police regulations, and bearing the same charges as the native inhabitants, and after arrangements have been come to with foreign Powers.<sup>1</sup>

The taxes are to be levied under the same denomination from all the subjects of my Empire, without distinction of class or of religion. The most prompt and energetic means for remedying the abuses in collecting the taxes, and especially the tithes, shall be considered. The system of direct collection shall gradually, and as soon as possible, be substituted for the plan of farming, in all the branches of the revenues of the State. As long as the present system remains in force, all agents of the Government and all members of the Medjlis shall be forbidden, under the severest penalties, to become lessees of any farming contracts which are announced for public competition, or to have any beneficial interest in carrying them out. The local taxes shall, as far as possible, be so imposed as not to affect the sources of production or to hinder the progress of internal commerce.

Works of public utility shall receive a suitable endowment, part of which shall be raised from private and special taxes levied in the Provinces, which shall have the benefit of the advantages arising from the establishment of ways of communication by land and sea.

<sup>1</sup> On January 18, 1867, a law was passed granting to foreigners the right to hold real property in the Ottoman Empire; and on July 28, 1868, a protocol was signed between the British and Turkish Governments relative to the admission of British subjects to the right of holding real property in Turkey.

A special law having been already passed, which declares that the Budget of the revenue and expenditure of the State shall be drawn up and made known every year, the said law shall be most scrupulously observed. Proceedings shall be taken for revising the emoluments attached to each office.

The heads of each community and a delegate designated by my Sublime Porte shall be summoned to take part in the deliberations of the Supreme Council of Justice on all occasions which might interest the generality of the subjects of my Empire. They shall be summoned specially for this purpose by my Grand Vizier. The delegates shall hold office for one year ; they shall be sworn on entering upon their duties. All the members of the Council, at the ordinary and extraordinary meetings, shall freely give their opinions and their votes, and no one shall ever annoy them on this account.

The laws against corruption, extortion, or malversation shall apply, according to the legal forms, to all the subjects of my Empire, whatever may be their class and the nature of their duties.

Steps shall be taken for the formation of banks and other similar institutions, so as to effect a reform in the monetary and financial system, as well as to create funds to be employed in augmenting the sources of the material wealth of my Empire.

Steps shall also be taken for the formation of roads and canals to increase the facilities of communication and increase the sources of the wealth of the country. Everything that can impede commerce or agriculture shall be abolished. To accomplish these objects means shall be sought to profit by the science, the art, and the funds of Europe, and thus gradually to execute them.

Such being my wishes and my commands, you, who are my Grand Vizier, will, according to custom, cause this Imperial Firman to be published in my capital and in all parts of my Empire ; and you will watch attentively, and take all the necessary measures that all the orders which it contains be henceforth carried out with the most rigorous punctuality.

10 Dzemaziul, 1272 (February 18, 1856).

## III.

## FIRMAN (SULTAN OF TURKEY), SEPTEMBER 10, 1876

The origin and causes of the crisis through which our Empire is now passing, and which reproduces itself under different forms, are, it is true, manifold ; but from whatever side they are regarded they may all be summed up under one head, viz. the imperfect execution of the laws which spring from the supreme edicts of the Cher'i, which is the fundamental base of our Empire, and the absolutism which every one has adopted, so to speak, as their rule in the conduct of affairs.

If, indeed, the irregularities, of which for some time past now the administration and finance of our country have felt the effects, have reached their present pitch ; if public opinion shows itself distrustful with respect to our credit ; if the tribunals have not yet arrived at securing the rights of individuals ; if it has not been yet possible to turn to account the natural resources which all the world allow that our country possesses, for industry, commerce, and agriculture, these fruitful sources of welfare and general prosperity ; if, lastly, all the measures hitherto adopted, as well in the interests of the country as with a view to secure to all my subjects, without exception, the benefits of individual liberty, have not acquired more consistency in spite of the sincere intentions which dictated them, nor attained the proposed result, through a succession of variations and changes,—all this can only be attributed to one cause, and that is, that the laws have not been regularly and constantly observed.

This, therefore, should be the starting-place to-day for the measures which it is urgent should be adopted to settle the laws and regulations of the country on bases calculated to inspire confidence.

*Establishment of a General Council*

For this purpose it is indispensable to proceed to the establishment of a General Council whose acts shall inspire the nation with all confidence, and shall be in accordance with the customs and capacities of the population of the Empire. This Council will have for its mission to guarantee, without exception, the faithful execution of the existing laws, or of those

which shall be promulgated in accordance with the dispositions of the Cher'i, and with the real and legitimate wants of the country and nation, and to control the balance of the receipts and expenditure of the Empire.

The Council of Ministers is instructed to devote itself to a profound study of this important question, and to submit to me the result of its deliberations.

### *Public Offices*

Another obstacle to the good execution of the laws and regulations is the facility with which public duties are often entrusted to incompetent hands, and, further, the fact that they, the employés, are the object of frequent changes without any sufficient or legitimate reason, which entails very serious inconveniences both for the State and the transaction of business.

Henceforth every public office and function shall constitute a special career. To employ in the affairs of the State capable and competent persons ; to tolerate no dismissal or unjustified removal from office ; to establish gradually the responsibility of all kinds of functionaries, each in his respective sphere, this is the invariable rule to be adopted.

### *Education*

The material and moral progress that all the world agrees in recognizing among European nations has been brought about, thanks to the spread of science and education. Now, as by their intelligence and natural dispositions, my subjects of all classes have in all respects, I am happy to state, special capacities for progress, and as the spread of education constitutes, in my eyes, a question as vital as it is pressing, you will take counsel without delay as to the best means of securing this important result by raising the amount of the supplies for allowances in a sufficient proportion and within possible limits.

### *Administrative, Financial, and Judicial Reforms*

Further, the administrative, financial, and judicial reforms of the provinces must be proceeded with immediately, so as to create for them a really normal position, and in conformity with the bases which shall be adopted for the central organization.

*Pacification of Herzegovina, Bosnia, and Serbia*

In addition to the troubles which broke out last year in Herzegovina and Bosnia, at the instigation of evilly-disposed persons, the rebellion of Serbia has come upon us. Considering that the blood shed on both sides is that of the children of one and the same country, we are deeply distressed by the continuance of this state of things. You will therefore have to take most effective measures to put an end to such a deplorable situation.

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See also Authorities in *The Eastern Question*, No. 15, and in  
other works in this series dealing with the Balkan States.

## MAPS

Turkey in Europe is comprised in sheet K. 35 (Istambul) of the International Map (G.S.G.S. No. 2758) published by the War Office, on the scale of 1 : 1,000,000. A revised edition of this map (G.S.G.S. No. 2555) has been issued, showing the boundary as determined by the treaties of Bucarest and Constantinople in 1913.

The War Office map on a scale of 1 : 250,000 (G.S.G.S. 2097) covers European Turkey in the five sheets, Adrianople, Vize, Rodosto, Constantinople, and Gallipoli, and, though not uniformly based on thorough survey, is yet a reliable map.

Another War Office map (G.S.G.S. No. 3055) covers Constantinople and its environs on the scale of 1 : 25,000.

For historical boundaries and ethnography see Table and Note on Maps in *The Eastern Question*, No. 15 of this series.

ALPHABETICAL

The first part of the book is devoted to a description of the various species of plants and animals which were seen during the expedition. The author gives a detailed account of the habits and characteristics of each species, and also of the localities where they were found.

The second part of the book is a list of the names of the various species, arranged in alphabetical order. This list is followed by a list of the names of the localities where the species were found.

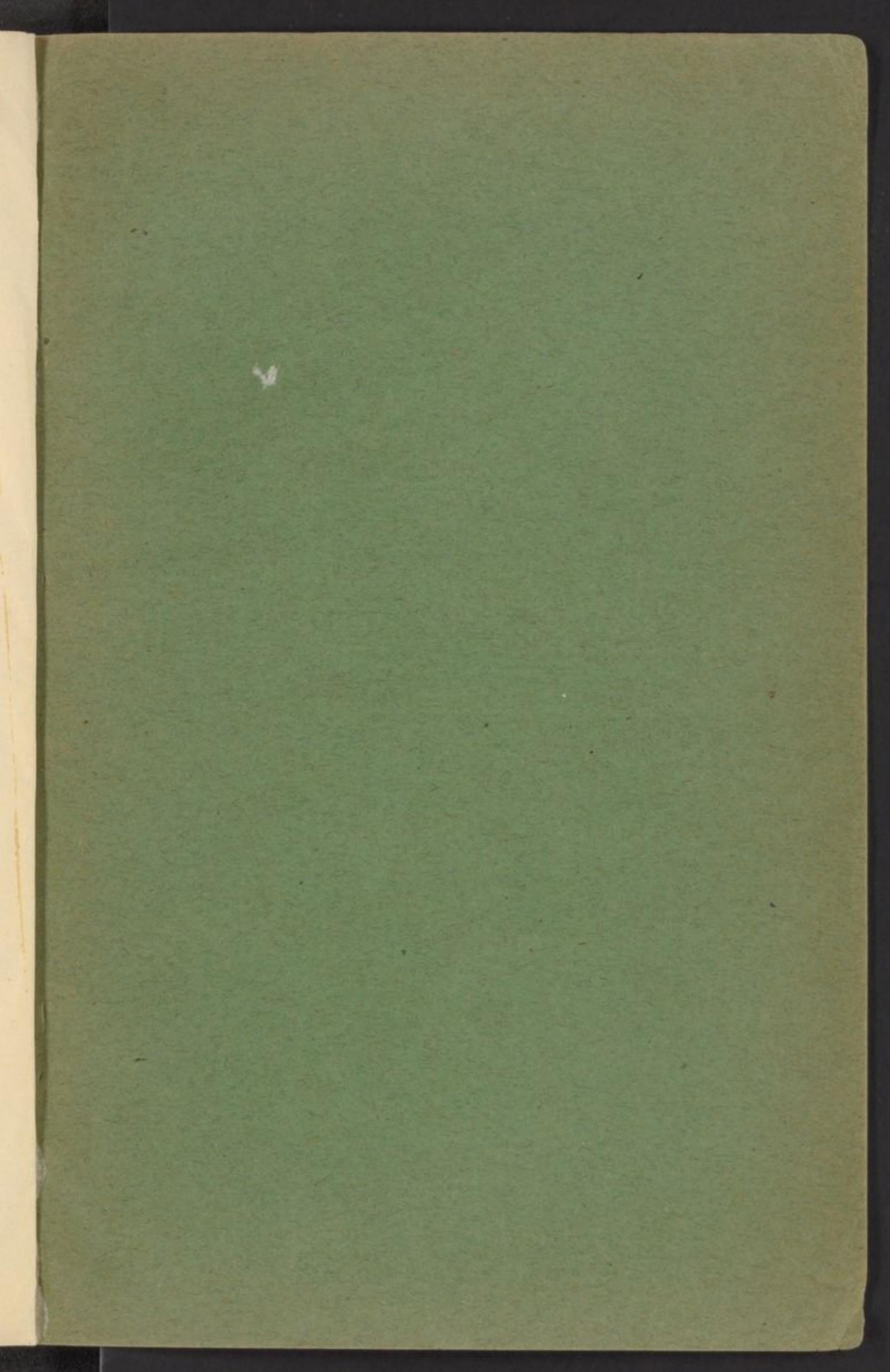
The third part of the book is a list of the names of the various species, arranged in alphabetical order. This list is followed by a list of the names of the localities where the species were found.

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