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THE BALKAN REVIEW

Edited by Crawford Price

Vol. III. No. 5.

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June, 1920.

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THE PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN GREECE
By D. A. Glinos

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THE SOUTHERN SLAV AND HIS SEABOARD

EDITOR'S CAUSERIE

BOOKS ON THE NEAR EAST
Etc., Etc.

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OUR PURPOSE AND POLICY

THE BALKAN REVIEW, faithful to the programme laid down in its first number, will continue its effort to assist the solution of the problems which confront diplomacy in the Near East. It will treat with social, political, historical, geographical, and ethnological matters appertaining to the Peninsula, strive to cultivate financial and commercial relations between Britain and the Balkans, and act generally as an organ of liaison between the Occident and the Orient.

We are fortunate in having secured the collaboration of leading British and foreign experts on Near Eastern affairs, writers who are in a position to shed illuminating light on dark places. Believing as we do that the Balkans is the domain of the Balkan peoples, our policy makes for unity and co-operation, and our intervention in inter-Balkan matters, should necessity arise, is inspired by the ideal of a future Balkan Confederation; but the free and open discussion of thorny problems by signed articles in our paper is encouraged, even where the Editor himself is not entirely in agreement with the conclusions arrived at by the authors.

While the Balkan Peninsula is our special preoccupation, we shall continue to afford to that geographical expression its widest interpretation. The Peninsula is the centre from which our interests radiate, the axis upon which they revolve, but our energies are not limited to its circumference alone. The future of the Turkish Empire, the claims of the subject populations of Asia Minor and the Black Sea region, the growth of Arab nationalisation and the mandatory responsibilities in the Middle East—these and other questions have introduced new elements into the Eastern Problem. They are of intimate concern to the Balkan peoples, and they therefore call for serious consideration in this REVIEW.

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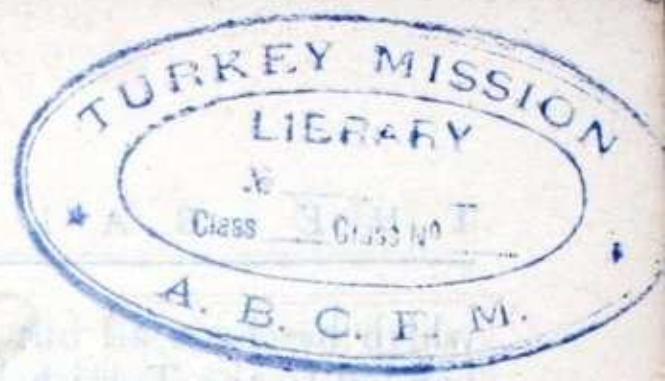
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THE BALKAN REVIEW

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THE EDITOR'S CAUSERIE

THE TURKISH TREATY.—Little more than six hundred years ago, a branch of a small nomad tribe, which had been driven from Central Asia by the Tartars, wandered on to a fertile plain in Asia Minor, where a battle between two peoples unknown to them was in progress. By some strange chance they threw in their lot with the weaker side, for whom their assistance transformed imminent defeat into overwhelming victory. The conflict over, the Turks (for such they were) discovered that they had aided the Seljouk Sultan of Konieh to vanquish a horde of vagabond Tartars, and they received, as their reward, the district around the town of Eskisheir, which lies about 125 miles due south-east of Constantinople. Thus was laid the foundation of the Turkish Empire.

Under Osman, who succeeded the first chieftain, Erthogroul, in 1288, the "Osmanli" gradually extended their territories, first at the expense of the Byzantine Greeks and then by overcoming the Balkan Slavs, until, in 1683, they lay encamped before the walls of Vienna. There, on September 12th, they were attacked in the rear and defeated by an Austro-Polish army—a mere handful of 70,000 men—and Vienna (and probably Western Europe) was saved from the Moslem marauders. Then began that persistent and seemingly fatal retrogression to the homelands of Anatolia,

which has been all but completed by the Treaty of Peace handed to the Turkish Delegation on May 11th, 1920.

Briefly put, the exploitation of South-Eastern Europe by an alien army of occupation has endured for five centuries. Time and again Great Powers, with tender solicitude for their own interests, have attempted to struggle against the remorseless logic of events; but thus far their efforts have resulted only in delaying the inevitable, and for such delay Europe has been called upon to pay an appalling toll of human life and treasure.

It remains for one to express a pious hope that the last interference with the course of historical evolution, as evidenced by the decision to perpetuate Turkish sovereignty at Constantinople, will escape the penalty of the crime. There were three pretexts for the adoption of this course. The first, peculiarly French, was avowedly dictated by a desire to secure a predominant individual position in the affairs of the Turkish Sultanate; the second, particularly British, was provoked by the Indian Moslem agitation; the third, to which both Britain and France subscribed, was based on the argument that only by "holding the Turk's head in chancery" could the Powers exercise efficacious control over the Turkish administrations. Events have been quick to expose the hollowness of this whole line of argument. The scheme of the French financiers was quickly grasped and forestalled, and one of the most excellent features of the Treaty is the manner of its attempt to provide for a real international overlordship of Constantinople and the Straits. The existence of the Sultan is largely ignored, and his ultimate removal would, so far as one can see, entail little or no change in the organisation. That little useful purpose has been served by pandering to Moslem agitation in India, or elsewhere, is proven by the extraordinary telegram despatched to the Sultan by the Indian Khalifat Delegation, which claims to represent 70,000,000 Mussulmans and 250,000,000 compatriots of

other creeds. Having tasted blood, they now demand "the complete restoration of the territorial *status quo ante bellum*"—in other words, the Ottoman Empire as it existed in 1914. They declare that "every Moslem is now determined, without flinching and without fear, to do all that Allah demands from him, even to the extent of offering his life as the price of the faith." Obviously, therefore, little has been gained in this respect by allowing the Sultan to remain on the Bosphorus. The third pretext provides little scope for argument. The Allies may hold "the Turk's head in chancery," but their jurisdiction barely extends to his beard and certainly stops short at his neck. In a word, the beneficent results achieved have been wholly incommensurate with the future risks involved by the maintenance of Turkish sovereignty over Constantinople.

With this debatable exception, and after possible objection has been taken to the permission to maintain a long-service professional army of 50,000 men—easily expandable for purposes of Middle Eastern warfare into a million combatants and levies—the Treaty offers a fairly sound *theoretical* solution of the Turkish problem. It is a severe document. It entails the extinction of Turkey as a European Power and her reduction in Asia to the level of a Sultanate. It cuts off from her power most of the peoples who have suffered in her servitude for generations, limits her to the old homeland, and even there subjects her to constant surveillance.

All this, it is important to insist, is a purely theoretical settlement. The Treaty has been drawn up—inevitable though it be—on the assumption that Turkey is an organised State possessing a centre of administration capable of exercising authority over the whole body politic. The document takes no count of the disconcerting developments which have followed upon the procrastination of the Supreme Council. The Turkey that has to be reckoned with to-day is not so much that which revolves round

Yildiz and the Porte, but that which consists of the Nationalist hosts in Anatolia. If the signature of the Ottoman Caliph, even though it be given in *duréss*, is to any considerable extent honoured by the Osmanli in Asia Minor, all may yet be well; but it is recognised that the Allies have insufficient force at their disposal to penetrate into the hinterland and enforce obedience to their behests. Anatolia has not been greatly devastated by the war, it will suffice for the meagre requirements of its inhabitants, and if Mustapha Kemal can maintain a semblance of organised government, the possibilities of successful resistance to the Treaty are enormous.

Taken as it stands, principal interest in the Treaty is evoked by the territorial clauses. To Arabia, Mesopotamia, Syria, and Armenia are held out the precious gift of independence; the cession of Thrace to Greece virtually ends Ottoman rule in Europe; Smyrna and its hinterland remain with no more powerful symbol of sovereignty than a defenceless piece of bunting; and Constantinople and the Straits, for all intents and purposes, pass into internal keeping. In this latter respect the abstract of the Treaty seems to suggest that the Allied Powers—Great Britain, France, and Italy—are to hold the great waterway in trust for the League of Nations during its minority, and this is a hopeful sign.

Further light on the territorial arrangements has been shed by speeches recently delivered by members of the Supreme Council. The mandates for Mesopotamia and Syria, as is well known, have been apportioned to Great Britain and France respectively. Armenia's existence is still in the balance. But the supplementary declaration shows that the application of the mandatory system, or something approximating to it, goes farther than the territories named in the summary. France is at least to "protect" Cilicia, and Italy is to undertake the same responsibilities for Adalia. Similarly, Italy will "protect,"

so to speak, the coal-fields of Heraklia, on the Black Sea. Thus there are to be additional inroads upon Turkish sovereignty, for these economic or protective rights, or whatever they may be called, will certainly entail political rights, and in so far as the two Powers are able to impose their authority, the control of the Porte will be reduced to limited proportions.

The recent declarations of M. Venizelos in the Greek Chamber, again, have added an important paragraph to our knowledge, for from these we learn that though by the Treaty Turkey cedes the islands of the Dodocanese to Italy, eleven of them are forthwith handed to Hellas, and Italy retains the twelfth (Rhodes) as an offset to the British possession of Cyprus. Italy is to be sincerely complimented on this concession to the cause of Near Eastern peace.

It will be generally admitted that Greece has emerged from the discussion with flying colours. Thrace, and the islands of Tenedos, Lemnos, Samothrace, Mitylene, Samoa, Nikaria, and Chios, together with eleven of the Dodocanese islands and a virtual protectorate over Smyrna and its hinterland, comprise a valuable reward, however well deserved, for services rendered. But the motive which supposedly inspired the attribution of territory was, after all, broader than this. We set out to respect the rights of nationalities, and, even had Hellas received vastly greater acquisitions than has been the case, the fact would remain that the first doctrine avowed by the Peace Conference has been violated in respect of Rhodes and Cyprus.

It is difficult to see why the retention of Rhodes by Italy is placed more or less on a par with the British annexation of Cyprus. The two cases are fundamentally different. Nevertheless, admitting, for the sake of argument, that Britain takes the one for obvious and important strategic reasons and that Italy retains the other as a *quid pro quo*, the fact remains that, on a plebiscite, both islands would go to Hellas, and one is prone to doubt whether the gain to

either Power will prove to have been worth the sacrifice of principle involved. It may be noted, again, that while the alleged Rights of Nationalities have been observed in the Middle East to the extent of creating a horrible jumble of new States from the Persian Gulf to the Black Sea (all of which stand in need of great financial and political assistance to establish and maintain their position), that same doctrine of Self-Determination has been denied to the Arabs, who have not been permitted to choose their own mandatory.

Where the Turks do not lose control of territory, they are to lose control of their finances. Of the five commissions appointed, in reality for the future government of Turkey, the Financial Commission is to be a permanent institution. It may, therefore, be said that if and when the Treaty is applied, the Turks will become the vassals of Britain, France, and Italy. They are not to impose new taxes or withdraw old ones without the consent of their masters, and the 11 per cent. import duty is restored pending any decision of the Financial Commission to alter the tariff, which, on the whole, is unlikely. Foreigners are once more to enjoy the privileges of the Capitulations, which practically render them immune from Turkish law and provide one spot on this sorely tried earth where the alien profiteer may escape the payment of income tax—at any rate for the time being.

THE NATIONALIST RESISTANCE. — The optimistic rumours that the Nationalistic organisation in Anatolia was on the point of breaking up have failed to materialise. Thus, in the homeland of Anatolia, we have to recognise the existence of a rebel organisation of sturdy warriors of different races united by fanatical devotion to the Mohammedan religion, led by educated Turks who are prepared to stake their all on resistance, and who will enter into any alliance, however repugnant to their religious principles, to achieve their desired end. They have established their own government with a Constituent Assembly at Angora, and, what is more important under existing circumstances,

they control a country which is self-supporting and which baffles military operations of the European order.

Their influence extends to Constantinople, to the extent that there is evident collusion between the Government, which has been practically nominated by the Allies, and the forces which are fighting them in Asia Minor. This much is proven by the absurd failure of Anzavarg Pasha's Circassians, a failure due in large measure to the fact that the munitions ostensibly forwarded failed to reach him, if they did not, indeed, actually fall into the hands of the enemy. It is unfortunate for the Allies that their jurisdiction does not extend even to the range of their own artillery.

There is nothing surprising in the inclination of France and Italy to dissociate themselves from our adventures in the Middle East, for their interests there are, to say the least, limited in extent; but the responsibilities entailed in the application of the Turkish Treaty open up other considerations. That document was the handiwork of the Anglo-Franco-Italian *Entente*; it concedes vast spheres of economic (and with it political) influence to France and Italy, and yet it is becoming more than probable that the onus of application will fall upon Britain. It is evident that until the Nationalists have submitted we cannot have peace with Turkey or perpetuate peace in the Near East, or commence to end the turmoil in the Middle East, and it is by no means encouraging to think—as we are bound to think—that French intervention to this end is improbable, and that the Italians are more or less favourably disposed towards the Angora Government. In short, there is a lamentable absence of Allied unity.

We cannot regard the situation in the Near and Middle East otherwise than with grave misgiving. The responsibilities to which we are committed bid fair to inflict additional burdens upon the already overburdened British taxpayer which may well prove to be intolerable and the forerunner of much proletarian discontent.

THE TURKISH TREATY

WE print below the official summary of the new Turkish Treaty, which is designed, in the first place, to set forth the conditions upon which the Allied Powers will make peace with Turkey; and, in the second place, to establish those international arrangements which the Allies have devised for more stable and equitable conditions in the future and for the betterment of mankind. For this latter reason it includes the Covenant of the League of Nations and the International Labour Convention.

The Treaty is divided into thirteen parts.

The first part contains the Covenant of the League of Nations, to which functions are assigned in various places in the Treaty.

The second part describes the new geographical frontiers of Turkey in Europe and Asia.

The third part, which consists of thirteen sections, binds the Turks to accept immediate and contemplated political changes in Europe and Asia brought about by the Treaty. This part of the Treaty establishes a special regime for the waterways of the Dardanelles, the Bosphorus, and the Sea of Marmora; provides for the autonomy and possible independence of Kurdistan; creates a special regime for the district round Smyrna, under Turkish sovereignty but effective Greek administration; assigns Eastern Thrace approximately up to the Chataldja lines to Greece; provides for the recognition of two new States, the Hedjaz and Armenia; for the provisional recognition of Syria and Mesopotamia as independent States, advised and assisted by a Mandatory; and for the administration of

Palestine by a Mandatory, who will be responsible for putting into effect the declaration made by the British Government in 1917 regarding the establishment in Palestine of a national home for the Jewish people.

It also provides for the Turkish recognition of the new situation created by the war in Egypt, the Sudan, Cyprus, and the Ægean Islands, and the French Protectorate in Morocco and Tunis.

The fourth part deals with the protection of religious, racial, and linguistic minorities in Turkey, and provides some measure of restitution and reparation for their sufferings during the war.

The fifth part sets forth the Military, Naval, and Air conditions of peace; limits the armed forces at the disposal of Turkey to the Sultan's bodyguard, gendarmerie, and special elements for the reinforcement of the latter. Compulsory recruiting is abolished in Turkey, and the maintenance of the freedom of the Straits is guaranteed by the creation of a zone round them in which fortifications are to be demolished, and France, Great Britain, and Italy reserve the right to maintain Naval, Military, and Air forces. The Turkish Navy is abolished, except for certain vessels retained for peace and fishery duties, and the Turkish Air Force is suppressed.

The sixth part regulates the return of prisoners of war, and imposes obligations on the signatory Powers for the maintenance of all graves of the fallen. Special provisions are inserted regarding the Allied graves in Gallipoli.

The seventh parts deals with penalties for those who have committed acts in violation of the laws and customs of war, and who were responsible for the massacres in Turkey during the war.

The eighth part deals with the future financial arrangements in Turkey, and provides for Turkish financial rehabilitation and for some measure of reparation.

The ninth part contains the economic provisions,

re-establishes various non-political treaties and conventions, and lays down the future principles of settlement regarding companies, concessions in Turkey and in territory ceded by Turkey by the peace.

The tenth part provides for the future of aerial navigation in Turkey.

The eleventh part contains clauses dealing with international control of ports, waterways, and railways.

The twelfth part contains the Labour Convention.

The thirteenth part is made up of a series of miscellaneous articles, such as the confirmation of Allied Prize Court decisions, and the future of the sanitary régime in Turkey and in the territory detached from Turkey. The final clauses deal with the ratification and the entry into force of the Treaty, and envisage the eventual accession of Russia to the Treaty.

PREAMBLE

The Preamble recites shortly the origin of the war and enumerates the High Contracting Parties, represented by the Four Principal Allied Powers: the British Empire, France, Italy, and Japan; and the other Allied Powers: Belgium, Greece, the Serb-Croat-Slovene State, Roumania, Portugal, Poland, Czechoslovakia, the Hedjaz and Armenia on the one hand, and Turkey on the other.

PART I.—LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Here follows the text of the Covenant as embodied in the Treaty of Peace with Germany.

PART II.—THE BOUNDARIES OF TURKEY

The boundaries of Turkey are described in two articles, one dealing with Turkey in Europe and the other with Turkey in Asia. The frontier of Turkey in Europe is

approximately that of the Chataldja lines, the northern half of these lines being, however, advanced in a north-westerly direction so as to include within the boundaries of Turkey the whole area of Lake Derkos, which is a reservoir for the supply of water to Constantinople.

The boundaries of Turkey in Asia remain the same except as regards the southern frontier. These boundaries are described in detail in the Treaty in so far as they are not left to be settled by Boundary Commissions on the spot. Provision is also made in the Treaty for a possible modification of the present frontier between Turkey and the independent State of Armenia—viz., the former Russo-Turkish frontier in this region—by reference to the arbitration of the President of the United States regarding a new boundary for Armenia in the vilayets of Trebizond, Erzerum, Van, and Bitlis.

PART III.—POLITICAL CLAUSES

CONSTANTINOPLE

Subject to the provisions of the Treaty, the parties agree to the maintenance of Turkish sovereignty over Constantinople, but a reservation is made that, if Turkey fails to observe the provisions of the Treaty or of supplementary Treaties or Conventions, particularly as regards the protection of minorities, the Allied Powers may modify the above provisions, and Turkey agrees to accept any dispositions which may be made in this connexion.

THE STRAITS

The navigation of the Straits, including the Dardanelles, the Sea of Marmora, and the Bosphorus, is to be open in future both in peace and war to every vessel of commerce or of war and to military and commercial aircraft without distinction of flag. These waters are not to be subject to blockade, and no belligerent right is to be exercised

nor any act of hostility committed within them unless in pursuance of a decision of the Council of the League of Nations.

A "Commission of the Straits" is established with control over these waters, to which both the Turkish and Greek Governments delegate the necessary powers. The Commission is composed of representatives appointed respectively by the United States of America (if and when that Government is willing to participate), the British Empire, France, Italy, Japan, Russia (if and when Russia becomes a member of the League of Nations), Greece, Rumania, and Bulgaria (if and when Bulgaria becomes a member of the League of Nations). Each Power is to appoint one representative, but the representatives of the United States, the British Empire, France, Italy, Japan, and Russia have two votes each, and the representatives of the other three Powers one vote each.

The Commission exercises its authority in complete independence of the local authority, with its own flag, budget, and separate organisation. The Commission is charged with the execution of any works necessary for the improvement of the channels or the approaches to harbours, lighting and buoying, the control of pilotage and towage, the control of anchorages, the control necessary to assure the execution in the ports of Constantinople and Haidar Pasha of the régime laid down in that part of the Treaty relating to ports, waterways, and railways, and the control of all matters relating to wrecks and salvage and lighterage.

In the case of threats to the freedom of passage of the Straits, special provision is made for appeal by the Commission to the representatives at Constantinople of Great Britain, France, and Italy, which Powers, under the military provisions of the Treaty, provide forces for the occupation of the zone of the Straits. These representatives will concert with the naval and military commanders

of the Allied forces the necessary measures, whether the threat comes from within or without the zone of the Straits.

Provision is also made for the acquisition of property or permanent works by the Commission, the raising of loans, the levying of dues on shipping in the Straits, the transfer to the Commission of the functions exercised within the waters of the Straits by the Constantinople Superior Council of Health, the Turkish Sanitary Administration, and the National Life Boat Service of the Bosphorus, and the relations of the Commission with persons or companies now holding concessions relating to lighthouses, docks, quays, or similar matters are laid down.

The Commission is empowered to raise a special police force, and provision is made for dealing with infringements of the regulations and by-laws of the Commission by the appropriate local Courts, whether Consular, Turkish, or Greek.

A special article lays down that all dues and charges imposed by the Commission shall be levied without any discrimination and on a footing of absolute equality between all vessels, whatever their port of origin or destination or departure, their flag of ownership, or the nationality of the ownership of their cargoes.

Articles analogous to the relevant provisions of the Suez Canal Convention of 1888 deal with the transit of warships, prizes, the passage of belligerent warships, and their stay within the waters under the control of the Commission as well as their repair or replenishment with supplies or the completion of their crews, but the freedom of action of belligerents acting in pursuance of a decision of the Council of the League of Nations is specially reserved. Further regulations are to be laid down by the League of Nations regarding the passage of war material and contraband destined for the enemies of Turkey and other kindred matters.

KURDISTAN

Turkey accepts in advance a scheme of local autonomy for the predominantly Kurdish areas, east of the Euphrates, south of the southern frontier of Armenia, as eventually fixed, and north of the southern frontier of Turkey, to be drafted by a Commission composed of British, French, and Italian representatives sitting at Constantinople. This scheme is to protect the rights of Assyro-Chaldeans and other racial or religious minorities within the above area, and with this object provision is also made for a possible rectification of the Turkish frontier, where that frontier coincides with that of Persia.

Secondly, the Treaty provides for an appeal for complete independence, within a stated time, to the Council of the League of Nations, by the Kurdish peoples within the above area, and for the grant of such independence by Turkey, if recommended by the Council. In that event the Kurds inhabiting that part of Kurdistan which has hitherto been included in the Mosul vilayet are to be allowed, if they so desire, to adhere to the independent Kurdish State.

SMYRNA

The Turkish Government agrees to transfer to the Greek Government the exercise of her rights of sovereignty over a special area round the city of Smyrna. In witness of Turkish sovereignty the Turkish flag is to be flown on one of the forts outside Smyrna. The Greek Government is to be responsible for the administration of the area, may keep troops there to maintain order, may include the area in the Greek Customs system, and is to establish a local Parliament on the basis of a scheme of proportional representation of minorities which is to be submitted to the Council of the League of Nations and only to come into force after approval by a majority of the Council. The elections may be postponed for a limited period to

allow the return of inhabitants banished or deported by the Turkish authorities.

Special provisions are included regarding the protection of minorities, the nationality of the inhabitants in the area and their protection abroad, the suspension of compulsory military service, freedom of commerce and transit, the use of the port of Smyrna by Turkey, the currency of the area, financial obligations, and the salt mines of Phocœa.

Finally, after five years the local Parliament may ask the Council of the League of Nations for the incorporation of the area in the Kingdom of Greece, and the Council may impose a plebiscite, but, if such incorporation is granted, Turkey agrees in advance to renounce all her rights to the territory in favour of Greece.

GREECE

Turkey renounces in favour of Greece her rights and titles over Turkish Territory in Europe outside the frontier shown on the attached map, as well as over Imbros, Tenedos, Lemnos, Samothrace, Mytilene, Samos, Nikaria, and Chios, and certain other islands in the Ægean. In the zone of the Straits the Greek Government accepts practically the same obligations as are imposed in Turkey. Provision is made for a separate Treaty to be signed by Greece, protecting racial, linguistic, and religious minorities in her new territories, particularly at Adrianople, and safeguarding freedom of transit and equitable treatment of the commerce of other nations. Greece also assumes certain financial obligations.

ARMENIA

Turkey recognizes Armenia as a free and independent State, and agrees to accept the arbitration of the President of the United States of America upon the question of the frontier between Turkey and Armenia in the vilayets of Erzerum, Trebizond, Van, and Bitlis, and upon Armenia's

access to the sea. Provision is made for the obligations and rights which may pass to Armenia as the result of the award of the President giving former Turkish territory to her, for the eventual delimitation of the Armenian frontiers in Turkey as a result of the Arbitration and of the Armenian frontiers with Georgia and Azerbaijan, failing direct agreement on the subject by the three States, and for a separate Treaty to be signed by Armenia protecting racial, linguistic, and religious minorities, and safeguarding freedom of transit and equitable treatment for the commerce of other nations.

SYRIA AND MESOPOTAMIA

Syria and Mesopotamia are provisionally recognised by the High Contracting Parties as independent States in accordance with Article 22 of the Covenant of the League of Nations, subject to the tendering of administrative advice and assistance by a Mandatory until they are able to stand alone. The boundaries of the States and the selection of mandatories will be fixed by the Principal Allied Powers.

PALESTINE

By the application of the provisions of Article 22 of the Covenant, the administration of Palestine is also entrusted to a Mandatory. The selection of the Mandatory and the determination of the frontiers of Palestine will be made by the Principal Allied Powers. The declaration originally made on November 2, 1917, by the British Government, and adopted by the other Allied Governments, in favour of a national home for the Jewish people in Palestine is re-affirmed and its terms cited in the Treaty. Provision is also made for a special Commission, with a chairman appointed by the League of Nations, to study and regulate all questions and claims relating to the different religious communities in Palestine.

The terms of the Mandates will be drafted by the Principal Allied Powers and submitted to the Council of the League of Nations for approval.

HEDJAZ

Turkey, in accordance with the action already taken by the Allied Powers, recognizes the Hedjaz as a free and independent State, and transfers to the Hedjaz her sovereign rights over territory outside the boundaries of the former Turkish Empire and within the boundaries of the Hedjaz as shall ultimately be fixed.

In view of the sacred character of the cities and Holy Places of Mecca and Medina in the eyes of all Moslems, the King of the Hedjaz undertakes to ensure free and easy access thereto of Moslems of every country, desiring to go there on pilgrimages and for other religious objects, and respect for pious foundations. Provision is also made for complete commercial equality in the territory of the Hedjaz as regards the new States in Turkey and all States members of the League of Nations.

EGYPT, SUDAN, AND CYPRUS

Turkey renounces all rights and titles over Egypt as from November 5, 1914, and recognizes the Protectorate proclaimed by Great Britain over Egypt on December 18, 1914. Special clauses provide for the acquisition of Egyptian nationality by Turkish subjects, and their right to opt for Turkish nationality, for the treatment of Egypt and Egyptian nationals, their goods and vessels, on the same footing as the Allied Powers and their nationals, for the protection of Egyptian nationals abroad by Great Britain, for the renunciation in favour of Great Britain of the powers conferred upon the Sultan of Turkey by the Convention signed at Constantinople on October 29, 1888, regarding the Suez Canal, for the treatment of property belonging to the Turkish Government and Turkish nationals in Egypt, for the renunciation by Turkey of all claim to the tribute formerly paid by Egypt, and for the acceptance by Great Britain of Turkey's liability for Turkish loans secured on the Egyptian tribute.

The High Contracting Parties take note of the convention between the British and Egyptian Governments of January 19, 1899, and the supplementary convention of July 10, 1899, regarding the status and administration of the Sudan.

The High Contracting Parties also recognize the annexation of Cyprus proclaimed by the British Government on November 5, 1914. Turkey renounces all rights over the island including the right to tribute formerly paid by that island to the Sultan, and provision is made for the acquisition of British nationality by Turkish nationals born or habitually resident in Cyprus.

MOROCCO : TUNIS

Turkey recognizes the French Protectorate in Morocco as from March 30, 1912, and the French Protectorate over Tunis as from May 12, 1881. Moroccan and Tunisian goods entering Turkey shall be subject to the same treatment as French goods.

LIBYA, ÆGEAN ISLANDS

Turkey renounces all rights and privileges left to the Sultan in Libya under the Treaty of Lausanne of October 12, 1912. Turkey also renounces in favour of Italy all rights and titles over the Dodecanese, now in the occupation of Italy, and also over the island of Castellorizzo.

NATIONALITY

Detailed provisions are inserted in the Treaty for regulating the status of Turkish subjects habitually resident in territory detached by the Treaty from Turkey. These follow generally the lines of analogous provisions inserted in the Treaty with Austria.

GENERAL PROVISION

Under this heading Turkey recognizes and accepts all other Treaties and supplementary Conventions with

other enemy States, and with States now existing or coming into existence in future in the whole or part of the former Russian Empire, as well as the abrogation of the Brest-Litovsk Treaties, and of all Treaties, Conventions, and Agreements made by Turkey with the Bolshevist Government in Russia. Special provision is made for Turkey's acceptance of a scheme of judicial reform (on the lines either of a mixed or unified system) to be drafted by the Principal Allied Powers with the assistance of technical experts of the other capitulatory Powers, Allied or neutral. This scheme shall replace the present capitulatory system in judicial matters in Turkey. Clauses also provide for an amnesty by Turkey to Turkish subjects assisting the Allies during the war, and for the renunciation by Turkey of all rights of suzerainty or jurisdiction over Moslems who are subject to the sovereignty or protectorate of any other State.

PART IV.—PROTECTION OF MINORITIES

Turkey is to assure full and complete protection of life and liberty to all inhabitants of Turkey without distinction of birth, nationality, language, race, or religion. Special provision is made for the annulment of forcible conversions to Islam during the war and for the search and delivery, under the ægis of Mixed Commissions appointed by the League of Nations, of all persons in Turkey of whatever race or religion carried off, interned, or placed in captivity during the war, and for future agreements with Turkey and other States regarding reciprocal or voluntary emigration of persons belonging to racial minorities.

The law of abandoned properties, 1915, is to be repealed and Turkey agrees to certain measures of restitution and reparation, controlled by Mixed Arbitral Commissions appointed by the League of Nations, in favour of subjects of non-Turkish race who have suffered during the war.

These Commissions will have power generally to arrange for carrying out works of reconstruction, the removal of undesirable persons from different localities, the disposal of property belonging to members of a community who have died or disappeared during the war without leaving heirs, and for the cancellation of forced sales of property during the war.

This chapter further safeguards by special provisions the civil and political rights of minorities, the free use of their language, their right to establish, without interference by the Turkish authorities, educational, religious, and charitable institutions, and their ecclesiastical and scholastic autonomy. The measures necessary to guarantee the execution of this chapter of the Treaty are to be decided upon by the principal Allied Powers in consultation with the Council of the League of Nations, and Turkey accepts in advance any decisions that may be taken on the subject.

PART V.—MILITARY CLAUSES

In order to render possible the initiation of a general limitation of the armaments of all nations, Turkey undertakes strictly to observe the military, naval, and air clauses which follow.

The military terms provide for the demobilization of the Turkish Armies and the imposition of other military restrictions within three months of the signing of the Treaty.

Recruiting on a voluntary and non-racial, non-religious basis is to be established, providing for the enlistment of non-commissioned officers and men for a period of not less than 12 consecutive years, and stipulating that officers shall serve for 25 years, and shall not be retired until the age of 45. No reserve of officers with war service is to be permitted, and the annual replacement of either officers or men who leave before the expiration of their term is not

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to exceed 5 per cent. of the total effectives of commissioned and other ranks respectively.

Turkey will be allowed to maintain an armed land force to serve the following purposes: The maintenance of internal order and security; the protection of minorities; the control of Turkish frontiers.

This force will comprise:

- (1) Gendarmerie.—35,000 men.
- (2) Special elements intended for the reinforcement of the gendarmerie in case of serious trouble.—15,000 men.
- (3) The Sultan's Bodyguard.—700 men.

The gendarmerie is to be distributed over Turkish territory, which will be divided for this purpose into a number of territorial areas to be delimited by the Inter-Allied Commission which will be responsible for the control and organization of the Turkish armed force. In each territorial area there will be one gendarmerie Legion, the maximum strength of which is not to exceed one quarter of the total strength of the gendarmerie. Neither artillery nor technical troops will be included in the gendarmerie Legions. Provision is made for the collaboration of officers from Allied and Neutral Powers in the command and training of the gendarmerie.

The special elements referred to above may include mountain artillery and technical services, in addition to infantry, cavalry, and general administrative services. Not more than one-third of the total strength of the special elements may be allotted to any one territorial area.

It will be seen from the above that the total number of Turkish effectives—excluding the Sultan's bodyguard—is fixed at 50,000, which figure includes not more than 2,500 officers. Any increase in the number of Customs and forestry officials or urban police, or the military training of these, or of railway employees is prohibited, and no formations are to include supplementary cadres.

Military schools are to be reduced to one for officers, and one per territorial area for non-commissioned officers.

The armament, munitions, and material of war at the disposal of Turkey are limited to a schedule based on the amount considered necessary for the new armed force. No reserves may be formed, and all existing armaments, munitions, and stores in excess of the limit fixed must be handed to the Allies for disposal. No flame throwers, poison gases, tanks, nor armoured cars are to be manufactured or imported. The manufacture of arms and war material of any sort shall take place only in factories authorized by the Inter-Allied Commission of Control. Turkey is prohibited from manufacturing armaments and munitions for foreign countries, and from importing them from abroad.

FORTIFICATIONS TO BE DISMANTLED

For the purpose of guaranteeing the freedom of the Straits all works, fortifications, and batteries are to be demolished within a zone extending 20 kilometres inland from the coasts of the Sea of Marmora and of the Straits and comprising the islands of the Sea of Marmora, also the islands of Lemnos, Imbros, Samothrace, Tenedos, and Mytilene.

The construction of similar works or of roads or railways suitable for the rapid transport of mobile batteries is forbidden; France, Great Britain, and Italy have the right to prepare for demolition any existing roads and railways which might be utilized to this end, and to maintain such military forces within the zone as they may consider necessary; otherwise the zone is not to be used for military purposes. This provision does not exclude the employment of forces of Greek and Turkish gendarmerie which will be under the Inter-Allied Command of the forces of occupation, nor the presence of the Sultan's Body-guard.

NAVAL

The naval clauses provide for the surrender of all Turkish warships with the exception of a few small lightly armed vessels which may be retained for police and fishery duties.

Turkey is forbidden to construct or acquire any surface warships other than those required to replace the units allowed for police and fishery duties, and is also forbidden to construct or acquire any submarine, even for commercial purposes. Vessels which have been in use as transports and fleet auxiliaries and which can be converted to commercial use are to be disarmed and treated as other merchant vessels.

Warships under construction, including submarines, are to be broken up, except such surface warships as can be completed for commercial purposes, and the material arising from the breaking up is only to be used for purely industrial purposes. All naval war material and munitions, except such as are allowed for the use of the police and fishery vessels, are to be surrendered, and their manufacture in Turkish territory is forbidden.

A certain number of the officers and men from the late Turkish Navy may be retained for providing the *personnel* of the police, fishery, and signal services; the remainder is to be demobilized, and no other naval forces are to be organized in Turkey.

The *personnel* for the police and fishery services is to be recruited on a voluntary and long-service basis.

The W/T stations in the zone of the Straits are to be surrendered, and neither Turkey nor Greece will be permitted to build W/T stations in the zone.

A Naval Commission, composed of representatives of the principal Allied Powers, will be appointed to exercise supervision as long as may be necessary to ensure the above conditions being complied with.

AIR

The air clauses provide that no military or naval air forces are to be maintained by Turkey; that the entire Turkish Air Force *personnel* is to be demobilized within two months; and that the aircraft of the Allied Powers are to have freedom of passage over and transit and landing throughout Turkish territory until the complete evacuation of Turkey by the Allies.

The manufacture, importation, and exportation of aircraft or their component parts in Turkish territory during six months following the coming into force of the Treaty is forbidden. All military and naval aircraft (including dirigibles) either complete or in process of manufacture, assembling, or repair, all aeronautical material, armament, munitions, and instruments are to be delivered to the principal Allied Powers within three months from the signing of the Treaty. The air navigation clauses follow the lines of those in the other Peace Treaties.

INTER-ALLIED COMMISSIONS

These clauses provide that the military, naval, and air clauses of the Treaty are to be executed under the control of military, naval, and aeronautical Inter-Allied Commissions of which the upkeep and expenditure are to be borne by Turkey.

With the exception of the special section of the Military Inter-Allied Commission of Control and Organization, which is to supervise the control, organization, and distribution of the new Turkish armed force, these Commissions will cease to operate when their work is completed. This section is to operate for a period of five years from the signing of the Treaty. At the end of this period the principal Allied Powers are to decide whether the activities of the Commission shall continue.

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Representatives from each of the three Commissions will be appointed to control jointly the measures to be taken with regard to safeguarding the zone of the Straits.

GENERAL

General articles provide for certain portions of the Armistice of October 30, 1918, to remain in force.

No part is to be taken by Turkey nor by any individual Turk in the military, naval, and aeronautical concerns of any foreign nation, and the Allied Powers undertake that they will not employ any Turkish national in this connexion. A special provision is made allowing France the right to recruit for the Foreign Legion in accordance with French Military Law.

PART VI.—PRISONERS OF WAR

Turkish prisoners of war and interned civilians are to be repatriated without delay at the cost of the Turkish Government. Those under sentence for offences against discipline committed before January 1, 1920, are to be repatriated, without regard to their sentence, but this provision does not apply in the case of offences other than those against discipline.

The Allies have the right to deal at their own discretion with Turkish nationals who do not desire to be repatriated, and all repatriation is conditional upon the immediate release of any Allied subjects still in Turkey. The Turkish Government is to afford facilities to Commissions of Inquiry in collecting information in regard to missing prisoners of war, in imposing penalties on Turkish officials who have concealed Allied nationals, and in establishing criminal acts committed by Turks against Allied nationals. The Turkish Government is to restore all property belonging to Allied prisoners.

GRAVES

These clauses provide that the Turkish Government is to transfer to the British, French, and Italian Governments respectively rights of ownership over the ground in Turkey in which are situated the graves of their soldiers and sailors and over the land required for cemeteries, or for providing access to cemeteries. The Greek Government undertakes to fulfil the same obligation so far as concerns the portion of the zone of the Straits placed under its sovereignty.

Within six months from the coming into force of the Treaty the British, French, and Italian Governments will respectively notify to the Turkish and Greek Governments the land which is to be transferred to them. The said land will include, in particular, certain areas in the Gallipoli Peninsula. The Government in whose favour the transfer is made will not allow the land to be employed for any purpose other than that to which it is dedicated, and the shore is not to be employed for any military, marine, or commercial purpose.

If compulsory acquisition of the land is necessary it is to be effected by and at the cost of the Turkish or Greek Governments, who will not subject the land to any form of taxation. They will undertake to maintain all roads leading to the land, give free access to all persons desirous of visiting the graves, and afford facilities for the requirements of the staff engaged in duties in connexion with the cemeteries. The provisions do not affect the Turkish or Greek sovereignty over the transferred land, and these Governments are to take the necessary measures to punish any act of desecration of cemeteries or graves.

The Allies and the Turkish Government are to respect and maintain the graves of soldiers and sailors buried in their territory, and to recognize and assist any Commissions appointed by the Allies in connexion with them. There is to be a reciprocal exchange of information as to dead prisoners and their graves.

PART VII.—PENALTIES

Military tribunals are to be set up by the Allies to try persons accused of acts of violation of the laws and customs of war and the Turkish Government is to hand over all persons so accused. The Governments of States to which former Turkish territory is assigned by the Treaty are to act similarly in the case of persons accused of acts against the laws and customs of war who are in the territory or at the disposal of such States. The accused are to be entitled to name their own counsel, and the Turkish Government is to undertake to furnish all documents and information the production of which may be necessary.

The Turkish Government undertakes to surrender to the Allies persons responsible for the massacres committed during the war on the territory of the former Turkish Empire, the Allies reserving the right to designate the tribunal to try such persons or to bring the accused before a tribunal of the League of Nations competent to deal with the said massacres if such a tribunal has been created by the League in sufficient time.

PART VIII.—FINANCIAL CLAUSES

This part of the Treaty begins by a declaration reproduced from the Treaties already signed by Germany, Austria, and Bulgaria. Turkey thereby recognizes that in associating in the war of aggression waged against the Allied Powers she has caused them losses for which she ought to make complete reparation; nevertheless in view of her loss of territory the Powers will be satisfied with obtaining payment of the claims enumerated later in the chapter.

All the resources of Turkey, except revenues ceded or hypothecated to the service of the Ottoman Public Debt, are to be employed as need arises for effecting the following payments set forth in order of priority.

1. Ordinary expenses of the Allied Forces of Occupation after the entry into force of the Treaty.

2. Expenses of the Allied Forces of Occupation since October 30 in the territories remaining Turkish, and expenses of occupation in the territories detached from Turkey to the advantage of a Power other than that which has supported such expenses of occupation.

The expenses covered by the preceding paragraph will be discharged by annuities calculated in a manner to enable Turkey to meet any deficiency that may arise in the sums required to pay that part of the interest on the Ottoman Public Debt for which Turkey remains responsible.

3. Indemnities due on account of claims of the Allied Powers for reparation for damages suffered by their nationals.

The Turkish Government agrees to the financial indemnification of all the losses or damages suffered by the civilian nationals of the Allied Powers during the war and up to the entry into force of the Treaty.

The Powers in favour of whom territories are detached from Turkey, acquire without payment all properties and possessions situated therein and registered in the name of the Turkish Empire or the Sultan's civil list.

The Powers in favour of whom territories are detached from the Turkish Empire shall participate in the annual charge for the service of the Ottoman Public Debt.

The Governments of the States of the Balkan Peninsula and the newly created States in Asia shall give adequate guarantees for the payment of the share which falls to them. The distribution of these annual charges is to be made in proportion to the average revenue of the transferred territory in relation to the total revenues of Turkey during the three years preceding the Balkan war.

The same methods are to be applied for the calculation of the charges affected to the service of the Ottoman Public Debt, allotted to the Powers who have acquired Turkish territory as a result of the Balkan wars.

FINANCIAL CONTROL

A Financial Commission composed of a representative of each of the interested Allied Powers, France, Great Britain, and Italy, to whom is added a Turkish representative in a consultative capacity, is created in Turkey with a view to take such measures as the Commission may judge most suitable for restoring Turkish finances. Its principal functions are the following:

Preliminary examination of Turkish budgets, which may not be applied without its approval;

Supervision over the execution of the budgets and financial laws and regulations of Turkey;

The termination of the measures to be taken with a view to improving the Turkish currency.

Further, the Turkish Government may not establish any new form of taxation, modify its customs system, or contract any internal or external loan without the consent of the Financial Commission.

The consent of the Commission is equally required for the grant of new concessions in Turkey by the Turkish Government.

A clause provides that ultimately the Financial Commission may be substituted for the Council of the Debt, as regards the administration of the conceded revenues. This substitution shall be decided by the Governments of France, Great Britain, and Italy, by a majority and after consulting the bond-holders, and this decision shall be taken at least six months before the expiration of the powers of the Council of the Ottoman Public Debt.

In particular, as regards the execution of the present Treaty, it shall be the duty of the Financial Commission to fix the annuities to be paid by the Turkish Government for the reimbursement of the expenses of occupation and the settlement of the claims for reparation due to the nationals of the Allied Powers, to determine the amount of the annuities for the service of the Ottoman Public Debt

to be placed to the charge of those Powers in whose favour territories are detached from Turkey, and to arrange for the disposal of the sums in gold transferred by Germany and Austria in execution of Article 259 (1), (2), (4), (7) of the Treaty of Peace with Germany and of Article 210 (1) of the Treaty of Peace with Austria.

PART IX.—ECONOMIC CLAUSES

Commercial relations between the Allies and Turkey will be regulated, generally speaking, by the Capitulatory Régime, which is re-established in favour of the Allies who enjoyed it before the war and extended to the other Allies. The rate of Customs duty is to be that fixed in 1907, *i.e.*, 11 per cent. *ad valorem*. Wide powers are, however, given to the Financial Commission set up under the Treaty to authorize modifications of import duties, the imposition of consumption duties, the application to Allied subjects and their property of taxes imposed on Turkish subjects and their property, and the imposition of prohibitions on importation and exportation. Such action can only be taken after six months' notice in each case to all the Allies.

The provisions with regard to the recognition of shipping documents and of the flags of new States, with regard to unfair trade competition, and with regard to pre-war multilateral and bilateral treaties, and with regard to the protection of industrial, literary, and artistic property follow the general lines of the corresponding articles in former Treaties of Peace.

As in the case of previous Treaties of Peace the Allies reserve the right to liquidate Turkish property in their territories and to hold the proceeds as a pledge for the payment by Turkey of compensation for damage to Allied property in Turkey during the war and the settlement of pre-war private debts. So far as the claims against the Turkish Government are not satisfied from this source

they are to be met in accordance with the financial clauses from any surplus available of Turkish revenues from time to time. It should be mentioned that in the case of territory detached from Turkey by the Treaty the right to liquidate is limited to the property of Turkish companies and does not extend to the property of Turkish individuals.

The Treaty contains provisions for enabling the Allies, if they think fit, to eliminate German, Austrian, Hungarian, or Bulgarian economic penetration in Turkey, by requiring the Turkish Government to liquidate the property of the nationals of those countries in Turkish territory and by themselves liquidating it in territory detached from Turkey. In both cases the general principle is that the proceeds of the liquidation shall be paid to the owners, except where the property was Government property, in which case they will be paid to the Reparation Commissions set up under former Treaties of Peace.

Special provisions are included in order to enable the acquisition of the property of Railway Companies under German control. In detached territories the disposal of such property will rest with the Government controlling such territories. In Turkey itself the Financial Commission will have the disposal of it, the price being fixed by arbitration. In both cases the proceeds of sale will be distributed by the Financial Commission to such neutrals as are entitled to a share thereof, the share of Germans, Austrians, etc., being paid over to the respective Reparation Commissions.

The complicated provisions of former Treaties for the settlement of pre-war debts through clearing houses have not been repeated, the only provision with regard to the settlement of such debts being one which fixes the pre-war rate of exchange for the purpose of the settlement of all debts between Turkish subjects in Turkey and Allies not resident or carrying on business in Turkey.

As regards pre-war contracts between Allies and Turks

the general principle is to maintain or dissolve them and to decide any question relative thereto according to the law of the particular Allied country concerned in each case. The detailed provisions relative to particular descriptions of contracts follow those in the preceding treaties.

Provisions are included in the Treaty for safeguarding the interests in Turkey of Allies who hold pre-war concessions from the Turkish Government. Concessions granted by the Turkish Government during the war need not be recognized by the Allies in detached territories, whilst other provisions enable new States placed under a mandate to put an end to pre-war concessions if thought desirable in the public interest on payment of equitable compensation to be fixed by arbitration. For this purpose, and for the purpose of all other economic clauses, Turkish companies which were actually under Allied control before the war are treated as Allied nationals.

PART X.—AERIAL NAVIGATION

Turkey agrees to accord the aircraft of the Allied Powers full liberty of passage and landing over and in the territory and territorial waters of Turkey, freedom of transit, the use of all aerodromes in Turkey open to national public traffic, and equal treatment generally in these matters with Turkish aircraft and most favoured nation treatment as regards internal commercial air traffic. Turkey also undertakes to establish aerodromes in localities designated by the Allied Powers, and the Allies reserve the right in certain eventualities to take measures to ensure international aerial navigation over the territory and territorial waters of Turkey.

States who fought on Turkey's side in the late war are debarred from these privileges and from the grant, without Allied consent, of concessions for civil aerial navigation, unless and until they become members of the League of Nations

or are permitted to adhere to the Convention of October 13, 1919, regarding aerial navigation. Turkey agrees to enforce the compliance by Turkish aircraft with the rules and regulations resulting from the latter Convention. The obligations imposed by this chapter remain in force until Turkey is admitted to the League of Nations or permitted to adhere to the above-mentioned Conventions.

PART XI.—PORTS, WATERWAYS, AND RAILWAYS

Turkey is required to grant freedom of transit and national treatment to persons, goods, vessels, rolling-stock, etc., coming from or going to any Allied State and passing in transit through Turkish territories. Goods in transit are to be free of all Customs or other similar duties. Rates of transport are to be reasonable, and no charges or facilities are to depend directly or indirectly on the ownership or nationality of the vessel or other means of transport. Provision is made against discrimination by control or trans-migrant traffic and indirect discrimination of any kind is prohibited.

International transport is to be expedited, particularly for perishable traffic. Discrimination in transport charges or facilities against Allied ports is prohibited.

The following Eastern ports are declared to be of international interest, but, subject to any provisions to the contrary, the régime laid down does not prejudice the territorial sovereignty:

Constantinople, from St. Stefano to Dolma Bagtchi, Haida-Pasha, Smyrna, Alexandretta, Haifa, Basra, Trebizond, and Batum.

The nationals, goods and flags of all States members of the League of Nations are to enjoy complete freedom in the use of these ports, and they are to be accorded absolute equality of treatment, particularly as regards all charges and facilities.

Provision is made for "free" zones in the above-mentioned ports, and adequate facilities are to be provided for trade requirements without distinction of nationality. With the exception of a small statistical duty, no Customs duties or analogous charges are to be levied in the "free" zones.

In order to ensure to Turkey free access to the Mediterranean and Ægean Seas, she is accorded freedom of transit over the territories and in the ports severed from the former Ottoman Empire. Turkey is also granted a lease in perpetuity, subject to determination by the League of Nations, of an area in the port of Smyrna, which is to be placed under the general régime of "free" zones.

Free access to the Black Sea by the port of Batum is accorded to Georgia, Azerbaijan, Persia, and Armenia; and Armenia is granted similar facilities in respect of the port of Trebizond, in which port she obtains a lease of an area on similar conditions to those which apply to Turkey in the case of Smyrna.

RAILWAYS

The railway clauses provide that, subject to the rights of concessionaire companies, goods consigned from or to Allied States to or from Turkey, or in transit through Turkey, are entitled generally to the most favourable conditions available.

Certain railway tariff questions are dealt with.

When a new Railway Convention has replaced the Berne Convention, it will be binding on Turkey; in the meantime she is to follow the Berne Convention.

Turkey is to co-operate in the establishment of passenger and luggage services, with direct booking between Allied States over her territory, under favourable conditions, as well as emigrant train services.

Turkey is required to fit her rolling stock with apparatus allowing of its being incorporated in Allied goods trains and *vice versa*, without interfering with the brake system

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Provision is made for the handing over of the installations of lines in transferred territory, and of an equitable proportion of rolling stock for use therein.

As regards lines the administration of which will, in virtue of the present Treaty, be divided, allocation of the rolling stock is to be made by agreement between the administrations taking over the several parts thereof. Failing agreement, the points in dispute are to be settled by an arbitrator designed by the League of Nations.

A standing conference of technical representatives nominated by the Governments concerned is to be constituted to agree upon the necessary joint arrangements for through traffic working, wagon exchange, through rates and tariffs, and other similar matters affecting railways situated on territory forming part of the Turkish Empire on August 1, 1914.

As a temporary arrangement, Turkey is to execute instructions given in the name of the Allies as to transport of troops, material, munitions, etc., transport for revictualling of certain regions, and re-establishment of normal transport.

Turkey is required to subscribe to any General Convention regarding the international régime of transit, waterways, ports, or railways, which may be concluded with the approval of the League of Nations, within five years.

TELEGRAPH AND TELEPHONE LINES

Turkey is to grant facilities for the erection and maintenance of trunk telegraph and telephone lines across her territories, and is to accord freedom of transit for telegraphic correspondence and telephonic communications coming from or going to any one of the Allied Powers. This correspondence and these communications are to enjoy national treatment in every respect.

Turkey is to transfer the landing rights at Constantinople for the Constantinople-Constanza cable to any

administration or company designed by the Allies, and renounces in favour of the Principal Allied Powers all her rights over the Jeddah-Suakin and Cyprus-Latakia cables.

GENERAL

Differences are to be settled by the League of Nations. Certain specified articles—*e.g.*, those providing for equal treatment in matters of transit and transport—are subject to revision by the League of Nations after three years. Failing revision, they will only continue in force in relation to any Allied State which grants reciprocal treatment.

It is provided that, unless otherwise expressly laid down in the Treaty, nothing shall prejudice more extensive rights conferred on the nationals of the Allied States by the Capitulations, or by any arrangements which may be substituted therefor.

PART XII.—LABOUR CONVENTION

Here follows the text of the Convention as embodied in the Treaty with Germany.

PART XIII.—MISCELLANEOUS PROVISIONS

Turkey recognizes Conventions made or to be made by the Allies as to the traffic in arms and in spirituous liquors and as to other subjects dealt with in the General Acts of Berlin of February 26, 1885, and of Brussels of July 2, 1890, and the Conventions completing or modifying these.

The High Contracting Parties take note of the Treaty of July, 1918, between France and the Principality of Monaco.

In a barrier clause Turkey undertakes not to put forward any pecuniary claim against any Allied Power signing the present Treaty, based on events previous to the coming into force of the Treaty.

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Turkey accepts all decrees, etc., as to Turkish ships by any Allied Prize Court, and the Allies reserve the right to examine all decisions of Turkish Prize Courts. Turkey agrees to supply the Allies with all necessary information regarding vessels sunk or damaged by Turkish forces during the war and to restore trophies, archives, historical souvenirs, and works of art taken from the Allied Government and their nationals, including Companies.

Special provisions are also inserted regarding a reform of the Turkish law of antiquities and the future treatment of archæological research in Turkey, the restoration of all objects of religious, archæological, historical, or artistic interest removed by Turkey during the war from territories detached from her, the surrender by Turkey of all archives, plans, land registers, etc., belonging to the civil, military, financial, judicial, or other forms of administration in transferred territories, the grant of access by Turkey, subject to reciprocity, to documents, etc., relating to the administration of Wakfs in which the Governments of transferred territories are interested, the recognition by Turkey of Allied judicial decisions since the date of the Armistice, the acceptance by Turkey of special measures to be formulated later by the Allied Powers, acting, if necessary, with third Powers, regarding the sanitary régime in Turkey and in the territories detached from Turkey and the sanitary control of the Hedjaz Pilgrimage, the enactment of the necessary legislation by Turkey to execute the Treaty, the obligation of Turkey to facilitate any investigation which the Council of the League of Nations may consider necessary in any matters relating directly or indirectly to the application of the Treaty and the accession of Russia to the Treaty on certain conditions after she has become a member of the League of Nations.

The Treaty, of which the French text is authentic except as regards Parts I. and XII., when the English and French texts are of equal force, shall be ratified and

the deposit of ratifications made at Paris as soon as possible. Various diplomatic provisions as to ratification follow. The Treaty is to enter into force as soon as it has been ratified by Turkey on the one hand and by three of the Principal Allied Powers on the other, so far as concerns those Powers who have then ratified it.



THE SOUTHERN SLAV AND HIS SEABOARD

A CURIOUS belief appears to exist in certain quarters that the claims of the Yougoslav people to a reasonable share of the Adriatic seaboard are founded solely upon a desire for territorial aggrandisement, and that they have no actual foundation in fact. This might perhaps be excused if the Serbs alone were concerned in the matter; though why a desire for access to the sea should be regarded as perfectly reasonable in some cases—as for example in that of the Bulgarians whose *Ægean* aspirations arouse universal sympathy—and equally inexcusable in others—namely, the Serbs—is a matter somewhat difficult to comprehend. But if one realises, as one is bound to do after a moment's consideration of the case, that for many centuries a certain section of the Yougoslavs has been intimately connected with the maritime traffic of the Adriatic, this point of view appears stranger still.

The traditions linking the Croatian people with the sea are very old. As far back as the tenth century, the Byzantine Emperor Constantine Porphyrogenetes, described the navy of the Croatian King Tomislav as being one of the most powerful of its time; and ever since then, the seamen of the Croatian coasts have worthily carried on these traditions. Moreover, in spite of centuries of foreign domination, Venetian, Turkish, and Austro-German, these men of the sea have preserved in a remarkable manner their national language, traditions, and ethnical consciousness.

It is a significant fact, and specially noteworthy in view of the importance apparently attached to the matter of language by Italian propagandists, that in all matters appertaining to the sea and seafaring, as well as to the life of the sailor and fisherman, the population of those coasts makes

use of purely Slav words, and the sailors and fisherfolk themselves, though often obliged by the exigencies of their calling to learn other languages in order to carry on their trade, yet among themselves speak only in the Serbo-Croat tongue.

No nation should understand the call of the sea better than the British, and those Yougoslavs who have been born beside the sea, whose livelihood depends upon it and who frequently meet their death in its service, possess the essential qualities and characteristics of the true sailor such as seafaring races like Briton and Breton lay claim to.

The whole stretch of Serbo-Croatian coast, lying between the Gulf of Quarnero and the Lake of Scutari, is populated by Yougoslav fishermen and sailors, comprising Eastern Istria, the sea coasts of Croatia, Dalmatia, Herzegovina, and Montenegro; and from the ranks of these men in past years the Austrian navy and mercantile marine drew its finest recruits. Even on the western side of Istria, and in the Gulf of Trieste, along the whole seaboard between Pola and Monfalcone, you will find Yougoslav seamen, though there is here a considerable admixture of Italians; whereas between the rivers Arsa and Boyana the composition of the population is purely Slav.

As the crow flies, the coastline of the Serbo-Croatians is about 600 kilometres in length, but its actual extent is considerably greater owing to the configuration of the land, which greatly resembles the coast of Norway. There are gulfs and bays without number, well protected from sirocco by the chain of islands large and small which hem in the blue waters of the Adriatic, and from the North wind, the "Bora," by the mountains which run down to the sea. Within this little seagirt world dwells a race of industrious, hardy fisherfolk and sailors, their lives as intimately linked with the sea as those of any Briton, their means of livelihood wholly dependent upon fishing and seafaring enterprises. Of the million and a half of inhabitants of this region,

97 per cent. are Yougoslavs; and the 50,000 or so of Italians, the majority of these being petty officials or small traders, are concentrated at Fiume and Zardar, comparatively few inhabiting the villages and small islands. Practically all the fisherfolk and sailors along this portion of the Adriatic coast are Yougoslavs, and according to the general verdict they are reckoned among the best in the world.

It is interesting to note that in the waters of Pelagosa—though that island is admittedly nearer the Italian than the Dalmatian coast, and such is claimed by the Italians—the Yougoslavs have a practical monopoly of the fisheries. The Adriatic is rich in such fish as sardines, tunny, and mackerel, together with crabs and lobsters, and the sponge fisheries on the coast are also celebrated. As a rule the various islands and villages on the seacoast specialise in one or other of these branches of industry, and the inhabitants are, generally speaking, among the most progressive of their race. Each commune has a good school, a fine church, and various social and industrial associations, and upwards of 500 co-operative societies are already in existence along the Serbo-Croatian seaboard. The Serbo-Croat language is universally used, and national sentiment is extremely strong.

Even if these links with the sea were not already in existence there is no reason why the natural desire of Yougoslavia for adequate outlets to the sea should not be satisfied. But, with an already existing maritime population whose interests are entirely bound up with sea-trading, it is still more difficult to understand the repressive spirit which would deny to the Southern Slavs what has been already granted to Poland, another great Slav nation of more than twenty million souls which, until the settlement of the Dantzic question, possessed no port on its own ethnical territory.

Yougoslavia has a great future before her, but adequate seaports are a vital necessity for life and development. In the Serbo-Croats of the Adriatic seaboard she already

possesses a race of hardy mariners who will be able to man her merchant ships. But ships are useless without good ports—and ports under the direct suzerainty of the flag of the Triune kingdom. Any repression of the natural seaward bent of the Yougoslavs will inevitably lead to serious racial unrest, deplorable and hampering to the best interest of the newly created kingdom.



GREEK CLAIMS TO NORTHERN EPIRUS

By "Ionius"

THE support which has been recently given by America to our reasonable demand for a recognition of the essentially Greek character of Northern Epirus has greatly encouraged those of us who for many weary months have laboured to place the justice of our claims before the eyes of the political public.

In view of the importance of the geographical position of Epirus—I do not separate Northern from Southern Epirus, since the two form one indivisible geographical unit, separated by the mountain ranges of Tomaros and Akerkeravnia from Albania, and by the Pindus range from Greece proper and Greek Macedonia—and of the strong Italian influences which, there is good reason to believe, lie at the root of the so-called "Albanian aspirations," I would ask the readers of the *BALKAN REVIEW*, which is always ready to allow a free discussion of thorny problems, to bear with me while I put forward for their consideration a few relative facts.

Northern Epirus is a province lying between Greece and Southern Albania, which formed up to 1912 the Turkish vilayet of Yanina. It did not include the district of Korytsa, which formed part of the vilayet of Monastir. It is an inland province, and its only good communication with the Adriatic Sea lies through the port of Santa Quaranta.

Strategically, Epirus occupies a very important position, since it faces the "heel" of Italy in the narrowest part of the Adriatic. For this reason, Italy, which has contested the hegemony of the Adriatic ever since 1878, has encouraged by every means at her disposal the growth of an

artificial Albanian nationalism in the province of Epirus. By this means she hoped to secure for herself a large portion of Albania when the time came for "spheres of influence" to be established on the Adriatic coast, and the present trend of events appears likely to grant her the fulfilment of her desires.

By a glance at the map it can easily be seen how important the strategic position of Epirus is to Greece. Greece must maintain a certain number of men in Thrace and Macedonia to forestall possible Bulgarian intrigues, and if Albania (or Italy, posing as the protector of Albania) were to declare war on Greece, the mobilisation of the Greek army would be rendered extremely difficult if Korytsa, which connects the main road between Southern Epirus and Greek Macedonia, passed out of Greek hands. The troops would have to come by sea from Previsa or Santa Quaranta, and long before they could be concentrated in the danger zone, Epirus could be invaded, either through Korytsa or by the well-known gateway into Albania through Telepini, and a decisive blow struck against Greece. Once isolated, the Greek army at Yanina would be powerless.

Furthermore, if Greece were to be deprived of Korytsa she would have to bow to any economic demands proposed by Italy, in the same way as, prior to 1914, Serbia lay at the mercy of Austria-Hungary. Greece cannot be expected to enjoy national repose until her boundaries are secured from foreign invasion, and until she is protected against the menace of economic domination by Italy, or for that matter, any other Power.

From time immemorial the only road connecting Epirus—one of the most mountainous districts in Europe—with Greek Macedonia, has run through Korytsa, whence it passes through the unique gap between the Pindus and Tomaros ranges—between, that is to say, the Lakes Ochrida and Presba. The trade of Korytsa lies almost entirely with Epirus, the commercial relations with Albania across

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the mountain ranges being almost negligible. Thus the union of Korytsa with Albania would be fatal to the trade of the whole of Northern Epirus, as the province would be cut off from its natural route to the East.

It must be added that, thanks principally to Austrian and Italian instigation and propaganda, a misconception concerning the ethnical character of Korytsa has arisen. The inhabitants, it is true, speak a patois in their own homes, but they are bi-lingual, they speak, read, and write Greek, and unless encouraged by foreign influences they would regard themselves as Hellenes.

In the year 1913, the Greek army occupied practically the whole of the province of Northern Epirus, including Korytsa, and was warmly welcomed by the inhabitants. Later, at the Conference of London, the Great Powers decided to transform Albania into an autonomous sovereignty and hereditary principality. It was, however, agreed that for ten years an International Commission should control the finances and administration of the new State, while foreign officers were to organise the gendarmerie. Under this arrangement the district of Korytsa and a part of the Epirotic coast was included in Albania.

The International Commission, which was set the difficult task of delimitating the southern frontiers of Albania, was informed that its inquiries were to be based upon the language spoken by the inhabitants in their homes; but at the same time the Commissioners were hedged round with so many restrictions that their liberty of action was considerably curtailed, and they were really at the mercy of misinformation, being quite at sea as to the true nationality of the people among whom they were sent. As most Epirotes are bi-lingual and speak the local patois and Greek with equal fluency, the difficulties of the unfortunate Commission may well be imagined!

Greece, it must be noted, was not represented on the Commission, but she voiced an emphatic protest against

the manner in which the Commission went to work, and specially emphasised the fact that nationality was not merely a matter of a spoken language, but also of intellectual development, education, and national consciousness freely expressed. She claimed, moreover, that the new frontiers should be fixed conditionally upon certain guiding principles being observed, namely—(1) Substantial guarantees for defence and peaceable possession; (2) constitution of only such territorial units whose economic improvement and development were possible; and (3) districts in which the population and civilisation were Greek to be grouped together in such a way as to prevent the inclusion of foreign and the exclusion of native elements.

The Commission did not pay much attention to the Greek protest, and went serenely on its somewhat casual way. It made a cursory survey of the situation which revealed many strong divergences of opinion among its members, and then proceeded to delimitate frontiers which by no stretch of imagination could be termed in accordance with the principle of nationality, but which were certainly in accordance with the wishes of the Triple Alliance. Linguistic zones were not respected, and the Albanian frontier was allowed to penetrate deeply into Epirus in such a way that it forcibly separated a Greek population from its co-nationals in Greece proper. The Greek Government was forced to promise not to lend any support to a possible uprising of the people—an event which the Commissioners, aware of the intense dissatisfaction provoked by their decisions, knew well to be imminent.

The Greek Epirotes, as was only natural, were deeply incensed by the unjust ruling of the Commission, which condemned them to a fate against which they hotly rebelled. Impelled by an irresistible national sentiment, the population rose in arms, and the 25,000 Greeks who had hoped to be included in their fatherland began to fight in Epirus. An autonomous government was proclaimed, with Argyro-

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castro as its centre. True to its promise, the Greek Government refrained from interference, and M. Venizelos lost much of his popularity in consequence, a certain number of his influential partisans joining the then insignificant opposition.

Korytsa had been evacuated in accordance with a promise made by the Greeks, and was left in the hands of Albanian gendarmes. After a struggle which lasted several months, the representatives of the Provisional Government, who were by this time recognised by the Commissioners as delegates of Epirus, were summoned to Corfu to settle the question of the government of the two districts of Argyrocastro and Korytsa. The terms of the settlement recognised "that the rebellious population was Epirote and not Albanian."

The very fact that the International Control Commission of Albania proposed and consented to direct negotiations with the Epirote revolutionaries (which negotiations resulted in the Protocol of Corfu, May, 1914) is a clear admission on the part of Europe that the Epirotes were Greeks and not Albanians, and that the annexation of this people to Albania was an act of injustice which called for revision. The subsequent action of the Commission in notifying the Greek Government officially of its decision is surely sufficient to show that the special interests of Greece in Northern Epirus were recognised; but, if further proof were needed, it could be found in the fact that in the Note referred to above the Powers term the population "Epirotes," and not, as before, "Southern Albanians."

In December, 1915, the district of Northern Epirus sent deputies to the Greek Chamber to ask for international recognition of their claim for union to Greece, with open election by plebiscite. This was followed by the Italian occupation, which in the first instance was alleged to be merely of a policing nature, but which actually became most repressive in character. So far from non-interference

with religion, education, etc., a system of compulsory Albanisation was introduced, and before long Greek nationality, Greek culture, and Greek education were all under a ban. In February, 1918, the Greek schools were closed and the teaching of the Greek language forbidden. Senior students who wished to prosecute their higher education at Yanina were even forbidden to depart from the occupied territory, and Italian and Albanian masters, whose educational bias and programme were anti-Greek, were the only instructors permitted to teach in the schools.

What excuse can be made for such a state of persecution, directed against a highly cultured and civilised people like the Greeks? It is true that no amount of persecution can dim the loyalty of the Epirotes, but for what reason should they be obliged to submit to an alien yoke, and be forced into the denial of their own nationality? There are advocates of an Albanian Northern Epirus who assert that the majority is an Albanian one, because it speaks Albanian and is descended from Albanian stock. As a matter of fact there are Moslem Albanian Epirotes and Orthodox Greek Epirotes. There is no clear distinction of race in the whole district of Epirus. Among the Moslems there is perhaps more pure Tosk blood, and among the Christians more pure indigenous Epirote, but on the whole they are much alike, and even language is no hard and fast dividing line, since if the Christians all speak Greek, so do most of the Moslems as well; and if nearly all the Moslems speak Albanian, the majority speak Greek in addition. As we have said before, the Epirotes are a bi-lingual race. It is neither race nor language which forms the real dividing line, but religion. Out of the 230,000 inhabitants 120,000 are Orthodox and 110,000 are Moslems. The adherents to the Orthodox religion obviously predominate, but even if the reverse were the case it has to be remembered that we are not dealing with numbers alone; culture, civilisation, possibilities of development and a conscious spirit of unity

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and nationality, have also to be taken into consideration. Writing in the *Contemporary Review* of May, 1919, Mr. Hilton Young says: "Wherever the country has been really free, the moral preponderance of the Orthodox element has always asserted itself in an immediate and determined movement towards union with Greece."

We might go back to ancient history in proof of our statements, but present-day political sympathies are a surer guide to actual needs. The autonomous Government of 1913-1914 was organised and controlled by Epirotes. Their language, race, faith, culture, and traditions all drew them closely in the direction of union with Greece, and the wishes of the people were overwhelmingly in favour of the adoption of Hellas as their natural protector. The Northern Epirotes were among the first to give to Greece the splendid educational institutions and cultural advantages she to-day enjoys; and these have helped to bind still closer the links between that province and the motherland.

The argument of the Albanians, that "the Northern Epirotes believe themselves to be Greeks on account of church influence," is in itself a practical admission that the actual desires of the Epirote population are for reunion with what is very truly their native land. Geography, three thousand years of history, a hundred years of struggle for union with Greece, cultural achievement, and ethnical preponderance, as well as crying economic and strategic necessities, all combine into one unanswerable argument. The problem of Epirus can only be solved by union with the Greek kingdom.



CUSTOMS CONNECTED WITH DEATH AND BURIAL AMONG THE ROUMANIANS*

By Mrs. A. Murgoci.

THE attitude of the Roumanian peasant towards death is not one of great fear; he talks quite calmly of "when I shut my eyes," and is even inclined to welcome the rest after his long toil. Care is taken that the proper arrangements for a fitting death are made, but the state of mind at death is not supposed to have any influence on the eternal future. There is a great deal of fatalism in the attitude both towards death and any other misfortune. It comes in an evil hour, "Ceasul rău," or it happened, "S'a întâmplat." Death, however, does not always come unexpectedly. It may be foretold by the howling of dogs near the verandah, by the hooting of owls in the chimney, by a falling star, even by the falling of a lamp or the spilling of the oil.

The attitude of the Roumanian middle-class towards death is often one of abject terror. Descended from peasants at most a generation or two back, the middle-class represents the extreme reaction against the physical hardness of peasant life, and its members consider that effort, exertion, and contact with the elemental facts of life are to be avoided whenever possible.

In sickness the patient, to whatever class he may belong, thinks that death may not be far off. The conception even of sickness is primitive. If a person is able to go about and do any work, he is well; if he is confined to bed, even

* Reprinted from *Folk-Lore*, by kind permission of the Council of the Folk-Lore Society.

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with the most trivial complaint, he is ill and in danger of death. Accordingly, even when a patient's life is in real danger, doctors will not in general tell him the truth for fear of alarming him. I know of tubercular patients who were given no chance of recovery because they were not warned of the seriousness of their condition.

The peasant when ill does not send for a doctor, but for a "baba," an old woman who tries to cure him by charms and incantations. The belief in the power of the "baba" to cause and cure all sorts of misfortunes, quarrels, and curses is universal among the Roumanian peasants.

If the "baba" fails to cure the sick person, he may call in a doctor, probably too late to be of any service. What the peasant believes in more than the doctor is the "popa," or priest, and the Sacrament. Owing to his faith, confession and the Sacrament often have considerable effect in improving his condition.

When a sick man has confessed and received the Sacrament he is "grijit"—taken care of, provided for. If he now dies, he dies in his religion. Not to die in his religion would be a terrible thing; a customary oath and one of the most binding is: "Să nu mor în legea mea" ("May I not die in my religion").

After the Sacrament comes the "adiată," or testament. This, in the case of illiterate peasants, is made by word of mouth in the presence of the whole family, also sometimes of a lawyer, as witnesses. "A lăsa cu limbă de moarte" ("To leave with the tongue of a dead man") is the expression used, and the wishes of the dead are always respected.

A most important thing is to ensure that the sick man should not die without a candle in his hand. This candle, like all candles used for ceremonial purposes, must be made of beeswax. Even if the sick man struggles and changes his position, the candle must be kept in his hand. "Âi ține lumânarea" ("To hold the candle") means that the person is on the point of dying.

If a man suffers much, a priest is called in to read prayers for him ("molifte"). If this does not ease him, his friends shift his position, putting him facing east. If he has done a wrong, the person wronged is sought, so that forgiveness may be obtained.

When the man is dead, a window is opened or a pane is broken so that the soul may fly out. Any mirrors which may be in the house are covered up. The eyes of the dead are closed by the most loved child. The priest is notified, and the church bells are tolled, so that people may know that someone is dead.

In certain localities, the men related to the deceased show their sorrow by going about bareheaded, even when going as far as the market-place. The women let down their hair, and begin lamenting the dead aloud. Words are said with a musical intonation, the words often constituting complete elegies of praise and regret for the dead.

In Macedonia, there are professionals who lament the dead for pay; in Roumania amateurs only are found, who lament "pour l'amour de l'art."

The dead man is now washed, sometimes for the second time only, the first being at his birth.

The water in which he was washed is poured out at the foot of a tree and covered with the "kazan," the vessel in which it was heated, for it would be a profanation to walk over it.

The face is shaven, and the nails are cut. In some places the parings are stuck into a ball of wax and kept as a keepsake. The body is dressed in new clothes, and the hands are folded on the breast; a long, thin, soft beeswax candle is taken, bent in and out to take the form of a cross, and put into the hands of the corpse. In the centre of the cross a silver coin is placed, usually an old coin no longer in use. The ring is left on the finger of married people, and an unmarried girl would be dressed like a bride and have a ring placed on her finger.

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The measure of the body is taken for a coffin either by means of a long reed or by a bit of string, care being taken not to measure off too great a length, as otherwise some one else would die. The reed is put into the coffin, the string plastered up over the door.

When the body is put into the coffin, the feet are tied together; they are untied when the coffin is put into the grave. The body, with the exception of the head, is covered by a white veil or shroud—the “*guilgiũ*” or “*pânza*.” The Roumanians have proverbs equivalent to our “To go on till the last gasp”: “*Pâna’n pânzele albe*” (“Until the white veil”), or “*Pâna’n guilgiũ*” (“Until the shroud”).

An eikon is usually placed on top of the shroud. Sometimes things used in ordinary life are also put into the coffin. Thus a shepherd might be buried with his crook and whistle. In the coffin of the mother of a family, dolls may be put to represent the children she has had.

In most parts of the old kingdom of Roumania, the corpse is kept in the house for three days, but in Bessarabia it is the priest who decides when the burial is to take place, and he may fix it even for the day after the death.

In towns—for example, Bucharest—long black flags are hung out at the gate-posts to show that there is someone dead in the house. Black tablets with the name of the dead person, in silver letters, are also placed outside, and it is an act of respect for anyone to go in and visit the dead. It is noticeable that one does not say “Good-day” (“*Buna ziua*”) in the house of death; it is the only instance of which I know when this greeting is omitted.

Candles are kept lighted in the room of death and prayers are said. The priest reads the Gospels, “*stîlpii*” (“pillars”)—*i.e.*, pillars of religion. The relations keep lamenting as much as possible; and especially at night there is a great gathering of people, called the “*priveghiũ*,” or wake. The corpse is watched constantly to see that no animal—

as, for example, a cat—should pass over it, for that would be a great sacrilege. A fire is often lighted in the courtyard, and visitors can sit either inside or outside. All kinds of games are played, and excellent opportunities for flirtations are afforded. There is a book which is always read on these occasions, “Vămile Văzduhului” (“The Toll Gates of the Spirit”), written by St. Vasile (Basil) the Great. This describes how down below is hell and up above is heaven, with twenty-four steps in between. At each step there is a devil and an angel, and they investigate the man’s record to see whether he ought to go upwards or downwards. Realistic pictures of these toll-gates are sometimes seen in peasant cottages.

The relations during this time will have obtained mourning clothes. The customs as to mourning are very severe for the middle-class. The women are simply swathed in crape, and the only relief to their black would be the powder and paint on their faces. Sometimes even the men wear black suits, and, instead of white collars and cuffs, they wear shiny black ones. The peasants are content with a black band round the arm, and as a sign of grief they do not shave. Some years ago in Bucharest a boy scout was drowned and was to be buried with full scout honours. His father, a poor old peasant, came up to us for the occasion, and we did our best to make him presentable. We coaxed him into a collar and a black tie, but not even the presence of the Crown Prince at the funeral would induce the father to do anything contrary to the peasant habit of remaining unshaven!

A custom that I have never seen, connected with the dead, is described by T. Stratilesco as rare.* Just before the funeral, a black sheep was brought into the yard: “At the rising of the stars the priest was called in; in his presence a hole was dug in the yard; the sheep, with burning wax candles stuck to its horns, was placed beside it, looking

* *From Carpathian to Pindus*, p. 295.

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westward, and whilst the popa was saying a prayer, the animal was killed, the blood being made to run into that hole, called 'ară.' The meat of the sheep was used for the preparation of the funeral dinner; the priest got the head and skin of the animal." The very common expression, "A da piela popii" ("To give the skin to the priest") takes its origin from this custom, and is a way of saying "to die."

As a rule, after three days the body is taken to the church beside the cemetery, and is carried out of the house as one would expect, feet foremost. Among the Roumanians, as well as in England, to leave the house feet foremost—"cu picioarele înainte"—means to leave it dead.

In Bessarabia, as they start from the house after the first prayers, the popa and the dascal, the popa's assistant, each receive a "colac," a small roll of unfermented bread, and a plate of food is brought that the popa may bless it. In other parts the "colaci" would be given after the burial.

If the distance to the graveyard is short, the body may be taken on a litter; if longer, on an ox-cart. In some parts of Moldavia and Bessarabia the body is put on a sledge drawn by oxen, even although it is summer-time; the reason for the use of the sledge being that the dead man may not be shaken and his long sleep disturbed.

In Bessarabia, the door of the house must be carefully shut after the dead man has left, otherwise someone else might die. Every time the procession stops and gospels are read or prayers are said, "punți" are given—that is, "colaci" wrapped up in handkerchiefs.

In all Roumanian countries the dead person is either carried uncovered to church, or holes are made in the coffin, so that he may see and hear what is going on. In Bucharest the corpse would not be exposed till the cemetery is reached. There the old custom is reverted to, and it is somewhat of a shock to the Westerner to see the body in full view, dressed in pretentious clothes—often visiting dresses or even ball dresses.

In villages the mourners go on foot; in towns, as in the West, there may be a long procession of cabs, but as the cross and banner and several trays with eatables are carried first, the whole procession goes at a slow walk. In towns the priests would come to the cemetery gates in cabs; afterwards they would walk as in the country. They are dressed in their robes, they intone prayers, and they each carry a large lit candle, round which a handkerchief is tied by the corner. In the extreme end of this corner the fee for the burial service is tied up, and the popa and dascal are often caught feeling to see what the coin is, whether, in the case of a poor man, it is a five-franc piece or a two-franc piece.

Handkerchiefs—in towns black-bordered ones—are given as presents to other mourners, and in Bessarabia the priest is sometimes given a bag when he arrives with the dead man at the church door. Both men and women form part of the funeral procession.

A service is held in the church; in Bessarabia this is sometimes in Russian and sometimes in Roumanian; but usually it is hurried over, for, as it is said: "He is dead in any case, and whether we sing or read or weep, he will not come to life again."

In Bessarabia, on arriving at the church, the first duty of the relations of the dead man is to ask the priest for the "cununița" and prayers for forgiveness. The "cununița" are strips of paper 17 inches by 2 inches, which are placed by the priest on the forehead of the dead man. They have a simple design in yellow round them, and three eikons or holy pictures—the Mother of our Lord, Jesus, and St. John the Baptist—and the words, "Have mercy on us." The object of placing the papers on the dead man's head is that he may be mindful of these three great helpers, and that they may take pity on him at the Last Judgment.

The prayers for forgiveness are read by the priest, and then the paper on which they are printed is placed by him

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on the breast of the dead man. This paper has a black border round it.

After the service the last farewell is taken of the dead. He is lowered into the grave by cords and also by two long "brîe," the woven belts worn by peasants. The belts used are then given to the gravediggers. Before the coffin-lid is lowered the priest pours down wine and olive oil and sprinkles earth, saying: "Fie-i țărîna ușoară" ("May the earth be light on him"). Over the grave, gifts may be given for the soul of the dead: sometimes a sheep, more often a hen—usually a black one. The hen is given to the gravediggers, so that God may make the sins of the dead man as light as are the feathers of the hen.

The funeral guests go home, and on reaching the house of the dead man they wash. This is obligatory; it is of the nature of a ceremonial washing.

At the funeral there are gifts of food for the soul of the dead—"colaci," rolls of unfermented bread, and "coliva," which is prepared as follows: Wheat is taken and the husks carefully removed from the grain, which is boiled with sugar until it is soft, but has just not begun to burst. Any remaining water is strained off, and the grain is put on a plate and sprinkled with grated walnut. "Coliva" both looks and tastes very good—it is not unlike the frumenty prepared in Yorkshire.

The great funeral feast, or "praznic," is held after the return from the cemetery. As many people as possible are invited, and tables are spread not only in the house, for the priests and chief guests, but also in the courtyard. The feast may even be served in two or three relays. The traditional dishes are "carne cu prune," stewed beef with prunes, and "pilaf," stewed rice with meat; but meat with cabbage or potatoes may also be given. Very little wine is drunk, and everyone when drinking begins by spilling some wine and saying, "Fie-i țărîna ușoară."

Other rolls of traditional form are taken to the cemetery; the priest goes to fetch them, takes some himself, and gives the rest to poor people and children. As the priest gets the lion's share of all the eatables prepared in honour of the dead, he is sure to be well fed whoever else may go hungry. The expression "Burtă de popă" ("The priest's stomach") is proverbial. Even the pigs and hens of the popa have obvious stomachs, for the pigs are fattened on "colaci" and the hens on "coliva."

After the burial a candle is still kept burning, incense burnt, and bread and water placed where the dead man breathed his last, for the soul is supposed to linger round the place of death for three days. Stratilesco says that after the three days the soul is supposed to find its abode above the door lintel, and accordingly a piece of linen is put for it to rest on.

After the first great death feast, the relations still remain under the obligation to make many others. Thus "coliva" is prepared and given away as "pomana" (feast in honour of the dead) on the 3rd, 9th, 20th and 40th days after death. On the first anniversary of the death, there is a religious service ("parastas") and a dinner. The guests at the dinner are usually in excellent spirits—the heirs have divided up the inheritance among themselves, and the widow, if young, may even have married again.

A small monument ("panaghia") is erected on the grave—the erection of monuments, however, is less a habit in Roumania than in England. The most characteristic monuments are the Troițele, crosses of wood with numbers of little crosses introduced at the sides, erected where some one has met with a violent death.

Dinners on the anniversary of the death are given for seven years in succession.

These "pomeni," or death feasts, have so entered into the habits of the Roumanians that the term "pomana"

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is now used for any kind of giving, the idea being that anything given away benefits the soul of some relation. Even the little gipsy beggars in the street say, "Faceți pomana" ("Make a death feast").

In Moldavia and the neighbouring districts it is the custom to dig up the dead after seven years, and on this occasion the last death feast is given in their honour. The bones are washed with wine, put in a smaller coffin and reburied. In towns the exhumation of the dead before the full seven years has passed is not legal, but in the country they are often disinterred after three or four years. The priests in Bessarabia have been in their element for the last few years; they are overburdened with work and pay, for not only have they an unusually large number of deaths to deal with, but they are now beginning to be occupied in digging up those who died in the earlier stages of the war.

In Wallachia it is not customary to exhume the dead, but permission to do so is given in special instances. Thus a husband had died and was buried in Bucharest, while his wife had died and was buried in Braila. Seven years after his death his son had him disinterred and his remains buried in the same grave with those of his wife in Braila.

In the case of the dead who are exhumed after three or four years only, it is found that those buried in calcareous soil or in water-bearing strata still preserve some semblance of life. The peasant understands nothing of natural causes; to him a corpse in which putrefaction is not complete is a vampire or "strigoï." These vampires are supposed to have their holiday on November 30—Hallowe'en. They rise from their tombs and walk about in their old haunts with their coffins on their heads. Garlic or the scent of incense tends to keep them away. It is supposed that some living people are also vampires, and go on Hallowe'en to join their brothers; but if found out they die. If a dead person is discovered to be a vampire, a stake must be thrust through his heart, after which he will not rise again.

Beside the death feasts for individual dead there is one great annual feast in honour of the dead in general—Sămbăța Mortilor (the Saturday of the Dead), the sixth Saturday after Easter, the eve of Trinity. On this day everyone gives away “coliva,” together with the dishes containing it, and vessels containing wine and water. The “coliva” is eaten, and the vessels are used in honour of the dead person mentioned with the gift. Visits are paid, more particularly by women, to the graves of their dead.

Saints are the only exception to the rule that “pomeni” cease after seven years; for there are yearly feasts, or Hramuri, in honour of any patron saint of a church or monastery. The people go to the cemetery with “coliva,” “colaci,” and “covrigi” (rings of bread). There is a church service, and the priest reads the “Pomelnicul morților,” that is, the prayer which begins “Pomeneste, domni în împărăția ta” (“Receive, O Lord, into Thy kingdom”). After other prayers and blessings, the people sit down at tables set out near the church and feast.

Water plays an important part in connection with “pomeni” and other customs connected with death. Thus, water is always given freely, “de pomană,” though the tip, or “bacșis,” habit otherwise flourishes.

A curious custom observed by my husband at Runcic, a village with a Vauclusian spring, is called “A duce isvorul morților” (to bring the spring to the dead). A woman, the sister, mother, or wife of the dead, goes to the spring and pours out several spoonfuls of milk on a napkin, saying, “May God receive into His kingdom my —!” (naming the relationship and the name). She puts the napkin into a half pumpkin rind which has been hollowed out; next she puts into it two candles arranged in the form of a cross, with all four ends lit. Then she launches the pumpkin into the spring and lets it be carried down by the current. Owing to the character of the spring, the pumpkins can be carried away in safety without dashing into

DEATH AND BURIAL AMONG THE ROUMANIANS

anything. Afterwards she comes back, and brings seven pails of water, one after the other, to her neighbours, as "apă de pomană," an offering of water for the dead.

Running water is supposed somehow to be able to carry objects to another world. Thus, on the Monday after Easter Monday, women put the red eggshells from Easter eggs into running water, so that they may be carried to the "Blajini"—good men living in some other world and ignorant of what passes in this. By means of the eggshells, these men will see that Easter has come, and they too will rejoice.

There is the well-known rain charm "Caloian," quoted by Stratilesco.* When there is prolonged drought in spring-time, women take yellow clay and make a model of a man that they call "Caloian." They also make a coffin, put him in this, cry over him, burn incense, and in short carry out fairly accurately the "griji" for the dead. Then they bury him near the well, singing:

Calojene-jene	Caloian, O Caloian,
Dute'n cer și cere	Go to heaven and beg
Să deschidă porțile	That the gates may be opened,
Să sloboadă ploile	That the rains may be set free,
Să curgă ca gârlele	That they may run like torrents
Noptile și zilile	Day and night,
Ca să creasă gârnele	So that the wheat may grow.

After three days "Caloian" is dug up and thrown into the river to provoke rain. On the day on which he is dug men do not work after midday, but spend the afternoon drinking and dancing.

* *From Carpathian to Pindus*, p. 183.



THE PROGRESS OF EDUCATION
IN GREECE

By D. A. Glinos,

Secretary-General to the Greek Ministry of Public Instruction

GREEK education has recently passed through a period of serious reconstruction. Under the Turkish dominion the Hellenic nation was plunged in abysmal ignorance; there were few really educated people, and these were for the most part priests, the Church alone, under the Turkish rule, serving as a refuge for public instruction. It was not until the eighteenth century that this condition of affairs became decisively modified, but during that period schools which were classical as well as ecclesiastical were founded at Constantinople, Smyrna, Cydoniës, Patmos, Yanina, Mt. Athos, Dimitzana, and in other Hellenic towns. But it must be emphasised clearly that primary schools in the true sense of the word did not at that time exist, the priests, who possessed some degree of learning, gathering the children together in the narthex of the churches, where they taught them to read from the holy books.

But after the liberation of Hellas, public instruction passed through three distinct phases. The first of these periods comprised the short space of time during which Greece was governed by Capo d'Istria, a man thoroughly inspired by humanistic ideas, notably by those of Pestalozzi, into whose theories he was initiated during the time of his sojourn in Switzerland. In view of the ruined and almost totally impoverished condition of his country, Capo d'Istria considered that an education of an essentially practical character was a vital necessity; but he proposed to postpone dealing with the question of higher education until a later period.

At a subsequent date, under the influence of the Bavarians who came to Greece with King Otto, Hellenic education changed its course again, and primary schools, higher grade classical schools, and the University of Athens itself, were all founded between the years 1833 and 1840.

Education was thus disseminated among all classes; but its progress, though steady, was not very rapid, this being largely due to the fact that the attention of the nation was almost exclusively directed towards higher education to the neglect of the primary schools. As really well-educated men were rare, they were able to distinguish themselves with great rapidity and obtain all the highest positions in the State. This condition of affairs naturally led the youth of Greece towards the classical Gymnasia, or to the University of Athens. The admiration of the whole world for ancient Greece helped to push the modern Greek student in the direction of exclusively classical studies, while the desire for social distinction through an education above that of the commonalty was largely responsible for the anti-democratic solution of the language question, the "docte," or pedantic tradition prevailing among the cultured people of that period.

During almost the whole of the nineteenth century, the predominance of opinion relative to the method of evolution of the Neo-Hellenic language was to the effect that an endeavour should be made to return to the forms of the ancient Attic dialect, or, as people said, to the "language of Xenophon."

For this reason, the second period of the development of Greek education, which culminated in the first decade of the twentieth century, was, in spite of the spread of instruction, from many points of view unsatisfactory. It was chiefly characterised by two faults: the poor development of primary education, and the exclusive teaching of the classical Greek in the secondary schools, which teaching was, moreover, limited to the ideas and formalism

of the grammarians. Such an education is no more favourable to the growth of the practical virtues than it is truly representative of the classics, or the true comprehension of the spirit of our ancient civilisation.

The third period of Greek educational development may be characterised by the effort which has been made in the direction of a radical emancipation from the defects of the past, that desire for reformation being the indirect consequence of the Restoration movement of 1909.

Deprived of the means of attaining to a decisive success, the educational Renaissance in Greece ran the risk of remaining merely an idea, an academic mentality, and such might have been the case had not M. Venizelos, the Mandatory of the revolution of 1909, by a deep study of the whole question, formed a just estimate of the sincerity of this Renaissance. The Liberal Government at once proceeded to draw up and present to the Chamber a long series of projected Bills, which may be summarised as follows:

1. Enfranchisement of the primary schools so that they should no longer be merely annexes to the classical Gymnasia; provision for adequate development; and obligatory attendance on all classes of society for a period of at least six years.
2. Alteration of the exclusively classical nature of the Gymnasia by the foundation of new modern Gymnasia.
3. Reform and enlargement of the administrative system connected with public education.
4. Measures for the provision of an adequate number of teachers to satisfy the requirements of every grade of school.

Bills bearing on these last two points were voted after the year 1914. The fall from power of M. Venizelos in 1915 put a stop to his reconstruction schemes for education, and subsequent events were such that in September, 1916, he found it necessary to place himself at the head of the

THE PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN GREECE

National Party and to proceed to Salonika. On his return to Athens, he put into application a decision arrived at in Salonika, which assured the intellectual enfranchisement of the whole Hellenic nation. This decision, which was approved of by the Chamber and afterwards became a law of the realm, had for its object the introduction of the vernacular tongue, known as "dimotiki," or popular, into the primary schools of Greece. The predominance of the "docte" tradition during the nineteenth century had not succeeded in stifling the natural vitality of the Neo-Greek language. The popular songs of to-day are composed in the vernacular. Poetry, after some fruitless attempts, definitely returned to its refreshing source, and the poet Solomos, during the Hellenic insurrection, dipped into that limpid fountain for the composition of his masterpieces; while the most famous contemporary Greek poets, Valaoritis, Drossini and Palamas, have employed the vernacular with great success in every kind of verse.

For the last thirty years, notably since the appearance of M. Psichari, a prose writer of great distinction, the influence of the vernacular has been making itself felt in a most remarkable manner, and the "dimotiki" has won ground from the "docte" tradition.

The primary schools were regenerated by the introduction of the vernacular into their curriculum, and in this manner the anti-democratic formalism, which so seriously injured the Greek elementary schools during the nineteenth century, was radically modified, and the primary schools of to-day will become the true basis of the educational renaissance.

Similar measures have been taken regarding secondary education, and the English schools having excited the admiration of the Greek educational system, a number of Greek students, *diplomés* of the Athens University, have been sent to England, and are now working there, some at Oxford, others in London, with a view to acquiring the

necessary knowledge for teaching in the proposed schools in Greece which it is hoped to found on the lines of the English Public Schools. If this scheme materialises, it will be largely due to the generous gifts of two "Evergetes," or national benefactors, MM. Koryalinos and Araigyros.

All this is but the first step along the pathway of the Greek intellectual renaissance. One of the main features in the programme of M. Venizelos is to give to his beloved country that element necessary to its progress—unity of language. It is the Greek vernacular which will shed its rays beyond the frontiers of Hellas, widened as they are to-day by national triumphs, spreading wide the Neo-Greek civilisation, new guardian of the peace and liberty of the East.



THE LAKE

By M. Beza

Translated from the Roumanian by Lucy Byng

THE sun had set by the time we reached the edge of the lake—a lake we had never seen before.

“Well, what do you say?” asked one of our companions. “To-morrow by midday, please God, we shall be at Preveza. Let us spend the night here.”

“Good,” we answered.

The drivers stopped the horses and began to prepare for the halt. They lifted down the bundles and the pack-saddles and took off the bridles; the horses, thus unburdened, were set free to graze. Then we spread our cloaks upon the damp grass and stretched ourselves out as best we could, one of us face downwards, another with his head on his hand, others with their faces uppermost, their eyes lost in the unknown blue, where the stars were beginning to twinkle. The night was calm, silence and peace prevailed. Only a few light clouds, like heaps of down, floated above in the pale light, now approaching, now receding from the moon. This was the only movement in the whole surrounding country—there was nothing else. Not a murmur, not a living creature; even fire-flies such as we had met upon the road were no longer on the wing. It was strange. We felt something ominous; the silence oppressed us; one would have said that evil spirits were hovering above us. When one looked closely the lake appeared to be dead, sleeping motionless beneath the moonbeams; but from time to time, quite suddenly, one could see it quiver, then ripples ran across the surface, the whole expanse of that sheet of water came washing up against the banks, breaking into little waves which rustled mournfully.

“Look! how the lake becomes agitated,” one of the

drivers whispered in my ear. "Just when you do not expect it, and without a breath of wind. And deep it is, so deep a hundred minarets put one on the top of the other would not reach the bottom. No one has explored it up to now. Fishermen will not come to it, and its waters know neither rod nor boat."

"But how is that?"

"I do not know . . . but there must be something the people fear, there must be something; there's a pool of the same kind on the Tomor Mountains, only its waters are darker."

And the man, without waiting to be asked, told us all he knew about the pool at Tomor in Albania, whither he used to wander with his caravan, a legend which was followed by others, and then all the drivers began to relate stories in low voices—old memories of the past, of their wandering life, spent for the greater part upon the road; adventures more and more wonderful, shadowed by phantoms, ghosts, and wicked fairies which haunt the cross-roads by night in the neighbourhood of lakes and springs.

Only Fani Mona, grizzled with years, sat somewhat apart and spoke not a word. He must have been absorbed in some particular thought, for a little later we saw him stretch over towards us and make a sign with his finger to his lips.

"Sh! be silent. Is this the place to speak of ghosts and such things?"

The old man glanced towards the pool, leaned over the edge, and placed his ear near the water; after listening intently, he said slowly and thoughtfully:

"Have you muffled the horses' bells?"

"Yes. Why do you ask?"

"Never mind. I only wanted to know." Then, rather as though he were speaking to himself: "I thought there were horse-bells ringing . . . but it is not so. Now I call to mind . . . on the road from Yanina to Preveza . . .

Yes, yes; this is the lake." Fani Mona twice made the sign of the cross. "Oh, Lord, great are Thy wonders!"

"But what is it?"

"Do you know where we are? We have chanced upon the Evil Pool . . . the Priest's Pool; you may have heard of it: this is it. People have told me about it, but I did not believe it. Now I see for myself. Hear how they ring. . . . And the water trembles, little whirlpools break the surface here and there; it glitters as though with the eyes of devils. . . . In the middle of the night they begin to ring and ring . . ."

"But what are they, old man, that ring?"

"The bells . . . do you hear them?"

For a while we waited with attentive ears. The sound of bells rose from somewhere, from far away, out of the unknown depths, ceasing for a moment to begin afresh, now clearer, now more faint, sounding as in a dream in the silence of the night.

We looked at each other amazed. It really was not an illusion. I thought of what the driver had said to me: "No one has explored it up to now. Fishermen will not come near it, and its waters know neither rod nor boat."

"What?" I asked. "They are ringing in the lake?"

"Yes, my lads. God spares no one; all are rewarded after their deeds."

The old man nodded his head several times and crossed himself. "Eh! Where you now see the lake, a long time ago, in olden days, there was a famous town, beautiful and rich, very rich. Such thousands of caravans came here from distant lands that everyone marvelled, not so much at the number of caravans as at the beautiful merchandise they carried through the world. Day after day fortunes here increased, and you know that, when money comes in, fear of the Most High departs and arrogance reigns; and in time the people grew wicked, so wicked that nothing remained sacred to them.

“There was at that time, among others, a priest . . . yes, a priest, who, after committing many deeds inspired by the Evil One, turned eyes of desire upon his daughter. . . .”

“His daughter!”

“It is as I tell you, my lads. A mortal sin for which there is no pardon. The girl realised it, and day and night she prayed to Heaven to save her from evil. Then one feast day the bells chimed, and the people crowded to church, a crowd richly clad; they went to amuse themselves and for no other reason. The priest was at the altar, and, prompted by his sinful heart, he had ordered the girl to be near him on one side. And as she knelt there, praying in the candle-light with her hands clasped, she looked so beautiful that the priest forgot the service, his sacred office, and that he was the girl’s father, and hastened towards her; but as he was about to lay his hand upon her a terrible crash was heard, and the church and the town, with everybody in it, was destroyed, and in their place arose this lake in front of us. And some of the people . . . who knows . . . perhaps all of them, were changed into ghosts, and they dwell in the lake to this day.”

In spite of ourselves we whispered: “They dwell in the lake to this day!”

“And the bells have remained—one of God’s wonders, and often at midnight they begin to ring of themselves.”

The driver ceased speaking. In the depths of the pool everything was reflected: the full moon, the sky, the bushes on the banks, the light clouds, and the stars—a host of burning lights glittered below, where one could see the church with open doors, with towers. . . . And the bells. . . . I think of them to this day; where could they be? For, indeed, they were ringing, ringing, those bells of long ago.

H Y M N O F T H E S O U T H E R N S L A V S

*Translated and adapted from the Croat by Madame
Elizabeth Christitch*

Y O U G O S L A V I A ! L a n d w e c h e r i s h ,
 L a n d r e n o w n e d i n s o n g a n d s t o r y ,
 T h y g r e a t r a c e s h a l l n e v e r p e r i s h .
 Y o u g o s l a v i a ! L a n d o f g l o r y !
B e a u t e o u s v a l e s a n d s t a t e l y m o u n t a i n s ,
 N a t u r e ' s q u e e n t h y c h i l d r e n n a m e t h e e ;
L o v ' d i n s u f f e r i n g , l o v ' d i n s o r r o w ,
 N o w a f r e e l a n d w e p r o c l a i m t h e e !

S k i e s s e r e n e , s e r e n e o u r b o s o m s ;
 T w i l i g h t s s o f t t h a t l o v e e n h a n c e s ;
S u m m e r s w a r m , a n d h e a r t s s t i l l w a r m e r ;
 S p a r k l i n g w a t e r s ; s p a r k l i n g g l a n c e s ;
M a s s i v e h i l l s , a n d s t a l w a r t m a n h o o d ;
 R o s y v i n t a g e , r o s y f a c e s ;
G i a n t s t o r m s a n d g i a n t h e r o e s ;
 S u c h a r e o u r l a n d ' s g i f t s a n d g r a c e s !

S w i n g i n g s c y t h e s , a n d s i c k l e s f l a s h i n g ;
 C r e a k i n g w a i n s w i t h c o r n a b u n d a n t ;
M o t h e r s s p i n n i n g , b a b e s a r o u n d t h e m ;
 L o ! t h e l a n d o f w e a l t h r e d u n d a n t !
C a t t l e g r a z i n g ; s h e p h e r d s p i p i n g ;
 T h r o u g h t h e d u s k t h e n o t e s a r e t h r i l l i n g ;
O l d a n d y o u n g g o t o w a r d s t h e h o m e s t e a d ;
 S i m p l e j o y s t h e i r s o u l s a r e f i l l i n g .

Torches from afar are gleaming,
 Love-lilt sweet to love-lilt answers,
 Melody from flute is streaming,
 Lively tambour calls the dancers.
 Soon the living chain is moving,
 Youth and maiden trip the measure.
 Such is life in Yougoslavia!
 Such our work, and such our pleasure!

* * * * *

Whence that cloud the scene obscuring?
 Wherefore shriek of grief appalling?
 Are we slaves or are we freemen?
 Who on tragic death is calling?
 War, O Brothers! War heroic!
 Shoulder gun! Our country needs us.
 Saddle horse and rush to battle!
 Still our flag to victory leads us!

Now the storm has spent its fury,
 Dawn appears, the gloom to banish,
 Sorrow flies, and peace returns,
 Justice triumphs; tyrants vanish.
 Dry your tears, O lonely mother!
 He who loses life shall save it.
 As a Slav and as a hero,
 He for freedom gladly gave it.

Gentle Sava, swift Morava,
 Mighty Danube, flanked with towers,
 Tell it not to all creation
 That your fertile banks are ours!
 While the sun shines on our meadows,
 While our peaks still echo thunder,
 While our dead sleep in their graveyards,
 Southern Slavs no more shall sunder!

LOVES

By Kostas Palamas

SOME people love things modest and things small,
And like to feed in cages little birds;
They deck themselves with garden violets
And drink the singing waters of the brooks.

Others delight in tales told by the embers
Of the home hearth, or listen to the songs
Of the night birds with rapture; others, slaves
Of a great pain, burn incense to the stars
Of beauty. And some thirst for the forest shades
And for a nacreous dawn, and for a sunset
Dipped in red blood, a barren wilderness
Light burned. But thee no love with nature binds;
And where the heavens mingle with the sea,
A path thou seekest for a sphere beyond.



BOOKS ON THE NEAR EAST

ALBANIA PAST AND PRESENT. By Constantine Chekrezi. London: Macmillan and Co.

Mr. Chekrezi's book, though unevenly arranged, has the merit of coming direct from one who is himself a native of that much misunderstood country, Albania, and, as such, his exposition of the history and characteristics of the people of his own land have therefore a direct and authoritative appeal to all those interested in Balkan problems. The question of the future of Albania is a thorny one, which can neither be ignored nor postponed, inextricably involved as it is with matters of vital importance to the Balkan countries and with the control of the Adriatic Sea. But it has also another aspect, too often ignored: the fact that Albania possesses interests and aspirations of her own, quite independent of any connection with the closely interwoven policies of the other Balkan States, and that these aspirations must be carefully considered and rightly appreciated by the Supreme Council if a permanent peace in South-Eastern Europe is to be attained.

Bismarck, at the Congress of Europe in 1878, declared that "there was no such thing as Albanian nationality"—a mistake the Albanians forced him to recognise in the following year; and the description of the evolution of this sense of nationality since that date, together with the account of the brief and troubled history of the independent principality of Albania as it was created in 1913 by the Conference of Ambassadors, forms not the least interesting part of Mr. Chekrezi's book. It is noteworthy that Yougoslavia, one of Albania's neighbours, favours (for many good reasons) the creation of an autonomous and neutralised Albania, with which it is hoped that friendly relations might be maintained. The growth of Italian influence in the Balkans is not unnaturally looked upon with disfavour by Yougoslavia; but Signor Nitti in a recent speech declared that Italy only desired the independence and development of the Albanian people. If these words were not meant merely for "home consumption" it is evident that both the Governments of Rome and Belgrade find their respective interests in the independence of Albania; and it should not therefore be admissible for the other Powers to insist upon the annihilation of the nationality of a people for the mere satisfaction of making gifts of Albanian territories to countries which

declare that they do not consider it in their own interest to accept them.

The Great Powers have not appeared to advantage over this question. After the settlement at the close of the Balkan War the Powers laid down as a contention that Albania was to be an independent State; yet the partition scheme of the ill-advised Treaty of London appears to have survived after the rest of the Treaty was regarded as discredited. In point of fact, the size of Albania, or, indeed, its very existence, has always depended upon the vagaries of the Powers, without any very marked consideration for the wishes of the inhabitants of that country. Nevertheless, if we desire that the question shall be settled upon a just and enduring basis, we must decide once and for all whether the Albanians are to be looked upon as a nation or merely as a "geographical expression." A close examination of what lies beneath the surface cannot but lead to the inevitable conclusion that here is an adolescent nation, needing guardianship, perhaps, but one whose heritage must be preserved, and that even if we cannot accept uncritically the actual frontiers as laid down by the diplomatists of 1913, nevertheless the principle of nationality must be maintained.

The promotion of good relations between Albania and her other Balkan neighbours is of more importance in the long run than any local advantages in the arrangement of frontiers; but if the question of a mandate is to enter in, then matters must be so arranged that the mandate cannot transform itself into a protectorate, and the League of Nations must be an effective party to the relationship, fixing a time-limit beyond which the guardianship shall not extend.

THE RUSSIAN REPUBLIC. By Colonel Malone, M.P. London: George Allen and Unwin, Ltd. 2s. 6d.

Colonel Malone states in his Preface that he aims at presenting "a true picture of the condition of affairs in the world's newest republic as shown to the outside world by its rulers," and the impressions he received on his short trip to Soviet Russia last autumn are undoubtedly those which its rulers wished to convey to him. It is easy to imagine what a Godsend amateur investigators are to the astute Commissaries, the only weak spot in their usefulness being an ultra-conscientiousness in interpreting to the British public what, in the rapid march of Soviet policy, may, by the time they have returned to their native land, have been already relegated to limbo.

Thus, it is unfortunate from his point of view that since Colonel

Malone investigated the industrial conditions of Russia last autumn the Bolshevik rulers have been obliged to abandon their communistic principles, which have proved absolutely impracticable, and that they have reverted to the old methods and measures they set out to abolish. Co-partnership having proved a complete failure, the Commissaries returned of necessity to the system of piecework; indeed, they have gone further, and by the institution of bonuses they have succeeded, it is true, in speeding up output, but at the cost of exploiting the worker.

The plan of placing the manual worker on the same level as the brain worker has proved equally impracticable, while the restrictions upon the "inviolable personal liberty" of the individual far surpass in severity those of the old regime. Lenin himself recently denounced the Workers' Councils, going so far as to accuse them of being the real cause of the dislocation of Russian industry; but his solutions—the administration of labour by specially appointed technical experts and the militarisation of labour—have not, we understand, been received with any special warmth by the Russian Trades Unions.

The elaborate provisioning schemes of the Soviet Government have so far broken down that Moscow workers can only obtain on their food cards one-fifth of the calories considered as an irreducible minimum, and they must purchase the remainder in the open market, where prices are prohibitive. Meanwhile, the value of the Russian currency continues steadily to sink, the (Lenin) 1,000 rouble note being only worth R. 2.50 in gold, although floods of paper money are still being poured out.

As regards the raw materials which the Soviet Commissaries hold out as a bribe for British recognition, M. Kopp was obliged recently to confess, in Berlin, that they exist only in such faraway regions as Siberia, Turkestan, and South Ural, and under present transport conditions may take years to transport, the one bright spot being that the rivers are now navigable, which may afford a little relief to the railways. Nevertheless, it is impossible to say that Soviet Russia, as interpreted by its own Commissaries, is either the stable or the prosperous State Colonel Malone would have us believe, and until such time as the impartial Commission appointed by the League of Nations shall have made its report, it might be as well if enthusiastic politicians were gently restrained from travel under the ægis of the Soviet Commissaries. Or if that proved impossible, perhaps they would consider the advisability of refraining from writing their experiences.

BOOKS ON THE NEAR EAST

THE SPIRITUAL RE-BIRTH OF EUROPE. By the Right Reverend Nicholai Velimirovitch. London: The Faith Press. 1s.

In the four lectures and addresses of which this little volume is composed, the Bishop of Žiča gives proof not merely that he is an eminent scholar and a notable patriot, but also that he is possessed of a thoroughly progressive outlook. His lifelong familiarity with the English language and literature, and his years of work in this country have, moreover, given him a peculiar insight into our national character and point of view. *The Spiritual Re-Birth of Europe*, the lecture which gives its title to this book, is perhaps the most interesting of the four, and was originally delivered in King's College before the Vice-Chancellor and other members of the London University. Here Father Nicholai gives a remarkable analysis of those forces, material and spiritual, which are contending in our present-day civilisation, and shows himself possessed of a true appreciation of the things of the spirit which have always been behind the development of the greatest movements in the intellectual world.

ENGLSKA GRAMATIKA. By Dragutin Subotić and Nevill Forbes. Oxford: The Clarendon Press.

This admirably written grammar of the English language is primarily intended for the use of the Serbian students at Oxford, of whom there are a goodly number; but it will also prove useful to English students of the Serbian tongue as a companion to the *Serbian Grammar* written by the same authors. Both Mr. Subotić and Mr. Forbes are authorities on their subject, and this work is written with conspicuous care. Particular attention is paid to the question of phonetics, and the intricacies of English pronunciation are most carefully dealt with. Numerous exercises are given, and the difficulties of each of the parts of speech are explained in detail. If one may offer a criticism, the omission of that vocabulary which was such a help to readers of the companion volume seems a slight mistake in view of its undeniable usefulness.

BOOKS RECEIVED

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