HANDBOOKS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE HISTORICAL SECTION OF THE FOREIGN OFFICE.—No. 65

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LONDON:
PUBLISHED BY H.M. STATIONERY OFFICE

1920

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Editorial Note.

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

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

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

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

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

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

January 1920.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PAGE

I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) Position 1
(2) Surface, Coasts, and Rivers
Surface and Soils 1
Coasts 3
Rivers 5
(3) Climate 5
(4) Sanitary Conditions 6
(5) Race and Language
Race 7
Language 8
(6) Population
Distribution 8
Towns 9
Movement 10

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

Chronological Summary 12
(1) Early History 12
(2) British Occupation 13
(3) Annexation by Great Britain 14

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) Religious 16
Christian 16
Moslem 17
(2) Political 18
Legislature 18
Local Administration, Justice . . . 19
Police 22
(3) Public Education 22

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PAGE

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) Means of Communication

(1) Internal
(a) Roads 27
(b) Rivers 28
(c) Railways 28
(d) Posts, Telegraphs, and Telephones . . 29
(2) External
(a) Ports 29
Famagusta 30
Larnaka 31
Limassol; other Ports 32
(b) Shipping Lines 33
(c) Cables and Wireless Communication . . 34

(B) Industry

(1) Agriculture 34
(a) Products of Commercial Value
Cereals 34
Forage Crops, Cotton, Flax . . . 35
Tobacco, Tanning Plants . . . 36
Vines 37
Fruit Trees 38
Live-stock 39
Honey, Silk 40
(b) Methods of Cultivation 41
(c) Forestry 43
(d) Land Tenure 45
(2) Fisheries 46
(3) Minerals 46
Copper 47
Asbestos, Gypsum 48
Salt, Terra umbra, Oil 49
(4) Manufactures
Wine and Spirits 50
Cheese 51
Cigarettes, Textiles, Leather . . . 52
Earthenware, Tiles and Bricks, Metal Work . 52
Soap 53

PAGE

(C) Commerce
(1) Domestic 53
(a) Towns, Markets, Fairs 53
(b) Organizations to promote Trade and Commerce 53
(2) Foreign 54
(a) Exports
Quantities and Values 54
Countries of Destination 55
(b) Imports
Quantities and Values 56
Countries of Origin 56
(c) Customs and Tariffs 58

(D) Finance
(1) Public Finance 59
(2) Currency 61
(3) Banking
Joint Stock Banks 62
Credit Institutions 62
Government Savings Banks 63
Other Savings Banks 64

(E) General Remarks 64

APPENDIX
(A) Documents
I. The Cyprus Convention, June 4, 1878 . . 67
II. Annexe to the same, July 1, 1878 . . . 67
III. Order in Council (Annexation), Nov. 5, 1914 . 68
IV. Proclamation as to Citizenship, &c., Nov. 5, 1914 69
V. Proclamation as to Citizenship (revoking IV), March 3, 1915 70

(B) Tables
I. Quantities and Values of Principal Exports . 72
II. Exports : Principal Destinations . . . 73
III. Quantities and Values of Principal Imports . 74
IV. Imports : Principal Countries of Origin . . 75
V. Number and Nationality of Vessels entered and cleared at Ports of Cyprus in 1913 . . 76
VI. Agriculture : Quantities of Crops produced . 76

AUTHORITIES 78

Maps 78

I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) Position

Cyprus lies in the north-east of the Levantine basin of the Mediterranean, between latitudes 34° 33′ and 35° 41′ N., and longitudes 32° 17′ and 34° 35′ E. It is distant some 44 statute miles from the coast of Asia Minor and 69 from the Syrian coast, while the port of Larnaka on the south coast of the island is 262 miles from Port Said and 1,117 from Valetta in Malta.

The nearest important Syrian ports are Beirut, terminus of the railway to Damascus, and Alexandretta (Iskanderun), terminus of a branch of the Baghdad railway. The bay of Alexandretta possesses the best and roomiest roadstead on the Syrian coast.

(2) Surface, Coasts, and Rivers

Surface and Soils

Cyprus has an area of 3,584 sq. miles; its extreme length is about 140 miles, its greatest breadth about 60 miles. The Karpass promontory is 45 miles long, and at the greatest 10 miles broad. The only Mediterranean islands which exceed Cyprus in area are Sicily and Sardinia.

Cyprus is divided into four distinct regions: (1) the coast; (2) the unbroken chain of mountains running along the northern side of the island; (3) the extensive mountain region in the south and west, which with its numerous subordinate ranges and radial spurs occu-

pies about one-third of the island; and (4) the level tract lying between these two mountain regions, called the Mesaoria (i.e. 'between the mountains').

(1) The coast is treated in a separate section below.

(2) The long, narrow, and extremely abrupt ridge of the northern, or Kerynian and Karpass, mountains is very precipitous on the north side; on the south less so, but very barren. It gives the lowland fair shelter from the north wind.

(3) The loftier highlands, which fill the south-west part of the island, have as their highest peak Mt. Troodos (6,406 ft.), and descend in gentle slopes to the plain and coast. The Troodos region is flanked by fertile rolling country along the south-west and south coasts about Limassol and Paphos, and east of the Troodos massif is the plateau terminating in Cape Greco.

(4) Between the two great uplands, and after them the most striking topographical feature of the island, is the Mesaoria, the broad tract of treeless plain, which extends across from the bay of Famagusta in the east to that of Morphou in the west, a length of 60 miles with a breadth of from 10 to 20 miles, and embraces the plains of Morphou and of Nicosia (Lefkosia). In this plain, once famous for its corn, is situated a large portion of the cultivated area of the island, and nearly the whole of the northern part is tilled. But, except in spring when the barley is green, the Mesaoria, from lack of water, presents a scene of desolation; and the bare stretches—probably also capable of cultivation—add to the aridity of the region as a whole. The plain is covered with rich alluvial soil, in many places 10 to 15 or even 20 ft. deep, through which run the beds, dry in summer, of numerous streams debouching in rivers, also intermittent, which during the rainy season overflow and leave a further rich fertilizing deposit on the land.

The sandstone foot-hills of the northern mountain range form, north of Nicosia (Lefkosia), an extremely barren zone 2 to 2½ miles broad. But north of this again lies the most beautiful region of Cyprus, on either side of Kerynia. Here the summits of the Kerynian mountains, with many strong military positions, look across the sea to the heights of Asia Minor and down upon the coast at their foot, every inch of which is valuable. This is the richest district in Cyprus, while its sea-breezes and numerous mountain streams render it one of the healthiest. There is generally water in the gorges, which fertilizes and irrigates the lower slopes, and produces green vegetation here when all is burnt up elsewhere. On the Karpass peninsula are found some of the best Cyprian forests, the dwarfed trees being counterbalanced by the dense undergrowth. The peninsula is especially healthy, as the breezes of two seas temper the summer heat.

Barren, too, are the outlying hills of the Troodos mountains. In the great summer heat, only such fields as lie in the near vicinity of the sea and draw moisture from the sea-breezes can resist the parching blight. Here plants of all kinds flourish luxuriantly; and in those cultivated zones which enjoy the moisture brought by the smaller mountain streams the crops are still more abundant. It was estimated in 1900 that of all the fertile land about three-tenths was incapable of cultivation owing to the steepness of the slope or the thinness of the soil, which is liable to be washed away by violent rainfalls.

Coasts

The coast-line, 486 miles long, is broken by several bays and capes.

The principal bays are: on the east, that of Famagusta; on the south, those of Larnaka, Akrotiri (Limas-

sol), and Episkopi; on the north-west, those of Khrysokhou and Morphou. There are no estuaries, the chief rivers, except during the rains, vanishing in swamps or on the beach before reaching the sea. Where the great plain penetrates on the east and west to the sea, the coast is low and marshy. Dunes, formed by the prevailing winds, are especially common on the flat coast near Morphou. They also occur in the bay of Famagusta (the ancient town of Salamis is almost buried in them), and again along the flat coast-line of Larnaka. The Akrotiri peninsula is almost embanked by them, and they are also found in the vicinity of Paphos and along the Karpass peninsula.

The northern coast region, a fertile plain a mile broad and hemmed in between the northern mountain range and the sea, is little indented. There are, however, headlands and coves, though none deep enough to form a good natural harbour. Kerynia is the one spot worthy of being called a seaport.

The Karpass peninsula, the north coast of which is more or less studded with rocks and reefs, has on its south side a plain continuous with the flat, dune-bordered shore of Famagusta Bay. At Famagusta a series of rocks and islets acts as a natural breakwater, and artificial improvements have made Famagusta harbour the best in Cyprus.

Although there is no natural harbour at Larnaka, its convenient position for Syrian trade in past times and easy intercourse with the capital Nicosia (Lefkosia) in modern times (26 miles of high-road) have given it the chief position in foreign trade among Cyprian ports.

Limassol is the nearest port to Troodos and is gaining in importance at the expense of Larnaka.

East of Cape Akamas (or Arnauti) lies the semicircular Khrysokhou Bay, with a level sandy shore. Thence follows the north foot of the Troodos massif

and an exceedingly rocky and steep coast; beyond this is the large bay of Morphou, in which are two small inlets with good summer anchorage.

Rivers

The rivers of Cyprus are little more than mountain torrents, with rough and stony beds, dry in summer and never navigable. During the winter rains the water rushes down the steep slopes of the mountains, breaking out from the narrow water-courses, overflowing the surrounding country, and enriching the soil with a valuable deposit of alluvial earth, whence the fertility of the Cyprian plains. There is no available water-power.

(3) Climate

The year may be divided into two seasons. The winter season (which includes the autumn and the short and brilliant spring) lasts from October to March, during which the rains take place. These are so intermittent that there are weeks of fine weather between the downfalls. The most important are the autumn rains, which allow of the ploughing and sowing of the hard burnt-up ground, and the spring rains (February), which nourish the young crops. There is but little snow; the central mountains are sometimes covered for a short time, the highest summits of Troodos all the winter. The summer season, April to September, is practically rainless; the grass is dried up, and all but the most succulent plants wither. The annual rainfall is small—19 to 27 inches (480–690 mm.). It varies considerably from year to year.

Cyprus has on its coasts and plains a subtropical zone, and on the higher slopes of the mountains a subalpine zone. The winter is colder than might be expected, and, on the plains, the summer much hotter.

At Nicosia the average yearly minimum temperature for ten years was 31° F. ($-\frac{1}{2}$° C.), the average maximum 104° F. (40° C.). In summer Nicosia is hotter than Cairo and only slightly cooler than Khartoum, chiefly because sea-breezes are excluded by the mountain barriers.

In order to escape the heat, the Government and troops leave Nicosia in the summer and move to the hill-station of Troodos. On the coasts the intensity of the summer heat is, as the day grows, modified by the sea-breeze, the *imbat*, until about the middle of September, when the most insupportable heats begin. During this period even the natives prefer to travel by night. Northerly winds are cold in winter, but warm in summer. The winter gales off the coasts usually last two or three days; summer gales are never severe.

(4) Sanitary Conditions

Cyprus is now among the healthiest of Mediterranean countries. The natives frequently afford examples of great old age, and there is for settlers and visitors the advantage (especially important in the case of lung diseases) of continuous outdoor life. The bad reputation acquired by the island in the early days of British occupation, first because of the mortality among our troops (until moved to higher ground), secondly upon the attempted establishment of a colony by the Russian sect of the Dukhobors, was in both cases due to an unsuitable manner of life during the hot season.

In the autumn, malaria appears at Famagusta and Larnaka, and more or less in all irrigated districts; but it has been checked by the draining and cultivation of the one large lake, Paralimni, south of Famagusta, and of the marshes north of Larnaka and elsewhere.

Dysentery and ophthalmia are common among the natives; and the great summer heat causes, in foreigners

and natives alike, a continual perspiration, which if followed by the least chill results in an attack of fever. As elsewhere in the East, there are cases of leprosy among the natives. The bite of a redoubtable carrion-eating insect, the *mutilla* or *sphalangi*, is much feared.

(5) Race and Language

Race

The present Cypriot stock probably owes more to Greek and Phoenician colonists (especially the former), settled since 1000 B. C., than to the prehistoric population of the island. But the elements of which the stock is composed are many and various.

The Cypriots are to-day divided into 'Greeks' and 'Turks'. By the census of 1911 the population of the island (including a British military population of 144 men) was 274,108, of whom 20·6 per cent. were Mohammedans and the remainder mostly members of the Orthodox Church. In common speech a Moslem Cypriot is called a Turk, an Orthodox Christian a Greek. On the conquest of Cyprus by the Turks, Venetian troops made way for Turkish troops. These new-comers (unlike the departed Venetians) were ready to take Cypriot wives; and thus in time, since no fresh troops were sent, the pure Turkish blood tended to die out. Religion, dress, customs, and—in some parts—language remained the only visible distinction. Upon the British occupation, practically no Turks, except officials from Stamboul, left the island.

There are some negroes, descendants of slaves imported during Turkish rule from Arabia, the Sudan, and Abyssinia. The descendants of the Franks and Venetians are by some authorities traced in the Linobambaki, a race of villagers who change their religion from Christianity to Mohammedanism and back again,

according to convenience. On the Karpass mountains is a race with fair hair and blue eyes, chiefly muleteers, who are descended from transported Circassians and differ from their neighbours in customs. Neighbouring countries have supplied a sprinkling of Maronites, Armenians, Jews, Levantines, &c.

Language

The chief language is Romaic, i. e. modern Greek. The purified, more classical modern Greek tongue is affected by the schoolmasters and the higher clergy; but the ordinary Cypriot clings to his own dialect, in which is a large admixture of French, Italian, and Turkish words, the result of the successive occupation of the island by the Franks, Venetians, and Turks. By the census of 1911 the Greek-speaking population was 78·9 per cent. (216,310), the Turkish-speaking 20·1 per cent. (55,213), or a proportion of nearly 4 to 1.

The Osmanli Turkish spoken by the Moslems is considered very pure. The official language is English. Turkish and Greek are recognized in the Administration, the Legislative Councils, and the Courts. Italian and French are spoken by a few families of foreign origin; Arabic by the Maronites and Druses and others of Egyptian origin.

(6) Population

Distribution

The population, in round numbers 274,000, is distributed as follows among the six administrative districts:

Nicosia (Lefkosia) .	81,500 (78 per sq. mile)
Famagusta . .	58,500 (72 ,, ,,)
Limassol . . .	46,100 (85 ,, ,,)
Paphos . . .	38,500 (67 ,, ,,)
Larnaka . . .	29,700 (81 ,, ,,)
Kerynia . . .	19,700 (80 ,, ,,)

The population is densest in Limassol, which contains not only the port of that name, but the chief fruit-plantations and vineyards. Larnaka, the second district in point of density, contains the chief port and comparatively little barren mountain country. Kerynia, the third, is a small district, fertile and healthy, and the centre of the sponge-fishing. Of the less densely populated districts Nicosia contains a large part of Troodos; Famagusta includes the Karpass promontory; and Paphos is a mountainous district, cut off from the rest of the country.

The average density for the island is 77·25; and on the whole the distribution is fairly even, owing to the fact that the inhabitants mostly live in scattered villages. The largest proportion of Moslems, 37·31 per cent., is found in Evdimou *nahia* (district); the largest of Greek Christians, 94·23 per cent., in Kilani *nahia*—both in the Limassol division. Kerynia and Paphos are especially frequented by the Turks. The Maronites occupy the region of Kormakiti.

The excess of males over females (males 139,383, females 134,725) occurs among Greeks as well as among Moslems. The same phenomenon occurs also in Greece and other Balkan states. In 1911 the total population of Moslems was 56,428 (males 29,302, females 27,126); of non-Moslems 217,680 (males 110,081, females 107,599).

Towns

Nicosia (*Lefkosia*, pop. 16,052), the seat of the Government, as in Frankish, Venetian, and Turkish times, and also of the Greek archbishop, lies near the middle of the island. It is sheltered by the mountain ranges on the north and south, and is healthy, but the water-supply is not good.

Limassol (pop. 10,302) was, before the British occupa-

tion, little more than a village; now, owing to its more salubrious position and the fruitful upland country, it outrivals Larnaka. It is the first port for the export of carobs and wine, and a military depot.

Larnaka (pop. 9,262) is the principal seaport of Cyprus, being the nearest to the fertile plains and of convenient access (26 miles) from Nicosia, the capital. It is the port for Christian and Moslem pilgrims. Except in spring, the country in the immediate vicinity is bare. The town, like Limassol, is modern.

Famagusta with *Varosha* (pop. 5,327) is an old Venetian town, with many ruined churches. The swamps and marshes surrounding it render its neighbourhood unhealthy, but the possession of the only good natural harbour on the island is sufficient reason for its existence.

Paphos with *Ktima* (pop. 3,435) was in classical times an extensive city, but has been ruined by successive earthquakes. The modern town owes its existence to the vicinity of mines, excellent vineyards and fruit-plantations, and the fine tobacco grown on the hill-slopes. It is also centre of the silk culture.

Kerynia (pop. 1,726), head-quarters of the sponge-fishing, possesses a small harbour, the nearest to the coast of Asia Minor. It is also the nearest landing-place and port to the island capital, Nicosia.

Movement

The census of 1911 shows an increase since 1881 (3 years after the British occupation) of 88,000 souls. The increase since 1901 is 37,086, or nearly 16 per cent. (Moslems, 5,119; non-Moslems, 31,967); density of population per square mile, 77·25 as against 66·13.

The Greeks are prolific; there is an average of six children in a family, and the Greek element increases rapidly. The improved sanitary conditions of the

island under British administration have, moreover, effected a marked reduction of disease and consequently lowered the death-rate.

The Moslems have few children. Polygamy is exceptional, and in the towns the death-rate exceeds the birth-rate, the numbers being kept up only by the Greek women absorbed into Moslem families. Even in the country the Moslem birth-rate does not produce a normal rate of increase.

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

Chronological Summary

B. C.	1450	Cyprus conquered by Thothmes III of Egypt.
	1100–1000	Greek colonization of Cyprus.
	58	Cyprus annexed by Rome.
A. D.	395	Cyprus part of Byzantine Empire.
	1184	Cyprus captured by Richard I of England.
	1192–1489	Lusignan Dynasty in Cyprus.
	1372–1464	Famagusta held by Genoese.
	1489–1571	Cyprus ceded to Venice.
	1571	Cyprus conquered by the Turks.
	1878	British occupation of Cyprus.
	1914	British annexation of Cyprus.
	1915	Cyprus offered to Greece, but refused.

(1) Early History

From the dim vista of the bronze age Cyprus emerges archaeologically and historically upon its conquest by Thothmes III in 1450 B. C. Since that date it has known the domination of many masters. To the Egyptians succeeded Assyrians, Persians, and again Egyptians, until, in 58 B. C., Rome annexed the island. These successive conquerors did not, however, greatly change the population, which was much more affected by the rival and successive colonies of Phoenicians from Tyre, Sidon, and elsewhere on the Syrian coast and of Greeks from the Aegean coast and islands. The Greeks finally gained the predominance, often attaining some degree of independence under their local kings; and Cyprus came to be regarded, from the sixth century down to the time of Alexander the Great, as the easternmost outpost

of Greek civilization—a tradition which has had considerable influence upon political sentiment in the island itself and also in the modern kingdom of Greece.

Upon the partition of East and West in A. D. 395, Cyprus fell to the Byzantine Empire, a member of which it remained, subject to divers Moslem incursions from Syria, till 1184. In that year Isaac Komnenos, the Byzantine, seized and held it till he was ejected by Richard I of England, who married Berengaria of Navarre at Limassol. Richard sold the island to the Knights Templars in 1191; but in 1192, being unable to control the rebellious Greeks, the Knights withdrew to Syria, leaving Richard to transfer Cyprus to the Lusignans, who ruled it for three hundred years. In 1372 the Genoese ravaged the island and captured Famagusta, which was, however, recovered by the Lusignan King James II in 1464. In 1489 the rights of the Lusignan dynasty were renounced by Queen Catherine (Cornaro) in favour of the Venetian Republic, which held the island till 1571, when it was conquered by the Turks. Thenceforward, for three centuries, it formed part of the Ottoman Empire, until in July 1878,[1] by treaty with the Porte, it passed under British control.

(2) British Occupation

On July 12, 1878, Vice-Admiral Lord John Hay hoisted the British flag in Nicosia, the capital, and on July 22 Lieut.-General Sir Garnet Wolseley assumed the government of the island as Her Majesty's High Commissioner, bringing with him a large force of British and Indian troops, certain special service officers, and three civilian officials. The troops camped in the island appear to have suffered severely in health; but it is probable that an injudicious

[1] Appendix A, I and II.

choice of camping grounds, single bell-tents, and a too generous canteen, under the burning summer sun of Cyprus, had something to do with this. Experience has remedied these defects, and the island has served as a convalescent station for troops during the recent war. On June 23, 1879, Colonel Robert Biddulph, C.B., now General Sir Robert Biddulph, was appointed High Commissioner; and in 1880 the island came under the Colonial Office. Since then it has been administered as a Crown Colony, although always officially recognized as forming part of the Ottoman Empire until its recent annexation.

Discontent among the Greek population led in 1889 to the sending of a deputation of three leading Cypriots to lay their grievances before the Imperial Government. The deputation was sympathetically received, but no important changes resulted. In 1907 further proposals were submitted by the Greeks for giving power to the elected members of the Legislative Council, subject only to the veto of the Crown. These, however, were rejected as impracticable.

(3) Annexation by Great Britain

On November 5, 1914, after the declaration of war between Turkey and Great Britain, a Proclamation,[1] published simultaneously with an Order in Council,[2] announced the annexation of the island. By the terms of this document, Ottoman subjects born in Cyprus and resident in Cyprus at the date of the annexation became British subjects, while Ottoman subjects not born in Cyprus but resident there on the date of the annexation were allowed one year within which to leave the island, failing which they would become British subjects. This Proclamation was

[1] Appendix A, IV. [2] Appendix A, III.

revoked on March 3, 1915, by a new one[1] which decreed that all Ottoman subjects resident in Cyprus on November 5, 1914, became British subjects, but that any such Ottoman subject who desired to retain his nationality might, by notice under his hand addressed to the High Commissioner, elect to do so within one month of the Proclamation coming into force, in which case he had to leave Cyprus within two months of so electing, failing which he would be treated as a British subject. Only a few persons, and these chance visitors to Cyprus, elected to retain their Ottoman nationality. The announcement of the annexation, it is stated in the High Commissioner's Report, was received generally with enthusiasm, not only by the Christian population, but by the large majority of the Moslem inhabitants.

[1] Appendix A, V.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) Religious

The population of the island may be divided into two main elements: the Christians, who are mostly Greek, and the Moslems, who are almost entirely Ottoman (see above, p. 7). In 1911 members of the Cyprian Orthodox Christian Church numbered 214,480 (78·24 per cent. of the total population of Cyprus); Mohammedans, 56,428 (20·6 per cent.); other denominations, including Maronites, Gregorians (Armenians), and Church of England, 3,200.

Christian.—The Greek Church in Cyprus is autocephalous, electing, through the Synod, its own head in the person of the Archbishop of Cyprus. The Church of Cyprus is in communion with the other Orthodox Christian Churches of the East; but it is subject to no patriarch and has always claimed independence. It receives the holy ointment from without—till 1680 from Antioch and subsequently from Constantinople—but as a matter of courtesy and not of right. There are four sees: Nicosia, Paphos, Kition (embracing the civil districts of Larnaka and Limassol), and Kerynia; and these are of metropolitan rank, so that the Archbishop, whose head-quarters are now at Nicosia, is a primate among metropolitans. A contest for the archbishopric a few years ago, dividing the co-religionists into two hotly antagonistic bodies, greatly perplexed the minds of the Government, and at one time resulted in the election of two archbishops holding office at

the same time and a certain amount of rioting only quelled by the use of the military force.

There are several monasteries of great age. Pilgrims, even from Russia, resort to that of the Holy Cross on Stavrovouni, twelve miles from Larnaka, to revere a relic of the Cross, and especially to the Kykkou monastery in the hills near Mt. Troodos. This monastery has valuable property in Turkey, Russia, and the Balkans, the gifts of Orthodox Christians. The influence of the Church on the people is great. Until the British founded an Agricultural Department, the monks were the best cultivators.

There is an Anglican archdeacon under the jurisdiction of the Bishop of Jerusalem. The British community has erected a good church at Nicosia and some smaller places of worship in other towns.

Moslem.—The Moslems are Sunnis of the Hannifite rite. There are a chief Kadi, a Mufti, and three district Kadis. There are numerous mosques and several converted Latin Christian churches, including, at Nicosia, a fine Gothic cathedral church erected in the thirteenth century under the Lusignans. Various Moslem shrines exist; one, which lies about 4 miles from Larnaka, on the western shore of the great salt lake, is a favourite place of pilgrimage.

Properties which are dedicated to religious and charitable uses are known as *evqaf* (plural of *vaqf*) and are specially dealt with. *Vaqf* land includes properties of considerable area and value in Cyprus; and these have been administered under the Cyprus Convention by the Delegates of Evqaf and those attached to mosques, religious establishments, &c., in conjunction with a British Delegate nominated by the British Government. The properties are inalienable and mostly vested in hereditary trustees, and include mosques, tombs, establishments which

house dancing or other dervishes, and land which has been dedicated to religious or charitable purposes by permission of the Sultan. It has been the policy of the British Government here, as in India, to respect not only the properties themselves pertaining to the religion of Islam, but also the laws and regulations which are directed to control them; and there is little doubt that the acquiescence of the Moslem inhabitants in the British regime is in a great measure due to this principle.

There are several popular survivals of ancient paganism. A coin, Charon's tribute, is placed between the lips of a corpse; the Virgin Mary is in one place called Panagia Aphroditissa; and the Aphrodite water festival is kept up at Larnaka and Limassol at Whitsuntide.

(2) Political

During the first year of the Occupation the island was administered under the Foreign Office, practically according to the Turkish system found in force, but modified somewhat in its application by Western ideas.

Legislature.—At the close of the year 1882 the island was endowed with representative institutions, in the shape of a Legislative Council, under the presidency of the High Commissioner, consisting of eighteen members, six of whom are public officers nominated by the Crown, the rest being elected by the people for five years, unless the Council is dissolved sooner. Of the twelve elected members, nine are elected by voters of the Christian community, and three by voters of the Mohammedan community. The elected members are chosen by constituencies consisting of every male person, being either an Ottoman[1] or British

[1] The annexation of the island has modified the franchise qualification.

subject or having resided in the island not less than five years, who has attained the age of twenty-one years and pays any of the class of taxes called *verghi*. Laws enacted by the High Commissioner and the Legislative Council must be submitted for the approval of the Crown in the usual way. Not only has Cyprus a legislative body in which the elective element far outnumbers the official, but also in the Executive Council, which forms the High Commissioner's advisory body, there are, in addition to the three official members, three non-official members appointed by him, who, however, need not always be summoned. Cyprus, therefore, though governed nominally as a Crown Colony, enjoys to a certain degree representative institutions.

Local Administration.—Municipal Councils have been set up in the principal towns; some are inefficient, but others—especially that of Limassol—are active and enterprising. The village system of Mukhtars or headmen and Agas or elders has been preserved, but the Mukhtars have been made elective, with somewhat doubtful results. 'Field watchmen' are appointed to guard the crops. Some further link is, however, required between the village organization and the Commissioner, who is the direct representative of the Government, since the Mudirs, who served as intermediaries under the Turks, are now employed principally as Sheriff's officers.

Justice.—The administration of the law in Cyprus at the time of the Occupation was attended by many evils detrimental to the interests of justice, which led to an urgent appeal to the new governing authority for reform. The law in force consisted of the *Mejellé*[1]

[1] As in the courts of ancient Rome the judges decided cases on the facts disclosed, basing their decisions on the declarations of the law given by the jurisconsults, so in the Moslem courts they based

or Sacred Law, and the Ottoman Land and Criminal and Commercial Codes (the two latter founded on the Code Napoléon)—the whole forming, with Procedure Codes, what was called the Destour or Authorized Collection. This is still in force, save in so far as it has been repealed or modified by Statute.

One of the first steps of the British Government in 1878 was to institute by Ordinance No. 1 of that year a High Court of Justice, the members of which were the High Commissioner, the Judicial Commissioner, and the Deputy Commissioners in the districts, to have jurisdiction over British and foreign subjects in civil and criminal matters; but Ottoman subjects were left under the sole jurisdiction and authority of the Ottoman Courts in existence prior to the Occupation.

The condition of things, however, in the Ottoman Courts called loudly for reform; consequently, in 1882, the Cyprus Courts of Justice Order in Council was promulgated and came into force early in 1883. This Order in Council, which is still in force, constituted a Supreme Court consisting of a Chief Justice and Puisne Judge, both being English barristers, for the whole island, and six District Courts, each composed of an English barrister as President and one Moslem and one Christian member. This system doubtless leads to an impartial administration of justice, but it is cumbrous and expensive.

The Supreme Court is a Court of Appeal from District Courts in both their civil and criminal jurisdiction, and it has certain jurisdiction in bankruptcy, lunacy, and matrimonial cases formerly vested in the

their decisions on the Fetwas given by the muftis. The *Mejellé* is a sort of digest of Fetwas, a collection of legal decisions compiled from authoritative Fetwas for the use of the Nizam courts. English judges now use the *Mejellé* and give their decisions on principles therein contained.

High Court of Justice. It also has original jurisdiction under the Cyprus Neutrality Order in Council, and under the Cyprus Extradition Order in Council, both of 1881. It is a Colonial Court of Admiralty, and one judge has power to deal with election petitions. Appeals lie from its judgements, under restrictions, to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council.

The Order in Council (1882) provided for the Courts having jurisdiction over Ottoman subjects as distinguished from non-Ottomans, and the law to be applied to them. The annexation of the island by Great Britain and the consequent conversion of Ottoman nationality into British have necessitated the passing of another Order in Council, cited as the Cyprus Courts of Justice Amendment Order 1914, by which Cypriots who have become British subjects have had their rights reserved to them as regards the law to be applied to them and the Courts to have jurisdiction over them in accordance with the Cyprus Courts of Justice Order 1882.

By Law No. 2 of 1915, the British Subjects' Marriage Law 1889 was declared inapplicable, but the Infants' Estates Administration Law 1894 and the Births and Deaths Registration Laws 1895 and 1913 were retained as applicable, to persons who being Ottoman subjects became British subjects, by virtue of the Cyprus (Annexation) Order in Council 1914, from the date of the Order in Council.

The Order in Council of 1882 also limits the jurisdiction of the Mahkemé-i-Sherieh Courts alluded to in the Annexe to the Convention [1] to the cognizance of religious matters relating to Moslems, such as marriage, divorce, alimony, inheritance, and care of persons and estates of infant orphan Moslems. These Courts comprise that of the Kadi of Cyprus with

[1] Appendix A, II.

jurisdiction in Nicosia town, the Kadi of Nicosia-Kerynia with jurisdiction in those districts excepting Nicosia town, the Kadi of Larnaka-Famagusta, and the Kadi of Limassol-Paphos. These tribunals are retained in conformity with Article 1 of the Annexe of the Convention of June 4, 1878.[1] The reform of the Courts and their procedure was eagerly welcomed by the people, and has met with universal favour.

Police.—In September 1878 it was found necessary to constitute a force of Military Police, with a strength of some 17 officers and 200 mounted and about 390 unmounted men, in which were embodied most of the old Turkish Zaptiehs found in the island, to the number of about 270, but few of the Turkish officers, most of whom were illiterate. The new force, comprising not only Moslems (as before), but Christians, was amalgamated in 1880 with the Cyprus Pioneers, raised in 1879, and now forms a body of some 23 officers, 682 N.C.O.'s and men, and 248 mounted men, under the command of a Chief Commandant. The mounted men are trained as mounted infantry and the foot as infantry. They have won for themselves a high character for zeal and efficiency in the maintenance of law and order, the detection of crime, and the performance of the multifarious duties devolving on them in connexion with local laws.

(3) Public Education

Sir Robert Biddulph, in his first general Report on the island in 1880, considered the state of education to be at a low standard, the majority of the agricultural population having received little or none, while in many villages not a single person could read or write; the education of women was almost

[1] Appendix A, II.

entirely neglected. Some sixty-five Moslem and eighty-three Christian schools, mostly in the towns, existed at the time of occupation, the Moslem schools being to a small extent State-aided, though without inspection and indifferently attended. Little more than the recitation of the Koran was taught in the Moslem schools, while the Christian schools, mainly supported by the Church, possessed a curriculum embracing arithmetic, geography, ancient Greek, and sacred history.

In 1880 a Director of Education was appointed, and in 1881 the Government promised grants in aid, in proportion to the efforts of the people and supplementary to existing sources of support, if certain conditions were fulfilled, of which the most important was the election of School Boards in the villages. In 1883 the Director of Education, who, relieved of administrative duties, had become Inspector of Schools, reported real progress and marked improvement in many schools both Christian and Moslem. In 1905 Boards of Education were established, one to regulate the Moslem and the other the Christian schools. In 1905 and 1907 Education Laws were passed, consolidating and improving the old system, but assigning the administration of the law to Village and District Committees with the Moslem and Christian Boards of Education, while the High Commissioner has the power to prescribe the support of schools in villages unprovided for. The dual system of schools resolves all questions of religious teaching, which, however, in both classes of schools forms a highly important part of the curriculum.

In 1912 there were 391 Greek Christian and 175 Moslem State-aided schools, besides 4 Greek Christian and 16 Moslem unaided schools, educating some 25,656 Greek Christians and 5,926 Moslems, including boys

and girls. In 1916–17 the total number of schools had increased to 699 with 865 teachers and 39,567 scholars on the books and an average daily attendance (except in harvest time) of 35,701 (84 per cent. in Moslem and 92 per cent. in Christian schools), receiving a total grant in aid from the island revenue of £8,195 per annum, which, with £24,446 raised locally by assessments, &c., makes a total of £32,641.[1] Besides the elementary schools there are various secondary schools for both boys and girls. State aid is also given to a few Armenian and Maronite schools. Among the secondary schools are the *Idadi*, a Moslem high school, entirely maintained by Government (in place of the *Rushdie* school supported in Turkish times); the Greek Gymnasium (like the *Idadi* at Nicosia), to which is attached a training department for teachers in the Greek elementary schools; and smaller Greek high schools in various provincial towns.

In Nicosia is an excellent English school for boys on the lines of a grammar school. In 1912, to 26 English boys there were 65 Greek boys, and others representing every race and religion on the island, besides pupils from Egypt and other neighbouring countries. There is also an American school (instruction in the English language) at Larnaka.

A commercial school was founded in 1912 by a Greek. There are Greek, Moslem, and English girls' schools.

From these facts it is clear that education has been eagerly sought, and that much has been done since 1878 by the Government to enable the people to reap the advantages they desire; but the census of 1911 still returned 84,530 males and 116,162 females as illiterate. It must be remembered, however, that education is

[1] Cyprus Annual Report for 1916-17. Parliamentary Paper, Cd. 8434.

not compulsory, and that, the inhabitants being mostly agricultural or pastoral in their pursuits, both boys and girls are retained at home by their parents to assist them in their labours.

With the object of providing a practical equipment for young people desirous of agricultural work, a Government Agricultural School was established in 1913. It has a syllabus including instruction in plant structure, the nature and habits of injurious insects, elementary agricultural chemistry, the use of modern implements, sericulture and bee-keeping, and, as supplementary subjects, in poultry-keeping, elementary veterinary instruction, and agricultural book-keeping. There were originally twelve Moslem and nineteen Greek Christian students. Schoolmasters have also been receiving courses of agricultural instruction during their vacations.

Besides the official *Cyprus Gazette*, there are two English magazines, three Turkish newspapers, and sixteen Greek newspapers and magazines.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) Internal

(*a*) *Roads*

The roads of Cyprus are divided into two main classes: (*a*) main roads, maintained by the Public Works Department; and (*b*) village roads. By the Village Road Law of 1900, each able-bodied villager is obliged to devote six days' labour a year to any road or other work of public utility which may be decided on by the village council. The Government provides the bridges and culverts, and the work is carried out with the technical assistance of the Public Works Department. These roads are chiefly cart and bridle roads. The forest paths are under the control of the Forest Department.

At the time of the British occupation very few of the roads were more than rough tracks. To-day Cyprus may be said to have better roads than any other island in the Mediterranean. According to the official return, 684 miles of main roads were maintained in 1915; they are in general 16 ft. in width, and mostly metalled throughout. There were also over 1,000 miles of village roads. The roads from Nicosia to Larnaka, to Kopinou and to Kerynia, from Larnaka to Limassol and to Famagusta, from Famagusta to Yialousa, from Limassol to Platres on the slopes of Mount Troodos and to Paphos, are fit for motor traffic throughout the year; the other main roads during the dry season, from May to November.

By the construction, since the British occupation, of some 2,000 bridges and culverts, the numerous torrents which in winter cross the roads are no longer a source of danger to the traveller.

P.S. 803 Wt. 6325/D. 735 1000 6/20 F.O.P. [3458]

(*b*) *Rivers*

There are no navigable rivers in Cyprus. Even the most important, such as the Pedias (about 65 miles long) and the Yalias (60 miles long), are almost dry in summer. There are no navigable canals.

(*c*) *Railways*

The only railway is the Government line, opened 1905-7, which runs across the island from Famagusta to Nicosia and Morphou, with the extension, opened in 1915, up the valley of the Solia to Evrykhou on the northern slopes of the Troodos range. The total length of these lines is 76 miles. The track is single, of narrow gauge (2 ft. 6 in.). The railway was built by the consulting engineers to the Crown Agents for the Colonies from a fund provided by loan under the Colonial Loans Act of 1899 at a total cost of £164,136. Its administration is regulated by the Cyprus Government Railway Law of 1906. In 1912 its rolling-stock consisted of eight locomotives, thirteen passenger waggons, and thirty-one goods and ballast waggons. It carries about 130,000 passengers, and 80,000 tons of freight annually. The traffic has of late steadily increased, as the following figures show :—

Year.	Gross Earnings.	Working Expenses.
	£	£
1906–7	7,647	9,947
1907–8	12,380	12,557
1908–9	11,443	12,460
	10,998	12,054
1910–11	10,347	12,175
1911–12	11,407	11,663
1912–13	12,333	12,404
1913–14	13,463	11,968
1914–15	13,551	11,934
1915–16	15,785	13,866
1916–17	19,914	16,608

Branch lines from the copper mine at Skouriotissa to the main line, and thence to the sea near Karavostasi, have been begun, but their completion has been delayed owing to the difficulty of obtaining materials and rolling-stock during the war.

Of the loan of £254,000 obtained for the railway and for Famagusta harbour, £200,800 was outstanding on March 31, 1916.

(*d*) *Posts, Telegraphs, and Telephones*

Whereas in 1878 there was not a post office in the island, in 1915 there were sixty-four post offices and 196 rural mail stations. The post office revenue in 1915 amounted to £7,508, the expenditure to £6,868, not including a sum of £4,631 paid as subsidy for the mail steamer. Since 1910 a contract has been entered into with the Cairo Motor Company for a daily motor-'bus service for passengers and mails between Nicosia, Larnaka, and Limassol, a distance of about 67 miles. A similar service between Limassol and Paphos was inaugurated in December 1916.

In 1915 there were 245 miles of telegraph line working, of which 170 belonged to the Eastern Telegraph Company, and the rest to the Government railway. Up to 1916 there was no public telephone system, though there were several official and private lines, which in 1912 extended to 50 miles, exclusive of those belonging to the railway. In 1915-16 a line was constructed to connect Troodos with Evrykhou and Nicosia.

(2) External

(*a*) *Ports*

Cyprus possesses no harbour for large ships, but the small port of Famagusta is available for vessels of some size, and there are a few anchorages in open bays on the south and south-east coasts. Those at Larnaka and Limassol are safe, even in winter, pro-

vided the anchors and cables are efficient. Shipping returns for Cyprus for 1913 are given in Appendix B, Table V.

Famagusta.—Population (with Varosha) in 1911, 5,327. 'It is almost needless,' wrote Admiral Sir G. Phipps Hornby, Commander-in-Chief of the Mediterranean Fleet, in 1879, 'to speak of the position of Famagusta, for it must strike the eye of every seaman. Situated 250 miles from the entrance of the Suez Canal . . . . at less than half that distance from the open roadsteads of the Syrian and Karamanian coasts . . . . it would seem that the whole trade of those coasts must be drawn to the only port which can afford this perfect shelter, and the facilities for rapid loading and discharge which merchant ships require.'

The harbour works suggested by Admiral Hornby were completed in 1906 at a cost of £126,000. The inner harbour consists of an absolutely protected basin of 80 acres, of which 12½ are dredged to 24 ft., with a channel of approach 250 ft. wide and 26 ft. deep. There is further accommodation for sailing vessels and small craft in a basin of 2 acres. The inner harbour has a concrete quay wall 900 ft. long, and a reclaimed wharf area of 5 acres, with a space for customs house, warehouses, &c. The outer harbour is formed by a line of rocky islets, which give shelter from south-east gales, and has a depth of 3-4½ fathoms. A breakwater could easily be constructed here. It has been said that, with further expenditure, Famagusta could be made the best harbour of the Near East. At present, however, its trade, though steadily improving, is but small. Notwithstanding the fact that it is the only port which has railway communication with the capital of the island, the steamers of the Austrian Lloyd and the Messageries Maritimes still prefer Larnaka as a port of call. Since the war began, the latter line has deserted Larnaka for Famagusta; but this may be a temporary measure.

The following are the official returns of the shipping and trade of Famagusta for the year 1913:—

—	Entered.		Cleared.	
	No. of Vessels.	Tonnage.	No. of Vessels.	Tonnage.
Sailing vessels	223	8,584	243	9,087
Steamers ..	42	42,976	10	10,837

In 1913 the value of the imports at Famagusta, including Carpas, was £134,442, of the exports £101,890; in 1916, £379,451 and £171,960 respectively.

Larnaka.—Population in 1911, 9,262. Larnaka is situated on a shallow and exposed roadstead. Mr. Fairfield reported in 1882 that the creation of a harbour there 'would be almost impossible of accomplishment, even with unlimited money.' The anchorage is described as safe, but very uncomfortable in south-east gales. There is an iron pier 900 ft. in length, completed in 1909, with a sheltering arm extending 250 ft. north, on which is an 8-ton crane; the depth alongside is 7 ft. According to the High Commissioner's report for 1909-10, safe landing is now provided for mails, goods, and passengers, and good shelter is afforded for lighters. But the *Mediterranean Pilot* for 1915 states that landing at the pier in winter is sometimes impracticable, and at all times, unless the sea is absolutely smooth, very disagreeable. There is also a jetty 400 ft. long, built for the salt traffic. A tramway, 1,100 yards long, connects it with the Salt Lake (see below, p. 49).

Shipping returns for 1913 are as follows:—

—	Entered.		Cleared.	
	No. of Vessels.	Tonnage.	No. of Vessels.	Tonnage.
Sailing vessels	165	8,585	123	7,233
Steamers ..	85	162,123	84	163,028

The value of the imports in 1913 was £272,716, and of the exports £244,520; in 1917, £262,032 and £251,495 respectively.

Limassol.—Population in 1911, 10,302. The anchorage is in the open Akrotiri Bay, and is similar to that at Larnaka. There is a quay with tram and turntables, from one end of which extends an iron pier 906 ft. long, with a T-head and a depth of 15 ft. at the end, where small steamers can lie and coal; there is a 7-ton crane on the T-head, and another travelling on trolley lines. At the other end of the quay wall is a jetty, 300 ft. long, and 7 ft. wide for most of its length, but for the last 60 ft. widened to 17 ft. Landing at Limassol during north-east and south-east gales is rendered impossible by the surf, and for about forty-five days in the winter months cargo cannot be worked.

Shipping returns for 1913:—

—	Entered.		Cleared.	
	No. of Vessels.	Tonnage.	No. of Vessels.	Tonnage.
Sailing vessels	181	9,092	149	7,793
Steamers ..	89	127,061	82	117,751

The value of the imports in 1913 was £148,087, and of the exports £196,607; in 1917, £204,502 and £227,657 respectively.

On the west coast the chief port is Paphos, the port of Ktima (population 3,435). It has a small harbour of $3\frac{3}{4}$ acres, dredged to a minimum depth of 8 ft. at low water, and suitable as a harbour of refuge for small coasters. Inside the harbour is a small iron pier, with 5 ft. of water alongside. In 1913 twenty-one vessels, of 300 tons, entered, and forty-six, of 740 tons, cleared. In 1913 the imports amounted to £11,151, and the exports to £41,781; in 1917 to £42,475 and £28,951 respectively.

The other harbours of Cyprus are small and unimportant. On the north coast, Kerynia, with a population of 1,726, has a harbour which is suitable for small craft, though it affords little shelter from the north-east and north. Its average depth is two fathoms; it has been dredged to a minimum depth of 8 ft. at low water, and a jetty has been constructed which extends 20 ft. into deep water. In 1913 the imports were valued at £8,175, and the exports at £16,857. Other small ports on the north coast are Mikhail Arkhangelos, the port of Akanthou; Latzi, the port of Polis, in Khrysokhou Bay; and Karavostasi, the port of Lefka, in Morphou Bay. There are small jetties at all of these, and at Karavostasi a pier is under construction.

There is a small jetty on the coast near Pyrgo, to facilitate the transport of timber from the forests of the Paphos mountains.

On the south coast, Zygi is a small port possessing a jetty 408 ft. long with 6 ft. of water at the end. It is provided with tram lines, and is suitable for the export of carobs.

On the east coast there is a jetty at Boghaz, near Tricomo.

(*b*) *Shipping Lines*

Local.—The Limassol Steamship Company, inaugurated in 1905, runs a weekly service between Alexandria and Port Said, Famagusta, Larnaka, and Limassol. For some years it held the contract for the mails for Egypt, but the service provided by it was apparently regarded as inadequate, for this contract was not renewed when it expired in 1912.

British.—The Moss Steamship Company (Ellerman) runs occasional steamers between Egypt, Cyprus, and Turkey. The steamers of the Prince Line usually call at Cyprus for carobs and beans.

Italian.—A steamer of the Navigazione Generale Italiana (Florio Rubattino) calls at Larnaka fortnightly.

Austrian.—The Austrian Lloyd had a weekly service to Cyprus *via* Asia Minor, Syria, and Egypt.

French.—The Messageries Maritimes have a fortnightly service *via* Asia Minor and Syria.

German.—The Deutsche Levante Linie steamers to Alexandria called occasionally at Larnaka or Limassol.

Egyptian.—The Khedivial Mail Steamship Company has a weekly service from Egypt to Larnaka, Limassol, and Famagusta, with a fortnightly extension to Paphos. This line holds the contract for the mails for seven years as from October 1912. The subsidy amounts to about £5,000 a year.

(c) *Cables and Wireless Communication*

The Eastern Telegraph Company has a cable from Alexandria, which lands at Cape Kiti Dades and connects with Larnaka. The Imperial Ottoman Company's line from Latakia to the island had not been in working order for some years before the war.

There were no stations for wireless telegraphy in the island in 1913. By the Wireless Telegraphy Law of that year, the High Commissioner is given power to license the establishment of any such station, or the installation of any apparatus, in Cyprus.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) Agriculture

Nearly the whole population of Cyprus is engaged in some form of agriculture or in closely-allied industries. It is estimated that there are in the island about 2,293,760 acres, of which 1,200,000 are cultivated. A further 320,000 acres are thought to be capable of cultivation. There are 450,000 acres of forest land. The remainder is rocky and not cultivable.

(a) *Products of Commercial Value*

Cereals.—Of these the most important is barley, closely followed by wheat. Oats are extensively grown, and the cultivation of rye and maize, which

have been recently introduced, is proving increasingly successful. The chief agricultural regions are the Mesaoria Plain, and the plains of Limassol and Paphos. In good years the land is estimated to produce 30 bushels of wheat and 40 of barley per acre. With the giving up of primitive methods of cultivation, a still greater yield may be relied on, especially if the efforts of the Agricultural Department to stamp out disease are successful. The ravages, in particular, of two insect pests, the *sirividhi* caterpillar (*Oecophora temperatella*) and the Hessian fly (*Cecidomyia destructor*), have sometimes caused a loss of crop to the extent of 60 per cent. In 1913 the export of barley amounted to 320,067 bushels, of which 17,000 went to the United Kingdom; no wheat or oats, however, went thither in that year.

Forage Crops.—Of forage crops, the most important are vetches. The latest reports show a large increase in the cultivation of lucerne, while the experiments in growing sainfoin, berseem (Egyptian clover) and mangel-wurzel have proved successful.

Cotton.—The cotton industry of Cyprus is a very old one. Down to the end of the eighteenth century it was the chief source from which England drew her supplies, and the prosperity of Manchester may be said to be founded on it. Under the Turkish administration it declined, but it is now making steady progress, the export having doubled between 1899 and 1912. The Agricultural Department has made successful experiments with American cotton seed, which is found to give a yield several times greater than the native kinds. The area sown with cotton by private persons is reported to be continuously increasing. At present nearly all the cotton exported goes to France and Greece. Very little, doubtless owing to heavy freight charges, goes to the United Kingdom; thus, in 1912 out of a total export of 690 tons, only 8 tons went thither.

Flax is grown in considerable quantities in the Mesaoria Plain and near Morphou. Nearly all the linseed is exported; in 1913 the exports amounted to

284 tons, value £3,039. *Aniseed* is cultivated for its oil, chiefly near Morphou. In 1913, 942 tons were exported, mostly to France. *Sesame* is another important crop, for the use of its oil is allowed in the greatest fasts of the Greek Church, when olive oil is forbidden. It is chiefly grown in the Solia Valley and near Lapathos, often alongside cotton. In 1913, 107 tons were exported, all of which went to Egypt. The *Origanum* plant, which grows freely in the forests, gives a very important essential oil of great pharmaceutical value. In 1913, 42 cwt., value £980, were exported, all to the United Kingdom. Experiments in the production of geranium, juniper, laurel, marjoram, mint, myrtle, and sage oils have had encouraging results.

Tobacco.—Tobacco was first introduced into Cyprus in the seventeenth century, but crushing taxation, together with the preference shown by manufacturers for leaf from Macedonia, killed the industry under the Turks, and it is only since 1896 that any real progress has been made. The best tobacco is said to be that of Omodos, on the southern slopes of Mount Troodos; that of Paphos and the Karpass is also good, while the neighbourhood of Nicosia is likewise favourable to its growth. The chief fault of Cypriot tobacco has been that, owing to primitive methods of curing, it smokes too hot. The Agricultural Department is striving to remedy this defect. Hitherto the supply of tobacco has done little more than meet the local demand, but a Larnaka firm is now preparing Latakia tobacco on a large scale, and a fairly large area is being sown by private persons with a view to creating an export trade. During the last few years the Persian tobacco known as 'Tumbeki' (*Nicotiana Persica*) has received attention. For the manufacture of cigarettes, &c., see below, p. 52.

The export of *Vegetables*, chiefly onions and potatoes, is increasing.

The existence of two plants of importance for tanning is to be noted. The chief is the *sumach* (*Rhus coriaria*), which is used in the preparation of

Morocco leather, and with a mordant of tin affords a yellow colour in calico printing. This plant flourishes in nearly all the vineyards of the island, and if a central factory were set up, a regular trade might be secured. In 1913, 208 tons of leaves and 130 tons of ground sumach were exported, to the total value of £1,106; 46 tons of the leaves went to the United Kingdom. The second plant of the same nature is the *shinia* or *schinia* (the local name of the *Pistacia lentiscus*). Its leaves are useful for dyeing as well as tanning purposes, and a market should be found for it in both France and Italy.

The *Rosa damascena*, from which the best attar of roses is made in Bulgaria, flourishes in Cyprus. It has not yet been put to any commercial use, but large quantities of attar of roses might be produced.

Vines.—Viticulture used to be a most important industry; the raisins of Cyprus are particularly fine, and its wines have long been celebrated in the East. The soil and climate are said to be better for grapes than those of Australia. At the time of the British occupation, the industry had decayed, owing partly to oppressive taxation, and partly to the ravages of the destructive blight *Oidium Tuckeri*, which had made its appearance in 1853. Latterly, however, the cultivation of the vine has revived. Fortunately, the phylloxera has never affected the island. The tithe on grapes has been abolished, and the Department of Agriculture has waged ceaseless war on the *sirividhi*, and has slowly aroused the villagers to the value of modern methods of combating the evil. The Department has also established model vineyards, where instruction in the pruning and dressing of vines is given. Efforts have been made to stimulate the production of wine. The vine is grown in every part of the island, but the most productive region is the south-west, round Limassol and Paphos, where the vineyards cover the slopes of the Troodos Range up to a height of 5,000 ft. In 1912 the number of acres under vines was estimated at 46,600. For the manufacture of wine, see p. 50.

Fruit Trees.—The carob tree is of great importance, as its fruit, popularly known as locust beans, furnishes no less than one-third of the total exports of the island. More than half the beans exported are sent to the United Kingdom for cattle food; some also go to France for distillation. In the East they are used as food by the poor. The tree grows in a wild state in most parts of the island, but is valueless unless grafted. It flowers in August or September, and its fruit (a pod with ten to eighteen hard beans) is gathered in the following August. The Government does its utmost to foster this important industry. Over 60,000 trees are grown in the various Government gardens, and healthy trees are distributed. Destructive diseases and insects, especially the *Cecidomyia ceratoniæ*, which have of late years ruined so much of the fruit, have been considerably lessened by the introduction of improved methods of grafting and pruning. The chief carob regions are the Karpass and the south coast generally, Zygi being one of the chief ports of export. An export duty in lieu of tithe is levied at the rate of 9 Cyprus piastres per cantar (123 lb.) in the districts of Nicosia, Larnaka, and Limassol, and of 8 piastres in those of Famagusta, Paphos, and Kerynia.

The olive tree grows wild in most parts of the island, but, like the carob, is useless unless grafted. The Agricultural Department carries on a systematic olive-pruning campaign in the villages, and, with an improvement in the productiveness of the trees and in the methods of pressing the fruit, a considerable development of the trade in olive oil may be looked for. At present, however, there is scarcely enough for local consumption, and in 1913 only 19 tons, of the value of £8,318, were exported.

The trade of Cyprus in orchard and garden fruits is only now beginning to show an advance. It is capable of very great development. At present, for instance, hardly any of such fruit goes to the United Kingdom, except a few oranges and lemons. Even the raisins have no sale there. The Government is doing its best

to remedy this state of things, and the nursery gardens distribute good seeds and grafts; demonstrations in the systematic spraying of trees are given, and so forth. The most important crops are oranges and lemons: 16,133,844 were exported in 1913, of which 82,769 went to the United Kingdom, the rest to Egypt, Turkey, Greece, and Rumania. In the same year 4,969 tons of pomegranates were exported, all to Egypt. Melons, almonds, and the caisia, or white apricot, which is peculiar to Cyprus, are grown, and the Paphos district produces excellent figs.

Another tree which could be much more cultivated is the pistachio (*Pistacia vera*). Its cultivation requires no capital and little labour, and if it is grafted on the terebinth (*Pistacia terebinthus*), which is very common in the island, it will bear fruit in three years.

Live-stock.—The rearing of live-stock forms an important part of the rural industry of the island. The Government is doing its best to improve stock, and at Athalassa it has established a stock-breeding establishment, which in 1911 raised 2,353 head. Considerable success has attended its efforts. For instance, the breed of horses is stated to have been improved out of all knowledge by the importation of English stallions. The native horses, particularly the 'Paphos pony,' are strong and sturdy, though small. The Cypriot donkey is highly thought of, and would be better if the best jacks were not exported. The Government has set up a donkey-breeding station in connection with the Athalassa farm. Equally esteemed are the mules, and still more the hinnies, which are much exported for military purposes by reason of their weight-carrying power and capacity for mountain work. The native cattle resemble the Jersey variety, but, as they are almost wholly used as draught animals, they have not milked well. Devonshire stock has now been introduced, and this should increase the milking capacity.

The wool of the Cypriot sheep has a high reputation as 'an excellent class of carpet wool, which would always find a ready sale in the London market.' Sheep

have been sent from the island to South Africa to improve the breed there. The camel also does well, and there is a small export trade in this animal. In the island itself it is not so much used now, owing to the improvement in the roads. The buffalo disappeared in the seventeenth century, but a few have recently been introduced from Egypt. Goats are poor; it has been suggested that the Angora goat should be imported and bred in Cyprus, or crossed with the native goat for the sake of its hair (mohair). At present, however, goats are little but a nuisance; the harm they do to the forests, and the efforts that are being made to reduce their numbers are treated below (p. 43). The breed of pigs and poultry has hitherto been poor, but stock from England has now been introduced. The Government has begun to breed ostriches, but the success of the experiment seems at present doubtful.

In 1915 the numbers of the principal kinds of domestic animals in the island were estimated as follows:—

Horses, mules, and donkeys ...	70,161
Horned cattle	62,928
Sheep	282,235
Goats	228,232
Camels	1,355

The figures for the sheep and goats represent the numbers counted for tax, that is, animals of one year old and upwards; 30 per cent. may be added for those under that age.

Honey.—A certain amount of honey is sent to Turkey and Egypt; in 1913, 8 tons, to the value of £240, were exported. The Department of Agriculture is trying to expand this industry, and supplies patterns of bar-frame hives to local carpenters. A greatly increased output is possible.

Silk.—The silk industry of Cyprus, once so famous, was all but ruined in the middle of the nineteenth century by the arrival of the Pebrine disease in the island; this had the further effect that the land-

lords, in despair, cut down their mulberry trees. The State is making great efforts to revive this industry, its principal task at present being to procure eggs free from disease. There are now five sericultural stations at work in the island, where eggs are hatched by the Pasteur cellular system, demonstrations in the rearing of silkworms and the winding of silk given, and pupils trained. In a number of villages, societies have been formed for the encouragement of silkworm raising and mulberry planting. The chief centres of this industry are Paphos and the Karpass. The export of silk, nearly all in cocoons, has more than doubled in the last ten years. Practically the whole of the export goes to France.

(*b*) *Methods of Cultivation*

The general scarcity of capital in the island, the innate conservatism of the peasant, and the want of modern agricultural implements have long delayed progress. But great improvement is now evident. The Cypriot peasant is naturally very shrewd and intelligent, and if it can be proved to him by practical demonstrations that improvements are desirable, he will take to them. It has always been the policy of the Government to get into direct touch with him, to foster his initiative, to invite his co-operation in the village councils, and (especially through the co-operative credit societies, see below, p. 62) to rescue him from the grip of the usurer, nowhere more ubiquitous and tenacious.[1] The Agricultural Department acts as 'the pioneer to show the way in agricultural development.' It has successfully promoted the use of labour-saving machinery. Thus it produced a light iron plough, specially adapted to the needs of the island, and this is gradually superseding the old wooden plough. It carries out in the villages experiments in chemical manures to demonstrate the benefits of these fertilisers,

[1] See the Report of the Commission on the *Extent, Causes, and Effects of Indebtedness in the Island*, printed at the Government Printing Office at Nicosia, 1918.

furnishes information regarding methods of combating diseases and pests, and gives instruction in agriculture to schoolmasters in their vacations and to the future priests of the island in the Orthodox seminary in Larnaka. In the year 1913, the Government opened an agricultural school, with thirty-one students, to impart a practical knowledge of farming. For some years the model farm and breeding establishment which it has maintained at Athalassa, near Nicosia, besides raising stock, has carried on experiments with a view to improving pasture lands and to encouraging the more judicious selection of seeds, the introduction of new cereal and fodder plants, and similar objects. There is also an experimental garden at Nicosia, with smaller ones in other centres, to encourage and improve the cultivation of fruit trees in the island. School gardens have been established in many places. The Government has promoted the formation of village agricultural societies, and encouraged the holding of agricultural shows. An agricultural bank has also been established (see p. 62).

During the last few years the Government has undertaken a considerable scheme of irrigation. The Irrigation Law of 1897 gives it power to construct reservoirs, to acquire land and to appoint Boards of Irrigation; and in the preceding year the Colonial Office granted a £60,000 loan for this purpose. The greater part of the work has been carried out in the Mesaoria Plain, and the main part was completed by 1901. The surplus waters of the Rivers Pedias and Yalias were impounded, and the swamps in which they lost themselves partially drained and planted. A large reservoir was made at Synkrasi, and there are now four others in the island. The results, however, have not been very successful 'on account of the prejudices of the villagers, who prefer to wait till the last minute for rain; thus much water is wasted, because, as no summer crops except cotton are grown, most of the water stored evaporates before autumn.' Whether any other method of irrigation would prove effective appears, however, to be doubtful.

Several attempts have been made to sink artesian wells, but the resultant flow of water has in no case been encouraging. It is urged that the existing system of storage by means of wells, springs, &c., could not be further extended except at a prohibitive cost. On the other hand, it has been suggested that, in view of the indifference of the villagers to existing storage works, they should be helped by loans to provide wells, water-wheels, air-motors, &c., and that the experiments with artesian wells have hitherto been half-hearted and inconclusive.

(*c*) *Forestry*

When the British first occupied the island, they found the once-extensive forests in a deplorable condition. Forest fires, indiscriminate and wasteful felling of timber, often solely for the sake of a little resin, and the ravages of innumerable goats, had so denuded Cyprus of trees that the rainfall had diminished, and the rivers dried up. According to the Ottoman Law, forests are divided into four classes, State forests, *vakf* forests (*i.e.*, those belonging to pious foundations), village forests and private forests. Of the last there are supposed to be none in Cyprus. The Woods and Forests Ordinance of 1879 treated the first three as in the same category, thus restricting village privileges For some years, owing to the weight of the tribute, the Government could attempt little more than protection and preservation. Wherever it was possible the goats were excluded, the fires checked, and the fellings limited. Large schemes of re-afforestation were long delayed, not only by lack of means, but by the opposition of the more ignorant peasants, who looked on 'the grazing of flocks of sheep and goats in forest areas, felling of timber, and destruction of valuable timber by extraction of pitch, as venial offences.' Gradually, however, they are being brought to see the necessity of forest preservation. Their desire for grazing grounds has been met by separating 'common' lands from true

timber areas; timber stores have been established in villages; fuel and timber are sold to the people at cost price, and fuel plantations formed round centres of population. Above all, by the Goats Law of 1913 a great step was taken towards the elimination of the worst pest of all. It has been calculated that there were then in the island some 250,000 goats, that each goat did annual damage to the extent of ten shillings, and that the resultant loss of £125,000 a year probably exceeded the total value of the goats themselves. The law in question is one of local option—that is to say, if a majority of the property owners of a village vote against goats, a year's grace is given, and at the end of that period none may be kept within the village boundaries, the existing goats being bought by the Government. Except among the goatherd class, this measure has proved popular, and an increasing number of villages (in 1917, 90 out of a total number of 640) are now reckoned as 'prescribed' under the Act, and in 1917 the number of goats had been reduced to 183,700.

The State forests of Cyprus cover an area of about 700 square miles, of which some 219 may be reckoned first-class timber forests. They are chiefly situated in the southern range of mountains between Cape Akamas and Stavravouni, and in the northern range between Capes Kormakiti and Andréas. By far the most important tree is the Aleppo pine (*Pinus halepensis* or *maritima*), which gives excellent timber, and resists the droughts. The *Pinus laricio* is found on the Troodos Range above the height of 4,000 ft. The cedar grows extensively in the Paphos forest. The *Quercus alnifolia* and the *Arbutus andrachne* furnish wood for agricultural implements, chairs, &c. The plane, alder, and walnut flourish where there is water. The Forest Department has recently planted large numbers of Spanish chestnuts, and also the *Quercus ægilops*, with a view to producing valonia. The re-afforestation of the plains, which has been rendered difficult by reason of the effect of the summer heat on the young pine seed-

lings, is being effected by the planting of the wattle, eucalyptus, and other trees. Three forest stations with nursery gardens attached have been established for the supply of seedlings, &c. In 1913 the two sawmills in the Paphos forest alone turned out 40,827 cubic feet of timber, of the value of £2,966. In 1916 the forest revenue amounted to £27,182; for 1917 it is estimated at £47,000. 'There is every reason to hope that Cyprus may regain its position as one of the best timber-producing countries in the Levant.'

(*d*) *Land Tenure*

By far the greater part of the land is in the hands of peasant proprietors. Where large estates do exist, they are worked on the *metayer* system, or some similar principle. For example, under the system called *mezari* we find the usual arrangement of one party supplying the land, the other the labour, the produce being divided between them; and under the system called *mesakah*, one party supplies trees, the other labour, the fruit being divided.

A considerable area of land, about 1,400 square miles, is at the disposal of the State, half being forest land, the other half waste (*hali*) or unoccupied land known as *arazi mevat*, which 'must be so far from a town or village that the loud voice of a person from the nearest inhabited spot cannot be heard there.' This land is gradually being disposed of at a fair price. Thus, in the eastern part of the Mesaoria Plain, the State was able to offer over 4,000 acres of drained land, which could be irrigated from recently constructed reservoirs. A considerable amount of property has been bought by the Anglo-Egyptian Land Allotment Company.

It is to be noted that immovable property in Cyprus is 'still held by the tenure prevailing at the occupation, and is governed by the Ottoman Land Code.' But the British Government has so modified and improved the system of registration that 'it is now possible to

transfer immovable property almost as quickly as movable."[1]

(2) Fisheries

Apart from the sponge industry, these are unimportant. There are no fish in the rivers, though there are plenty round the coasts, especially red and grey mullet, bream, and bass. The fishermen are described as poor and unenterprising, their boats and nets as inferior. An improvement has, however, been noticed of late years, and the number of boats is constantly increasing.

At the time of the British occupation, the island derived but little benefit from the sponge fisheries (a Government monopoly), for they were worked entirely by foreign boats which went off without giving any account of their proceedings, and only paid small licensing fees. The industry is now worked under the direction of the Government Inspector of Fisheries. He sub-lets the rights of fishing, on condition of receiving an agreed portion of sponges as Government share, usually about 33 per cent. A considerable increase in this trade has been the result, though, by reason of the good quality of the sponges, it could be developed much further, especially if the local fishermen were more ready to receive instruction. In 1915 Cyprus waters were fished by seventeen harpoon boats and seven machine boats, which procured 229,216 sponges, weighing 4,819 okes (13,463 lb.). In 1913, 6,389 lb., of the value of £4,390, were exported, of which 285 lb. went to the United Kingdom. On account of the war no sponge fishing has been possible since 1915.

(3) Minerals

In Cyprus all minerals belong to the State. The mining laws are based on the Ottoman Land Code, the Ottoman Mines Regulation Law, and the Mines Regulation Amendment Law of 1882, together with the Mines and Minerals Order of 1911. All con-

[1] *Quarterly Review*, April 1917.

cessions formerly made by Imperial decree of the Sultan are now made by the High Commissioner in writing; the functions of the various Ottoman authorities are vested in the High Commissioner in Council; all rents and royalties are payable to the island treasury for the use of the Government of the island. The Government has made many attempts to develop the mining industry, in order to lessen the dependence of Cyprus on agriculture. It compiled a list of the numerous localities in which mines were anciently worked. But as the Legislative Council refused to modify the Turkish law on the subject, fair terms for persons who wished to prospect could not be secured. The success of the working of the asbestos beds caused the Government to be inundated with applications for licences to prospect. In 1908, fifty-seven, and in 1912, twenty-one prospecting licences were issued. The list of minerals concerned comprised copper, asbestos, manganese, coal, agate, asphalt, gold, graphite, iron, iron pyrites, lead, magnesite, micaceous iron, nickel, obsidian, oil-bearing strata, pyrites, silver, and tin. Expert advice was got from Europe, and in some cases favourable reports were received, but the results so far have not been very great. Whether the ancient mineral wealth of Cyprus was exaggerated, or the ancient mines exhausted, seems uncertain. Probably the former is the more likely explanation. Dr. Oberhummer has shown that there is no historical evidence that many of the minerals in which Cyprus was reputedly rich were ever found there at all. He denies that lead or silver was ever worked, and thinks it improbable that gold was found, and has some doubts about iron. Professor Dunstan considers that nickel probably occurs in the island.

At any rate the only one of the more valuable metals which has attracted serious attention in modern times is *copper*, and even in this case the outlook is still doubtful. Most of the surface metal seems to have been worked out by the Phœnicians and Romans, and it seems doubtful if copper of sufficiently high grade to

be worth working is present in any quantity. For some years past a syndicate has endeavoured to open out the old copper mines at Lymi, near Paphos. In 1909 it was merged into a new company with new capital. In 1910 it extracted 1,000 tons of copper ore, of which 60 tons were sufficiently good to send to London. But as a whole, though the quantity was considerable, the quality was low. Prospecting operations on a considerable scale have lately been carried on by an American syndicate, the Cyprus Mines Corporation, at Katydata, near the new railway extension, and at Foucassa, near Skouriotissa; from the latter mine 730 tons of first-class ore were extracted in 1915, and a railway 4 miles long will connect the mine with Karavostasi in Morphou Bay.

Far more important than copper is *asbestos*. With the exception of Canada and South Africa, Cyprus is the only country under British rule which produces this mineral. It is only within the last ten years that the industry has received serious attention in Cyprus. In 1907 an Austrian company, the Cyprian Mining Company, of Trieste, bought a concession in the Troodos forest, and by 1913 was able to export 1,168 tons, of which only 9 cwt. went to the United Kingdom, the greater part going to Italy and Austria. In 1916 the output had increased to 1,290 tons, of the value of £14,681. As the supply is practically unlimited, it would be easy to increase the annual export five times over. The chief fault of Cypriot asbestos lies in the shortness of its fibre, but the short-fibred variety is in increasing demand for the manufacture of fireproof bricks. A superior kind has recently been discovered near Paphos.

In 1915 the Cyprus Development Company extracted from the Akamas mines, in the Paphos district, 14½ tons of *magnesite*, all of which went to England. It is reported that there is a large deposit of *sulphate of aluminium* near Levkara.

There are many *gypsum* quarries all over the island, especially in the hills near Larnaka. It is quarried for

flagstones, and is exported to be made into plaster of Paris. The export trade is almost wholly with Egypt, and attained at one time considerable dimensions. Recently, however, an inferior kind of gypsum has been found in Egypt, and this local variety has almost driven out the superior Cyprus article. Thus the exports declined from 24,209 tons in 1907 to 3,714 tons in 1913.

Salt is a Government monopoly; its sale and manufacture are regulated by the Salt Law of 1889, as amended in 1911. By the terms of the 1878 convention 4,166,229 okes (about 5,000 tons) of salt were to be sent to Turkey in addition to the tribute, but this amount appears never to have been exacted. The deposits of salt are very extensive. The produce is chiefly derived from two lakes, one south-west of Larnaka, the other west of Limassol; as they are 7 to 10 ft. below the level of the sea, the sea-water percolates into them and incrustates. The salt harvest is in August. There is great scope for the development of this industry. At present the export is very small; in 1913 only 300 tons were exported, all to Turkey. If the method of collection were improved, a better market might be found, for the salt, especially that of Larnaka, is described as excellent for both domestic and medicinal purposes.

Terra umbra is found chiefly in the Larnaka district. There is an increasing export of it to Italy (see p. 57) and to the United States. In 1913, 3,813 tons were exported, to the value of £4,100, of which only 210 tons went to the United Kingdom. There is a small export of the less important *terra verde*, which is found on the northern slopes of the Troodos range. In 1913, 5 tons, to the value of £45, were sent to Italy.

Sandstone and *limestone* are extensively quarried. All the mediæval buildings are constructed of the former material. A soft *marble* is found in the Nicosia district, and used for paving.

Oil.—The Cyprus Oil Trust, Ltd., was registered in 1910, with a capital of £20,000 (£8,052 paid up).

with a view to prospecting for oil in the island. Prospecting operations were begun, but suspended owing to the war, and on June 18, 1915, the debit to the expenditure account of the company was £2,069.

There are a fair number of *mineral springs* in the island, the waters of which are mostly sulphurous and efficacious for gout, rheumatism, and similar complaints. At Kalopanayiotis, near Levka, in the Nicosia district, are the most popular baths in Cyprus; the waters are used both internally and externally. There are also springs at Kakopetria and Pedoulas, in the same district; at Myrtou, near Kerynia; at Yioulou, near Khrysokhou, in the Paphos district; and at Treis Eliaes, near Kilani, in the Limassol district.

(4) Manufactures

Wine and Spirits.—In the last years of Turkish rule the production of wine declined. This was partly due to the injury done to grape-growers by heavy taxation and disease among the vines. Moreover, although the local consumption and the export trade to countries of the Near East were considerable, the wines were too rough to have much vogue in the West. In the process of manufacture no care was taken in selecting the grapes; the wine was allowed to ferment in open vessels, was stored in earthenware jars coated with tar, and carried to port in tarred goat-skins.

Recent attempts to revive the wine trade of Cyprus have met with much success. The burden of taxation has been redistributed and the system of collection improved. Besides taking measures to encourage the cultivation of grapes (see above, p. 37) the Department of Agriculture supervises the manufacture of large earthenware jars for the storage of wines, and induces the villagers to glaze the interiors instead of pitching them with common tar.

The wine produced is of two kinds: (1) black wine or Mavro, of the character of Burgundy, which, it is said, would, with proper treatment, equal, if not excel,

the best wines grown in France; (2) Commanderia (so called because in the Middle Ages the wine districts were part of the estates or 'commanderies' of the Military Orders). This is a wine of the character of Madeira, which, indeed, is produced from vineyards originally stocked from Cyprus. At present, the fault of Commanderia is its extreme sweetness, but it could be so treated as to rival Madeira. There is also produced in the island a very fair port. If greater pains were taken in manufacture, if larger capital were available, and if the wine were advertised systematically, as Australian wine has been, there might be a most prosperous future for this industry. A beginning has been made in the Limassol district by an English company, the Centaur Wine Company, which has set up a central factory which buys grapes from the growers for cash and makes wine on a large scale. An extension of such factories or the establishment of wineries on co-operative principles, as in South Africa, would be of great benefit to the island.

The chief customer for Cypriot wines is Egypt, but a considerable quantity goes to France and Italy. The United Kingdom receives very little. Thus in 1913, out of 1,114,519 gallons of Mavro exported, the United Kingdom took only 87,178; out of 15,430 gallons of Commanderia, only 18.

Cyprus brandy has lately been making headway, and has found its way into the English market. It is manufactured by the Centaur Company. There are two kinds of native spirit which have a considerable sale in Syria and Asia Minor, namely, *raki*, which is made of the refuse of wine, and *zuki* or *masticha*, which is flavoured with gum mastic and aniseed. There were 42 distilleries in the island in 1915.

Cyprus vinegar has also a large sale in Turkey and Egypt. In 1912, 251,881 gallons, to the value of £4,029, were exported to those countries.

Cheese.—There is a fair trade in the goats' cheese made in the island, the best of which comes from

Akanthou, on the north coast. In 1911, 182 tons, to the value of £6,618, were exported, practically all of which went to Turkey and Egypt.

Cigarettes.—There is an increasing export of cigarettes of local manufacture, and the island consumption is also very large. They are mostly made of tobacco imported specially from Macedonia, and are described as being of excellent aroma, unscented, and cheap (1*s.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* a hundred); they are becoming increasingly popular in England. In 1912, the first cigarettes made from Cypriot tobacco were put on the market, and were considered to equal in flavour the best Turkish. In 1913, 3,476 okes of cigarettes (about 9,733 lb.) were exported, to the value of £2,840, about 85 per cent. going to the United Kingdom.

Textiles.—There are water-power hand looms for the manufacture of silk and cotton stuffs in nearly every village, and at Famagusta there is a cotton mill with 600 spindles, where local cotton is converted into yarn. The calico made in the island is described as of a good and serviceable, though coarse, kind. The greater part of the textile manufactures of the island are for local consumption, the export being very small. In 1913, the value of cotton goods exported was £7,055; of woollen, £397; and of silk, £257.

Leather.—This industry includes the tanning of leather hides for boots and shoes, and of goat-skins for the transport of wine. There were 14 tanneries in the island in 1915. There is a small export trade in boots to Turkey and Egypt.

Earthenware, Tiles and Bricks.—There are several factories for making rough tiles and bricks and oil and wine jars. The most important is that at Limassol, which exports bricks of a high quality and turns out tiles which will be exported when the works are extended. Nearly all the bricks exported from Cyprus go to Egypt.

Metal Work.—Most of the metal tools and utensils required for agricultural and household purposes are locally made. A certain amount of gold and silver

filigree and hammered silver work is turned out, especially at Nicosia.

Soap.—There are two soap manufactories at Nicosia and one at Limassol.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) Domestic

There is not a large home trade except in necessaries. The standard of comfort has very greatly increased of recent years.

(*a*) *Towns, Markets, Fairs*

Nicosia (Lefkosia) is the only town of any importance except those on the coast, which have already been dealt with (see pp. 30-33). In 1911, Nicosia had a population of 16,052. It is the centre of the industries of the great central plain of the island and has manufactures of local importance, tanneries, distilleries, and flour and cotton mills, some worked by steam, others by water. It has communication by rail with Famagusta and Morphou, and is connected by good roads with Larnaka, Limassol, and Kerynia.

Apart from Nicosia and the coast towns, there is only one town (Morphou) with a population of over 3,000, and there are only six with a population of between 2,000 and 3,000.

The fair is still an important institution in Cyprus, and nearly every village has one, held on a great feast or on the festival of the patron saint. An important market is held every Friday at Nicosia, which is largely frequented by the villagers of the Mesaoria region.

(*b*) *Organizations to promote Trade and Commerce*

The important part taken by the Department of Agriculture in the development of the resources of Cyprus has already been indicated. In addition to

its other activities, the Government publishes the *Cyprus Journal*, a quarterly review of the agricultural and other industries of the island, which is issued in English, Greek, and Turkish.

There is a school of commerce for Greeks at Larnaka, and another at Lemythou, with accommodation for 60 pupils. These are private institutions.

(2) Foreign

The foreign trade of Cyprus shows fairly consistent progress, as may be seen by the following figures (which include bullion and specie):—

Year.	Exports.	Imports.	Total Value External Trade.
	£	£	£
1878	157,328	177,651	334,979
1904	488,401	472,476	960,877
1905	438,241	482,079	920,320
1906	483,956	603,054	1,087,010
1907	635,055	702,893	1,337,948
1908	653,591	618,781	1,272,372
1909	520,817	607,906	1,128,723
1910	651,068	588,480	1,239,548
1911	702,803	635,427	1,338,230
1912	789,915	706,169	1,496,084
1913	699,913	676,084	1,375,997
1914	550,239	570,050	1,120,289
1915	661,397	612,617	1,274,014

It will be noted that there has been an excess of exports over imports in five out of the last six years for which figures are given.

(*a*) *Exports*

Quantities and Values.—The exports are almost wholly of an agricultural character, those of manufactured goods being all but negligible, while of mining products only asbestos is exported in any quantity. The export of cereals is subject to violent

fluctuations according as the harvest has been good or bad. On an average, however, it may be estimated that the acreage and export of cereals have trebled since 1878. Wine, which is next in importance, has many difficulties to face, one of its chief markets, France, having almost shut it out by high duties, while in the other, Egypt, it is faced by the competition of cheap wines from Italy and Greece. Nevertheless, the export has doubled since 1878. The carob is probably the most secure item of the island's trade. Its export has enormously increased, nearly ten times as many carobs being exported in 1912 as in 1878, the value increasing from £29,971 to £251,750. The export of cotton has quadrupled in the same period, that of silk more than trebled, while that of fruit, raisins, and vegetables has become many times greater.

Countries of Destination.—Egypt is by far the most important market for the exports of the island, taking on an average not less than a third. The exports to Egypt have multiplied ten times since 1878, and include most of the cereals, live-stock, vegetables, fruit, and gypsum, and all the sesame crop. The United Kingdom is the next best customer. It takes on an average about 25 per cent. of the exports, whereas in 1878 its share was negligible (£4,934 out of £157,238). The greater part of the carob crop, much of the barley and oats, a certain number of oranges and lemons, most of the cigarettes, and all the origanum oil come to this country. France still stands third, but the growth of its trade with Cyprus has not kept pace with that of Egypt and the United Kingdom. This is partly explained by France's attitude to the wine trade. Nevertheless, France still buys nearly all the silk, aniseed and linseed, and much of the cotton. Turkey takes live-stock, spirits, salt, and sponges, but its trade with Cyprus has remained almost stationary since 1878. That of Greece, on the other hand, is ten times greater. A great deal of the cotton export goes thither. Austro-Hungarian trade has not grown so rapidly, but Austria takes most of the asbestos and

large quantities of raisins. The trade with Italy has not greatly increased since 1878, but wine, oats, asbestos, and the greater part of the *terra umbra* are sent thither. Germany had still but a small trade with Cyprus before the war, though it was slowly increasing as a result of the visits of the steamers of the Deutsche Levante Linie. There was a growing trade in raisins with Rumania.

(*b*) *Imports*

Quantities and Values.—The value of the imports into Cyprus has nearly quadrupled since 1878. With the exception of flour and such goods as tea, coffee and sugar, they consist almost entirely of manufactured goods and machinery. The industrial progress of the island and the growth of the prevalent standard of comfort are well illustrated by the details of the statistics. In 1878, the total value of imported machinery was £119. By 1904, it had risen to £7,372, and by 1913, to £26,354, the greater part representing agricultural implements, reaping machines, and the like. Manufactured goods show almost equal progress. The import of cotton goods has trebled in value since 1878, that of silk and woollen goods has increased even more. Of hardware and cutlery there is more than seven times as much imported as in 1878; of haberdashery and millinery, ten times; of coffee, five times; of flour, eight times; of tea and sugar, three times as much. There has also been a considerable increase in the import of coal, of which three times as much comes into the island as in 1878, and twice as much as ten years ago. A very similar rate of growth may be observed in the case of imports of petroleum.

Countries of Origin.—The United Kingdom furnishes by far the largest share of the imports of Cyprus; the contributor next in importance being Austria-Hungary, followed by Egypt, Turkey, and Italy. Imports from Germany were always relatively small. In 1878, the total imports from the United Kingdom

amounted to no more than £4,934 out of £177,651. During the years 1911-1913 they were nearly 30 per cent. of the whole, as the following table will show :—

Country.	Year.		
	1911.	1912.	1913.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
United Kingdom and British Colonies	26·9	29·0	28·7
Austria	13·3	15·1	14·4
Turkey	12·5	12·2	10·8
Italy	12·3	11·1	10·1
Egypt	9·8	8·4	11·3
France	7·3	7·2	6·7
Greece	5·4	5·0	5·5
Germany	3·7	4·5	3·8
Other countries	8·8	7·5	8·7

The following list shows the character of the goods sent to Cyprus by the principal contributors to its import trade. The figures in parentheses show what percentage of the total imports of the commodity named was supplied by the country in question in the year 1913:—

United Kingdom.—Flour (20), fish (nearly all), manufactured cotton (80), cotton yarn (50), woollen goods (30), haberdashery and millinery (50), hardware and cutlery (20), machinery (40).

British India.—Sacks (35).

Austria-Hungary.—Raw coffee (nearly all), sugar (nearly all), woollen goods (20), haberdashery, &c. (10), hardware and cutlery (20), machinery (8), glassware (50), cigarette papers (50).

Belgium.—Iron bars (50).

Egypt.—Rice (nearly all), coal (nearly all), petroleum (30).

France.—Flour (20), butter (20), manufactured silk (25).

Germany.—Tea (15), woollen goods (15), haberdashery and millinery (10), hardware and cutlery (25), machinery (7), earthenware and china (20).

Greece.—Tobacco (80), tumbeki (50), soap (30).

Italy.—Flour (20), cotton piece goods (20), cotton yarn (30), earthenware and china (20), machinery (10).

Rumania.—Timber (25), petroleum (15).

Russia.—Petroleum (50).

Turkey.—Olive oil (all), hides and skins (nearly all), timber (75), tobacco (a little), manufactured silk (a little).

The following statistical tables appear in the Appendix (B) :—

Table I.—Principal exports.
Table II.—Export trade with principal countries.
Table III.—Principal imports.
Table IV.—Import trade with principal countries.
Table V.—Shipping returns.

(c) *Customs and Tariffs*

The tariff now in force is laid down in Law 22 of the year 1899. The taxes on imports are partly on an *ad valorem*, partly on a specific basis. Under the former head come such important products as earthenware, glassware, hardware, leather (except sole leather), timber, &c. The general rate is 10 per cent., except for perfumery and cartridges, which pay 20 per cent., and arms, which pay 25 per cent. Animals and live-stock, cereals, manure and fertilisers, pig-iron, silkworm eggs (under conditions), and tools and implements used in agriculture and handicrafts are, *inter alia*, admitted free of duty.

The Turkish tax on exports was abolished by the British. Wharfage dues on a specific basis are imposed, partly in place of this, partly in place of tithes.

(D) FINANCE

(1) *Public Finance*

The following figures show the revenue and expenditure of Cyprus in the years 1904-1917:—

Year (April 1 to March 31).	Revenue [1]	Expenditure.[2]
	£	£
1904–5	218,884	154,406
1905–6	238,213	159,117
1906–7	286,873	182,066
1907–8	311,810	203,029
1908–9	303,477	244,061
1909–10	309,775	251,265
1910–11	286,848	251,520
1911–12	319,572	235,526
1912–13	334,685	258,661
1913–14	341,816	296,165
1914-15	290,110	316,414
1915-16	363,692	294,318
1916–17	332,584	318,378

The amount of public debt outstanding on March 31, 1913, was £269,227.

The financial history of Cyprus since the British occupation to March 31, 1915, may be summed up as follows:—

	£	£
Revenue (exclusive of grants paid)	7,926,849	
Grants in aid from British Treasury	1,247,085	
		9,173,934
Expenditure (exclusive of share of Turkish Debt charge)	5,662,381	
Turkish Debt charge payments	3,347,538	
		9,009,919
Surplus of receipts over expenditure		164,015

[1] Excluding Imperial grants.

[2] Excluding £92,800 annually paid to Turkey in accordance with the terms of the Convention of 1878.

Surpluses of revenue over expenditure are carried forward and are available for expenditure on public works and other works of a remunerative character within the island. There is also a fixed invested Reserve Fund of £90,000, formed from surplus balances of previous years.

The chief heads of Revenue, with the figures for 1913-1914 are given below:—

	£		£
Agricultural Department	4,212	Brought forward ..	257,633
Forest revenue ..	11,278	Court receipts and stamps	13,921
Irrigation	1,070	Interest on Government moneys	10,482
Land sales	52	Post Office	8,904
Pig tax	937	Royalties	1,392
Sheep and Goat tax ..	12,524	Specific services and reimbursements ..	5,532
Tithes	98,928	Defter Hakani[1] ..	12,920
Customs	52,117	Verghis[2]	29,895
Excise	51,107	Miscellaneous ..	1,137
Port dues, &c., ..	12,037		
Railway	13,371		
Carried forward ..	257,633	Total	341,816

In the same year the chief heads of Expenditure were:—

	£		£
Agricultural Department	7,081	Brought forward ..	108,531
Audit Department ..	1,659	Legislature	726
Charges on account of Public Debt ..	12,001	Medical Department ..	11,875
Chief Secretary's Office	3,737	Pensions	7,350
Customs Department	10,617	Police Department ..	35,949
District Administration..	8,448	Postal Department ..	11,171
Education Department ..	9,026	Prisons Department ..	7,167
Forest Department ..	15,160	Public Works Department	3,462
Government Printing Office	1,927	Public Works recurrent	18,336
High Commissioner ..	3,833	Public Works extraordinary	15,637
Irrigation Department ..	1,722	Quarantine Department	736
Land Registry and Survey Departments ..	17,364	Railway Department ..	11,948
Legal Departments ..	15,956	Treasury	16,742
		Miscellaneous services ..	5,458
		Surplus balances ..	41,077
Carried forward ..	108,531	Total	296,165

[1] Land registration fees. [2] Property tax.

(2) *Currency*

The monetary unit in Cyprus is the piastre (*c.p.*), equivalent to $1\frac{1}{3}d.$ or 180 to the pound sterling. The coins normally in circulation are:—

Gold.—The English sovereign is the only current coin.

Silver.—18 piastres (2 shillings), 9 piastres (1 shilling), $4\frac{1}{2}$ piastres (6*d.*), 3 piastres (4*d.*).

Copper.—1 piastre (40 paras), $\frac{1}{2}$ piastre and $\frac{1}{4}$ piastre.

The half-sovereign is not current in Cyprus, nor is English silver, but banks will buy either at a small discount. Napoleons and Turkish liras, although not legal tender, are accepted by the commercial community. There is no limit of tender for gold; for silver the limit is 540 piastres (£3); for copper, 27 piastres (3*s.*).

In 1915, the approximate value of the coins in circulation was as follows:—English gold, £300,000; other gold, £6,000; Cyprus silver, £75,000; Cyprus copper, £10,175.

There is no note currency. At the outbreak of the war, however, the shortness of gold currency was felt, and, with a view to the early clearance of the carob crop and the alleviation of the general financial stringency, it was decided to introduce a restricted note circulation. To meet the immediate demand, locally printed notes of the face value of £5 and £1, to the total value of £35,000, were issued in September, 1914, while arrangements were made for printing in England notes of the face value of £5, £1, 10*s.*, and 5*s.* Forgeries, particularly of the £1 notes, caused the notes to be demonetised at the end of June, 1915, and although at the request of the bankers and leading merchants the Government remonetised the £5, 10*s.*, and 5*s.* notes, the supply of metallic currency proved sufficient, and the small amount of paper placed in circulation has gradually been withdrawn.

(3) *Banking*

Joint-Stock Banks.—The greater part of the banking business of the island is carried on by the Imperial Ottoman Bank and the Bank of Athens, with head offices respectively at Constantinople and Athens.

The Cyprus agency of the Imperial Ottoman Bank is at Larnaka, with branch offices at Nicosia, Limassol, and Famagusta, and correspondents at Paphos and Kerynia. The bank transacts Government business, and is mainly responsible for the maintenance of the currency and of the stock of gold necessary to meet local requirements. In 1915, its deposits in the island amounted to £73,010, of which £27,680 represented Government accounts.

The Bank of Athens has its head agency at Limassol and sub-agencies at Nicosia, Larnaka, Famagusta, and Paphos. In 1915, its deposits in the island amounted to £23,382.

Both these banks transact banking and commercial business of every description. In addition, each runs a savings bank, the Imperial Ottoman Bank paying 2 per cent. on deposits, and the Bank of Athens 4 per cent.

The only local bank of any importance is the Bank of Cyprus, which was established under the sanction of the High Commissioner. Its headquarters are at Nicosia, and it has agencies at Larnaka, Limassol, Famagusta, Paphos, Kerynia, and Morphou. In 1915, its paid-up capital was £54,568, and its deposits in the island amounted to £28,194.

Credit Institutions.—These comprise the Agricultural Bank and the Village Co-operative Banks. By the Agricultural Bank Law of 1890, the High Commissioner was given power to enter into an agreement with a banking establishment to create an agricultural bank; but it was not till 1907 that such a bank commenced operations. In accordance with the agreement between the Government and the Anglo-Egyptian Allotment Company, the capital of the bank

was to be not less than £100,000. Its chief business is to make advances to persons or firms engaged in agriculture or other industries on the security of immovable property, stock, &c., the rate of interest not to exceed 9 per cent. The advantages offered by this bank have been much appreciated, and it has done a good deal to free the agricultural classes from the grip of the usurer. Its headquarters are at Famagusta.

Village banks worked on the Raiffeisen system were tentatively established in the Paphos district on the initiative of the District Commissioner about the year 1903. They worked so well that it was decided to extend the system throughout the island. By the Co-operative Credit Societies Law of 1914 any town, village, or group of villages may obtain the incorporation of a society of twelve or more persons, who must be engaged in agriculture and hold at least two *donums* (about two-thirds of an acre) of land each. Such a society can obtain loans from the Government and lend to its members, or supply them with seed, implements and other requisites of agriculture. The first certificate of registration under this law was granted in 1915 to two villages. That of Vatile has established a credit society of sixteen members with a capital of £300, and has been granted a loan of £250 by the Loan Commissioners. Five more societies were registered in 1916.

Government Savings Banks.—The Government Savings Bank Law of 1900 gives authority for the establishment of such banks under the general management of the Receiver-General of the island, the branch offices to be under the commissioners of districts. There are now six of these banks, of which the first were opened in 1903. Interest of 2½ per cent. is paid on deposits (the maximum of deposit being £300), and the banks are guaranteed by the State. It cannot be said that these banks have proved a success. On December 31, 1916, the deposits numbered only 217, the sum deposited during the year amounting to £10,259 and the withdrawals to £3,806, leaving a

balance of £6,453. Of the small number of depositors, practically all were public officials, with a few ladies, servants, &c. The reason for this failure is the small rate of interest. Private savings banks give 6 per cent. to depositors, while money can be lent with tolerable security on mortgage at 9 per cent.

Other Savings Banks.—The Savings Banks of the Imperial Ottoman Bank and of the Bank of Athens are mentioned above. There are also several local savings banks, some of which, *e.g.*, the Caisse d'Épargne La Nicosia, have developed much, and a considerable amount of commercial business is transacted by them.

(E) GENERAL REMARKS

The economic progress of Cyprus has been retarded by want of capital and by bad or uncertain means of communication. The want of capital may in great part be traced to the disinclination of British and foreign capitalists to risk their money in an island whose political position was so uncertain. Cyprus was still part of the Turkish Empire, and might at any time be restored to the direct administration of the Sultan. The heavy payment out of the revenues of the island under the Convention of 1878 might easily have been capitalised, and Cyprus would have been saved some £30,000 to £40,000 a year. But the British Government was prevented from acquiescing in this course by the uncertainty of the island's political status. In the same way the establishment of an agricultural bank, though even more necessary than in Egypt to free the peasants from the clutches of the usurers, was delayed for many years because in the circumstances the Government did not feel itself in a position to give a guarantee. The payment under the Convention affected the economic development in another way, namely, by retarding the inception or progress of public works in the island. The revenue of the island did not suffice to cover both its own internal expenditure on the scale required for civilised

government, and the payment in respect of Turkish claims; and the deficit had to be made up by the British Treasury. Every year discussions took place between the High Commissioner, the Colonial Office, and the Treasury as to reducing the deficit. Until Mr. Chamberlain became Colonial Secretary it was assumed that this object could only be achieved by reducing expenditure; but to his foresight was due a new policy of spending wisely on the public works necessary to progress. The island owes to him the harbour of Famagusta, the railway to Nicosia, the establishment of weekly steamship communication with Egypt, the island's chief customer, and the definite initiation of irrigation schemes on a large scale. As the island is dependent for the prosperity of its agriculture on a good supply of water, and the rainfall averages only 15 or 16 inches per annum, it is obvious that irrigation is of vital importance, if as yet not wholly successful.

In 1907, a new advance was made by the giving of a fixed grant in aid of £50,000 a year, thereby putting a stop to the discussions mentioned above and to a system by which, in the words of the High Commissioner of the day, 'the resources of the island were annually and absolutely depleted in order that as much as possible of the tribute might be paid from local revenues, and however much the local Treasury might benefit from legislative action, wise administration, or bountiful harvests, no increase of expenditure for the profit and improvement of the island accrued thereby.'

Although the United Kingdom still has the greatest share of the imports and takes the second place in the exports, it appears that British firms have altogether failed to realise the possibilities of the island. There is the usual complaint that foreign commercial travellers visit Cyprus and study the economic needs of the people, but that representatives of British firms do not. This is partly accounted for by the absence of a direct steamship service between Cyprus and England, and the excessively heavy freight charges

consequent on this. The effects of direct communication may be seen in the vast development in the trade of Cyprus with Egypt, which followed the establishment of a weekly service of steamers between them.

As to future developments, the possibilities have been indicated in the sections devoted to the different products of the island. To sum up: the growing of cereal crops is not likely to develop much further except through the adoption of new methods of cultivation. The wine trade, so far as the West is concerned, might possibly be increased by means of advertisement, if the improvement in the process of manufacture be continued; but it is probable that the wine will always remain more to the taste of the East. The trade in raisins, on the other hand, ought to expand very greatly, for they are among the finest in existence. Of the other agricultural products, the carob is the only one which has received serious attention in England. Insufficient notice has been taken in this country of the possibilities of the cotton and silk industries, of the fruit and vegetable trade, and of the valuable tanning and dyeing materials and essential oils which the plants of Cyprus afford. It has been indicated that the mineral resources of the island have probably been exaggerated. But in the minor mineral products, such as asbestos, gypsum, and, above all, salt, a considerable trade is possible.

APPENDIX

(A) DOCUMENTS

I

The Cyprus Convention, June 4, 1878

The Convention of Defensive Alliance between Great Britain and Turkey with respect to the Asiatic Provinces of Turkey, signed at Constantinople on June 4, 1878, commonly called the Cyprus Convention, runs as follows:—

Article I. 'If Batoum, Ardahan, Kars or any of them shall be retained by Russia, and if any attempt shall be made at any future time by Russia to take possession of further territories of H.I.M. the Sultan in Asia as fixed by the Definitive Treaty[1] of Peace, England engages to join H.I.M. the Sultan in defending them by force of arms.

'In return, H.I.M. the Sultan promises to England to introduce necessary reforms, to be agreed upon later between the two Powers, into the Government and for the protection of the Christian and other subjects of the Porte in those territories. And in order to enable England to make necessary provision for executing her engagements, H.I.M. the Sultan further consents to assign the Island of Cyprus to be occupied and administered by England.'

II

Annexe to the same, July 1, 1878

On July 1, 1878, an Annexe to the Convention was agreed to in the following terms:—

'1. That a Mussulman Religious Tribunal (Mahkemé-i-Sherieh) shall continue to exist in the island which will take exclusive cognizance of religious matters, and no others, concerning the Mussulman population of the island.

'2. That a Mussulman resident in the island shall be named by the Board of Pious Foundations in Turkey (Evqaf) to superin-

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[1] Treaty of Peace between Russia and Turkey signed at Constantinople January 27 (February 8), 1878.

tend, in conjunction with a Delegate to be appointed by the British Authorities, the administration of the property, funds, and lands belonging to mosques, cemeteries, Mussulman schools, and other religious establishments existing in Cyprus.

'3. That England will pay to the Porte whatever is the present excess of revenue over expenditure in the island, the excess to be calculated upon and determined by the average of the last five years.' (Stated to be 22,936 purses to be duly verified hereafter, and to the exclusion of the produce of State and Crown lands let or sold during that period.)

4. (This article, which empowered the Sublime Porte to sell and lease lands, &c., in Cyprus belonging to the Ottoman Crown and State, the produce of which did not form part of the revenue of the island referred to in Article 3, was abandoned by the Porte under a supplementary Convention dated February 3, 1879, in return for a payment of £5,000 per annum.)

'5. That the English Government through their competent authorities may purchase compulsorily at a fair price land required for public purposes, and land which is not cultivated.

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

III

Order in Council (Annexation), November 5, 1914

THE CYPRUS GAZETTE

(Extraordinary)

Nicosia,

5th November, 1914.

ORDER IN COUNCIL

By the King

Whereas by virtue of the Convention of Defensive Alliance between Her Majesty Queen Victoria and His Imperial Majesty the Sultan signed June the fourth, 1878, the Annexe to the said Convention signed on July the first, 1878, and the Agreement signed on behalf of Her Majesty and His Imperial Majesty the Sultan on August the fourteenth 1878 His Imperial Majesty the Sultan assigned the island of Cyprus to be occupied and administered by England upon the terms and conditions specified in the said Convention, Annexe, and Agreement.

And Whereas by reason of the outbreak of War between His Majesty and His Imperial Majesty the Sultan, the said Convention, Annexe, and Agreement have become annulled and are no longer of any force or effect.

And Whereas it has, for the reasons hereinbefore appearing, seemed expedient to His Majesty that the said island should be annexed to and should form part of His Majesty's dominions, in order that proper provision may be made for the Government and protection of the said island:

Now Therefore, His Majesty is pleased by and with the advice of his Privy Council to order, and it is hereby ordered as follows:

1. From and after the date hereof the said island shall be annexed to and form part of His Majesty's dominions and the said island is annexed accordingly.

2. Nothing in this order shall affect the validity of any instructions issued by His Majesty under the Royal Sign Manual and Signet to the High Commissioner and Commander-in-Chief of Cyprus or of any Order in Council affecting Cyprus or of any law or Proclamation passed or issued under any such instructions or order, or of any act or thing done under any such instructions, order, law, or proclamation save in so far as any provision of any such Order in Council, law, or proclamation may be repugnant to the provisions of any Act of Parliament which may, by reason of the annexation hereby declared, become extended to Cyprus, or to any order or regulation made under the authority of any such Act, or having in Cyprus the force and effect of any such Act.

3. His Majesty may from time to time revoke, alter, add to or amend this Order.

4. This Order may be cited as the Cyprus (Annexation) Order in Council, 1914.

And the Right Honourable Lewis Harcourt, one of His Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State, is to give the necessary directions herein accordingly.

IV

Proclamation as to Citizenship, &c., November 5, 1914

BY THE HIGH COMMISSIONER

A PROCLAMATION

Hamilton Goold-Adams,
High Commissioner.

Whereas by an Order of His Majesty the King in Council dated this 5th day of November, 1914, the island of Cyprus was annexed to and declared to form part of His Majesty's Dominions, now I, Hamilton John Goold-Adams, Major in the

Reserve of Officers of His Majesty's Army, Knight Grand Cross of the Most Distinguished Order of St. Michael and St. George, Companion of the Most Honourable Order of the Bath, His Majesty's High Commissioner and Commander-in-Chief in and over the island of Cyprus, do hereby proclaim that under and by virtue of the said Order in Council the following provisions have effect:—

1. Ottoman subjects born in Cyprus and now resident in Cyprus are British subjects.

2. Ottoman subjects not born in Cyprus who are now resident in Cyprus are allowed one year from the date of this Proclamation within which to leave Cyprus. Ottoman subjects mentioned in this paragraph who do not leave Cyprus within the said period of one year will on the expiration of the said period be British subjects.

Given in Nicosia this 5th day of November, 1914.

GOD SAVE THE KING

V

PROCLAMATION AS TO CITIZENSHIP (REVOKING IV), MARCH 3, 1915

THE CYPRUS GAZETTE

(Extraordinary)

Thursday, 4th March, 1915.

BY THE HIGH COMMISSIONER

A PROCLAMATION

John E. Clauson,
High Commissioner.

Whereas by the Cyprus (Annexation) Order in Council, 1914, the island of Cyprus was annexed to and declared to form part of His Majesty's Dominions.

Now, I, John Eugene Clauson, Major in the Reserve of Officers of the Corps of Royal Engineers, Knight Commander of the Most Distinguished Order of Saint Michael and Saint George, Commander of the Royal Victorian Order, His Majesty's High Commissioner and Commander-in-Chief in and over the island of Cyprus, do hereby proclaim that under and by virtue of the said Order in Council the following provisions have effect:

1. All Ottoman subjects resident in Cyprus on the 5th November, 1914, have become British subjects.

2. Any Ottoman subject resident in Cyprus on the 5th November, 1914, desiring to retain Ottoman nationality may by notice under his hand addressed to the High Commissioner elect to do so within one month of the coming into operation of this Proclamation: and any such person electing so to do must leave Cyprus within two months after the date of his election and take up his residence elsewhere, failing which he will be treated as a British subject.

3. Nothing in this Proclamation contained shall be deemed to affect the position of the Ottoman subjects born in Cyprus and resident elsewhere on the 5th November, 1914, with regard to whom a further Proclamation will be issued in due course.

4. This Proclamation shall come into operation on the 4th March, 1915.

5. The Proclamation by the High Commissioner dated the 5th November, 1914, and published in the *Cyprus Gazette* (Extraordinary) dated the 5th November, 1914, is hereby revoked.

Given in Nicosia the 3rd day of March, 1915.

GOD SAVE THE KING

By His Excellency's Command.

C. W. ORR,

Chief Secretary to Government

(B) TABLES

Table I.—QUANTITIES AND VALUES OF PRINCIPAL ARTICLES EXPORTED

—		1910.	1911.	1912.	1913.
Asbestos ..	Tons	435	713	764	1,168
	£	2,754	5,126	6,264	9,704
Carobs	Tons	1,824	2,567	3,182	2,249
	£	145,590	182,883	251,750	179,027
Cheese	Tons	167	182	166	185
	£	6,564	6,624	7,203	9,268
Coal	Tons	..	..	20	980
	£	..	..	40	1,917
Cotton, raw ..	Tons	360	350	690	672
	£	24,538	22,593	40,085	40,693
Fruit, raisins ..	Tons	3,149	2,680	3,128	3,972
	£	34,639	29,636	31,940	39,002
,, other kinds	£	20,136	31,760	29,815	31,510
Grain, barley ..	Bushels	541,548	550,797	510,840	320,067
	£	52,624	56,415	60,882	37,747
,, oats ..	Bushels	129,582	83,488	71,310	37,331
	£	8,783	5,793	5,894	3,704
,, wheat ..	Bushels	44,240	1,055	77,760	88,017
	£	9,215	253	2,812	17,661
Gypsum ..	Tons	6,496	8,567	4,974	3,714
	£	3,654	4,777	2,812	2,043
Hides and skins ..	Tons	116	106	100	97
	£	13,873	10,735	11,771	14,120
Linseed ..	Tons	267	225	162	284
	£	2,923	3,402	2,169	3,039
Live stock, oxen ..	Head	4,240	9,664	5,751	3,017
	£	20,218	44,871	34,303	20,110
Silk cocoons, in-	Tons	57	75	57	64
cluding waste	£	23,149	27,775	20,241	29,102
Spirits of all kinds	Gallons	72,915	67,023	59,069	72,732
	£	6,042	6,409	5,525	8,187

—		1910.	1911.	1912.	1913.
Vegetables ..	£	7,706	14,106	14,142	9,889
Wine, Commanderia	Gallons	20,539	21,405	16,798	15,430
	£	1,201	1,334	985	1,177
Wine, other kinds	Gallons	960,621	1,451,779	1,310,454	1,114,519
	£	26,618	52,351	44,370	41,883
Wool	Tons	329	276	230	235
	£	15,203	13,452	11,362	12,181
Bullion and specie ..	£	139,227	76,246	60,427	79,322

In 1914 the exports of merchandise were valued at £496,776; of bullion and specie at £53,463.

In 1915 the exports of merchandise were valued at £650,490; of bullion and specie at £53,463.

In 1916 the exports of merchandise were valued at £708,446.

TABLE II.—EXPORTS: PRINCIPAL DESTINATIONS

—	1910.	1911.	1912.	1913.
	£	£	£	£
Egypt	252,975	260,749	292,433	278,715
United Kingdom ..	138,839	169,347	242,255	120,713
British Possessions	994	1,767	8,818	6,249
France	66,019	88,279	64,592	91,424
Turkish Empire ..	94,759	85,109	55,406	59,860
Greece	18,398	22,059	41,916	40,511
Austria-Hungary ..	30,786	23,817	27,348	25,985
Italy	12,017	17,859	16,148	14,312
Germany ..	6,090	9,180	11,648	4,564
United States ..	1,175	1,224	2,157	1,968
Belgium ..	430	297	101	806
Russia	106	68	15	
Other countries ..	28,480	23,048	26,578	54,785
Total exports (including bullion and specie).	651,068	702,803	789,415	699,913

TABLE III.—QUANTITIES AND VALUES OF PRINCIPAL IMPORTS

—		1910.	1911.	1912.	1913.
Beer and ale	Doz. bottles	5,175	6,025	6,564	6,825
	Gallons	5,906	14,153	16,322	11,979
	£	1,601	2,485	2,510	2,606
Butter, including butter substitutes	Tons	138	132	122	149
	£	10,189	9,876	9,678	11,324
Cigarette paper ..	£	1,881	1,839	2,998	2,082
Coal	Tons	3,080	2,254	4,140	4,359
	£	4,195	3,053	4,634	7,712
Coffee, raw	Tons	203	189	203	230
	£	9,597	12,366	15,268	14,799
Cotton yarn and thread	Tons	176	363	406	254
	£	15,448	33,111	38,533	29,551
Cotton fabrics ..	£	37,698	64,673	87,902	65,402
Earthen and china wares, including bricks and tiles	£	4,044	4,859	9,114	3,621
Fish, dried, salted, except in tins	£	5,972	4,499	6,074	6,425
Flour and meal (wheaten)	Tons	4,965	5,749	1,654	2,756
	£	57,256	61,924	18,557	33,887
Glassware	£	6,159	4,758	5,561	7,425
Grain, rice	Tons	999	958	835	910
	£	9,467	9,754	10,480	10,028
„ wheat ..	Bushels	9,582	14,669	4,183	207
	£	1,844	3,462	951	51
Haberdashery and millinery	£	11,581	13,280	14,082	13,181
Hardware and cutlery	£	2,220	3,297	3,872	4,194
Hides and skins ..	£	1,221	2,364	2,400	3,620
Iron and steel, unmanufactured (including iron bars, rods, joists, &c.)	£	5,440	5,246	6,319	7,206
Leather, sole ..	Tons	109	132	191	132
	£	12,935	16,224	23,267	23,047
Machinery (including parts)	£	11,260	14,424	18,666	26,354
Oil, olive	Tons	177	30	2½	47
	£	17,232	1,415	88	2,052
„ petroleum ..	Gallons	402,809	596,540	395,084	525,498
	£	12,540	17,874	14,110	21,106
Sacks	No.	204,638	275,530	346,292	298,061
	£	5,926	8,248	11,015	10,666
Silk manufactures (including thread)	£	3,791	4,996	6,133	6,345

—		1910.	1911.	1912.	1913.
Soap	Tons	501	532	517	453
	£	15,371	16,790	16,176	14,910
Stores, Government and Military	£	17,690	15,771	17,929	31,312
Sugar	Tons	1,428	1,429	1,612	1,744
	£	24,568	23,297	29,741	25,608
Tea	Lbs.	21,619	19,569	22,128	22,254
	£	1,006	939	1,015	1,049
Tobacco, unmanufactured (including tumbeki)	Tons	227	210	263	248
	£	20,373	19,125	24,120	22,126
Wood and timber ..	£	25,023	14,776	26,700	22,108
Woollen manufactures (including yarn and thread)	£	20,867	26,263	30,054	26,566
Bullion and specie ..	£	95,638	88,416	104,692	55,807

In 1914 the imports of merchandise were valued at £496,744; of bullion and specie at £73,306.

In 1915 the imports of merchandise were valued at £588,019 of bullion and specie at £24,598.

In 1916 the imports of merchandise were valued at £967,780.

TABLE IV.—IMPORTS: PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES OF ORIGIN

—	1910.	1911.	1912.	1913.
	£	£	£	£
United Kingdom ..	118,203	144,481	169,277	176,755
British Possessions ..	2,116	3,142	5,876	6,196
Egypt	149,882	137,257	147,823	114,440
Austria-Hungary ..	67,237	73,029	91,031	89,385
Turkish Empire ..	100,007	71,837	79,079	72,363
Italy .. .	32,883	67,362	67,073	62,377
France	43,350	39,972	44,143	41,898
Greece	27,050	28,836	31,188	34,352
Germany	15,084	20,326	27,202	23,617
Belgium	9,994	9,722	9,594	14,238
Russia	7,628	11,161	7,416	14,193
United States ..	1,146	8,118	3,725	4,132
Other countries ..	13,900	20,184	22,742	21,199
Total imports (including bullion and specie)	588,480	635,427	706,169	675,145

TABLE V.—NUMBER AND NATIONALITY OF VESSELS (OTHER THAN THOSE ENGAGED IN COASTING TRADE) ENTERED AND CLEARED AT PORTS OF CYPRUS IN 1913

Flag.	Entered.		Cleared.	
	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.
Turkish	452	14,707	453	15,062
British..	77	90,163	78	91,373
„ (Cypriot) ..	134	3,813	137	3,587
Greek	64	12,451	66	12,740
Austrian	55	110,411	55	110,421
Italian	43	38,463	39	37,224
French	24	54,655	24	54,655
German	6	9,917	6	9,917
Norwegian	5	6,422	5	6,422
Rumanian	3	3,361	2	1,935
Swedish	2	2,759	2	2,759
Danish..	2	1,905	2	1,905
Russian	2	1,516	2	1,516
Dutch	1	755	1	755
Total	870	351,298	872	350,271

Of vessels engaged in coasting trade, 2,179 (tonnage 448,136) entered ports of the island, and 2,197 (tonnage 446,465) cleared.

TABLE VI.—AGRICULTURE: QUANTITIES OF CROPS PRODUCED

—	1902.	1905.	1908.
Wheat, bushels	869,629	2,366,237	2,477,755
Barley „	1,332,210	2,888,642	2,532,797
Oats „	228,535	389,294	369,982
Cotton, lbs.	390,673	782,712	1,844,945

—	1910.	1911.	1912.
Wheat, bushels	2,103,121	2,218,774	2,176,497
Barley „	2,056,582	2,142,954	1,713,653
Oats „	499,374	479,070	366,509
Cotton, lbs.	2,438,817	3,455,724	3,648,274

NOTE.—In the year 1902 occurred the worst drought known in the recent history of the island.

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Parliamentary Papers relating to Cyprus, 1878-1916, especially the following: C. 3661, containing Mr. Fairfield's report on the administration and finances of Cyprus, drawn up 1881-2; C. 4189, with Mr. Brown's report on the history of the locust campaigns in the island, 1884; C. 9289, Reports of M. Gennadius on Agriculture, drawn up 1898; Cd. 717, Report of Professor W. Dunstan on the cotton-growing industry, drawn up 1904.

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Cyprus is comprised in one sheet (Beirut, I. 36) of the International Map (G.S.G.S., No. 2758), published by the War Office, on the scale of 1:1,000,000.

The island was surveyed in 1882 by Captain H. H. Kitchener R.E., and a map on the scale of 1:63,360 (one inch to a mile) was published in 1885 by E. Stanford, Limited.

Another map, on the scale of 1:348,480, based on the one-inch map, but with the roads and railways brought up to a recent date is also published by Stanford.

There is a geological map, also on the scale of 1:348,480, by C. V. Bellamy, F.G.S., published in 1905.

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